

**LITERACY AND SECOND
LANGUAGE LEARNING
FOR THE LINGUISTIC
INTEGRATION
OF ADULT MIGRANTS**

Reference guide

LITERACY AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING FOR THE LINGUISTIC INTEGRATION OF ADULT MIGRANTS

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This literacy and second language acquisition for the linguistic integration of adult migrants (LASLLIAM) reference guide, funded and supported by the Education Policy Division at the Council of Europe, is the outcome of four years of work. Its development was characterised by a continuous process of production, feedback collection and revision.

As part of this process, the authoring group collected valuable feedback from two rounds of consultation with experts from the Council of Europe. It also greatly profited from taking into account advice and suggestions from colleagues, researchers, teachers, language testers, academic institutions and associations.

Once the structure, themes and topics of the reference guide were drafted, a qualitative validation followed by a quantitative validation on descriptors and scaling took place, involving in total 831 participants, 31 languages and 28 countries. Statistical analysis, conducted by CITO, contributed to the validation of the scales/descriptors in their English version.

In the next step, the scales/descriptors were translated into six languages in order to enable piloting in various European contexts and specific languages with the aim to document the practical use of LASLLIAM. Thanks to the commitment of experienced institutions and practitioners, different kinds of teaching materials have been produced.

The ongoing process of disseminating the reference guide encourages others to use these materials in their learning environments and to collect feedback and evidence from teachers and volunteers, as well as from learners. They also serve as examples to invite other stakeholders to produce additional tools.

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FOREWORD

The Council of Europe has been actively promoting linguistic diversity since its foundation. A particular emphasis on migrant language teaching and learning was introduced by the Committee of Ministers as early as 1968,¹ and further strengthened by the establishment of the Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants (LIAM) project in 2006.

Language skills foster, among other things, social inclusion, access to education and employment. Within this context, non-literate or low-literate migrants have specific educational needs. They have to learn a second language while also learning to read and write for the first time or developing their basic literacy competences. Sometimes this may be in an alphabet or a writing system different from the one in which they may initially have learned the rudiments.

When it comes to language or knowledge of a society's courses, such needs are rarely taken into consideration, and this group of migrants is rarely provided with a sufficient number of hours of instruction to reach the language level required.²

That is why in 2018 the Council of Europe invited a group of experts to develop a European reference guide on literacy and second language learning for the linguistic integration of adult migrants (LASLLIAM), built on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the Companion volume.

This reference guide aims at supporting language educators, curriculum designers and language policy makers in their endeavour to design, implement, evaluate and improve curricula.

We trust it will increase the chances of non-literate or low-literate migrants finding a place in our European societies and contribute to their development, as well as their personal fulfilment.

Villano Qiriazzi
Head of the Education Department,
Council of Europe
June 2022

1. Council of Europe – Committee of Ministers 1968.
2. Rocca et al. 2020

INTRODUCTION

LASLLIAM WITHIN THE COUNCIL OF EUROPE POLICIES

The Council of Europe's mission is to promote human rights, democracy and the rule of law which underpin its policy together with an enduring concern for social inclusion, social cohesion and respect for diversity. In this spirit, the Council of Europe's actions in the area of language policy have aimed at mutual understanding and supporting communication through dialogue. In order to achieve these goals, the key function of language policies has been highlighted by two guiding principles: respecting linguistic diversity and giving value to individuals' language repertoires.³

The consideration of such aspects has led not only to the recommendations adopted by the Committee of Ministers and Parliamentary Assembly, but above all to the provision of reference resources for member states. Guides, materials and tools are all based on the acknowledgement of linguistic plurality and cultural diversity, concentrating on the development of and conditions for implementing plurilingual and intercultural education. This education is oriented to enlarge individuals' linguistic repertoires according to their needs, expectations and interests, aiming to sustain both the belonging of a person to their multilingual surrounding environment, and the linguistic tolerance of the whole society, thus preventing specific repertoires from becoming a sign of marginality.

Within this frame, learning languages is considered a value in itself; and appropriate teaching is a means to strengthen and ensure language rights and that equal access to high-quality education⁴ is ensured not only to the autochthonous population, but also to migrants. Therefore, the Council of Europe has urged member states to provide adequate language programmes.

The Committee of Ministers notes the importance of basing integration policies on the Council of Europe's fundamental values and, in particular, allowing migrants to develop their potential and participate actively in the life of the host country. The provision of language courses for migrants together with appropriate evaluation processes form part of this because, as the Assembly stresses, knowledge of a receiving society's language(s) facilitates successful integration. However, it is important that the language courses on offer should take account of each migrant's specific resources and needs and enable them to acquire, in particular, language skills relevant to their work.⁵

From this perspective, the Council of Europe was a pioneer in addressing migration issues with Resolution (68) 18 on the teaching of languages to migrant workers.⁶ Since then, and to a growing extent in the recent past, the management of migration flows and challenges, including linguistic challenges connected to the integration of newcomers into European countries, has been debated in an increasing number of member states. In consequence, the Council of Europe provided a structured commitment, on a larger scale and with a long-term time horizon, with the launch in 2006 of the Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants (LIAM) project. LIAM aims to support policy makers and professionals in terms of both practical resources and an ethical frame based on Council of Europe shared values. Accordingly, LIAM has increasingly focused on vulnerable groups of adult migrants,⁷ addressing, for instance, the linguistic support of asylum seekers and refugees with the Toolkit.⁸ In addition, LIAM has highlighted the need for tailor-made courses specifically targeted to migrants who are facing the complex and demanding task of learning a language while either learning to read and write for the first time (non-literates) or developing their literacy competences (low-literates).⁹

Literacy, as the capacity to deal with the written code of a language, is a fundamental right:¹⁰ access to literacy is strictly linked to "the right to protection against social exclusion" (European Social Charter, Part II, Article 30),¹¹ since the ability to use the written language enables someone to better perform everyday tasks and participate

3. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020b.

4. Council of Europe 1954.

5. Council of Europe – Committee of Ministers 2014.

6. Council of Europe – Committee of Ministers 1968.

7. Council of Europe 2020b.

8. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020k.

9. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020l.

10. UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2015.

11. Council of Europe 2015.

fully in the highly literate societies of Europe. UNESCO¹² has estimated that on a global level 750 million adults cannot read or write, which is a huge heterogeneous group. LIAM addresses those adult migrants living in Council of Europe member states, by pointing out two needs:

- ▶ to expand the horizon of the learning process, from (exclusively) second language to literacy and second language, which means two strands intertwined within a parallel single process; and
- ▶ to extend the concept of profiles, from (only) linguistic profiles¹³ to literacy and linguistic profiles.

In fact, various types of learners can be distinguished when taking into account backgrounds related to non- and low-literate adult migrants. Each type is characterised by a combination of features because individuals vary within a profile, according to their educational biographies: from those who are technically non-literate – probably the most vulnerable people, as defined by the Parliamentary Assembly¹⁴ – to the so-called functionally non-literate, according to the UNESCO definition;¹⁵ from non-literates with minimal ability to act in a second language, to low-literate adults with some ability to deal with speaking and listening in their second language. European societies need to take notice of these different profiles of social agents, and also the resources allocated for learning and teaching. An important shift has to be taken into account: from the generic, literate language user to the non-literate and low-literate migrant user to whom the authoring group of this work gives centrality.

In 2016, a group of experts proposed to the Council of Europe that they address the issues implied in this shift by developing a European reference guide for second language (as target language) and literacy learning of non-literate and low-literate adult migrants. In 2018, the Council of Europe accepted that this proposal was consistent with its policies and adopted it as a project. According to the target learners (see 1.4), the acronym LASLLIAM was chosen as a title: it stands for literacy and second language learning for the linguistic integration of adult migrants, in order to immediately convey both its full embedding within LIAM and its focus on literacy within second language learning environments.

Despite this focus on second language, this reference guide highlights the value of establishing literacy courses in migrants' first languages, as pointed out by language policy researchers concerned with linguistic human rights.¹⁶ It is coherent with the UNESCO recommendations to provide literacy instruction to adults in their mother tongues.¹⁷ Even if the recommendations do not mention migrants, they have inspired scholars and activists promoting the use of first languages, alongside target languages in adult migrants' education, taking into account also how the improvement of literacy in mother tongues can support the learning of a second language.¹⁸ "Contrastive" literacy, that is, using comparisons with first languages and mediation into first languages, has been taken into account in Chapter 3,¹⁹ and the use of first languages in literacy classes as an important predictor of success is considered in Chapter 2.

LASLLIAM GENERAL PURPOSE

Within the Council of Europe policies, LASLLIAM's general purpose is to present a reference guide for stakeholders involved in educational provisions for the particular learners described above. It aims to support language educators, curriculum designers and language policy makers in their endeavour to design, implement and evaluate curricula, syllabi and teaching materials tailored towards the specific needs of the target learners.

In this way, LASLLIAM contributes to one of the major aims of LIAM, namely "to provide practical support for the effective implementation of policy and to encourage good practice and high quality in the provision of language courses".²⁰ The relevance of LASLLIAM also becomes clear from the results of the 2020 Council of Europe–Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) survey on language and knowledge of society (KoS) policies for migrants²¹: less than one third of member states provide courses addressing literacy issues. Moreover, the survey highlights the severe consequences of this insufficient educational provision for non- and low-literate adults. This vulnerable

12. UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2015.

13. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020a; Council of Europe – LIAM 2020m.

14. Council of Europe 2014.

15. UNESCO 2017a.

16. ELINET 2016; Rinta 2005.

17. Benson 2004.

18. Minuz and Kurvers 2021.

19. Feldmeier 2005, 2009a.

20. www.coe.int/en/web/lang-migrants/home.

21. Rocca et al. 2020.

group of migrants rarely receives adequate instruction in terms of both hours of tuition and targeted teaching approaches, while very often they are required to pass a compulsory written test.

In strong opposition to such unfair and unjust imposition of language and KoS requirements,²² it is important to stress that this reference guide is not designed as a tool for developing high-stake exams (see 6.1.4). The abuse of a curricular instrument like LASLLIAM for the purpose of testing as a means of control of legal immigration to non- and low-literate persons would ignore the fact that these persons were being wrongfully denied their human right to education.²³

LASLLIAM intends to deal with these critical issues, as it represents an answer given by the Council of Europe to the need for tools for inclusive and tailored learning. Its aims also align with Goal 4 of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development²⁴ to preserve the human right to education by promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all, including – or rather, starting with – the most vulnerable people.

LASLLIAM is therefore a European instrument to trace and foster the development of non-literate and low-literate migrants, as well as to design and improve learning environments offered to literacy and second language learners. The present work aims to sustain the alignment between curriculum, teaching and assessment, thereby supporting its recognition across Europe. On this basis, stakeholders are invited to use LASLLIAM to reduce the possible fragmentation of a learning process that might occur across various countries, according to the mobility of migrants (see 6.3).

The reference guide presents:

- ▶ a definition of target users and target learners (see Chapter 1);
- ▶ a rationale related to the development of the descriptors (see Chapter 2);
- ▶ principles for teaching literacy and second language (see Chapter 3);
- ▶ descriptors' scales and tables (see Chapter 4);
- ▶ aspects of curriculum design at the macro, meso and micro levels (see Chapter 5);
- ▶ recommendations on assessment procedures and for the development of assessment tools within the learning environment (see Chapter 6).

22. Rocca et al. 2020.

23. United Nations General Assembly 1948.

24. United Nations General Assembly 2015.

Chapter 1

THE LASLLIAM REFERENCE GUIDE: AIMS, USERS AND LEARNERS

This chapter starts with an explanation about why a European literacy and second language reference guide is needed to build on the CEFR Companion volume. It points out consistencies and differences between the LASLLIAM reference guide and the CEFR Companion volume, and defines the aims and users for whom LASLLIAM is intended. It lays out the visions of literacy and literacy learning to which LASLLIAM refers and outlines prototypical characteristics of literacy and second language learners.

1.1. LASLLIAM LINKS TO THE CEFR AND THE CEFR COMPANION VOLUME

The LASLLIAM descriptors build on the CEFR²⁵ and the CEFR Companion volume²⁶ below and up to the A1 level for adult migrants, with special attention to literacy learners (non- and low-literate adults, very often called LESLLA learners).²⁷

The CEFR was launched in 2001 with the aim of facilitating co-operation between European countries in the field of foreign language instruction, supporting mutual recognition of language qualifications and assisting curriculum developers, course designers, teachers and test designers. The CEFR was intended to introduce a common metalanguage for language teaching across Europe and provided common reference levels for language proficiency with illustrative descriptor scales for six levels (from A1 to C2). It served the overall aims of the Council of Europe to achieve greater unity among member states, by converting the rich heritage of diverse languages and cultures from being a barrier into being a source of “mutual enrichment and understanding” (Council of Europe 2001: 2). In 2018, the CEFR was complemented by the preliminary CEFR Companion volume, which introduced the Pre-A1 level, new descriptor scales for online interaction, mediation, plurilingual and pluricultural competence, sign language, phonology and extended some of the other scales. A final version was published in 2020.

Soon after the implementation of the CEFR, it became clear that it had been designed particularly for foreign language learning and needed adaptation for use in second language teaching to adult migrants. Scholars and practitioners pointed out that more consideration should be given, in the illustrative scales, to domains of great importance in the lives of adult immigrants, such as the administrative and the occupational domains. In the latter domain, communication needs for low-qualified jobs, which are the main employment opportunity for many non- and low-literate migrants, are particularly neglected. Attention should also be paid to implicit social assumptions that underlie some descriptors, in particular those that take for granted the understanding of social behaviours and situations that are culturally connoted as European, or levels of social equality in communication, while communication between migrants and natives all too often is asymmetrical. The specific difficulties and training needs of learners who speak languages which are typologically distant from European languages should be carefully considered.²⁸ Finally, the needs of non- and low-literate learners should be addressed, as highlighted in official texts, guidelines and background documents and studies issued by the Council of Europe.²⁹

Although the CEFR Companion volume has proved to be a flexible tool in many respects, a specific reference guide for literacy and second language teaching is needed. Literacy is presupposed at the first levels both by the CEFR and the CEFR Companion volume. For example, a Pre-A1 learner can “give basic personal information in writing (e.g. name, address, nationality), perhaps with the use of a dictionary” (Council of Europe 2020a: 66), a task which adult literacy learners can undertake after lengthy training, from the first discovery of the written language to the ability to deal with a simple text.

25. Council of Europe 2001.

26. Council of Europe 2020a.

27. With the terms “non-literate” and “low-literate” adults, LASLLIAM refers to adults who cannot read and write in any language or are not able to use literacy in many simple everyday tasks, as explained in 1.2 and 1.4. This target group is sometimes referred to as “LESLLA learners”, from the English acronym for the international association Literacy Education and Second Language Learning for Adults.

28. Beacco et al. 2014a, 2014b; Krumm 2007; Kuhn 2015; Van Avermaet and Rocca 2013; Vedovelli 2002; for an overview, see Minuz and Kurvers 2021.

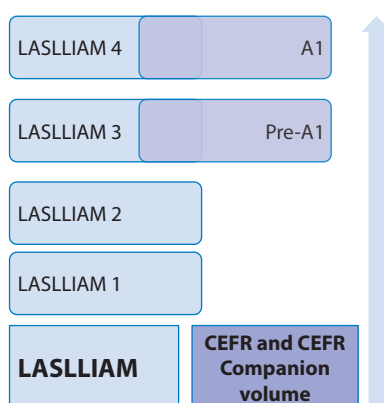
29. www.coe.int/en/web/language-policy/adult-migrants.

In many countries, it was considered necessary to complement the framework with descriptors below A1 for migrants with no or hardly any previous schooling, as well as for migrants with poor formal education and very basic literacy skills. In several European countries, this resulted in national and local second language literacy frameworks for adult learners. These frameworks offer descriptors scaled from three to four levels below and up to A1. In most countries (the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, Norway, Finland),³⁰ the frameworks focus on written language both technically (code-learning) and functionally (using written language in everyday practice); the Italian framework³¹ also covers oral second language acquisition up to A1, while the French framework³² considers only functional reading and writing. Despite their different formats and focuses, all these tools accompany learners from their first exploration of the written language to acquisition of the technical skills needed to decipher the written code and increase the ability to use the acquired skills in social and personal literacy tasks. In this context, the idea of a European reference guide has emerged (see Introduction).

1.2. THE USERS

LASLLIAM refers explicitly to the CEFR Companion volume and provides guidance on how to tackle the educational needs of migrants as literacy and second language learners, which the CEFR Companion volume does not explicitly address. Like the CEFR Companion volume, it provides illustrative descriptor scales for reception, production and interaction for oral and written second language learning, in relation to both communicative language activities and language use strategies.³³ The LASLLIAM reference guide organises the descriptors into four-level scales (see Chapter 4) ranging from the first contact with the (oral and written) target language up to level A1 of the CEFR Companion volume. As Figure 1 shows, there is a partial overlap between LASLLIAM level 3 and CEFR Companion volume level Pre-A1 and between LASLLIAM level 4 and CEFR Companion volume level A1.

Figure 1 – LASLLIAM and CEFR Companion volume levels



Unlike the CEFR Companion volume, the LASLLIAM reference guide also provides illustrative descriptor scales for the acquisition of written code (technical literacy). Moreover, the descriptors do not define levels of competence that could be independent of educational pathways, but they help in setting learning/teaching objectives in second language courses for literacy learners. Migrants often face situations that go far beyond their current communicative language competences, for example at the workplace or in public offices. As teaching objectives, the descriptors emphasise the guidance, facilitation and support that literacy and second language courses can offer in the initial phases of the learning process. They illustrate the competences needed to participate actively in the society where learners have resettled (see 3.3, 6.1). Since digital competence is needed these days to engage in society and is also an important part of literacy, LASLLIAM also provides scales describing progression in digital skills (see 2.2.5, 4.3).

30. Beacco et al. 2005; Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge 2015, 2018; Cito 2008; Feldmeier 2009b; Finnish National Agency 2017; Finnish National Board 2012; Fritz et al. 2006; Markov et al. 2015; Stockmann 2004.

31. Borri et al. 2014a, 2014b.

32. Beacco et al. 2005.

33. Note that LASLLIAM does not provide scales for mediation. This decision is based on the fact that mediation as outlined in the CEFR Companion volume has hardly been researched in the specific field of literacy and second language learning. However, LASLLIAM clearly endorses plurilingual approaches and points out the importance of mediation (see 3.5).

The LASLLIAM reference guide is meant for designers of teaching materials (see Chapter 3), curricula (see Chapter 5) and assessment tools (see Chapter 6), as well as teachers in the service of literacy and second language learners (see Chapter 3). It helps users by defining and scaling potential teaching objectives targeted to support migrants' communication in the social tasks that they want or need to perform, and to build the competence needed to accomplish these tasks.

LASLLIAM is neither a curriculum nor a syllabus, but a reference guide from which to draw in relation to the specific learners, educational aims, teaching objectives and concrete conditions, such as the duration of the educational programmes. Similar to the CEFR Companion volume descriptors, the LASLLIAM descriptors are illustrative, non-mandatory examples that provide illustrations of competence in the different areas. The descriptors present an abstraction from the concrete language-specific curricular models that have been developed by literacy and second language experts for some European languages.

LASLLIAM adopts the action-oriented approach of the CEFR Companion volume, which views language learners and users primarily as social agents who accomplish tasks (not exclusively language-related) in specific situations. It views competences as "the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions" (Council of Europe 2001: 9) activating multiple (e.g. cognitive, learning, personal and social) resources and strategies to do so.³⁴ According to this view, language learning and teaching should enable learners to act in real-life situations. The consistency of LASLLIAM with the CEFR Companion volume is reflected in defining the descriptors as can-do statements that, in a supporting educational context, allow the detection of progress in tasks related to personal, public, occupational and educational domains. LASLLIAM also adopts the CEFR Companion volume's key notions of communicative language competence and tasks. Finally, this reference guide reflects the CEFR Companion volume in providing a basis for a common understanding of teaching objectives and assessment criteria across Europe, enhancing transparency of courses and syllabi, and stimulating international co-operation in the field of literacy and second language teaching and learning (see Introduction). Thus, LASLLIAM contributes to socially inclusive high-quality education of migrants.

1.3. AN ENCOMPASSING VIEW OF LITERACY

The words "literacy" and "literacy acquisition" encompass different concepts that have changed and broadened several times in the ongoing academic discussion and which may have different connotations in different languages. In LASLLIAM, the notion of literacy refers to the ability of individuals, as social agents, to identify, understand, interpret and produce written texts (which can be handwritten, printed, digital and multimodal) in accordance with social contexts.³⁵ LASLLIAM addresses the individual cognitive processes and linguistic dimensions of learning, alongside the communicative needs and activities, roles, functions and values attributed to the written language by the communities in which individuals learn to read and write. It focuses on the first steps of literacy acquisition in a second language in the full awareness that it is a process that goes well beyond the levels portrayed in this reference guide and can be lifelong and lifewide learning, that is, throughout life and concerning multiple and diverse domains.³⁶

This encompassing perspective draws on contributions that different disciplines (sociology, economics, anthropology, linguistics, psychology, neurosciences, pedagogy and philosophy) have made to the conceptualisation of literacy, and in particular on two main research perspectives, sometimes presented as opposing approaches, which have shaped the teaching of literacy to adults.

The first perspective focuses on individual cognitive skills implied in learning to decode a notational system (e.g. the alphabetic script of a European language) as access to written texts, that might differ in register, text type and modality, and on the cognitive changes that literacy prompts at individual and societal levels.³⁷

The second approach focuses on literacy as situated social practices, which may differ in language, purpose and usage, depending on the different social and cultural contexts, rather than on individual cognitive skills. According to this approach, learning to read and write means to become a critical, aware participant in literate social events. From this viewpoint, attention needs to be paid to the socially unbalanced power relations in society and particularly to the institutions which define the dominant, "legitimate" literacy practices, as well as

34. Council of Europe 2001.

35. The definition is modelled on UNESCO 2017b.

36. Desjardins 2003.

37. Ravid and Tolchinsky 2002; for an overview, see 2.1.

to the various forms of literacy, which include the multiple modes of human communication and multimodal communication of information technologies.³⁸

A notion of literacy and literacy acquisition that draws on both perspectives underlies the descriptors of LASLLIAM. Alongside an increasing mastery of spoken language, LASLLIAM considers literacy as the ability to use an increasing variety of written texts when participating in social and cultural life. It therefore conceptualises literacy as a component of communicative language competence, as promoted by the CEFR Companion volume, and learning to read and write as an enrichment of the resources on which learners can rely in their agency.

Digital competence and digital literacy currently form an integral part of literacy practices, life skills and social inclusion, as highlighted by Council of Europe policies and its Digital Citizenship Education programme.³⁹ Therefore, this reference guide includes communicative activities based on information and communication technologies in the different scales as an integral part of communication.

Handling multimodal texts requires the ability to interpret signs, symbols, pictures and sounds, and to use information and communication technologies. Although LASLLIAM focuses on the ability to deal with written language in any kind of text, this ability is implied by the LASLLIAM descriptors. A visual and multimodal education is recommended to support the acquisition of written language, and it should go beyond the ability to decode non-verbal messages to include the relations between different modes of communication and how these relations themselves produce meanings.⁴⁰

1.4. THE LEARNERS

LASLLIAM has been developed to support non- and low-literate second language and/or second-script learners (learners who are literate in a writing system different from that of the target language). These learners form a highly diverse group, in terms of countries of origin, cultures, first languages and other known languages, levels of education, biographies, life conditions, jobs, hopes, immigration paths, as well as gender, age, physical impairments, psycho-physical conditions (e.g. trauma) and other individual characteristics that research shows can influence language and literacy learning.

These manifold factors generate a vast array of educational needs that are analysed and addressed (see 5.3). LASLLIAM takes into account the heterogeneity of potential learners in the notion of learners' profiles (see 1.4.3; 3.3.1; 6.2) and of their needs by providing examples of language uses in the different domains (see Chapter 4). Although all the above-mentioned aspects are relevant in tailoring teaching, in designing curricula and literacy and second language courses, the literacy background and the oral and plurilingual resources of learners are of utmost relevance.

1.4.1. Learners' literacy background

Adult literacy learners enter their second language classes with varying degrees of school experience and literacy skills in their first language or in the language of education of their home country. Some have not had the opportunity to go to school or acquire literacy in other ways for reasons of lack of educational opportunities, war, poverty or social and gender inequality. Those who come from rural areas of countries with high rates of illiteracy may have had hardly any exposure to written language and thus greater difficulties in grasping some of the social uses of written texts in the new country. Again, others have had some years of elementary schooling, but hardly any possibilities of using literacy in their everyday contexts and have (partially) lost their literacy skills. Some learners may recognise a number of written sight words (learned by heart and recognised globally), but cannot read new words; some can read, but not write; some have low literacy skills; some may rely on non-linguistic signs to draw meanings from multimodal texts. They may be familiar with different types of social literacy events in their first and/or second language(s). Independent from their literacy and second language levels, they have varying levels of digital skills. As the terms "literacy" and "illiteracy" thus do not form a dichotomic opposition within the communicative practices of communities (see 1.3), they represent the poles of a wide continuum of individual skills and knowledge.

38. Barton 1994; Cope and Kalantzis 2000; Freire 1970/2018; Gee 1990; Street 1981. For overviews, see Minuz and Kurvers 2021; Neokleous et al. 2020; Olson and Torrance 2009; Reider and Davila 2005; UNESCO 2005, 2017.

39. Council of Europe 2020c.

40. Altherr Flores 2017; Kern and Schultz 2005.

Some learners enter their classes with basic literacy skills in a language that uses another alphabetic script (e.g. Arabic) than the country of residence (i.e. Cyrillic, Greek or Latin) or a language that uses another writing system (e.g. a logographic script). The LASLLIAM literacy descriptors also provide learning goals that are relevant for these second-script learners, who might advance their literacy in the new language in a faster way, because they have already developed specific skills, reading abilities and strategies that can be transferred from their first language to the second one (see 2.1).

1.4.2. Oral competence and plurilingualism

The LASLLIAM scales describe the progression in literacy and second language activities from a learner's first contacts with the written language and the written and oral language of the country of residence. However, depending on the age of entrance and the length of stay in the country of residence and other life circumstances, some adults have already built degrees of oral competence in the target language that correspond to level A1 of the CEFR Companion volume and beyond. Some might have acquired oral language only in the natural environment through interactions in the target language while others have attended language courses for a short period.

Many adult literacy and second language learners are plurilingual because they come from multilingual countries and have been using their first language(s) at home and a lingua franca (or other languages) in the public domain, or because they have acquired languages on their migration journey. Furthermore, their plurilingual repertoires may include elements of the majority language and/or a regional language of the new country of residence, or languages of other migrant groups with which they are in contact in everyday settings, like the workplace. Supporting and giving value to plurilingualism is a main principle of the Council of Europe,⁴¹ and recognising the plurilingual repertoires of learners is a main assumption of the CEFR Companion volume.

In literacy and second language teaching, the learners' previous experience with languages in general, with the target language in particular, as well as with written language and specific scripts, needs to be considered. Research has highlighted the relevance of literacy in the first language for second language learning, as well as the benefits that come from developing it while learning the second language (see 2.1). Therefore, although focusing on second language literacy educational provision only, LASLLIAM recognises and values the plurilingual repertoires of learners and their ability to strategically activate their resources in the literacy and oral language learning process. It endorses plurilingual approaches in second language and literacy learning (see 3.5).

1.4.3. Learners' profiles

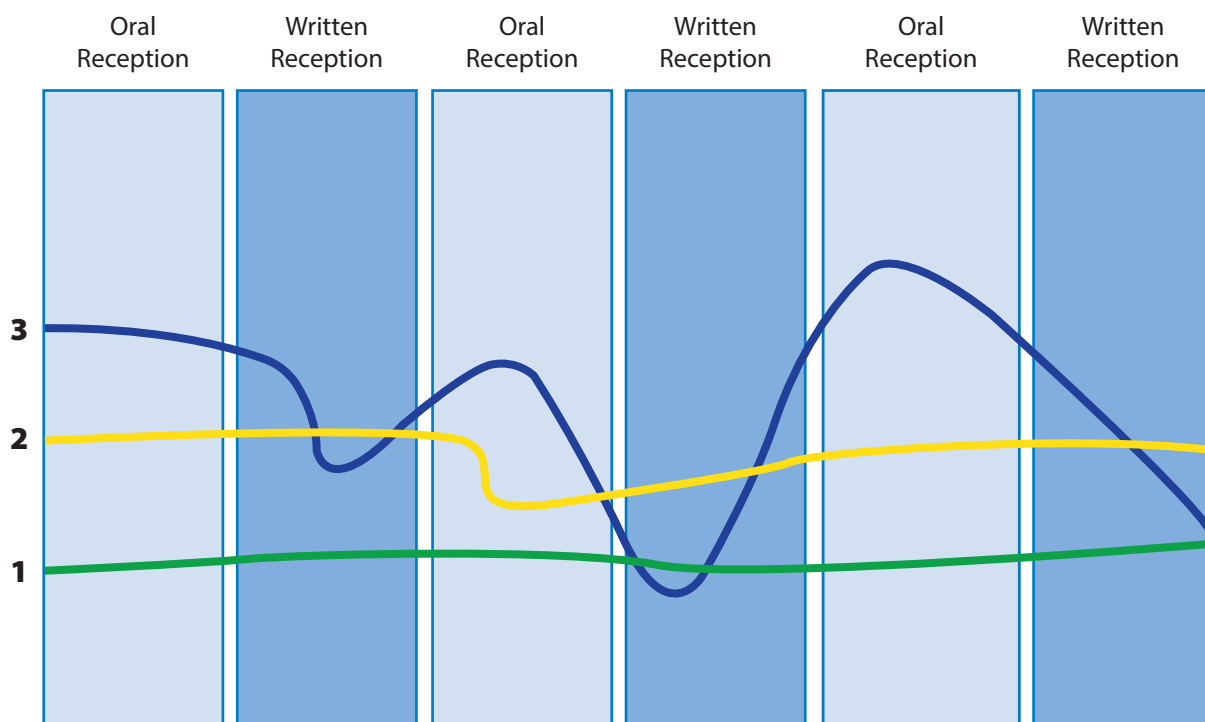
In describing the progression in communicative language activities and technical literacy, LASLLIAM assumes the concept of individual language profiles as endorsed by the CEFR Companion volume, which implies that the scales describe learning goals independently of each other (see Chapter 4). To serve literacy and second language learners in the best way, their individual proficiency profiles need to be taken into careful consideration. For example, a refugee from Afghanistan who has recently arrived in Italy might have low levels of oral competence in the target language and no or hardly any literacy skills in any language. The refugee might be able to communicate orally in limited, familiar situations by relying on a number of words and memorised expressions in the target language and a basic competence in English which they can resort to when the situation allows for it. Their language-educational needs differ from those of migrants who have lived in the resident country for a longer time and have already developed (various) oral language profiles at higher levels and limited repertoire of written sight words in the target language, although they might have never learned to read and write in any language.

It is therefore essential when designing a curriculum for literacy and second language learners – from the macro level of national curricula to the micro level of lesson planning – to acknowledge the heterogeneity of learner profiles and to provide them with appropriate learning environments (see Chapter 5). Defining learners' profiles contributes to the tailoring of education in more than one way. It helps to set appropriate learning goals and to utilise learners' capabilities, not by focusing on what they lack, but by building instruction on the knowledge and skills they already possess and by emphasising the plurality of language and literacy experiences. To this end, an accurate needs analysis is necessary, which should aim at defining the language profiles (including literacy and language repertoires) as well as current and envisaged oral and literate usages of the second language.

41. Beacco et al. 2014a, 2014b; Beacco et al. 2016; Gogolin 2002.

As Chapter 4 describes, LASLLIAM defines progressions based on four different levels, offering starting points for individual learners' language profiles (see 6.1.3). Figure 2 shows wavy lines representing some of the many language profiles that LASLLIAM can help to draw.

Figure 2 – Uneven profiles according to LASLLIAM levels and Communicative Language Activities



Uneven profiles of three LASLLIAM learners

The figure highlights that a learner might be at level 1 in a certain scale and level 2 or 3 in another. However, this does not imply that there are no interrelations between the scales at all. The Technical Literacy scales and the scales of the written language activities (reading, writing and interacting) are intertwined, although not necessarily on a 1:1 basis. Some learners can acquire some technical skills (e.g. to write familiar and orthographically simple words) without being able to use the skills to accomplish simple tasks in real life autonomously, either because real-life tasks usually do not map to a single level and can only partly be accomplished, or simply because the learner has not been supported to see the connection between the technical skill and the (unfamiliar) social practice. For learners who are beginners in both literacy and second language, the development of listening skills and vocabulary, for example, is relevant for technical literacy and vice versa. For this group of learners, the descriptors in the Technical Literacy scale and in the Listening scale are dependent on each other, although again not on a 1:1 basis (see 2.1). Uneven profiles are particularly characteristic of migrants who have low literacy, have acquired the language spontaneously mostly in occupational settings and have lived for years in the country where they have resettled. They can have oral competences up to CEFR levels A2 and beyond, and written competences corresponding to LASLLIAM levels 1 or 2.

In conclusion, although all adult migrants entering a literacy and second language learning environment bring limited formal learning experiences with them and have to learn the alphabetic script of the language, they differ considerably in literacy skills, oral skills in their target language and in their linguistic repertoires.

This chapter presents an overview of the main available cognitive and linguistic studies on non-literate adults beginning to read and learn a second language. These studies have guided the development of the different scales on Technical Literacy, Oral and Written Communicative Language Activities, Language Use Strategies and Digital Skills. It points out the impact of non-literacy on language awareness and information processing, summarises the stages of beginning literacy and explains the main principles behind the progression lines in the scales.

Several sources have guided the development of the LASLLIAM reference guide:

- ▶ the different and changing conceptualisations of (non-)literacy and literacy teaching;
- ▶ research on second language and literacy acquisition of non-literate adult second language learners and on what distinguishes this group most from educated and literate second language learners;
- ▶ existing frameworks, in particular the CEFR Companion volume which LASLLIAM follows in aim, approach and structure, and existing and validated adult second language literacy frameworks in several European countries (see 1.1);
- ▶ the long-term experience of the authoring group in this field;
- ▶ the proceedings of the yearly LESLLA conferences on research, policies and practices in the field of second language literacy learning between 2006 and 2019.⁴²

2.1. RESEARCH ON NON-LITERATE AND LOW-LITERATE ADULT LEARNERS

Non- and low-literate adults face the challenging task of learning a new language while at the same time learning to read and write for the first time or developing their basic literacy competences. This group has been largely neglected in mainstream research on second language acquisition, as it has been preoccupied with mainly the higher-educated second language learner.⁴³ Like all other adults, non-literate learners enter their second language classes with a wealth of life experiences and life skills, knowledge of the world, fluent communication skills in one or more languages and with well-developed skills to process meaningful information. In other words, in most domains of life and communication those who are non-literate share the skills that literate language learners employ, and clearly differ from young pre-school children. But research on non-literate second language learners that has been conducted during the last decades also clearly shows that some (cognitive) literacy-based skills that are usually presupposed in second language teaching for literate learners cannot be expected from them. In this section, we focus on those aspects, to clarify the need for a specific reference guide for this group both for learning the written code and for learning to use oral and written second language in communicative activities and daily tasks. Literate language learners are dealing with verbal and visual information in a highly “schoolish” and decontextualised/abstract way. Teachers should realise that their own implicit knowledge and use of language is not natural, as they sometimes might think, but highly influenced by literacy.

Nearly all studies addressing the progress of non-literate learners in second language literacy consistently report, across different languages and educational systems, slow paces in learning, problems with focusing on linguistic features in learning the target language, and difficulties in achieving fluency, at least if measured with the commonly used literacy-based exercises and standard tests.⁴⁴ There is convincing evidence for the impact of previous literacy on learning a second language. Warren and Young (2012: 3) conclude from their synthesis of 21 studies in this field: “Overall, low L1 literacy was linked to lower L2 proficiency.”⁴⁵

The next sections explain how this impact is manifested and how it can be addressed in a reference guide for true beginners in literacy and second language learning.

42. For existing literacy frameworks, see 1.1; for proceedings of the LESLLA conferences, see www.leslla.org.

43. Tarone 2010; van de Craats et al. 2006; Warren and Young 2012.

44. Abadzi 2012; Carlsen 2017; Condelli and Spruck-Wrigley 2006; Gonzalves 2017; Kurvers and Stockmann 2009; Kurvers et al. 2015; Warren and Young 2012.

45. See also Gardner et al. 1996; Koda 2008. Because literacy is nearly always acquired in a school context, it is difficult to disentangle the impact of literacy as such from the more general impact of school-based learning.

2.1.1. Metalinguistic awareness

Non-literate individuals do know that meaning is represented in varying ways in different languages and that a poem or a song is a different text type than a news item on the radio. They are, however, not aware of the linguistic make-up of a language: they do not know that spoken words consist of different sounds (phonemic awareness), they often do not know where one word ends and the next word begins in a spoken utterance (word awareness), and they are not always aware of morphological and grammatical markers in words and sentences (morphological and grammatical awareness). Awareness of syllables and rhyme is less influenced by reading ability.⁴⁶ Note that these findings are not restricted to an unknown language, but also apply to a first language: although non-literate adults can easily use all these linguistic features in oral communication, they often cannot isolate single sounds from a spoken word or count the number of words in a spoken sentence. They do recognise written language as distinct from pictures, but they do not know how writing represents language. This metalinguistic knowledge mainly comes with literacy. Learning to read and write implies becoming aware of linguistic features that are represented in the writing system.⁴⁷

Although non-literate people can and often do have oral abilities in more than one language, not being literate also impacts the acquisition of oral skills in a second language: those who are non-literate, for example, have difficulties with repeating a recast or spoken utterance simply because they are focusing on the content more than on the precise wording. They might also miss subtle deictic references to persons, time and place in connected discourse.⁴⁸

2.1.2. Processing of (linguistic) information

People who are non-literate not only differ from their literate peers in the metalinguistic knowledge acquired by learning to read and write, but also in the unconscious processing of language. Non-literate adults, for example, process semantic information similarly, but they differ in processing phonological information. They can easily understand and repeat well-known words, but they find it more difficult than readers to correctly repeat or memorise unknown (pseudo-)words or to quickly mention words with similar initial sounds.⁴⁹ The short-term working memory, a crucial tool for vocabulary acquisition and language processing, is less developed in those who are non-literate than in readers.⁵⁰ The reason is that knowledge of orthography introduces in the brain a new strategy to process information. A reader has two options available for processing language: the semantic route if a word is already in their lexicon, or a purely sound-based phonological route. Non-literate people do not have the latter option to the same extent as those who are literate.

While non-literate adults do recognise photos and pictures like all learners do, it is more difficult for them to process, memorise and copy less concrete visual information like line-drawings or abstract figures.⁵¹

2.1.3. Situated cognition

As mentioned above, non-literate adults do not differ much from literate adults in dealing with familiar context-bound language and information, but they deal with information that is related to literacy and schooling in other ways. When non-literate adults, for example, are asked to answer text-related questions, they often use their own knowledge instead of the given information in the text. When they are asked to perform simple, but abstract cognitive tasks like classifying or sorting objects, they often base their judgments and reasoning on their own experiences and world knowledge. If, for example, they are asked to take the odd one out of a display of hammer, saw, nail and pincers, they would keep the nail in, because that is what you use the hammer and pincers for.⁵² This reveals the importance of situated cognition in the processing of information by non-literate second language learners. Situated cognition highlights the importance of lived experiences (embodied) and interaction with the concrete and daily context (embedded) in the development of cognitive representations.⁵³

46. Castro-Caldas and Reis 2003; Homer 2009; Kurvers and Uri 2006; Kurvers et al. 2006, 2007, 2015; Morais et al. 1979; Rachmandra and Karanth 2007; Reis et al. 1997, 2007; Scholes 1993.

47. Olson 1994.

48. Tarone and Bigelow 2005, 2009; Strube 2014; Whiteside 2008.

49. For an overview see Huettig 2015; Kurvers et al. 2015.

50. Da Silva et al. 2012; Kosmidis et al. 2011; Ostrosky-Solis and Lozano 2006; Ostrosky-Solis et al. 1998.

51. Ardila et al. 2010; Huettig et al. 2011; Kosmidis et al. 2004.

52. Counihan 2008; Kurvers 2002; Luria 1976; Scribner and Cole 1981.

53. Kirshner and Whitson 1997; Reder and Davila 2005; Robbins and Aydede 2009.

In summary, non-literate adults enter the classroom relying on well-developed semantic and pragmatic information-processing skills in a familiar language about familiar topics, and gradually enter the field of knowledge of language features and of abstract information characteristic of school-based learning.

2.1.4. Oracy and literacy

Oral competence in a language is a key variable in literacy acquisition, for two different reasons. Learning an alphabetical code critically depends on oral language because in an alphabetical writing system the units of writing (letters or graphemes) represent the units of the spoken words (sounds or phonemes).

Decoding print gives access to the spoken representation of a word that gives rise to its meaning. Sounding out or copying words without understanding their meaning clearly does not contribute to literacy development.⁵⁴ Research has also clearly pointed out the role of language competence in the development of reading comprehension. Next to decoding fluency, oral language competence (in particular vocabulary and listening comprehension) significantly contributes to progress in second language literacy and reading comprehension.⁵⁵

Oracy in any language enhances literacy acquisition and supports learners who cannot rely to the same degree on written materials as in learning environments for fully (bi-)literate learners. On the other hand, as outlined earlier, literacy enhances the acquisition of spoken language in educational settings because it adds cognitive resources to process spoken language input. Thus, oracy and literacy acquisition strengthen each other.

The intimate relationship between oracy and literacy does not imply that literacy acquisition can only start after having finished a spoken language course. However, it does mean that the language used in learning to read and write, should be highly familiar to the students.

2.1.5. Implications for LASLLIAM

A first implication of these findings for LASLLIAM suggests starting literacy teaching in the first language or a language already well known to the learners. If this is not possible or preferred, grounding literacy and second language learning in the familiar linguistic repertoires of learners and using a well-known language as an additional language in the classroom to explain, clarify, mediate or exemplify has proven to be a very successful option.⁵⁶

Above all, the aforementioned studies clearly point to the integrative approach already outlined in Chapter 1. Learning a writing system while learning a new language, and learning to use the oral and written language in relevant communicative activities in daily life all need to be addressed while planning syllabi and courses in literacy and second language. Several classroom studies convincingly confirm these research findings: more progress in literacy and second language acquisition is found when teachers systematically pay attention to the written code and use varied practices in doing so, when they use a language of the learner's repertoire as an additional language, and when they consistently build their teaching on the familiar everyday lives of their students, gradually moving to more abstract school-based types of learning.⁵⁷

2.2. DEVELOPMENT OF THE SCALES

As pointed out before, descriptors for communicative language activities for reception, production and interaction in this reference guide are built on the CEFR Companion volume, but the Technical Literacy scales are a new type. Therefore, the next section describes the guiding principles behind technical literacy that are implied in the levels for communicative activities with written language as well. After that, the guiding principles behind the communicative language activities, language use strategies and digital skills will be explained (see 2.2.2-2.2.5).

2.2.1. Technical literacy: learning the written code

Learning to read and write in the technical sense means learning how language is represented in the writing system.⁵⁸ Roughly speaking, three main writing systems can be found worldwide.

- In the logographic (or morpho-syllabic) writing systems, one unit in writing represents one morpheme in spoken language (e.g. basic Chinese characters).

54. Chall 1999; Gonzalves 2020; Verhoeven and Perfetti 2017.

55. Condelli 2004; Condelli and Spruck Wrigley 2006; Kurvers and Stockmann 2009; Perfetti et al. 2002.

56. Condelli and Spruck-Wrigley 2006; Kurvers and Stockmann 2009; Warren and Young 2012.

57. Bigelow 2006; Condelli and Spruck-Wrigley 2006; Kurvers et al. 2010; Ramírez-Esparza et al. 2012; Warren and Young 2012.

58. The term writing system refers to the basic principle of mapping spoken to written units; orthography refers to language-specific mappings; and script refers to the visual appearance of the written symbols.

- ▶ In syllabic writing systems, one unit in writing represents one syllable in spoken language (e.g. Japanese kana, or the Vai script from Liberia). Some scripts, like the alpha-syllabic Ge'ez script that is used for Amharic or Tigrinya, combine basic syllable signs with additional signs for single phonemes.
- ▶ In alphabetic writing systems, one written sign represents one sound (phoneme) in spoken language. There are two different alphabetical scripts: (1) consonantal alphabetical scripts that represent only the consonants and sometimes a few vowels (e.g. Hebrew, Arabic) and (2) full alphabetical scripts in which consonants and vowels are written.

All European languages use a full alphabetic script (the Roman, Cyrillic or Greek alphabet). It is crucial in learning the alphabetical code to become able to map sounds in speaking to letters in writing. Languages, however, differ in the transparency of these mappings (e.g. the transparent Finnish or Italian versus the opaque English or Danish).

2.2.1.1. Stages in beginning reading and writing

Learning to read an alphabetical script is a process of gradual change as the readers develop their skills in recognising written words. Nearly all models of beginning reading agree on three to four different stages between the very start and reading and writing a simple and short text.⁵⁹ At each stage, a beginning reader uses a different strategy to recognise or write a word. According to these stage models, beginning reading starts with recognising and memorising sight words by looking at salient visual or contextual cues, followed by learning the 1:1 correspondence between the letters and the sounds they represent so that decoding words becomes possible. At the next stage, this basic decoding is extended to more complex words, and to consolidation and fluency in the last stage. The first stage can be characterised by mainly a holistic approach (direct word recognition) in which words (or syllables) are perceived and reproduced as a whole. In the second and third stage, an analytic approach prevails, in which reading is based on connecting letters with sounds and sounding out (indirect word recognition). In the last stage, recognition of words is direct again, but unlike in the first stage it is not based on a holistic approach anymore, but on automatisisation of the slow analytic word recognition.

Beginning writing mirrors beginning reading, moving from drawing of letter-like forms and copying words through encoding based on salient sounds and slow phonemic sound-by-sound encoding to fluent writing of familiar words and short and simple sentences.⁶⁰ Adult second language literacy learners need more time to practise in order to pass these stages.⁶¹ In general, more transparent orthographies like Finnish or Italian are learned faster than more opaque ones, like English or Danish.⁶²

It should be noted, however, that much more has to be learned by adult first-time readers/writers (like distinctive features of letters, motor skills, semiotic cues and task requirements). Besides, most models are based on literacy acquisition in an alphabetic first language, not on learning to read and write in an unfamiliar second language with often a quite different phonological make-up and inventory of phonemes, of which the inventory of vowels is remarkably high in several European languages. Compare, for example, the number of vowel sounds in English, Dutch or Norwegian (more than 15) with the five to seven basic vowels in most Afro-Asiatic (often Semitic) languages like Arabic, Berber, Somali, Amharic or Tigrinya, in which, the consonants are the basic carriers of meaning as is characteristic for root languages.

Low-educated second-script learners (who already can read and write in another writing system or script) know that writing represents language, have already developed metalinguistic and motor skills, and know about different text types, school-based task requirements and reading strategies. Many of these skills can be transferred to the new language. They mainly have to learn the new type of phoneme-to-grapheme mapping in the European alphabetic script, the new symbols and of course the new language with a different inventory of sounds. Research shows many second-script learners need fewer hours than non-literate learners to go through the different stages.⁶³

These stage models are featured in the existing adult second language literacy frameworks of several European countries (see 1.1). The levels used in these frameworks have been modelled on the same criterial features brought forward in the aforementioned stage models, also in use in the frameworks of several countries that are piloted and validated.⁶⁴ All frameworks start code-learning with some basic and personally relevant sight

59. Chall 1996; Ehri et al. 2001; Frith 1985; Juel 1991; Seymour et al. 2003; see also Share 1995.

60. Ketelaars 2011; Treiman 1993; Treiman and Bourassa 2000; Viise 1996.

61. Boon 2014; Chall 1999; Kurvers and Van der Zouw 1990; Nassaji 2007.

62. Ziegler and Goswami 2006.

63. Kurvers and Stockmann 2009.

64. Geers 2011; Ketelaars 2011; Kurvers and Stockmann 2009; Rocca et al. 2017; Stockmann 2004.

words, introduce the basic alphabetical principle of 1:1 correspondence and gradually extend to more complex words, and to automatised reading and writing. Differences in the frameworks are related to language-specific features, like transparency of the orthography, or the role and salience of the syllable or morpheme in spelling. Based on these resources, LASLLIAM distinguishes the following four levels of Technical Literacy.

Level 1: Discovering literacy, getting acquainted with written language

This level is about building experience with features of writing and functional uses of literacy in different contexts. Reading at this level means recognising words memorised as a whole, based on salient visual features; in some languages it also includes recognising and beginning to blend two syllables of frequent and practised words. Writing means drawing or copying from an example, without understanding the basics of an alphabetical script. Towards the end of this level, the learner can recognise relevant and practised sight words (such as own name and address, days of the week and months of the year), can recognise most of the letters of the alphabet and personally relevant symbols or signs like the logo of the school or metro. The learner can write their own name and copy words from an example.

Level 2: Basic decoding and encoding

This level is about learning the alphabetical principle, about learning to relate graphemes to phonemes in short words with a simple phonological structure, that is, a 1:1 correspondence between grapheme and phoneme. This is partly language dependent, but for most European languages this means words composed of a consonant (c), a vowel (v) and another consonant (i.e. c-v-c words like “car”, “hot” or “wet”). For other languages this means cv+cv words: “casa” (Italian, Spanish and Portuguese) or “casă” (Romanian). Such elementary reading is qualitatively different from level 1 because the learner is starting to crack the code and to sound out words. Although this turns out to be difficult and laborious for all learners, it is even more so for adults learning to read and write in an unfamiliar language with a phonological structure quite different from the first language. At the end of this level, the learner can independently read short and phonologically simple words (by analysing and synthesising). In some languages with a transparent orthography and simple morphology, the learner can also start reading independently, but slowly, short phrases that are based on the same criteria. The learner can also write short practised words with 1:1 correspondence between sound and letter and can write practised sight words.

Level 3: Extended decoding and encoding

Level 3 builds on level 2, but now decoding and encoding are extended to words with a more complex relation between grapheme and phoneme and phonologically more complex words (such as consonant clusters, or multisyllabic words). At the end of this stage, the learner can read level 2 words at a rather fast speed and can read – independently, but slowly – practised words with more complex phonological structures (like consonant clusters, highly frequent spelling patterns and longer words with regular spelling). The learner can independently read short and simple sentences and short texts consisting of these types of words, and can write practised words with more complex phonological structures like frequently used consonant clusters and more complex, but highly frequent spelling patterns.

Level 4: Towards consolidation and fluency

Level 4 is defined in terms of consolidation and reaching fluency in reading words, phrases, sentences and short texts about familiar and relevant topics at A1 level according to the CEFR Companion volume. At the end of LASLLIAM level 4, the reader can independently read the level 3 words more fluently, while still struggling sometimes with less familiar and irregularly spelled or long words. The learner will now be able to focus more on comprehending text information in combination with their previous knowledge. The learner can write the same words as in level 3, but faster and more fluently now.

The main criterial features of these levels, together with progression from more to fewer visual aids and familiarity, from practised to new and from less to more autonomy were also used in building the communicative reading and writing scales.

2.2.2. Communicative language activities in reading and writing

Like in the CEFR Companion volume, the aim of enabling learners to successfully pursue actions in real-life situations is central to the concept of language learning in this reference guide. This implies teaching procedures that are based on learners’ real-life communicative needs. Different from the CEFR Companion volume, however,

is the fact that LASLLIAM learners are still acquiring their reading and writing abilities. Although real-life tasks and materials will be used from the start and will be geared towards the learners' needs, what they can do with these tasks and materials will partly depend on what they can read and write independently: from memorised immediately relevant sight words (like own name and address or the names of the days) to independent reading of a simple text in a familiar language. Therefore, the cognitive activity involved and the linguistic and orthographic complexity of the material are key concepts in distinguishing the levels. But the different levels in real-life tasks are also distinguished by a gradual shift from more to less reliance on visual cues like photographs, pictures, icons or emojis, on familiarity with the contents, on contextual and cultural context that might be helpful in carrying out a task, and on (digital) translators.

With regard to the different communicative functions of reading and writing, the LASLLIAM scales pay special attention to gradually enlarging the experience with different text types, different functions of literacy and participation in real-life literacy events: from observing and guided participation in literacy events and getting acquainted with some personally relevant text types, to extending experience with the epistemological function of literacy and managing text types like lists and labels, to more experience with the communicative functions of literacy in understanding and producing messages and short memos or notes, to enjoying and learning from texts in managing simple/level-adapted short stories and informative texts. Note that it is relevant for all levels that the topics the learners are expected to read or write about and the words they have to read (independently) should be familiar.

2.2.3. Communicative language activities in listening and speaking

The four levels for oral communicative language activities are grounded on the consideration that adult migrants are confronted with situations and tasks in which there is a broad gap between their acquired competence and intended communicative objectives. In performing these tasks, they rely on a plurality of resources and strategies: general competences, already acquired knowledge of the second language, communicative competence in the first or other languages from their repertoires, gestures and body language, mediators and (digital) translators as well as other language use strategies. The LASLLIAM descriptors are graded along a progression that considers communicative goals of the individual, complexity of tasks and situations (including interlocutors and settings) alongside linguistic complexity.

As in the CEFR Companion volume, interaction is given a central place in the organisation of the communicative language activities, stressing its fundamental relevance in language learning. In interaction, it is possible to negotiate the complexity of the input; collaborative second language speakers can simplify it to facilitate communication through different strategies such as slowed and well-articulated speech, simplified syntax, simple and frequent words, non-verbal means, or the adaptation of the conversational structure.⁶⁵ In interacting with second language speakers, learners can make extensive use of the context to understand, be understood and to compensate for insufficient morphological and syntactical structures through pragmatic means. They can also engage the interaction partner in securing comprehension and production.

In outlining a non-language-specific progression of the language competences which are involved at each level and to allow for realising the speakers' communicative goals, the authoring group referred to the results of different studies in the field of second language acquisition.⁶⁶ These studies identified different stages in acquiring linguistic principles and structures of the new language. The route starts from a phase in which the learner identifies and memorises so-called formulas, that is, chunks of the oral input which are salient due to sound, pragmatic and semantic features and are useful in daily communication. Level 1 of LASLLIAM is modelled on this phase. Subsequent acquisition stages mark the path from a pragmatic organisation of the utterance, with mostly content words, memorised formulaic expressions and a poor morphological and syntactic elaboration to further stages characterised by a richer morphology, and a more complex syntax and lexicon.⁶⁷

The main criterial features of stages described in the above-mentioned literature in terms of cognitive activity involved and linguistic complexity are used to define levels of oral competence, together with progression from more to less guidance, from familiar to new, and from higher to lesser reliance on paralinguistic and contextual cues (including gestures and other body languages, artefacts and visuals).

65. Hoshii and Schramm 2017; Orletti 2000; Tarone 1980.

66. Ellis 1999; Gass and Selinker 2008; Larsen-Freeman and Long 2014; see also Barkowski 2011; Boeckmann 2011; Candlin and Mercer 2001; Grassi et al. 2008; Hinkel 2005; Loewen 2020; Pallotti 1998; Py 2000; Véronique 2005.

67. Cutler 2012; Givón 1979; Klein and Perdue 1997.

As mentioned above, interaction is the main language activity in which migrants usually are involved. The scale for Oral Reception models the progression from understanding single chunks (mostly fixed expressions, phrases, words) in short and familiar stretches of speech, largely relying on contextual cues, to understanding the main points of longer, more complex, less familiar speech, as described in the later levels of the CEFR Companion volume. The scale for Oral Production models basic competences that are to be developed to progress to a full-fledged sustained monologue, as described in the later levels of the CEFR Companion volume.

2.2.4. Language use strategies

As in the CEFR Companion volume, the LASLLIAM reference guide includes scales for Language Use Strategies. According to the CEFR (Council of Europe 2001: 57),

strategies are a 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.

The CEFR emphasises that these strategies should be conceptualised “as a way of making up for a language deficit or a miscommunication” (ibid.), as well as the application of metacognitive principles also used by native speakers.

LASLLIAM describes reception, production, and interaction strategies. For each of these three language activities, it provides descriptor scales for planning strategies, compensation strategies, and monitoring and repair strategies. This approach differs slightly from the CEFR Companion volume which:

- ▶ for reception only provides one combined scale on Identifying Cues and Inferring (Oral and Written);
- ▶ for production provides scales on Planning, Compensating, and Monitoring and Repair geared towards both oral and written; and
- ▶ for interaction provides scales on Taking the Floor (Turntaking), Co-operating, and Asking for Clarification – thus mainly focusing on spoken language.

By using the general metacognitive categories of planning, compensating, and monitoring and repair strategies for all language activities in both their written and their oral form, LASLLIAM emphasises the importance of teaching a wide range of language use strategies to empower learners. It is important to point out that we consider the teaching of language learning strategies just as essential for learners with little experience in formal learning. However, as researchers have not attempted to scale language learning strategies in general yet, this reference guide lists examples of language learning strategies which are specific to non- and low-literate learners in Chapter 3.

The scaling of language use strategies in the CEFR Companion volume has been discussed critically, and important counter-arguments have been formulated.⁶⁸ They focus on the weak theoretical foundation both for strategy progression lines and in the assumed interactions between language use strategies, communicative competences and individual factors. In the face of the tiny body of empirical research on the language use strategies of literacy and second language learners, these arguments have to be taken even more seriously for the scaling of language use strategies in the LASLLIAM reference guide. In order to encourage the teaching of these strategies and their respective language activities in an integrated way, and in line with the CEFR Companion volume, the language use strategies taught in literacy and second language classes have been conceptually scaled in terms of their complexity. In addition, experienced literacy and second language teachers have validated them in terms of how demanding they are. However, empirical validation in terms of actual strategy use by learners is clearly an important requirement for future literacy and second language research.

Although empirical second language use strategy research with low-literate adult migrants is still in its very early stages,⁶⁹ LASLLIAM provides a first tentative attempt at scaling (meta-) cognitive language use strategies. Note that affective and socio-interactive strategies have neither been broken down into planning, compensation, and monitoring and repair, nor have they been scaled because there is no reason to assume the varying degrees of complexity of the strategy are not based on linguistic aspects.

68. Wisniewski 2019.

69. Feldmeier 2011; Markov et al. 2015.

2.2.5. Digital skills

Today, literacy is no longer about being able to read and write only. Digital competences are integral to literacy and societal inclusion, as highlighted by the Council of Europe policies that have listed them among the key competences for lifelong learning.⁷⁰ The importance of digital skills and competences is also highlighted in the European Digital Competence Framework for Citizens (DigComp)⁷¹ which has identified five competence areas as essential to functioning in society: (1) information and data literacy, (2) communication and collaboration, (3) digital content creation, (4) safety and (5) problem solving. The DigComp initially had three levels, expanded later to eight different levels. Looking closely at the dimensions included under each competence area (as detailed in DigComp 2.0 2016: 8), the dimensions of the two competence areas of “information and data literacy” and “problem solving” were deemed as too high or irrelevant to our target learners. For example, the first dimension under information and data literacy is “browsing, searching and filtering data, information and digital content” and the first dimension under problem solving is “solving technical problems”. Both dimensions require high levels of literacy (filtering data/information is complex even for literate users) or digital skills (to identify and solve technical problems). Therefore, these two competence areas were not included in LASLLIAM. However, some of the skills under these areas were integrated into the Digital Skills scales (see Chapter 4). Therefore, the three areas relevant to LASLLIAM are communication and collaboration, digital content creation and safety. These areas were adopted and formed the basis of the three Digital Skills scales. Examining the descriptors in the three areas closely, it is obvious that – even at the first foundation level – the descriptors presuppose literacy and familiarity with digital tools and platforms.

Unlike the CEFR and the CEFR Companion volume, LASLLIAM presents Digital Skills⁷² descriptors (see 4.3) as independent from competences modelled in the scales on Technical Literacy, Communicative Language Activities and Language Use Strategies. Similar to the Technical Literacy scales, the Digital Skills scales complement the Communicative Language Activities and the Language Use Strategies scales as they focus on the technical (literacy and digital) descriptors that are essential to functional literacy. The descriptors reflect the fact that learners are able to perform tasks (even those that require literacy) using mobile devices (mostly using the touch function) with greater ease than those on non-mobile devices (mostly typing). Therefore, the focus is on descriptors related to the skills needed to create and manage texts in a digital environment or to use digital tools. These skills are divided into technical skills which are language independent and functional skills which are related to the target language. Technical skills have therefore not been scaled, but functional skills as can-dos in the second language have been scaled; they cover three competence areas (modified from the DigComp 2.0): Communication and Collaboration, Content Creation and Management, and Safety.

70. European Commission 2020.

71. Carretero et al. 2017.

72. The term skill is used in LASLLIAM to refer to the ability to apply knowledge and use know-how to complete tasks and solve problems that involve digital tools or are carried out in a digital environment, while competence is used to refer to the area of digital literacy that these skills come under. In this sense, digital skills encompass knowledge and abilities.

Chapter 3

TEACHING LITERACY IN A SECOND LANGUAGE

This chapter provides a brief overview of the important principles in teaching literacy to second language learners.⁷³ It starts by explaining what action orientation means in this particular context and how backward planning can help to establish a balance between technical and functional aspects of literacy learning (see 3.1). To this end, section 3.2 discusses orientation to the code and section 3.3 discusses orientation to the learner as the two most important pillars for literacy and second language learning environments. The chapter then outlines three powerful factors to enhance the effectiveness of an action-oriented approach: a focus on learning strategies and autonomy (see 3.4), a contrastive and plurilingual orientation (see 3.5) and a commitment to providing learners with plentiful experience of personally meaningful success (see 3.6).

3.1. AN ACTION-ORIENTED APPROACH TO LITERACY IN A SECOND LANGUAGE AND BACKWARD PLANNING

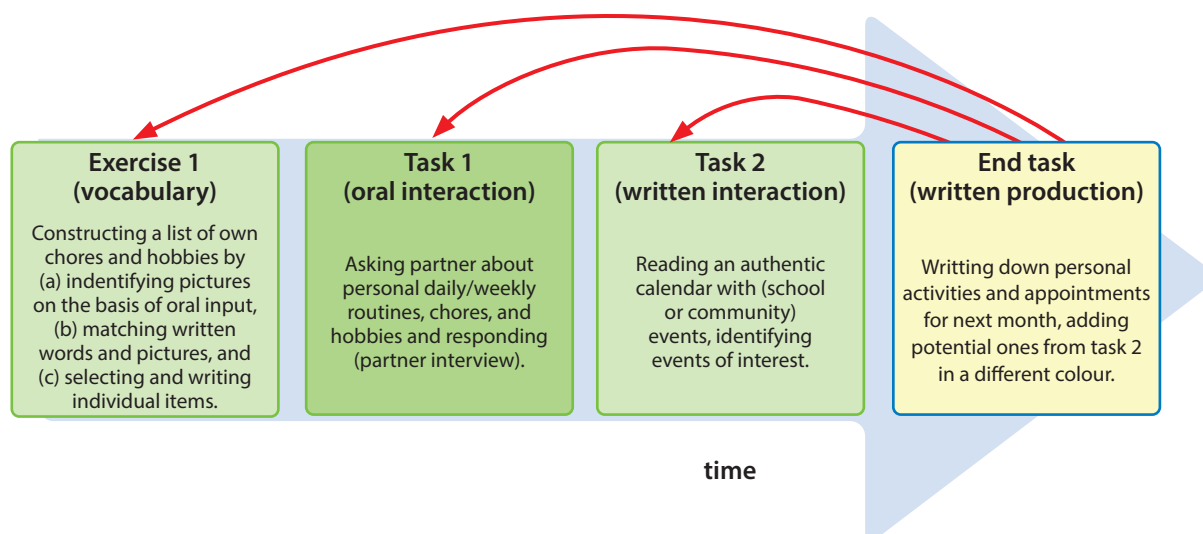
In line with the CEFR Companion volume, this reference guide takes an action-oriented approach. With respect to literacy in a second language, this means that from the beginning of the learning process, the learners should experience literacy events as a social practice that has both a clear purpose and an individual significance. The functional aspects of literacy should therefore be the transparent goals of the learning environment, whereas the training of technical literacy skills serves a supportive role.

The LASLLIAM scales on reception, production and interaction, and the respective domain tables therefore outline real-life goals that allow for the didactic planning of tasks, scenarios (see 5.4. Appendix 2) and mini-projects (i.e. meaningful agency to accomplish collaboratively a product of personal significance in the limited time frame of a few lessons). The LASLLIAM scales on Technical Literacy, on the other hand, describe skills inherent in performing these actions. Exercises that train relevant cognitive processes such as letter and word recognition, graphomotor skills, phonological analysis and synthesis, etc. are indispensable components of an effective literacy and second language learning environment (for examples of exercise types, see 3.2). However, because too many literacy and second language programmes still give priority to learning the code over literacy practices,⁷⁴ it is important to emphasise that such exercises should always lead to more encompassing meaningful tasks in which learners experience the usefulness of their technical skills for functional purposes (for examples of respective activities, see 3.3). Using the LASLLIAM reference guide, we can provide literacy and second language learners with a well-balanced combination of authentic tasks and supportive exercises that enable them to gain such meaningful literacy experiences.

73. For oral skills, see 2.1 on oracy and 5.4 on the scenario approach in teaching.

74. Guernier 2012.

Figure 3 – Backward planning of tasks and exercises to prepare learners for the literacy event of making a note in a planner



Backward planning is a powerful tool to create such well-balanced learning opportunities.⁷⁵ In backward planning, authentic tasks are broken down by teachers into smaller tasks and exercises that help to build the subordinate competences and technical skills necessary to perform an end task, a scenario or a mini-project in a real-life situation. Figure 3 uses a descriptor from written production at level 3 to illustrate how a lexical exercise and two authentic tasks are sequenced to prepare for the action goal of noting down authentic activities in a personal weekly planner. The corresponding descriptor from the scale on Written Production/Specific scale Functional Writing reads:

3 Can note down short, simple phrases as a memory aid (e.g. notes).

After learners have observed other people using agendas and have decided in a needs analysis with their teacher (see 5.3; 5.4) that this is something that they would like to also be able to do, in a first step of goal setting, the end task needs to be agreed upon as a transparent goal for learners to reach at the end of a particular time span (e.g. the end of the session or the week).

To be able to perform this end task, that is, to write down authentic activities and appointments in a personal weekly planner, it is necessary to be able to write down chores and hobbies (exercise 1) like “work”, “Doctor Stevens”, “hairdresser”, “go to garden”, “bring dish to class”, or “take Tarik to soccer”. The corresponding descriptor from the scale for Technical Literacy/Writing is:

3 Can write short words with a complex but frequent syllabic structure (e.g. “street”; “working”).

This competence relies on the fact that learners have come across these words in reading. Therefore, a second learning goal from the scale on Technical Literacy/Reading seems suitable for this preparatory exercise as well:

3 Can read words with frequent combinations of graphemes and frequent (bound) morphemes fluently (e.g. str-; -rk, plural s).

Furthermore, the end task requires a mental model of sequential dates. For this purpose, a conversation about daily and weekly routines (task 1) can serve as a pre-writing activity to generate ideas for what to write down in the personal planner. The corresponding LASLLIAM descriptor for task 1 is from the scale on Oral Production/Sustained Monologue: Giving Information:

3 Can give simple information about time and familiar persons (e.g. address, phone number) with short, simple sentences.

⁷⁵ See Ende et al. 2013: 112-13.

Finally, the end task involves the concept of linking dates and planned activities. For this reason, learners are asked to identify events of interest in an authentic calendar with (school or community) events in Task 2. The corresponding descriptor from the scale for Written Reception/Reading for Orientation reads:

3 Can find information about places, times and prices on posters, flyers and notices.

This second task will ensure learners' understanding of tables that match dates and activities, and it is hoped will also stimulate their interest in some of the special events from this authentic programme. In a final step, they can now write down their weekly chores and hobbies in a simple personal planner – and maybe add some special events from the programme just studied.

The notion of backward planning thus relies on a skilled combination of both exercises and tasks. The next sections will therefore look into both: principles generated by methods geared towards technical literacy as well as principles generated by learner-centred methods geared towards literacy as a social practice.

3.2. ORIENTATION ON THE CODE: BUILDING TECHNICAL LITERACY SKILLS

This section highlights the most important principles of building technical literacy skills in an alphabetic script, which means focusing on decoding written words (in reading) and encoding spoken words (in writing) as well as on building fluency. This requires attention to linguistic units such as sounds and letters, syllables, morphemes and words. Of course, a mental focus on such linguistic units is only possible when learners have a stable oral command of the words used in this process. This means that in an integrated approach, the oral skills always need to be a little ahead of the written materials used for literacy learning (see 2.1.5).

The mainly used literacy teaching methods differ in their focus on which units to start with and how to proceed to reach the goal of reading for meaning. The oldest synthetic methods started with the smallest linguistic units like letters, phonemes and syllables, gradually building larger units like words and sentences; they have also been called alphabet methods or syllabic methods. Analytic methods started with larger meaningful units like words and sentences, gradually deconstructing them into smaller units. The later eclectic (or analytic-synthetic) methods combined the two approaches in focusing on simultaneously analysing words and blending the sounds again. The whole-word methods did not pay attention to smaller units at all, assuming that learners would discover the principle by themselves.⁷⁶ The following sections present a few examples of the different types of exercises from these different methods.

3.2.1. A focus on syllables

The syllable is the most easily accessible linguistic unit. Exercise types focusing on the syllable as the central audible language unit for beginning readers and writers involve clapping and “walking” words in syllables, recognising specific syllables in words, reading systematic variations of syllables such as “fa-fe-fi-fo-fu” or “sa-se-si-so-su”, dividing words into syllables by lines or combining syllables to create words.⁷⁷ Freire, who combined the teaching of syllables with a political discussion of what he called generative words,⁷⁸ inspired the use of the syllabic method as a central tenet of many literacy and second language pedagogies across Europe. His recommendation was to start the literacy process with a political discussion of key terms, for example, *favela* (= slum). Freire suggested that after a group reflection of their emancipatory meaning for the individual learner, these key terms are used as generative words, that is, words that can be broken down into syllables (e.g. *fa-ve-la*) to generate new syllables (“fa-fe-fi-fo-fu”) and words from these (and other) syllables.

The syllabic method works particularly well as a starting phase for target languages which are mainly composed of simple CV or VC syllables (e.g. Portuguese and Italian) and which use consonant clusters only to a limited degree. For other European languages, like Czech, English, French, Dutch and German, however, the syllabic approach works less well because these languages use many consonant clusters and/or because their orthographies rely on stress patterns to a large extent. Exercise types characteristic of what is called the syllable-analytic method (not to be confused with the syllabic method mentioned above) therefore focus on the stressed syllable of a word as opposed to unstressed syllables. For example, the letter <e/E> in German words is a schwa sound in

76. See, for example, Chall 1999; Chartier 2004; Gray 1969; Liberman and Liberman 1990.

77. Asfaha 2009.

78. Freire 1970/2018.

unstressed syllables, but an /e:/ or /ɛ/ in stressed syllables. Exercise types characteristic of this method therefore focus on the analysis of stress patterns at the word level using bigger circles or dots for stressed syllables and smaller ones for unstressed syllables.⁷⁹

3.2.2. A focus on sounds and letters

Sound discrimination and sound identification exercises focus on individual phonemes of the target language and are often among the first types of formal exercises literacy teachers confront their students with to build phonological awareness. At the beginning stages of literacy acquisition, learners gradually become able to decide whether they hear a certain sound like “m” at the beginning of a word such as “milk”. After being able to identify onsets, in a next step they usually acquire the ability to identify sounds in the final position and in the middle of a word.⁸⁰

In terms of building a progression of phonemes and their corresponding graphemes in a specific target language, several aspects need to be considered. Sonorants like [m] and [n] are generally considered to be more easily identified than fricatives such as [f] or [s], which in turn are considered to be more readily recognised by beginning learners than plosives such as [t] or [b]. In literacy and second language courses, the sound inventories of the previously acquired languages of the learner are important to consider because unfamiliar sounds are particularly hard to discriminate and to identify. For example, the similar sounding, but different phonemes of the target language, such as [e:]/[i:], [o:]/[u:] and [b]/[p] in several European languages, are not distinguished as phonemes in Arabic, and special attention needs to be given to this potential challenge for Arabic speakers while other language pairs require other fields of attention.⁸¹ In terms of letter recognition, the progression needs to take into consideration similar-looking letters (like <E>, <F> and <T> or , <p> and <d>) and possible interference from other languages at the grapheme level as well (e.g. Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian <š/Š> versus <sh/Sh> in English).

Particularly suited for the training of recognising sounds and letters (and their matching) are digital tools; they offer the important advantages of immediate feedback for the learner and automatic level adaptation. For this reason, digital exercises related to learning sounds and letters have been created for literacy in various second languages (e.g. Diglin project 2012-20 with materials for Dutch, English, Finnish, German and Spanish).⁸²

3.2.3. A focus on (sight) words

Whole-word (or look-and-say) methods, which were mainly used in English-speaking countries some years ago, build reading instruction on the recognition and rote memorisation of whole words, without paying attention to phonics and decoding skills. Although this might seem a fast method initially, in the long run it is not effective at all because learners are dependent on the teacher (or someone else) for every new word they encounter. Analytic approaches also start with whole meaningful words that are learned as sight words, but do focus on letters and their corresponding sounds in these words in the next step. These words often are chosen according to their particular significance to the learner group, based on their frequency and personal relevance. Exercise types characteristic of such an orientation are circling identical words, circling specific letters in sight words, or sequencing scrambled letters of a sight word. Although “residence”, “February”, “language”, “son” and “bus” may all be relevant sight words to learn, the latter two are more suited to starting the learning process of sound-letter mapping.

3.2.4. A focus on morphemes

The important role of morpheme knowledge in literacy acquisition has been less acknowledged in theories on reading acquisition. However, in several orthographies, the regularity in the mapping is not only based on letter-sound mappings, but also on morphology: identical morphemes are spelled in a similar way. Unlike syllables, morpheme boundaries cannot be identified by listening, but only by lexical analysis of the components of a word. The focus on morphemes is particularly helpful for gaining insights into highly frequent bound morphemes such as conjugation endings (e.g. “ask-asks”), plurals (e.g. “book-books”), other suffixes (e.g. “teach-teacher”), or prefixes (e.g. “like-unlike”). It also helps to break down long compound words into smaller, more manageable units. Typical exercise types are word construction kits that centre around one morpheme and show how it can

79. See Pracht 2012.

80. See Rokitzki 2016.

81. See Heyn 2013; Roder 2009.

82. See Cucchiari et al. 2015; Dawidowicz 2015; Digital Literacy Instructor, English version 2020; Digital Literacy Instructor, Finnish version 2020, Digital Literacy Instructor, French version 2020; Digital Literacy Instructor, German version 2020; Digital Literacy Instructor, Spanish version 2020.

be combined with various morphemes to create other words. The focus on morpheme knowledge is particularly important to secure word recognition and enhance fluency once the basic alphabetical principle is acquired and longer words come into play, as well as to support spelling development.

3.2.5. Important general principles

In most literacy and second language classes, these principles are not followed as pure methods or approaches, but are combined to offer the learner diverse starting points for insights into the alphabetical principle. The degree to which specific learning environments focus on these different linguistic units strongly depends on the characteristics of the target language. Despite these differences between languages and orthographies, some general teaching principles that hold for all languages can be recommended.⁸³

- ▶ Provide adequate learning environments: Learning to read an alphabetic script for the first time requires intensive and systematic instruction. Although some researchers claim that learning to read and write is as natural as oral language acquisition is for a young child, there is massive evidence that systematic code instruction is needed to provide the learner with the skills necessary to become an independent reader. This is even truer for first time adult readers in a second language because they can rely less on other resources like a rich lexicon, much print exposure or cultural knowledge to fill gaps.
- ▶ Build linguistic and orthographic awareness: Awareness of the different linguistic units like phonemes, syllables and later morphemes, as well as awareness of the different distinctive features of letters, is crucial to learning success.
- ▶ Pay targeted attention to the mapping of orthography on phonology, the basis of word identification: In European languages, this is the alphabetical principle of matching letters and sounds. For all orthographies, straightforward teaching of the 1:1 mapping of letter to sound is crucial. Less transparent orthographies also require attention to more complex matchings (one letter to several sounds or the other way around), to more complex or irregular mappings and to the morphological and stress-pattern basis of spelling.
- ▶ Stimulate fluency in decoding: Fluency in decoding is crucial to reach automatised word recognition that opens the way to text comprehension. Fluency can best be reached by a lot of practice in reading. In some literacy classes, a rather limited number of reading texts is regularly combined with many questions to be answered. For reaching fluency, the opposite is more effective: much text to read instead of answering questions.
- ▶ Stimulate reading comprehension from the very beginning: A word not understood is a word not read. The three main principles behind reading comprehension are fluency in decoding, vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension.
- ▶ Create a plurilingual classroom: Even when students do not have the same first language, use their first languages or a common language where possible to explain principles, to provide examples, to foster linguistic awareness and to check for comprehension. Learners' first languages or another well-known language can also be used effectively to build syllabic and phonemic awareness and to teach the basics of letter-sound mapping (see also 3.5).

3.3. ORIENTATION ON THE LEARNER: FOSTERING LITERACY AS A SOCIAL PRACTICE

Learner orientation in a literacy and second language learning environment means centring all literacy activities around the personal needs, goals, resources, competences and strategies of the learner (see also 5.3; 5.4; 6.1.2). It means using personal contexts instead of decontextualised texts as well as adapting course goals to the personal agendas of students. If learners are to invest in their literacy learning, their hopes for the future and their envisioned identities, their imagined literate second language selves need to be addressed in class.⁸⁴ Therefore, teachers should decide with their learners' help what kind of oral situations and literacy events are important for them to cope with and self-confidently shape their everyday lives (see 5.4).

According to their individual situation, their focus might be on family literacy, job-related skills, reading for learning, etc. to differing degrees. Goal setting in literacy and second language learning environments can be successfully achieved on the basis of visuals depicting possible relevant situations and literacy events, and study groups with differentiated learning materials can be formed accordingly.⁸⁵ Finally, it is crucial for learner

83. See Adams 1999; Chall 1999; National Reading Panel 2000; Verhoeven and Perfetti 2017; see also 2.4 and the Technical Literacy scales in Chapter 4.

84. See Dörnyei 2009; Norton 2013.

85. See Feldmeier 2009a.

orientation that students bring printed materials and photos of words and texts to the classroom from their everyday lives. Initiatives following such situated approaches to literacy learning are sometimes located in learning environments regularly frequented by learners, such as mosques or community centres, instead of concentrating learning on unknown institutions outside their neighbourhood.

The following sections highlight the importance of participating in literacy events (see 3.3.1), of experiencing authorship (see 3.3.2), and using literacy as a means for learning and emancipation (see 3.3.3).

3.3.1. Participating in literacy events

In their learning environments, learners should experience literacy not only as the goal of learning, but also as a useful way of communication with people who are not present. Therefore, authentic use of reading and writing in mini-projects, whether in the classroom or in other domains of life, is essential for learners to build an increasingly complex understanding of what can be done by reading and writing and what the text types are for achieving these recurring purposes. Written text types like menus, TV programmes, lists, labels, messages, forms or signs – to name only a few examples – need to be experienced by the newcomer in their social dimension, that is, as a means to achieve a goal.⁸⁶ Therefore, preparatory simulations in the classroom and real-life tasks outside the classroom are an essential component of a successful learning environment.

At the beginning of the learning process, the learner's participation in literacy events is that of an observing newcomer: to watch and begin to understand the actions of other more experienced text users is crucial to becoming a more central participant in literacy events at later stages of development. For example, without being able to read or write a message, literacy and second language learners can, of course, experience using this text type with the help of a mediator. This is true for other, more complex, text types as well, such as using bank accounts, travel itineraries or letters of complaint. Therefore, simulations and scenario-based methods as well as mini-projects in real-life situations are important elements in gradually introducing literacy and second language learners to a progression of text types that has been carefully established with regards to a needs analysis (see 5.4).

3.3.2. Experiencing authorship

The importance of experiencing authorship is recognised as a guiding principle in many literacy and second language learning environments across Europe. As an addition to using textbooks and decontextualised texts, it is considered a particularly promising way to create opportunities for the learner to deeply experience the connection between texts and reality.

According to the language experience approach, literacy learners write down, or dictate to a peer or the teacher, their own experience. Then, the peers in the learning environment read this text in an edited form and discuss its content. In this way, they can experience the power, and in many cases also the beauty, of the written word. Photo-illustrated biographies, reports on job experiences, invented love stories, but also informational texts on food, health, hobbies, politics, and other topics of interest written by learners in the same learning environment, have the advantage of usually meeting the lexical and morpho-syntactical language level of the peer group. In addition, they are of particular personal interest to the other learners who can deepen their understanding of the text by questioning the author present as a member of the learning environment. The author of the text in focus, on the other hand, not only experiences ownership of a text and pride in the fine end product with its illustrations, but also the necessity in the process of writing to express themselves in a coherent and comprehensible way. The printing of such texts in order to exchange them between classes or to publish them as newspapers, books or documents as originally recommended by Freinet⁸⁷ for children's first language literacy also holds great appeal to second language literacy adult educators, in particular because computers have made print readily available. For learners to experience second language literacy in personal communication, teacher–student diaries have also been used across Scandinavia in particular.

At the beginning of literacy acquisition, learners can experience the authorship of writing words independently. Using alphabet charts with illustrations of onsets, such as the picture of an apple with the combination of the letter <a/A>, they analyse a word (chosen individually according to personal significance) into sounds and try to write it down. Note that many literacy and second language teachers use charts linking letters to initial sounds in words in the relevant migrant languages (see in Appendix 1, for example, the link to Kompetanse Norge from Norway or the materials of the KASA project in Germany). In the beginning stages, learners will only succeed in

86. See Waggershauer 2015.

87. Freinet 1994.

writing word skeletons consisting of a few consonants, but as they progress their writing becomes orthographically more and more complex. The advantage is that motivation is particularly high with individually chosen words and phrases. In this way, learners use writing as a tool to express their own ideas from the start of the learning process.

3.3.3. Using literacy for learning and emancipation

As outlined in Chapter 1, literacy programmes for second language learners contribute to the emancipation of the individual and increase their opportunities for participation in the target language society. Therefore, the contents of texts read and discussed in a literacy and second language learning environment should be informative and highly relevant for adult learners, and they should, of course, avoid any infantilisation. This is a self-evident fact that we mention only because the modelling of second language adult literacy on the basis of first language child literacy has sometimes led to non-reflected transfer of lexical items (e.g. toys) and contents (e.g. children's games or non-informative reading materials). When fun stories and relevant topics such as health, consumer rights, social and medical support, multicultural experiences, political issues, equal rights for women and LGBT, etc. are addressed in adequately simple language and texts, such literacy programmes make an essential contribution to the basic education and personal growth of learners.

Closely related to the issue of reading for learning and critical reflection is the aspect of numeracy. Although numeracy in the broad sense of mathematics is not explicitly addressed in the LASLLIAM scales, numeracy such as dealing with numbers in texts is an important aspect of many literacy programmes. Also, the reading of tables, signs, calendars, bills and many other text types clearly involves numeracy skills that cannot be taken for granted in literacy and second language learning environments. Finally, the integrated use of digital media skills, as outlined in section 1.3 of this reference guide, is important in empowering literacy and second language programmes aiming first and foremost at the personal growth of learners.

3.4. LEARNING STRATEGIES AND AUTONOMY

Strategies and autonomy are powerful factors in increasing effectiveness and sustainability of an action-oriented, well-balanced literacy programme. Chapter 4 presents the scaled language use strategies of planning, compensating, and monitoring and repair, which empower learners in communication. LASLLIAM considers the teaching of language learning strategies equally essential for learners with little experience in formal learning. These include (meta-)cognitive, affective and social strategies. Unlike the language use strategies, they have not been scaled, but are listed here.

Cognitive strategies include, among others:

- ▶ strategies for structuring reading materials at the letter to word level such as these:
 - can mark syllables with a line or circle to speed up reading (aloud);
 - can mark frequent letter combinations to speed up reading (aloud) (e.g. <sh>, <str>, <rk>);
 - can mark lexical morphemes with a line or circle to speed up reading aloud (e.g. “cook” in “cooking” or “cooker”);
 - can mark functional morphemes with a line or circle to speed up reading aloud (e.g. conjugation and tense endings, plural or case endings);
- ▶ strategies for structuring writing materials at the letter to word level such as:
 - can use a letter chart to sound out and transliterate a word;
 - can underline or circle the stressed syllable of a word to spell stressed, unstressed and reduction syllables more easily (e.g. “gesehen” in German);
 - can come up with a visually characteristic symbol starting with the related letter (e.g. “snake”) to better remember the form of a letter (e.g. <s/S>);
 - can use gestures or clapping of syllables while speaking a word to analyse it into syllables;
- ▶ memory strategies⁸⁸ such as:
 - can copy phrases and simple sentences to use them in memorising the oral form;
 - can produce and use a simple collection of words, phrases or simple sentences (e.g. on flash cards, in an app) to memorise them;

88. See Bøddeker 2018.

- can copy words to remember their spelling;
- can use repetition to memorise spoken words;
- can use audio recording to memorise spoken words;
- can use first language to translate and memorise words;

Metacognitive strategies for monitoring and regulating formal learning (study skills) include, among others:

- ▶ can state personal general goals (e.g. helping own children with school work) for learning the second language to participate in course planning;
- ▶ can choose realistic learning goals (e.g. out of a given list of visual illustrations of situations) to individualise learning process;
- ▶ can choose learning materials to match own needs and learning style;
- ▶ can organise learning materials (e.g. punch, date, number and sort materials) to use them efficiently;
- ▶ can document learning process in a tailored portfolio to track progress;
- ▶ can use self-evaluation materials (e.g. a checklist like the one suggested in Appendix 3) to monitor and reflect on own learning process;
- ▶ can identify the need to ask for help.

Affective strategies for motivation and volition include, among others:

- ▶ can compare documents of own learning to track progress and motivate themselves;
- ▶ can name what they (dis-)like about the learning environment in order to make it more effective for themselves;
- ▶ can use positive self-talk to motivate themselves;
- ▶ can accept mistakes to reduce language learning anxiety and stress level.

Social strategies for interaction and participation include, among others:

- ▶ can proactively join groups speaking the target language (e.g. a sports club, gardening volunteers) to establish social contacts;
- ▶ can take the initiative (e.g. invite neighbours) to establish social contacts;
- ▶ can participate in a digital learning group supervised by a tutor to use the second language;
- ▶ can find other people to support the learning process (e.g. mentor, learning buddy, tandem partner).

Such language learning strategies are effective tools to empower newcomers to formal education and as such they are important building blocks of learner autonomy.⁸⁹ While learning strategies represent the psychological perspective on autonomy, three other perspectives on autonomy are relevant as well: the technical, social and political-critical perspectives.⁹⁰

What has been called the technical perspective on autonomy focuses on self-access materials for literacy learning. From this perspective, it is particularly important to provide students with materials that they can use independently of the classroom including feedback from teachers, for example: materials with answer keys, reflective tools for self-assessment, digital material with immediate feedback mechanisms, and also materials that are self-produced and thus owned by the learners, as well as their own portfolio⁹¹ (see 6.2; Appendix 3).

Social autonomy involves peripheral participation in literacy events. It is important that literacy and second language learners experience acceptance as newcomers into groups that they wish to become a member of. Successful literacy instruction can thus not be confined to the space between the classroom walls, but must provide access to groups that match the envisioned second language selves that learners are ready to invest in. Scaffolding the entry of and positioning in new social groups, as well as the formation of new social groups among learners, are therefore important aspects of successful literacy programmes.

Finally, the political-critical perspective on autonomy emphasises the necessity to empower learners to confront discriminatory acts such as racist or sexist comments. While textbooks usually only model polite and grateful speech acts for a submissive positioning of migrants, literacy and second language learners also need language models to fight off offensive acts, which are rather unfortunate aspects of reality as well.

89. For more details, see Feldmeier 2011; Markov et al. 2015.

90. See Khakpour and Schramm 2016; Oxford 2003.

91. For example, see Dammers et al. 2015.

3.5. CONTRASTIVE AND PLURILINGUAL LEARNING

An action-oriented approach to literacy and second language that balances orientation on the code and on the learner will not only benefit from a focus on learning strategies and autonomy, but will also be greatly strengthened by contrastive and plurilingual learning.⁹² Contrastive and plurilingual orientation means lived respect for and interest in the migrants' first languages as a principle that is continuously honoured in literacy and second language learning environments.

Comparing languages at the phonetic, lexical, morpho-syntactic, textual and pragmatic level is of interest to the teacher not only as background knowledge for anticipating linguistic challenges in the learning process, but it should also become a subject of class discussion and an inspiration for students to increase their language awareness and metalinguistic reflection abilities. Taking a contrastive approach does not require the teacher to be bilingual or speak the various first languages of the students at a high level, but it does require him or her to be interested in these languages, to provide room for first language input from learners to use as learning material and to be ready to follow up on these first language impulses. The teacher is continually learning from the students who take the expert role on their first languages, and thus starts using phrases such as greetings, instructions and praises in these languages and further encourages the use of translations and transliterations to foster the learning process. For example, in Norway this has been carried out also through the contribution of so-called language helpers, that is, learners of the same first languages who are no longer beginning learners.⁹³

In contrastive and plurilingual learning environments, learners are welcome to code-switch, and they are encouraged to mediate classroom interaction and learning materials in order to optimise learning conditions for everyone in the learning environment. They are also encouraged to develop mediating competences required so urgently in today's communication, not only in the educational, but also in the personal, public and occupational domain. Mediating competences in the literacy and second language learning environment obviously depends on the oral and written competences in the languages (including dialects and registers) involved. They develop from relaying routine phrases and simple instructions or concepts to relaying information, data or task instructions. Because the target learners in the literacy classroom are beginning readers and writers, mediation not only involves mediating oral communication, but in particular also mediating between written and spoken language, as the following list illustrates.

- ▶ Mediating from speech to speech in the learning environment mainly involves mediating the teacher's utterances in the target language such as instructions or explanations to fellow learners in another language, and the other way around, namely mediating peers' utterances such as questions and statements to a language understood by the teacher (i.e. the target language or a lingua franca like English, French or Spanish).
- ▶ Mediating from speech to writing in the learning environment typically involves writing down in another language for a fellow learner oral information that was given in the target language, for example the translation or transliteration of a word as a memory aid in the first language or the first writing system of the peer or making a note of a teacher explanation not understood by the fellow learner (e.g. "use this phrase for adults, not for kids").
- ▶ Mediating from writing to writing in the learning environment can involve the collaborative production of plurilingual learning materials (e.g. a key-word poster or vocabulary game) as well as summarising or translating written information or instructions in learning materials in another language for a fellow learner.
- ▶ Mediating from writing to speech in the learning environment involves helping peers orally with written material in the target language (e.g. course programme, sign, notice, enrolment form, attendance list, textbook material, learning game) in another language and helping the teacher orally with written material in the language of a fellow student not comprehended by the teacher (e.g. certification, CV, story, poem, note).

A systematic encouragement of classroom mediation will also build the foundation for developing mediation skills in other domains which might be included as explicit learning goals in the literacy and second language curriculum.

92. See Heyn 2013; Marschke 2022.

93. Vox – Nasjonalt fagorgan for kompetansepolitikk 2014.

3.6. THE POWERFUL EXPERIENCE OF SUCCESS

Motivation is, of course, a particularly powerful factor in literacy and second language learning, just as in any other language learning, and success orientation is therefore a key principle to consider in planning a learning environment for beginning readers and writers. In order to build motivation and keep it at high levels, it is important to offer tasks or exercises that are within the individual learner's zone of proximal development, a term Vygotski⁹⁴ used to describe activities that a learner can accomplish successfully with the help of another person or by using scaffolds in the learning material.

A group of literacy and second language learners will usually be quite heterogeneous in many respects, and students with various profiles in terms of oral and literacy competences will learn together. This heterogeneity requires a high degree of differentiation from the teacher which she or he will have to base on individual needs and individual assessment of progress. While learners should work individually or in small homogeneous groups on different activities that are within their personal reach, the whole group will still be united in its focus on a single topic and the co-construction of meaning. Within this group setting, pair work with a more advanced partner providing guidance and mediation to a less advanced partner also allows for success on both sides. It provides, on the one hand, the experience of being able to help and, on the other, that of being able to do something with help and scaffolding knowing that one was not able to do so alone.

Success orientation is particularly important to stress because progress in reading and writing of literacy and second language learners might seem slow to a lay observer or to a language teacher with no literacy-teaching experience, but the informed teacher has a more differentiated concept of the pathways to literacy and second language competences and the many steps involved in this process – as laid out in the LASLLIAM scales. This allows the professional literacy and second language teacher not to focus on the learner's presumed deficits (see 6.1.1), but to build on their resources and to identify learning activities that are within reach, thus stimulating further investment of the learner in pursuit of the second-language literate self they want to become. In success-oriented literacy and second-language learning environments, both teachers and learners clearly perceive – and celebrate – progress that might not be recognisable to the untrained eye.

3.7. BALANCING THE VARIOUS PRINCIPLES IN LITERACY AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

This chapter has highlighted the need to balance orientation to the code in order to build technical literacy skills and orientation to the learner in order to foster literacy as a social practice. It has recommended backward planning as a powerful tool to systematically link exercises focusing on technical literacy (as well as components of oral skills like vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation) with authentic tasks in order to successfully implement an action-oriented approach. Three factors are highly influential on the learning process: the development of strategies and autonomy, the use of contrastive and plurilingual approaches and, most importantly, a pedagogical commitment to success orientation.⁹⁵

94. Vygotski 1975.

95. For more details on literacy and second language teaching methods, see Albert et al. 2012, 2015; Feick et al. 2013; Feldmeier 2010; Lemke-Ghafir et al. 2021; Minuz et al. 2016; Roll and Schramm 2010.

Chapter 4

LASLLIAM SCALES AND TABLES

This chapter presents the four LASLLIAM levels (see 1.4.3) in terms of scaled progression from level 1 to level 4. Such progression is defined according to descriptors related to four types of illustrative scales: Technical Literacy, Communicative Language Activities, Language Use Strategies and Digital Skills. As Table 1 shows, taking into account these 4 types, 52 scales and 425 descriptors are provided by LASLLIAM.

Table 1 – LASLLIAM scales and descriptors

| | No. of scales | No. of descriptors |
|--|-----------------|--------------------|
| Technical Literacy | 3 | 59 |
| Communicative Language Activities | 28 | 184 |
| Language Use Strategies | 18 | 119 |
| Digital Skills | 3 | 63 |
| | Total 52 | Total 425 |

As Table 2 shows, included in the Communicative Language Activities scales (see 1.2) are 71 descriptors from the CEFR Companion volume Pre-A1 and A1 levels, which are integrated into LASLLIAM levels 3 and 4 and presented in blue font.

Table 2 – LASLLIAM descriptors and CEFR Companion volume descriptors

| | No. of descriptors | CEFR Companion volume Pre-A1 descriptors | CEFR Companion volume A1 descriptors |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| Communicative Language Activities | 184 | 26 | 45 |

LASLLIAM descriptors follow the five criteria suggested by CEFR: positiveness, definiteness, clarity, brevity and independence (Council of Europe 2001, Appendix A: 205-7). This means that the descriptors are presented in terms of what a non- or low-literate adult migrant can do (positiveness) rather than what they cannot do in performing concrete tasks (definiteness). In order to make the descriptors as transparent and comprehensive as possible, a glossary explaining the technical terms completes the reference guide (clarity). Finally, the LASLLIAM descriptors tend to be short (brevity) and represent stand-alone objectives, in the sense that they do not have meaning only in relation to other descriptors (independence). This allows, for instance, for their use within checklists for self-assessment (see Appendix 3), where it is possible to consider them as independent statements.

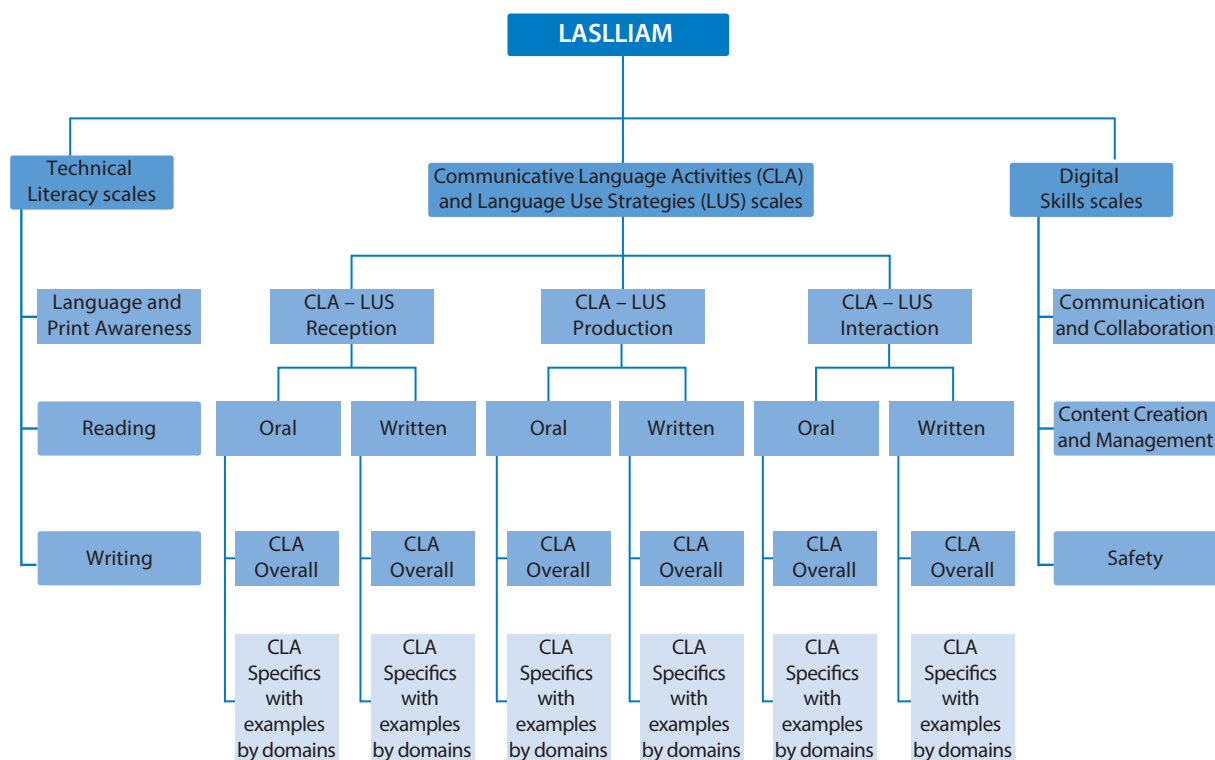
Users are invited to look at the LASLLIAM illustrative scales as a flexible, dynamic and open system, with descriptors to be selected according to the context and the learners' needs, as they result from an accurate preliminary needs analysis (see 1.4; 5) and emerge throughout the learning process. In referring to such a suggested selection, users should also be aware that the assigned level of a few can-do statements, especially in the Technical Literacy scale, could vary according to the orthographies, morphological complexity and other linguistic features of the specific languages (see 4.1). In these cases, an adaptation of the progression to the target language is needed.

More generally, it is important to remember that "levels are a necessary simplification. The reason the CEFR includes so many descriptor scales is to encourage users to develop differentiated profiles" (Council of Europe 2020a: 38). The same is valid for the present work (see in particular 1.4.3; 6.1.3), as most scales can be used independently from each other; this is particularly the case in the oral and written scales, taking into account the dual process referred to above.

LASLLIAM users will find scales for Technical Literacy in 4.1, for Communicative Language Activities and Language Use Strategies in 4.2 and for Digital Skills in 4.3. With particular regard to the Communicative Language Activities Specific scales, LASLLIAM also provides tables related to concrete examples of language use in respect of the four CEFR domains (personal, public, occupational and educational).

The methodology used to validate the content of the LASLLIAM scales is described in Chapter 7. Figure 4 presents an overview of the LASLLIAM descriptive scheme, representing possible learning and teaching goals related to the simultaneous processes of acquiring literacy and a second language at the same time (see 1.2). Please be aware that specific personal conditions, such as disability or trauma, and social conditions, such as isolation, could affect the achievement of goals.

Figure 4 – The LASLLIAM descriptive scheme



4.1. TECHNICAL LITERACY

Technical literacy is an important basis for using literacy competences in authentic communication; it is defined as the ability to get access to the written code of a language. For alphabetical scripts this means learning to use the systematic relationship between letters/graphemes in writing and sounds/phonemes in spoken language in a gradually more fluent way until word recognition is automatized. The scales on Technical Literacy therefore provide a detailed model of how beginning readers and writers in a second language develop technical literacy skills. Learning to decode written language starts with rote learning of a basic set of short and phonologically simple sight words, which are used to move into a second step of learning the systematic correspondence between grapheme (letter) and sound (phoneme). This learning process builds on short words with a simple syllabic structure and regular spelling (i.e. a one-to-one correspondence between letter and sound), and gradually extends to (longer) words with a more complex linguistic structure such as consonant clusters and more complex or irregular grapheme–phoneme correspondences. The last step in this process is focused on speed and becoming fluent in decoding. For beginners in reading and writing it is also important to build awareness of the intimate but difficult to grasp relationship between spoken and written language and to the phonological make-up of the target language.

The development of technical literacy is represented in three scales:

1. Language and Print Awareness;
2. Reading;
3. Writing.

Key concepts in the scale of Reading and Writing are:

- ▶ the cognitive activity involved: from rote learning to slow letter-by-letter decoding to direct word recognition through fast and fluent decoding, or from copying to slow encoding to fast encoding in writing;

- ▶ linguistic complexity: from very short words with a simple syllabic structure to phonologically and morphologically more complex words, short and simple sentences, and later to linguistically very short and simple texts;⁹⁶
- ▶ orthographic complexity: from one-to-one correspondence between grapheme and phoneme to more complex relationships between graphemes and phonemes and irregularities in spelling;
- ▶ familiarity: from familiar and practised words and phrases to familiar words and phrases that are new in the written form;
- ▶ speed: from slow decoding to fluent recognition of words and sentences.

The key concepts shape lines of progression that apply to all languages (see 2.2). However, research has highlighted that some linguistic features that determine linguistic and orthographic complexity (e.g. regularity and transparency of spelling, prevailing syllable structure, morphological complexity, word order) affect how literacy is acquired.⁹⁷ Albeit in a non-linear fashion, language specificity influences how literacy is taught in the different educational traditions. Consequently, some descriptors of the Technical Literacy scale are language specific. They may not be applicable or may be placed at a level immediately above or below the level indicated here. For example, the descriptor “Can read single practised words with a simple syllabic structure by synthesising syllables (e.g. “ora”, “doctor”)” at level 2 in the LASLLIAM scale can be anticipated at level 1 if referred to practised disyllabic words composed of CV (consonant-vowel) syllables in an Italian learning context (e.g. “no-me”). For courses in languages with simpler morpho-syntax like Dutch, the descriptor “Can read short and simple sentences, if the words are orthographically simple” may be already within reach at level 2 instead of at level 3.

Notice that not all abilities related to teaching handwriting, specifically the use of writing tools and the visual-motor skills, are scaled here, but they are of foremost importance in acquiring technical literacy. They have to be dealt with while teaching to read and write and require regular and explicit instruction. They include visual and graphomotor aspects, such as effective pen/pencil grasp and pressure, pen/pencil control and fluency, regular letter formation and automatisations of eye movement to follow the hand and direction of the target script.

Written language does not represent meaning directly like other visual symbols such as pictures do, but via units of spoken language. Therefore, it is important to stress that familiarity is key in this learning process. Thus, words that are familiar to learners should be used in teaching them to read and write. It is also important to stress that technical literacy is not a goal in itself, but a means in order to achieve functional literacy beyond the A1 level. Therefore, in accordance with the action-oriented approach of the CEFR Companion volume, we have specified the functional aspects of literacy in the scales of written reception, production and interaction. This is in line with the fact that it is considered important that language education for this target group empowers learners to cope with everyday challenges. The levels in the Communicative Language Activities scales for Written Reception, Production and Interaction have taken into account the progress in these technical scales, for example at level 1 comprehending a short, written message will be restricted to recognition of already memorised and practised words, and at level 4 it refers to independent reading of short sentences and simple texts. To fully understand the learning demands involved in these challenges, however, detailed scales on technical literacy as provided below can raise awareness of important progress at the levels below and up to A1.

4.1.1. Language and Print Awareness

| Descriptor | |
|------------|--|
| 4 | Knows that cohesive devices are important for understanding texts (e.g. “he”; “then”). |
| 3 | Can synthesise phonemes into a word with a complex syllabic structure (e.g. “d-r-i-n-k” into “drink”). |
| | Can analyse words with a complex syllabic structure (e.g. “plant” into “p-l-a-n-t”). |
| | Can synthesise spoken words into short and simple sentences. |
| 3 | Knows that the word order of the sentences in different languages can differ (e.g. place of the verb). |
| | Can analyse short and simple spoken sentences into words (e.g. “This-is-my-house”). |

⁹⁶ Short and simple are overall, descriptive terms that should be specified for each language.

⁹⁷ Verhoeven and Perfetti 2017.

| Descriptor | |
|------------|--|
| 2 | Knows that a phoneme corresponds to a grapheme. |
| | Can analyse words with a simple syllabic structure into phonemes (e.g. “map” into “m-a-p”). |
| | Can identify the order of phonemes (e.g. initial and final) in words with a simple syllabic structure. |
| | Can identify rhyming words in the target language (e.g. “book-cook, late-plate”). |
| | Knows that some phonemes in the target language can differ from phonemes in the first language (e.g. the number of vowels; p-b for Arabic speakers). |
| | Can synthesise phonemes into words with a simple syllabic structure (e.g. “c-a-t” into “cat”). |
| 1 | Can show the direction of the script in the language they are learning (e.g. from left to right and top to bottom for Latin and Greek script). |
| | Can distinguish linguistic signs (like written words) from non-linguistic signs (like icons or symbols). |
| | Can identify some initial phonemes of a spoken word (e.g. the initial phoneme of their own name). |

4.1.2. Reading

| Descriptor | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can read fluently words with a complex syllabic structure (e.g. “shirts”). |
| | Can read short and simple phrases fluently by using automated reading processes. |
| | Can read, phrase by phrase, a short, simple text. |
| | Can read frequent maths symbols (+, %, comma) in simple texts (like advertisements). |
| | Can use punctuation marks as an aid to understand a text. |
| | Can read simple two-clause sentences with an unknown word. |
| 3 | Can read short and simple sentences, if the words are orthographically simple. |
| | Can recognise frequently used punctuation marks (e.g. full stop, question mark). |
| | Can read words with frequent combinations of graphemes and frequent (bound) morphemes fluently (e.g. str-; -rk, plural s). |
| | Can read short and simple texts, if the sentences are few and have a simple syntactic structure. |
| | Can read frequent words fluently by using automated reading processes. |
| | Can read with some effort orthographically complex words (e.g. multisyllabic words, words with consonant clusters, or words with irregular spelling). |
| 2 | Can read practised words and new short words with a simple or highly frequent syllabic structure by applying the grapheme–phoneme correspondence (e.g. “son”, “sera”). |
| | Can relate a grapheme to the corresponding phoneme in orthographically simple words (e.g. “hat”, “book”). |
| | Can read practised words by recognising highly frequent combinations of graphemes. |
| | Can read single practised words with a simple syllabic structure by synthesising syllables (e.g. “ora”, “doctor”). |
| | Can recognise most graphemes in a word, including visually confusing graphemes (e.g. b and d or f and t in Latin, φ and ϕ in Greek or Л and П in Cyrillic). |
| | Can recognise graphemes in different frequently used fonts and printed formats (e.g. italic). |
| 1 | Can identify and read their own writing. |
| | Can distinguish upper- and lower-case letters in practised words. |
| | Can read numerals up to 10 in digits. |
| | Can recognise numerals in personally relevant texts like an address. |
| | Can recognise practised sight words (e.g. days of the week). |
| Can recognise some graphemes in practised words (e.g. initial letters in own name). | |

4.1.3. Writing

| Descriptor | |
|------------|---|
| 4 | Can write frequently used words, phrases and sentences fluently. |
| | Can write simple sentences sometimes using a common connector (e.g. "and", "but"). |
| | Can write the numerals up to 1000 in digits. |
| | Can use some frequently used cohesive devices (e.g. "he", "then"). |
| 3 | Can write short words with a complex but frequent syllabic structure (e.g. "street"; "working"). |
| | Can write down familiar words and phrases said by others (e.g. an appointment by phone). |
| | Can use upper case according to the conventions of the target language (e.g. names; nouns in German). |
| | Can write short and simple sentences with frequent words and formulaic expressions. |
| 2 | Can use spaces to visually mark the different words. |
| | Can write down simple syllabic-structured familiar words said by others (e.g. "pane"). |
| | Can write words with a simple syllabic structure using the phoneme-grapheme correspondence (e.g. "book"). |
| | Can write the letters in upper and lower case. |
| | Can write short words with a highly frequent syllabic structure (e.g. "hot", "wet"). |
| | Can write the numerals up to 100 in digits. |
| 1 | Can distinguish the main features of letters (e.g. tail in p or dot in i) and use them in copying and writing. |
| | Can write on a line. |
| | Can write the numerals up to 10 in digits. |
| | Can write in the direction of the script of the target language (e.g. from left to right and top to bottom for Latin and Greek script). |
| | Can write their own name and signature. |
| | Can copy a few familiar words. |

4.2. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES AND LANGUAGE USE STRATEGIES

4.2.1. Reception Activities

4.2.1.1. Oral Reception

The scale for Oral Reception/overall listening comprehension models functional aspects of dealing with aural or audiovisual input at the very beginning stages of learning a second language. As in the CEFR Companion volume, the listening scales focus on different kinds of one-way listening and exclude listening in interaction.

For Oral Reception, LASLLIAM distinguishes one Overall scale and four Specific scales for:

1. Understanding Conversation between Other Speakers
2. Listening as a Member of a Live Audience
3. Listening to Announcements and Instructions
4. Listening to Audio Media and Recordings and Watching TV and Video.

Learning to listen in a second language does not depend on the ability to read and write in the second language,

- ▶ Unless indicated otherwise, the names of the categories and order of the scales in this reference guide are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume.
- ▶ Please note that the descriptors in **blue font** are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume levels A1 and Pre-A1.
- ▶ The descriptors in the Overall scales (apart from the blue ones from the CEFR Companion volume) are presented according to the formula "Can do X (referring to the communicative activity) by reading/writing/listening/speaking Y (referring to practice, length and linguistic complexity)". This formula must always be taken into account as implicit in all other descriptors of the Specific scales.
- ▶ For concrete application of the descriptors see the tables embedded in the Specific scales, with examples of language use in the four different domains.
- ▶ Please note that such examples related to the four domains might need adaptation according to the context and the learners' needs.

or in any other language, as proven by the many non-literate adults who have learned to speak a new language. The scales for listening comprehension do not parallel the literacy scale. Learners can progress in listening skills and in reading skills at quite different paces.

However, the relation between learning to listen in a second language and learning to read and write is taken into account in this reference guide. The scales in this section describe the steps from the first aural contact with the new language to the Pre-A1 and A1 levels of the CEFR Companion volume.

Enunciation and context can restrict or influence listening comprehension at every level of the scales, thus they should be considered a part of all descriptors in the scales for listening comprehension. With enunciation, the speech must be very slow, carefully articulated, with long pauses, accompanied by gestures and other body language; prosody and pronunciation must be close to the pronunciation in the geographical area where the learner lives; and intonational patterns must be clearly expressed. Moreover, the speech must be produced in everyday, familiar contexts; background noises and other disturbances must be limited.

The progression in listening comprehension is described using the following key concepts:

- ▶ the cognitive activity involved: from understanding single chunks (mostly phrases, words, fixed expressions like social formula), which are memorised and recognised when they occur, to connecting phrases/words in larger units of meaning (sentences and more extended stretches of speech);
- ▶ length and linguistic complexity: from short and simple speech formed by single phrases and words to more complex speech composed of simple, sometimes connected sentences, and a wider range of phrases and words;⁹⁸
- ▶ familiarity: from familiar phrases and words to new phrases and words; from a known content of speech to partially new contents;
- ▶ reliance on context: from a strong reliance on contextual cues (including gestures, artefacts and visual cues) in order to understand the aural or audiovisual input to less reliance on contextual clues, provided that situations, themes and linguistic features of the speech are familiar.⁹⁹

Overall Oral Reception

| | |
|----------|--|
| 4 | Can recognise concrete information (e.g. places and times) on familiar topics encountered in everyday life, provided it is delivered slowly and clearly. |
| 3 | Can recognise a familiar topic by understanding frequent words and expressions in a short, simple speech. Can understand short, very simple questions and statements provided they are delivered slowly and clearly and accompanied by visuals or manual gestures to support understanding and repeated if necessary. Can recognise numbers, prices, dates and days of the week, provided they are delivered slowly and clearly in a defined, familiar everyday context. |
| 2 | Can pick out isolated pieces of information and frequent social formulas (e.g. greetings) by recognising familiar words and expressions in a short, simple speech. |
| 1 | Can recognise a personally relevant piece of information delivered mostly in a single word or expression in a familiar context (e.g. "today"). |

Understanding Conversation between Other Speakers

As in the CEFR Companion volume, understanding conversation between other speakers concerns the situations in which the learner hears a conversation in which they do not participate: when other speakers in a group talk to each other without addressing the learner, and when the listener overhears other people nearby. In both situations the learner cannot intervene to accommodate the conversation in terms of content and language, for example by asking for an explanation.

98. Short and simple here means that speech is mostly composed of phrases and words which are salient and frequent (e.g. greetings) and of sentences with a simple syntactic structure. The input to be processed could be a single utterance (e.g. "Enter please!") or a section of a longer discourse that the learner understands only partially (e.g. the greetings opening a conversation in which the learner does not participate).

99. Regarding situations, "familiar" includes both experiential and cultural familiarity. Familiarity with the body language used by participants in the communicative event, which may be related to their cultural and social background, age, gender and not understandable by the learner, must also be considered.

The term “understanding”, in the sense of grasping the meaning of what the participants in the conversation say, can be used properly only at level 4. The levels below mark the progression towards this objective.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening: from short and simple speech expressed in familiar words to more complex speech related to new contents;
- ▶ contextualisation and predictability of the conversation: from recognising expressions and words in a stretch of conversation clearly related to the context through gestures, other body language and actions of the participants to getting an idea of a familiar topic.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|--|---|---|---|
| 4 | Can understand words/signs and short sentences in a simple conversation (e.g. between a customer and a salesperson in a shop), provided people communicate very slowly and very clearly. | e.g. the description of the common areas of an apartment building and where to park the bicycles | e.g. information about a delay at a bus stop | e.g. warnings and instructions while performing a job task together | e.g. information about courses or teachers |
| | Can understand some expressions when people are discussing them, family, school, hobbies or surroundings, provided the delivery is slow and clear. | e.g. between participants at a friends' gathering | e.g. people commenting on food in a cafeteria | e.g. about daily job tasks (“Today we start cleaning from the first floor”) | e.g. a conversation about hobbies in the classroom e.g. comments about courses, teachers, class schedule (“I like my class; they are nice people”) |
| 3 | Can pick out familiar pieces of information in a short, simple conversation between others in an everyday context. | e.g. someone's relation with the speaker in an introduction (“He is an old friend of mine”) | e.g. the opening hours of a shop, service asked for by a customer at the desk | e.g. what is needed to perform a task | e.g. a conversation about daily routines in the classroom |
| | Can get an idea of the familiar topic of a short, simple conversation, if the conversation is clearly related to people and objects that are in the surroundings (e.g. participants are pointing at them). | e.g. thanks for a gift, well-wishing or welcoming guests at a friend's gathering | e.g. the description of an object given by the salesperson to a customer (“This is the cheapest phone card”); basic information about a service (“That is the children's hospital”) | e.g. a simple problem in the present work, like a broken tool, or someone asking for help | e.g. a teacher is ill |
| 2 | Can pick out isolated pieces of information and frequent social formulas by recognising familiar words and expressions in conversation between others. | e.g. nationality, age, family relation during an introduction (“My wife”) | e.g. where a department in the supermarket is (“Vegetables are there”) | e.g. the location of a tool or a person in a familiar setting | e.g. hours and days of personally relevant courses |
| 1 | Can recognise a personally relevant piece of information delivered by others mostly in a single word or expression. | e.g. greetings and very simple social formulas | e.g. the name of a document in a public office (“ID card”) | e.g. the name of a familiar tool | e.g. the name of a classroom object or a person |

Listening as a Member of a Live Audience

As in the CEFR Companion volume, Listening as a Member of a Live Audience concerns listening to a speaker, for example at an assembly, at a wedding, at a meeting, etc. Understanding the speaker as a member of a live audience is easier than understanding a conversation spoken by others for two main reasons which are stressed in the CEFR Companion volume: the speaker probably adopts a neutral register and projects their voice to maximise the ability of the audience to follow.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening: from short and simple speech expressed in familiar words to more complex speech related to new contents;
- ▶ contextualisation and predictability: from picking out isolated pieces of information about persons, objects and places that are present in the immediate environment and later to following a talk centred/focused on real artefacts;
- ▶ degree of accommodation to the audience by the speaker: increasing speed of delivery, decreasing non-verbal reference to persons, objects and places by pointing, showing, performing examples of use;
- ▶ familiarity of the situation and the subject matter: from very familiar situations and topics to less familiarity with either the situation or the topic.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|---|--|--|---|
| 4 | Can follow a simple talk slowly and carefully articulated (e.g. someone introducing a friend in a meeting). | e.g. congratulations, well-wishing, welcome | e.g. a short opening talk delivered at the community centre | e.g. about job tasks, objects and people related to the present work | e.g. a simple introduction of the (children's) courses or a simple story delivered by the teacher |
| | Can understand in outline very simple information being explained in a predictable situation like a guided tour, provided that speech is very slow and clear and that there are long pauses from time to time. | e.g. the description of their apartment delivered by friends | e.g. about a personally relevant public service, such as a family centre or a job service ("The centre is open to families with young children") | e.g. about a familiar job task at the workplace | e.g. a simple explanation delivered by the teacher |
| 3 | Can pick out pieces of information about persons, objects and places to which the speaker clearly refers using body language (e.g. "The information desk is over there"). | e.g. someone's personal information, like name, nationality, age, job, relations in an introduction | e.g. opening days and hours of a familiar service, the post office and a commercial centre | e.g. about simple tools and machines (like use, parts, main cautions), or about task sharing | e.g. the description of an object or a picture delivered by the teacher and other learners |
| 2 | Can pick out isolated pieces of information and frequent social formulas by recognising familiar words and expressions in a short, simple speech. | e.g. about a vegetarian dish | e.g. that there is an interpreter at the service | e.g. about a dangerous action or object ("It is hot") | e.g. "The canteen is closed today" |
| 1 | Can recognise as member of a live audience a personally relevant piece of information delivered mostly in a single word or expression. | e.g. "Welcome!" in a short welcome talk | e.g. the names of a familiar shop or service | e.g. the role of a person like doctor, nurse or team leader | e.g. the names of objects in the classroom |

Listening to Announcements and Instructions

In the CEFR Companion volume, Listening to Announcements and Instructions is defined as extremely focused listening in which the aim is to catch specific information. Announcements and instructions can be delivered either face-to-face or via automatised messages. Also messages that do not require a reply, unlike messages in an interaction, are included in this section.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening: from very short instructions, formed by one word or a single expression (e.g. an order), accompanied by body language or visual cues, and later to more complex instructions (e.g. directions); from very simple and predictable announcements, formed by a short sentence and conveying one piece of information, to simple and familiar announcements, possibly formed by two or three connected sentences;
- ▶ medium: from face-to-face instructions and announcements and later to simple and familiar automatised messages;
- ▶ degree of clarity of automatised messages: slow, clear announcement with a low audio distortion;
- ▶ degree of accommodation to the audience by the speaker: increasing speed of delivery; decreasing non-verbal reference to persons, objects and places by pointing or miming actions.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|---|--|---|---|
| 4 | Can understand instructions addressed carefully and slowly to them and follow short, simple directions. | e.g. very simple suggestions for housekeeping or simple cooking recipe | e.g. in a hospital ("The doctor is coming, wait here."); medical instructions ("Take these pills twice a day") | e.g. orders, warnings, permissions and prohibitions related to the present work tasks | e.g. the documents needed to enrol (children) in a school or the rules of an educational game; invitation to a students' (parents') meeting |
| | Can understand when someone tells them slowly and clearly where something is, provided the object is in the immediate environment. | e.g. instructions from neighbours about where to locate waste in the apartment building | e.g. the location of personally relevant products in a supermarket | e.g. the location of objects in familiar rooms, like the storage room | e.g. where to buy the course book |
| | Can understand figures, prices and times given slowly and clearly in an announcement by loudspeaker, e.g. at a railway station or in a shop. | Not applicable | e.g. the arrival of the train announced through a loudspeaker in the railway station, in the metro ("Next stop NN Square. Left side exit") | e.g. the opening time of a canteen in a big factory | e.g. the closing time of the school building |
| 3 | Can pick out the main points in a short, simple message delivered face-to-face in a familiar situation. | e.g. about a problem at home ("The lift doesn't work") | e.g. about the menu in a cafeteria ("Today we are serving pasta") | e.g. a change in their working days or in the shift | e.g. cancellation of the courses ("No courses tomorrow") |
| | Can understand short, simple instructions for actions such as "Stop", "Close the door", etc., provided they are delivered slowly face-to-face, accompanied by pictures or manual gestures and repeated if necessary. | e.g. the request to make a phone call ("Call me at 5 please") | e.g. about where to go or what documents to exhibit in a public service | e.g. a simple manual procedure | e.g. instructions for simple tasks delivered by the teacher as for a matching between words and pictures |

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|--|--|--|---|
| 2 | Can recognise familiar words and phrases in a short, simple message delivered face-to-face (e.g. "closed" in "the cafeteria is closed"). | e.g. in a message delivered by a friend about a known event ("I'll come by tomorrow"); the request of fetching a thing which is in the surroundings ("Some water, please") | e.g. in a shop ("Open", meaning "We are open now"); prohibition of smoking ("No smoking here, please") or documents to exhibit | e.g. the names of places, objects, tasks, people; instruction about a procedure ("Look, like this") or warnings ("Don't, danger!") | e.g. the names of places, objects, people; the request of signing a form |
| 1 | Can recognise a personally relevant piece of information delivered mostly in a single word or expression and accompanied by picture and body language. | e.g. a permission ("Come in") | e.g. their client number in a waiting room | e.g. the name of a tool or a frequently performed activity | e.g. the name of writing tools or frequently practised activities ("Write") |

Listening to Audio Media and Recordings, Watching TV and Video

In the CEFR Companion volume, Listening to Audio Media and Recordings involves broadcast media and recorded material, including messages. Watching TV, Film and Video includes live and recorded video material plus, at higher levels, film. Learners who are developing their listening competence in a second language rely mostly on context and visual cues to get an idea or understand recorded texts. Audiovisual texts, especially audiovisual messages delivered through social media, are easier for them than audio media and recordings, which they can tackle from level 3.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening: from short and simple speech expressed in familiar words to more complex speech related to new contents;
- ▶ medium/multimodality of the message: from audiovisual messages and later to short and simple audio messages;
- ▶ text types: from personal messages by known persons (e.g. greetings from a friend) to broadcasted messages (e.g. short and simple advertisements of familiar products);
- ▶ repetition: from audiovisual messages which can be rewatched several times to frequently repeated broadcasts (e.g. advertisements) to live broadcasts in streaming (e.g. TV and radio news).

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|---|--|---|---|
| 4 | Can pick out concrete information (e.g. places and times) from short audio recordings on familiar everyday topics, provided they are delivered very slowly and clearly. | e.g. a message on the answering machine ("It's [name] speaking. Your appointment is confirmed") | e.g. the time and place of a familiar event, like a football match | e.g. automatised instructions by a machine | e.g. from educational materials, like announcement models |
| | Can recognise familiar words/signs and phrases and identify the topics in headline news summaries and many of the products in advertisements, by exploiting visual information and general knowledge. | e.g. a short dialogue on everyday familiar topics in a fictional video | e.g. about a traffic accident in their area | e.g. a simple procedure from a video tutorial | e.g. an educational video |

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|--|--|---|
| 3 | Can understand a short, simple personal audiovisual message with formulaic expressions. | e.g. place of an appointment ("See you in the main square") | e.g. the time of an appointment | e.g. place and time of a delivery | e.g. a short audiovisual message delivered by the teacher in a distance learning situation in a learners' group on a social network |
| 2 | Can recognise familiar words and phrases in short, simple video recordings, provided that they are delivered very slowly and clearly, possibly after relistening (e.g. greetings in a fictional video). | e.g. social formulas in fictional videos | e.g. the names of familiar brands and products in audiovisual advertisements | e.g. usual working tools in a video tutorial | e.g. in dialogues from educational audio and audiovisual materials |
| | Can understand frequent social formulas in a short, simple personal audiovisual message (e.g. "Hi, I am fine. See you soon"). | e.g. from a friend about their well-being | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. in a learners' group on a social network |
| 1 | Can recognise a personally relevant piece of information delivered mostly in a single word or expression in a short, simple audiovisual message. | e.g. greetings from a friend in a personal audiovisual message | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. in educational materials |

4.2.1.2. Written Reception

As in the CEFR Companion volume, the LASLLIAM reading categories are a mixture between reading purpose and reading particular text types with specific functions. For Written Reception, LASLLIAM distinguishes one Overall scale and five Specific scales for:

1. Reading Correspondence
2. Reading for Orientation
3. Reading for Information
4. Reading as a Leisure Activity
5. Reading Instructions.

In terms of reading purpose, LASLLIAM distinguishes Reading for Orientation (search reading) to get a global idea of a text (skimming) or to look for specific information (scanning), Reading for Information, and also Reading as a Leisure Activity, which can involve both fictional narratives and informative texts about topics of interest, and texts specifically written for each level. Specifically, written texts for each level will be language specific: in some morphology-rich languages it will be difficult for an author of teaching materials to write sentences for level 2, while in other languages it might be easier to write a short text with only phonologically simple, short words.

- ▶ Unless indicated otherwise, the names of the categories and order of the scales in this reference guide are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume.
- ▶ Please note that the descriptors in **blue font** are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume levels A1 and Pre-A1.
- ▶ The descriptors in the Overall scales (apart from the blue ones from the CEFR Companion volume) are presented according to the formula "Can do X (referring to the communicative activity) by reading/writing/listening/speaking Y (referring to practice, length and linguistic complexity)". This formula must always be taken into account as implicit in all other descriptors of the Specific scales.
- ▶ For concrete application of the descriptors see the tables embedded in the Specific scales, with examples of language use in the four different domains.
- ▶ Please note that such examples related to the four domains might need adaptation according to the context and the learners' needs.

In terms of specific text types, as in the CEFR Companion volume, we identify Reading Correspondence and Reading Instructions, a specialised form of reading for information. Since careful study of a complex text is not possible at the levels of this reference guide, the CEFR Companion volume term Reading for Information and Argument was changed into Reading for Information.

Because the scales in this guide are aimed at beginning readers in the target language, the reading activity required follows the progression line described in the Technical Literacy scale in these key concepts:

- ▶ cognitive activity involved: from rote learning of sight words to slow letter-by-letter decoding and later to direct word recognition through fast and fluent decoding;
- ▶ length and linguistic complexity: from words consisting of a small number of letters with a simple phonological structure to phonologically and morphologically more complex words and short main clauses;
- ▶ orthographic complexity: from one-to-one correspondence between grapheme and phoneme to more complex relationships between graphemes and phonemes and irregularities in spelling;
- ▶ familiarity: from familiar, practised words and phrases to words and phrases that are orally familiar, but new in writing;
- ▶ speed: from slow decoding to more fluent reading of words and simple sentences.

Overall Reading Comprehension

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can understand very short, simple texts a single phrase at a time, picking up familiar names, words and basic phrases and rereading as required. |
| | Can understand short, simple texts on everyday topics, by reading phrase by phrase, using visual clues and knowledge of the topic. |
| 3 | Can recognise familiar words/signs accompanied by pictures, such as a fast-food restaurant menu illustrated with photos or a picture book using familiar vocabulary. |
| | Can understand short, simple sentences on familiar topics (even if there is an unknown word) by reading word by word and using visual clues. |
| 2 | Can identify the topic of a short, simple personally relevant text by reading practised words and using visual clues. |
| | Can find numerical information (e.g. phone number, price, weight) by reading practised words, symbols or abbreviations (e.g. €, £, kg, m). |
| 1 | Can pick out a single piece of information in a text by reading sight words and using pictures. |
| | Can distinguish numerical from alphabetical information by recognising some numbers and letters. |
| | Can distinguish some relevant everyday logos and text types (e.g. bills, letters, signs) from each other by recognising visual clues and sight words. |

Reading Correspondence

As in the CEFR Companion volume, Reading Correspondence encompasses reading both personal and formal correspondence, offline and online. The reading activity required follows the progression line of the Technical Literacy Scale (i.e. cognitive activity involved, length, linguistic and orthographic complexity of the message).

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of reading: from recognising sight words to slow decoding and later to more fluent decoding;
- ▶ length and linguistic complexity: from very short and phonologically simple words to linguistically more complex words, simple sentences and short texts;
- ▶ concreteness and simplicity of information: from very concrete and simple, familiar messages and later to more complex messages;
- ▶ contextual or visual cues: from more to fewer cues that can be helpful in reading and understanding.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 4 | Can understand short, simple messages sent via social media or e-mail (e.g. proposing what to do, when and where to meet). | e.g. suggestion of meeting with a friend ("Would you like to go to the cinema at the weekend?"); felicitations and expressions of compassion/best wishes (birthday, marriage, death) | e.g. message about appointment with the doctor; invitation to opening of community centre or library | e.g. a (text) message about a team meeting or lunch with a colleague; felicitations and expressions of compassion/best wishes (anniversary, welcome); farewell note from a colleague | e.g. message about an after-school activity or school trip; invitation to graduation ceremony; open day at children's primary school |
| | Can understand short, simple correspondence about everyday topics. | e.g. mail about birth of a baby; text message about shopping | e.g. announcement of activities at the library or a fair at the community centre | e.g. announcement of special offers in a cafeteria | e.g. announcement about new school rules |
| 3 | Can understand from a letter, card or e-mail the event to which they are being invited and the information given about day, time and location. | e.g. invitation to birthday party, wedding party or funeral ("The funeral is on April 21 at 11:00") | e.g. invitation to a medical consultation or administrative service | e.g. invitation to a team meeting or company outing | e.g. invitation to a joint presentation or children's school activity |
| | Can recognise times and places in very simple notes and text messages from friends or colleagues (e.g. "Back at 4 o'clock" or "In the meeting room"), provided there are no abbreviations. | e.g. simple notes and text messages from a friend ("See you at 10" or "I am on the way") | e.g. simple notes from administration ("Please register at the service counter") | e.g. simple notes and text messages from a colleague ("I am in room 24" or "lunch at 13.00?") | e.g. simple notes and text messages from teachers and peers ("Study p.20 for Tuesday" or "Bring your book next week") |
| 2 | Can identify the topic of a short, simple personally relevant illustrated message written in practised words. | e.g. sender, date and place in a social invitation ("The party is on May 10") | e.g. sender, date and place in an administrative message | e.g. from a job message (working hours, holidays) | e.g. from a school message (change of room, upcoming holidays of children's school); as a possible classroom simulation |
| 1 | Can distinguish some relevant everyday correspondence from other correspondence. | e.g. personally addressed bill, advertisement | e.g. e-mail or letter from local health centre | e.g. e-mail or letter from own company | e.g. e-mail or letter from (children's) teacher or school |

Reading for Orientation

As in the CEFR Companion volume, Reading for Orientation involves getting a global idea of the main content of a text (skimming) and looking for specific information in different text types (scanning). The reading activity required follows the progression line of the Technical Literacy scale.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of reading: from recognising single sight words to independent reading of short, simple messages;
- ▶ text type: from one-word texts like signs and labels to different, highly frequent text types with pictures and layout that support meaning-making;
- ▶ concreteness and specificity of information: from pre-known information to new information (like dates, times and prices).

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|---|--|---|--|
| 4 | Can recognise familiar names, words/signs and very basic phrases on simple notices in the most common everyday situations. | e.g. notice from caretaker | e.g. notice on changed opening times; food labels (allergies); floor plan of hospital | e.g. notice from a colleague about the work shift | e.g. notice on book sale in school; notice in textbook or online exercise |
| | Can find and understand simple, important information in advertisements, programmes for special events, leaflets and brochures (e.g. what is proposed, costs, the date and place of the event, departure times). | e.g. shows or news in TV guide; entries in (online) directories and catalogues; information on calendars | e.g. medical brochure of a hospital; information in a town or city guide; warnings ("Do not leave rubbish on the ground") | e.g. new safety or hygiene rules in flyers ("Disinfect your hands and avoid close contact") | e.g. activities in programme for a school party; proficiency levels in brochure with course offers; warning signs ("Keep the gate closed") |
| 3 | Can understand simple everyday signs such as "Parking", "Station", "Dining room", "No smoking", etc. | e.g. on food or medicine package (due date; "Take with water") | e.g. warning or traffic signs ("Caution: wet floor"; "One way") | e.g. warning signs or directions ("High voltage"; "Emergency exit") | e.g. warning signs or directions ("No mobile phones"; school office") |
| | Can find information about places, times and prices on posters, flyers and notices. | e.g. in alphabetically organised personal directories; date and time in TV guide; place, time and date of private event | e.g. in sale information; on posters on open days, programmes or events at library, cinema or community centre | e.g. in work schedule; main items in job vacancy (e.g. working days) | e.g. lessons in timetable; price list of cafeteria; notice on costs of after-school child care |
| 2 | Can identify the topic of short, simple illustrated information written in practised words. | e.g. names and phone numbers in a familiar directory or list; topic of illustrated story; event, date and location in a programme | e.g. names and prices on bills, food, clothing; names and dates on schedules; expiry date on food; the platform number of the departure of the train on the display board at the station | e.g. working hours or holidays in work schedule; date and time of team meeting | e.g. lessons, dates and times in class schedule |
| | Can recognise simple everyday signs in streets or on products. | e.g. logo of TV programme with visual clues | e.g. public signs ("Closed"; "No entry") | e.g. warning signs ("Caution"; "No food") | e.g. warning signs ("No smoking") |
| 1 | Can distinguish some relevant everyday logos, icons and text types from each other. | e.g. frequently used app icons or emojis; package of medicine; felicitations card | e.g. "Fire exit"; "Hospital"; ATM; "bus stop"; menu; store guide | e.g. "Exit"; "Poison"; "No smoking"; work schedule | e.g. basic instructional icons (such as for read, write, listen, speak); school calendar |

Reading for Information

As in the CEFR Companion volume, Reading for Information involves more careful reading of an informative text to understand the meaning. The reading activity required follows the progression line of the Technical Literacy scale.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of reading: from recognising sight words to slow decoding and later to more fluent decoding;
- ▶ text types: from simple signs and messages to short and simple coherent texts in a broader range of types;

- ▶ topic: from everyday topics of personal interest to more general topics like community information or news headlines;
- ▶ depth of understanding: from picking out a single piece of information and getting an idea of the topic to understanding the basic content.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 4 | Can get an idea of the content of simpler informational material and short, simple descriptions, especially if there is visual support. | e.g. news item; user guide; information from travel agency | e.g. brochure about public services; information on bulletin board; church services; driving school | e.g. work regulations; information about changing shifts | e.g. information about school or courses in brochure or on school website; (children's) school rules on bulletin board |
| | Can understand short texts on subjects of personal interest (e.g. news flashes about sports, music, travel, or stories) composed in very simple language and supported by illustrations and pictures. | e.g. short article in magazine or local newspaper | e.g. short text about a fair on noticeboard of community centre | e.g. job vacancy advertisement | e.g. note about end of year celebrations at (children's) school; in textbook or online reading exercises |
| 3 | Can understand the simplest informational material such as a fast-food restaurant menu illustrated with photos or an illustrated story formulated in very simple everyday words/signs. | e.g. posting of a friend about an upcoming wedding party | e.g. information box of community centre; service menu of laundry, car wash or food delivery | e.g. catalogue with merchandise ("Buy one, get one for free") | e.g. information about an upcoming school event |
| 2 | Can identify the topic of short, simple illustrated information written in practised words. | e.g. short newspaper headlines with pictures ("Heavy rain yesterday") | e.g. information leaflet about pavement work in the street ("Week 12 in Main Street") | e.g. information on bulletin board about break times | e.g. information about clothes during gym with pictures; illustrated textbook |
| 1 | Can distinguish numerical from alphabetical information. | e.g. days and months on calendar | e.g. opening hours of supermarket; prices on a price list | e.g. working hours on work schedule | e.g. days, hours and room of language course |

Reading Instructions

Reading instructions is defined in the CEFR Companion volume as a specialised form of reading for information. The reading activity required follows the progression line of the Technical Literacy scale.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of reading: from guessing from pictures and recognising sight words to slow decoding and later to more fluent decoding;
- ▶ topic of instructions: from very simple practised orders to routine notices and simple directions;
- ▶ degree of contextualisation and familiarity: from familiar procedures in concrete contexts to unfamiliar procedures in general instructions;
- ▶ length: from single words with visual cues to short and simple, but more detailed, instructions in routine phrases and sentences.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|--|---|---|--|
| 4 | Can follow short, simple written directions (e.g. to go from X to Y). | e.g. route descriptions to a picnic in the park | e.g. route descriptions to a museum or amusement park | e.g. transport instructions for goods | e.g. directions to a meeting point |
| | Can carry out simple instructions on the basis of very short, simple texts. | e.g. cooking on the basis of a simple form of recipe; personalised instructions on medicine; simple instructions on household appliances | e.g. instructions on administrative document ("Provide your social security number") or on an appliance | e.g. safety or hygiene instructions; personalised instructions on work machine; instructions on how to behave in case of fire | e.g. instructions on screen or copy-machine; simple new textbook or online instructions; guidelines on swimming lessons for children |
| 3 | Can understand very short, simple instructions used in familiar, everyday contexts (e.g. "No parking", "No food or drink"), especially if there are illustrations. | e.g. safety instructions on cleaning products; basic personalised instructions on medicine | e.g. safety and politeness instructions in parks and public spaces ("Swim in safe area only"; "No rubbish, please") | e.g. safety and health instructions ("Wear gloves"; "Keep locked all the time") | e.g. familiar textbook (or online) instructions ("Answer the questions"; "Fill in the blanks"); instructions about child's lunch box |
| | Can understand personally relevant simple directions presented in visual format with frequent words and practised phrases. | e.g. route directions to a friend's house | e.g. route directions in hospital or railway station | e.g. route directions to cafeteria or parking place | e.g. route directions to bookshop or office |
| 2 | Can understand simple instructions when presented in visual format with practised words. | e.g. instructions with visual clues (such as photo recipe, washing instructions) | e.g. instructions on vending machines (such as coffee machine) | e.g. simple safety and health instructions (such as "Use mask") | e.g. basic instructions in educational materials ("read the text"; "listen to the audio file") |
| 1 | Can pick out a single piece of information in an illustrated instruction written with sight words. | e.g. on medicine package "ages 2-11" (with a photo of a toddler and a child) | e.g. age instructions on baby-food (6-9 months); warnings on bottles | e.g. name of a known company | e.g. basic instructions with visual symbols (such as read, write, listen, speak) |

Reading as a Leisure Activity

As in the CEFR Companion volume, Reading as a Leisure Activity involves both fiction and non-fiction. In these scales it includes short and simple illustrated texts like picture stories, comics, narratives and informative texts in magazines and newspapers. It also includes fictional and informative texts specifically written or adapted for the relevant literacy level. The reading activity required follows the progression line of the Technical Literacy scale.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of reading: from guessing with the help of pictures and sight words to slow decoding and later more fluent decoding;
- ▶ length and illustrations of the texts: from picture sequences with practised sight words to illustrated coherent simple sentences;
- ▶ text types: from very short and simple level-adapted descriptions and narratives to short and simple descriptions of people, places and events as well as pre-known narratives;
- ▶ topics: from everyday topics and stories (e.g. family) to a broader range of concrete and everyday topics (e.g. hobbies).

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|--|----------------|----------------|--|
| 4 | Can understand short, illustrated narratives about everyday activities described in simple words. | e.g. short narrative on life's up and downs (family, friendship, health, work) | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. short narrative written or dictated by classmates and edited by teacher |
| | Can understand in outline short texts in illustrated stories, provided that the images help them to guess at a lot of the content. | e.g. short article about movie star or local hero in magazine, comic | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. short narrative on children's school website |
| 3 | Can understand short, illustrated narratives on contextualised topics that are written in orthographically simple words. | e.g. short narrative about an event (sports, wedding, concert) | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. short photo story produced by classmates or children's teacher |
| 2 | Can understand simple illustrated narratives written in practised words. | e.g. picture book for children with a few words | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. in storybook written for this level |
| 1 | Can pick out a single piece of information in an illustrated text written in sight words. | e.g. picture books (on the basis of main character or main event), cartoons | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. illustrated stories with a simple sequence of pictures (on the basis of main character or main event) |

4.2.2. Reception Strategies

LASLLIAM Language Use Strategies use the three general metacognitive categories of planning, compensating, and monitoring and repair (see 2.2.4). Metacognitive planning of reception is mainly about anticipating situations and the language and text types typically occurring in those situations, as well as about predicting content in order to use top-down processes for making inferences and elaborations. Compensation for literacy and second language learners particularly focuses on overcoming lexical knowledge gaps, therefore lexical inferences are the most characteristic aspect of receptive compensation strategies. Second language learners resort to visual clues and the speaker's body language to monitor and repair listening comprehension problems. As for reading comprehension problems, learners of literacy and a second language gradually make progress in identifying sources for non-understanding (e.g. unknown words or phrases, reference or coherence problems, pragmatic non-understanding) and in naming or marking these problems for repair actions that will often involve another person (i.e. the interlocutor, teacher, mediator or peer).

Key concepts for Oral and Written Reception strategies operationalised in the scales include the following:

- ▶ the linguistic complexity of the product of strategy use (i.e. the problem that the strategy is to solve): from challenges related to chunks and sight words, to challenges with new words and phrases and later also with sentences and texts;
- ▶ the linguistic complexity of helpful units focused on the process of strategy use: from using situational, contextual, non-verbal and visual cues to more specific linguistic, typographic and co-textual cues;
- ▶ the cognitive complexity and teachability of the process of the strategy: from strategies involving one or a few steps (e.g. mark an unknown word) to those involving more steps (e.g. paraphrase a simple paragraph) and from strategies composed of observable (actional) steps (e.g. use a dictionary) to those composed of non-observable (mental) steps (e.g. infer from the context).

Notice that affective and socio-interactive strategies have not been scaled (see box below), but are nevertheless of utmost importance for successful reception.

Affective strategies

- ▶ Can use a means (e.g. positive self-talk and self-instructions, looking for what went well) to motivate themselves to start or continue a task.
- ▶ Can use a means (e.g. laughing, deep breathing, pausing, music) to reduce anxiety.

Socio-interactive strategies

- ▶ Can involve (ask/invite/engage) someone else (interlocutor/peer/mediator/more advanced reader/chat partner) to help with a task (repeat, slow down, negotiate meaning, get feedback, correct, etc.).
- ▶ Can involve non-present support tools (translating machine, help desk, online dictionary, demonstration video, model, etc.) to help with a task.

4.2.2.1. Oral Reception

Planning

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can recall words and formulaic expressions to anticipate personally relevant information (e.g. destination and departure track of a train at the railway station). |
| 3 | Can recall frequent words and phrases to anticipate specific information in a familiar context (e.g. "Next stop [name] square"). |
| 2 | Can recall familiar words and phrases to recognise specific pieces of information or social formulas in a familiar context (e.g. "Welcome to everyone" at the opening of a meeting). |
| 1 | Can recall a single word or phrase to recognise a personally relevant piece of information (e.g. the client number in a waiting room). |

Compensating

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can rely on the comprehension of the overall meaning of an utterance to guess the meaning of unknown words. Can use speaker's intonation, rhythm of speech, tone of voice to follow a simple speech in everyday situations (e.g. someone thanking a group for a present). |
| 3 | Can attend to known words and phrases to understand personally relevant information. |
| 2 | Can use speaker's intonation and tone of voice to infer the overall meaning of an utterance (e.g. a warning). |
| 1 | Can use contextual clues to guess the meaning of a word or phrase (e.g. greetings when entering a room). Can use intonation and tone of voice to guess the meaning of a single word or phrase (e.g. "Stop!"). |

Monitoring and Repair

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can distinguish units of meaning in familiar discourses (e.g. opening, key information and closing in an announcement) to understand the main point. |
| 3 | Can use visual clues (like icons or surrounding objects) and speaker's familiar body language to check the global meaning of a discourse (e.g. a video advertisement). |
| 2 | Can use contextual clues and speaker's familiar body language to check the comprehension of specific pieces of information in face-to-face situations (e.g. simple instruction for action with gestures at the workplace). |
| 1 | Can use contextual clues and speaker's familiar body language to understand the meaning of an unknown word or phrase in a face-to-face situation (e.g. the name of a product in a store). |

4.2.2.2. Written Reception

Planning

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can use typical features of a specific text type (e.g. typographic information) to predict the content of a text (e.g. news article, advertisement). Can ask themselves questions about the topic of a text to predict the content (e.g. "What do I know about trains?"). Can look for familiar words to identify key information about a text. |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| 3 | Can use title/headline to predict the content. |
| 2 | Can look for practised words and visual clues (e.g. logos) to get general information about a text (e.g. identify the text type like a letter from school). |
| 1 | Can use visual clues like photos to predict the topic. |
| | Can use sight words to predict the topic. |

Compensating

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can reread the surrounding words in a text to understand an unknown word. |
| 3 | Can use knowledge of familiar root words and/or frequent morphemes to read long words (e.g. "colourful"). |
| | Can use a translation tool or learner dictionary to find the meaning of an unknown word. |
| 2 | Can use reading aloud to understand words. |
| | Can use an oral translation tool (e.g. by taking a photograph of a word) to understand an unknown word (e.g. orally translated by the software). |
| 1 | Can use an accompanying picture or icon to deduce the meaning of an unknown word. |

Monitoring and Repair

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can summarise simple passages to understand the main meaning of a text. |
| | Can mark an unclear sentence to ask for the meaning. |
| 3 | Can mark an unclear phrase to ask for the meaning. |
| | Can highlight words and phrases that they understand well to monitor the meaning. |
| 2 | Can mark an unknown word to ask for the meaning. |
| 1 | Can identify an unknown element in a picture (e.g. object in a picture story) to ask for the word. |

4.2.3. Production Activities

4.2.3.1. Oral Production

The scales for Oral Production model functional aspects of dealing with the oral dimension of languages at the beginning stages of second language learning. As in the CEFR Companion volume, the scales focus on different kinds of one-way production and exclude oral interaction. Oral production involves discourse functions such as describing, informing, giving instruction and narrating.

The CEFR Companion volume characterises large parts of oral production as sustained monologues (Council of Europe 2020: 70-72). Although such sustained monologues can only be mastered at higher levels of language development, this reference guide models basic competences that need to be developed below and up to the A1 level in order to progress to fully fledged sustained monologues at later stages.

For Oral Production LASLLIAM identifies one Overall scale and two Specific scales for:

1. Sustained Monologue: Describing Experience
2. Sustained Monologue: Giving Information.

- ▶ Unless indicated otherwise, the names of the categories and order of the scales in this reference guide are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume.
- ▶ Please note that the descriptors in **blue font** are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume levels A1 and Pre-A1.
- ▶ The descriptors in the Overall scales (apart from the blue ones from the CEFR Companion volume) are presented according to the formula "Can do X (referring to the communicative activity) by reading/writing/listening/speaking Y (referring to practice, length and linguistic complexity)". This formula must always be taken into account as implicit in all other descriptors of the Specific scales.
- ▶ For concrete application of the descriptors see the tables embedded in the Specific scales, with examples of language use in the four different domains.
- ▶ Please note that such examples related to the four domains might need adaptation according to the context and the learners' needs.

Learning to speak a second language does not depend on the ability to read and write in a second language, or in any other language, as proved by the many non-literate adults who have acquired speaking through an informal learning process. Therefore, the scales for Oral Production do not parallel the literacy scales: for instance, learners can progress in speaking skills and in writing skills at quite different paces.

However, the relation between learning to speak a second language and literacy learning must be taken into account in this reference guide, because several studies (see Chapter 2) seem to reveal evidence that literacy influences the oral acquisition of a second language, although research on this is still scarce. The expected output of LASLLIAM learners is characterised by the following distinctive features, in terms of aspects present in the oral production at every level of the scales: the continuous reliance on gestures and other body language to convey meaning; the constant presence of pauses in the learner's turn; the recurrence of formulaic expressions, often memorised, as a building block within the output; the capacity to deal only with familiar text types (i.e. of experiential and cultural familiarity); and the possibility of producing a second language within an everyday context.

In using the LASLLIAM descriptors for the spoken language dimension, including oral production, please be aware that gestures and other body language often have implications that need careful consideration in relation to gender, age, culture and social aspects.

Consistency and correspondence across scales are supported by reference to text types and functions in the language activities descriptors, as well as to key progressions, for instance:

- ▶ the cognitive activity involved in the step: from familiar content words and unanalysed chunks towards frequent words and simple phrases on personally relevant topics;
- ▶ length and linguistic complexity: from turns mostly constituting a single word or phrase, to turns consisting of familiar words or phrases; from short and simple sentences to simple sentences, sometimes using a common connector.¹⁰⁰

Overall Oral Production

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can produce a turn in everyday contexts by using simple sentences and phrases, sometimes using a common connector (e.g. "and", "but"). |
| 3 | Can produce a turn in a familiar context by using short, simple sentences and phrases with frequent words. |
| 2 | Can produce a turn (e.g. giving a simple instruction) by using familiar words or phrases. |
| 1 | Can produce a turn (e.g. giving some basic personal information) by using mostly a single word or phrase. |

Sustained Monologue: Describing Experience

Sustained Monologue: Describing Experience involves narrative and description.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of speaking: from utterances, mostly constituting a single word or phrase, to the production of simple sentences;
- ▶ content of speech: from giving some basic personal information to the description of simple aspects of their everyday life.

¹⁰⁰. As in the listening comprehension scales, short and simple here means that the speech is mostly composed of phrases and words which are salient and of sentences with a simple syntactic structure.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|---|--|---|---|
| 4 | Can describe simple aspects of their everyday life in a series of simple sentences, using simple words/signs and basic phrases, provided they can prepare in advance. | e.g. a simple talk on a personally relevant topic during a ceremony | e.g. a simple talk during the first appointment with a family doctor | e.g. their job tasks in a meeting at the workplace | e.g. something about everyday life in their own country within a communicative scenario ("In [country] there are schools for adults"); express how they feel to the class, using emoticons already presented by the teacher |
| | Can describe themselves, what they do and where they live. | e.g. a self-introduction in a social event | e.g. a self-introduction in a public event ("I am [name and surname]. I come from [country]") | e.g. self-introduction to their employer | e.g. during the first appointment with children's teachers; the neighbourhood where they live, in an activity related to the knowledge of the surrounding area |
| 3 | Can describe themselves (e.g. name, age, family), using simple words/signs and formulaic expressions, provided they can prepare in advance. | e.g. during a wedding | e.g. in a community event | e.g. to a colleague | e.g. to the other students ("I'm [name], I'm from [country]") |
| 2 | Can describe themselves with familiar words or mostly memorised phrases, provided they can prepare in advance (e.g. "My name is [name]"). | e.g. some simple personal information at a party with friends | e.g. some simple personal information at a party organised by an association, if invited to present themselves | e.g. some simple personal information about their job ("My job is [job title]") | e.g. some simple personal information to the other students |
| 1 | Can produce a turn (e.g. giving some basic personal information) by using mostly a single word or phrase. | e.g. some basic personal information ("Big family") if invited to present themselves at a private event | e.g. their name at a public office | e.g. their name at workplace | e.g. some basic personal information to their classmate |

Sustained Monologue: Giving Information

Sustained Monologue: Giving Information concerns explaining information to a recipient. Although the recipient may well interrupt to ask for repetition and clarification, the information is clearly unidirectional; it is not an exchange. The scale also includes a particular type of information aimed at giving instruction or warning.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of speaking: from utterances, mostly constituting a single word or phrase, to the production of simple sentences;
- ▶ content of speech: from basic information, instructions, warnings to information about familiar persons and places.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|
| 4 | Can give information about time, familiar persons and places with simple sentences (e.g. "The meeting is in the office"). | e.g. in an audiovisual recording to a friend ("Sorry, I can't come"); how to reach the venue of a party | e.g. the scheduling of a community event ("The lunch is at 1"); to a passenger at the bus stop ("Take bus [number]") | e.g. the main points of a programme related to a job meeting; to a colleague ("Be careful, the floor is wet!") | e.g. the planning of a school trip in a peer-to-peer activity; a flashcard within the learning environment ("This is the gym of the school") |
| | 3 | Can give simple information about time and familiar persons (e.g. address, phone number) with short, simple sentences. | e.g. an audiovisual recording to a friend ("[name] is in [city]") | e.g. a visit scheduled at a medical centre | e.g. when a job meeting starts |
| | Can give instructions or warnings with short, simple phrases, often accompanied by body language. | e.g. the address of a familiar restaurant | e.g. the location of the exit in a hospital | e.g. to a colleague ("Don't touch!") | e.g. to a student ("Wait a moment!") |
| 2 | Can give some simple information with familiar words or phrases (e.g. "Need food"). | e.g. food in a shopping list ("Bread and fruit") | e.g. familiar products in a supermarket | e.g. familiar objects used in their job tasks | e.g. objects and tools in learning materials |
| | Can give simple instructions or warnings with familiar words, accompanied by body language. | e.g. to a relative ("Wait here") | e.g. to a passenger ("Be careful!") | e.g. a simple procedure to a colleague ("Do it") | e.g. a simple procedure to another student |
| 1 | Can produce a turn (e.g. giving some basic personal information) by using mostly a single word or phrase. | e.g. the name of their neighbours | e.g. the name of their doctor | e.g. their working days at a factory | e.g. the name of their teacher |
| | Can give basic instructions or warnings mostly with body language, accompanied by a single word or phrase. | e.g. to a friend | e.g. to a bus driver ("Wait!") | e.g. to a colleague ("Stop!") | e.g. to their classmate ("Attention!") |

4.2.3.2. Written Production

The CEFR Companion volume defines the categories Creative Writing, and Written Reports and Essays. The category Creative Writing is also used in this reference guide, but the more formal category (Written Reports and Essays) is called Functional Writing here because these scales are aimed at beginning writers. For Written Production LASLLIAM thus defines one Overall scale and two Specific scales for:

1. Creative Writing
2. Functional Writing.

Creative Writing covers simple descriptions of personal experiences, imaginative expressions or short narratives. Functional Writing focuses on more formal, functional uses of written language.

The writing activity required follows the progression line described in the Technical Literacy scale:

- ▶ the cognitive activity involved: from copying single words to writing practised words and routine phrases, and later to writing in a comprehensible way orally familiar words and phrases that are new in writing;¹⁰¹
- ▶ length and linguistic complexity: from short words with a simple phonological structure to phonologically and morphologically more complex words, and short and simple sentences;¹⁰²
- ▶ orthographic complexity: from one-to-one correspondence between grapheme and phoneme to more complex relationships between graphemes and phonemes and irregularities in spelling.

- ▶ Unless indicated otherwise, the names of the categories and order of the scales in this reference guide are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume.
- ▶ Please note that the descriptors in blue font are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume levels A1 and Pre-A1.
- ▶ The descriptors in the Overall scales (apart from the blue ones from the CEFR Companion volume) are presented according to the formula “Can do X (referring to the communicative activity) by reading/writing/listening/speaking Y (referring to practice, length and linguistic complexity)”. This formula must always be taken into account as implicit in all other descriptors of the Specific scales.
- ▶ For concrete application of the descriptors see the tables embedded in the Specific scales, with examples of language use in the four different domains.
- ▶ Please note that such examples related to the four domains might need adaptation according to the context and the learners’ needs.

Overall Written Production

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can give information about matters of personal relevance (e.g. likes and dislikes, family, pets) using simple words/signs and basic expressions. |
| 3 | Can give basic personal information (e.g. name, address, nationality), perhaps with the use of a dictionary. Can note down short, simple phrases as a memory aid (e.g. notes). |
| 2 | Can give simple personal information (e.g. address, age, phone number) by writing practised words. Can make a note to themselves (e.g. word card for vocabulary learning) by writing practised words. |
| 1 | Can give some basic personal information (e.g. own name, gender, nationality) by copying an example. Can write a personally relevant word by copying. |

Creative Writing

Creative Writing involves simple personal descriptions, narratives or imaginative expressions in a few simple text types. Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of writing: from copying simple words to writing mainly practised and/or orthographically simple words and routine phrases, and later to writing in comprehensible ways short and simple texts in orally familiar vocabulary;
- ▶ content and text type: from simple one-word descriptions of persons or objects to simple descriptions of an event, or a very simple narrative or poem.

101. The characterisation “in a comprehensible way” does not necessarily imply correct spelling. As long as phoneme–grapheme correspondences are applied, non-orthographic spellings are accepted at all levels.

102. Short and simple sentences refers to mainly one-clause sentences of limited length.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|---|--|---|
| 4 | Can produce simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do. | e.g. about a new acquaintance in a posting or e-mail to a friend | e.g. in introducing self in a community bulletin | e.g. in introducing self or colleague in an e-mail to colleagues | e.g. introducing self or colleague in a parent committee; as a classroom story-writing task |
| | Can describe in very simple language what a room looks like. | e.g. a new residence in an e-mail to a friend | e.g. in a note about a room for rent ("Cosy room in the city centre. 20 square metres, with large window and built-in wardrobe. newly painted") | e.g. in short note to a new colleague about workplace | e.g. in an e-mail to other parents about new school; in a classroom writing exercise or simulation |
| | Can produce a descriptive or narrative text consisting of a few simple sentences. | e.g. description of a personal event in a message to a friend | e.g. the description of an object that they want to sell | Not applicable | e.g. a simple poem or narrative about home country |
| 3 | Can write descriptive or narrative short, simple phrases. | e.g. comments/memories in a photo album ("Here I am with my aunt. We went to the zoo") | e.g. in "lost and found" on supermarket bulletin board | e.g. in an app-group or posting on company website ("I am Nora from Syria. I am 25 years old") | e.g. a picture story with captions to photos about a school visit ("Our class in the castle"); as a writing exercise |
| 2 | Can write some words about themselves (e.g. age, gender, my son) or objects of personal relevance. | e.g. in an app-group or posting with practised words | e.g. in a very simple contact advertisement with practised words | e.g. practised words in an app-group or posting on company website ("I am Nora") | e.g. as a writing exercise with practised words |
| 1 | Can copy some words about themselves or objects of personal relevance. | e.g. as a caption to a picture in app or photo album ("My son and me") | Not applicable | e.g. as caption to a picture in an app-group or posting | e.g. as caption to a picture on a school bulletin board related to an educational visit (a place of interest in the city) |

Functional Writing

Functional Writing covers the emerging use of writing for everyday purposes. It focuses on social and functional practices such as using lists, labels, agendas, planners, simple messages or notes.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of writing: from copying simple words to writing mainly practised and/or orthographically simple words and phrases, and later to writing in a comprehensible way short and simple texts in orally familiar vocabulary;
- ▶ content and text types: from very simple personal information in lists and labels to familiar subjects of interest and routine factual information in agendas or planners.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|---|---|--|--|
| 4 | Can produce phrases and simple sentences to present a familiar topic. | e.g. in an e-mail to the landlord about the rent or to a friend about a meeting | e.g. in an e-mail to cancel an appointment with the dentist ("Sorry, I cannot come to the appointment tomorrow. I am ill.") | e.g. in an e-mail to inform employer about sick leave or colleague about a routine event | e.g. in an e-mail to another parent about the school report ("How was the report of your son? Tarik's was fine") |

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|
| | Can use simple words/signs and phrases to describe certain everyday objects (e.g. the colour of a car, whether it is big or small). | e.g. a new purchase in a posting or e-mail to a friend | e.g. in a note to sell an object on the bulletin board of the commercial centre | e.g. in a very simple form of protocol | e.g. in an e-mail about a present for the teacher; as a classroom writing exercise |
| 3 | Can note down short, simple phrases as a memory aid (e.g. notes). | e.g. notes on a to-do list; conversation scaffold for a talk to the caretaker; short note about a child's lesson | e.g. notes from visit of district nurse; conversation scaffold for a visit to office, shop or bank | e.g. conversation scaffold for a team meeting; work tasks or short note as preparation for a meeting | e.g. (child's) homework or scaffold to prepare a presentation ("Who I am, where I come from, what I do") |
| 2 | Can note down practised words as a memory aid. | e.g. name, date and time of visit to a relative; in a memo to children or neighbour | e.g. name, date and time of appointment with doctor or at hospital ("Friday May 11, 14.00: dentist") | e.g. for team meeting, anniversary party, or lunch meeting | e.g. lesson, date and time in planner; name of the teacher |
| 1 | Can copy words to label objects such as a suitcase. | e.g. cooking ingredients or tools | e.g. name on letter box, doorbell or possessions | e.g. routine packages | e.g. folders or as a vocabulary exercise; lunch box or child's clothes ("Abel Zema") |
| | Can write a personally relevant word by copying it into an agenda. | e.g. date and time of sports club; birthdays of relatives; public holidays ("June 17: Aunt Nora") | e.g. appointment at the doctor's or a public office | e.g. working days and times | e.g. room number, lesson time and name of teacher |

4.2.4. Production Strategies

LASLLIAM Language Use Strategies use the three general metacognitive categories of planning, compensating and monitoring and repair (see 2.2.4). Metacognitive planning of production mainly concerns preparing resources and aids for oral or written delivery; this can involve identifying oral or written text models to use, rehearsing oral formulations or outlining written ideas. Compensation not only, but typically, focuses on overcoming lexical gaps or unfamiliarity with the spelling of a word. Quite important in monitoring and repair of production are noticing, and dealing with, audience's signals of non-comprehension (e.g. clarification requests) in oral situations and using tools (e.g. dictionaries) to master challenges in written production.

Key concepts for Oral and Written Production strategies operationalised in the scales include the following:

- ▶ the linguistic complexity of the product of strategy use (i.e. the problem that the strategy is to solve): from challenges related to expressing meaning through chunks or sight words and practised words, to challenges to expressing more complex ideas in a planned situation;
- ▶ the linguistic complexity of helpful units focused on the process of strategy use: from using non-verbal and one-word signals and replacements to more complex reformulations and circumlocutions; from using simple resources and models to using linguistic knowledge and more complex tools;
- ▶ the cognitive complexity and teachability of the process of the strategy: from strategies involving one or a few steps (e.g. repeating single words and phrases) to those involving more steps (e.g. modelling own speech on someone else's speech) and from strategies composed of observable (actional) steps (e.g. using a written model) to those composed of non-observable (mental) steps (e.g. using morpheme knowledge).

Notice that affective and socio-interactive strategies have not been scaled (see box below), but are nevertheless of utmost importance for successful production, in particular for overcoming oral language anxiety.

Affective strategies

- ▶ Can use a means (e.g. positive self-talk and self-instructions, looking for what went well) to motivate themselves to start or continue a task.
- ▶ Can use a means (e.g. laughing, deep breathing, pausing, music) to reduce anxiety.

Socio-interactive strategies

- ▶ Can involve (ask/invite/engage) someone else (interlocutor/peer/mediator/more advanced reader/chat partner) to help with a task (repeat, slow down, negotiate meaning, get feedback, correct, etc.).
- ▶ Can involve non-present support tools (translating machine, help desk, online dictionary, demonstration video, model, etc.) to help with a task.

4.2.4.1. Oral Production

Planning

| | |
|----------|---|
| 4 | Can use written or mental notes at phrase or sentence level to prepare for a planned situation. |
| | Can use private speech to rehearse what they plan to say. |
| | Can use other people's speech as an example to plan own speech (e.g. a self-introduction). |
| 3 | Can use written or mental notes at word and phrase level to produce them in a planned situation. |
| | Can rehearse frequent words, phrases and short, simple sentences to prepare for a planned conversation. |
| 2 | Can repeat familiar words and phrases spoken by someone as models to prepare for a planned conversation. |
| 1 | Can rehearse aloud words and phrases they want to say to prepare for a planned conversation. |

Compensating

| | |
|----------|---|
| 4 | Can make appropriate use of plurilingual communication (using L1 or L3) to maintain speech (e.g. in a short talk). |
| | Can use a simple circumlocution to compensate for lexical gaps ("helps the doctor" for "nurse"). |
| 3 | Can use intonation, rhythm of speech, sentence stress or tone of voice to compensate for language gaps (e.g. "I say this" instead of "This is what I said"). |
| | Can use words from L1 or L3, an all-purpose word or a neologism to maintain communication. |
| 2 | Can use intonation to compensate for language gaps (e.g. "Good?" for "Do you like this idea?"). |
| 1 | Can use body language to compensate for language gaps. |

Monitoring and Repair

| | |
|----------|--|
| 4 | Can use some markers of self-correction (e.g. "Sorry") to ease interlocutor's comprehension. |
| | Can reformulate an utterance that they think is wrong to overcome interlocutor's comprehension problems. |
| | Can use the translation of some phrases and simple sentences in L1 or L3 to ensure comprehension. |
| | Can attend to feedback from interlocutor to monitor comprehensibility of own speech. |
| 3 | Can attend to verbal and non-verbal signals from interlocutor to monitor their comprehension. |
| 2 | Can use a single word or expression to indicate difficulties in continuing communication (e.g. "Enough"). |
| | Can use simple markers of self-correction (e.g. "No, no.") and body language to ease interlocutor's comprehension. |
| 1 | Can use body language to signal difficulties in continuing communication. |

4.2.4.2. Written Production

Planning

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can use a visualisation to plan the structure of a text (e.g. pictures of storyline, simple flowchart of points). |
| | Can use an example of a text type to write a text (e.g. a recipe, a poem). |
| 3 | Can use a visualisation to plan the content of a simple text (e.g. a simple mind map). |
| | Can outline the structure to write a simple text (e.g. where – when – what?). |
| 2 | Can copy a phrase (e.g. “I am from...”) to write similar information about themselves. |
| 1 | Can copy a word (e.g. country name) to write about themselves (e.g. to add to a picture or photo story). |

Compensating

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can use morpheme knowledge to write words (e.g. “construction”, “professional”). |
| | Can use words from their plurilingual repertoire to maintain writing in the second language. |
| 3 | Can use a translation tool or learner dictionary to write a word. |
| | Can use knowledge of frequent morphemes to write words (e.g. “car – cars”, “look – looking”). |
| 2 | Can use written resources (e.g. product name on a box) to copy a word. |
| 1 | Can use an example to copy practised words. |

Monitoring and Repair

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can use digital resources to check writing (e.g. using the spelling corrector in software). |
| | Can read own text to make improvements. |
| 3 | Can read aloud own writing to identify missing words. |
| | Can use a resource (e.g. learner dictionary or word list) to check spelling. |
| 2 | Can compare own writing with a model to check words (e.g. provided in a learning environment). |
| 1 | Can compare own writing of a sight word with an example to check the word. |

4.2.5. Interaction Activities

The CEFR Companion volume defines the concept of interaction as involving “two or more parties co-constructing discourse” (Council of Europe 2020: 70). Dialogues and voice message exchanges are examples from the field of oracy; textual exchanges by mobile phone, as well as form completion or textbook activities, are examples from the field of written language.

For beginning second language readers and writers, both spoken and written interaction are central aspects of coping with everyday life in a second language and should therefore be core elements of learning environments for this target group. Whereas online interaction is a separate section in the CEFR Companion volume, it has been included in the LASLLIAM Oral and Written Interaction scales for simplicity from the start.

4.2.5.1. Oral Interaction

This reference guide underlines the importance of oral interaction, which is fundamental for adult migrants

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- ▶ Please note that the descriptors in **blue font** are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume levels A1 and Pre-A1.
- ▶ The descriptors in the Overall scales (apart from the blue ones from the CEFR Companion volume) are presented according to the formula “Can do X (referring to the communicative activity) by reading/writing/listening/speaking Y (referring to practice, length and linguistic complexity)”. This formula must always be taken into account as implicit in all other descriptors of the Specific scales.
- ▶ For concrete application of the descriptors see the tables embedded in the Specific scales, with examples of language use in the four different domains.
- ▶ Please note that such examples related to the four domains might need adaptation according to the context and the learners’ needs.

engaged in learning to read and write. Even though LASLLIAM provides scales for oral production, for this target group the spoken dimension suggests more interaction than production, as the eight scales elaborated aim to highlight.

As in the CEFR Companion volume, in addition to the Overall scale, LASLLIAM provides seven Specific scales for Oral Interaction, as follows:

1. Understanding an Interlocutor
2. Conversation
3. Informal Discussion
4. Goal-Oriented Co-Operation
5. Obtaining Goods and Services
6. Information Exchange
7. Interviewing and Being Interviewed.

Formal Discussion and Using Telecommunications are not included in LASLLIAM, as the CEFR Companion volume provides descriptors for these two scales starting from A2 only.

All the scales focus on different kinds of interaction, involving discourse functions such as greeting, information exchange, invitation or giving instruction and they constantly emphasise the role of non-verbal aspects and mutual support in oral communication.

Oral interaction in a second language does not depend on the ability to read and write in a second language, or in any other language, as proved by the many non-literate adults who have acquired oral proficiency through an informal learning process. Therefore, these scales do not parallel the literacy scale: for instance, learners can progress in oral and written skills at quite different paces. However, the relation between learning to listen and speak in a second language and learning literacy must be taken into account in this reference guide, because several studies seem to reveal evidence that literacy influences the oral acquisition of a second language, though research on this is still scarce.

Interaction at LASLLIAM levels is characterised by a series of aspects that underpin all the descriptors and consist of three macro prerequisites that influence every level of the scales:

1. the first relates to the interaction itself;
2. the second relates to the interlocutor engaged in the communication exchange; thus, it concerns the input, focusing on reception;
3. the third relates to the learner taking part in the interaction; thus, it refers to the expected output, focusing on speaking.

In relation to the first point, the constraints that impact the learner's involvement in the communication at every level are:

- 1.1.dealing only with familiar text types and topics (where familiar is intended from the dual perspective, experiential and cultural);
- 1.2.interacting within an everyday context and in relation to immediate needs;
- 1.3.the setting allowing only for short and simple exchanges framed in routine situations.

Regarding the second, aspects of the input needed at every level are:

- 2.1.speech must be very slow, carefully articulated, with long pauses, accompanied by gestures and other body language;
- 2.2.prosody and pronunciation must be close to those present in the geographical area where the exchange takes place;
- 2.3.intonational patterns must be clearly expressed;
- 2.4.the interlocutor must support constantly, by repeating and rephrasing where needed, highlighting a strong willingness to collaborate in the communication.

Regarding the third, the characteristics of the output present at every level are:

- 3.1.continuous reliance on gestures and other body language to convey the meaning;
- 3.2.constant presence of pauses in the turns;
- 3.3.recurrence of formulaic expressions, often memorised.

In using the LASLLIAM descriptors related to the spoken dimension of languages, please be aware that gestures and other body language often have implications that need careful consideration in relation to gender, age, culture and social aspects.

Consistency across scales is supported by reference to text types and functions in the language activities descriptors, as well as by key progressions, particularly related to cognitive activity and linguistic complexity.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following for listening:

- ▶ cognitive activity involved: from chunking the speech into meaningful units (mostly words and phrases), which are memorised and recognised when they occur, to connecting words and phrases in larger units of meaning (sentences and more extended stretches of speech);
- ▶ linguistic complexity: from short and simple speech formed by a single word or phrase to more complex speech composed of simple, sometimes connected sentences, and a wider range of expressions.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following for speaking:

- ▶ cognitive activity involved in the step: from familiar words and unanalysed chunks towards frequent words and simple phrases on familiar topics;
- ▶ linguistic complexity: from turns mostly composed of a single word or phrase, to turns almost always consisting of memorised formulaic expressions; from simple and short sentences with frequent words to simple sentences.¹⁰³

Overall Oral Interaction

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can interact in everyday contexts by using simple sentences and formulaic expressions. |
| | Can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition at a slower rate of speech, rephrasing and repair. |
| | Can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics. |
| 3 | Can ask and answer questions about themselves and daily routines, using short, formulaic expressions and relying on gestures to reinforce the information. |
| | Can interact in a familiar context by using short, simple sentences and phrases with frequent words. |
| 2 | Can answer simple questions (e.g. for personally relevant information) by using familiar words, phrases or memorised formulaic expressions. |
| 1 | Can answer simple questions (e.g. for some basic personal information) by using mostly a single word or phrase. |

Understanding an Interlocutor

As in the CEFR Companion volume, before presenting descriptors for the three macro functions “interpersonal”, “transactional” and “evaluative” the Specific scales begin with Understanding an Interlocutor to underline the deep connection between listening and speaking within the interaction. For this scale, LASLLIAM does not provide a domain table because all the examples related to oral interaction within the other domain tables focus on co-constructing discourse in practice, where the learner is also asked to produce turns.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening and speaking: as outlined in the sections on oral reception and production;
- ▶ complexity of information: from very short information, formed by one word or an expression to more complex information;
- ▶ contextualisation and predictability of the conversation: from recognising a personally relevant piece of information and later to understanding everyday expressions.

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can understand everyday expressions aimed at the satisfaction of simple needs of a concrete type, delivered directly to them clearly and slowly, with repetition, by a sympathetic interlocutor. |
| 3 | Can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to them and follow short, simple directions. |
| | Can understand simple personal information (e.g. name, age, place of residence, origin) when other people introduce themselves, provided that they speak slowly and clearly directly to them, and can understand questions on this theme addressed to them, though the questions may need to be repeated. |

103. As for Oral Reception and Production scales, short and simple here mean that the speech is mostly composed of phrases and words which are salient and of sentences with a simple syntactic structure.

| | |
|---|---|
| 2 | Can pick out isolated pieces of information and frequent social formulas by recognising familiar words and expressions in a short, simple speech. |
| 1 | Can recognise a personally relevant piece of information delivered mostly in a single word or expression in a familiar context. |

Conversation

Conversation concerns interaction that aims to establish, maintain or reinforce personal relationships, especially with friends, colleagues and other LASLLIAM learners. Therefore, the descriptors highlight the social function of communicative exchanges.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening and speaking: as outlined in the sections on oral reception and production;
- ▶ content of speech: from basic greetings and later to wishes, gratitude, apologies or congratulations;
- ▶ degree of engagement and role in the interaction: from reacting to opening and closing a simple conversation.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|---|---|---|
| 4 | Can open and close a conversation with simple sentences and formulaic expressions (gratitude, wishes, apologies and congratulations). | e.g. to a friend ("Thank you for the flowers"); confirming the appointment for the renewal of a residence permit | e.g. with someone in a queue at a post office; to the dentist (It is better to finish next time. "Fine for me") | e.g. during a break with members of their team meeting; with a new colleague ("Nice to meet you"); addressing the need for a break after a job task | e.g. after a group activity successfully completed ("Well done"); with the teacher ("See you tomorrow"); postponing an individual information technology lesson |
| | Can take part in a simple conversation of a basic factual nature on a predictable topic (e.g. their home country, family, school). | e.g. posting in a chat an audio message to a friend ("What's the weather like?") | e.g. at the fair of a community centre | e.g. with their employer | e.g. posting online an audio message to the classroom chat; in an activity on the colours of the flags of the learners' countries |
| | Can ask how people are and react to news. | e.g. to a neighbour ("Are you well today?") | e.g. to people met at a party organised by an association | e.g. to a customer | e.g. to a fellow student |
| 3 | Can open and close a conversation with short, simple sentences and formulaic expressions (gratitude, wishes and apologies). | e.g. during a party ("Happy new year") | e.g. at an event within the social sphere ("All the best") | e.g. after finishing a job task ("Sorry, I am tired"); accepting a task distribution ("I will do it") | e.g. in a peer-to-peer activity |
| | Can greet people, state their name and take leave in a simple way. | e.g. their trainer at the end of a gym lesson | e.g. an employer of the town/district | e.g. introducing themselves to a new colleague | e.g. during a parent-teacher conference ("Good morning, I'm the father of [name]") |
| 2 | Can react in opening and closing a conversation with familiar words or memorised formulaic expressions (gratitude and apologies). | e.g. to the landlord (How are you? "Good, thanks"); thanking a friend | e.g. entering a public office ("Good morning") | e.g. for not being able to do something ("I'm sorry") | e.g. coming late to class; welcoming a new student |
| 1 | Can respond to simple greetings with a single word. | e.g. to the postman | e.g. (Good morning. "Good morning") | e.g. meeting someone at the entrance of the workplace ("Hi [name]") | e.g. at the end of the lesson (Bye. "Bye") |

Informal Discussion

Informal Discussion refers to interactions related to interpersonal and, often at the same time, evaluative use of language. Therefore, the descriptors are embedded in informal contexts, primarily involving communication between friends or other students within a learning environment.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening and speaking: as outlined in the sections on oral reception and production;
- ▶ contents of speech: from expressing agreement and later to expressing also partial agreement and disagreement;
- ▶ degree of engagement and role in the interaction: from responding mainly through gestures and other body language to exchanging likes and dislikes (e.g. related to foods and sports).

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|--|----------------|----------------|---|
| 4 | Can exchange likes and dislikes for sports, foods, etc., using a limited repertoire of expressions, when addressed clearly, slowly and directly. | e.g. posting an audio message in a social chat ("I don't like vegetables"); in relation to a behaviour of a friend | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. in a brainstorming activity based on intercultural exchanges ("Do you like...?") |
| 3 | Can exchange agreement, partial agreement and disagreement, often accompanied by body language. | e.g. with a friend about going out for a meal ("Good idea!") | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. in a simple role-play |
| 2 | Can respond to simple questions about likes and dislikes related to familiar persons and things. | e.g. going shopping with a friend, in relation to bought products ("Not good") | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. participating in a peer activity |
| | Can respond by expressing agreement with familiar words or phrases accompanied by body language (e.g. "It's OK"). | e.g. in relation to a daily plan of the children | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. accepting their part in a role-play ("It's fine") |
| 1 | Can respond to basic questions about likes and dislikes with Yes/No answers. | e.g. to a friend (You like it? "Yes") | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. in a small group activity related to basic foods |
| | Can respond by expressing agreement mostly with body language, accompanied by a single word or phrase. | e.g. to a neighbour | Not applicable | Not applicable | e.g. to a fellow student ("OK") |

Goal-Oriented Co-Operation

Goal-Oriented Co-Operation focuses on task-based activities where learner and interlocutor are required to collaborate in order to achieve a shared aim. Therefore, the descriptors refer both to formal and informal contexts.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening and speaking: as outlined in the sections on oral reception and production;
- ▶ complexity of the instruction: from acting on basic instructions mostly with body language to acting on more complex instructions (e.g. involving times, locations and numbers);
- ▶ degree of engagement and role in the interaction: from responding to a proposal and later on asking and giving permission.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|---|---|--|
| 4 | Can ask for and give permission with simple sentences. | e.g. during a video call with a friend | e.g. in a public office ("Good morning, can I come in, please?") | e.g. with a customer | e.g. referring to an activity ("Can I stop now?") |
| | Can act on basic instructions that involve times, locations, numbers, etc. | e.g. involved in the homework of their children | e.g. giving directions within a building ("Go to the hall there, then turn left") | e.g. sharing place and time of a work commitment | e.g. co-operating in carrying out a task like a language game |
| | Can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to them and follow short, simple directions. | e.g. answering a friend | e.g. helping a passer-by ("Where is the hospital?") | e.g. about changing a shift | e.g. engaged in a simple scenario-based activity |
| 3 | Can ask for and give permission with short, simple sentences ("Can I?"). | e.g. to a neighbour ("Please, come in") | e.g. at the immigration desk | e.g. for a break to a colleague during a shared job task | e.g. going to the toilet during the lesson |
| | Can interact in a familiar context by using short, simple sentences and phrases with frequent words. | e.g. dictating a message into an answering machine ("I call later") | e.g. following directions on the street ("Straight on and turn right") | e.g. describing a problem in a team meeting ("It doesn't work") | e.g. in group work within the learning environment |
| 2 | Can act on simple instructions with familiar words, accompanied by body language (e.g. "On left"). | e.g. where to find the light switch for the apartment building staircase | e.g. in simple procedures to validate a ticket in the bus ("Place here") | e.g. naming the object involved in a problem for a job task ("Broken door") | e.g. highlighting a missing comprehension ("Don't understand") |
| 1 | Can give permission with Yes/No answers. | e.g. to a friend (Can I? "Yes") | e.g. in a queue at the ticket office | e.g. to a colleague | e.g. in a simple role-play with the teacher |
| | Can act on basic instructions mostly with body language, accompanied by a single word or phrase (e.g. "Help"). | e.g. with a neighbour | e.g. in order to get off the bus ("Sorry") | e.g. asking for help in a job situation | e.g. indicating they have understood an exercise ("OK") |
| | Can respond to a proposal with Yes/No answers. | e.g. refusing a drink ("No") | e.g. accepting an appointment | e.g. accepting lunch with a colleague ("Yes") | e.g. accepting a task distribution in a peer activity ("Fine") |

Obtaining Goods and Services

Obtaining Goods and Services mainly concerns encounters related to concrete needs to be satisfied. Therefore, it represents a particular form of Goal-Oriented Co-Operation in which the goal is managing to obtain something, such as food or drink, particularly within the public domain.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening and speaking: as outlined in the sections on oral reception and production;
- ▶ familiarity of the situation: from familiar contexts to less familiar situations related to goods and services;
- ▶ complexity of the interaction: from acting on a need mostly with body language and later to handling numbers, cost and quantities.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|---|---|---|--|
| 4 | Can ask people for things and give people things. | e.g. to the caretaker of the apartment building; to a neighbour ("Do you have two eggs, please?") | e.g. asking for a mediator as support for an asylum request or information about products (e.g. food ingredients) | e.g. requesting the accident prevention kit | e.g. requesting the class timetable of the children's school ("Can I have the class timetable?") |
| | Can handle numbers, quantities, cost and time. | e.g. managing the bill at the end of a meal in a group | e.g. at the supermarket checkout | e.g. asking about working days in the calendar ("Is Saturday a working day?") | e.g. role-play on shopping |
| 3 | Can ask people for things and give things with short, simple phrases, often accompanied by body language (e.g. "Give me [name of an object]"). | e.g. a small loan to a friend to recharge their mobile | e.g. the ticket machine at the station | e.g. to another employee ("Pass me [name of a tool]") | e.g. a book for their children or a second language manual at the school library |
| | Can make simple purchases and/or order food or drink when pointing or other gesture can support the verbal reference. | e.g. buying something with a friend | e.g. at a bar ("I would like a coffee"); or to the clerk of a shoe shop ("The black shoes, thank you") | e.g. ordering something during a company outing | e.g. at the school cafeteria ("I would like a coffee") |
| 2 | Can act on a need or request with familiar words or phrases accompanied by body language. | e.g. to a neighbour ("I need bread") | e.g. in a shelter such as refugees' facilities ("I'm cold") | e.g. to find the toilet in the factory | e.g. for educational materials by describing objects ("The pencil, please") |
| 1 | Can act on a need or request mostly with body language, accompanied by a single word or phrase (e.g. "Take"). | e.g. at a friend's house ("Toilet") | e.g. to their doctor ("I bad") | e.g. passing a working tool | e.g. to their classmate ("Pen") |

Information Exchange

Information Exchange refers to the communicative need to fill a gap in terms of compensating for missing information. Therefore, the descriptors relate to missing factual data and concrete aspects that the persons involved in the interaction aim to know.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening and speaking: as outlined in the sections on oral reception and production;
- ▶ content of the exchange: from some basic personal information and later to information about other people they know;
- ▶ degree of engagement and role in the interaction: from answering to asking and answering.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|---|---|---|
| 4 | Can ask and answer questions about themselves and other people, where they live, people they know, things they have. | e.g. with the new neighbours | e.g. in the refugee camp ("Do you know the mediator?") | e.g. with a customer | e.g. within a learner's social forum |
| | Can indicate time by lexicalised phrases like "next week", "last Friday", "in November", "3 o'clock". | e.g. dictating simple information in a phone call with a friend | e.g. the arrival time of a train | e.g. about the end of the working day ("I finish at 5") | e.g. taking information about the children's school summer holiday |
| | Can express numbers, quantities and cost in a limited way. | e.g. taking decisions about a shopping list ("We need six tomatoes") | e.g. the cost of a bus ticket | e.g. the price per kilo of the vegetables they sell in the market | e.g. counting the number of letters and syllables in words given by the teacher |
| | Can name the colour of clothes or other familiar objects and can ask the colour of such objects. | e.g. talking about their new clothes | e.g. to a shop assistant in a clothing store ("Can I see the red shirt?") | e.g. related to their job equipment | e.g. describing a flashcard with pictures |
| 3 | Can ask very simple questions for information, such as "What is this?" and understand one- or two-word/sign answers. | e.g. about the cooking ingredients of a just-eaten dish | e.g. about the price of a transport pass | e.g. about their job ("I do many things") | e.g. in a virtual exchange during a distance learning activity |
| | Can ask and tell what day, time of day and date it is. | e.g. at the pool, taking information about the planning of the swimming course | e.g. in an administrative office | e.g. related to the planning of the working week | e.g. in the office of the driving school ("The next lesson is on Tuesday") |
| | Can ask for and give a date of birth. | e.g. during a ceremony within the familiar sphere ("My birthday is [date]") | e.g. in their local registry office | Not applicable | e.g. of their children for their school inscription |
| | Can ask for and give a phone number. | e.g. to a new friend | e.g. to call an ambulance | e.g. to a customer ("Call me on [number]") | e.g. the school contacts |
| | Can tell people their age and ask people about their age. | e.g. during a ceremony within the familiar sphere | e.g. to the dentist referring to their child ("[name] is 10") | Not applicable | e.g. to their classmate |
| 2 | Can answer simple questions (e.g. for personally relevant information) by using familiar words, phrases or memorised formulaic expressions. | e.g. giving the name of family members to the landlord | e.g. when ordering goods (What is your telephone number? "340279402") | e.g. about their job ("Good salary") | e.g. informing their teacher about the time ("It's 7") |
| 1 | Can answer questions about some basic personal information with a single word or phrase. | e.g. at a party of friends and family | e.g. to the police ("I Moroccan") | e.g. about their job ("I worker") | e.g. to the teacher ("I Marta") |

Interviewing and Being Interviewed

Interviewing and Being Interviewed deals with specific situations especially related to public, occupational and educational domains, such as a doctor's appointment, a dialogue with an official, a job interview or a communication within the learning environment, which aims to present a student. Therefore, it represents a particular form of information exchange focused on personal details.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of listening and speaking: as outlined in the sections on oral reception and production;
- ▶ content of the interview: from some basic personal information and later to information about personal details (e.g. related to the location of pain during a visit to the doctor);
- ▶ degree of engagement and role in the interaction: from being interviewed to interviewing to asking and answering.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|----------------|---|---|--|
| 4 | Can reply in an interview to simple direct questions, put very slowly and clearly in direct, non-idiomatic language, about personal details. | Not applicable | e.g. with the commission in relation to their request for asylum | e.g. in a simple job interview, answering simple direct questions on skills, availability for some job conditions (Can you work in a different town?), provided they can prepare in advance | e.g. helping a new classmate who speaks one of their native languages to introduce themselves to the class |
| | Can state in simple language the nature of a problem to a health professional and answer simple questions such as "Does that hurt?" even though they have to rely on gestures and body language to reinforce the message. | Not applicable | e.g. on the location of pain, main symptoms and duration within a medical consultation ("I feel sick in the morning") | e.g. a headache to the company doctor | e.g. engaging in a simple role-play |
| 3 | Can ask and answer questions about personal information, feelings and health with short, simple phrases and formulaic expressions (e.g. "I'm [name], I'm from Syria"). | Not applicable | e.g. on the pain, within a medical interview ("I have fever") | e.g. to their employer ("I'm [name], I'm from [country]") | e.g. being interviewed during an ice-breaking activity provided in the first meetings within the learning environment (e.g. Hello! How are you? "I am well, thanks, and you?") |
| 2 | Can give some simple information with familiar words or phrases. | Not applicable | e.g. in the immigration office, with the support of the mediator | e.g. to their employer (Where do you come from? "From Syria".) | e.g. in a peer-to-peer activity |
| 1 | Can answer questions about basic personal information with a single word or phrase (e.g. "I Syria"). | Not applicable | e.g. body parts in a medical interview ("Back") | e.g. to their employer (Do you live close to here? "Yes") | e.g. to a teacher to present themselves |

4.2.5.2. Written Offline and Online Interaction

The CEFR Companion volume specifies two scales for Written Interaction: Correspondence, and Notes, Messages and Forms. Separately from these, the CEFR Companion volume also has two scales for online interaction: Online Conversation and Discussion, and Goal-Oriented Online Transactions and Collaboration.

Because written interaction these days is more often online than offline, this reference guide integrates both of them, providing (in addition to the Overall scale) two Specific scales for:

1. (Offline and Online) Correspondence
2. (Offline and Online) Notes, Messages, Forms and Transactions).

As in the CEFR Companion volume, Correspondence focuses on exchanges in written or multimodal form, often of an interpersonal nature. The scale for Notes, Messages, Forms and Transactions is more focused on functional, often goal-oriented, transfer of information.

The activities required for Written Interaction follow the progression line described in the Technical Literacy scale and for some online interactions, also in the Digital Skills scale:

- ▶ the cognitive activity involved: from reading memorised sight words and copying single words to reading and writing practised words and routine phrases and later to reading and writing (in a comprehensible way) orally familiar words and phrases;¹⁰⁴
- ▶ length and linguistic complexity: from short words with a simple phonological structure to phonologically and morphologically more complex words, and short and simple sentences;¹⁰⁵
- ▶ orthographic complexity: from one-to-one correspondence between grapheme and phoneme to more complex relationships between graphemes and phonemes and irregularities in spelling.

- ▶ Unless indicated otherwise, the names of the categories and order of the scales in this reference guide are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume.
- ▶ Please note that the descriptors in **blue font** are the same as in the CEFR Companion volume levels A1 and Pre-A1.
- ▶ The descriptors in the Overall scales (apart from the blue ones from the CEFR Companion volume) are presented according to the formula “Can do X (referring to the communicative activity) by reading/writing/listening/speaking Y (referring to practice, length and linguistic complexity)”. This formula must always be taken into account as implicit in all other descriptors of the Specific scales.
- ▶ For concrete application of the descriptors see the tables embedded in the Specific scales, with examples of language use in the four different domains.
- ▶ Please note that such examples related to the four domains might need adaptation according to the context and the learners’ needs.

Overall Written Interaction

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can ask for or pass on personal details. |
| | Can write and respond to messages by using simple sentences and formulaic expressions. |
| 3 | Can convey basic information (e.g. name, address, family) in short phrases on a form or in a note, with the use of a dictionary. |
| | Can write and respond to short, simple messages by using frequent words and formulaic expressions. |
| 2 | Can write some simple messages with practised words and memorised formulaic expressions. |
| | Can fill in some personal data in a short, simple form by using practised words. |
| 1 | Can write a personally relevant word by copying. |
| | Can sign a form. |

¹⁰⁴. The characterisation “in a comprehensible way” does not necessarily imply correct spelling, even less so in informal online interactions.

¹⁰⁵. Short and simple sentences refers to mainly one-clause sentences of limited length.

(Offline and Online) Correspondence

The scale for (Offline and Online) Correspondence mainly includes descriptors for informal correspondence, conversations and discussion, but as in the CEFR Companion volume some descriptors for more formal correspondence are also included. The focus in the scales at all levels is on simple social exchanges in consecutive interactions with one person, less so on interactions with several interlocutors at the same time.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale include the following:

- ▶ ease of reading and writing: as outlined in the sections on written reception and production;
- ▶ type of message: from emojis and single-word greetings or answers to simple, personal messages, proposals or expressions of feelings;
- ▶ type of language: from single-word conventions to formulaic expressions and short, simple sentences of politeness;
- ▶ the ability to include symbols, images and other multimodal means: from a single emoji to a combination of text and image.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|---|---|--|
| 4 | Can compose a short, very simple message (e.g. a text message) to friends to give them a piece of information or to ask them a question. | e.g. message for a neighbour about help in the garden | Not applicable | e.g. a simple note for a colleague about absence or a piece of work | e.g. a simple note for a fellow student about a needed book |
| | Can use formulaic expressions and combinations of simple words/signs to post short positive and negative reactions to simple online postings and their embedded links and media, and can respond to further comments with standard expressions of thanks and apology. | e.g. making contact with remote friends and/or family | e.g. making a statement in a public discussion on social media | e.g. a reaction to news on the website of a company | e.g. in a Q&A section of a school learning platform |
| | Can ask for or report personal details in areas of immediate need in an everyday context. | e.g. a short message for a friend to ask for help with moving out | e.g. a short text message to the doctor to confirm an appointment | e.g. a short text message for a colleague to offer help | e.g. a short e-mail to a teacher with an apology for being late; a message to the child's teacher about bullying in the playground |
| 3 | Can post simple online greetings, using basic formulaic expressions and emoticons. | e.g. on a social network site | e.g. on a social network site | e.g. in an employee network group | e.g. as a language classroom simulation |
| | Can write and respond to simple messages of personal relevance with short, simple phrases and formulaic expressions. | e.g. a note for a neighbour about a package delivered; a reaction to a message from a friend about their illness ("Sorry for you") | e.g. a lost/ found message in hallway of own building; for selling an object online | e.g. a message to a fellow worker about a phone call (e.g. "Gina called. Please, call back"); a proposal to a colleague to switch shift | e.g. a message to the child's teacher ("My child is ill"); a reaction to a message about parent volunteering; congratulations |
| 2 | Can write some simple messages with practised words and memorised formulaic expressions. | e.g. text message or card for a friend ("Good luck!"); caption when sharing a photo ("my son") | Not applicable | e.g. a note for a colleague ("Call number. . ."); ("Okay, see you there") | e.g. a message to the teacher of a child ("My child is ill") |

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|---|----------------|--|--|
| | Can exchange greetings in a short communication. | e.g. in a message to a friend with an emoji ("Hi! ☺"); ("Bye, safe travel") | Not applicable | e.g. in a message to a colleague ("Happy Birthday!") | e.g. "How are you?" to a fellow student who is absent |
| 1 | Can copy some words about themselves or objects of personal relevance. | e.g. in a message to a friend ("Yes, I am Mela") | Not applicable | e.g. "My number is..." | e.g. in an app-group of the class ("From Syria"); "Welcome" to a new student |

(Offline and Online) Notes, Messages, Forms and Transactions

As in the CEFR Companion volume, the scale for Notes, Messages, Forms and Transactions includes a range of transactional reading and writing, like filling in forms or purchase transactions, and leaving messages or writing short notes.

Key concepts operationalised in the scale therefore include the following:

- ▶ ease of reading and writing: as outlined in the sections on written reception and production;
- ▶ type of message or transaction: from very simple forms to simple messages about dates or times and purchasing goods, and later to short and simple messages and notes;
- ▶ type of language: from single-word choices, entries, notes and messages to formulaic expressions and short, simple sentences adequate in tone;
- ▶ complexity of the transaction: from simple conventions of predictable and pre-coded forms (name, "yes" or "no") to more open and multimodal transactions;
- ▶ the ability to include symbols, images and other multimodal means: from a single emoji to a combination of text and image.

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|---|--|---|--|---|
| 4 | Can leave a simple message regarding for instance where they have gone, or what time they will be back (e.g. "Shopping: back at 5 p.m."). | e.g. an e-mail to a friend | e.g. a note left for local community members (like food left for others in the club house) | e.g. in a transfer form for a colleague who takes over the service ("Mrs Smith needs her medicine at 4") | e.g. an e-mail to the child's school about a visit to the dentist; note for a fellow student about a joint assignment |
| | Can complete a very simple online purchase or application, providing basic personal information (such as name, e-mail address or telephone number). | Not applicable | e.g. ordering goods by completing a simple order form with familiar words and illustrations | e.g. completing a simple interdepartmental form with familiar words and illustrations | e.g. enrolling on a course online as a language classroom simulation |
| | Can write or react to a proposal, intention or obligation with simple sentences and formulaic expressions. | e.g. invitation to a funeral | e.g. to cancel an appointment with the local administration | e.g. invitation to a colleague to travel together/answer to an invitation to a meeting | e.g. in a portfolio related to own learning/answer to an invitation from the child's teacher |
| 3 | Can fill in very simple registration forms with basic personal details: name, address, nationality, marital status. | e.g. registration form for a sports club | e.g. name and address on the metre readings for a utility bill or on a lost object declaration form | e.g. a work shift transfer form in frequent words and formulaic expressions | e.g. a registration form for a child's school outing; an application form for a language test |

| | | Personal | Public | Occupational | Educational |
|---|--|---|---|---|--|
| | Can make selections (e.g. choosing a product, size, colour) in a simple online purchase or application form, provided there is visual support. | Not applicable | e.g. ordering goods by completing a simple tick-box order form with familiar words and illustrations | e.g. completing a simple interdepartmental tick-box form with familiar words and illustrations | e.g. in the form received from the secretariat to indicate the choice of time for the language course based on their availability |
| | Can write and respond to simple messages with short, simple phrases and formulaic expressions. | e.g. proposal to cook for a friend | e.g. invitation to community members ("Who can help with cleaning?") | e.g. proposal to share car to go to work | e.g. confirmation of appointment with child's teacher; question for a fellow student about homework |
| 2 | Can write some simple messages with practised words and memorised formulaic expressions. | e.g. response to an invitation ("Yes, I can help") | e.g. response to public health nurse ("Sorry, I am ill"); appointment with a local government office ("Monday is fine") | e.g. invitation to a fellow worker ("Lunch at 1?"); appointment with manager ("Thanks, I come") | e.g. response to simple online exercise prompts (like pictures or words); appointment with the child's teacher ("Tuesday is fine") |
| | Can fill in some information in a short, simple form with practised words. | e.g. name, address and account number in utility bill | e.g. name, date and time of volunteering in online form of the local community | e.g. name, date and time on a worksheet | e.g. name, date of birth and address on enrolment form; date and single-word answers on a very simple work sheet |
| 1 | Can copy some words to respond to a message. | e.g. "Okay, Samira" | e.g. putting name and time on a list for work for the local community | e.g. in signing up with their name for an activity at the workplace | e.g. putting name on an activity list |

4.2.6. Interaction Strategies

LASLLIAM Language Use Strategies use the three general metacognitive categories of planning, compensating, and monitoring and repair (see 2.2.4). Metacognitive planning of interaction involves aspects such as: prediction of situations and the text types typically occurring in those situations; anticipation of content as well as preparing conversation scaffolds or rehearsing for oral interaction; and collecting or producing text scaffolds for written interaction. Interactional compensation strategies can involve using non-verbal means or accessible aids and resources as well as interactional sequences (e.g. lexical offers, recasts). Monitoring and repair of interaction centres on basic comprehension of the most crucial aspects and typically involves a high number of confirmation checks and the indication of (non-)understanding by mirroring and asking for clarification or repetition.

Key concepts for Oral and Written Interaction strategies operationalised in the scales include the following:

- ▶ the linguistic complexity of the product of strategy use (i.e. the problem that the strategy is to solve): from challenges related to the reception and production of chunks or sight words and practised words, to challenges with the reception and production of new words and phrases and later also sentences and texts;
- ▶ the linguistic complexity of helpful units focused on the process of strategy use: from using situational, contextual, non-verbal and visual cues to more specific linguistic, typographic and co-textual cues, to understanding as well as using simple resources and models, to using linguistic knowledge and more complex tools in writing;
- ▶ the cognitive complexity and teachability of the process of the strategy: from strategies involving one or a few steps (e.g. copying a model of a completed form) to those involving more steps (e.g. using a digital

dictionary), and from strategies composed of observable (actional) steps (e.g. using a resource) to those composed of non-observable (mental) steps (e.g. using typical features of a form).

Notice that affective and socio-interactive strategies have not been scaled (see box below), but are nevertheless of utmost importance for successful interaction, in particular in oral interaction to involve the interlocutor and share responsibility for successful communication.

Affective strategies

- ▶ Can use a means (e.g. positive self-talk and self-instructions, looking for what went well) to motivate themselves to start or continue a task.
- ▶ Can use a means (e.g. laughing, deep breathing, pausing, music) to reduce anxiety.

Socio-interactive strategies

- ▶ Can involve (ask/invite/engage) someone else (interlocutor/peer/mediator/more advanced reader/chat partner) to help with a task (repeat, slow down, negotiate meaning, get feedback, correct, etc.).
- ▶ Can involve non-present support tools (translating machine, help desk, online dictionary, demonstration video, model, etc.) to help with a task.

4.2.6.1. Oral Interaction

Planning

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can use written or mental notes at the phrase or utterance level to prepare for a planned situation. |
| | Can recall frequent words, formulaic expressions and familiar sentences to anticipate relevant points. |
| | Can ask interlocutor at the beginning of a conversation to speak clearly and slowly to maximise understanding. |
| | Can use the knowledge of some interaction types (e.g. a simple medical interview) to prepare for a planned situation (e.g. a medical visit). |
| 3 | Can rehearse frequent words and phrases to engage in a conversation. |
| | Can use the knowledge of specific interactions to anticipate some contents (e.g. a person introducing someone). |
| 2 | Can recall familiar words and phrases to anticipate specific pieces of information or social formulas (e.g. greetings). |
| | Can rehearse aloud familiar words and phrases to prepare for routine interaction. |
| 1 | Can recall a familiar word or phrase to prepare for routine interaction. |

Compensating

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can ask for help with a word, an expression or a structure to overcome problems in speaking. |
| | Can ask for a definition or a translation in L1 or L3 of a key word to understand the overall meaning of an utterance. |
| | Can use formulaic expressions to indicate attention (e.g. comments like "I see"). |
| 3 | Can use words from L1 or L3, all-purpose word or a neologism to maintain communication. |
| 2 | Can use body language to engage in a conversation. |
| | Can ask for help about a word or an expression to overcome lexical problems by repeating the word and using body language. |
| | Can imitate words or phrases to maintain rapport. |
| 1 | Can elicit words by pointing to objects to overcome lexical gaps. |
| | Can use single word or non-verbal signal to get someone to speak more slowly, more clearly or louder. |

Monitoring and Repair

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can repeat words or give a translation in L1 or L3 to ensure own comprehension. |
| | Can ask for repetition with frequent sentences (e.g. "Could you repeat, please?") to overcome problems in comprehension. |
| | Can use simple sentences (e.g. "Do you understand?") or give a translation to ensure interlocutor's comprehension. |
| 3 | Can request feedback on own language use to check appropriateness (e.g. "Right?"). |
| 2 | Can ask for repetition with words or phrases (e.g. "Please repeat") to overcome problems in comprehension. |
| | Can use formulaic expressions to ensure interlocutor's comprehension (e.g. "Understood?"). |
| | Can repeat familiar words and use body language (e.g. miming or pointing to an object) to check own comprehension. |
| 1 | Can use body language to indicate (in-)comprehension. |

4.2.6.2. Written Interaction

Planning

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can orally verbalise their message to plan the writing of words and sentences. |
| | Can use layout of a form to predict the content (e.g. bank transfer). |
| | Can look for familiar words to identify key information about a message or note. |
| 3 | Can use title/headline to predict the content of a form. |
| 2 | Can look for practised words to predict the topic of a message or note. |
| | Can copy information (e.g. their address from a letter) to fill in personal information on a form. |
| 1 | Can use an example to copy simple personal information into a form (e.g. name). |

Compensating

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can reread the surrounding words in a text to understand an unknown word. |
| 3 | Can use a translation tool or simple learner dictionary to write a word. |
| 2 | Can use a simple picture dictionary to understand unknown words in a message or note. |
| | Can use visual comparison (e.g. a photo of the street name on a sign) to recognise a word. |
| | Can use resources (e.g. passport, medical card, photo of address) to copy a word into a form. |
| 1 | Can use visual symbols to infer meaning (e.g. drawings in a note, emojis in a message). |
| | Can use an accompanying picture or icon to deduce the meaning of a word/sign. |
| | Can use an example to copy a practised word into a form or message. |

Monitoring and Repair

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can write short, simple phrases to express (non-)understanding of a message or note. |
| | Can use digital resources to check writing (e.g. suggested corrections in a message). |
| 3 | Can read own writing to identify missing words in a message or note. |
| | Can use the dictation function of software to check the spelling of a word. |
| 2 | Can mark unknown words on a form to ask for the meaning. |
| 1 | Can compare own writing with a model to check words (e.g. own name or sight word) in a message or note. |

4.3. DIGITAL SKILLS

The CEFR Companion volume does not include specific descriptors for digital literacy although it clearly takes into consideration that functioning in modern societies requires digital skills when referring to digital tools and online interaction.

In order to emphasise the importance of digital literacy as an integral part of literacy and the key to further education, LASLLIAM specifies descriptors of digital competency. Based on the DigCom¹⁰⁶ competence areas (see 2.2.5) and taking into consideration the LASLLIAM target learners (see 1.4), the following four digital competences are deemed essential:

1. Technical Skills
2. Communication and Collaboration
3. Content Creation and Management
4. Safety.

The Digital Skills descriptors are meant to provide examples (not an exhaustive list) of the kinds of skills needed by the target group to be able to participate in a digital society. The main aim is to fine-tune the first steps into realistic and manageable tasks that are essential to functioning on a daily basis in a digital society. Although some descriptors typically require a certain level of literacy in order to be carried out, advances in technology make it possible to carry out such tasks even with limited literacy. For example, “Can browse the internet to locate personally relevant information” can be carried out using voice commands (no literacy) or written commands (literacy), so the learner can ask for information without necessarily having to type. Other descriptors can be carried out using visual (icons) or oral cues while some need written input and therefore require a certain level of literacy.

4.3.1. Technical Skills

As indicated in 2.2.5, Technical Skills are of utmost importance to carrying out tasks in a digital environment but they are mostly language independent and focus on the technical aspect of carrying out a task, for example, pressing a button to turn a device on or off. These skills are the essential skills that underpin the use of other skills. Therefore, they are not scaled as they do not necessarily need to be learned in a linear order, as once you learn the skill, there is no higher level (for example, once you know how to turn the device on or off, there is no higher level). Furthermore, using a mouse is not linked to knowing how to update apps on a mobile device. The list is not an exhaustive list of skills. It will vary based on the devices and systems that learners will need to use on a daily basis to carry out essential tasks. The skills can be carried out with (at the start) or without (later on) guidance. See the box below for a number of these technical skills.

Technical Skills

- ▶ Can switch devices on and off.
- ▶ Can use a touchscreen with one finger or more (select icons, zoom in/out, scroll, open/close familiar apps/programmes).
- ▶ Can use a mouse to open and close windows/apps with/without guidance.
- ▶ Can operate a mouse (move cursor, open/close windows/apps, navigate between windows).
- ▶ Can log in to a device with guidance (e.g. copying from a model or a teacher dictating the letters) or using Face ID.
- ▶ Can use a keyboard to carry out tasks using one finger (type letters, use caps lock, scroll using page up/down buttons, move cursor with arrow buttons) or more (type certain punctuation marks or symbols, or use shift to type capital letters).
- ▶ Can mute mobile device.
- ▶ Can recognise if an app needs updating.
- ▶ Can download and delete apps/files/programmes.
- ▶ Can save files.

¹⁰⁶. Carretero et al. 2017.

- ▶ Can identify when the device needs charging.
- ▶ Can connect loudspeakers/headset to device.
- ▶ Can upload files.
- ▶ Can update apps. Can navigate around the screen using tab function.
- ▶ Can operate the mouse to select text elements.
- ▶ Can use double-click.
- ▶ Can manage files (retrieve, copy name, organise in folders).
- ▶ Can operate basic regulation buttons (e.g. volume, brightness).

In relation to the scaled LASLLIAM Digital Skills, four levels are defined in accordance with all the other scales in this reference guide. Similar to the Technical Literacy scales, it is important to stress that Digital Skills are not an end in itself, but a means to achieve functional literacy so they are meant to complement and support the Communicative Language Activities and Language Use Strategies scales. As is the case with all the LASLLIAM scales, the descriptors in each scale are not co-dependent, so a learner might be at level 1 in a certain scale and level 2 or 3 in another. This does not apply to digital skills descriptors only, but also to the relationship between digital skills descriptors and other LASLLIAM descriptors. This means for instance that a learner who is at level 3 in Spoken Production could be at level 4 in Communication and Collaboration skills.

Key concepts operationalised in the scales include the following:

- ▶ complexity of the operation involved: from using the basic functions of a device/software to modifying settings and managing accounts;
- ▶ degree of contextualisation: from relevant everyday uses (e.g. ATM or phone call) to more infrequent and abstract contexts (e.g. online forms, text managing or safety control);
- ▶ degree of literacy needed: from no literacy skills required at all, to reading or writing whole sentences or short texts;
- ▶ devices used to carry out the task: from mobile devices (smartphones, tablets) to desktop PCs;
- ▶ degree of autonomy: from working with guidance or support to working without guidance.

4.3.2. Communication and Collaboration

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can produce audiovisual files (e.g. short video message). |
| | Can share multimedia content (e.g. photo album, slides). |
| | Can manage a contact list (e.g. add contacts to favourites). |
| | Can participate in groups on text-based messaging platforms/apps (e.g. learner group). |
| | Can use simple digital platforms or apps (e.g. taxi booking, bus app). |
| | Can use simple, personally relevant software (e.g. online word processor). |
| | Can manage a social media account (e.g. download an app). |
| | Can set up an e-mail account with guidance. |
| 3 | Can share multimedia content (e.g. photo album, slides) with guidance. |
| | Can enter new contact to contact list. |
| | Can participate in groups on text-based messaging platforms/apps with guidance (e.g. a learner group). |
| | Can carry out simple practised everyday tasks on a digital platform (e.g. using ATM to withdraw money, buying tickets from a machine by recognising and entering basic information). |
| | Can use the basic settings to manage a social media account with guidance (e.g. leave a group). |
| | Can use an e-mail account. |
| 2 | Can use audiovisual files by playing, pausing and stopping. |
| | Can forward information to others (photos, audio/video recordings, texts). |

| | |
|---|---|
| | Can use contact list to call someone. |
| | Can communicate using audiovisual programmes asynchronously with guidance (e.g. voicemail message). |
| | Can use visual clues to interact (emojis, photos, GIFS). |
| 1 | Can identify and operate the icons for play, pause and stop. |
| | Can take photos. |
| | Can use mobile device to communicate orally (e.g. phone call). |
| | Can communicate using audiovisual programmes with guidance (e.g. video call). |
| | Can use visual clues (e.g. icons) to carry out simple practised everyday tasks (buying metro tickets from a machine). |
| | Can identify the icons of basic functions on a digital device (e.g. symbol of an app or a browser). |
| | Can identify icons of familiar social media accounts (e.g. Instagram). |
| | Can understand visual clues to interact (emojis, photos, GIFS). |

4.3.3. Content Creation and Management

| | |
|---|---|
| 4 | Can use text recognition tools (e.g. Adobe Reader). |
| | Can use speech recognition tools in a familiar language (e.g. Siri, Cortana). |
| | Can set up basic online accounts to access essential services (e.g. make a doctor's appointment online, request a repair) with guidance. |
| | Can organise a written text using digital tools (e.g. start a new paragraph or page; add headings). |
| | Can use literacy learning platforms and tools (e.g. vocabulary app). |
| | Can search for video tutorials to carry out basic tasks (e.g. cooking from a recipe). |
| | Can use very common search engines. |
| 3 | Can type basic written content into a digital device (e.g. by copying from print). |
| | Can use basic online services (e.g. make a doctor's appointment online, request a repair) with guidance. |
| | Can use digital picture-based dictionaries in a familiar language. |
| | Can find basic information of personal relevance using search engines with guidance. |
| 2 | Can create some basic written content (e.g. a text message with practised words). |
| | Can use numeric information to carry out simple practised everyday tasks (e.g. enter credit to add to travel tickets on a booking machine/app). |
| | Can operate a keyboard to type punctuation marks and symbols that only require one button press (e.g. dot, #, +). |
| | Can record multimedia messages (audio or video) on a mobile device. |
| | Can use digital translation tools. |
| | Can retrieve personally relevant websites (using a browser) with guidance or oral commands. |
| | Can operate most common search engines using oral commands. |
| 1 | Can type words by copying from print (e.g. name, address from paper to an online form). |
| | Can identify icons of personally relevant websites or apps (e.g. own bank). |
| | Can record multimedia messages (audio or video) on a mobile device with guidance. |
| | Can identify personally relevant translation tools. |
| | Can identify very common browser symbols and open browser. |
| | Can identify the icons of familiar search engines. |

4.3.4. Safety

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can understand that not all the information on the internet is reliable. |
| | Can use basic privacy settings on devices to protect information with guidance (e.g. sharing location while using an app). |
| | Can change password. |
| | Can connect to free Wi-Fi which requires registration. |
| 3 | Can use basic safety settings on devices to protect information with guidance (e.g. the “block” function). |
| | Can change password with guidance. |
| | Can connect to free Wi-Fi which does not require registration. |
| 2 | Can keep password safe (e.g. not share it). |
| | Can connect to free Wi-Fi which does not require registration with guidance. |
| 1 | Can notice when something is wrong (e.g. hearing a beep, seeing an error message). |
| | Can use password on devices with guidance (Face ID, pattern). |
| | Can identify Wi-Fi symbol. |

5.1. LASLLIAM AS A REFERENCE GUIDE ON THE SUPRA LEVEL OF CURRICULUM DESIGN

The Council of Europe distinguishes curricula at five different levels: the supra level of international curricular design, the macro level of national, state and regional curricula, the meso level of institutional curricula, the micro level of class curricula and the nano level of individual experience of courses and personal development (see Figure 5). LASLLIAM clearly is an international document intended for curriculum design at the supra level, and as such it serves as a reference tool across Europe for the development of curricula at the other levels. In line with the CEFR Companion volume, it should not be misinterpreted as a prescriptive document, but understood as a guide that provides points of orientation for the various stakeholders in curriculum design including materials developers as well as teachers who plan courses and lessons. It is our hope that LASLLIAM will stimulate debates at the supra level about policy recommendations and mutual recognition of segments of the literacy and second language learning process that have taken place in different countries (see 6.3).

Figure 5 – Council of Europe terminology for curricula at different levels¹⁰⁷

| The curriculum on different levels of the education system | |
|--|---|
| INTERNATIONAL COMPARATIV (SUPRA) | e.g. international reference instruments, such as the <i>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages</i> , 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 |

This chapter briefly describes how the LASLLIAM reference guide can serve curriculum development at the macro, meso and micro level – and thus, it is hoped, contribute to individual learning experienced as personally significant at the nano level. Like the CEFR Companion volume (Council of Europe 2020: 43), LASLLIAM can be used to develop curricula from scratch or be referred to for inspiration in adapting an existing one.

5.2. USING LASLLIAM FOR CURRICULUM DESIGN AT THE MACRO LEVEL

Curricula at the supra and macro levels are also called intended curricula; they are reflected in political documents and thus allow for public debate of the various stakeholders (e.g. migrants, employers, educational authorities, teachers, host communities, policy makers, NGOs). In the various European countries, language curricula for adult migrants at the macro level differ to a great extent in their degree of specified detail, and this seems to be particularly true for the rather new curricula for literacy and second language learning. Most characteristic for this level of curriculum design is the definition of general aims (e.g. participation in the community and society or social cohesion) and specific objectives (e.g. language competences and strategies), but many curricula at the macro level also provide a description of types of courses including hours per course level with entry and exit profiles (maybe even outlines of syllabi), contents and standards of teachers' professional development for

107. Beacco et al. 2016: 18.

programmes funded or subsidised at this level. Such curricula at the macro level may also define the scope of courses in terms of methods, teacher roles, admitted materials, aids and resources for funding/subsidies and for officially recognised certification. The extent to which the levels are involved in decision making and who is responsible for a specific decision varies according to the national and/or regional contexts, as Beacco et al. (2016: 15) point out.

Three examples illustrate this.

- ▶ In Germany, the legal basis for the integration course system and its administrative handling by the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees are the context for the specific development of national literacy and second language curricula that started in 2007¹⁰⁸ and has systematically been monitored at the national level since then.¹⁰⁹ This office defines the types of literacy and second language courses and their learning goals, possible transitions between these and other types of language courses, the minimum and maximum numbers of learners per class, teaching methods, the range of teaching materials that can be used, the standards of teacher qualification, the contents of programmes for professional development of teachers, as well as other aspects.¹¹⁰ Four different course levels of 300 lessons each (600 lessons leading up to A1, and 600 lessons leading up to A2) are offered for literacy and second language learners who each receive funding for up to 1 200 lessons. A specific curriculum for second-script learners was introduced in 2018.¹¹¹
- ▶ In Italy, language and KoS (Knowledge of Society) courses for migrants are provided free of charge by the state adult education centres (CPIA-Centri Provinciali per l'Istruzione degli Adulti), under the direction of the Ministry of Education (MIUR) which determines general aims, course duration, and the entry and exit levels. Currently, courses are particularly focused on the CEFR levels required by the immigration law for residency (A2) and citizenship (B1), with a prevalence of courses from A1 (entry level) to A2.¹¹² While literacy and second language courses have been provided since the late 1980s, targeted courses for non-literate and low-literate migrants were formally established in 2016, when the syllabus for low-literates (Pre-A1, 2016) and non-literates (Alfa, 2018)¹¹³ were published by the consortium CLIQ (Certificazione Lingua Italiana di Qualità)¹¹⁴ and formally approved by the MIUR. According to these syllabi, courses without any charge of up to 300 hours (Alfa, non-literates), plus up to an additional 150 hours (Pre-A1, low-literates) are in place all over the country, also ensuring the presence of professional linguistic and cultural mediators and access to complementary services to sustain a regular attendance (babysitting, transport).¹¹⁵
- ▶ In the Netherlands, the legal basis for integration courses was until 2020 the 2013 Integration Act which required language level A2 (later B1) and passing the KoS test for residence, with the possibility to apply for exemption after failing the language tests four times. Curriculum design, teaching approaches and materials, and organisation of courses are left to the educational field. Because several evaluations revealed this policy had seriously failed,¹¹⁶ the Dutch Parliament adopted a new Integration Act in July 2020 that aims at a strong relationship between education, participation and work, tight support of the local authorities and tailoring to the individual migrant.¹¹⁷ The law offers three trajectories for different groups. For all trajectories, local authorities are required to draw up a personal Integration and Participation Plan based on previous education and experiences, and the individual circumstances and qualities of the migrant. The self-reliance trajectory (Z-route) is intended for unschooled and low-educated migrants or anyone who cannot be expected to reach level B1 or A2. This trajectory offers a combination of simultaneous language learning (800 hours) and participating in society (e.g. in volunteer work; 800 hours) and does not require the achievement of a specified language level at the end. Teachers have to be qualified and certified.

In general, curricula at the macro level will usually play a decisive role in public funding of literacy and second language classes in public adult education institutions or commercial schools. Even NGOs such as migrants' organisations offering free programmes run by volunteers or project-funded staff might model their courses to

108. See Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge 2007.

109. For example, Rother 2010.

110. See Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge 2015.

111. See Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge 2018.

112. Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca 2012.

113. CLIQ 2020.

114. CLIQ is composed of the four institutions officially recognised by the state for the certification of the Italian language: Università per Stranieri di Perugia, Università per Stranieri di Siena, Università Roma Tre, Società Dante Alighieri.

115. Ministero degli Interni, Dipartimento per le libertà civili e l'immigrazione 2018.

116. Ministerie van Sociale Zaken en Werkgelegenheid 2018.

117. See De Rijksoverheid 2020.

some extent on these curricular models. Also, commercial publishing companies will produce textbooks and other resources for literacy and second language learning on the basis of these curricula.

LASLLIAM can fulfil important functions in curriculum design for literacy and second language learning at the macro level in terms of planning course systems, defining learning outcomes, recommending teaching principles and evaluating the curriculum, as outlined below.

In the planning stage of curriculum design at the macro level, LASLLIAM can serve as a solid basis for needs analyses and the consideration of various educational pathways. It is important to emphasise here that LASLLIAM does not establish norms for all literacy learners to achieve, but instead offers a reference tool for choosing relevant objectives from a state-of-the-art description of potential objectives.

The general LASLLIAM descriptors and their domain-specific examples can inspire needs analyses and frameworks on relevant communicative settings at the macro level. This is particularly useful in defining separate courses for learners with various literacy levels (e.g. literacy beginners versus second-script learners)¹¹⁸ or with various interests concerning the domains (e.g. family literacy versus vocational literacy). Also, the entrance and exit profiles will be of great interest to plan transitions and optimisation of individual educational pathways. Two examples illustrate this point.

1. The question of how to deal with learners' heterogeneity in terms of oral and written skills is a particular challenge in literacy and second language curriculum design. Learners with comparable literacy skills may range in their oral abilities from hardly any experience to fluency – and the other way around. Many literacy and second language curricula at the macro level prioritise literacy skills over oral skills for the design of course systems.
2. As literacy encompasses a wide continuum of competences, transitions from specific literacy and second language programmes into general language education programmes such as general (i.e. non-literacy specific) integration classes, vocational courses, or – especially for adolescent migrants – formal education systems are a crucial aspect to consider.

In the definition of level-specific objectives for the various courses, LASLLIAM can help to construct various syllabi using the relevant explicit progression lines characteristic of this guide to gradually build up the chosen competences. Sometimes this is done at the macro level, but more often at the meso level (see 5.3).

In the formulation of teaching principles and in the development of teaching materials and resources, LASLLIAM recommendations on an action-oriented approach to literacy and second language programmes can serve as a point of orientation and critical discussion in national debates about which didactic traditions to maintain and which didactic transformations to initiate. For example, criteria on the national, state or regional admission of materials and resources can be based on a selection of criteria outlined in Chapter 3.

Finally, in the evaluation and constant improvement of a national, state or regional curriculum, the LASLLIAM descriptors can be useful in monitoring the success of individual courses, course providers, or larger components of the course system.

5.3. USING LASLLIAM FOR CURRICULUM DESIGN AT THE MESO LEVEL

Curriculum design at the meso level can involve decisions about the educational programmes that the school/ educational organisation intends to provide according to its nature and mission (public institution for adult education, private course provider, vocational centre, NGO or volunteer association) and the social environment in which it operates. For example, a public centre for adult education might offer literacy and second language courses per se or as a preparatory step prior to entering curricular programmes for the completion of compulsory schooling. It could co-operate with local enterprises for language-for-work courses, or focus on courses aimed at obtaining the legal certificates for a residence permit. It could collaborate with NGOs for the social inclusion of vulnerable adults, like unemployed women or refugees, or with local libraries for family literacy programmes.

Depending on their autonomy in decision making and flexibility, schools/educational organisations also make decisions about aspects like the number of courses, offered levels, number and size of classes (or learning groups in non-formal teaching), number of tuition hours, allocated teaching equipment (e.g. digital devices), rules for students' attendance or allocation of professional resources. All these factors establish a frame for curriculum design.

¹¹⁸. See Guerrero Calle 2020.

The literacy and second language course programme (also referred to as a syllabus) should be based on a preliminary needs analysis. As pointed out in the literature,¹¹⁹ a needs analysis should be carried out both in defining macro level curricula and in planning courses. Since learners' needs evolve, it is also used as a monitoring tool during the course (see 5.4). The involvement of teachers, learners, mediators and, if needed, relevant stakeholders in syllabus development is recommended for language courses for migrants. The preliminary needs analysis should focus on learners' individual needs (subjective needs) as well as on the social and language-communicative requirements of the contexts in which they will use the acquired competences (social needs).

An individual needs analysis usually collects information in three areas.

1. Firstly, it aims at understanding who the learners are by collecting relevant background information on aspects like age, gender, occupation, formal and informal education, time of arrival in the new country of residence, reasons for migration, migration project, hopes, experiences and attitudes.
2. The second area regards the learners' reasons for learning the target language, expectations about the course, actual and envisaged uses of the language (e.g. tasks that they want to perform): in essence, what and why learners want to attend a course.
3. The third outcome of the individual needs analysis is a language profile of the learners, which includes their plurilingual repertoires (see 1.4.3; 5.4), their oral competence in the target language, and their literacy and second language profiles (see 1.4.1; 6.2.1).

Syllabus designers can conduct the learners' needs analysis before planning the course, as a preliminary collection of information, for example, through oral interviews or focus groups (in a common language) with representatives of the envisaged target groups. Otherwise, the non- and low-literate learners' needs can be detected during the welcome procedure through oral interviews and at the start of the course (see 5.4). The placement test is the usual tool to determine the literacy profile and the learner's language proficiency in the target language (see 6.2.1).

A language-communicative analysis of the real-world situations and tasks that learners will have to cope with helps to set learning goals tailored to their social needs. The analysis focuses on aspects like languages and dialects that are used, prevalent types of discourse, texts, vocabulary (including terminology), prevalent speech acts and expressions, degree of formality, and others. Several techniques can be used. For example, to define a literacy and second language curriculum for job training, an ethnographic study of the (often multilingual) job environment could help to prioritise the course contents, such as which written and oral text types to present and the development of mediation skills and language use strategies. The participation in the analysis of relevant players from the workplace (including migrant workers) is crucial in defining the expected outcomes of the course (in terms of levels of proficiency and/or general knowledge), the location (at the workplace or school), methodology and teaching materials.

Guidelines for a participatory needs analysis and examples of best practices are made available by Language for Work, an international network supported by the Council of Europe.¹²⁰ A course for newly arrived immigrant women that combines literacy and second language teaching and guidance in accessing, for example, childcare and women's health services should be planned involving the women themselves and social services workers. Generally speaking, many literacy and second language courses include contents related to knowledge of the society where migrants have resettled, their rights (e.g. social rights and access to social services) and duties (e.g. respect for national laws on gender parity). Networks and/or partnerships between schools, local institutions, migrant organisations, local companies, and other private or public players active in migrants' inclusion policies are effective tools to monitor and meet the migrants' educational needs.

Curriculum designers can select the relevant LASLLIAM descriptors from the Overall and Specific scales and from the domain tables for language activities, to negotiate and determine with teachers, learners and (sometimes) other stakeholders (e.g. employers, staff from job services or vocational centres) the following:

- ▶ levels of proficiency to be expected in a given time;
- ▶ situations the group needs to be able to cope with;
- ▶ specific learning objectives;
- ▶ methodology (e.g. teaching through scenarios);
- ▶ learning materials (e.g. authentic materials to complement the course book); and
- ▶ assessment procedures (see 6.2.1).

119. North et al. 2019.

120. Council of Europe 2015-2022.

As suggested by the Council of Europe, designers of curricula and syllabi for adult migrants are likely to take account of the action-oriented view of language competence described in the CEFR. Thus, it makes sense to specify course objectives in terms of given actions or communication tasks that participants are likely to face, and the language competences that they will need in order to deal with these tasks (Council of Europe – LIAM 2020h).

These considerations are also valid for using LASLLIAM, which adopts the CEFR Companion volume’s action-oriented approach. A syllabus for a literacy and second language course would define a list of selected tasks which represent what a learner should be able to do at the end of the course, a list of language contents (e.g. lexical items) and technical literacy skills, which together represent how the learner should perform the tasks (see 6.2.2). While curriculum designers can refer to LASLLIAM in defining the technical literacy skills, they have to rely on language-specific inventories to specify aspects, such as expressions for language functions, grammatical structures or text types. For a number of languages, tools based on the CEFR are available,¹²¹ which are already adapted to literacy and second language courses.¹²²

At the meso level, the schools/educational institutions might be responsible for the teachers’ professional development, including the provision of in-service training. The Council of Europe recommends paying special attention to teachers’ ability to handle cultural aspects of language teaching, to relate the language syllabus to the migrants’ everyday needs, to assess learning progress and to deal with different levels of literacy.¹²³

The LASLLIAM descriptors can be used as materials in teachers’ in-service training, especially regarding how to link literacy and second language teaching to real life and how to deal with differing levels of literacy within a learner group. For example, in workshops or during an action research project, facilitators could focus on a number of relevant descriptors and invite teachers to discuss, match, complement and innovate their own practices in the light of these descriptors, as well as adapt them to their own teaching contexts. Checklists for teachers’ self-assessment can be built, based on the LASLLIAM descriptors. For example, teachers and curriculum designers can choose a set of descriptors as core learning objectives, which then serves as a self-monitoring tool for teachers. LASLLIAM also offers useful background information about literacy, the acquisition of literacy and second language, and overviews of teaching approaches and assessment procedures in the field of literacy and second language teaching.

5.4. USING LASLLIAM AT THE MICRO LEVEL

In their daily teaching practice, teachers carry the responsibility for implementing the curricula determined at national and/or regional level and the decision taken by the schools/educational institutions. Even when teachers are not responsible for course planning, they have to adapt the guidelines, general objectives, principles defined by the curricula and syllabi to the specific and concrete needs of individual learners. They also have to negotiate with them a set of common needs and aims at classroom level. In implementing the syllabus, teachers adapt it to the learners’ needs and to their pace of learning.

The time needed to achieve learning goals varies individually as it is influenced by a multitude of variables: levels of technical literacy, prior schooling and hours of instruction received in the home country and/or other countries, digital skills, familiarity with assessment practices and techniques, typological distance between mother tongue and target language, different scripts, frequency and quality of the contacts with the target language, domains of use of the target language, familiar literacy events in the first and second language, uneven profiles in the target language, trauma experiences (especially in the case of asylum seekers and refugees) and physical impairments (e.g. eyesight impairment), plurilingual repertoires, internal factors (age, motivation, cognitive style, attitudes, etc.), external factors (family context, behaviour, cultural distance, migration project, etc.) and logistical aspects that influence regular course attendance (distance, costs of public transport, working and/or family commitments, etc.).

To get acquainted with the course attendees’ needs and tailor the course accordingly, the teacher can carry out a needs analysis at the start of the course, especially if the information is not collected during the welcome phase, is not available or is incomplete. During the course, the needs analysis serves as a continuous monitoring tool to keep the teaching in tune with the learners’ evolving needs.

121. Council of Europe 2020f.

122. For example, for Italian, Borri et al. 2014a.

123. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020d.

The *Language support for adult refugees – A Council of Europe Toolkit* suggests three tools that proved to be effective in carrying out needs analyses with non-literate and low-literate learners.¹²⁴ For the linguistic repertoires, the “Plurilingual portrait: a reflective task for refugees” (Tool 38¹²⁵) has proved effective by enhancing migrants’ awareness and self-esteem.¹²⁶ For the language profile, the image-based questionnaire “Finding out what refugees can already do in the target language and what they need to be able to do” (Tool 25) and the outline of the interview “Refugees’ linguistic profiles” (Tool 27) are available. The results of the literacy and language assessments complete the learner’s language profile (see 6.2.1).

According to the degree of autonomy and decision-making levels attributed to the teacher by the local school systems, the teacher is responsible for choices regarding approaches, teaching activities and materials, and in general for mid-term work plans and lesson plans. For these aspects, the teacher can also find support in this reference guide (see Chapter 3). In particular, LASLLIAM offers support in planning action-oriented literacy and second language learning environments in which the notion of a scenario has a prominent role. Scenarios are a tool for action-oriented planning, that is, planning which envisages real-life situations in which learners could find themselves outside the learning environment. Thus, the use of scenarios is particularly recommended as it is consistent with the action-oriented approach (see 3.1; 3.3.1).

The LIAM website provides the theoretical background and explanation of what scenarios are and why they are particularly appropriate in language teaching of adult migrants. Scenarios comprise “a series of verbal and non-verbal actions involving both general knowledge (e.g. where to buy a bus ticket) and competences (such as filling out the form) that are designed to lead to successfully carrying out the activities in question” (Council of Europe – LIAM 2020e).¹²⁷ Adopting a scenario approach provides learners with a meaningful and realistic frame for language uses in an instructional and therefore guided setting. A scenario brings together “a set of real word variables, including a domain, context, tasks, language activities and texts” (ibid.). While engaging in tasks in a scenario, learners activate and develop their strategic, pragmatic and linguistic competence, including discourse competence.

At the micro level, a scenario is a framework for language activities carried out in the educational environment. It also fosters the creation of social bonds within the group through the exchange of information and narratives. Learners’ backgrounds, previous knowledge and experience – in the first or in any other language – are brought to the fore as leverage for literacy and second language learning and teaching. Consistently, teachers support learners in working together to solve problems that they meet in everyday situations, and by providing teaching materials that include objects and texts occurring in those situations. The use of technologies is recommended for the improvement of digital literacy (see 2.2.5). Along these pathways, reflective activities could be carried out, guided by teachers. These reflective activities would relate to the target language, which prompts metalinguistic awareness of grammatical, sociocultural and pragmatic (including awareness of the varieties of text types) features.¹²⁸ Teachers can also activate and sustain learners’ reflection on their learning, including their self-assessment (see Appendix 3).

In highly diverse groups, as are most classes in literacy and second language instruction, scenarios are a powerful tool to differentiate teaching and learning pathways according to the individual learner’s competence within a common and co-operative setting. Through scenarios, intercultural awareness is fostered since representations, schemes and frames related to specific situations (e.g. about how to interact in institutional settings or at the workplace) can emerge. At later stages, beyond LASLLIAM levels, they may be noticed, discussed and negotiated should they arise in such situations.

In developing a scenario, the shift from abstract to concrete, from general to specific is required. Starting with the LASLLIAM Overall scales, teachers first select the Specific scales related to the learners’ needs. Next, they contextualise the descriptors of the Specific scales by taking into account the LASLLIAM examples of the domain tables as an input model or choosing them as an expected output. Figure 6 represents a funnel in using LASLLIAM resources for the elaboration of a scenario.

124. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020k.

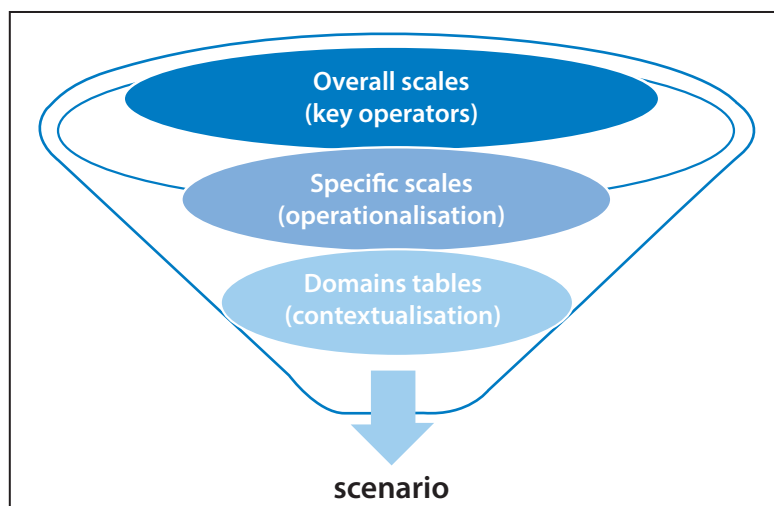
125. Based on Krumm and Jenkins 2001.

126. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020f.

127. See also Beacco et al. 2005; British Council – EAQUALS 2015.

128. Beacco et al. 2016.

Figure 6 – Connections between LASLLIAM resources within a scenario



Section 6.2.2.1 discusses the uses of a scenario as an assessment tool. An example of a scenario as a classroom activity, based on the model suggested by the *Language support for adult refugees – A Council of Europe Toolkit*¹²⁹ is provided in Appendix 2.

¹²⁹. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020e.

Chapter 6

ASSESSMENT WITHIN THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

As referred to earlier (see 1.2), LASLLIAM is intended for teachers, curriculum and materials designers to support their commitment in tailoring literacy and second language courses for migrants. To support this purpose, this reference guide addresses assessment as a key component of the learning process.¹³⁰

The term assessment is used

in the sense of the assessment of the proficiency of the language user ... All assessment is a form of evaluation, but in a language programme a number of things are evaluated other than learner proficiency. These may include the effectiveness of particular methods or materials, the kind and quality of discourse actually produced in the programme, learner/teacher satisfaction, teaching effectiveness, etc. (Council of Europe 2001: 177)

Therefore, as in Chapter 9 of the CEFR, this chapter is also concerned with assessment, and not with evaluation.

Although, the CEFR Companion volume states that “the scales of illustrative descriptors ... are not assessment scales” (Council of Europe 2020: 41), they can represent a useful source for the development of assessment tools to the extent that these tools aim at pedagogical work. In fact, the shifting of the target group from the generic CEFR literate social agent to the low-literate and non-literate adult migrant involved in a formative path implies that LASLLIAM descriptors for communicative language activities are learning goals that can usually only be achieved in a learning environment (be it educational or vocational). This learning environment represents the *conditio sine qua non* for any assessment procedures, which should always be referenced to the curriculum and be coherent with the syllabus.

Taking this into account, this chapter is structured to offer reflections and practical examples in relation to:

- ▶ the approaches to be adopted taking into account the target learners (see 1.4);
- ▶ the different purposes and forms of assessment, possibly by using the present work;
- ▶ the assessment tools that can be developed, underscoring the importance of considering them as part of the learning materials, thus negating any function aimed to meet proficiency standards decontextualised from the learning environment.

6.1. APPROACHES TO BE ADOPTED

This section focuses on three suggested approaches in using LASLLIAM to develop assessment tools: continuum criterion-referencing, learning oriented assessment (LOA) and profiling approach.¹³¹ On the basis of these approaches, considerations related to the prevention of potential misuses of this reference guide will be formulated.

6.1.1. Continuum criterion-referencing

As the CEFR Companion volume reminds us,

the methodological message of the CEFR is that language learning should be directed towards enabling learners to act in real-life situations, expressing themselves and accomplishing tasks of different natures. Thus, the criterion suggested for assessment is communicative ability in real life, in relation to a continuum of ability. This is the original and fundamental meaning of “criterion” in the expression “criterion-referenced assessment”. (Council of Europe 2020: 27)

The same continuum criterion-referencing approach is assumed by LASLLIAM. It implies that any form of assessment should allow for the collection of useful information about the range of the learner’s abilities required to deal with the external reality. Such an approach sustains the concept of validity,¹³² to the extent that the aforementioned information (as a result of assessment procedures) provides evidence which corresponds with

130. Hughes 2003; Vertecchi 1995.

131. Krumm 2007.

132. Bachman 1990; Messick 1989.

the construct of language competence declared in designing the assessment tools.¹³³ Hence, the descriptors presented in Chapter 4 foster the “alignment between curriculum, teaching and assessment, and above all between the ‘language classroom world’ and the real world” (Council of Europe 2020: 27). Such an alignment should imply a positive overlapping between pedagogical tasks, reflecting more teaching goals (see 5.4) and real-life tasks, which in turn reflect more learning goals (see 3.3).

Moreover, the adoption of the continuum criterion-referencing approach leads to a move away from what the CEFR defines as the mastery criterion-referencing approach to “one in which a single ‘minimum competence standard’ ... is set to divide learners into ‘masters’ and ‘non-masters’” (Council of Europe 2001: 184). Therefore, the LASLLIAM scales are not intended to fix any cut-off point. This means that any binary exit pass/fail, which would establish whether or not a learner was able to achieve a level, for instance, is strongly discouraged.

6.1.2. Learning oriented assessment

LOA means an assessment centred on the learner and aimed at making the course goals (in terms of expected competences to be achieved) coincide with the user’s goals (in terms of satisfying linguistic-communicative needs related to everyday life).¹³⁴

In LOA the perspective is based on learning: the assessment, whether summative or formative, aims to emphasise the key role of the learner within each phase of the assessment process, rather than elements of measurement.¹³⁵

For the CEFR, “formative assessment is an ongoing process of gathering information on the extent of learning, on strengths and weaknesses, which the teacher can feed back into their course planning and the actual feedback they give learners” (Council of Europe 2001: 186). As an ongoing process, formative assessment is realised in the form of continuous assessment through the elicitation of a range of various outputs (from communicative scenarios, peer activities, group work, etc.) described in Chapters 3 and 5.

Summative assessment typically takes place at the end of a course or a programme of instruction,¹³⁶ assuming more the assessment of learning, which takes stock of what has been achieved within a period, rather than assessment for learning, which underlies the formative approach. In this way, LOA attempts to solve the dichotomy of formative versus summative, or to represent their evolution,¹³⁷ by following as a main strand the constant involvement of the learner in both forms of assessment. This means not only explaining, for example, the assessment criteria for the purpose of transparency or providing appropriate feedback, but above all raising awareness about the learning process, including the development of self-evaluation skills.¹³⁸

In line with this perspective, the adoption of a LOA approach is suggested by highlighting the importance of taking into account the various forms of assessment present in the Council of Europe member states. In fact, such forms can be related to activities within the lesson (as a typical example of formative assessment), as well as to the mid-term or end-of-course exam (as a typical example of summative assessment, sometimes also fixed-point assessment, when assessment is linked to a particular moment in the course).¹³⁹

6.1.3. Profiling approach

A fair use of LASLLIAM within the assessment process should always lead to positive outcomes in order to sustain learners’ motivation (see 3.6); in other words, the present work promotes the achievement of learning goals according to a hypothetical transversal line across different levels, without linking the expected outcomes to only one level.

Taking into account such a transversal line as vertical, it means that a learner might for instance be at level 2 in relation to writing and level 3 in regard to reading, listening and speaking. The emphasis should be placed on what the learner has managed to achieve, not on their deficiencies: according to this example, as a result of attending the course, the learner reached level 2 in writing, instead of failing to obtain level 3 because of a presumed gap with regard to writing.

133. Weir, 2004.

134. Purpura 2014; Turner and Purpura 2016.

135. Carless 2007.

136. ALTE 1998.

137. Zeng et al. 2018.

138. Sadler 1989.

139. Council of Europe 2001: 185.

Considering again the same transversal line, but horizontal this time, it is important to point out that a learner can improve in lateral ways as well: “lateral progress [as] progress is not merely a question of moving up a vertical scale” (Council of Europe 2001: 17). This can be the case for instance for a learner who has reached more categories described by LASLLIAM Specific scales, even at the same level.

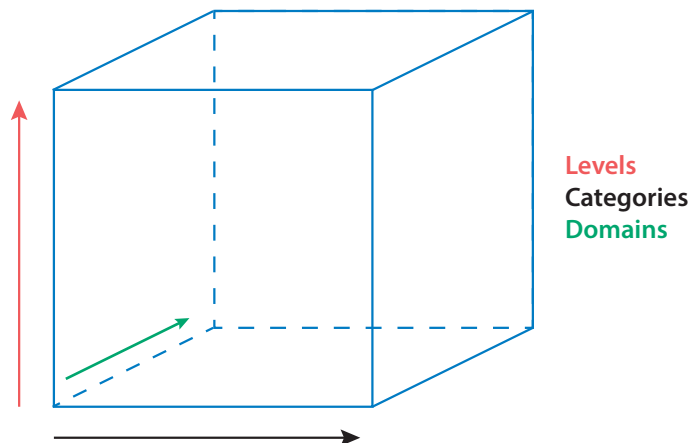
As already highlighted (see 1.4.3), this reference guide supports the concept of profiles. In the field of assessment it implies sustaining the “recognition of partial competences” (Council of Europe 2001: 175). Consequently, assessment tools related to LASLLIAM allow teachers to draw a “jagged profile” (ALTE Authoring Group 2016: 21) of the learner, giving evidence of what is achieved, independently of the level (where provided) of the attended course. In fact, the recommended profiling (see 6.2) can go across levels, on the one hand aspiring to represent the person’s uneven spectrum of competence, and on the other sustaining the assessment of such competence, even if partial in the sense that it “may concern language activities, ... a particular domain and specific tasks” (Council of Europe 2001: 135).

Furthermore, as the CEFR Companion volume recommends plurilingual profiling (Council of Europe 2020: 35, Figure 8¹⁴⁰), courses based on LASLLIAM should increase the awareness in learners (as well as in teachers and, in a broader view, within society as such), of the linguistic capital of migrants, giving value to their plurilingual repertoire (see 1.4.2; 5.4).

Figure 7 shows the co-ordinates useful to assess and trace the infinite learners’ profiles on a virtual Cartesian plane; similar to that described in the CEFR, the result is a three-dimensional “notional cube” (Council of Europe 2001: 16):

- ▶ the red vertical line (ordinate axis) is represented by the levels, four in LASLLIAM;
- ▶ the blue horizontal line (abscissa axis) is made up of the set of descriptive categories referring to the LASLLIAM 52 scales and 425 descriptors (see Chapter 4);
- ▶ the green third line is given by the four domains related to the LASLLIAM tables, with examples of language use embedded within the Specific scales (see 4.2): this line makes the double-entry grid turn in the cube.

Figure 7 – LASLLIAM Cartesian plane



6.1.4. Preventing misuse

If the three suggested approaches are followed this should prevent any potential misuse of LASLLIAM in relation to assessment. Moreover, specific choices about terminology should also have the same result. For these reasons, the word “standard” has been avoided. It does not appear in any descriptors in order to underline the fact that the expected learning goals must not be seen as benchmarks to be achieved in designing high-stakes and large-scale standardised tests.

According to ALTE-LAMI, “literacy is a necessary prerequisite for any kind of written test Policy makers need to provide training courses that support the acquisition of literacy skills, instead of providing writing or reading tests” (ALTE Authoring Group 2016: 23). The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe

¹⁴⁰. Inspired by a model developed within the Canadian LINCDIRE Project: www.lincdireproject.org/.

states that the CEFR “was never established as a mechanism for establishing whether or not a certain language level was indicative of a level of integration. It is only a measure of linguistic ability” (Council of Europe, Report - Recommendation 2034 (2013)). This is even truer for LASLLIAM, which presents levels traceable only in relation to the learning process and scales describing progressions in a formative path, without any unrealistic aspiration to measure a supposed level of integration. Unfortunately, the Council of Europe – ALTE Report¹⁴¹ revealed quite the opposite: of the 41 countries responding to the survey, only seven member states (17%) do not have language requirements for either entry permit, residence permit or citizenship.

Even if policy makers are not the primary target user group for this work, dissemination of the reference guide might inspire a growing debate on literacy issues among teachers and curricula developers. It is hoped this may increase, in a bottom-up process, an awareness of educational institutions at the supranational and national levels (see 5.1; 5.2). Thus, the aim of the authoring group is to make sure that LASLLIAM does not easily lend itself to unfair misuse as evidenced by the ALTE Report that seems to indicate the replacement of “Say Shibboleth”¹⁴² by “Write something”. In fact, as researchers largely demonstrate, language requirements often represent insurmountable barriers,¹⁴³ generating a negative impact of tests and test results’ use, especially on those who have not had access to any writing system yet.¹⁴⁴

6.2. THE DIFFERENT PURPOSES OF ASSESSMENT USING LASLLIAM

This section addresses the assessments envisioned by LASLLIAM, as based on the described approaches. It proposes different purposes of assessment and gives examples of tools, including self-assessment tools. In presenting such purposes and tools, it follows three steps related to the natural development and typical succession that characterises the provision of training:

1. first, the assessment within the “welcome phase”, at the beginning of the learning process;
2. then, the achievement assessment provided during the course, including scenario-based assessment;
3. finally, the achievement assessment at the end of the course.

6.2.1. Assessment within the “welcome phase”

“Welcome phase” means the reception and orientation of adult migrants who have only recently become involved in the learning environment; it represents the beginning of the process, the initial step in the formative path. In this phase, the priority is to establish human relations based on empathy, to get to know the person, to help their needs to emerge, as well as to identify the learner’s profile. The aim is to allow as much as possible for the tailoring of the course to the learners’ needs, both in the sense of appropriateness and adequacy, where appropriateness refers to the correspondence between contents addressed and needs of the person, while adequacy relates to inclusion in the group that is more in line with their profile. In other words, the aim is to form a proper group, in the sense of “compatible” not only and not always in terms of level, but also considering aspects such as the linguistic repertoires, intercultural attitudes and previous life experiences of participants (see 3.3).

From the assessment perspective, it is relevant in this phase to collect information in relation to the literacy and second language profile of the learner. This happens through the placement test,¹⁴⁵ proposed by LASLLIAM to be structured into three components. The essential starting point is the establishment of human relationships through dialogue. It means that the initial part of the placement test should be embedded in the oral dimension of languages, in the form of an interview between the learner and teacher who is called on to support constantly, with an attitude characterised by a strong willingness to collaborate.

Collecting data through an oral interview is also recommended to avoid the learner having to engage with written text, with the potential negative impact this may cause, particularly for those who are non-literate, feelings of frustration and humiliation. It is important to underline that the dialogue should be carried out not only in the target language, but also in any one language available in the plurilingual repertoire of both interlocutors. In fact, it is fundamental to find a language of communication,¹⁴⁶ involving a mediator when needed. Ideally,

141. Rocca et al. 2020.

142. English Standard Version Bible 2001, Judges 12:6.

143. Carlsen 2017; Khan 2019; McNamara 2005.

144. Carlsen 2017; Pochon-Berger and Lenz 2014; Shoahmy 1993; Van Oers 2014.

145. ALTE 1998.

146. Beacco 2005.

professional mediators will support the welcome phase, but realistically another learner with the same mother tongue as the interviewee might serve as the mediator.

The use of such a language of communication, thus of a language spoken fluently by the learner, allows for a needs analysis (see Chapter 5). The use of the target language, however, can give information on their second language profile, making the interview the first component of the placement test, with regard to the oral dimension. The interlocutor is invited to consider the LASLLIAM scales in order to collect clues useful to assign the interviewee to an entry level. Taking particularly into account the Specific scale, Interviewing and Being Interviewed, the teacher is invited to consider the progression represented by the descriptors below.

| | |
|---|--|
| 4 | Can reply in an interview to simple direct questions, put very slowly and clearly in direct non-idiomatic speech about personal details. |
| 3 | Can ask and answer questions about personal information, feelings and health with short, simple phrases and formulaic expressions (e.g. "I'm [name], I'm from Syria"). |
| 2 | Can give some simple information with familiar words or phrases. |
| 1 | Can answer questions about some basic personal information with a single word or phrase (e.g. "I Syria"). |

As an example of concrete use of LASLLIAM in the context of placement assessment, the teacher is asked to match one of the descriptors above with the learner's ability, as demonstrated during the interview in the target language.

The second component of the placement test that LASLLIAM suggests is related to the literacy profile. After the dialogue, the learner should be asked to give evidence of their technical literacy skills in whatever language. Aspects to consider, for example, are behaviour while handwriting, pressure on the paper or handling the pen.¹⁴⁷

Although an initial observation is inherent in the literacy profile and important in whatever language, the central aim of the "welcome phase" is to determine the learner's profile in the target language. Therefore, the third component of the placement test should be related to reading and writing in the second language. An example of a practical tool for this purpose is offered by the Council of Europe LIAM Toolkit (Tool 26).¹⁴⁸ The reference guide can be applied to instruments like this, by adopting matching procedures in considering Written Reception, Production and Interaction scales. Note that within these listed scales, Technical Literacy is not present: this is because LASLLIAM does not consider technical literacy as a goal in itself. On the contrary, it establishes the set of skills needed to meet the objectives of the learning process, as represented by communicative language activities (see 4.1; 6.2.2). As in the CEFR and in the CEFR Companion volume, all the LASLLIAM descriptors are both learning goals and (potential) learning outcomes. This means that a specific descriptor – for instance related to writing – can refer to an objective to be achieved, as well as to a competence already present. Thus, the can-dos eventually revealed in the placement test become a consolidated starting point which the learner can draw on during the course.

As a final result of the assessment procedures within the welcome phase, sufficient elements should have been collected to form a description of the person at the beginning of the learning process in relation to their literacy and second language profile. Specifically, the outcome will quite often be an uneven profile, for example with the oral dimension being higher (with more can-dos in the second language already acquired) than in reading and writing, or production activities lower than interaction activities (see 1.4.3).

6.2.2. Achievement assessment during the course

According to the CEFR, "achievement assessment is the assessment of the achievement of specific objectives. It therefore relates to the week's/term's work, the course book, the syllabus" (Council of Europe 2001: 183). There is often the possibility, however, of making inferences related to the user's capacity to act as a social agent to the extent that the assessment is encapsulated in real-world tasks.

For LASLLIAM, achievement assessment is related to what has been done within the learning environment. Nevertheless, the added value of an appropriate needs analysis implies that the course contents tend to reflect events occurring in daily life and the tasks provided tend to replicate learners' daily routines. In other words, the more course contents correspond to what is present outside the course, the more achievement assessment enables

¹⁴⁷. Tarone et al. 2009.

¹⁴⁸. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020i.

teachers to predict users' ability to deal with real communicative language activities. From this perspective, as the CEFR argues, "the distinction between achievement (oriented to the content of the course) and proficiency (oriented to the continuum of real world ability) should ideally be small" (Council of Europe 2001: 184).

Typical forms of achievement assessment during the course are the diagnostic procedures¹⁴⁹ and the intermediate tests. Diagnostic procedures, highly embedded within a formative approach, are used to discover learners' strength and weaknesses in order to make decisions on the training. They involve, for example, observing listening behaviour or looking at frequent mistakes in technical reading or speaking that hinder comprehensibility.

Intermediate tests are generally administered at the end of a didactic unit seen as a building block.¹⁵⁰ They aim to monitor the progress of learning, in order to feel the pulse of the group, checking whether the input offered has been understood and integrated, leading to the expected output. These tests can also have a summative function, especially in the case of mid-term exams.

In placement assessment, the teacher should look at LASLLIAM descriptors vertically (by considering the progression from level 1 to level 4), but in achievement assessment LASLLIAM recommends viewing them horizontally, at least when courses are formally related to only one level.

Taking as an example a level 2 course, imagine a reading task – as a component of an intermediate test – in which the input is an instruction. In this case, the teacher can use the Written Reception scales. More precisely, within the Specific scale – Reading Instructions, the following level 2 descriptor is helpful in this case.

2 Can understand simple instructions when presented in visual format with practised words.

As an example of a concrete use of LASLLIAM for achievement assessment during the course, the teacher checks whether the above-mentioned learning goal was achieved, as the result of a reading comprehension activity.

Referring to the key distinction made by the CEFR between descriptors of Communicative Language Activities (focused on the "what") and descriptors of Communicative Language Competences (focused on the "how"), the example above shows that the development of assessment tools by using LASLLIAM is mainly related to the "what". This does not mean that inferences on the "how" cannot be provided. In fact, it is also important for the teacher to check whether the learner has achieved those technical skills functional to managing communicative language activities, as well as vocabulary or phonology for instance (see 5.3). In line with this, undertaking specific exercises preparatory to the execution of tasks may be needed in order to assess literacy or digital skills (see 2.2.5).

Within the LASLLIAM Overall scales, the descriptors are often presented according to the formula "Can-do X (referring to the communicative activity) by listening, reading, speaking, writing Y (referring to practice, length and linguistic complexity)" (see 4.2). This implies that exercises based on the Technical Literacy scales are related to the "how", as the object of investigation is the second part of the formula (the "by"). On the contrary, when the focus is on the "what", as in real-world tasks, the reference is to the first part of the formula (the "Can-do").

Imagine as an example a learner who is asked to copy familiar words. In this case, the teacher is invited to use the Technical Literacy scale Writing at level 1, to check whether the person is able to write by hand in copying such words. Then, it is highly recommended to apply this technical skill in subsequent tasks, where communicative language activities can be described by LASLLIAM Overall and Specific scales. In this way, the individual's just-trained capacity is put immediately into practice, according to the following sequence already suggested in 3.1.

| | |
|------------|---|
| Exercise 1 | Recognising words and abbreviations for days of the week (e.g. by circling) |
| Task 1 | Finding dates in an authentic personal planner |

Therefore, exercise 1 is focused on the "how/by": it is geared towards the "what/can-do" related to Task 1.¹⁵¹

149. ALTE 1998.

150. Young-Scholten and Naeb 2020.

151. There is often a similar coherent sequence within a teaching unit; it happens when exercises aimed at reinforcing a just-presented grammatical structure come before tasks where the learner is called to use the same structure.

6.2.2.1. Scenario-based assessment

As outlined in Chapter 5, scenarios focus on situations related to the daily lives of participants, where the aim is their successful engagement in activities provided to satisfy a subjective need. In the context of a continuum criterion-referencing approach, scenario-based assessment¹⁵² is a highly representative example of LOA (see 6.1.2). In fact, the teacher is asked to make inferences in relation to each task in the set; thus, task-based assessment¹⁵³ is embedded in the scenario-based assessment, because the execution of the first task is preparatory for the second task (and so on), according to the sequence provided. The more a scenario is represented by a sequencing of “good” tasks, the more the inference made by the teacher is likely to reflect LOA in measuring the effective capacity of the learner to meet the subjective need.

According to ALTE-LAMI, a “good task is adequate, appropriate and authentic” (ALTE Authoring Group 2016: 34).

- ▶ “Adequate” refers to the calibration of the task in relation to the level for which it was conceived.
- ▶ “Appropriate” refers to the capacity of the task to be responsive to the users’ needs.
- ▶ “Authentic” implies that the task performed within the learning environment is perceived by participants to be useful and motivating, due to its capacity to reflect real-life situations.¹⁵⁴

Imagine a scenario where the need is about having something to eat in a bar. The learner is asked:

- ▶ to understand a menu;
- ▶ to understand some information given by the waiter; and
- ▶ to place an order.

According to the example, LASLLIAM Specific scales involved are:

- ▶ Reading for Information, within the Written Reception scales;
- ▶ Listening to Announcements and Instructions, within the Oral Reception scales;
- ▶ Obtaining Goods and Services, within the Oral Interaction scales.

As the communicative situation takes place in a bar, it is part of the public domain. The example refers to level 3 in all the scales here, but note that individual profiles might, of course, vary. The teacher can use all the descriptors listed below, where in each box the first one comes from a Specific scale and the second in italics comes from the corresponding LASLLIAM public domain table entry.

Specific scale – Reading for Information

- 3** Can understand the simplest informational material such as a fast-food restaurant menu illustrated with photos or an illustrated story formulated in very simple everyday words/signs; e.g. information box of community centre; service menu of laundry, car wash or food delivery.

Specific scale – Listening to Announcements and Instructions

- 3** Can pick out the main points in a short, simple message delivered face-to-face in a familiar situation; e.g. about the menu in a cafeteria (“Today we serve pasta”).

Specific scale – Obtaining Food and Services

- 3** Can make simple purchases and/or order food or drink when pointing or making another gesture which can support the verbal reference; e.g. at bar or in a restaurant.

152. Carroll 2018; Zhang et al. 2019.

153. Ellis 2003; van Gorp and Deygers 2013.

154. Of course, a growing authenticity would be guaranteed by communicative language activities planned by teachers and curricula developers with the aim of embedding the learning environment in daily life contexts. As Chapters 4 and 5 remind us, setting up activities which take learners out into the community for additional practice in the real world is strongly recommended by LASLLIAM. This is possible through a scenario (see Appendix 2) and examples are offered by the Council of Europe LIAM Toolkit (Tools 56 and 57), see Council of Europe 2021d.

As an example of the use of LASLLIAM in the context of scenario-based assessment, the teacher can check whether the learner reached the above learning goals, both in terms of individual task completion and meeting the real-life need, as the overall result of the whole scenario.

6.2.3. Achievement assessment at the end of the course

End-of-course assessment is strictly related to the syllabus and fully integrated into the learning path. It is a part of continuous assessment. In the context of lifelong learning, it also means that level 4 (and even more so levels 1, 2 and 3) constitutes a step forward in an ongoing process, that is, a continuation towards the proficiency profiles described in the CEFR and the CEFR Companion volume.

6.2.3.1. Portfolio

In line with this view, a highly recommended outcome at the end of the course is a portfolio. Teachers are supported by LASLLIAM to guide their students in the compilation of a portfolio of reached learning goals (most probably not related to only one level), which can also be supportive of reflective learning driven by goal setting and self-assessment (see 6.2.4). Stimulating reflection as a natural part of any learning process, especially for persons with little familiarity with learning environments, is extremely important in supporting key aspects of lifelong learning such as self-esteem and autonomy (see 3.3; 3.4). Moreover, in relation to adult migrants specifically, “their proficiency can easily be underestimated by officials and prospective employers, and a well-organised portfolio can bear effective testimony to language learning effort and achievement” (Council of Europe 2020: 5).¹⁵⁵

Over the past 20 years, the Council of Europe has developed a wide range of tools aimed at promoting learner awareness: from the CEFR self-assessment grid that helps “learners to appreciate their strengths, recognise their weaknesses and orient their learning more effectively” (Council of Europe 2001: 192)¹⁵⁶ to the European Language Portfolio (ELP)¹⁵⁷ and Tool 39¹⁵⁸ of the Council of Europe LIAM Toolkit, in which parts of the ELP have been adapted having in mind adult refugees as target learners.¹⁵⁹

In particular, the ELP Language Dossier “is designed to include not only any officially awarded recognition obtained ... but also a record of more informal experiences involving contacts with languages and other cultures” (Council of Europe 2001: 174). It provides evidence of language learning progress, highlighting intercultural experiences and enabling the person to document and present different aspects of the Language Biography¹⁶⁰ in their second language (as emerged during the course), as well as the language passport¹⁶¹ (starting from the welcome phase), including their plurilingual repertoire.

6.2.3.2. End-of-course exam

Although LASLLIAM strongly recommends a portfolio, some educational systems in different European contexts require other procedures, like an end-of-course exam, typically referred to as a summative approach. The positive impact of such tests, for instance, might be related to the need to demonstrate having successfully completed a course as proof of the efforts made within a learning environment. As the Council of Europe-ALTE report noted, such proof can be very important in some member states, especially where the present system provides a commission that is asked to take decisions on whether to give to an asylum seeker international protection or the legal status of refugee. In fact, the commission’s decision, and more generally its attitude, can also depend on documentation proving the positive assessment achieved as a result of an attended course.

Bearing in mind that “valid assessment requires the sampling of a range of relevant types of discourse” (Council of Europe 2001: 178), imagine developing the exam at the end of a level 1 course; more specifically: imagine being engaged in the construction of the written interaction component.¹⁶² If this is the case, the teacher can first consider all the LASLLIAM Written Interaction scales (Overall and Specifics) as potential content to choose from.

¹⁵⁵. Little 2012.

¹⁵⁶. Council of Europe 2020d.

¹⁵⁷. Council of Europe 2020e.

¹⁵⁸. Council of Europe 2020j.

¹⁵⁹. Council of Europe – LIAM 2020g.

¹⁶⁰. Council of Europe 2021a.

¹⁶¹. Council of Europe 2021b.

¹⁶². ALTE 2011.

Overall scale – Written Interaction

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Can write a personally relevant word by copying. |
| | Can sign a form. |

Specific scale – Correspondence

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Can copy some words about themselves or objects of personal relevance. |
|---|--|

Specific scale – Notes, Messages, Forms and Transactions

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Can copy some words to respond to a message. |
|---|--|

Then, the teacher needs to filter the descriptors to choose the ones to be assessed. In other words, the teacher has to select the descriptors reasonably assumed as learning goals based on language activities related to contents, tasks and scenarios already addressed during the course. Finally, as an example of a concrete use of LASLLIAM in the context of an end-of-course exam, the teacher can check whether the learner has achieved the selected goals. Therefore, the representative elements acquired should allow the description of the person's achievement after having attended a course. In order to collect evidence of the learners' improvements, a comparison between the profile traced at entry (see 6.2.1) and that referred to on exit can be useful. In fact, relating the information collected at these two points in time would represent good practice, not only to underline the progression of each participant, but also to increase awareness that the learning curve varies (see Chapter 5).

Particularly in the case of end-of-course assessment, it is highly recommended to avoid using LASLLIAM with a mastery criterion-referencing approach. As already highlighted (see 6.1.1), a fair assessment based on this reference guide should always underline outcomes in a positive way. It means, for example, that if a learner in relation to level 4 has not achieved the correspondent goals in written reception, it does not imply they failed the exam; on the contrary, according to the adopted profiling approach (see 6.1.3) the learner should be described by the goals in reading at their level.

6.2.4. Profiling the achieved learning goals

Either through the recommended compilation of a portfolio, or in the end-of-course exam, the achievement assessment related to the attended segment (see 6.3) of the learning process should allow for the completion of a person's individual profile (see 1.4.3). Thus, the final outcome suggested by LASLLIAM, and in terms of the documentation provided, can be represented, for example, by the figure below.

Figure 9 in the CEFR Companion volume "shows proficiency in one language in relation to the CEFR 'overall' descriptor scales" (Council of Europe 2020: 40). Similarly, Figure 8 below consists of a linear diagram (reflecting the vertical dimension of Figure 7) showing what can be achieved during a course: as an example, level 2 has been reached in relation to Written Interaction and Oral Production. At the same time, the learner is well represented at level 3 in Written Reception and Oral Interaction; and level 4 has been already achieved in Oral Reception.

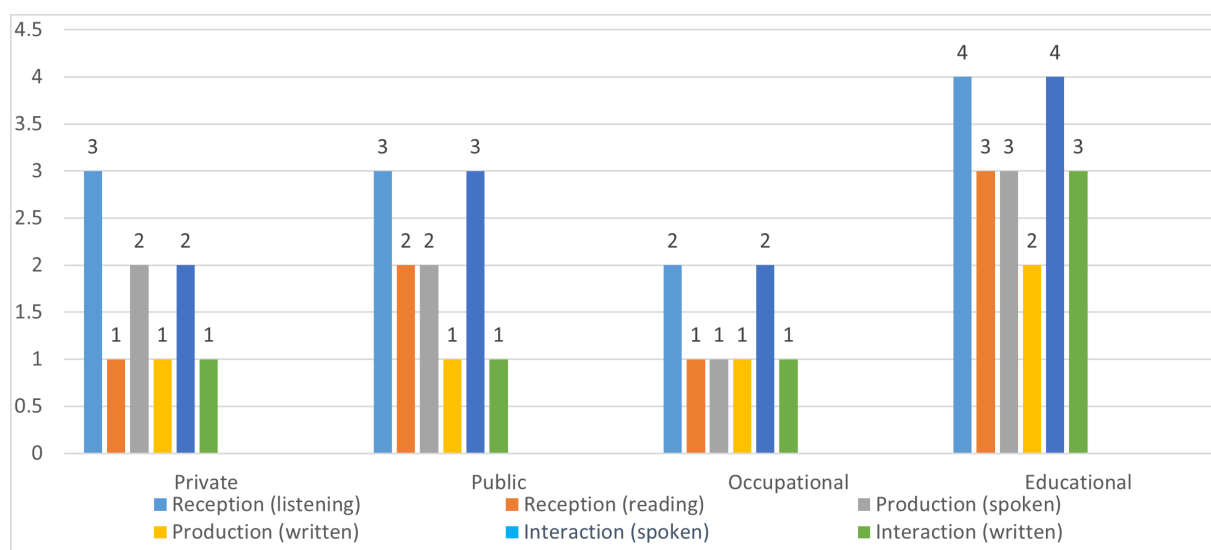
Figure 8 – Overall learning goals achieved

| Language Activities | Level 1 | Level 2 | Level 3 | Level 4 |
|---------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Oral Reception | | | | |
| Written Reception | | | | |
| Oral Interaction | | | | |
| Written Interaction | | | | |
| Oral Production | | | | |
| Written Production | | | | |

Graphics, such as Figure 6 in the CEFR Companion volume (Council of Europe 2020: 38), can also be used in LASLLIAM-based assessment in order to draw a jagged profile where the learning goals achieved are evidenced by descriptors of different categories (according to the horizontal dimension of Figure 7).

Figure 9 below is another way to trace an uneven profile, by highlighting communicative language activities according to the four domains (the third dimension of Figure 7, as intertwined with the vertical one). The sample diagram shows that within the educational domain the learner has achieved learning goals related to level 4 in Listening and Oral Interaction, to level 3 in Reading, Oral Production and Written Interaction and to level 2 in Written Production. Contextually, lower levels are generally achieved in the other three domains, with the oral dimension always being higher than the written one. It can be typical of a person who uses the target language mainly within the learning environment; with only strictly necessary use in the public domain; and lower use in the personal domain. This is because in the familiar sphere, with parents and friends, the individual speaks in the mother tongue. The lowest use is in relation to the occupational domain (where they only work with colleagues who are fellow citizens).

Figure 9 – Learning goals achieved by domains of language use



More complex representations may combine Figures 8 and 9, providing a multidimensional model of profiling, where specific categories embedded into domains of language use would be considered.

The teacher, and in a broader view the curriculum developer, can of course represent the learners' profile in more direct and maybe more practical ways, for example in the form of a checklist or grid.¹⁶³ In particular, the use of checklists is highly recommended by LASLLIAM as an instrument aimed at implementing the portfolio. In fact, "checklists of 'I can' descriptors are an obligatory requirement in all ELPs. They expand the general descriptors of the self-assessment grid into a detailed inventory of communicative activities that can be used for regular goal-setting and reflective moments related to self-assessment."¹⁶⁴ (Appendix 3 constitutes an example mainly in the perspective of the ELP Language Biography).

6.3. LASLLIAM AS A RESOURCE TO CONNECT LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS ACROSS EUROPE

Using LASLLIAM for the development of such profiled documentation can have added value in relation to the mobility of migrants across Europe. In fact, in establishing potential learning goals for non- and low-literate adults at the European level, this reference guide can sustain mutual recognition of segments within the ongoing learning process for different providers (e.g. volunteers in a camp, teachers in an integration course system) and at different places (e.g. cities or even countries), or at different phases (e.g. first or second shelter for refugees).

The need to put the pieces together in order to sustain the learner's commitment and progression is fundamental when learning has started in a Council of Europe member state, is continuing in another and will be completed

¹⁶³. Stockmann 2006.

¹⁶⁴. Council of Europe 2001.

in yet a third one. In other words, a literacy and second language portfolio composed of LASLLIAM descriptors can offer a concrete answer to the reciprocal needs of migrants and teachers to make visible and traceable, in a coherent way, the achievement of learning goals. This achievement is the result of isolated moments within a whole process that takes place transnationally, in a range of formal and non-formal contexts, state schools and public institutions, private associations and NGOs.

As an example, let us consider the recurrent situation of persons like Hanad, a Somali non-literate man rescued in Lampedusa, who after the first shelter in Italy asks for asylum in order to reunite with his brother in Sweden. In this case, while he is waiting for the official status of refugee, he is engaged in a literacy and second language course in Italian as he is in Rome. While attending, he manages to acquire international protection, and consequently immediately leaves Italy to seek the second shelter in Stockholm. Here, the education system offers him to continue his learning process, again a literacy and second language course, but now in a different target language, that is, Swedish instead of Italian. Due to the profiling of LASLLIAM learning goals assessed in Rome, Hanad and his new teacher in Stockholm will benefit from having the opportunity to demonstrate Hanad's improvement in language use strategies or technical literacy, independently of the target language. This involves mutual recognition: the segment of the process that he started in Italy can be valued during the welcome phase in Sweden, giving him a better reception and orientation, according to a guide that provides a vertical curriculum, without overriding his individual needs or the contextual characteristics of the regional learning environment.

Another example is Chafia, a low literate woman from Morocco who arrives in Spain for a family reunion and, after two years decides to move to Germany with her husband for work. In this case, the first segment could take place in Madrid, and the second segment in Munich. Hopefully, this would be a holistic learning process with transitions being made as smoothly as possible by teachers across Europe, in order to overcome the risk of fragmentation generated by the migrants' mobility.

The cases of Hanad and Chafia highlight that some abilities can be transferred from one language to another: phonemic awareness, letter writing and decoding skills only have to be learned once, while reading comprehension and listening comprehension are, of course, language dependent. This vision should not be misinterpreted as one of the top-down rules for pedagogical decisions in literacy across Europe. Instead, smooth transitions require transparency within the learning process in its various phases and portfolios that the learner – as the owner of this documentation – can bring to the next learning environment. The added value of LASLLIAM is its potential use as a practical tool able to reduce this risk of fragmentation of the learning process, helping to build the bridge linking the drop-out in one learning environment with the drop-in in another.

6.4. LASLLIAM AS A RESOURCE TO DEVELOP ASSESSMENT TOOLS

As shown in this chapter, on the basis of specified approaches (see 6.1), LASLLIAM can offer a practical resource for the development of different assessment tools (see 6.2). Table 3 summarises the proposed use of the reference guide within a framework aimed at improving connections between learning and assessment. The first column lists the LASLLIAM descriptors primarily for consideration of the corresponding purposes and forms of assessment. In the second column such forms are listed, and the third column indicates the assessment tools that teachers can utilise.

Table 3 – LASLLIAM descriptors, forms of assessment and assessment tools

| LASLLIAM descriptors | Forms of assessment | Assessment tools |
|--|--|--|
| Interviewing and Being Interviewed | placement assessment | placement test: second language profile (oral) |
| Overall scales (written) | placement assessment | placement test: literacy and second language profile (written) |
| Overall scales, Specific scales | achievement assessment | diagnostic procedures, intermediate tests |
| Overall scales, Specific scales, Domain tables | scenario-based assessment | communicative scenario |
| Overall scales, Specific scales | achievement assessment (including self-assessment) | portfolio, checklist, grid |
| Overall scales, Specific scales | achievement assessment | end-of-course exam |

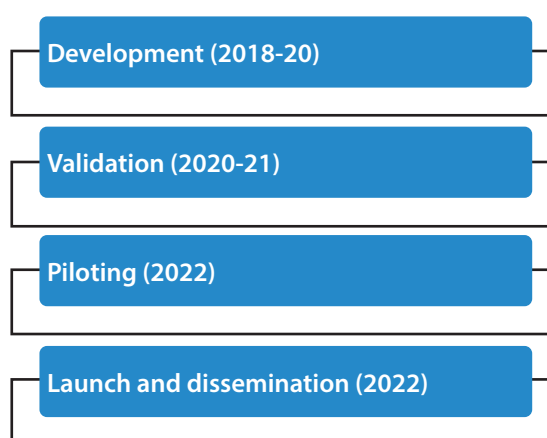
Chapter 7

LASLLIAM RESEARCH PLAN

The aim of this chapter is to detail the research plan that underpinned the development and validation of the LASLLIAM reference guide. LASLLIAM is the outcome of four years of continuous development, feedback and revision (see Figure 10). In the next sections, steps taken to develop the reference guide and to validate the descriptors are described. The aim of the different steps is to identify the appropriateness of LASLLIAM's purposes.

The LASLLIAM development phase was followed by several rounds of consultation with experts on the whole reference guide, which was preceded by a multi-steps validation phase related to the descriptors and scales. Finally, a piloting phase will lead to the launch and dissemination.

Figure 10 – LASLLIAM main phases



7.1. THE DEVELOPMENT PHASE AND THE CONSULTATION PHASE

The LASLLIAM project started in May 2018 (see Introduction) with the design-based research aimed at the development of the reference guide with a set of draft descriptors for Technical Literacy, Communicative Language Activities, Language Use Strategies and Digital Skills.

A first draft of the Technical Literacy descriptors was used in a workshop at the 2019 LESLLA conference to get feedback on the levels assigned. A full detailed consultation on the reference guide as a whole (thus, including the descriptors) with experts¹⁶⁵ in the fields assigned by the Council of Europe took place in October 2019. The development and revision process continued, and in June 2020 a second round of detailed consultation with the external Council of Europe experts resulted in revision and improvement of the chapters and the scales, and the addition of some practical applications within the learning environment. A complete set of descriptors/scales were ready by September 2020 when the validation stage started.

7.2. THE VALIDATION PHASE

As the CEFR states, “validation is an ongoing and, theoretically never-ending, process” (Council of Europe 2001: 22). The LASLLIAM reference guide descriptors are the results of a continuous process detailed in Figure 11 below. The methodology largely follows the one used to develop the CEFR and the CEFR Companion volume descriptors¹⁶⁶ with a mixed-method approach to corroborate the findings. The participants in the validation phase were mainly teachers, tutors and volunteers with at least two years' experience working with LASLLIAM target learners and familiarity with the CEFR and CEFR Companion volume. In addition, curriculum and syllabus

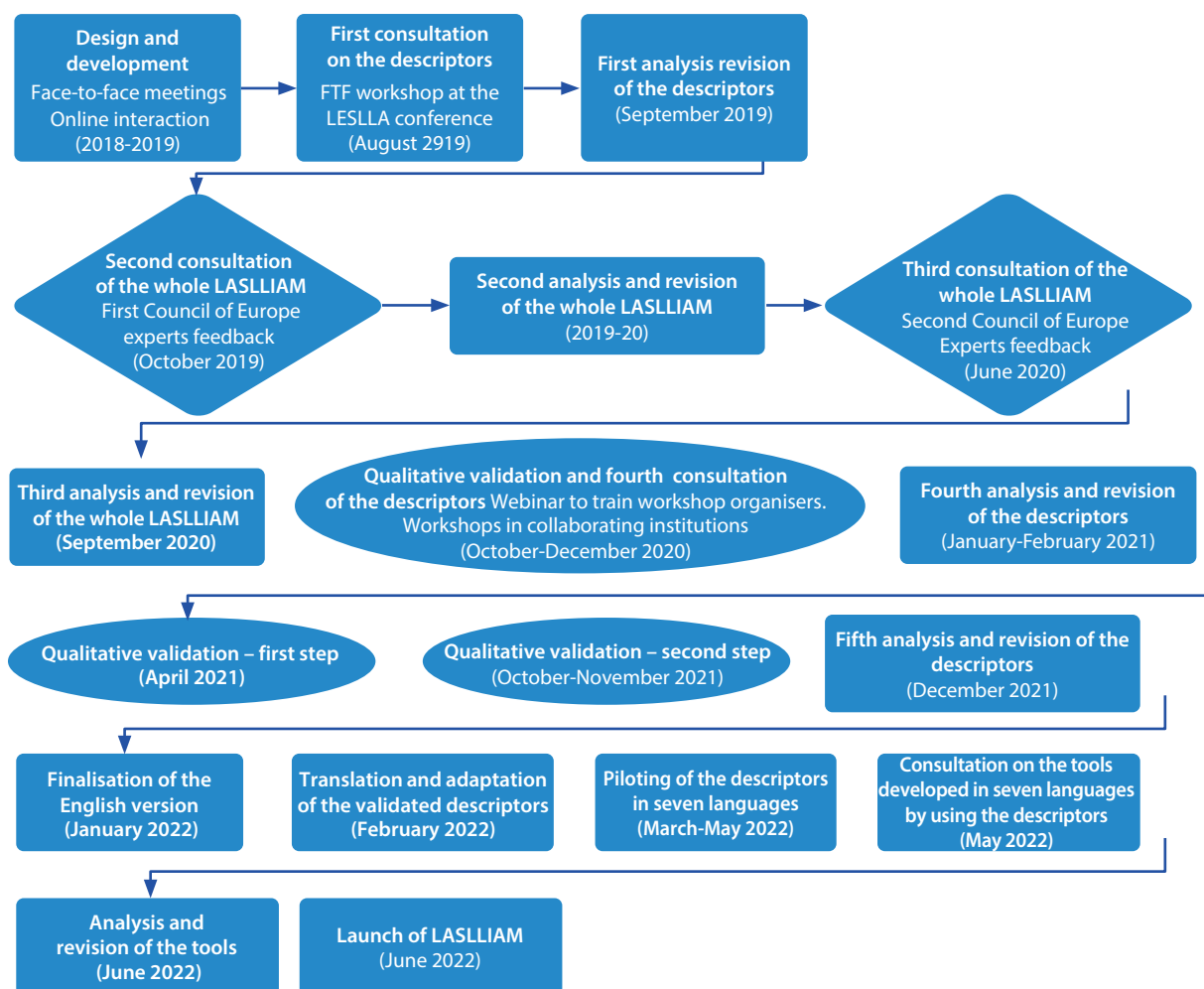
¹⁶⁵ Jean-Claude Beacco, Kaatje Dalderop, Bart Deygers, Cecile Hamnes Carlsen and David Little.

¹⁶⁶ North and Piccardo 2016.

designers, assessment experts, language testers and policy makers took part in the process. LASLLIAM validation included a sequential qualitative-quantitative design with two phases: a qualitative phase with workshops and a quantitative phase in two steps.

The information in the following sections and in the detailed report (see the LASLLIAM website) provides details about the qualitative and quantitative phases. The report focuses on the outcomes in terms of data analysis, considerations and decisions taken in the light of the evidence obtained. The following sections aim to provide an overview of the process, the methodologies, the participants, the tasks and the data collected during each step of the validation phase.

Figure 11 – LASLLIAM milestones: from design to launch



7.2.1. Qualitative validation

The focus of the qualitative validation was to collect feedback on all the LASLLIAM descriptors from experienced literacy and second language teachers and volunteers in different countries. Workshop organisers were recruited through the Council of Europe network and the personal and professional networks of the authoring group. Two training webinars for workshop organisers took place in November, and 19 workshops took place over October and December 2020 in 10 different countries and in 11 languages, as Table 4 details, involving 410 participants in 91 working groups. Workshop organisers were given the choice of delivering the workshops online or face to face. They were asked to recruit 20-25 participants who would work in groups to rate the descriptors. Participants in the workshops needed to have at least two years' experience working with LESLLA¹⁶⁷ learners and be proficient enough in English to judge the English descriptors. The participants were introduced to LASLLIAM before working on the tasks and had access to the glossary at all times.

167. Literacy Education and Second Language Learning for Adults (LESLLA); see LESLLA 2020.

Table 4 – An overview of qualitative workshops

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| No. of workshops | 19 |
| Format | 17 online/ 2 face-to-face |
| Organisers' profile | University, public schools, associations |
| Participants' profile | State and private teachers, volunteers (involved in formal and non-formal education addressing migrants, including refugees) |
| No. of countries | 10: Austria, Belgium, Greece (2), Italy (7), the Netherlands, Norway, Russia, Switzerland (3), Turkey, UK |
| No. of languages | 11: Albanian, Dutch, English, Esperanto, French, German, Greek, Italian, Norwegian, Russian, Turkish |
| No. of participants | 410 |
| No. of working groups | 91 |

7.2.1.1. Method – qualitative validation

The workshop included five different tasks and participants were asked to judge the descriptors on the same criteria as those used to validate the CEFR Companion volume new descriptors as follows:

1. clarity (all descriptors);
2. pedagogical usefulness (all descriptors);
3. assign to levels (Technical Literacy scales);
4. relevance to real life (Specific scales and Digital Skills scales);
5. assign to categories (Specific scales).

The authoring group decided to use 90% of positive responses as a cut-off point to accept, delete or revise descriptors in relation to each of the above five criteria.

For each of the tasks and next to every descriptor, the working groups had the opportunity to use the “comments” column to leave a suggestion for rewording, to express supposed inadequacy or to add any comments about each descriptor. These informative and high-quality comments resulted in the fourth consultation round as outlined in Figure 11 above. The reasons for a negative response in the comments column were carefully considered, as well as the general comments made about every other descriptor.

Idiosyncratic comments that were based on a misunderstanding of an English word, or that were relevant for a single language only or a specific educational tradition in one country were addressed in the introductory texts to the scales.

The 568 descriptors were included in the qualitative workshop (see Table 5), and participants were asked to rate them for different criteria as explained earlier. The numbers below include 90 descriptors from the CEFR Companion volume level Pre-A1 and A1. In fact, as discussed earlier in section 1.2, and Chapter 4, LASLLIAM levels 3 and 4 and CEFR Companion volume Pre-A1 and A1 levels partially overlap. Within the qualitative validation design these descriptors appear in Task 2, Task 3 and Task 4. They are highlighted using a different colour font (blue) in the given sheets during the workshops. Participants were asked not to judge the descriptors from the CEFR or the CEFR Companion volume, as they are already validated.

Table 5 – LASLLIAM descriptors included in the qualitative workshops

| | Scale | No. of descriptors |
|---|------------------------------|--|
| Technical Literacy scales (total 95) | Language and Print Awareness | 33 |
| | Reading | 33 |
| | Writing | 29 |
| Overall scales (total 47) | Oral Reception | 7 (4 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Written Reception | 9 (2 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Oral Production | 6 (2 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Written Production | 8 (3 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Oral Interaction | 7 (3 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Written Interaction | 10 (2 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |

| | Scale | No. of descriptors |
|---|---------------------------------|--|
| Specific scales (total 182) | Oral Reception | 36 (15 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Written Reception | 34 (17 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Oral Production | 16 (5 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Written Production | 16 (3 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Oral Interaction | 54 (22 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| | Written Interaction | 26 (10 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| Language Use Strategies scales (total 168) | Oral Reception Strategies | 29 |
| | Written Reception Strategies | 26 |
| | Oral Production Strategies | 23 |
| | Written Production Strategies | 20 |
| | Oral Interaction Strategies | 32 |
| | Written Interaction Strategies | 38 (2 CEFR Companion volume descriptors) |
| Digital Skills scales (total 76) | Communication and Collaboration | 32 |
| | Content Creation and Management | 28 |
| | Safety | 16 |
| Total No. of descriptors | | 568 (90 from CEFR Companion volume) |

During the workshop, each group discussed and filled out the pre-coded questions with the group's responses. These responses were collected by the organisers and shared with the authoring group.

At the end of each workshop, the organiser asked participants if they were willing to participate in further steps, particularly in the piloting phase, and in the final report provided information about the willingness of the participants to be involved. In this way, the qualitative validation has the added value of sustaining the creation of a European network, preparing the ground for further LASLLIAM steps, according to the research plan. The responses from all the workshops were merged into one file for each task/set of scales.

7.2.1.2. Analyses and main results

The analysis of the qualitative workshops included:

1. quantitative analysis including frequencies and percentage of responses on the different criteria for each descriptor and also for the whole scale;
2. qualitative analysis of the further comments from the subgroups;
3. qualitative analysis of the reports from the workshops' organisers.

As Table 6 shows, a total of 478 descriptors (thus the 568 without considering the 90 taken from CEFR Companion volume and already validated) were judged by participants.

Of these, 367 descriptors scored over 90% on clarity, and 381 scored over 90% on pedagogical usefulness.

In addition, 186 descriptors were judged in relation to relevance to real life. Out of the 186, 162 descriptors scored over 90%.

This means that 77% of descriptors received over 90% on clarity, 80% received over 90% on pedagogical usefulness and 87% of descriptors received over 90% on relevance to real life.

Table 6 – Summary of feedback from qualitative workshops

| | Scale | No. of descriptors | No. of descriptors scoring over 90% positive responses | |
|---|------------------------------|--------------------|--|----|
| Technical Literacy scales (total 95) | Language and Print Awareness | 33 | Clarity | 22 |
| | | | Pedagogical usefulness | 19 |
| | Reading | 33 | Clarity | 18 |
| | | | Pedagogical usefulness | 29 |
| | Writing | 29 | Clarity | 10 |
| | | | Pedagogical usefulness | 20 |

| Scale | | No. of descriptors | No. of descriptors scoring over 90% positive responses | |
|---|---------------------------------|--------------------|---|-------------------|
| Overall scales (total 31) | Oral Reception | 3 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 0 3 |
| | Written Reception | 7 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 6 7 |
| | Oral Production | 4 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 3 4 |
| | Written Production | 5 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 2 4 |
| | Oral Interaction | 4 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 4 4 |
| | Written Interaction | 8 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 8 8 |
| Specific scales (total 110) | Oral Reception | 21 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 20 21 21 |
| | Written Reception | 17 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real Life | 12 17 17 |
| | Oral Production | 11 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real Life | 11 11 11 |
| | Written Production | 13 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 12 5 7 |
| | Oral Interaction | 32 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 31 28 31 |
| | Written Interaction | 16 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 16 16 16 |
| Language Use Strategies scales (total 166) | Oral Reception Strategies | 29 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 10 25 |
| | Written Reception Strategies | 26 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 20 14 |
| | Oral Production Strategies | 23 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 20 19 |
| | Written Production Strategies | 20 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 17 18 |
| | Oral Interaction Strategies | 32 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 28 27 |
| | Written Interaction Strategies | 36 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness | 34 27 |
| Digital Skills scales (total 76) | Communication and Collaboration | 32 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 27 25 30 |
| | Content Creation and Management | 28 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 24 17 20 |
| | Safety | 16 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 12 13 15 |
| Total No. of descriptors (total 478) | | 478 | Clarity Pedagogical usefulness Relevance to real life | 367 381 176 |

For revising and deleting descriptors, several criteria were applied, as a briefly described below.

| |
|---|
| <p>Descriptors were revised or deleted when they:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ could refer to two or more different communicative language activities; ▶ were judged as too advanced by the majority of respondents (even if, for example, they were judged as clear); ▶ were inconsistent with descriptors in other scales. <p>Descriptors were revised by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ changing words considered too vague or too technical; ▶ changing terms to uniform terminology across all LASLLIAM scales; ▶ simplifying some sentences; and ▶ adding examples. |
|---|

Based on the application of such criteria and of the established cut-off point, descriptors were deleted, others merged or revised, taking into account also the comments of the respondents. Table 7 presents a summary of the total number of descriptors revised or deleted in each scale.

Table 7 – Summary of revised/deleted descriptors during qualitative validation

| | | No. of descriptors | No. revised | No. deleted | Total No. of descriptors in revised scales |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|-------------|-------------|--|
| Technical Literacy scales | Print and Language Awareness | 33 | 17 | 11 | 22 |
| | Reading | 33 | 23 | 2 | 31 |
| | Writing | 29 | 20 | 4 | 25 |
| Overall scales | Spoken Reception | 7 | 3 | 0 | 7 |
| | Written Reception | 9 | 6 | 0 | 9 |
| | Spoken Production | 6 | 4 | 0 | 6 |
| | Written Production | 8 | 3 | 0 | 8 |
| | Spoken Interaction | 7 | 4 | 0 | 7 |
| | Written Interaction | 10 | 3 | 0 | 10 |
| Specific scales | Spoken Reception | 36 | 20 | 0 | 36 |
| | Written Reception | 34 | 5 | 0 | 34 |
| | Spoken Production | 16 | 8 | 0 | 16 |
| | Written Production | 16 | 4 | 1 | 15 |
| | Spoken Interaction | 54 | 23 | 0 | 54 |
| | Written Interaction | 26 | 0 | 0 | 26 |
| Language Use Strategies scales | Spoken Reception | 29 | 12 | 12 | 17 |
| | Written Reception | 26 | 9 | 3 | 23 |
| | Spoken Production | 23 | 15 | 1 | 23 |
| | Written Production | 20 | 13 | 2 | 18 |
| | Spoken Interaction | 32 | 22 | 2 | 32 |
| | Written Interaction | 38 | 11 | 10 | 28 |
| Digital Skills scales | Communication and Collaboration | 32 | 13 | 0 | 32 |
| | Content Creation and Management | 28 | 15 | 4 | 24 |
| | Safety | 16 | 3 | 2 | 14 |
| Total | | 568 | 256 | 54 | 517 |

As an overall outcome of the workshops, a total of 54 descriptors were deleted, 3 descriptors added and 256 descriptors were revised.

Contextually, the glossary was revised with new entries added, as well as previous entries deleted.

Therefore, at the end of the qualitative phase, LASLLIAM had 517 descriptors, including 90 from the CEFR Companion volume. A full report is provided on the LASLLIAM website with tables for all the scales and a summary of the revisions to the descriptors and the glossary.

7.2.2. Quantitative validation

After the qualitative validation, the revised descriptors were used in a quantitative validation study that was conducted with experienced teachers in two steps between April and December 2021. The aims of the quantitative validation were:

- ▶ to corroborate the results on clarity from the qualitative validation of the descriptors that were considered clear, pedagogically useful and relevant for real life;¹⁶⁸
- ▶ to check the results on clarity of those descriptors that were revised based on the qualitative validation analysis;
- ▶ to validate the scaling progression of the descriptors of the Technical Literacy scales and the Communicative Language Activities scales.

7.2.2.1. Method – quantitative validation: first step

The first step of the quantitative validation was conducted with an online survey. The participants were recruited through the literacy and second language networks in the different countries, the connections already established in the qualitative validation, the international LESLLA network, LIAM and ALTE networks and other relevant Council of Europe networks. They were expected to have experience with literacy and language teaching of LESLLA learners, to be familiar with the CEFR and proficient enough in English to judge descriptors in English. Participants were invited to fill out an online survey.

The survey included questions to collect background information about the participants' profiles, particularly age, gender, language(s) taught, years of experience with LESLLA learners and familiarity with CEFR levels and language assessment. Participants were introduced to LASLLIAM and the concept of progression lines/criteria at the start of the survey. Then, they were given five tasks with descriptors to be judged, as detailed in Table 8.

Table 8 – LASLLIAM quantitative validation tasks (first step)

| No. of task | Type of scale and requests to participants |
|---------------|--|
| Task 1 | Technical Literacy scales: clarity and assignment to LASLLIAM levels |
| Task 2 | Overall scales: clarity and assignment to LASLLIAM levels |
| Task 3 | Specific scales: clarity and assignment to LASLLIAM levels |
| Task 4 | Language Use Strategies scales: clarity and rating the degree of demandingness |
| Task 5 | Digital Skills scales: clarity |

To keep the time needed to answer all questions within a reasonable limit, 18 different versions of the validation survey were developed, as presented in the quantitative validation design described in tables 9 and 10. These versions were entered into SurveyMonkey and (using common descriptors, see below) linked to one dataset.

In order to avoid misunderstandings and to keep the respondents familiar with the specific (literacy and language-related) progression lines and terms, a glossary with key terms present in the descriptors (such as phoneme, sight word, synthesise, simple sentence, turn, etc.) was provided as additional material to give respondents the opportunity to look up these terms.

¹⁶⁸. Pedagogical usefulness and relevance for real life were no longer included for judgment, because all descriptors were judged as useful and relevant by at least 90% of the respondents in the qualitative study.

Table 9 presents the numbers of descriptors used in the first step of the quantitative validation. Starting from the 517 descriptors as an outcome of the qualitative validation (see Table 7), the following were inserted into the quantitative validation: all the new descriptors developed by the authoring group, together with those CEFR Companion volume descriptors where needed to work as anchors (see 7.2.2), as well as where needed to complete the progression in Overall or Specific scales at LASLLIAM level 3 or 4. This means that in the qualitative phase 90 CEFR Companion volume descriptors for Pre-A1 and A1 level were included, but in the quantitative phase only the above points were considered.

The same random ID number for descriptors used in the qualitative validation has been maintained in order to compare the data from the two phases of validation. The descriptors are randomised in a stratified way to ensure their balanced distribution across scales/levels.

Table 9 – LASLLIAM descriptors included in the quantitative validation (first step)

| | Scale | No. of descriptors |
|---|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Technical Literacy scales (total 78) | Language and Print Awareness | 22 |
| | Reading | 31 |
| | Writing | 25 |
| Overall scales (total 37) | Oral Reception | 4 |
| | Written Reception | 8 |
| | Oral Production | 5 |
| | Written Production | 6 |
| | Oral Interaction | 5 |
| | Written Interaction | 9 |
| Specific scales (total 131) | Oral Reception | 22 |
| | Written Reception | 24 |
| | Oral Production | 13 |
| | Written Production | 13 |
| | Oral Interaction | 40 |
| | Written Interaction | 19 |
| Language Use Strategies scales (total 139) | Oral Reception Strategies | 17 |
| | Written Reception Strategies | 21 |
| | Oral Production Strategies | 23 |
| | Written Production Strategies | 18 |
| | Oral Interaction Strategies | 32 |
| | Written Interaction Strategies | 28 |
| Digital Skills scales (total 70) | Communication and Collaboration | 32 |
| | Content Creation and Management | 24 |
| | Safety | 14 |
| Total No. of descriptors | | 455 |

Table 10 reports the number of descriptors present in the 18 survey versions. The number of descriptors ranged between 65 and 70, with an average of 66.94, in line with the numbers used in the CEFR Companion volume validation.

Table 10 – LASLLIAM descriptors within the survey versions

| Survey versions | Number of descriptors per task | | | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| | Task 1 | Task 2 | Task 3 | Task 4 | Task 5 | Total |
| 1 | 18 | 24 | 13 | 4 | 6 | 65 |
| 2 | 15 | 24 | 13 | 8 | 6 | 66 |
| 3 | 17 | 24 | 13 | 5 | 6 | 65 |
| 4 | 15 | 28 | 12 | 9 | 3 | 67 |
| 5 | 16 | 28 | 12 | 6 | 3 | 65 |
| 6 | 16 | 28 | 16 | 6 | 3 | 69 |
| 7 | 17 | 25 | 13 | 7 | 5 | 67 |
| 8 | 15 | 25 | 13 | 7 | 6 | 66 |
| 9 | 16 | 25 | 13 | 9 | 3 | 66 |
| 10 | 16 | 26 | 13 | 6 | 5 | 66 |
| 11 | 15 | 26 | 13 | 7 | 4 | 65 |
| 12 | 15 | 26 | 13 | 6 | 6 | 66 |
| 13 | 16 | 25 | 16 | 10 | 2 | 69 |
| 14 | 14 | 25 | 16 | 13 | 2 | 70 |
| 15 | 16 | 25 | 16 | 9 | 2 | 68 |
| 16 | 16 | 29 | 12 | 9 | 2 | 68 |
| 17 | 16 | 29 | 12 | 9 | 2 | 68 |
| 18 | 16 | 29 | 11 | 10 | 3 | 69 |

The versions were constructed in such a way that:

- ▶ all the 455 descriptors were covered;
- ▶ in Task 1 a sample of the three categories of the Technical Literacy scales was always provided;
- ▶ in Task 2 and in Task 3, at least one full scale was always given;
- ▶ in Task 4 one full scale was always given;
- ▶ within Task 2, Task 3 and Task 4 a coherent connection was provided, as follows:
 - the sample in Task 3 taken from the Specific scales with domains' examples corresponded to the related full Overall scale given in Task 2;
 - the sample in Task 4 taken from the Language Use Strategy scales was related to the scales rated in Task 2 and Task 3 (e.g. if Oral Reception was judged in Task 2 as the full Overall scale, in Task 3 descriptors from the Specific scales also related to Oral Reception were provided, and in Task 4 descriptors from the Oral strategies). This gave respondents the complete picture, allowing them to base their judgments on consistency across descriptors present in different types of scales.

In the first three tasks, for each descriptor (in addition to judging its "clarity") participants were asked to assign a LASLLIAM level. To be able to enter the data into one dataset:

- ▶ common descriptors were used in every version at the start of these tasks;
- ▶ a part of these common descriptors were "anchors": already calibrated descriptors from the CEFR Companion volume and the Technical Literacy scales.

In summary, 18 different versions of the survey have been created with overlapping descriptors taken from the different LASLLIAM scales. Such overlapping was provided by the common descriptors used at the start of Task 1, Task 2 and (partially) Task 3 (including the "anchors"), and additional alternating repetitions among the different given samples for the remaining part of descriptors within the related tasks.

7.2.2.2. Method – quantitative validation: second step

In order to collect more data to validate the level of difficulty of the descriptors, and to guarantee a representative sample of respondents from contexts and languages among the Council of Europe member states, a second step of quantitative validation was conducted in an additional number of countries.

Because the outcome of the first step reports a very high agreement on clarity for more than 90% of the descriptors, the authoring group decided to only ask for assignment to levels or degree of demandingness in the second round. Participants in the second step were expected to have the same profile as the ones involved in the first step. They were introduced to LASLLIAM and the concept of progression lines/criteria at the start of the survey. Then, they were given four tasks with descriptors to be judged, as detailed in Table 11.

Table 11 – LASLLIAM quantitative validation tasks (second step)

| Task | Type of scale and requests to participants |
|--------|---|
| Task 1 | Technical Literacy scales: assignment to LASLLIAM levels |
| Task 2 | Communicative Language Activities scales (written): assignment to LASLLIAM levels |
| Task 3 | Communicative Language Activities scales (oral): assignment to LASLLIAM levels |
| Task 4 | Language Use Strategies scales: rating the degree of demandingness |

The same random ID number for descriptors used in the qualitative validation, as well as in the first step of the quantitative validation, was maintained in order to be able to combine the data from the different phases. Also in this step, the descriptors were randomised in a stratified way to ensure their balanced distribution across scales/levels. Table 12 presents the design of this second step.

Table 12 – Design of LASLLIAM quantitative validation tasks

| | | | | | |
|--------|--|--------------------|---|---------------------------|----------------|
| Task 1 | Technical Literacy | Assigning to level | Each respondent | 3 scales | 69 descriptors |
| Task 2 | Communicative Language Activities Written (Overall + Specific) | Assigning to level | Each respondent | 12 scales | 65 descriptors |
| Task 3 | Communicative Language Activities Oral (Overall + Specific) | Assigning to level | Each respondent | 15 scales | 80 descriptors |
| Task 4 | Language Use Strategies | High/low demanding | 2 groups (A and B) | 9 scales (for each group) | 68 descriptors |
| | | | A – Written Language Use Strategies B – Oral Language Use Strategies | | |
| | | | | | Total 282/286 |

The quantitative validation in its second step was designed in such a way that:

- ▶ all the categories and all the descriptors are covered;
- ▶ in all the tasks, the full scale is always given (including domains' examples, where provided);
- ▶ in the Overall and Specific scales, the descriptors that were already validated in the first step of the quantitative validation were no longer included: this means more than 200 answers were already collected; clarity confirmed by at least 80% agreement; mode and mean confirming the intended level.

There were a few exceptions to this: some already validated descriptors were needed to complete the progression within the Overall scales, in order to give to participants a frame with the complete elements (at least one descriptor for each level).

In addition, the entire frame is also needed to better introduce the Specific scales.

- ▶ as for the qualitative validation, the descriptors taken from the CEFR Companion volume were already validated and for this reason they were not validated again.
- ▶ with regard to the Language Use Strategies scales, taking into account the high number of descriptors, respondents were divided into two groups (A and B), on the basis of the written and spoken dimension of the language (thus, in line with the division made between Task 2 and Task 3): group A was asked to work on the written dimension, group B to work on the oral dimension.

7.2.2.3. Analyses and main results

The data from the first and second steps were carefully corrected, entered into one dataset and statistically analysed by senior research scientists at Cito (the Netherlands).¹⁶⁹ The analysis of the quantitative validation took into account:

- ▶ collation of raw ratings to percentages (for all the tasks);
- ▶ descriptive statistics including mode, mean and standard deviation to summarise the responses (for all the tasks);
- ▶ comparative analyses of the assigned levels with the intended levels (for Task 1, Task 2 and Task 3) and of the level of demandingness (Task 4), that is, the percentage of respondents that rated the intended level and the spread of respondents that assigned descriptors to other levels.

In the quantitative study, the descriptors were rated by 421 teachers. Nearly all teachers (97%) were substantially or very familiar with the CEFR scales. A vast majority of the teachers (78%) had at least three years' experience with teaching LASLLIAM learners, the majority (60%) more than five years. The respondents came from 21 different countries. Most languages taught were Italian, English, Dutch, German, Norwegian, French, Slovenian, Bulgarian, Danish, Portuguese and Spanish. Small(er) numbers mentioned Catalan, Greek, Finnish, Turkish, Swedish, Czech and Romanian, while also Albanian, Basque, Lithuanian and Luxembourgish were mentioned incidentally.

The descriptors were judged on clarity only in the first step of the quantitative validation, to confirm the findings of the qualitative workshops and check the clarity of the descriptors that were revised after the qualitative workshops. The levels of the descriptors were rated in both steps of the quantitative validation. Each descriptor was rated on a level by at least 200 respondents.

The descriptors were judged as clear by on average 94% of the respondents. Nearly all descriptors (97%) were judged as clear by more than 90% of the respondents, 13 descriptors were considered clear by 70-80% of the respondents and only two descriptors by less than 70% (60-70%).

To deal with the outcomes of the quantitative validation, the following criteria for keeping, deleting or replacing a descriptor, and (incidentally) to revise a descriptor were used.

- ▶ A descriptor that was considered clear by less than 70% of the respondents was deleted from the scales.
- ▶ Descriptors were kept if mode (the most mentioned) and mean of the level was the same as the intended level (with incidental application of a tolerance for the mean of 10%).
- ▶ A descriptor was moved to another level according to two conditions: if at least 75% of the respondents agreed on one specific level (other than the intended one) and if the moving did not affect the consistency of the scale, otherwise the descriptor was deleted.
- ▶ Descriptors that did not meet the criteria of mode and mean and were also not rated at another level by more than 75% of the respondents were deleted.
- ▶ In some cases, a similar descriptor from a related scale (e.g. production and interaction) that did meet the criteria replaced the original one. This criterion was applied when the deletion of the original one would have created a gap in a Specific scale.
- ▶ The descriptors that were taken from the CEFR Companion volume were already validated and therefore not validated again. In total 71 descriptors from the CEFR Companion volume are integrated into the LASLLIAM scales for Communicative Language Activities (see Table 2). They were kept unchanged and they were completed in the Specific scales by tables of domain examples (see Chapter 4).
- ▶ Incidentally, a descriptor was slightly revised to correct an error or to keep consistency in the wording (e.g. message instead of text, deleting a duplication or adding a missing word).

In total 85 LASLLIAM descriptors were deleted from the scales, 24 were replaced and with 32 descriptors the text was slightly revised to correct a mistake or was adapted to a new collocation. More details can be found in the validation report on the website. Table 13 presents an overview of the number of descriptors in each of the scales of the final version of LASLLIAM.

¹⁶⁹. CITO 2022.

Table 13 – Number of descriptors in the final version of LASLLIAM

| | Scale | No. of descriptors |
|---|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Technical Literacy scales (total 59) | Language and Print Awareness | 15 |
| | Reading | 24 |
| | Writing | 20 |
| Overall scales* (total 41) | Oral Reception | 6 |
| | Written Reception | 9 |
| | Oral Production | 4 |
| | Written Production | 7 |
| | Oral Interaction | 7 |
| | Written Interaction | 8 |
| Specific scales* (total 143) | Oral Reception | 24 |
| | Written Reception | 29 |
| | Oral Production | 12 |
| | Written Production | 12 |
| | Oral Interaction | 49 |
| | Written Interaction | 17 |
| Language Use Strategies scales (total 119) | Oral Reception Strategies | 14 |
| | Written Reception Strategies | 19 |
| | Oral Production Strategies | 21 |
| | Written Production Strategies | 18 |
| | Oral Interaction Strategies | 26 |
| | Written Interaction Strategies | 21 |
| Digital Skills scales (total 63) | Communication and Collaboration | 27 |
| | Content Creation and Management | 24 |
| | Safety | 12 |
| Total No. of descriptors | | 425 |

*Including descriptors from the CEFR Companion volume.

All in all, after careful revisions in several rounds of consultations with experts, qualitative validation workshops with 91 groups from 10 different countries and quantitative validation by more than 400 teachers in about 20 different countries, the 568 descriptors at the beginning of the validation process resulted in the 425 descriptors (see Table 13), with 354 new descriptors validated by experienced teachers teaching about 24 languages, integrated by 71 descriptors already validated from the CEFR Companion volume.

7.3. OUTLOOK ON THE PILOTING PHASE

Based on the validation of descriptors and scales, the piloting phase aims to document the exploratory practical use of LASLLIAM in various contexts and languages. Translations of the LASLLIAM scales from English into six other European languages (Dutch, German, Greek, Italian, Spanish, Turkish) serve teams of experienced practitioners as a foundation to produce teaching tools such as sample pages of diagnostic materials, tasks and mini-projects, communicative scenarios, strategy instruction and language counselling, training in the use of digital devices, and portfolios in the target languages of their respective country. A qualitative content analysis of focus groups' data documents the perspectives of these practitioners on the usefulness of the LASLLIAM reference guide. Additionally, ALTE-LAMI teams¹⁷⁰ have developed various samples of assessment tools in English, in line with the principles outlined in Chapter 6, to illustrate LASLLIAM's potential in this respect (for example, examples of needs analysis test, placement test and end-of-course exam).

¹⁷⁰. ALTE 2022.

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GLOSSARY

Alphabetical script: a script in which the letters (graphemes) represent sounds (phonemes) in spoken language.

Analyse: splitting up a spoken or written word into the successive sounds/phonemes or letters/graphemes.

Body language: gestures and movements by which a person communicates non-verbally (e.g. waving the hand to greet someone).

Clause: a linguistic unit which contains a verb and a subject and is part of a sentence (e.g. "Mary took the bus" and "after she had finished her homework" are both clauses in the sentence "Mary took the bus after she had finished her homework:").

Cohesive devices: function words that are used to relate different parts of a sentence or a text. Cohesion and coherence can be realised by using reference words like "his" or "they", or connectors like "and", "but" or "because".

Complex syllabic structure: a syllabic structure in which consonant clusters are used, or in which bound morphemes add to the basic content.

Connectors: lexical devices linking clauses and/or sentences (e.g. "and", "but" or "because"). Connectors are a subgroup of cohesive devices.

Consonant cluster: a group of consonants without vowels between them ([str] in "street" or [rk] in "dark").

Contextual clues (see also visual clues and non-verbal clues): non-verbal signals like gestures, pictures or artefacts that add to interpreting utterances or texts.

Decoding: the process (in beginning reading) of analysing a written word letter by letter, replacing letters by sounds and synthesising the sounds to pronounce the word and get access to the meaning.

Discourse: a functional unit of coherent utterances; the term is used in this reference guide as the equivalent of text in spoken language.

Distinguish: differentiate mainly by knowing what something is or is about, not necessarily by independent reading. For example, someone can distinguish their own address (e.g. "this is for me") by recognising some letters and the difference from other addresses.

Encoding: the process (in beginning writing) of replacing the successive sounds of a spoken word by graphemes.

Fluent/fluency: smooth reading or pronouncing written words without letter-by-letter decoding; in speaking it refers to smoothly pronouncing larger units without hesitating or long pauses.

Font: used for different forms and designs of letters, such as capital, italic, bold, but also Times Roman or Calibri.

Formulaic expression: several words acting as a unit to express a particular intention or social routine; therefore, often used and learned as a chunk.

Frequent morpheme: a meaningful unit of language, that is very often used in forming words, like the plural or third-person s (the chairs, he walks), the past tense -ed (she looked), or dis- or -er in *dislike*, or *farmer*.

Grapheme: the unit in writing that represents a phoneme in an alphabetic script. A grapheme can consist of one letter from the alphabet, like <m> or <a>, but also of two letters like the <oo> in *too* that represents the phoneme [u:] or a letter with a diacritic, like the <é> in French or the <ä> in German.

Language awareness: conscious knowledge of features of language, distinguished from the implicit knowledge that is used in understanding and speaking a familiar language.

Letter-by-letter decoding: pronouncing the successive graphemes of a word in order to get the pronunciation and meaning of the word (c-a-t: cat).

(Linguistic/non-linguistic) sign: entity with a conventional (arbitrary) meaning (e.g. word, gesture, pictogram or logo).

Morpheme: the smallest meaningful unit of a language.

Multisyllabic words: words that consist of two or more syllables.

Non-verbal signal(s): perceptual signals that could be visual, like gestures or pictures.

Phoneme: the minimal sound unit in a word that distinguishes it from another word with another meaning; /p/ is a phoneme in English, because *pan* means something else than *can* or *fan*.

Phoneme–grapheme correspondence: the way in which graphemes in writing represent phonemes in spoken language. This correspondence can be one-to-one, but also more complex: one grapheme can represent two or more phonemes (the letter *c* can represent /k/ and /s/), and one phoneme can be represented by different graphemes (e.g. the sound [u:] in *you, too, who*).

Phrase: a group of words smaller than a clause or sentence (e.g. “my sister Nora”; “in the blue sky”).

Practised (words): words that have been used in classroom exercises.

Rhyming words: words ending with similar sounding syllables (e.g. *cat-hat; bike-like*).

Scaffold: supportive element in teaching and communication. Conversation scaffolds are written formulations prepared in advance for actual use in oral interaction.

Script: the specific appearance of a written language. Where writing system refers to the basic principle that units of the language are represented in writing (alphabetic, syllabic, logographic), script refers to the visual shapes. The Roman, Cyrillic and Greek alphabet are all alphabetic writing systems, but with different scripts.

Script awareness: knowledge of the properties of the written language.

Sentence: a syntactic unit consisting of one or more clauses (e.g. “Mary took the bus after she had finished her homework.”).

Sight words: words that are learned by heart and recognised globally without decoding. These include both simple key words that are used to learn to decode afterwards and personally relevant words like name and address, days of the week or months of the year (e.g. “Teheran”, “teacher”).

Simple sentence: a main clause, usually short, with mostly a subject and a predicate, without any embedding (e.g. “The boy eats an apple.” “The girl goes to school.”).

Simple speech: a well-articulated stretch of speech with frequent words and phrases as well as, possibly, simple sentences (e.g. “I have to go now. I will be back tomorrow morning.”).

Simple syllabic structure: a syllable that consists of a vowel with maximally one consonant before and/or after the vowel (CV, VC or CVC like *be, at, moon*).

Social formula: fixed expression for use in a social ritual (e.g. “How are you today?”).

Speech: both a medium of language and a way of communicating through spoken language.

Synthesise: blending the successive sounds/phonemes of a word into the whole word.

Technical literacy: the process of learning to decode written words to spoken words (in reading) or to encode spoken words to written words (in writing).

Text: most often used for a functional unit of coherent sentences; it also refers to functional units composed of only a few words (e.g. signs) or phrases (e.g. instructions). In this reference guide, the term *text* mainly refers to written language.

Text type: abstract category for classifying concrete texts according to their function and prototypical elements (e.g. weather report, film advertisement, restaurant bill).

Transparent (orthography): explicit, mostly, one-to-one relationship between spelling and pronunciation.

Turn: the unit of speech in an interaction during which a speaker holds the floor until another person speaks; a turn can be composed of one or more utterances and may overlap with the subsequent turn.

Typical (entries, features): representative of a particular type or aspect.

Utterance: a unit of oral language production to realise the speaker’s intention.

Visual clue: a piece of pictorial or graphic information that supports verbal information (e.g. a picture in a story).

Word recognition: words can be recognised directly or indirectly. Direct recognition refers to global recognition of visual features (like the first letter or the length) without decoding, or to automatised decoding; indirect recognition refers to decoding letter by letter, blending the sounds and pronouncing the word.

Appendix 1

RESOURCES FOR TEACHING LITERACY AND SECOND LANGUAGE (SELECTED LANGUAGES)

1. DUTCH

Reading and writing

- Blom J. (2021), *TaalCompleet. Leer lezen en schrijven*, Kleurrijker.
- Borgesius M., Dalderop K. and Stockman W. (2017), *Melkweg*, Leermateriaal lezen voor drie alfabetiseringsniveaus, Stichting Melkweg Plus.
- Dalderop K. (2019), *Verhalenvertellers*. Verhalen van jonge mensen uit alle windstreken, Boom.
- Dalderop K. et al. (2018), *Ster in lezen*. Leesteksten met oefeningen voor de ISK (Alfa A, B en C), Boom, Amsterdam.
- Dalderop K. et al. (2019), *Ster in schrijven*. Functionele schrijftaken met oefeningen voor de ISK (Alfa A, B en C), Boom.
- Deutekom J. and van de Craats I. (2018), *DigLin+*, een digitale alfabetiserings- en taalverwervingsmethode voor anderstalige jongeren en volwassenen, Boom.
- Gathier M. (2012), *Schrijfvaardig*, deel 1, 2 en 3, Coutinho.
- Gathier M. and De Kruyf D. (2003) *Verder lezen* (tekstboek en oefenboeken), Coutinho.
- Gathier M. and De Kruyf D. (2017), *Beter lezen* (tekstboek en oefenboeken), Coutinho.
- Geerts M. (2010), *Alfatas. Alfataken op School*, Centrum voor Taal en Onderwijs, K.U. Leuven.
- Godfroy B. (2016, herdruk), *Van letters naar klanken*. Materiaal voor anders-alfabeten, NCB.
- Koot N. (2020), *Goedgeletterd*. Leerboek Alfabetisering, Coutinho.
- Kurvers J. et al. (2019), *Water bij de melk*. Verhalen voor mensen die Nederlands leren lezen, Boom.
- Kurvers J. et al. (2020), *Beren op de Weg*. Verhalen voor mensen die Nederlands leren lezen, Boom.
- Tholen B. (eindredactie) (herdruk 2017) 7/43 and 7/43 extra. Methode voor technisch lezen en schrijven, NCB.
- Nuwenhoud A. (2021), *Basisboek Alfa NT2*, Coutinho.
- Van Baal M. et al. (2018-2021), Stichting Het Begint met Taal and VU-NT. SpreekTaal 1, 2 en 3, Van Dale.
- Van den Brandt M. (2009), *Alfaschrift*. Een cursus schriftbeheersing voor analfabete anderstaligen, Boom.
- Wablieft (2020), *Beeldboeken in eenvoudig Nederlands*, Wablieft.

Vocabulary and oral Dutch

- Borgesius M. et al. (2007), *Picto (A)NT2*, Harcourt Test Publishers.
- Das A. (2016), *Een dag met Fatima Tas*. Coutinho.
- Gathier M. and De Kruyf D. (2005), *Leerwoordenboek Nederlands*, Coutinho.
- ITTA (2020), *AlfaTaal, materiaal voor het oefenen van gespreksvaardigheid met alfaleerlingen in de ISK*, ITTA/UvA.
- Kreulen J., and en Tholen B. (2017, herdruk), *Een zekere woordenschat*, NCB Verhalen.
- Plattèl M. et al. (2020), *TaalCompleet. Praat je Mee?* Spreekmethode voor ANT2 en NT2, Kleurrijker.
- Van Utrecht M., Van den Brink A. and Segers I. (2021), *Spreek een woordje mee!* Mondelinge woordenschat en spreekvaardigheid voor alfacursisten, NCB.

Online information and materials

NedBox, www.nedbox.be/

Melkweg, <https://melkwegplus.nl> Diglin, www.nt2.nl/nl/diglin

Informatie basiseducatie alfabetisering Nederlands als tweede taal Vlaanderen, www.kwalificatiesencurriculum.be/basiseducatie-alfabetisering-nederlands-tweede-taal

Beroepsvereniging docenten Nederlands als tweede taal, www.bvnt2.org

2. ENGLISH

Babenco E. (2010), *ESOL activities pre-entry practical language activities for living in the UK and Ireland*, Cambridge University Press.

Harrison L. (2008), *ESOL activities entry 1 practical language activities for living in the UK and Ireland*, Cambridge University Press.

Online information and materials

ESOL Materials Ireland: a website where ESOL teachers share materials and experience, www.esolmaterialsireland.com/esolmaterials/index1.php

ESOL Nexus: a British Council website to support teachers and learners, <https://esol.britishcouncil.org/>

ESOL Materials Scotland, www.sqa.org.uk/sqa/45678.html

A collection of ESOL resources by the National Association for Teaching English and Community Languages to Adults, www.natecla.org.uk/content/469/Resources

The Digital Literacy Instructor, <https://en.diglin.eu/>

English my way, www.englishmyway.co.uk/topics

3. FRENCH

On these websites, many resources for literacy and French as a second language can be found: www.lepointdufle.net/penseigner/alphabetisation-fiches-pedagogiques.htm#ai

4. FINNISH

These websites provide teaching materials for learners of literacy and Finnish as a second language:

https://turunkristillinenopisto.fi/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/arjen_aakkoset.pdf

www.hel.fi/static/opev/virasto/naapuri+hississa_koko+materiaali.pdf

www.lukimat.fi/lukeminen/materiaalit/ekapeli

Project Osallisen Verkossa has gathered all kinds of second language Finnish learning/teaching materials on its website. It includes materials for literacy learners, but they are not specialised or only restricted to them:

www.osallisenaverkossa.com/

5. GERMAN

On its website, the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (BAMF) lists materials for funded literacy and second language classes:

www.bamf.de/SharedDocs/Anlagen/DE/Integration/Integrationskurse/Lehrkraefte/liste-zugelassener-lehrwerke.pdf?__blob=publicationFile (p. 6f.).

For a plurilingual approach, the KASA project has published contrastive materials for Arabic, Farsi and Turkish:

Alizadeh S. et al. (2019), *Mit Persisch Deutsch lernen*, Ein deutsch-persisches Alphabetisierungslehrwerk, GIZ gGmbH.

Bektaş T., Marschke B. and Matta M. (2019), *Mit Türkisch Deutsch lernen*, Ein deutsch-türkisches Alphabetisierungslehrwerk, GIZ gGmbH.

Matta M., Bektaş T. and Marschke B. (2019), *Mit Arabisch Deutsch lernen*, Ein deutsch-arabisches Alphabetisierungslehrwerk, GIZ gGmbH.

For coaching literacy and second language learners, you can find materials in various languages here:

Downloads – Materialien zur Alphalernberatung, www.uni-muenster.de/Germanistik/alphalernberatung/downloads/beratungsmaterialien_im_sozialraum.html

Markov S., Scheithauer C. and Schramm K. (2015), *Lernberatung für Teilnehmende in DaZ-Alphabetisierungskursen. Handreichung für Lernberatende und Lehrkräfte*, Waxmann.

6. ITALIAN

Aloisi E., Fiamenghi N. and Scaramelli E. (2016), *Andiamo! Corso di italiano multilivello per immigrati adulti*, Loescher.

Aloisi E. and Perna A. (2019), *Ataya. Manuale multilivello per adulti con bassa e nulla scolarità pregressa*, Sestante.

Bertelli G. and Raspollini K. (2019), *Piacere*, La Linea.

Borio M. and Rickler, P. (2011), *Piano piano*, Guerini.

Borri A. (2019), *A piccoli passi. Alfabetizzazione e competenze di base*, Loescher, Torino.

Borri A. and Minuz F. (2013), *Detto e scritto. Corso di prima alfabetizzazione*, Loescher, Torino.

Borri A. et al. (2016-2019), *Pari e dispari. Italiano L2 per adulti in classi ad abilità differenziate*, Loescher, Torino.

Galli T. (2018), *Pre-Alfa. Imparare a imparare*, Nina.

ItaStra – Gruppo di lavoro (2017), *Ponti di parole* (2nd edn), Palermo University Press.

Turati N. (2017), *Leggi e scrivi*, CPIA Vicenza Editore.

Online interactive materials

Borri A. et al. (on behalf of Provincia di Bologna) (2010), *I come Italiano*, <https://ida.loescher.it/i-come-italiano-.n5489>

Casi P., www.italianoperme.it/

Ataya App, www.cooperativaruah.it/il-nostro-lavoro/cultura/ataya-app-manuale/

Fare parole app, <https://play.google.com/store/apps/details?id=it.ervet.fareparole1&hl=it&gl=US>

Classroom activities and teaching materials are available for free on:

<https://italianoperstranieri.loescher.it/italiano-l2-e-alfabetizzazione>

7. NORWEGIAN

Skills Norway (Kompetanse Norge) has developed materials and provided links to digital tools for literacy training, see www.kompetansenorge.no/Grunnleggende-ferdigheter/Lesing-og-skriving/#Lremidler_3

8. SPANISH

Bedmar Moreno M. (2002), *Proyecto Integra, educación social de inmigrantes. Alfabetización*, Grupo Editorial Universitario.

Castillo P. et al. (1996), *Manual de lengua y cultura: lecto-escritura*, Cáritas Española.

Colón M. et al. (1999), *Contrastes: método de alfabetización en español como lengua extranjera*, Ministerio de Educación y Cultura, Centro de Publicaciones.

Cruz Roja Española (2001), *Cuadernos de alfabetización*, Cruz Roja Española.

Fernández E. et al. (2008), *En contacto con...* (2nd edn), ASTI.

Jiménez Pérez T. (1992), *Alfabetizar. Plan de Formación Integral Ciudadana de Melilla*, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia.

Martínez J. (2002), *Portal español para inmigrantes*, Ed. Prensa Universitaria.

Vilar M. et al. (2018), *Oralpha. Método de alfabetización y comunicación oral en castellano y catalán significativo*, Comissió de formació ACOF.

Appendix 2

EXAMPLE OF A LASLLIAM SCENARIO

Theme-based scenarios focus on communicative situations that learners are facing in real life (see 5.4). Each scenario provides a set of real-world situations, with activities presented in a strategic order to satisfy a specific and concrete need, for example to collect a parcel at the post office (see example below).

Such an example follows the model, in both layout and terminology, provided by LIAM in the project “Language support to adult refugees – A Council of Europe Toolkit” (Council of Europe – LIAM 2020e). It proved to be effective with non- and low-literate migrants and, in particular, in heterogeneous learning groups. Accordingly, teachers should choose the LASLLIAM descriptors that are more appropriate to the diverse learner profiles in the group, with the aim of involving all participants in the activities, according to their competences.

Two considerations are to be kept in mind in designing a scenario. Firstly, the situations for which the scenario trains should result from an initial needs analysis and be negotiated with learners (see 5.4). Secondly, backward planning is the recommended tool for devising and sequencing the scenario activities (exercises and tasks) in literacy and second language courses (see 3.1).

LIAM MODEL FOR SCENARIOS ADOPTED BY LASLLIAM

Aims

These specify the language learning goals.

Communicative situations

A list of the situations and the types of communication involved.

Materials

Examples of materials needed for the language activities to be carried out in the teaching setting.

Language activities

“Language activities” refer to the activities carried out in the educational setting to reach the scenario aims. They can be used:

- ▶ separately in one or more sessions, and in any order, also reassembling and combining different scenarios; or
- ▶ as a sequence following the suggested order.

Layout of a LASLLIAM scenario

Title – Using postal services: collecting parcels, letters, other correspondence

Aims

- ▶ Introduce vocabulary and expressions relating to postal services.
- ▶ Inform learners about postal services.
- ▶ Enable learners to use postal services.

Communicative situations

- ▶ Recognise correspondence issued by a public service.
- ▶ Follow simple instruction.
- ▶ Interact in a public service.

Materials

- ▶ Pictures of objects, places and internal signs related to postal services.
- ▶ Samples of correspondence (e.g. notice from the post office; information from a bank delivered by post; letter from the school; printed advertisement).
- ▶ Leaflet informing of the postal services; website page.
- ▶ Collection notice by the postal service.
- ▶ Video or audio recording of interaction in the public domain to obtain goods and services (service encounter).

Language activities

Activity 1

Use the pictures to initiate an oral interaction to create a common background of information and language contents. Personal and cultural experiences are elicited (according to the learners' profiles) as advantageous for the learning process.

- ▶ Elicit some basic information and vocabulary about postal services through matching exercises (e.g. picture of parcel/letter/money – word/phrase/sentence) and simple graded questions (e.g. "Do you go to the post office?").
- ▶ Share something that is personally relevant about the postal service (e.g. "I get parcels from my family").

Activity 2

Use the pictures to explain relevant signs within a post office (e.g. "Parcels"; "Information"; "Registered correspondence"; "Bank service"). Learners can:

- ▶ write or copy (according to each learner's profile) the key words and expressions on cards; read or recognise (according to each learner's profile) the same signs in other photos;
- ▶ check their understanding by matching words with pictures and signs;
- ▶ give each other, orally, simple explanations about the services offered (e.g. "Send parcels here");
- ▶ mediate explanations in different languages, giving value to the plurilingual repertoires of participants.

Activity 3

Use the samples of correspondences to:

- ▶ identify senders by logos, colours and format, names, key words (according to each learner's profile).

Activity 4

Watch a video/listen to an audio recording.

– Good morning. There is a package for me [handing out the collection notice].

– Good morning. Wait a moment, please.

...

– Take your parcel from there, please.

– Thank you, goodbye.

- ▶ Check comprehension of the situation.
- ▶ Check comprehension of the dialogue (according to each learner's profile).
- ▶ Act out a short dialogue following the model provided by the video/audio recording (according to each learner's profile).

Activity 5

- ▶ Read the collection notice. Find out key information about the sending organisation (logo, name), what it is about, where, when (according to each learner's profile, from recognising words, to reading the message).
- ▶ Read the leaflet/web page (possible with a co-learner) to find out what documents you need to collect a parcel. Alternatively, learners and/or teacher give this information orally.

Activity 6

- ▶ Outline with the group the scenario, ordering pictures and words/phrases/sentences.

Here are some examples:

1. (Read the) collection notice (from the postal service).
2. (Get information about needed) documents.
3. (Check) address and opening time (of the post office).
4. Go to the post office.
5. (Find the right) office/shelter.
6. (Speak with the) clerk.
7. Collect (the parcel).

Activity 7

- ▶ Learners, in groups, perform the scenario. They can vary it (e.g. asking for information within the post office. "Where is the parcel shelter?").

Activity 8

- ▶ The last activity focuses on reflective learning and aims at enhancing learners' self-assessment ability. According to the LASLLIAM target learners this kind of activity needs strong support and guidance from teachers who may use self-assessment tools, like Tool 25 from the Toolkit, 171 or a self-assessment grid such as the one proposed in Appendix 3.

Tool 25 is divided into two parts: the first focuses on the achieved goals in language learning, the second helps to negotiate the next objectives.

The self-assessment grid should contain the relevant descriptors. For example, the following descriptors from the Specific scale Goal-Oriented Co-operation (from the Oral Interaction scale) are relevant for the present scenario and for learners with different profiles.

| | |
|---|--|
| 3 | Can interact in a familiar context by using short, simple sentences and phrases with frequent words. |
| 2 | Can act on simple instructions with familiar words, accompanied by body language (e.g. "On left"). |

For Written Interaction, the following descriptors can be selected from the Specific scale Reading for Orientation for levels 1 and 3.

| | |
|---|---|
| 3 | Can find information about places, times and prices on posters, flyers and notices. |
| 1 | Can distinguish some relevant everyday logos, icons and text types from each other. |

Appendix 3

LASLLIAM CHECKLIST FOR SELF-ASSESSMENT

Appendix 3 presents an example of a checklist for self-assessment (see 6.2.4) related to written production, which includes statements relevant to the communicative needs of non-literate and low-literate adult migrants at LASLLIAM levels 1, 2, 3 and 4.

As in the DIALANG scales (CEFR, Appendix C), all statements start with “I can” and are the result of a partial adaptation of the corresponding LASLLIAM descriptors. Such adaptation is the result of a dual action: on the one hand, the need to simplify the descriptors, since the target users are the learners themselves, and not the teachers; on the other hand, the need to select more concrete descriptors which are linked to completing real-life tasks (see 3.3), or activities within a scenario (see 5.4; Appendix 2). From this perspective, the language used in the descriptors in the LASLLIAM domain tables can be very helpful. In fact, they relate directly to the contextualised communication that has taken place in the learning environment, avoiding abstractness and making the immediate link to authentic situations focused more on what the person can do rather than how (see 6.2.2).

The LASLLIAM working group applied this dual action in the example described below. The greater number of statements the checklists contain, the more effectively they can be used to support reflection on learning goals. However, it is impossible to completely cover the range of potential communications. Thus, a few blank spaces are given at the end of each checklist in order to allow teachers and learners to negotiate additional lines, where needed. “However the checklists are presented, the teacher should not expect her learners to assess themselves without assistance. Rather, she should help them” (Little 2012: 5). This is of course even more true in relation to the target learners of the reference guide (see 1.1), especially those at level 1 or level 2. Therefore, the teacher is asked to present and share the meaning of each descriptor, with particular attention to the symbols used to label the columns where the learner has to put their tick.

According to the migrant’s profile in the reference guide and the recommended LOA (see 6.1.2), the checklist asks the learner to specify the degree of help needed to achieve each statement and whether the achievement is confirmed by appropriate feedback given by the teacher.

In order to allow for this outcome, two symbols 😊 🟢 are provided, which have already been validated by non-literate and low-literate participants within the piloting of Tool 25 of the Council of Europe Toolkit.¹⁷²

The learner is invited to use the smiley faces to express the following:

- 😊 I can do this in the target language with a lot of help.
- 😊😊 I can do this in the target language with some help.
- 😊😊😊 I can do this in the target language without any help.

In accordance with the continuum criterion-referencing approach (see 6.1.1), a fair assessment based on LASLLIAM should always underline outcomes in a positive way, especially a tool developed for self-assessment. For this reason, only smiley faces are provided. Even when “a lot of help” is needed to achieve a can-do, the aim is to sustain motivation by highlighting the powerful experience of success (see 3.6).

By marking the relevant column, the learner indicates that their teacher has confirmed the related can-do.

🟢 My teacher confirms that I can do this.

This last column highlights again that the use of LASLLIAM in general and of the checklist in particular is possible only within a learning environment, thus with the presence of a teacher constantly supporting the learner. Such support can include for example:

- ▶ oral explanation of the statements presented within the checklist;
- ▶ the addition of pictures in the lines, or icons or symbols to better explain the meaning of the can-dos for self-assessment;
- ▶ the constant provision of proper feedback.

¹⁷². Council of Europe 2021c.

Teachers can consider Appendix 3 as an example of Written Production to be used and replicated. By following the proposed format, more checklists related to other communicative language activities can be developed, using the LASLLIAM descriptors as starting points from which to develop concrete, factual statements.

| LASLLIAM LEVEL | WRITTEN PRODUCTION | 😊 | 😊😊 | 😊😊😊 | ✅ |
|----------------|--|---|----|-----|---|
| 4 | I can write something simple about my new neighbour in a post for a friend of mine. | | | | |
| 4 | I can describe in very simple language what my room looks like. | | | | |
| 4 | I can write a short description about my children's school in an e-mail to other parents. | | | | |
| 4 | I can note down my daily assignments in the working planner. | | | | |
| 4 | | | | | |
| 4 | | | | | |
| 3 | I can note down very simple memory aids like the conversation scaffold for a visit to my bank. | | | | |
| 3 | I can write a short and simple comment in my photo album. | | | | |
| 3 | I can write a short and very simple description in Lost and Found on a supermarket bulletin board. | | | | |
| 3 | I can write names of places like the bus stop in a public transport map. | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | |
| 2 | I can give basic personal information (like address, age, phone number) in posting on a company website. | | | | |
| 2 | I can write down a shopping list with a few words. | | | | |
| 2 | I can note down memory aids like name, date and time of appointment with my doctor. | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | |
| 1 | I can give some personal information as a caption to a picture by copying an example. | | | | |
| 1 | I can copy some words to label objects like cooking ingredients. | | | | |
| 1 | I can copy simple information into my agenda like the lesson time and the name of my teacher. | | | | |
| 1 | | | | | |
| 1 | | | | | |

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This reference guide is meant for language educators, curriculum designers and language policy makers in their endeavour to design, implement, evaluate and improve curricula tailored toward the specific needs of non- and low-literate adult migrants. This group of migrants faces the complex and demanding task of learning a language while either learning to read and write for the first time or developing their literacy skills. They rarely receive adequate instruction in terms of hours of tuition and targeted teaching approaches, whereas they are very often requested to take a compulsory written test.

The reference guide contains: a definition of target users and learners; the rationale related to the development of the descriptors; principles for teaching literacy and second languages; scales and tables of descriptors; aspects of curriculum design at the macro, meso and micro levels and recommendations on assessment procedures and tools within the learning environment.

The guide also contains descriptors that build on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the CEFR Companion volume up to the A1 level for adult migrants, with special attention given to literacy learners.



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