Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

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Foreword

The decision to prepare, discuss and distribute this text was one of the results of the Intergovernmental Language Policy Forum, organised in Strasbourg on 6-8 February 2007 by the Council of Europe’s Language Policy Division, and focused on: “The Common European Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR) and the development of language policies: challenges and responsibilities”\(^1\).

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

Work on this text really began at a seminar hosted in Amsterdam on 31 January-1 February 2008 by the SLO, the Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development, and co-organised by the CIDREE (Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe) and the Council of Europe’s Language Policy Division.

The Amsterdam seminar set the ball rolling, but preparation of this text also drew on work subsequently done by the Language Policy Division, particularly on the contribution made by languages of schooling to pupil success in all school subjects. This work is part of the Division’s project, “Languages in education – languages for education”, whose insights and first results were made generally available in a “Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education”\(^2\). They suggest new approaches supplementing those detailed in the above texts - and this one seeks to draw first lessons from them.

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

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

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

This text was planned and prepared by a working party comprising Jean-Claude Beacco, Michael Byram, Marisa Cavalli, Daniel Coste, Mirjam Egli Cuenat, Francis Goullier and Johanna Panthier (Language Policy Division).

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\(^1\) [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) (Forum 2007)

\(^2\) [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang)
Main Acronyms

**CEFR**


www.coe.int/lang → Policy Instruments → Common European Framework...

**GDLEP**

*From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education: Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe.* 2007, Council of Europe.

www.coe.int/lang → Policy Instruments → Policy Guide

**GDLEP-Main** → Main Version

**GDLEP-Exec** → Executive Version

See also Appendix IV – Language Education Policies.
Executive summary

This text, preparation of which was decided at the Language Policy Forum held in Strasbourg in February 2007, is intended to facilitate improved implementation of the values and principles of plurilingual and intercultural education in the teaching of all languages - foreign, regional or minority, classical, and languages of schooling.

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

The ideas and proposals put forward in the text form part of the Council of Europe Language Policy Division’s project, “Languages in education – languages for education”, contributions to which are published on a “Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education”.

The text comprises three chapters. The first provides a general picture of the issues and principles involved in designing and/or improving curricula, and of pedagogical and didactic approaches which open the way to fuller realisation of the general aim of plurilingual and intercultural education. The next two chapters look more closely at two basic questions raised in the first: How can the specific content and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education be identified and integrated within the curriculum, while also respecting the specific content and aims of teaching individual languages? How can curriculum scenarios be used to project the spacing-out in time of this content and these objectives? Finally, several appendices provide tools and reference lists. All of this can also be supplemented by consulting the ancillary documents available on the above-mentioned platform.

The text itself says little about use of the European Language Portfolio, the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters or similar pedagogical instruments - but they are implicit throughout, and should be a natural concomitant of progress towards plurilingual and intercultural education.

The document circulated at the Language Policy Forum in Geneva (2-4 November 2010) is a first version, and submitted for consultation, with a view to improving and enriching its content.

Chapter 1: Curriculum, competences and plurilingual and intercultural education

The text’s vision of the curriculum can be summed up as follows:

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

3 www.coe.int/lang
4 This vision of curriculum is based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and on work of the SLO (Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development - www.slo.nl)
Plurilingual and intercultural competence is the ability to use a plural repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources to meet communication needs or interact with people from other backgrounds and contexts, and enrich that repertoire while doing so. Plurilingual competence refers to the repertoire of resources which individual learners acquire in all the languages they know or have learned, and which also relate to the cultures associated with those languages (languages of schooling, regional/minority and migration languages, modern foreign or classical languages). Intercultural competence, for its part, makes it easier to understand otherness, to make cognitive and affective connections between past and new experiences of otherness, mediate between members of two (or more) social groups and their cultures, and question the assumptions of one’s own cultural group and environment.

The aims defined in a curriculum focused on acquisition of these competences must be both specific to the teaching of individual languages and their cultures, and transferable to the teaching of other subjects too. These aims are to:
- make the teaching approaches of different subjects (content, methods, terminology) more consistent with one another;
- identify bridges between subjects, and pace learning to ensure such coherence;
- highlight language components shared by the various subjects learned;
- promote awareness of possible transfers;
- link knowledge and skills for the purpose of developing intercultural competence.

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

Context also determines the extent to which plurilingual and intercultural education can be integrated within the curriculum. This can range from:
- working towards increased synergy between the teaching of modern and classical languages, and greater co-ordination between teachers to
- making plurilingual and intercultural education an explicit general aim, treating all teaching of/in languages (including languages of schooling) as a single process, encouraging teachers to work closely together, and attaching equal importance to openness to languages and cultures, communication and (inter)cultural competences, learner autonomy and transversal competences.

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

Chapter 2: Designing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

This chapter gives a more detailed description of ways in which certain aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education can be gradually brought into existing curricula.

Curriculum-planning must respect a number of basic principles:
- Analysing the existing situation (particularly resources available) is an essential preliminary, if innovation is to be a “step-by-step” and not an “all-or-nothing” process;
- Once the decision-making levels involved have been identified, all the players (including national and regional authority representatives) must be informed, brought into the process and given any training they require, the aim being to create a school ethos and promote networking. Communication and co-ordination with civil society and the local community are also desirable;
- Consistency of options - within school years, throughout the different school years for each subject, and between subjects - must be aimed at.

Identifying language needs, and target competences and levels for each language activity, devising curriculum scenarios to co-ordinate courses over time, preparing syllabus documents, monitoring quality of implementation, etc. - these are all necessary stages in the process.
Analysing the socio-linguistic context and school culture is particularly important: language varieties present, perceptions of languages and plurilingualism, requirements and existing ways of meeting them, teaching traditions, verbal behaviour expected, etc.

**Before specific aims are defined**, thought must be given to choice of the language(s) of schooling, to which explicit general aims are assigned, to the languages taught and the order in which they are introduced, to the status of regional/minority or migration languages, and to the possible effects – some of them unintended - of those choices.

**Crossover links between “languages as subjects”** are the central element in plurilingual and intercultural education and depend on: specific aims defined at least partially on the basis of identical categories or comparable activities (e.g. strategies for understanding written texts, strategies for improvising non-interactive oral texts, reflective observation and analysis of linguistic phenomena); transferable intercultural competences; activities or tasks, particularly comparison activities, which involve using other languages.

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

This chapter sees teaching content in terms of the ways in which it inter-relates between subjects. Four elements are emphasised:

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

- Where **language competences** are concerned, the CEFR typology (general competences and communicative language competences) and the typology for language communication activities can together serve as a starting point. The proposals contained in the “Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education” can be added to cover literary texts and identity-building functions of languages. This typology also takes account of the language dimensions of learning strategies which are valid for various subjects.

- In **intercultural education**, the sharing of teaching content is not necessarily limited to language teaching. Such content covers knowledge, ability to understand, ability to learn/do, and critical cultural awareness (the ability to assess, critically and applying explicit criteria, the viewpoints, practices and products of a previously unknown social group, and of the social groups to which one belongs oneself).

- Another point of contact between subjects is thinking about language, the aim being to objectivise learners’ intuitions regarding the ways in which languages work, and particularly to generate awareness of the ways in which languages and discourse genres vary, and the significance of their doing so.

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

**Teacher training** is crucial to doing all this. In particular, it is desirable to identify the most strategic or accessible points of contact between teachers of different subjects, as well as “points of professional interest”, which can be used as a focus for interdisciplinary transfers and complementarities.

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5 Cf. note 1.
Finally, this chapter considers questions relating to assessment. **Assessment of learners’ achievements** is necessary, but caution is needed in reaching conclusions. Summative or certification assessment is possible, using stringent methods - but most assessment will be formative, and emphasise self-assessment. It may be based on exercises which are aimed at a specific language, but can highlight transversal competences when similar tests are used in different languages or learners’ ability to switch between languages in an appropriate manner is mobilised.

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

**Chapter 3: Elements for curriculum scenarios geared to plurilingual and intercultural education**

Plurilingual and intercultural education depends on spreading specific aims and teaching content over the whole schooling process, thus promoting vertical and horizontal coherence. “**Curriculum scenarios**” embody a prospective approach which can be used to link general aims with curriculum features which help to realise them, and find the type of curriculum best suited to the requirements and possibilities of a given context.

One of the things to be considered here is the **experiential aspect** of any curriculum which seeks to respect the universal right to a high-quality education: for a language-learning culture to emerge, learners must experience a range of different learning modes. In other words, approaches to learning and teaching languages must both be varied. Planning for plurilingual and intercultural education must specify, not only aims and target levels, but also define the types of experience which learners must have, if they are to learn successful and in favourable conditions.

This chapter contains proposals on dividing these experiences between the various stages of the schooling process. To take just one example, it suggests that the following types of experience are suited, at pre-primary level, to the age of pupils, and the period of cognitive, affective and social development through which they are passing:

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

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

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

The basic scenario for the first indicates aims and methods suited to each stage in schooling, provides for gradual introduction of several languages, makes the language of schooling a part of plurilingual and intercultural education, diversifies learning methods and use of these languages, promotes reflection on variations between and within them, emphasises bridges between subjects, and takes due account of the aims of intercultural education.
For the three other cases, two types of scenario are given: the first type is primarily based on the gradual building of synergies between different language courses; the second is more broadly based on the overall dynamics of the curriculum.

All these specimen scenarios have certain common features:
- they adopt a holistic approach, in which curriculum planning covers learners’ repertoire languages, languages in their environment, and languages taught in schools;
- they respect the language and cultural rights of learners, including the most vulnerable;
- they give all teaching of languages and other subjects an intercultural dimension;
- they set out to generate synergies between the teaching of various languages, with a view to coherent and efficient learning, including “partial” competences and inter-/translingual strategies;
- they allow for languages’ function as a knowledge-building instrument.

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

The chapter ends by considering pupils from migration or underprivileged socio-economic backgrounds. There is, in fact, a broad area where the two groups intersect, even though they must be distinguished, and are not covered by any one “prototypical case”; they are entitled, like others, to the learning experiences referred to above, and their syllabus must not be reduced, depriving them of skills, knowledge, and perspectives on the world from which other pupils benefit. Children from underprivileged backgrounds have needs which make it essential to expose them to all forms of expression, emphasise the relationship between variations and norms, and focus on diversity of language systems and of the rules which govern their social uses.

Children with migrant backgrounds are not, for their part, a homogeneous group; indeed, they exemplify the increasing heterogeneity of school populations. Nonetheless, it should be noted that: their home languages are a resource which schools can turn to good account in educating all pupils, and not simply a barrier to success for children who speak them; the life and career plans of children in this category cannot be prejudged; and schools must also ensure that the price of integrating them within the host country’s school system and community is not sudden, total severance from their first environment.
CHAPTER 1
Curriculum, competences, and plurilingual and intercultural education

1.1. A GLOBAL APPROACH TO THE CURRICULUM

1.1.1. What do we mean by curriculum?

“Curriculum” is a difficult concept to pin down, and an common agreed definition of it is still a long way off. Here, we shall use it very broadly to mean “a plan for learning”\(^6\).

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) insists that the school curriculum is part of a wider curriculum, a “path travelled by a learner through a sequence of educational experiences, whether under the control of an institution or not” (CEFR, chapter 8.4). It accordingly sees the “educational” curriculum as part of an “experiential” and “existential” curriculum, which starts before schooling, develops alongside it, and continues after it\(^7\).

In the following pages, the main emphasis will be on institutional planning and implementation of the individual’s school career, for the purpose of supporting and developing his/her plurilingual and intercultural competence\(^8\). An overall picture will be given of the various levels in the school system, and the part they play in design of the curriculum and the various components of curriculum planning. But the existential dimension (experience of family life and lessons learned from it, intergenerational background and contacts, the experience of mobility and, more generally, of living in a multilingual\(^9\) and pluricultural environment, or moving from one environment to another) will remain present throughout, insofar as plurilingual and intercultural education sets out to build on and valorise all the learner’s linguistic and cultural resources.

1.1.2. Development levels and implementation of the curriculum

Developing and implementing a curriculum involve numerous activities – political piloting, planning and development, implementation, evaluation – on several levels of the school system, from the “supra” to the “nano”\(^10\), where various curriculum instruments are used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International, comparative (SUPRA)</th>
<th>e.g. international reference instruments, such as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, international evaluation studies like the PISA survey or the European Indicator of Language Competence, analyses carried out by international experts (Language education policy profile), study visits to other countries, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National (education system), state, region (MACRO)</td>
<td>e.g. study plan, syllabus, strategic specific aims, common core, training standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School, institution (MESO)</td>
<td>e.g. adjustment of the school curriculum or study plan to match the specific profile of a school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class, group, teaching sequence, teacher (MICRO)</td>
<td>e.g. course, textbook used, resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual (NANO)</td>
<td>e.g. individual experience of learning, life-long (autonomous) personal development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: The curriculum on different levels of the education system

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\(^6\) Van den Akker 2006, based on Taba 1962

\(^7\) “Curriculum” is here used as a generic concept. The terms used to denote different types of curriculum - including syllabus, plan d’études or programme - are vague and vary from language to language, and indeed country to country. Discussing this point in detail is not our concern here.

\(^8\) The concept of competence - as used in this text - is expounded and discussed in the contribution on the Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education. Reflections on the use of descriptors in learning, teaching and assessment (www.coe.int/lang)

\(^9\) The Council of Europe’s distinction between multilingualism and plurilingualism is explained in 1.2.1.

\(^10\) This level-based approach derives from the work of the SLO (Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development), cf., or example, Akker 2006, Thijs and Akker 2009.
The extent to which the “macro” and “meso” levels are involved in, and determine, decision-making varies with national and/or regional contexts, where plurality of decision-making centres may indeed be a source of tension. However centralised curriculum policy may be, schools (“meso” level) and class teachers (“micro” level) always play a decisive part in implementing the curriculum.

1.1.3. The components of curriculum planning

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Commonest level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) General aims</td>
<td>MACRO (nation, state, region)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Specific aims/competences</td>
<td>Micro (class) and Meso (school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Content</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Approaches and activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Grouping and location</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Aids and resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Role of teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Co-operation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) Evaluation</td>
<td>From NANO (individual) to SUPRA (international)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Components of curriculum planning

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

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

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

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

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11 The components and questions relating to each of them are based on van den Akker (2006).
Finally, planning decisions in this area are necessarily taken in a specific societal context, and that context must itself be carefully analysed (cf. chapter 2.2). When language curricula are being designed (“first”, “second”, “foreign” languages, etc.), the status of all the languages present or spoken on a given territory (state, region, major city), and the needs generated by specific situations (neighbourhood, migrant population, economic partners, cultural or language policies, frontier region), are among the factors which must be considered. Analysis of these factors will decisively influence specific aims (including choice of languages and levels of competence aimed at), and the curriculum measures needed to achieve them.

More information can be found in: “A curriculum perspective on plurilingual education” – document prepared by the SLO (Van den Akker, Fasoglio and Mulder), 2010. www.coe.int/lang

1.1.4. Specific aims, competences and efficient curriculum management

Nowadays, most school curricula are planned with reference to specific aims, i.e. competences to be acquired. This is also the approach adopted by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which seeks to help all Europeans to develop competences in several languages, for the purpose of promoting mutual understanding, facilitating personal mobility, and valorising linguistic and cultural diversity (cf. section 1.2 of this chapter).

The wide range of linguistic and cultural competences which schooling must now cover, and, generally, the ever-increasing number of school subjects, are making curriculum management increasingly important. Subjects are being decompartmentalised and brought together in subject areas, competences-acquisition is being co-ordinated across the subject spectrum, and transversal competences are being incorporated in curricula – all for the purpose of linking learning processes, and systematically helping pupils to transfer competences usefully from one subject to another.

These rationalisation measures apply both to links between languages as subjects (modern foreign and classical languages, as well as languages of schooling, or minority and migration languages), and also between languages and other subjects.

1.1.5. Curriculum scenarios and curriculum coherence

The curriculum scenario approach was introduced by the CEFR (Chapter 8) to facilitate the taking of decisions on directions which curricula might follow. It can be used to project learning aims and space them out in time, and to plan possibly diversified school careers, with reference to precise educational specific aims, which determine educational projects and profiles for pupils, as future adults and Europeans.

Curriculum scenarios contribute to curriculum management by giving the curriculum two kinds of coherence:
- vertical (or longitudinal) coherence throughout the learning process, transcending the various levels of the education system, particularly at national and regional (“macro”) level;
- horizontal coherence between languages (and other subjects), which is vital when decisions are being taken on the methods, materials and co-operation needed in schools (“meso” level).

This curriculum scenario approach is described in greater detail in Chapter 3.

1.2. PLURILINGUAL COMPETENCE AND INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE: SOME KEY TERMS

The first stage in designing a school curriculum, by which we mean a plan for learning, is to clarify specific aims. Taking the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages as a starting point, the aims of language learning must be seen in terms of plurilingual and intercultural competence, which education systems have the task of developing.

At this stage, it may be useful to clarify some key terms.

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12 In the rest of this text, “foreign language” will denote any modern language other than the language of the home or the language of schooling.
1.2.1. Plurilingualism, multilingualism, pluriculturality, interculturality

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

The plurilingual approach allows for this, and reflects the current “Copernican revolution” in language teaching; it centres on learners and on developing their individual plurilingual repertoire, and not on the specific languages they are supposed to acquire.

This approach would be incomplete without the pluricultural and intercultural dimension. Pluriculturality is the desire and ability to identify with several cultures, and participate in them. Interculturality is the ability to experience another culture and analyse that experience. The intercultural competence acquired from doing this helps individuals to understand cultural difference better, establish cognitive and affective links between past and future experiences of that difference, mediate between members of two (or more) social groups and their cultures, and question the assumptions of their own cultural group and milieu.

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

More information can be found in: Byram (2009): Multicultural Societies, Pluricultural People and the Project of Intercultural Education. Text available on the Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education (www.coe.int/lang).

1.2.2 Building a personal repertoire of plural linguistic and cultural resources

Every speaker has the potential ability to build up a plural linguistic and cultural repertoire. The CEFR defines this repertoire as all the resources acquired in each of the languages known or used and the cultures attached to them, collected “under one roof”, for example:

- the majority or official language(s) of schooling and the cultures transmitted in a given educational context;
- regional and minority or migration languages and the corresponding cultures;
- modern or classical languages and the cultures taught with them.

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

These resources comprise knowledge and competences: knowledge and competences linked with each specific language, and also transversal knowledge and competences, which can be transferred from one language to another, or help to forge links between languages. The attitudes and personal qualities of individuals (their “existential competences”) are the dominant factor in development and mobilisation of the resources in their plurilingual repertoire. These resources develop throughout a person’s life, depending on how he/she uses different languages or language varieties in various contexts.

Their development can take different forms:

- increased knowledge and competences in one or more specific languages;
- development of competences applying to several languages;
- acquisition of knowledge or competences which help to make these resources complementary.
Sometimes, when they are not used, they may stagnate - or even deteriorate.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural language and cultural repertoire developed as result of a family strategy</th>
<th>Plural language and cultural repertoire developed at school</th>
<th>Plural language and cultural repertoire developed in adulthood</th>
<th>Enhanced capacity to add to the resources of a plural language and cultural repertoire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shamima (11) lives in Leicester, a city in the British East Midlands. Her parents come from Gujarat, a province in western India, and are Moslems. She attends a state primary school. The language of the home is Gujarati. Her parents are themselves plurilingual, and are anxious to pass on their own cultural and religious heritage. They send her to evening classes at her school, where she learns to read and write Gujarati, using Indian script. English and Gujarati are both used in these classes, which play an important part in integrating the home and host cultures. Moreover, Shamima spends one afternoon a week at the mosque, where she learns to read and write Urdu - the language of religious observance, which uses Arabic characters - and to recite Koranic verses in Arabic. The main emphasis in her language learning is clearly on the home environment, which is not banned from the home, and is her “best” language. From early childhood, however, and largely thanks to the educational strategies adopted by her parents, who know how to use the various institutional facilities on offer to develop their daughter’s pluriculturalty, Shimima learned that her various languages were associated with different cultural practices, in the fields of reading and writing, among others.</td>
<td>Anaïs (16) lives in a French-speaking family in France. Like most of her classmates, her first experience of language learning came at the age of 8, when she started English. Secondary school gave her the chance to study German and English in parallel. In her school, the German teacher and one of the English teachers worked closely together, sometimes sharing classes, keeping a joint record for both languages and co-ordinating progress. Exploiting similarities between the two languages, and the acquired habit of transferring knowledge and strategies, allowed her to make significant progress. By the time she reached the end of her lower secondary education, she had acquired similar competences in both languages. At 15, she took a proficiency test in German organised by her school, scoring a B1 in three language activities and an A2 in written language. On her teachers’ advice, she decided to start studying another modern language (Italian) in upper secondary school, while keeping up her German and English. She is convinced that these experiences of learning, and the competences she has acquired, will be very useful later, although she does not intend to study languages.</td>
<td>Mehmet (35) is a Turkish national. He moved to Germany at the age of 22 to join some of his family and (he hoped) find work more easily. For several months, he made do with a very limited knowledge of German, working mainly with fellow-Turks and other immigrants in his firm. Wishing to remain in Germany and integrate within his new environment, he then followed the example of one of his workmates and registered for German evening classes at the local Volkshochschule (adult education centre). He was encouraged and supported in this by his family, who had several children in German schools. As his German improved, he spent more time watching German television, and began to make contacts with German neighbours. Although his command of the language is still imperfect, he now feels able to cope with a wide range of communication situations which arise in his working and private life. He is particularly proud of being able to help newly arrived Turkish colleagues in situations when knowing no German can cause problems. Increasingly, he is called upon to act as an intercultural mediator.</td>
<td>Mirko (31), a computer specialist from Slovenia, moved to Stockholm with his Swedish wife. His first language was a dialect of Slovenian. At school, he learned the standard form of that language, and English as well - but it was only when he went to university, where some of the courses were given in English, that he acquired a practical command of the latter. He found learning Swedish difficult. When his wife took a job in the Netherlands, the couple moved there. Mirko had doubts about this, as the thought of again changing language and culture alarmed him. However, a teacher gradually helped him to see that the Dutch language’s many similarities with Swedish and English made it easy to learn. Finding that he could make good use of the existing resources in his repertoire gave him a new attitude to learning other languages – including the Slav languages closely related to his own – and helped him to develop a feeling for his new host country’s culture.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.2.3. The individual’s repertoire as a basis for developing plurilingual and intercultural competence: specific and cross disciplinary objectives for the different languages

Though closely connected, repertoire and competence are not the same thing: plurilingual and intercultural competence can be defined as the ability to mobilise – in a manner suited to the circumstances – the plural repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources, for purposes of communication, interacting with others, and also expanding the repertoire itself.

This idea, that resources of various kinds form a basis for competence, makes it possible to define aims for curricula, and so evaluate the processes initiated by a teaching/learning plan, and its results. We shall therefore make a distinction between

a) aims specific to the teaching of a given language and its cultures:
- language competence: linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatic knowledge and competences;
- cultural competence: knowledge, competences and existential competences relevant to social groups who speak a given language and their culture.

b) aims applying to the teaching of various subjects:
- intercultural competence: knowledge (of the ways in which people interact in a multilingual context), comprehension (the ability to identify/compare/juxtapose similar phenomena in the life of two (or more) social groups and their cultures), existential competences (curiosity regarding others and recognition of the relativity of one’s own cultural references) and commitment (the determination and ability to “read” others’ and one’s own values and behaviour critically and lucidly);
- plurilingual competence: “inter” learning (building and expanding resources, inter alia, through systematic and controlled transfer), “pluri” knowledge and competences, linked to situations where several languages are used simultaneously, and existential competences (positive attitudes to language plurality).

Plurilingual and intercultural education has two aims.

First, it facilitates the acquisition of linguistic and intercultural abilities: this involves adding to the linguistic and cultural resources which make up individual repertoires, using the available means efficiently. Aims differ with learners’ needs, languages and contexts.

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

Effective learning of one or more languages, awareness of the value of diversity and otherness, and recognition of the utility of any (even partial) competence are necessary for anyone who, as an active member of the community, has to exercise his/her democratic citizenship in a multilingual and multicultural society. Democratic citizenship “is a right and indeed a responsibility to participate in the cultural, social and economic life and in public affairs of the community together with others”\(^{13}\).

1.3. A CURRICULUM GEARED TO PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

The following section, and the two remaining chapters of this text, are based on the instruments and elements contained in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), the Guide for Users of the CEFR, the Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe, main (GDLEP-Main) and executive (GDLEP-Exec) versions, and also in the texts included in the Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education\(^{14}\), focused on curriculum development.

\(^{13}\) *White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue* - Living Together as Equals in Dignity, Council of Europe 2008, p. 29. (www.coe.int/dialogue)

\(^{14}\) These documents are available on [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang). See also page 6 and Appendix IV.
1.3.1. General aims of education

The aims of plurilingual and intercultural education, which the Council of Europe is recommending to its member states as a response to the increasingly plural character of their societies, have been detailed in many of its texts\(^\text{15}\). Such education should be seen in relation to the right of every individual to high-quality education, whose main features include the acquisition of competences, knowledge, dispositions and attitudes based on a range of different learning experiences, and on construction of individual and collective cultural identities. These various elements contribute to pupil success at school and make for equal opportunity. They foster inclusion and social cohesion, pave the way for democratic citizenship and help to promote a knowledge-based society.

The main technical characteristics of a curriculum designed to do this are:

- the attention paid to the rights, and not only the duties and responsibilities, of learners – particularly learners with underprivileged backgrounds or learning problems;
- the aim, common to all school subjects, of producing critical adults who are unreservedly open to otherness: contact with languages and discourse genres in schools must not only give learners the competences they need to live in the community; it must also show them how these languages and genres convey and shape ideas, opinions, information and knowledge, and give them a clear picture of their workings, origins, diversity, variability and creative potential; this is thus both a form and condition of personal development;
- definition of content in terms not only of knowledge or competences, but also of the learning experiences which learners are entitled to expect that schools will give them. In particular, it is important to ensure that language teaching is not restricted to functional and practical competences, even though these are genuinely needed, and may seem to have priority in certain contexts. Learners are entitled to experience the playful and aesthetic sides of language too (4.3.5), and also the diversity of the world’s languages: they must not be confined to learning just one foreign language, or only those discourse genres valued for their presumed social and occupational utility;
- integration, convergence or transversal organisation of foreign language teaching - an approach applying between foreign languages themselves, and between foreign languages and the majority language of schooling, regional/minority and possibly migration languages taught in the school, and other subjects, the links in each case being tailored to the subjects linked, in such a way that the curriculum covers the entire language repertoire concerned;
- special attention to the linguistic dimensions of non-language subjects, giving learners the language resources they need to succeed in their studies and are – therefore – entitled to expect schools to give them;
- the central emphasis on autonomisation of language learning, paving the way for future learning processes;
- forms of evaluation consistent with the aims of education and with development of learners’ autonomy;
- the importance attached in teacher training to this approach and its implications for classroom activities.

The characteristics of a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum derive from the values and principles on which this vision of education is based. They can be seen in terms of specific achievements. For example, such a curriculum may/must enable learners to:

- expand and maintain their language repertoires;
- instruct themselves in their primary language (language of the home);
- learn a regional, minority or migration language, if this is what they and/or their parents desire;
- acquire the language competences needed for life in the community (particularly written production and reception competences);
- grasp the creative potential of all languages, which generates new forms and opens a door to the world of the imagination;
- learn the language and discourse genres which are specific to social usage and particularly other subjects, and which are needed to succeed at school.

\(^{15}\) See CEFR, Chapter 8 and GDLEP-Main, 5.1.; Coste (ed.) 2007: A European reference document for languages of education?; Coste et al. 2009: Plurilingual and intercultural education as a right (all available on www.coe.int/lang)
Specifically, it is necessary to decide how much the various aspects of human language should be emphasised at certain levels or in certain subjects, with a view to developing competences throughout schooling, i.e. determine the place which communication competences, intercultural competences, aesthetic and literary experiences, the acquisition of reflective capability, the development of cross-disciplinary strategies, autonomy development and cognitive development should occupy at various stages in the curriculum.

1.3.2. Plurilingual and intercultural education across the curriculum

Plurilingual and intercultural education can be promoted by curricular action on various levels (see chapter 1.1 above): definition of goals, aims and competences to be acquired, content and activities, evaluation methods, tested and adopted approaches and methods, teaching aids, and training priorities for teachers and, with a view to the need for co-operation within teaching teams, school principals.

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

Attempting to give plurilingual and intercultural education its rightful place in the curriculum may mean changing it radically. However, the changes will not necessarily mark a total break with the goals pursued by education systems or schools in their former curricula. There will be no question, for example, of abandoning the goal of acquiring certain competences in the languages taught, or mastering the subjects on the curriculum.

On the contrary, the changes will be based on existing curricula, and these will determine how far they can - and cannot - go. In return, the changes will help curricula to cover all aspects of schooling more fully - on which their effectiveness depends.

1.3.3. Transversal competences and curriculum coherence to make teaching more effective

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

The current trends towards fuller integration of literary or scientific subjects are showing the way, as we have seen above (cf. 1.1.4). In the case of linguistic and intercultural competences, the following measures can make the existing system more effective:

*Increased coherence between contents, methods and terminologies*

The various language courses on the curriculum, and particularly their methods and terminologies, can be made more cohesive. A consistent, cross-the-board approach to language content, supervised acquisition of learning strategies and tackling of communication tasks obviously does much to save time and resources. It also helps learners to understand and master content, strategies and tasks more easily, showing them that content or techniques used in one learning situation can also be used in others, or differently - and also the extent to which this is possible. Obviously, awareness of specifics is inseparably a part of this teaching approach.

Following the longstanding tradition of project based pedagogy, for example, is one way of achieving such coherence. That approach involves deliberate use on cross-disciplinary projects of
competences already acquired in one or more subjects, or direct, simultaneous study of several subjects, the aim in both cases being to promote learner autonomy.

**Identifying bridges and organising learning paths**
The first stage in improving coherence is to look at content and methods in the various subjects and in the languages taught (or used), with a view to identifying all the possible bridges, harmonising the contributions of each, and scheduling lessons in a way which ensures that teaching is cohesive, both vertically and horizontally.

**Highlighting the language components common to the various learning processes**
Effectiveness can also be measured by highlighting the language components of comprehension and expression activities in all the subjects taught, cognitive operations with a language dimension (identifying, locating, recounting, describing, arguing, etc.) and the discourse genres used in the work required of pupils. The aim here is to see whether any of these components are obstacles which need removing for all pupils to succeed. Ways of dealing with them can then be co-ordinated among teachers, and considered by pupils when they think about their learning processes. This can apply to widely different activities, e.g. describing an experiment in science class, speaking in a debate in history class, describing a picture in art class, etc.

**Promoting awareness of possible transfers**
Every opportunity of encouraging pupils to use knowledge and competences acquired in languages they are taught or know must be seized, with a view to revealing points of convergence, helping them to understand how languages work, and managing development of their plurilingual repertoires to optimum effect.

**Linking subject-specific knowledge and competences, for the purpose of developing intercultural competence**
Linking cultural and intercultural knowledge and competences derived from the study of various language and other subjects helps learners to build up a system of (inter)cultural references which they can mobilise in dealing responsibly and effectively with later intercultural encounters, both direct (exchanges, meetings, etc.) and indirect (media, books, films, etc.).

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

**1.4. WAYS OF BRINGING PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION INTO THE CURRICULUM**
An essential pre-condition of doing this is to examine the existing curriculum with three questions in mind:
- How can the implications of the CEFR’s definition of plurilingual and intercultural education (cf. 1.2) help us to use that instrument more consistently?
- How should we allow for the language of schooling’s central place in every learner’s language repertoire and its basic importance for success at school?
- How can we help learners to develop the intercultural competence they need to play an active, responsible and independent role in a plurilingual and multicultural society?

Pluricultural and intercultural education can be realised in the most varied contexts, regardless of the extent to which the various language subjects and language-learning processes have already been integrated. Several examples from different contexts serve to illustrate this point.
1.4.1. First approach to integration: gearing the curriculum to increased synergy between modern and classical language teaching

In addition to the language of schooling, several other languages are frequently taught as compulsory or optional subjects. Usually, the content and aims of these various language courses are defined without reference to one another. The aims cover acquisition of cultural knowledge and the ability to communicate in each of these languages - an ability defined, in the case of modern languages, with the help of the reference levels specified in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. In the best cases, these aims are geared to specific comprehension or (oral and/or written) expression activities, which together make up the linguistic profile expected for each language (cf. 2.3.2.1.).

The results achieved do not necessarily match these specified aims alone. The knowledge and competences acquired in the language(s) learned are added to the learner’s own repertoire, which is already well stocked with knowledge and competences derived from the language of schooling and any other home language(s). His/her general culture is enriched by contact with the aesthetic and expressive potential of each language taught and its literature, and by the resultant desire to meet people who speak it and experience their culture. Finally, learners acquire specific cultural knowledge which helps them, with the right guidance, to develop cultural and intercultural competences.

These effects are not negligible, but they need to be reinforced or expanded by co-ordinating the various language courses or, more ambitiously, systematically aiming at coherence and efficiency in language teaching.

To co-ordinate the teaching of different languages, initiatives or decisions must be taken:
- on lesson content and the language and (inter)cultural competences aimed at in each language, for the purpose of promoting horizontal coherence, and enabling learners to transfer cross-disciplinary competences from one course/learning process to another;
- encouraging teachers of different languages to co-ordinate aims for the same pupils at different stages in the course, the phasing of competences-acquisition, teaching methods, lesson content, classroom aids, and ways of assessing progress.

A cohesive and efficient approach to the teaching of different languages requires:
- that the learning aims embodied in the language profile be defined, not separately for each language, but with a view to complementarity of the acquired competences in the individual’s plurilingual repertoire. The various language courses will thus set out to give learners the ability to communicate in several foreign languages, at levels of proficiency which may vary with the language varieties concerned, their proximity to languages which pupils already know or are learning, pupil characteristics (age, number of languages already known or learned, specific needs, etc.) and teaching situation (length and number of lessons, scope for contact with/use of the language outside language lessons, etc.). For certain types of language, partial competences (e.g. comprehension) may also be the goal;
- that teachers be encouraged to draw explicitly on linguistic and (inter)cultural knowledge and competences which learners have acquired from learning one language in teaching them a second, thus reinforcing that knowledge and those competences in both;
- that use be made of aids and materials specifically designed to foster this coherence, e.g. which use at least partially shared grammatical terminology, or which foster linguistic and cultural linkage, and the conscious transfer of multi-purpose competences;
- that action be taken to increase pupils’ autonomous learning abilities and make them aware of the various resources in their own repertoires. This can be done, for example, by using the European Language Portfolio and/or the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters, or adopting similar approaches in studying the language of schooling or other subjects;
- that co-operation between teachers goes further than the simple co-ordination referred to above in opening the way to joint planning of progress and approaches in the light of learner profiles, and to harmonisation of assessment practices, acquired mediation competences being taken into account throughout.

These two approaches are different, but have the same starting point, and neither departs from the aim of developing competences and acquiring knowledge in the various languages and cultures taught. Both improve the initial situation along the lines described here, and can even be used in parallel,
allowing teachers to adopt the one best suited to their own training and preference, and to the scope for co-ordination and co-operation which exists within their teaching team. The main difference between the two is, perhaps, that the first focuses on making teaching more effective, while the second adds a clear educational objective.

1.4.2. Second approach to integration: plurilingual and intercultural education as explicit aim in the curriculum

The aim of inclusive education for all children can be furthered by making the most of all their competences and creating the conditions they need to succeed in all their studies - which also contributes to social cohesion.

Here again, there are two possible complementary approaches, and each can be implemented differently in different contexts: making plurilingual and intercultural education the central aim of learning modern and/or classical languages, and taking the language of schooling as a basis for developing that plurilingual and intercultural education.

The explicit inclusion of plurilingual and intercultural education among the aims of modern or classical language teaching is reflected in:
- attaching equal importance to instilling openness to languages and cultures in learners (language awareness, etc.), giving them communication and (inter)cultural competences in various languages and developing their autonomy to a point where they can manage their own plurilingual and intercultural repertoire independently, economically, responsibly and confidently throughout their lives;
- paying special attention to developing transversal linguistic and intercultural competences and using them (e.g. in mediation), and to thinking about communication and human language;
- treating all teaching of and in languages as a whole, focusing it on the development of learners’ plurilingual and intercultural repertoires, and seeking to diversify learning and language-use situations (formal teaching of languages and other subjects in foreign languages, stays abroad, meetings, co-operation, intensive courses and brief awareness sessions, familiarisation with regional variations, and presence in the learners’ environment of materials which encourage them to experience diversity, follow distance-study courses, etc.);
- close co-operation between teachers who are able to plan joint projects and who, ideally, possess knowledge and competences in several languages and cultures.

In addition to those described above, there can and certainly must be very different ways of implementing plurilingual and intercultural education within the curriculum. It would also be possible, for example, to outline links between the language(s) of schooling and the language activities practised in other subject areas - an approach which obviously coheres with, and complements, the one described above.

In fact, although modern or classical languages instantly seem amenable to it, the treatment we have sketched is not valid for them only. Once we realise that every subject has a language dimension, and that this dimension contributes to learners’ success, we are naturally anxious to promote co-operation between all teachers, regardless of whether they teach the language of schooling, some other language or any other subject: identifying discourse genres, cognitive operations and their language vectors in the various subjects; co-ordinating progress rates; co-operating to help learners to acquire language forms.

Making learning the language of schooling contribute to plurilingual and intercultural education is thus another way of reshaping the curriculum, and it involves:
- co-ordinating language aims in foreign languages with those in the language of schooling, whether taught as a subject or used as a medium for teaching and learning other subjects;
- paying special attention to the cognitive operations which underlie language activities, and to discourse genres, the linguistic variety inherent in all languages (including the language of schooling) and strategies for using those languages;
- using the foundations laid by study of the language of schooling in teaching other languages (linguistic knowledge, command of the various discourse genres, use of communication strategies, etc.), while also highlighting the differences;
- strong awareness among teachers of the links between all the language competences in the plurilingual repertoire; expanding and consolidating this repertoire are seen as a joint process, to which every lesson contributes;
- exploiting transversal intercultural competences - particularly learning ability and commitment - which are useful when the language of schooling is being taught.

All these forms of integration may apply to some or all teachers of the languages on the curriculum - whether taught as subjects themselves or used in teaching other subjects - and also to other players involved, including school principals. An obvious prerequisite, too, is that all those who provide and receive this kind of education should realise its utility - and their doing so depends on information and training. Similarly, the changes in the curriculum, even when contextual factors make it realistically necessary to limit them, must leave room for more radical action at local level, clearly related to the overall aims they are gearing to.

Clearly, too, there can be no readymade, universal solutions or answers.

We cannot end this chapter without insisting on the importance which can/must be attached, when curriculum changes geared to plurilingual and intercultural education are being considered, to developing learners’ autonomy and their ability to think about aims, their linguistic and (inter)cultural experiences, and the progress they are making and can document. The European Language Portfolio, the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters and/or other similar instruments schemes obviously have a special role to play here.
CHAPTER 2
Designing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

The previous chapter has given a general account of the various elements involved in planning and drawing up a curriculum to organise teaching and learning (cf. 1.1.3.). Its aim was to provide an overall picture of the essential factors which must be taken into account.

This second chapter amplifies, usually in list form, the analytical description of the options possible, and decisions needed, to gradually bring certain aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education into existing curricula. For each stage in the process, the crucial problems will be spelt out, possible “solutions” suggested, and various existing instruments referred to.

2.1. BUILDING A CURRICULUM - FIRST STEPS
Designing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education involves linking subject syllabuses which used to be drafted separately (languages of schooling, foreign languages, other subjects, etc.). This obviously complicates the process.

In practical terms, the best approach to introducing a curriculum geared to the goals and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education is probably not to break sharply with the existing one, but to modify it by easy stages, usually in the medium or long term. Looking closely at the existing curriculum is an essential first step if the preferred approach is not “all or nothing” but “little by little”.

2.1.1. Building a curriculum - practicalities
Designing a curriculum involves all levels of the education system (cf. 1.1.2.). The descending order (from macro to nano) followed in this chapter is dictated by the decisive importance of politically determined values. Our approach may seem to be emphasising decisions taken centrally (e.g. at national level, by ministries or directorates of education) - but must definitely not be regarded as the one to be systematically preferred in practice.

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

Decision-making may also be shared between levels: e.g. decisions on general policy and evaluation of results be taken by governments, curriculum scenarios be chosen by the regions, and methods and content be determined by schools. Alternatively, decision-making may be shared in any other way which matches the structure of the education system. Depending on its own administrative structure and on how it apportions decision-making, each state or region will have to determine the levels on which decisions are taken - and ensure that the latter are consistent.

2.1.2. Role of the various players in curriculum reform
Perhaps more than others, and particularly since it sets out to link subjects, a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum depends for its success on numerous supporting measures. It is vital:
- to tell all the players, together and without distinction, what the changes are meant to achieve, and how they will be organised and implemented;
- to ensure that education policy decisions are consistent within years (horizontal consistency), subject areas (temporal: vertical or longitudinal consistency) and stages of schooling, and between subjects (overall consistency), general and specific aims, approaches, teaching aids and examinations/qualifications (consistency of implementation). This is complex, but essential;
- to back the changes with scientific research, e.g. action-research projects involving teachers, networking of research bodies and schools, etc.;
- to train national and regional managers, head teachers and other intermediaries;
- to adapt resource centres, language laboratories, etc. to the project;
- to make civil society and the immediate community aware of it;
- to survey locally available resources which might be tapped;
- to ensure communication and co-ordination between educational decision-makers, civil society and the local and regional community: language teachers, teachers of other subjects, parents of pupils, and local authorities. Co-ordination must exist between all the players in every subject area, and between subjects, in every year and at every stage of schooling.

The chief essential remains training for all teachers: training for teachers in general, training for teachers of specific subjects, and training for co-operative activities. Networking of all players (and not just teachers) is crucial.

The aim is to create a school ethos favourable to this type of plurilingual education, which demands cross-the-board co-operation. True, the operation’s complexity may seem off-putting, since many conditions must be fulfilled - but it would clearly be a mistake not to start reorganising until all those conditions had been met. In fact, if the aim is gradually shared out, it can be realised in a wide variety of ways.

2.1.3. Stages in designing a curriculum

Building a curriculum is one of the general processes involved in planning education.

It comprises a number of stages which are theoretically distinct, each with its own special role, and each determined by its own set of options and decisions.

In the case of language teaching, these stages are:
- defining the educational aims of language teaching: what types of plurilingual repertoire are aimed at? How can language choice be diversified in practice? How can learners be made autonomous, so that they can continue to learn languages on their own throughout their lives?
- defining the socio-linguistic situation, and learners’ individual language repertoires (cf. 2.2.);
- analysing language needs. Here, a distinction must be made between needs in the language of schooling and needs in other languages. When the language of schooling is taught as a subject, language needs must be linked to other specific aims (thinking about language, approaching literature, creative writing, etc.); when it is used in studying other subjects, language needs match expectations and requirements in those subjects. Analysing language needs in foreign languages may be less useful with children, whose school and vocational trajectories are still undetermined (cf. 2.3);
- surveying resources available for teaching/learning (reference materials, aids devised for identical or comparable target groups, etc., linguistic analysis of the relevant discourse genres, etc.);
- profiling specific aims on the path to realisation of general educational aims: definition of the (linguistic, intercultural) competences, and the levels aimed at in each language activity (cf. 2.3.);
- designing curriculum scenarios which co-ordinate the teaching of different languages throughout schooling: which foreign language is taught first (at what age, for how many hours)? What links must/can be made with teaching of the language of schooling? When is teaching of a regional/minority and/or migration language introduced? It is also important to think about lessons for specific groups: new arrivals, learners in economically depressed areas, learners who speak a regional/minority or migration language at home, and have a poor command of the language of schooling (cf. Chapter 3);
- preparing teaching plans which allow for constraints (teaching hours available, number of learners per group, and technical resources, e.g. textbooks, teaching aids, spaces and premises), specify teaching methods, types of classroom activity, fields, communication situations, discourse genres covered by lessons and types of learning sequence and teaching module, and outline the linear distribution of lesson content;
- identifying the content and teaching methodology of intercultural education in language and non-language courses, e.g. history, the biological sciences (cf. 2.4);
- training teachers to teach the curriculum (cf. 2.5). Specifically, decompartmentalisation of languages makes it vital to give teachers (of languages of schooling, and classical, foreign, regional/minority and migration languages, as well as other subjects) training in various types of co-operation, technique-sharing, interdisciplinary project and evaluation;
- selecting ways of monitoring learners' progress (cf. 2.6);
- determining the cost of this type of education (real cost in teaching posts, etc.) and its immediate (e.g. effectiveness) and long-term (e.g. social cohesion) benefits (cf. 2.7);
- monitoring and evaluation by the state or region of the quality of the education given, and of examination and certification procedures, etc. cf. 2.7).

This list will serve as a guideline in the rest of this chapter, and the preparation of curriculum scenarios will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

In looking closely at the stages listed here, it is important not to lose sight of the long-term educational objectives noted in the previous chapter (cf. 1.3).

### 2.2. ANALYSING THE SOCIO-LINGUISTIC CONTEXT AND EDUCATIONAL CULTURE

As the Council of Europe sees it, curricula are drawn up on the basis of certain principles and values, but without ignoring the realities in which they will be operating - realities essentially reflected in the data available on learners' socio-linguistic context. Regular analysis of that context provides a practical basis for decision-making

The data (both quantitative and qualitative) which help to provide a picture of the socio-linguistic context usually cover:

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

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

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

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

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16 Cf. Guide for Users of the CEFR; GDLEP-Main, 6.2.1 and 6.9.
2.3. DEFINING SPECIFIC AIMS

Specific aims spell out the general aims described in Chapter 1, breaking them down into more precise goals which take due account of the education system’s possibilities. At the half-way mark between relatively abstract general aims and the “operational content” of classroom activities, this is a particularly sensitive stage in the process, and needs to be tackled with the greatest care.

2.3.1. General characteristics

Defining specific aims presupposes that:
- the language(s) of schooling have been chosen deliberately, and not simply on the strength of tradition;
- the foreign languages which are going to be taught, and their order of appearance on the curriculum, have been decided;
- the languages which are going to be used in teaching certain subjects have also been selected;
- the regional/minority or migration languages taught have been identified, and their classroom status, optional or not, separate subject or medium of instruction for others - decided;
- explicit aims have been assigned to the language of schooling, even though these may be very diverse, since “language as subject” is defined very differently in different education cultures. This is certainly the area where clear definition of the knowledge and competences to be acquired reduces the risk of arbitrary treatment, and also the importance of knowledge/competences acquired outside the school, which the latter may tend to emphasise, directly or indirectly.

When putting a curriculum together, it is important to anticipate certain effects, not necessarily intended, it may produce, i.e. to ask:
- will these lessons genuinely help to expand individual repertoires, or will they lead to down-grading of some of the languages or language varieties present in those repertoires?
- does the curriculum really give learners a wider choice of foreign languages? On what criteria should a language be made compulsory? Should it be taught all the way up to university entrance? How can the ‘ceiling effect’ of long-term teaching of a language resulting in diminishing returns be taken into account?
- what can be done, and what activities used, to make language lessons serve the aims of intercultural education, and ensure that those aims are not minimised, since they focus on opinion and attitudes, and so do not always lend themselves to specific activities (e.g. reacting to information on a foreign society)?
- how can we ensure that intensive foreign language teaching (e.g. in so-called bilingual classes) does not lead to streaming of “outstanding” pupils, the chief beneficiaries being those from educationally privileged backgrounds?
- what conditions must be fulfilled for the teaching of certain subjects in other languages (foreign, regional, minority, migration) to produce both cognitive and linguistic benefits for learners?

2.3.2. Crossover links between language lessons

The central element in plurilingual and intercultural education is crossover linking of languages taught as subjects in a way which respects the single nature of human language proficiency. This dimension is tackled holistically by trying to ascertain:
- the extent to which aims can, at least partially, be defined using identical categories or comparable activities (e.g. strategies for understanding written texts, strategies for improvising non-active oral texts, reflective approaches to the observation and analysis of linguistic phenomena in sentence or discourse contexts);
- the extent to which transferable intercultural competences are consistently developed in different language lessons;
- how these lessons can incorporate activities or tasks which involve using other curriculum languages, and particularly activities which involve comparing or contrasting.

17 GDLEP-Exec, 6.2 and GDLEP-Main, 6.9.
2.3.2.1. Convergent definitions of the competences aimed at in teaching languages as subjects, and use of the CEFR’s descriptors

Foreign language teaching has benefited from using the CEFR, which makes it possible to describe communication activities and strategies with the help of similar criteria for the various languages. It may thus be reasonable to consider, for every group of pupils and every educational context, whether - and to what extent - the CEFR’s descriptors can be used for other languages taught as subjects (non-language subjects are another matter). This should indeed be possible, particularly at B2 level and above (i.e. at a point where literacy training is already well advanced), and especially for competences related to written reception, written production and (non-interactive) oral production.

Obviously, the CEFR’s descriptors do not apply to certain basic features of the role which the language of schooling plays in the cognitive development, personal education and identity-formation of every learner. With that proviso, these descriptors’ utility would consist in making it possible to define homogeneously some (at least) of the competences and skill-levels aimed at in each language as subject, and to link and gauge acquisition of those competences and sub-competences with reference to the conditions in which each is taught (number of hours, number of years) and to certain key stages in schooling (e.g. end of ISCED 2, end of compulsory schooling, end of ISCED 3). With languages of schooling, the descriptors probably apply most to aims, and particularly the pragmatic competences and strategies used in communication activities; they cannot easily register the typical complexity of the observable results of the corresponding learning processes.

The pre-B2 phases in studying the language of schooling as a subject coincide with a stage in young people’s general development (physical, cognitive, etc.) when they are using it, not only for social purposes outside school, but also in studying other subjects. Use of the CEFR descriptors to organise their progression may be harder here, although experience shows that those descriptors can - when supplemented and/or adapted to match the curriculum - be usefully and effectively applied to certain groups.

Language teaching in schools must go beyond the communication competences specified on the various levels of the CEFR. This being so, and although some of the descriptors (on various levels) can be applied to learners’ language competences, use of a “global” level, like the CEFR’s A1 or A2, to describe or assess progress in the language-as-subject seems restrictive, and may underestimate the real competences of the learners concerned. This may cause special problems with children from migrant or socio-economically under-privileged backgrounds. The concept of “levels”, popularised by the CEFR, must therefore be used with caution; it should be seen merely as a “point of reference”; it does not necessarily reflect the learner’s real competences, or match the aims to be achieved. Competence profiles should be used instead.

In fact, few speakers are equally proficient in all uses of a given language: often, their oral interaction and written production competences are not identical, while reception competences normally outstrip production competences. It is also unlikely that analysis of the language requirements for a future course of study or training, or for jobs or situations more loosely defined (e.g. higher education abroad), will conclude that equal proficiency in all areas (oral interaction, written production, written reception, etc.) is needed. In practice, differential competence profiles are frequently the norm (e.g. A2 in oral interaction, B1 in written reception, A1 in written production, etc.).

In many cases, it may seem that using the CEFR levels to define teaching aims in global terms makes it unnecessary to analyse language requirements or formulate aims better suited to teaching contexts. The concept of a competence profile implies that not all the languages taught necessarily have the same aims, that not all the competences are necessarily imparted, and that some courses may even be focused on just one language activity (e.g. audiovisual or written reception).

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Level 0 - Pre-primary education
Level 1 - Primary education or first stage of basic education
Level 2 - Lower secondary or second stage of basic education
Level 3 - (Upper) secondary education
2.3.2.2. Points of convergence between languages as subjects and languages used in teaching other subjects

Global definition of language knowledge and proficiency levels is one thing, but other forms of convergence are also possible:
- between language(s) of schooling taught as subjects and used in teaching other subjects;
- between the main language of schooling and minority language(s) used in teaching other subjects;
- between subject teaching of various foreign languages: inclusion of common principles and certain technical/methodological aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education in the curriculum;
- between foreign languages taught as subjects, and foreign languages used in teaching other subjects (EMILE, etc.).

Less research has been done on linkage:
- between 1) the main language of schooling and minority language(s) used in teaching other subjects, and 2) foreign languages used in teaching other subjects;
- between the main language of schooling taught as a subject, and one or more regional or minority languages taught as subjects;
- between 1) the main language of schooling and one or more regional or minority languages, both taught as subjects, and 2) foreign languages taught as subjects.

Convergence seems easiest to accept and achieve between foreign languages, or between languages in subjects and languages as subject. Because they often have an identity-building function, it may well be hardest to link languages of schooling and regional/minority and migration languages, both with one another and with foreign languages. In fact “ease of connection” depends very largely on how they are linked in primary school: if rigid divisions are rare on that level, resistance may well be less than in secondary school. None the less, all these languages and lessons share certain values which are relevant to developing intercultural competences.

It must be emphasised that effective convergence in the above cases depends on learners’ being aware of the actual or potential links, building on them and coming to see how languages work.

Such convergence may open the way to long-term strategies for the progressive introduction of plurilingual and intercultural curricula.

To ensure that the curriculum really hangs together, an integrated competence profile for all languages should be detailed in a single document, and for a given context, emphasising the special importance of each skill (for social communication, cognitive development, intercultural education, ability to think in metalinguistic terms, learning to function autonomously, critical citizenship, etc.).

2.3.3. Intercultural competence, a transversal objective

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

2.3.4. The role of competence standards

It may be useful (at least with a view to piloting and evaluating the system) to specify “minimum” and “expected” language competences for non-language subjects, and for each and all languages too. These could take the form of key competences to be imparted (not defined in terms of levels) or competence standards (in levels).

These standards should be aimed less at measuring and ratifying progress than at defining competences which schools promise to teach all pupils, in accordance with their right to a good
education (basic standards). Standards can also be based on the average results which most pupils can achieve (normal standards). The main point is never to lay down standards without first empirically verifying that a sizeable percentage of the learners in each cohort stand a real chance of attaining them. It is not uncommon for expected proficiency levels in a first foreign language on completion of secondary schooling to be decided arbitrarily, often on the basis of mistaken ideas concerning progression from one level to the next.

2.4. CONTENT AND ORGANISATION OF LESSONS

The “action-geared” approach is central to the CEFR’s vision of language use. It sees language learners and users as social agents, and so defines competence levels essentially in terms of the communication tasks which learners have mastered in the language(s) concerned. At the same time, the Council of Europe has no preferred teaching methodology: “A fundamental methodological principle of the Council of Europe [is] that the methods to be employed in language learning, teaching and research are those considered to be most effective in reaching the specific aims agreed in the light of the needs of the individual learners in their social context” (CEFR, 6.4.). None the less, since it has made plurilingual and intercultural education a shared objective (cf. Chapter 1) in Europe (and elsewhere), a few methodological approaches to realising these educational aims are suggested below. The goals specified (often in terms of competences) also have a structuring effect on lessons, determining some of the activities they involve.

2.4.1. Lesson content

Curricula can follow different lines. They can specify the competences learners should be taught, the proficiency levels they should reach, and the attitudes they should have. They can also specify lesson content. They can, for example, specify the content of modern language teaching in terms of words (e.g. family vocabulary), forms (e.g. verb conjugations), structures (e.g. interrogative sentences), language acts (e.g. complaining), themes (e.g. young people), social scripts (e.g. going to the cinema), etc. All of these approaches have their merits, but we must not forget that they structure the subject to be taught - and so pre-determine the specific ways in which it is to be taught/learned.

The question here is: among the possible forms and the many socially and culturally valid types of content, which are likeliest to facilitate the organisation of plurilingual and intercultural education?

We shall thus consider the various types of content chiefly with reference to the ways in which they inter-relate in plurilingual and intercultural education.

2.4.1.1. Discourse genres

Discourse genres are one - but not the only - strategic category which curricula can apply to the language dimensions of all subjects taught. A discourse genre is the form which communication takes in a given social context and communication community. These communication situations are identified as such by a number of parameters (place, types of participant, etc.), and one or more forms of discourse are specific to them, e.g. conference, news item, anecdote, dispute, myth, prayer, etc. In content, structure, and the more or less ritualised and customary language it employs, verbal production tends to follow rules peculiar to these situations (or communication events, as D. Hymes terms them).

We can use this concept of “discourse genres” to define linguistic communication competences (in the language of schooling taught as a subject or used as a medium of instruction for other subjects, and in foreign languages):
- because the names of the various genres are part of our everyday vocabulary, and are thus the form in which language immediately presents itself to speakers;
- because “discourse genre” is less abstract than “text type” (narrative, injunctive, expositional, argumentative, etc.) - although these categories can still be used to label text sequences, and thus serve as skill descriptors;
- because the concept can be used to identify morphosyntactic and lexical content, insofar as discourse genres can be described using linguistic categories. Discourse genres have formal, more or less consistent and regular features, which can be apprehended in terms of a text’s structure, or the “propriety” of the statements it contains, i.e. their compliance with accepted rules and
conventions which determine the correctness of the discourse genres used by a given community, e.g. chemists, geographers, historians;
- because the concept seems essential to the teaching/learning of languages: discourse genres are not universal forms of verbal communication, but are usually peculiar to certain discourse communities, which vary between - and within - languages (discourse modes of the various scientific disciplines).

It is not true, as many people think, that literary genres are the only ones - which is why discourse genres can link disciplines.

A speaker’s or discourse repertoire comprises the discourse genres which he/she has at his/her command, in one or more languages, to differing degrees and for various purposes, at a given time. But the concept of a discursive repertoire can also be used to define the communication profile which language teaching aims at by listing the various discourse genres which learners are supposed to be capable of using (or in which they are able to participate), receptively and/or productively, in verbal communication.

The criteria on which decisions to teach certain discourse genres are taken may include their significance for social and working life (e.g. letters asking public authorities for information), personal relationships (discussion with friends), knowledge acquisition (reading school textbooks), information (TV news bulletins) or aesthetic experience (modern poetry). It is important to:
- select the genres to be taught (always remembering that the same genre can be tackled on various levels of language proficiency) for entire stages of schooling, and to create crossover links between different languages, and also different subjects. For example, literature lessons may require the use of academic genres, e.g. those of literary criticism, stylistic description and literary semiotics;
- divide genres between the various stages of schooling;
- define language aims (particularly morphosyntactic aims) with reference to their salient characteristics.

2.4.1.2. Competences to be communicated linguistically

In the CEFR, competences comprise the “knowledge, skills, attitudes which language users build up in the course of their experience of language use and which enable them to meet the challenges of communication across language and cultural boundaries (i.e. to carry out communicative tasks and activities in the various contexts of social life with their conditions and constraints)”19. In other words, they are “the sum of knowledge, competences and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions”20 and which “underlie the use of language at whatever level”21. The CEFR22 distinguishes two categories: general (individual) competences - those which we use for activities of all kinds, including language activities - and communicative language competences. The latter have three components (each comprising knowledge, skills and know-how, culturally tagged): linguistic (lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, orthoepic); socio-linguistic (markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk wisdom, register differences, dialect and accent); pragmatic ( discourse and functional competence, and interaction and transaction schemata).

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19 CEFR Notes for the user, 2
20 CEFR 2.1.
21 The Guide for users of the CEFR (p.16) stresses that the term “level” does not refer to the learner’s proficiency in using the language.
22 CEFR 2.1.1 and 2.1.2 and 5.1 and 5.2; cf. also Guide for users of the CEFR pp. 29-39.
5.2.2. Sociolinguistic competence

5.2.2.1 markers of social relations
5.2.2.2 politeness conventions
5.2.2.3 expressions of folk wisdom
5.2.2.4 register differences
5.2.2.5 dialect and accent

5.2.3 Pragmatic competences

5.2.3.1 discourse competence
5.2.3.2 functional competence
5.2.3.2 interaction schemata

CEFR, panorama in Chapter 5

This typology can also be combined with that for language communication activities, set out in Chapter 4 of the CEFR.

It can serve as a starting point for specifying language competences other than competences in foreign languages, always remembering that the CEFR was framed for the latter (cf. 2.4.2.1), and that these descriptive categories and the whole typology must not therefore be applied as they stand, but must be adapted, reconfigured or expanded, as the case requires. Where the language of schooling is concerned, they should be applicable to the language dimensions of literature teaching, and to use of the language of schooling as a medium for knowledge acquisition in other subjects. While the CEFR (Chapter 4) specifies communication activities (oral and written interaction, production, reception and mediation), breaking some of them down into sub-categories, it says nothing explicit about competences relevant to contact with literary texts (in spite of the ludic and aesthetic competences described in sections 4.3.4 and 4.3.5), or the identity-building functions of languages. For both, the proposals embodied in the Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education can be consulted.

More information can be found in the part of the “Platform of Resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education” devoted to “reading” in the section “Language as Subject” (www.coe.int/lang).

This typology is useful in seeing the individual in holistic terms, with competences which “interact in complex ways in the development of each unique human personality”\(^{23}\). One can see how this approach helps plurilingual and intercultural education to reconstitute the speaker’s unity through the diversity of his/her language repertoire. It activates the language dimensions of various learning strategies which are transversal or common to several subjects, and organises skill transfers from one language to another. The effects of these transfers (of competences and knowledge) are not merely negative, as is frequently asserted. Different subjects can help learners to acquire the same skill, in different fields and using different teaching aids.

Examples include the written reception strategies which bring very similar hypothesis-deduction indices and patterns to the comprehension of texts in close or related languages (Germanic, Slav, romance, etc.) or “existential competence” as an aspect of intercultural competence, since that dimension can develop through various educational experiences in the teaching of languages and/or the social sciences.

The teaching strategies used for formal and communication competences have obvious points of contact in the foreign language field; for example, written reception processes are comparable, and so are oral reception strategies. In strictly linguistic areas, those teaching strategies can also generate teaching methods identical or very similar to those used for languages of schooling, when these are the learners’ first languages (this therefore includes regional/minority or migration languages when these are taught), e.g. for text production, which may be based on set models, as well as on creativity techniques (production with constraints). In the same way, the “ability to learn” dimension of intercultural competence is important in learning both “foreign” and identity-founding languages.

\(^{23}\) CEFR.1.1.
2.4.1.3 Variability

Schools are places of diversity:
- of learners, of the composition of their language repertoires, and of the structure and form of their social and cultural affiliations;
- of schools themselves, and particularly the language of schooling, which represents a new form for all who learn it - a form which differs in part from the one they normally employ, and which must be used carefully and accurately;
- of the forms of the language of schooling which may, in the classroom, be close to ordinary speech, or shift towards controlled, "elevated" and academic varieties, transitions between which should be noted;
- of the discourse genres used in the school, which vary from subject to subject;
- of languages (particularly “foreign” languages), and of the discursive and cognitive forms peculiar to discourse communities (including the discourse practices of academic subject communities);
- of lesson content, which may be given many different forms (verbal, non-verbal) and of the ways in which it is transformed/transposed when mediated, e.g. by teachers (reformulation of textbook statements).

This generalised diversity makes it necessary to give learners:
- an awareness of the ways in which languages, exposition and discourse genres, social behaviour and values can vary, also over time;
- a certain ability to spot the forms these variations can take and their effects (e.g. misunderstandings);
- an ability - certainly limited, but important - to manage these variations for themselves, in accordance with context and the aims of communication (moving from one language, register, medium, etc. to another) or assumed identities (behaving like a foreigner, trying to pass unnoticed in another society by adopting its rituals, etc.);
- an ability to identify the norms governing approval of certain types of language and behaviour, and stigmatisation of others (for reasons of social distinction, scientific validity, functional efficiency, values, etc.) and an awareness of the crucial role of these variations.

The attention thus paid to learners’ perceiving variations from a standpoint outside their own (i.e. not treating their own norms as “natural” and universal) is one of the chief ways of thinking aimed at in plurilingual and intercultural education (cf. 2.4.1.5), and can certainly be translated into aims and activities which relate from subject to subject, and also forge other links between them.

2.4.1.4 The components of intercultural competence

The CEFR defines certain general competences which cover declarative knowledge (academic and empirical knowledge of the world; sociocultural knowledge, cultural and intercultural awareness); skills and know-how (social, practical, technical and vocational, cultural and intercultural skills); existential skills (attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles, personality factors - culturally marked and subject to variation); ability to learn and heuristic competences (language and communication awareness, ability to study, and to discover others). This text will not deal with existential skills in the general terms used in the CEFR, but will discuss them specifically, insofar as all subject teaching (particularly when focused on languages) must seek to develop them in learners.

Identification of shared teaching content relevant to intercultural education may be facilitated by the fact that the competences to be developed are not necessarily linked solely to the teaching of (“first” or “foreign”) languages: learning to react in non-ego/ethno/sociocentric ways to certain aspects of societies different from one’s own, or to “unknown” cultures (e.g. scientific cultures). These reactions can be verbalised perfectly well in either a “foreign” or “first” language. Sometimes, indeed, it may be best to use the latter, so that learners can fully express their thoughts and feelings - although some concepts and discourse genres are obviously peculiar to a given language or culture, are difficult or even impossible to translate, and so can be grasped only by those familiar with the language or language variety in its original context, whether that be another society or another discipline.
Content relevant to intercultural education can be defined on the basis of competence/knowledge reference grids like those suggested by M. Byram, developed at the European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz, or taken from other sources\(^{24}\), and also on the basis of those selected for the White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue or used in the Council of Europe's Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters.

We shall here describe a version of the intercultural competences model proposed for foreign language teaching (Byram 1997\(^{25}\)), adapted for the teaching of all languages and language varieties/discourse genres:

- **knowledge**: this means knowledge of a social group, its products and practices, and also of the general processes of individual and societal interaction. This social group may be located in another society, and may also be comparable to, and function like, a social group (occupational, subject-based, sport-related etc.) in one's own society, to which socialisation/education at school gives access;

- **ability to understand (to interpret and make connections)**: the ability to interpret a document or event in another social group (in one’s own or another society), explain it and relate it to documents or events in one’s own environment. Interpretation may be based on general explanations (e.g. causes and effects, as interpreted in the social sciences), the meaning which social agents assign to events in their own reference area, or the meaning assigned to them by outside agents/observers applying their own categories, assessments and values;

- **ability to learn/ability to do**: the ability to acquire new knowledge concerning a social group or its products and practices, and also the ability to put one’s knowledge, attitudes and abilities to real-time use in communication and interaction. This is clearly a personal interaction strategy, but it also means knowing how to act in a previously unfamiliar social context;

- **critical cultural awareness**: regarded as crucial, this is defined as the ability to evaluate, critically and applying explicit criteria, the viewpoints, practices and products of a previously unfamiliar social group - in one’s own or another society - and of the social groups to which one belongs. “Explicit criteria” reflects the need for awareness of the unconscious values on which judgments and prejudices are frequently based. Critical awareness must necessarily involve learners, and is radically unlike any activity outside their experience. Its purpose is to develop their cultural and social activity in a way which prompts them to question (and distance themselves from) received ideas.

This critical dimension is a vital aspect of intercultural competence, and resembles the active commitment expected in education for democratic citizenship, which the Council of Europe is promoting as a way of realising its fundamental values. The aim is to develop or create abilities which make learners more open to all forms of otherness, while respecting democratic values.

Every one of the subjects currently taught in schools can - with all its special features, which must not be minimised - become even more clearly a place for plurilingual and intercultural education if it makes room for activities linked to those transversal fields which have just been described, paying special attention to its own language-culture, and to opportunities of developing the various components of intercultural competence.

### 2.4.1.5. Reflexive competences in language learning

Thinking about language is another point of contact between subjects. The aim of this educational project is not simply to help learners to acquire language competences, but also to lead them back to languages themselves, and help them to see and understand how they work. Giving them an awareness of their language repertoire, of how it is built up over time and evolves (and thus of the different lingua-cultural identities aimed at or assumed) is one of the forms this reflexive process takes. One of the aims of developing intercultural competences is precisely to “place” each individual as a social agent, characterised by multiple affiliations and aware, both of the extent to which these affiliations can vary, and of the power which he/she and others have to modify them.

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Convergence in the teaching of different languages can be organised in a way which makes learners aware of the plural nature of their repertoire, and the transversal and metacognitive character of their activities and insights, when they put them into words. Wherever this accords with educational traditions, the presence of reflexive/metalinguistic activities linked to the languages taught (comparison-gearied, and using an approach which starts from the repertoire languages) is thus one element in plurilingual education and - insofar as a social group’s concepts and discourse genres are always made explicit in language - intercultural education too:

"[…] the development of plurilingual and pluricultural competence promotes the emergence of linguistic awareness, and even of metacognitive strategies, which enable the social actor to become aware of and to control his own ‘spontaneous’ ways of handling tasks and, in particular, their linguistic dimension."

Thus metalinguistic reflection becomes one of the elements in a didactics of plurilingualism and can be defined as:
- developing the ability to think about all aspects of language and communication;
- being able to move outwards (from the meaning of statements to their organisation, and also from one language to others);
- being able to manipulate forms within discourse genres.

The purpose of reflexivity, as a metalinguistic activity, is to objectify learners’ intuitions concerning the way in which languages work (e.g. judgments on “grammaticality” in their first language) and relate them to academic descriptions which may use categories which do not refer to individual languages (quantification, aspect, language acts, etc.). Grammatical activities of this kind, in which learners are not simply given information on grammar, but also play a part in constructing it, may lead to comparison of languages (foreign languages with one another and with the principal language of schooling), and to a deeper awareness of the intrinsic variability of all language systems, and the conditions which determine variations, in spite of the norms (school norms included) which make for stasis. These competences are developed by metalinguistic activities, engaged in by learners with learners, and by learners with teachers, in the various language lessons, and should be encouraged in all subjects, focusing on their distinctive discourse genres.

Grammatical terminology may also prompt constructive reactions. One might try, for example, to harmonise it, particularly for closely-related languages - but entrenched descriptive traditions would probably make this difficult. Even if attempts at standardisation were abandoned, a list of the terms applied to comparable phenomena in several languages could still be compiled for observation purposes, yielding multiple definitions and visions of grammatical forms and their values, and providing excellent material for study and reflection (e.g. the tenses called “passé simple” (simple past) and “passé composé” (compound past) in French, which focuses on form, and “passato remoto” (distant past) and “passato prossimo” (recent past) in Italian, which focuses on aspect).

A wide range of specific activities, intended for classroom use and designed to develop comparison skills, already exists. These were devised in the 1980s, as part of the work done on language awareness, and in the 1990s, in connection with projects like EVLANG (Eveil aux langues: language awareness in primary school; Socrates project, Lingua action D) and EOLE (language awareness, openness to languages). Their aim is to promote positive attitudes to language diversity, encourage language learning, and develop learners’ ability to observe and think about linguistic data other than those which apply to the language of schooling.

The Framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures (CARAP), presented in the book Across Languages and Cultures, details - in section A6, Similarities and differences between languages (knowing that such similarities and differences exist) - a comparative approach which is not restricted to languages, and to their grammatical and formal aspects only:

27 Candelier M. (ed.) (2007): Across Languages and Cultures (ALC), European Centre for Modern Languages (Graz), Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg/Graz (www.ecml.at → Publications and other Results → Results 2004–2007 → C4)
6.1. Knowing that each language has its own system
6.2. Knowing that each language has a specific way of representing reality
6.3. Knowing that the categories mother tongue / language of education are not defined in the same way in another language
[...]
6.5. Knowing that there is not a word-to-word equivalence between languages
6.6. Knowing that words may be divided up differently from one language to another
6.7. Knowing that the organisation of utterances may differ from one language to another
6.8. Knowing that different systems of script function in different ways
6.9. Knowing that there are similarities and differences between verbal / non-verbal communication systems from one language to another
6.10. Being familiar with [aware of] one’s own reactions towards differences (linguistic/language-related/cultural)
6.11. Knowing that cultural differences may be at the root of problems in verbal/non-verbal communication/interaction
6.12. Being familiar with strategies which help to resolve intercultural conflict
6.13. Being familiar with some correspondences/absence of correspondence between the mother tongue/language of education and other languages
[...]

ALG/CARAP, p. 48

These reflexive and distancing competences are thus relevant both to intercultural relations and to learners’ ability to react critically to the opinions, knowledge, concepts and discourse genres which they encounter. In other words, they all contribute to critical intercultural citizenship, have their place in plurilingual and intercultural curricula, and help, when properly used, to develop intercultural competence.

2.4.2. Organising lessons

Our insistence on crossover linking of subjects - a typical feature of plurilingual and intercultural education - by no means implies that we want current approaches to subject teaching (“national”/“regional” languages, migration languages, foreign languages, etc.) to be supplanted by something new, globalising and undifferentiated.

The activities we have mentioned are suited to all courses, including language courses. But one can also try to organise them as teaching techniques, as coherent activity groups, e.g.:
- encourage alternation between languages in teaching the language of schooling, the regional/minority or migration language, and foreign languages (all stages of schooling);
- use plurilingual aids (e.g. films or TV programmes in original, sub-titled versions) with all separate-languages as subject (secondary school);
- organise “plurilingual” courses focused on a specific communication competence: e.g. mutual comprehension between two or more closely-related languages (above all, foreign languages) (upper secondary school);
- use partly shared terminology to describe teaching activities or indeed for certain linguistic categories, when working on related languages (secondary school);

or even, sometimes, in new subjects, e.g.:
- civic education courses and training for democratic citizenship (secondary school);
- lessons concerned with communication, human language(s) and comparative analysis of all languages (all stages of schooling);
- lessons focused on developing plurilingual linguistic creativity (writing workshops) (all stages of schooling);
- courses focused on epistemology, the production and discourse genres of knowledge, and the sociology of knowledge (upper secondary school);

For practical reasons, the level 3 elements (6.1.1, etc.) are not reproduced here.
- introductory courses on the great works of literature/philosophy/political theory/social science, etc., (chiefly) of European origin, in the original language or translation (secondary school);
- introductory courses on film classics (upper secondary school);
- courses focused on discovering national TV styles (secondary school).

Particularly at pre-primary and primary level, language awareness activities introduce children to language diversity and plurilingualism, and use a consistent, planned approach to help them discover crossover links between languages.

A plurilingual and intercultural approach also involves building curricula around forms of activity which open the way to (or promote) exchange between teachers, between teachers and learners, and between learners. Classroom activities can usefully be organised from this angle:
- in preparing students for autonomous language-learning later;
- in project groups (e.g. planning and making a visit to another country); the important thing here is collective organisation of the project. The benefits which this micro-task brings will depend on each learner’s expression needs (i.e. a personal curriculum), and are not easily determined in advance;
- in tandems (mutual instruction);
- in learner groups based on level, proficiency, language, etc., or any combination of those criteria;
- in activities and tasks: these typify teaching/learning processes, insofar as they involve “the strategic activation of specific competences in order to carry out a set of purposeful actions in a particular domain with a clearly defined goal and a specific outcome” (CEFR, 7.1).

We must also consider what balances to strike between various suggested activities:
- authentic or “real-life” activities, “chosen on the basis of learners’ needs outside the classroom, whether in the personal and public domains, or related to more specific occupational or educational needs”;
- more specifically “pedagogic” activities, which “have their basis in the social and interactive nature and immediacy of the classroom situation” (CEFR, 7.1), have meaning for learners, involve them in real communication, are relevant to the learning situation, are demanding but do-able, and produce an identifiable outcome;
- intermediary, “metacommunicative” activities, which focus on thinking about implementation of the task and the language used to carry it out;
- activities essentially focused on access to meaning, or particularly concerned with form;
- etc.

It is important to bear in mind here that everyone is entitled to a good education, and that the approaches outlined above help to ensure that they get it. This is why we must provide special activities to help pupils with learning problems to attain common standards of proficiency and have the language experiences they need to develop as speakers, people and social agents.

Finally, it is also vital that plurilingual curricula give learners an open choice of foreign languages, and every encouragement not to opt only for the ones considered most useful for work purposes or easiest to learn. This can be done by:
- making learners aware of the purposes served by knowing languages, the role played by social perceptions of their practical utility (which, for any given language, can be assessed only with reference to a specific context) and their contribution to personal development;
- promoting autonomous learning (particularly with the help of language resource centres);
- devising curriculum scenarios for that purpose (cf. Chapter 3);
- making institutions of higher education aware of their responsibilities in this area; university courses offer another opportunity to learn new languages (and not simply stay with those studied in secondary school);
- making it possible for learners to acquire partial competences in languages related to those they know or have studied already (e.g. intercomprehension);
- offering courses aimed (like some of the approaches listed above) at skills-acquisition in one or more languages; for example, separate-subject teaching of one foreign language could open the
way to separate-subject teaching of another new language (and not simply be used, as often happens, to improve an already-known language).

Some of these teaching/learning methods - even those not designed for that purpose - are already suitable for use in constructing plurilingual and multicultural curricula. In return, plurilingual and multicultural education can provide a general, unifying framework to regulate them as they proliferate.

Increasingly diverse approaches to teaching make it necessary to vary teaching format - usually several classes a week - as far as possible. This weekly pattern may suit other subjects, but is not necessarily right for languages. Other forms should also be tried out: “Intensive phases (several hours in one day or within a short period) may be alternated with extensive phases, with teaching approaches corresponding to differences in pace [...]. Frequency need not be regular” (cf. Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe, section 6.5.2). Extensive forms, which are the commonest, probably reduce the efficiency of teaching and learning. We must not forget that learning a language (like learning other competences) is a long-term process, and that progress cannot be measured over too short a period. The institutional logic of school years and cycles, with progressively higher goals for each, may eventually trigger a kind of inflationary dynamic, leaving most learners unable to achieve the final aims set them, because they are not given the time needed to do so.

2.5. A VITAL ELEMENT: TEACHER TRAINING

The implementation and success of any curriculum depends on teachers, and the ways in which a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum modifies their role must be considered. The very fact that it requires them to shed old teaching habits makes it essential that they should accept it. They also need to be convinced that intercultural education itself is useful, since the only ability it tries to develop is not a native one. They must be made to feel that they are helping, together, to develop their pupils’ plurilingual repertoire.

There are already several reference lists of the competences needed by foreign language teachers involved in this kind of project29 (Appendix III contains a model specification). All of these can serve as a starting point for working out a standard inventory of the competences required in a given schooling context. They can also be used to plan and organise the basic and further training that go with them.

To show what we mean, we shall here run over some of the new types of expertise required30 of teachers involved in plurilingual and intercultural education:

- a detailed knowledge of the way in which bilingual/plurilingual people “function”;
- the ability to set realistic targets for acquisition of the plurilingual and intercultural competence aimed at;
- the ability to build on learners’ language repertoires;
- the ability to activate strategies for transfers from one language, competence or subject to another;
- the ability to manage language alternation in the classroom judiciously and in a controlled manner;
- etc.

Above all, it is important to:

- assess teachers’ readiness to accept innovation (e.g. by subject);
- start from teachers’ interest in learning procedures and the problems which may face learners who are not proficient in the language/discourse genre of their subject or schooling in general;
- identify parts of the new curriculum which require special training;
- anticipate resistance, and find rational and educationally sound ways of dealing with it.

This calls for training strategies which lead teachers to see their role differently, transcend subject boundaries and all work together. This is a complex issue, and specialised psycho-social research is needed to process it.

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29 Michael Kelly, European Profile for Language Teacher Education - A Frame of Reference (2002), study prepared for the European Commission; Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages, ECML project (www.ecml.at → Publications and other results → Results 2004-2007 → C3)
30 GDLEP-Main, pp. 85ff.
One of the chief new features of this project is that it requires language teachers to co-operate in many different ways. The possibilities include co-operation between:
- modern foreign and classical languages;
- language(s) of schooling (including regional/minority/migration languages) and modern foreign languages, both taught “as subjects”;
- language(s) of schooling, regional languages, minority languages and migration languages, all taught as “languages in other subjects”;
- language(s) of schooling and regional/minority/migration languages, and modern foreign languages, both groups being taught as “languages in other subjects”;
- language(s) of schooling and regional/minority/migration languages “taught as subjects”, and the same languages taught as “languages in other subjects”;
- modern foreign languages taught “as subjects”, and modern foreign languages taught as “languages on other subjects”;
- etc.

Because the inter-relationships are in theory so “abundant”, it is necessary to identify the most strategic and accessible “meeting points” (accessible, for example, because teachers share the same professional culture) between teachers in the same language field (foreign languages, languages of schooling, etc.), or between teachers with the same pedagogical problems (languages used to teach other subjects, languages taught as subjects, minority or neglected languages, etc.). “Points of professional interest” must also be identified and used to initiate transfers and complementary links between subjects, without altering their social and cognitive basis (at least during an initial phase, which may be very long). These “points” may be principles (e.g. social values aimed at in science lessons), teaching aids (plurilingual aids used in teaching the language of schooling or foreign languages), methods and activities (oral production strategies; class papers in all subjects), approaches to evaluation (how to evaluate a collective project), metalinguistic activities (observation and activities centred on anaphors in the various kinds of text studied in language subjects) (cf. 2.3).

Decisions on how teachers should co-operate must take account of existing situations (e.g. interdisciplinary projects already up and running), teacher motivation in specific places, and available resources (including time) - and are thus conditioned by contextualised local decisions.

2.6. APPROACHES TO ASSESSING LEARNERS’ PROGRESS

All curricula indicate the knowledge and competences which schools will evaluate - as a rule verbally, i.e. with much depending on learners’ command of the subject’s discourse genre - and describe the ways in which they will be “measured” (normative/summative evaluation). Language proficiency is also assessed by outside institutions (public, semi-public and private), which award certificates and offer certain guarantees of homogeneity and transparency. Their services are much in demand, particularly for employment purposes. The CEFR has been widely used in devising these certification procedures. In addition to meeting these social requirements, teachers assess learners’ progress, continuously or at regular intervals, for the purpose of guiding them better. They do this in a more informal, less measured way, but always with due regard to equity (formative evaluation).

In the case of plurilingual education, evaluation must reach conclusions cautiously. After all, it is trying to describe a transversal competence on the basis of its multi-form manifestations (in the repertoire languages) - a competence whose precise nature is still under discussion, and which has not generated an agreed reference list of sub-competences, like the CEFR. In intercultural education, knowledge or competences (e.g. the ability to interpret unfamiliar societal phenomena) can be evaluated, but attitudes are another matter, and evaluation becomes suspect when unsupported by scientific research or experiment: are “intolerant” students to be given “bad” marks?

And so, evaluation of plurilingual and intercultural competence will essentially be formative, although the possibility of summative evaluation cannot be ruled out.

It seems safe to assume that certificate-awarding bodies operating on the language market (above all, those outside the school system) will be in no hurry to risk themselves in this area, where no-one has decided what can in fact be evaluated, and formal qualifications are, as yet, little in demand. In-house evaluation (within the group or school) is thus the main issue. This can be based on:
- self-evaluation procedures of the kind proposed in the European Language Portfolio for plurilingual competence, and the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters for the intercultural dimension;
- exercises or tests which are used in teaching specific languages, but can also highlight transversal competences which involve linguistic mediation or encourage students to use other languages in their repertoire;
- identical tests in different languages (same competences and same evaluation criteria), whose results are “collectively” rated by specialists in various language fields; the latter could focus on the strategies deployed in exercising communication skills, either global (e.g. written reception) or metalinguistic (ability to interpret unknown terms in context, formulate a pattern from observation of a random text body), or on more limited shared elements, such as oral and written expression of discourse/cognitive operations (e.g. the ability to define, quantify, compare, etc.) common to the discourse genres concerned;
- the ability to switch appropriately from one learned or known language to another in oral or written, improvised or rehearsed activities (flexibility).

Summative or certification evaluation requires that teachers in various subject areas be given collective training in these two techniques and absorb the same evaluation culture - which is actually the rule for persons evaluating standard summative tests. It usually involves parallel tests in each of the languages concerned, evaluation of competences (in oral, interactive form) by a pluridisciplinary panel, or the cross-disciplinary tests referred to above. It must not, however, be forgotten that this competence has many facets and is not reducible to the sum of its parts (competences in each language and each discourse genre).

For more information, consult the study, “Assessment in plurilingual and intercultural education”, Peter Lenz, Raphael Berthele (2010). (www.coe.int/lang)

### 2.7. EVALUATING IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Curricula also indicate how often, and how, they are to be evaluated, the aim being to establish whether the school system as a whole has attained the goals they specify. The purpose of evaluating the system in this way is to review, for example, the validity of the language profiles aimed at and decide, above all, whether they are realistic (whether a substantial proportion of learners can achieve the set specific aims in the time they are given to do so), how they affect approaches to teaching and learning, and whether the teaching trajectories designed to produce these results are well suited to their purpose. This task is a necessary and complex one, since it involves identifying indicators and using them to measure outcomes. It also requires adequate - and possibly substantial - funding.

The information needed concerns learner performance and attitudes, and teaching staff’s perceptions of the curriculum and learners. It comes from direct (classroom) observation and document analysis (syllabus texts, texts defining aims in given schools, class records kept by teachers, etc.). It is also important to describe the reactions of valuees (opinions, feelings, criticisms and suggestions for change, etc.).

Many different criteria are used to evaluate linguistic performance (extent to which tasks are completed in accordance with instructions, creativity, flexibility, formal and phonetic accuracy, textual coherence, linguistic and discourse propriety, etc.). The criteria chosen condition evaluation of the whole system. They may be partly based on approaches to quality control of language teaching of the kind proposed by the European Association for Quality Language Services (EAQUALS), in the PISA and OECD survey protocols, and in the protocol (and findings) of the European Commission’s survey on language competences (European Indicator of Language Competence).

It is often very difficult to answer when asked about teacher effectiveness, i.e. the relationship between the resources deployed (classroom hours, teachers’ posts, etc.) and the average results obtained. Experience shows, however, that this political question is largely conditioned by social perceptions (including those of decision-makers). Frequently, these reflect the view that the teaching provided in schools does not meet needs or is of poor quality, which national/regional authorities sometimes give as a reason for asking other educational institutions, or even the private sector to take over teaching.
(particularly of foreign languages), or evaluation of competences acquired at school. Delegation of this kind can generate social inequalities, and possibly obscure the true aims of education. For valid conclusions to be drawn from such “evaluation”, the findings must always be illuminated and qualified by allowing for non-classroom factors (presence of languages in the environment, distance between the languages concerned, etc.).

The holistic approach may well help to produce the effectiveness aimed at, since it sets out to decompartmentalise lessons and lift them outside the class-group (age-group) context, and weekly timetables too: it introduces the idea that language and discourse-genre acquisition may also depend on other, more flexible and diversified ways of organising the curriculum.

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A summary document like the present one cannot cover all aspects of planning curricula geared to the aims of plurilingual and intercultural education. In conclusion, it must be emphasised that the plurilingual and intercultural approach runs counter to the current separation of disciplines, which derives from subject identities forged in the past, and from professional cultures regarded as distinct. It involves spending extra time on co-ordination, negotiation and the management of complementarities. However, like other visions of language education which look beyond languages per se, it seeks to promote schools which are, in the full sense, educational communities and genuinely educate their pupils - and not just lesson factories. To repeat a point already emphasised, what we are saying here is that one of the main factors for success is communication and co-ordination between all those involved in implementing the curriculum: political authorities, ministries and directorates, school principals, school boards, teachers, parents, universities and research bodies, learners themselves and other civil society agencies (teachers’ associations, cultural associations and centres, language centres, libraries, institutes of education, chambers of commerce and industry, firms).

In other words, trying to “revolutionise” curricula is unrealistic. On the contrary, we need to find ways of moving ahead progressively, taking existing subject-area patterns as our starting point and trying to forge links between subjects. It goes without saying that the teaching of every language will retain its own special features. Integration may be part of the aim - but convergence is the real target. Of course, the forms convergence takes will not match any single model, but will depend on our finding ways of linking subjects which make due allowance for educational contexts, background, resources and potential. “Reconstituted” along these lines, the holistic approach to language competence cannot fail to benefit all the processes of learning.
CHAPTER 3

Elements for curriculum scenarios geared to plurilingual and intercultural education

Having first laid down a number of principles for design of a curriculum geared to plurilingual and intercultural education, Chapter 1 suggested a few ways of integrating the various components of such a curriculum. Chapter 2 looked more closely at some curriculum components determined at state/regional (macro) and at school/institutional (meso) level, and went on to give examples of ways in which convergence between languages could be secured. The present Chapter 3 goes a step further and considers the whole question in terms of chronology - of the placing in time (phasing) of the contents and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education. To speak of a curriculum is necessarily to speak of continuity of courses and of teaching.

3.1. CURRICULUM SCENARIOS

In what follows, we shall be focusing on “curriculum scenarios”, which we define as follows:

A “curriculum scenario” is one way of simulating, overall and in broad outline, conceivable adjustments in the school curriculum for each of the languages taught and the relationships between them. Each scenario seeks to link a choice of aims for the school system with a way of organising the curriculum which is calculated to realise them.

A curriculum scenario is, in other words, both an instrument and an advance organiser, which can be used, before anything is actually done, to simulate the operation of curricula which link longitudinal and horizontal coherence.

Before a curriculum becomes operational, it may indeed be useful to start by simulating its workings and effects. This simulation:
- focuses on the overarching aim which, in this case, is plurilingual and intercultural education;
- takes account of other, supplementary aims, which point the way to educational projects and educational profiles for pupils - future adults and citizens - in a specific context (international / European / national / regional or local / school);
- is based on a thorough knowledge of the socio-linguistic characteristics of this context and its language requirements;
- covers approaches to organisation and implementation which may be highly diverse.

The purpose of simulation is thus to select, from the various possible ways of organising a curriculum, the one which matches - most accurately and, when necessary, economically - the specific requirements and possibilities of a given context.

It makes it possible to:
- define general profiles for language and (inter)cultural competences, some specific to a given language, others applicable to all;
- plan from the start for longitudinal coherence, covering staggered, parallel, successive and/or intensive language learning;
- lay the foundations of horizontal coherence - to be implemented by individual schools - between language courses on the “language as subject” side, and between language and other courses on the “language in other subjects” side.

32 The CEFR itself uses the term “scenario”, but gives no exact definition of “curriculum scenario” or the distinctive features of that concept, leaving readers to infer them from the ideas and, above all, examples of actual scenarios put forward in the text. Cf. also above, 1.1.5. - Curriculum scenarios and curriculum coherence, and 2.1.3. - Stages in designing a curriculum.
### 3.2. THE EXPERIENTIAL DIMENSION OF THE CURRICULUM

One principle embodied in a curriculum which implements the right to a good education must feature in every scenario: for a language-learning culture to develop, learners must experience a range of different learning modes. Because certain methods are dominant, it is not uncommon for a whole generation of pupils to encounter just one approach throughout their schooling, particularly in the case of foreign languages. However, with a view to effectiveness (maintaining motivation, avoiding the ceiling effect) and also to making future learning more autonomous, it is better to vary learning methods, and use a series of different approaches - first experienced, then reflected on - in teaching pupils languages and showing them how they work.

This is why a plurilingual and intercultural education project must not only specify specific aims and levels to be reached, and basic knowledge/key competences to be acquired, but must also indicate the kinds of experiences which learners will need to be provided with in order to continue to learn in favourable conditions...

One way of illustrating the types of experience which learners’ language education rights require them to have is to divide them between the various stages of schooling. But this division is relatively arbitrary, and tends to ignore new and costly practices. The experiences we highlight are those which seem most consistent with the approach we adopt in this text. The ways in which elements and approaches suggested in curricula combine and interact do more to realise the aims outlined here than their merely cumulative effect. These “experiences” can refer both to one-off events and to processes lasting some time.

From the earliest stages of schooling, some of these experiences can trigger reflexive activity, which teachers can initiate or encourage, and which can be recorded by and for pupils (using methods like those of the European Language Portfolio).

The following illustrative lists cover only some of the possible elements, but those elements could be incorporated into all the prototypical cases and all the scenarios outlined later in this chapter - gradually, of course, but as experiences which are desirable for all children and adolescents at school.

#### 3.2.1. ISCED O: pre-primary

At this stage (nursery school, kindergarten), which is not normally compulsory and not equally a part of all state school systems in Europe, there are certain experiences which can be considered important because of the children’s age and the period of cognitive, affective and social development they are going through. The following list of learning experiences is not to be viewed as an ordered syllabus. Selection and relative weighting can be varied to suit context. It is important that children experience:

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

b) **education geared to respect for otherness**
   - listening to others, but silence as well;
   - the rules of interaction within groups (not all speaking at once, knowing how to listen, but also how to get a hearing, etc.);
   - comparing interaction practices peculiar to a given culture (e.g. in parent/child relations);

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33 Cf. Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education: *Plurilingual and intercultural education as a right* (2009) (www.coe.int/lang Platform... Box “The learner and languages present in the school”)

34 This type of experience is crucial for children who come from underprivileged backgrounds or speak regional, minority or migration languages.
c) **diversifying forms of expression**

- the relationship between the body, the spoken word, rhythm, etc.;
- projection of the spoken word, in gesture and movement (physical expression, theatricals, listening to fairy tales and stories, etc.);
- first forms of oral literacy (little poems, rhymes, tales) and other first steps towards full literacy (handling and looking at various types of book, albums, etc.);
- other forms of literacy specific to certain cultures represented in the class or social environment;
- role-playing games which encourage participants to switch registers (simulating everyday situations, etc.);
- guided enrichment of means of expression (linking incidents in a story, enlarging vocabulary, improving word-choice, etc.).

d) **multimodal and multisensorial experiences**

- contact with various semiological and graphic systems (use of signs, artistic forms, music from more than one cultural tradition), including multimedia communication;
- restitution in one expressive mode of content registered through another sense (listening to a piece of music and then talking about it, listening to a story and producing a drawing based on it);
- learning to control gestures, particularly in connection with preparing to write.

e) **foreign languages**

- a first foreign language and culture, possibly based on counting rhymes in languages spoken by other pupils: depending on context, this may range from awareness through play to early immersion;

f) **reflexivity**

- first forms of reflection on languages, human communication and cultural identity, which are within children’s (affective and cognitive) reach.

It will be noted that various countries already have many practices which match the above-mentioned types of experience. Following the approach adopted here, these should be highlighted to focus attention on the importance, both of recognising and building on various forms of plurality (of languages, modes of expression and communication, cultural practices), and of the factors which first start to structure this plurality and enrich the language capacities of children.

As spaces for discovery and socialisation, pre-primary schools represent a basic stage in plurilingual and intercultural education, particularly for children from underprivileged and migrant backgrounds, whose language practices at home may conflict with the varieties and norms selected and fostered by schools. To that extent, and since the issue here is the right to quality language (and general) education, one of the first desiderata is that schooling of this kind for very young children be guaranteed and provided in optimum conditions for all the groups concerned - both permanently resident natives and recently arrived immigrant families.

**Defining competence profiles and evaluation**

Depending on contexts, something in the nature of a threshold to be reached, or exit profiles at the end of this period of schooling, may be considered. Extreme caution is needed here, however - first, because ages and entry conditions vary greatly and, secondly and chiefly, because the diverse backgrounds and environments of the children admitted lead to differences in rhythms and modes of adjustment to school life. This is why it would be premature, even dangerous and potentially discriminatory, to set language proficiency levels for admission to primary school. Other approaches are now used in an effort to ensure that every child is equipped, before starting primary school, to pursue his/her schooling successfully - which is fully in keeping with everyone’s right to quality education.35

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

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- that school, which is (with others) a place for exploring and learning, and also for relating to others in ways somewhat different from those experienced elsewhere, promotes these processes of exploring, learning and relating to others chiefly through the medium of a single common language, and
- that this language is both variable and subject to certain rules;
- that school also recognises and accepts other languages and language varieties, as well as other forms of expression and communication, which can contribute, alongside the emergent common language, to exploring, learning and relating to others, but do not - usually - have the same status as that language;
- that school is a place where children acquire the ability to learn and operate in this common language, and that this involves text (oral discourse, written discourse, oralised written matter), words, verbal behaviour and training, as well as a certain self-discipline which extends to play and creative activities;
- that school is open to social and cultural plurality, which is itself a valuable aid to exploring, learning and relating to others; awareness of its value must be mediated by adults (teachers and other school operatives), and also by children among themselves.

Pre-primary schools sometimes adopt a highly “intuitive” approach to profiles (varied) for learners, whose competences are often assessed without suitable observation and evaluation instruments. It is particularly important to give teachers the resources they need for this, not with a view to formal measurement or access tests for each level, but so that they can support each child’s language development to optimum effect (cf. note 31).

3.2.2. ISCED 1: Primary school or first years of basic education

Primary schools in most national systems are chiefly focused on developing literacy - on teaching children to read/write/handle figures, and making them aware of the functions, power and constraints of the written word, in terms of knowledge-building, success at school and in a future career, active citizenship, cultural appreciation and, more generally, personal fulfilment. Being educated (and not simply taught) to write is thus one of the most important education (not just language education) rights 36. Nonetheless, the experiences provided by primary schooling must not stop there, as the following list makes clear:

a) learning to read and write / literacy
- becoming aware of the differences between, and special features of, language activities: reading and writing (two language activities with different functions, which are useful and complementary in all learning processes);
- discovering and experiencing the various functions of the written word (as means of overcoming physical and temporal distance, and preserving knowledge and the past, as heuristic and ludic tool, as instrument for working things out);
- being introduced to the written word (codification and variation of relationships between sounds/graphic signs/meanings, functional aspects and aesthetic dimensions, calligraphy, graphic poems, etc.);
- discovering and observing plurality of graphic systems (with special reference to the various languages present in pupils’ repertoires);
- starting to think about discourse genres at school (textbooks, classroom presentations, interaction within groups, etc.) and outside (media, etc.), including new technology-based forms;
- experiencing similarity and diversity of genres and forms of literacy in other cultures.

b) metalinguistic and metacultural reflection
- learning to use metalinguistic tools (dictionaries, vocabulary lists, including those based on multimedia);

36 However, written competences must not be taught at the expense of working on oral practices and representations, whose complexity and diversity need highlighting precisely because they play such a crucial role at school and outside, and are often seen as a “given” - an area where correcting usage is more important than building discourse competences. This is particularly important for vulnerable groups, whose use of the spoken language may be stigmatised rather than acknowledged and developed by schools.
- learning to use metacultural tools (atlases, encyclopaedias, audiovisual materials);
- experiencing variations (historical, geographical, social, written/oral, etc.) in the language of schooling; awareness of the historical relativity of spelling rules, as well as their grammatical, communication and social functions.

c) decoding and using semiotic resources other than languages
- observing and interpreting the conventions and workings of semiotic modes other than natural language: diagrams, histograms, double-entry tables, particularly when used to present school-subject data (history, geography, life sciences) and for ordinary social purposes (press and other media);

d) awareness of written literature and personal expression
- ongoing efforts to foster awareness of word-play, and of the form and content of literary texts likely to stimulate sound and visual perception, imagination, and a desire to memorise, share and describe, as well as to write and read other texts oneself;

e) self-evaluation and peer-evaluation
- using a personal class-record to note and keep track of work done, and record personal reactions to the course;
- becoming aware of self-evaluation, and evaluation of and by peers; acquiring the habit of keeping a personal portfolio (in conventional "written", computerised or multimedia form).

f) global linguistic and intercultural education
- participating in activities which foster language awareness and openness to languages;
- becoming aware of differences/similarities between languages, and of scope for partial inter-comprehension between related languages;
- participating in activities which encourage comparison of phenomena specific to various cultures;

g) foreign languages
- going through the first stages of learning to speak and write a foreign language, and becoming aware of multi-/pluriliteracy in the process;
- experiencing culture-specific phenomena expressed in that foreign language and comparing them with similar phenomena already encountered;
- establishing reflexive links between the foreign language and language of schooling (focusing on similarities or differences, as appropriate);
- experiencing simple forms of bilingual teaching and practice (actually using the foreign language in a few activities and lessons).

The above list is neither exhaustive, nor ranked in order of importance, and applies only to certain dimensions of language teaching within the broader context of primary schooling. It may, however, be thought too ambitious at this level, and likely to over-burden the curriculum - possibly with negative effects on the most vulnerable groups. This danger must obviously be considered, but our own view, in terms of education rights, is that:
- language education, at the stage when writing and reading abilities are developing, is decisive for subsequent schooling;
- it is nonetheless important that language abilities developed at school should connect with the child’s existing abilities, and not be formally compartmentalised;
- progress in using the language of schooling depends on allowing for the range of variation which every language accommodates (diversity and variability), and seeing variation as the background to all the rules and norms which must be known and mastered;
- the learner’s lexical, syntactical and discourse abilities must be systematically expanded, which demands regular, methodical work, and - far from being limited to language training per se - benefits from being closely linked to activities, learning processes and conventions of use in other school subjects;
- preserving and reinforcing plurilingual and intercultural openness on this level of schooling helps children to perceive the diversity/variability of the common language of schooling, and grasp and master the rules and norms which govern it;
- primary school is the ideal place to implement this integrative, structuring approach, varying practical details of doing so in accordance with contexts and educational cultures.

**Competence profiles and evaluation**

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

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

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

These learning experiences rely heavily on the written word, as both classroom subject and medium of instruction. At the same time, it is also vital at primary level - particularly for children who come from underprivileged backgrounds and/or do not speak the language of schooling at home - that oral expression and interaction are in no way neglected, and that these competences are continuously developed in close connection with the work done on the written word and written texts, care also being taken not to turn the latter into models for spoken usage(s) in school.

### 3.2.3. ISCED 2: Lower secondary level or end of basic schooling, and ISCED 3: Upper secondary level

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

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

As a rule, compulsory schooling ends before ISCED 3, where courses are diversified (general education, technical education, commercial education, etc.) in different ways and to differing extents, depending on national or regional contexts. We shall be discussing ISCED 2 and ISCED 3 together at this juncture, but shall obviously not be forgetting that this differentiation (both synchronous and diachronous) of courses has wide-ranging effects on curricula. Taking lower and upper secondary schooling together helps to make the point that schools must give all pupils - wherever they are in their studies, and whatever those studies may be - the opportunity to learn from experiences like those described below. It goes without saying that the form these experiences take, and the demands they make on learners, will depend on the latter's age and inclinations.

Preparation for activities involving mediation, interpretation and evaluation of texts and documents of various kinds is the most important thing which experiential curricula should cover at these stages in schooling. These activities are focused on school and academic subjects, but are also socially relevant in the outside world. Reflexive, metalinguistic activities also increase at this point, as do - above all in certain streams - text modes connected with technical and pre-vocational practices. Bearing these various dimensions in mind and employing a summary classification, we shall note the following experiences here:

a) mediation, interpretation, evaluation

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

b) metalinguistic and metacultural reflection

- observing different grammatical approaches to the “same” linguistic functions or grammatical phenomena (and relativising descriptions and terminologies in accordance with conceptions and viewpoints);
- work of the educazione linguistica type (an integrated approach to the various language disciplines - language of schooling and others - one of its aims being metalinguistic, meta-communication reflection) and development of transferable competences;
- thinking about the language forms and functions deployed in, and in connection with, the above mediation, interpretation and evaluation activities;
- thinking about the cultural differences reflected in the connotations and wording of concepts, and the difficulty - even impossibility - of translating some of them;
- critical analysis of the ethical/moral motivation of behaviour in one’s own and other cultural environments (critical sense of cultural relativity, ability to identify with other cultures);
- awareness, partly generated by other disciplines (history, geography, philosophy, law, etc.), of variations in the weight of languages, and of the power relationships which develop between them in communities and, more generally, on the political, economic, cultural and other levels - and also of the factors which determine those relationships.

c) **diversification of language-learning modes**
- bilingual teaching, and work on multilingual dossiers and aids;
- documentary research with the help of sources in languages learned at school or known otherwise;
- enlargement of the learned language repertoire, inter alia by learning the classical languages;
- autonomous learning, e.g. at a documentation centre, of the rudiments of a foreign language;
- thinking about the use of various resources (in school and outside) to learn languages and achieve a better command of them;
- linguistic and cultural study visits (preparation, monitoring, individual and collective records, empirical absorption of cultural data) and/or virtual international exchanges;
- work experience in firms and/or abroad for vocational students;
- familiarity with text modes and communication formats associated with technical operations and with preparing for trades and professions which rely on specific language media (plans, digital simulations, estimates, contracts, etc.); analysis of salient cultural expectations in commercial transactions (status of contracts, etc.).

d) **collective projects, activities and operations**
- prepared and structured or improvised debates on topical issues, followed by retrospective evaluation of the discussion, the arguments used, the level of information required, etc.; experience of, and reflection on, culture-specific modes of discussion and argument;
- external surveys (carried out by small groups, pooling and formatting of findings, collective reflection and evaluation);
- class newspapers, books of poems, multimedia projects, involving group work, distribution of roles and responsibilities, negotiation and decision-making.

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

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

### 3.3. MODES OF ORGANISATION SUITED TO SPECIFIC CONTEXTS

“Curriculum scenarios” must seek to implement the principles stated and elaborated in the preceding chapters, and try to make curricula horizontally and longitudinally cohesive, while taking full account of contexts. It is, of course, true that allowing for specific situations and contexts automatically generates different organisational patterns - but it has to be said that these patterns frequently ignore some of the principles and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education.

The following section will illustrate this by focusing on several prototypical cases, which occur with varying frequency in most school systems, and lend themselves particularly well to “scenario treatment”:

1. introduction of one foreign language at primary, and another at lower secondary level (ISCED 1 and ISCED 2);
2. teaching of languages at secondary vocational level (short course) (ISCED 3);
3. teaching of regional languages from pre-primary to upper secondary level (ISCED 0 to 3);
4. bilingual lessons from pre-primary to upper secondary level (ISCED 0 to 3).³⁷

³⁷ Cf. also for the ISCED, Note 14.
In discussing these cases, we shall not reiterate the experiences mentioned in 3.2, which are a necessary feature of every curriculum scenario, although relative importance, combination and sequence may vary.

In all the prototypical cases we have chosen, some measures have already been introduced. However, these may not be entirely satisfactory, and other options - more effective and more consistent with the principles of plurilingual and intercultural education - are possible. The scenarios outlined below try to illustrate these possible alternatives.

A word of warning is essential here, however. Every scenario is consistent and valid in a given context only. The number of possible scenarios is infinite, and their contours are dictated by an infinite number of variables, which derive from the special features of each context. This means that the following outline scenarios have no reference value, and cannot be applied to clearly defined and specific situations. They are simulation exercises, allowing us to visualise in vitro the range of possible choices which we shall have to make in vivo when taking policy decisions on designing curricula for various forms of plurilingual and intercultural education.

3.3.1. Prototypical case No. 1 - Introduction of one foreign language at primary, and another at secondary level (ISCED 1 and ISCED 2)

This is the commonest pattern in European school systems. The basic decision here is the decision to stagger teaching of the two foreign languages, introducing the first at primary (ISCED 1) and the second at secondary (ISCED 2) level. Except in English-speaking countries, the first foreign language is usually English, and the second German or French, Spanish or Russian. These dominant choices inevitably have some effect on the organisation of curricula.

Very many contexts where this is the pattern have certain recurrent features, i.e.:
- there are ceiling effects with foreign language No. 1, and lesson effectiveness diminishes;
- foreign language No. 2 gets less attention or is undervalued (although teaching aims are usually ambitious, given the few years and hours available, and the consequent compression of courses);
- successive or parallel teaching of the two languages is not linked.

A scenario for adjustment of the curriculum might cover:
- for foreign language No. 1: either diversification of teaching methods (bilingual teaching in various forms, more reflexive learning, access to outside media), or suspension of lessons once a certain level had been reached and tested, with resources being transferred to the second or, perhaps, a third foreign language;
- for foreign language No. 2: at all events, recognition and validation of the proficiency acquired, e.g. applying the CEFR descriptors;
- with a view to openness: an approach to foreign language No. 1 geared to acquisition of knowledge and abilities which can then be applied in discovering foreign language No. 2, and an approach to teaching the latter which builds on competences acquired in the former;
- in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2: linkage between learning a foreign language or languages, and working in/on the language of schooling.

The expected learner profile on leaving school would cover solid and reasonably balanced proficiency in the language of schooling for all language activities, an asymmetric command of the two foreign languages and, within each, of oral reception and production on the one hand, and of written production on the other. The language activity of mediation should be explicitly included, and would be one area where the various learning processes involved in acquiring plurilingual and intercultural competence would come together within the context of a global language education.
3.3.1.1. Basic scenario and comments for prototypical case no. 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROTOTYPICAL CASE N° 1: Introduction of one foreign language in ISCED 1, and a second in ISCED 2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>BASIC SCENARIO</strong> - Gradual diversification of languages and progressive introduction of their everyday use in the overall curriculum</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>General description</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>The first foreign language - related or not to the language of schooling - is introduced at a very early stage in schooling. Openness to other languages and cultures is also fostered from the outset. The second foreign language, which is introduced at the start of ISCED 2 may be unrelated to the first. The aims and methods of teaching it differ partly from those for the first, but build on the competences acquired while learning it. Crossover links and convergences are established between foreign languages and the language of schooling. A third foreign language is offered in ISCED 3, but is learned in new ways. Foreign languages spread into, and become normal in, various subject areas. Access to their communicational, cognitive and aesthetic uses outside school is strengthened and diversified, depending on languages and streams. The competences involved in mediating between languages, between languages and knowledge, and also between cultures, are increasingly deployed. At all stages in schooling, the (inter)cultural dimensions are worked on in connection with languages and other subjects. In the course of their school career, all pupils have access, in one way or another, to all the learning experiences listed in 3.2.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ISCED 0</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Aims and approaches</strong></td>
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<td>In most European countries (some do not have it), this first level of schooling provides - after anything nursery school may have contributed - a first setting for socialisation, bringing together children from different socio-cultural and language backgrounds. Its task can be described as:</td>
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<td>- Accepting, allowing for and building on children’s (possibly plurilingual) language repertoire, as they spontaneously display it; ensuring that this diversity is regarded by all the children as a normal feature of everyday life.</td>
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<td>- Exposing children to the main language of schooling as something used in the same matter-of-fact manner by teachers and other school staff for many different purposes: interacting with children, giving instructions and advice on activities, reading texts aloud, etc. The status of the language of schooling is clearly established, but its use relies on a wide range of discourse modes and variable socio-linguistic norms (e.g. those which, depending on the activity, govern speaking and listening). Pupils become familiar with formal and grammatical correctness by hearing teachers use them in this everyday way, by listening to and memorising songs and poems, and from simple re-phrasing of things they have said which are “wrong”.</td>
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<td>- Making appropriate use of word games based, for example, on sounds, imagination and lexical creativity (counting rhymes, etc.). Other languages (particularly those spoken by certain children) can also form part of this process.</td>
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<td>- Preparing children for learning to write which, apart from gestural training, and control of movement and proportions, involves making them aware of the existence of different modes of writing and conveying meaning in signs, and introducing them to calligraphy.</td>
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<td>- Highlighting cultural diversity with the help of resources within the class group and the school’s environment, story-telling, songs, festivals, products, decoration and posters. Relying, not on the exotic and folkloric, but on the surrounding community’s multicultural dimensions; presenting cultural diversity as the everyday norm.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Whenever a foreign language is already taught at this level, employing a game-based approach and making any explanations interesting, without insisting on the learning function.</td>
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<td>In short, the aims of pre-primary schooling in this area are: to accommodate language plurality, open children’s minds to cultural diversity, establish the status of the language of schooling and familiarise children with its normal conventions, while also - informally and with the help of various illustrations and activities - helping them to master it and realise its potential.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ISCED 1</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Aims and approaches</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Where the language of schooling is concerned, educational and linguistic cultures may vary considerably, depending on its status, its grammatical complexity, its formal characteristics, the extent to which it is standardised, the existence of regional variants, etc. The approach to the first foreign language (usually English in Europe), which is introduced at various ages and rates, is mainly communication-focused. Defining an aim as a level to be reached by the end of ISCED 1 (e.g. the CEFR’s A1 rating) is becoming standard practice. Having regard to these fairly general characteristics of ISCED 1, and building on the points made in 3.2.2., the following lines are, or can be, envisaged:</td>
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- Link work in/on the language of schooling and learning of the foreign language in various ways:
  - by drawing, in specific cases, on elements learned from the foreign language (forms of address, polite phrases, etc.), or even introducing new ones elsewhere in the general curriculum (physical education or other courses, classroom instructions); conversely, by not forbidding (or refraining from) use of the language of schooling in foreign language classes;
  - by making various comparisons (linguistic and socio-linguistic aspects, cultural practices) between the language of schooling and the foreign language; by making simple points, which catch children’s attention without “formalising” learning of the foreign language, or creating or reinforcing stereotypes; by adopting, instead, a “language and culture awareness”-type approach, and connecting it with any experience pupils may have of other languages and cultures;
  - by using the work done on both languages (and possibly contacts with other languages present in the school) to make children aware of the relativity of certain language norms; by encouraging them, in this way, to start looking beyond their own language (whether this is the language of schooling or not) and take a more generic view of language phenomena.

- Make learners realise that the foreign language has various social uses outside the classroom. This is hardly difficult with English, but the urban environment, the media, the internet, certain parents, etc. are resources worth exploring and may, in connection with uses of the foreign language (whatever it is) lead to activities in (and to the benefit of) the language of schooling.

- Discuss (and exploit) pupils’ “deviant”, “incorrect” language practices, to highlight their own internal rules, pragmatic effectiveness and creativity, but also the ways in which they fall short of what the school - which has its own norms and preferred approaches to knowledge-building - requires. The aim here is not to contrast the language of the school with usage dismissed as linguistically unacceptable, but to focus on variations, continuities and possible re-phrasing games. The aim indeed is twofold:
  - to “de-canonise” the language of the school by pointing out ways in which it diversifies internally, and also ways in which it connects with (its) “external” usages;
  - to use this diversification and these connections to help learners to absorb it more effectively.

- If the first foreign language is related to the language of schooling, it may be useful to introduce pupils to a language which is “remote” (but may also be widely spoken), and even teach them a few basics, with a view, not to learning it, but to developing a certain contrastive and metalinguistic awareness (part of general language education).

- If the foreign language employs the same graphic system as the language of schooling, its written forms should be introduced rapidly, and the extent to which starting to read in both languages is possible be ascertained.

### ISCED 2 Aims and approaches

This stage in schooling is a sensitive area in most school systems, since it leads to the end of compulsory schooling - to a point where some pupils leave school, while others go on to higher education.

The aim for all is:
- development of plurilingual and intercultural competence, barriers between the learning of different languages having been removed;
- relative diversification of language-learning methods;
- preparation to benefit from the presence of many different languages outside the school.

Salient features of the approach adopted at this stage include the following:
- At least as many hours are devoted to learning the second foreign language as were devoted to the first;
- The methods used in learning the second foreign language are not necessarily those used in learning the first. More emphasis may be placed on certain competences (e.g. reading);
- In teaching the second foreign language, marked continuity with lower secondary education is sought by building on competences acquired at that level, but approaches may also change here: a wider range of working methods, reflexivity in learning, more learner autonomy (learners think about their ways of learning, and their personal strategies for comprehension, expression and self-assessment);
- Pupils use some kind of portfolio to record their progress, preserve work they have done on foreign languages (or indeed the language of schooling), and think about their language biographies and trajectories as up-and-coming bilingual learners.
- Using a portfolio, under their language teachers’ guidance, also helps to make them aware of actual and potential contact points and of differences noted, between languages, between cultures, and between ways of approaching them.
- The first foreign language (and even the second) is used at least occasionally in some non-language lessons, and/or pluridisciplinary projects.
- International exchange schemes and projects (sometimes remote and virtual) can get pupils involved and lead to the setting-up of networks of foreign correspondents for various foreign languages. These initiatives are carefully planned, implemented and monitored to ensure that the foreign languages learned (not just the first one) and the language of schooling are used on themes which are likely to raise intercultural issues. Various forms of (inter)linguistic mediation are mobilised by co-operative exchange of this kind. Languages not taught, but present in the school and used by some pupils and their families, can feature in these projects.
- the language of schooling taught as a subject relies on instruments and approaches which can also be used in learning foreign languages: classification of discourse genres (including those used outside school), literary analysis and criticism, critical analysis of media, heuristic tools for description and analysis of language. All of these are equally valid for foreign languages, and are enriched by them. This two-way traffic fosters learning and feeds contrastive reflection.

ISCED 3
Aims and approaches
Depending on domain streams, trajectories and syllabuses vary widely at this level, and the many options available make it impossible to generalise. However, it is safe to say - on the basis of the points made in 3.2. and the approaches adopted for ISCED 2 - that the following aims are shared by all of them:
- Opening pupils’ eyes to the ways in which languages are used outside school, and giving them the instruments, methods and strategies they need to derive maximum benefit from the wealth of learning resources they embody: media, real and virtual mobility, etc.;
- As part of this process, going beyond the ordinary communicative uses of language (including the second and a possible third foreign language) and cultivating its knowledge-building, aesthetic and creative functions;
- Continuing to work on mediation competences (re-phrasing in another language, intra- and interlinguistic translation, switching from one discourse genre to another), so that mobilisation and comfortable use of the plurilingual repertoire and various discursive registers become increasingly “spontaneous”; the language of schooling plays a major part in exercising these competences - and benefits from them.
- In short: making the use of plural languages for plural purposes an everyday feature of school contexts which are themselves part of a life-long education project;
- Recognising and validating the competences acquired, not only in the language of schooling and the first foreign language, and not only in terms of levels of communicative proficiency in each language, but also in terms of mediation abilities, so-called partial competences and the plurilingual profiles actually attained.

The approaches followed in pursuing these aims are obviously - as they have to be - extremely varied:
- where and how pupils work: classroom, resource centre, library, home; supervised, autonomous, individual or collective, on the spot or at a distance;
- learning methods and aids: continued varying of the trajectories and activities proposed (no adherence to the rhythm and routine of largely standardised modules and lessons);
- more variety in the methods used in teaching different languages in ISCED 3, and in teaching each of them (avoidance of the dangers of the “ceiling effect” and enrichment of the learning culture: inter-comprehension strategies, bilingual teaching sequences with partial immersion in, or alternation of, languages;
- introduction of “inter-language” moments, aimed at prompting pupils to think about learning methods, styles and formats, and at facilitating transfers between different learning experiences: helping pupils to become expert learners (complementing the possible use of various kinds of portfolio or record).

Comments and additional remarks
This so-called “basic” scenario departs in some notable ways from most current practices. Compared with the actual situation in European school systems, it may well seem unduly ambitious, both in the level it expects pupils to reach (particularly at lower and upper secondary level), and in its proposals on organisational questions and the roles of teachers. Moreover, as we have already said of all the scenarios outlined in this chapter, the indications given above are inevitably incomplete and
insufficiently specific. They need to be expanded, simplified, and specifically tailored to local constraints and possibilities - and, above all, the relative importance of the aims selected in a given context.

This first scenario is strongly focused on plurilingual and intercultural education. Chapters 1 and 2 have provided a clear statement of the concepts and arguments employed, and have also highlighted areas and paths of convergence which can be used as a basis for designing plurilingual curricula - and Prototypical case No. 1 (and its basic scenario) must not be seen in isolation from the points made in those chapters. It is, moreover, slightly “special”, since it is regarded as being (with multiple variations) the commonest in European contexts. To that extent, it constitutes a kind of background, lending relief to the other prototypical cases described below. At the same time, it is never pure and undiluted, but is always - depending on the context - influenced to a greater or lesser degree by those other cases.

Chapter 3 can thus be used to:
- identify the prototypical case which seems most relevant to a given situation (3.3.);
- analyse suggested scenarios for this case - with reference, first and necessarily, to the experiential dimensions of any curriculum (cf. 3.2.) and, secondly and more optionally, to the scenarios for other prototypical cases;
- review the possibilities for types of intracurricular organisation (cf. 3.4.) which may be suited to the context concerned.

Obviously, this is a complex process, since the path from principle to practice is never a straight one\(^{38}\).

Two different scenarios will be proposed for each of the three other prototypical cases described below. As with the first, both are geared to plurilingual and intercultural education - but they differ in the extent to which they propose integrating teaching of languages, and in them:
- the first scenario is essentially based on synergies which are to be progressively established between the teaching of different languages;
- the second is based more broadly on the overall dynamic of the curriculum.

3.3.2. **Prototypical Case N°2 - Language teaching at secondary vocational level, short course (ISCED 3)**

Curricula for short vocational secondary courses of ten differ from those for other streams by:
- paying less attention to certain aspects of teaching the language of schooling: this is particularly the case with motivational approaches to reading and literature, although both are necessary parts of life-long learning, and with the development of oral competences\(^{39}\), including those used in discourse genres, both formal (indispensable in adult life) and vocational (useful in future occupations);
- offering a smaller range of foreign language options and/or assigning fewer hours to them;
- failing to take adequate account - in the language of schooling or foreign language(s) - of the language requirements specific to every occupation and essential to exercising it;
- making a distinction between general subjects (including languages) and vocational subjects, even though linking them might benefit learning in general and, above all, help to establish a genuine vocational culture and, within it, vocational competences.
- failing to cover various intercultural aspects which, as we have already indicated, are themselves a necessary vocational competence, mobility being one of the things which depend on them.

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

The status of language teaching in this area is in some ways paradoxical, since vocational students - although sometimes less well equipped than others - are nonetheless first to enter a labour market which is complex, competitive and geared to mobility, and where languages are becoming increasingly

\(^{38}\) Moreover, this whole document is provisional and open to comment by its principal users.

\(^{39}\) Indeed, many school curricula can be criticised, in general, for failing to pay more attention to spoken language, and take full account of its specific discourse modes.
essential. Hence the need to teach them more, faster, in more varied ways - particularly in language (general) and languages (specific), which are vital requirements for adult and working life.

These shortcomings in language teaching (and associated) provision also deprive them of aids to personal development and instruments likely to facilitate life-long training.

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

“Curriculum scenarios” for language teaching in this area should endeavour to:
- find ways of reviving students’ interest in learning languages, and the language of schooling in particular. It may be necessary to work on their sometimes “bruised” self-image, and use teacher-pupil relations and dialogue to give them confidence in their own talents, and pride in the trade they are learning, emphasising that this will make them members of a community of competences (including linguistic, discourse and cultural competences), and making them aware of its inherent dignity and usefulness in and for society;
- emphasise the vocational and practical relevance of language teaching, whose methods and aims should be linked to occupational requirements, using concepts which tie vocational competences as closely as possible to the language competences which are part of them;
- avoid the two opposite dangers which may arise in this context: that of giving language-teaching as a whole a hyper-vocational bias, and that of teaching languages (chiefly, but not only, foreign languages) in “standard” ways which fail to motivate earners or meet their vital needs.

3.3.2.1. Scenarios for Prototypical Case N° 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCENARIO 1</th>
<th>Building plurilingual and intercultural competence within a vocational culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General description</strong></td>
<td>This first scenario sets out to forge strong links between the linguistic dimension of all the languages taught and a) the various aspects of overall personal development, b) the vocational culture which is being generated via the subjects taught in the various streams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ISCED 3</strong></td>
<td><strong>Aims</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In the language of schooling, language competences are linked - as an integral part of vocational culture - to descriptive lists of the vocational competences required in each stream. This approach, which is also valid for the two foreign languages - but to different extents, depending on the total hours allocated to each - also takes account, from an intercultural standpoint, of issues connected both with mobility and with diversity of vocational cultures in other countries. In all the languages taught, encouraging students to read books, newspapers and magazines is seen as one key to life-long learning, which makes it particularly important for learners in this category. This means that choosing books which match their personal requirements and interests, as well as interests sparked at school, is crucial - as is developing effective reading strategies. The general profile of competences which the school gives learners of the three languages include:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- in the language of schooling, the level of proficiency they need to organise their adult lives to optimum effect, and operate as skilled professionals, whose skills extend to languages;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- competences which vary between the two foreign languages, and also within each of them too, depending on language activities, and also the occupation concerned;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- official recognition and certification, valid for starting work, of competences acquired in the foreign languages;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

40. The first scenario described here assumes that learners already have some command of a first foreign language, plus the rudiments of a second. The second assumes that the first - which serves as a kind of “base scenario” - has been implemented

- differential emphasis, in the various streams, on speaking and writing competences, the first usually being seen as more important, although the second must be taken further for discourse genres needed in specific occupations;
- some degree of language specialisation geared to a given occupation, but leaving scope for re-training;
- acquisition of a learning culture, i.e. the ability to use learning resources outside the school, plus the ability to develop independent learning competences, which then contribute to empowerment;
- intercultural competences and flexibility, as assets for starting work, and for working in an international and/or intercultural environment.

### Methods

Communication competences can be consolidated and expanded in various ways, depending on the school’s and the learners’ possibilities and options, e.g.:

- the project-based approach, which is strongly linked to learners’ life and career plans;
- global simulation exercises, which can be used to create virtual environments reasonably close to future work situations;

- virtual and/or real exchanges with vocational schools in countries whose languages have been studied, or in others, using the three languages in rotation;
- in connection with these exchanges, intercultural reflection activities, using instruments such as the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters.

Teaching of the language of schooling, and the first and second foreign languages, is based on co-ordination, which includes:

- taking account of variability/variation of languages, including those in learners’ repertoires;
- making learners aware of the varieties they employ, with the help of materials (oral, written, video, etc.) which use them for literary and artistic purposes;
- extending learners’ repertoires to include more formal oral and written expression modes, which are relevant to their future occupations;
- devising strategies to maintain proficiency in the languages which they know better, and help them to transfer knowledge and competences between languages;
- striking a balance between communication and (meta)reflective activities;
- selecting the activities likeliest to stimulate the (meta)linguistic and (meta)cultural development of learners in this category.

In areas relevant to learners’ future occupations, teachers of the various languages co-ordinate their work with one another, and with teachers of vocational subjects, dividing tasks with a view to:

- making learners aware of the importance of the language and discourse dimensions in their future occupations, and of their future language needs when they are exercising those occupations;
- making learners aware of the importance of the intercultural dimensions in their future occupations, which may require international mobility;
- systematically using, analysing, and making learners use, the discourse genres appropriate to their occupations, in a manner consistent with subject curricula.

### PROTOTYPICAL CASE N°2 - Language teaching in vocational secondary education, short course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General description</th>
<th>SCENARIO 2 - Managing a repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources, with a view to entering employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This second scenario includes the first, but integrates certain aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education more fully - particularly judicious development of a plural repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources. The language of schooling plays a crucial part here.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISCED 3</th>
<th>Aims</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Since learners in this category are often insecure, and sometimes use non-standard language varieties which are frowned on at school, the priority aim is to boost their self-image and self-confidence, and, more generally, give them a stronger sense of identity. Language is - above all and largely - the instrument used to do this.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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42 Many firms are intercultural because they operate internationally. And the same is true of graduates of vocational schools and institutes.
43 Cf. Note 34.
In addition to fulfilling the aims detailed in the first scenario, all language teaching in this scenario sets out to:
- give learners linguistic and intercultural confidence and security;
- teach them to manage their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoire with the help of appropriate strategies, transfers being one of them;
- make them aware of this repertoire and equip them to enlarge it on their own;
- give them the opportunity to experience and analyse diversity and alterity in a work environment, both in their own country and abroad.

The final profile aimed at in this scenario differs from the first less in competences than in:
- greater and deeper awareness of the potential of the individual’s plurilingual and pluricultural repertoire;
- increased strategic competence;
- the ability to use languages in a wider range of situations;
- increased intercultural competence.

Methods

The practical methods used in this scenario involve:
- taking the various occupations as a context for:
  - “meta”-type reflection - discursive, pragmatic and socio-linguistic - aimed at making learners aware of language issues at individual, societal and vocational level;
  - teaching them to take a critical and informed view of the power relationships which language issues generate in society;
- giving them, in the language of schooling and the foreign languages, linguistic mediation competences which allow them to switch easily from one discourse genre to another (from participating in discussion at a work meeting to drafting a report on that same meeting; from speaking at a trade union meeting to producing a press release; from reports in one language to summaries in another, etc.) and also intercultural mediation competences (conflict resolution, explaining different ethical positions, etc.).

To motivate students to learn languages on their own, schools provide various options, e.g.:
- occupation-geared international projects, which involve using all their repertoire languages, plus various media;
- preparation and monitoring (making contacts, writing e-mails, getting in touch by telephone, negotiating the programme, report, etc.) of work-study courses, varying greatly in length, as decided by learners, in firms in countries where the foreign languages they are taught are spoken, or in other countries where their various languages can be used in rotation as the language of communication (linguistic, cultural and vocational immersion periods).

Instead of merely co-ordinating lessons in the three languages, this scenario sets out to integrate them fully, both with one another and with vocational courses, the result being that they all coalesce and reinforce one another via:
- linking of languages in respect of:
  - aims, some of which are shared, while others are specific to one of the three languages;
  - the type of literacy aimed at, and approaches preferred, for learners in this category;
  - the type of (meta)reflection on languages and cultures to be pursued with learners, and with the vocational culture which is to be developed
- linking of languages and specific subjects in respect of:
  - the linguistic and discursive dimension of exercising various occupations;
  - (inter)cultural aspects of the vocational culture;
  - development of a learning culture (learning to learn);
  - the presence in the same workplace of representatives of several cultures.

3.3.3. Prototypical Case N°3 - Teaching regional (and minority) languages44 (ISCED 0 to 3)

To form an accurate picture of the context, and design “curriculum scenarios” to match it, one has to make the following distinctions between regional languages:
- traditional languages unrelated to the majority language of the country, e.g. Basque in Spain and France, Irish, Scottish Gaelic, and Welsh in the United Kingdom;

44 Some of these ideas and suggestions come from the project, Minority languages, collateral languages and bi-/plurilingual education - Interlinguistic Competences and Intercomprehension EBP-ICI of the ECML (http://ebp-ici.ecml.at).
- “major” languages related to the majority language of the country, e.g. Catalan in Spain;
- languages related to, and “collateral”45 with, the majority language of the country, e.g. Occitan in France;
- languages related to major languages in neighbouring countries, e.g. Sorbian in Germany, or Catalan, Corsican and Alsatian in France;
- languages still regarded as dialects, e.g. Picard in France;
- non-territorial languages, e.g. those of Roma or Jewish communities (Romany and Yiddish).

Few of these languages lack standard forms, and some may even have rival standard forms, which can cause problems (cf. the cases of Galicia, Brittany, Occitania, etc.). Their levels of development in linguistic and social usage terms may also vary - which can affect their use in schools as vehicles for teaching other subjects.

Unlike minority languages, which may be the majority languages of other countries and thus well-regarded, regional languages may have to contend with negative prejudices (their proponents are accused of “living in the past”, the usefulness of learning them, instead of the “great” international languages, is questioned, etc.). However, public opinion now seems more favourable to regional languages46 than it was in the past, when far more people used them far more widely.

Some of these languages, which are targeted for revival, are no longer really spoken by children: in these cases, schools are not simply developing and improving a language already in the learner’s repertoire, but - in the fullest sense - transmitting it.

Two different situations must also be distinguished:
- heterogeneous situations, where the regional language may exist alongside other languages, and the number of people who speak it and/or the number of parents who want it taught are insufficient to justify the setting-up of a school or class to teach it or in it;
- fairly homogeneous and homolingual situations, where speakers of regional languages are in the majority, and large numbers of parents want them taught.

In general, the teaching of regional languages in schools should not be confined to those who speak them, but should be a part of every learner’s overall language education, since they reflect and express the country’s cultural wealth: this being so, literary texts in these languages (with or without translations, as appropriate) should feature in literature textbooks - not as witnesses to a lost heritage or memorials to an “atavistic” language, but as examples of living languages, used by real speakers, who ensure their survival in practice. This is why it is important for these languages to keep abreast of the times, not become vehicles for aggressive local patriotism, and form fertile relationships with languages of schooling - and indeed all languages used in and for education.

Designing “curriculum scenarios” for a plurilingual and intercultural education, which respects everyone’s right to quality education, involves total acceptance of the principle - championed by the Council of Europe, among others - that all languages are of equal value, regardless of their social and national status and weight. This means that the school’s role - where regional languages and the people who speak them are concerned - is to inform parents of their children’s language rights47, and provide teaching of, or in, their languages. Practical constraints of various sorts often prevent schools from implementing the rights of regional language speakers fully, but they still have a duty to cater for their needs - and can find innovative ways, in keeping with their resources, of promoting these languages and using them in the curriculum. The basic principle here is that nothing substantial can be done in the field of plurilingual and intercultural education unless children’s home languages are in some way recognised, accepted and taken seriously by schools.

45 “A collateral language is a language in a minorised situation with another genetically close dominant language, such as Occitan with regard to French or Scots with English.” (Cf. Glossary for project EBP-ICI http://ebp-ici.ecml.at/).
46 In the special Eurobarometer survey (2006) - Europeans and their Languages, 63% of the 28,694 respondents thought that regional and minority languages should be given more support
47 Cf. Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education: www.coe.int/lang Platform… → Box “Regional, minority and migration languages”.
The changes in the curriculum, which these “scenarios” should envisage, may:

- emphasise the part played by learning of/in a regional language in expanding the individual pupil’s plurilingual and intercultural language repertoire: the role of competences already acquired in a regional language as link and bridge to the learning of other languages; the role of the regional language’s cultural aspects as first step towards openness to other cultures; awareness of internal variability as a pedagogic aid to understanding the way in which languages change and develop over time;
- encourage learners to think about the regional language and its characteristics, including its proximity to/distance from the majority language and the foreign languages taught, its identity-forming dimension and its lesser status - all with a view to developing a socio-linguistic awareness of the factors which influence the power relationships between languages, and of positive and status-enhancing attitudes and reactions to all languages/cultures, particularly languages/cultures and their preservation;
- raise questions regarding the relationship between a regional language and knowledge-building in the subjects studied at various stages in the schooling process, by determining how long teaching in the regional language should, and can, continue in different cases (presence or absence of languages suitable for this purpose v. danger of acquired knowledge being dissipated if their use ends suddenly; availability of suitable classroom materials).

Finally, these “curriculum scenarios” cannot ignore the vital questions raised by the link between the language of schooling and the regional language when the latter is used as a medium of instruction for other subjects.

One final remark concerning minority languages, for which no scenario will actually be offered, since situations are hugely variable and usually very “sensitive”. The moment when, in certain countries and in accordance with certain school traditions, the balance tilts away from the minority towards the majority language can be difficult. The transition can also be a serious threat to learners and their success at school if it is made too sharply, and has not been prepared for by “meta”-type language awareness and reflection activities, which make them think about the dual dimensions of the minority language as subject and as vehicle for other subjects, and encourage them to transfer knowledge and competences acquired in that language to the majority language.

In any case, other scenarios, particularly those for bilingual teaching (cf. 3.3.4.) - including scenario 2 for more ambitious projects, aimed at revitalising and developing the language - could, with the necessary adjustments, be made to fit both regional and minority languages.

3.3.3.1. Scenarios for Prototypical Case N°3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROTOTYPICAL CASE N°3 - Teaching regional languages 49</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SCENARIO 1 - Upgrading the regional language with the other repertoire languages in a heterogeneous socio-linguistic environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This scenario illustrates minimum measures which should be taken in every context where regional languages are present to a greater or lesser degree. It has two aims: to accommodate and build on the repertoire of learners who speak regional languages and, by the same token, give all learners a global language education by making them aware of the rich benefits of linguistic and cultural plurality and diversity - all for the purpose of fostering open and positive attitudes to otherness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISCED 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The majority language remains the common language, which the class uses in interacting and in the various activities. The aim is to strengthen the children’s identity as speakers of a regional and/or other languages, and make them think about linguistic and cultural diversity, systematically including the regional language under that heading. The profile aimed at includes, in particular, openness to the range of different languages present in the class, and introduction of the idea that languages embody values and are equal in dignity, regardless of their status in the community.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

48 As confirmed by the reports on implementation of the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (www.coe.int/minlang).
49 The first scenario, which is the commonest today, could be used in any other prototypical case to valorize all the languages and language varieties present in learners’ repertoires.
### Methods
Schools accommodate the repertoire of all pupils, including regional languages, via:

- “linguistic and cultural awareness”-type activities;
- direct contact - at school and outside - with speakers of the languages present in the class, the aim being to make pupils aware of the plural languages and cultures which surround them;
- fairly systematic use of the regional language as an aid or springboard in helping children who speak it at home to acquire the language of schooling, following a line similar to that followed for other languages in the children’s repertoires;
- activities involving systematic comparison of the languages present in the class, including the regional language;
- the reading of legends, stories, poems and other fictional texts which refer to the regional language and culture, and to other languages and cultures represented in the class, care being taken to ensure that these texts do not simply convey a traditional, quaint and old-fashioned image of the regional culture, but present it in modern terms and cover modern themes as well;
- stories and fairy-tales told by story-tellers, parents of pupils or mediators who speak the regional or other languages;
- plurilingual posters in the classrooms, including posters in the regional language;
- systematic use of the new technologies in connection with the regional language and other languages in the children’s repertoires;
- songs, poems, counting rhymes, games, etc. in several languages, including the regional language;
- sporadic or fairly systematic use of the regional language in various activity fields.

### ISCED 1

#### Aims
The aim here is less to develop competences in the regional language than to:

- continue thinking seriously about it and, more generally, language phenomena, as part of a global language education;
- use it as a bridge to thinking about other languages, and as a springboard to acquisition of knowledge and competences in the language of schooling and the first foreign language;
- develop positive attitudes to language diversity (openness to languages and cultures, greater curiosity concerning linguistic and cultural diversity);
- acquire strategies for shifting from one language to another (willingness to take risks, flexibility and ease in using communication strategies, including alternation of languages).

In this scenario, the language of schooling contributes specifically to plurilingual and intercultural education by:

- making learners aware, when it is taught as a subject, of its own internal diversity and plurality;
- making them aware, when it is used to teach other subjects, of the many different ways in which the language dimension surfaces in various subject areas.

A first foreign language is introduced.

#### Methods
Regional languages are catered for by:

- using them in specific cases;
- putting up posters in classrooms: written traces, signs and languages;
- again organising language awareness activities.

When the foreign language is introduced, language lessons are co-ordinated on the basis of languages in the children’s repertoires (including the regional language) and their existing competences in the language of schooling.

The approach diversifies, depending on whether the first foreign language belongs:

- to the same language family as the language of schooling or certain languages in the children’s repertoires, including the regional language;
- to another language family.

Schools may also provide for optional courses, periods of intensive immersion in the regional language or other equivalent measures.

### ISCED 2

#### Aims
The language of schooling remains the language used in teaching other subjects.

Teaching of the first foreign language continues, taking it further and putting more emphasis on written proficiency.

A second foreign language is introduced.
Developing mediation competences, problem-solving strategies and management of the plurilingual repertoire - accompanied by socio-linguistic and socio-cultural awareness, focused in particular on the regional language and its relationships with other languages - are the special targets of this scenario at this stage in schooling. The aims are concerned with positive attitudes to languages (including regional languages) and language diversity.

**Methods**
Linguistic and cultural awareness activities foster socio-linguistic awareness, which extends to regional languages, by going more deeply into:
- language families;
- possible family links and continuities between the languages present and taught in the school and other languages;
- variability of languages and the factors which influence it;
- the status of the languages present in the class, and the socio-political factors which determine it.

Assessment covers the competences acquired in the language of schooling, and the first and second foreign languages, but also mediation activities and, above all, openness to linguistic and cultural plurality.

Co-ordination between teachers makes it easier to keep language teaching consistent.

### ISCED 3

**Aims**
Teaching of the language of schooling, and the first and second foreign languages, continues in ever-greater depth.
Socio-linguistic awareness increases, diversifies and becomes more complex as a result of the formative reflection which characterises plurilingual and intercultural education, takes something from all school subjects, and extends to the regional language.

**Methods**
Depending on their resources, schools could give learners various options, e.g.:
- in-depth intercomprehension courses, based on reading texts in languages related to the regional language;
- the chance to spend varying periods of time abroad, inter alia, in regional language areas.

Other disciplines (literature, history, geography, philosophy, comparative literature, art history, economics, law, human and language rights, rights of minorities, education, language policy, language-teaching policy, geography of languages, geo-politics, labour market, history of civilisations, etc.) offer various subject-related perspectives on regional languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROTOTYPICAL CASE N° 3 - Teaching regional languages</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SCENARIO 2 - School use of regional languages in a relatively homogeneous and monolingual environment</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**General description**
This is an ambitious scenario, insofar as it partly gives schools the task of preserving and developing linguistic and cultural diversity by teaching in and of regional languages. This presupposes a thorough knowledge of language rights, as well as committed acceptance by pupils’ parents and, more generally, the community which speaks the minority language. This is one case, among others, in which the Council of Europe’s European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages applies, with specific reference to the role of schools in preserving these languages.

**ISCED 0**

**Aims**
The regional language is used in all the daily activities (routines, classroom activities and projects) carried out by children under teacher supervision, special attention being paid to its cultural aspects (social usages, stories, fairy-tales, proverbs, etc.).
The language of schooling is taught as a subject.
Linguistic and cultural awareness activities are used to focus children’s attention on the regional language’s closeness to/remoteness from (depending on the languages present) the language of schooling.
The aim is to:
- make children feel secure in their identity, and enhance their status as speakers of a regional language;
- strengthen and develop their competences in that language;
- extend their repertoires through learning the language of schooling.
### Methods
Alongside the measures covered by scenario 1, systematic use of the regional language in the classroom and of activities designed to help learners acquire and develop it, with the help of materials suited to their age-group.

### ISCED 1

#### Aims
The regional language introduces pupils to the various subject areas via interactive classroom activities.

- Children can be taught simultaneously to read and write in the language of schooling and the regional language, if the latter possesses a graphic transcription system. It is then used for both writing and reading.
- In the first years of primary school, teaching of the majority language serves the same purposes, and follows the same lines, as the language of schooling in scenario 1.
- A first foreign language is introduced, but still in ludic style.
- Studying history and geography helps children to think about the relationships between language and power, language and territory, and language and mobility.

The global profile aims at:

- For the regional language:
  - very good competences in oral expression, and in oral and written comprehension;
  - good writing competences, when possible;
  - positive attitudes to the regional language;
  - a solid grounding in its culture.

- For the majority language: thanks to knowledge and competences transferred from the regional language, competences equivalent, in all language activities, to those acquired by learners taught in the majority language.

- For the first foreign language: competences which are still those of beginners and uneven, but sound, given the plurilingual context of the class.

#### Methods
Teaching of the three languages is co-ordinated:

- as in scenario 1, the regional and majority languages re-position themselves in relation to the first foreign language;
- ability to mediate between the regional and the majority language is gradually developed by re-formulating in the various subject areas;
- to accustom children to the concept of a continuum, activities focused on intercomprehension between languages belonging to the same family as the regional language are introduced on subject-related themes, with the help of structured materials (e.g. those proposed by the EUROMANIA project, cf. Appendix V).

### ISCED 2

#### Aims
The majority language takes over in the teaching/learning of school subjects.

- The regional language helps pupils to form and formulate ideas in subject classes and group work.
- The first foreign language is taught later.

Plurilingual and intercultural education becomes one of the aims of all language teaching, the purpose being to make learners feel comfortable with their languages, and enable them to move confidently between them in managing their plurilingual repertoires.

#### Methods
Where language-use is concerned, the didactic contract provides for:

- monolingual, and also bilingual or even plurilingual areas;
- language alternation, if a “language breakdown” occurs in any of the above modes;
- interlingual word-play, and also personal use of several languages.

Virtual contacts between schools to start with, followed later by face-to-face discussion with learners of other regional languages within the same family, develop intercomprehension and interproduction via oral interaction centred on shared tasks.

The contributions made by other school subjects help learners to achieve a better understanding of the regional language’s history, and the ways in which it relates both to the majority language, and to other majority and collateral languages in the same family. A feeling for linguistic variation gradually develops, within which the regional language offers food for first reflection on the ways in which languages develop, and their status changes - and also serves as a bridge to learning other languages.
### ISCED 3

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<tr>
<th>Aims</th>
<th>At this stage in schooling, the majority language takes over in most areas. The regional language is used in:</th>
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<td>- studying its literary and cultural forms, and its more formal discourse genres;</td>
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<td>- going further into its linguistic history and development in relation to the majority language;</td>
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<td>- making comparisons with other situations, similar or different;</td>
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<td>- intercomprehension between closely-related languages;</td>
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<td>- studying a few school subjects. Teaching of the first foreign language continues. Reflexivity at this stage in schooling:</td>
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<td>- is based on more detailed comparison of all the languages on the curriculum;</td>
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<td>- enables learners to progress from specific situations they have themselves experienced to more general and varied ones;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- develops and refines socio-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- gives learners a broader and more subtle vision of languages. Apart from its educational aspects, this scenario encourages learners to preserve their regional languages.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| Methods | Depending on streams, the present situation and history of these languages are approached from the standpoint of various school subjects, as in scenario 1. |

### 3.3.4. Prototypical Case N°4 - Bilingual teaching (ISCED 0 to 3)

This prototypical case covers forms of teaching in which one (or more than one) language other than the principal language of schooling is used to teach other subjects, and the usual language as subject areas are enhanced by content from the other disciplines. Two languages of schooling (at least) are thus present together, although one is normally more developed than the other.

The aims of these forms of teaching may differ with the status of the languages (foreign, regional, minority, migration), and vary in terms of:

- the general educational aim (learning a foreign language better, benefiting from the formative aspects of an intercultural approach to languages and other school subjects, training for plurality and diversity of world-views, catering for and recognising a regional, minority or migration language which is in the learners’ repertoire);
- a specific project for the languages concerned (learning a foreign language in depth, improving the status of and/or preserving a regional, minority or migration language, reviving/maintaining a lesser used language, etc.);
- the balance between the various learning processes involved (improved language acquisition in the “weakest” language and/or more varied and beneficial approaches to the building of subject knowledge).

Thinking about curriculum changes in the case of bilingual teaching necessarily covers:

- the “language as subject” dimension for (at least) two languages of schooling and (at least) one foreign language;
- the “language in other subjects” dimension for the languages of schooling and possibly - but less demandingly - the first foreign language;
- awareness of the various scientific cultures which underlie the subjects taught in schools, and the various ways in which they are didactically transposed, depending on school cultures in the countries where the languages taught are spoken;
- the relationship between school subjects and the utility/use of their processes and products outside school;

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50 The European Commission’s Eurydice survey, *Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe* (2008) emphasizes that “In the great majority of European countries, certain schools offer a form of provision in which pupils are taught in at least two different languages”. This “generally exists in primary and general secondary education, but it is not widespread.”
- approaches to knowledge-building in each subject area in relation to the cognitive and discursive processes involved;
- the discourse genres specific to each discipline, and the language competences needed for reception and for oral and written production of those genres;
- the specific academic genres generated by school subjects and cultures;
- the content of other subjects;
- managing contact between languages, and alternating the latter with a view to developing mediation competences;
- preparing teaching materials.

Approaches to organising this kind of teaching depend on the resources which school systems can command, and the competences acquired and training received by teachers. At the same time, it must be remembered, when planning curriculum scenarios, that bilingual education can take very different forms, ranging from the hugely ambitious (and costly) to the more modest (and less expensive). Some all-out models for this type of teaching, which are highly regarded and very much in vogue, may give the - wrong - impression that bilingual teaching is an all-or-nothing business, and that there are no cheaper, less labour-intensive ways of providing it.

The institutional forms which it can take include the following:
- immersion teaching, in which all learning - at least to start with or to a very high degree - is done through the second language of schooling;
- two-way bilingual teaching, which brings together two groups of learners, one speaking the majority language, the other a minority/immigration language (e.g. German and Turkish in Germany);
- one or more subjects taught in one language, and one or different subjects taught in the other, with or without the possibility of alternating the two languages, as time goes on, in teaching the subject(s);
- teaching which uses the two languages alternately in one or more subjects;
- teaching the second language of schooling intensively in the first year, and using it in one or more subjects in subsequent years, alternating it or not with the first language of schooling;
- forms of Content and Language Integrated Learning or Enseignement d’une Matière Intégrée à une Langue Etrangère (CLIL/EMILE), with activities, varying in number and scope, in one or more subjects;
- plurilingual interdisciplinary projects, using all the languages taught;
- using plurilingual aids connected with one or more subjects in teaching languages and/or the subject(s) concerned;
- etc.

In designing a curriculum for bilingual teaching, special attention should be paid to:
- the broad range of situations to which this approach can be applied, and their special features and requirements, to which it must adjust;
- the importance of not concentrating exclusively on the most strenuous immersive models, which often pursue the illusory aim of perfection in both languages - of bilingualism seen as the sum of two monolingualisms;
- the necessity of opting for approaches which take a realistic view of bilingualism, and using more flexible and variable strategies, such as language alternation;
- the danger of teaching only English in this way, on the assumption that, the better one knows English, the better equipped one is in language terms;
- the danger of promoting only CLIL/EMILE-type approaches to the more widely-spoken languages, at the expense of the commoner type of plurilingualism exemplified in the plural repertoires of learners whose languages might benefit greatly from those approaches.

Since everyone has a right to plurilingual and intercultural education, laying down formal admission requirements for this kind of schooling would give it an elitist character at odds with the Council of Europe’s values.
### 3.3.4.1. Scenarios for Prototypical Case No. 4

| SCENARIO 1 - Bilingual education in the language of schooling and foreign languages |
| General description | This scenario sets out to present - somewhat unexpectedly - a bilingual/plurilingual learning process which can be introduced at modest cost, does not require all or some teachers to undergo complex training, and can serve as a first minimum basis and preparatory tested for more ambitious scenarios (cf. scenario 2). |
| ISCED 0 | **Aims** Early education for language plurality and diversity is the aim pursued at this stage in catering for, and recognising, children’s repertoires. At the same time, the language of schooling remains the only language taught as a subject and used in all fields of activity. |
| **Methods** | Language awareness activities are used to:  
| | - make children realise, with the help of simple listening and observation exercises, the internal diversity of the language of schooling (accents, forms of greeting, registers, etc.);  
| | - make them aware of the existence, and positive nature, of plurality in the class and its environment;  
| | - whenever possible, provide for the essentially ad hoc use of learners’ languages in activities and games;  
| | - use posters as a visual reminder of those languages’ presence in the class;  
| | - at the end of pre-primary schooling, use any suitable materials available to make children aware of the existence of other languages they have never encountered. |
| ISCED 1 | **Aims** At this stage, the language of schooling helps to pave the way for bilingual education by continuing to highlight learners’ repertoires and work on their internal plurality, while bringing in new dimensions (writing and its relationship with speech, use of the language in various subjects, with their specific genres and linguistic features). From the third year on, a first foreign language is taught as a subject, and helps to enrich the pupils’ language repertoires by taking up, expanding and refining the work on plurality initiated in the language of schooling. |
| **Methods** | From the fourth year on, foreign-language materials - written and oral, and embodying discourse genres specific to the various school subjects - are singly and progressively used in activities. These materials:  
| | - are redundant to start with, since their content has already been covered in the language of schooling;  
| | - later provide new information, oral/written comprehension of which is the aim of the exercise;  
| | - are exploited using the language of schooling;  
| | - help learners to acquire mediation competences, switching easily from documents in the first foreign language to others in the language of schooling, and vice-versa. |
| ISCED 2 | **Aims** Plurilingual and intercultural education also focuses, to some extent, on subject content. The first foreign language already has document-based links with other subjects in the language class, and at times learners are also given oral and written exercises which parallel work they are doing on subjects taught in the language of schooling. Depending on subject-teachers’ command of the first foreign language, these activities may also feature in non-language classes. A second foreign language is introduced in the same spirit as the first in ISCED 1. |
| **Methods** | The discursive and more broadly semiotic language dimensions of other subjects are the focus of joint reflection and planning by language and other-subject teachers. Intercomprehension sessions may be jointly organised by teachers of different languages: learners are taught to understand other, closely-related languages, and possibly - with the help of study themes - to understand the discourse genres used in other subjects. Activities which teach learners how to use their existing language resources and interlinguistic competences also train them to manage the plurilingual repertoire which they are acquiring. When the second foreign language is introduced, language teachers co-operate in devising approaches and formulating aims which are convergent, though variable in timing. |

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51 The two following scenarios envisage only situations in which the second language of schooling is a foreign language.
ISCED 3

Aims
These are the same as in ISCED 2, but allow for the fact that the language of schooling and the two foreign languages, which are taught as subjects at this level:
- equip learners - depending on their stream - either to enter the labour market directly or to pursue further studies;
- are centred more on the literary and cultural aspects of their education.
Since the various subjects in each stream all use languages, semiotic means and discourse genres which are far more specific and precise than at earlier stages in schooling, the language of schooling and (at least partly) the two foreign languages are both used to:
- make learners aware of them;
- give them the means and support they need to acquire them to varying degrees, depending on the languages.

Methods
Towards the end of ISCED 3, the first foreign language may no longer be taught, but be used instead to teach another subject, alternating with the language of schooling.
Oral and written aids in the second foreign language start to be used - for the various subjects in each stream - in language and also, when possible, other-subject classes.
Co-operation between language teachers makes for better teaching of each language, encourages cross-linking, and helps to activate inter-language transfer strategies. By pooling their efforts, teachers create didactic bridges between the subject and language dimensions of each stream. (Cf. also, for more detailed treatment of these questions, the scenario for vocational training, short course).

PROTOTYPICAL CASE NO. 4 - Bilingual education

SCENARIO 2 - Bilingual instruction, alternating two languages of schooling

General description
More ambitious and demanding, this scenario is based on language alternation, and requires a bigger training effort for language and other-subject teachers.
It could be introduced very gradually, taking scenario 1 as a starting point.

ISCED 0

Aims
The aim is acquisition of two languages, based on situations in which children learn to use them in doing things (the action-based approach).
By the end of pre-primary schooling, all children have a repertoire in at least two languages, which together give them the language equipment they need to pursue their schooling.

Methods
The life of the class, its routines and games, meals, motor and artistic activities, concept-forming activities: from the start, the two languages of schooling alternate in all these areas.
Language acquisition does not progress symmetrically: most children continue to do better in the first language of schooling.
Criteria for alternating languages are based on children’s all-round development, learning patterns and interaction needs.

ISCED 1

Aims
On the basis of earlier acquisitions, primary schooling tackles the written word, by teaching reading and writing more or less simultaneously in both languages.
Teaching of the two languages aims at ensuring linguistic progress in both (languages as subjects), and at building knowledge and competences effectively in other subjects (languages in other subjects), by imparting linguistic knowledge and competences progressively, in a manner partly geared to the genres used in the various disciplines.
Pupils consider and discuss the influence of cultures on knowledge, on the ways in which it is formulated and the ways in which it is acquired - and this helps them to develop intercultural and metacognitive competences.

52 Cf. Note 43.
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| Using two languages in turn to acquire subject knowledge, and using textbooks and materials from other countries, bring pupils face to face with new ways of perceiving or describing events or phenomena. |
| With a view to didactic consistency and cognitive efficiency, the two languages of schooling must cover: |
| - consistent and convergent treatment, parallel or staggered, of the “language-as-subject” dimension, making due allowance for the special features of each language; |
| - work on the oral and written discourse genres used in various subject areas (tackled in turn in one of the two languages, and taken up again, worked over and re-used in the other). |

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| - work on the oral and written discourse genres used in various subject areas (tackled in turn in one of the two languages, and taken up again, worked over and re-used in the other). |
3.3.5. Common points in treatment of the prototypical cases selected

The approaches and components outlined above for the various prototypical cases selected are - obviously - neither exhaustive nor prescriptive.

They do, however, have certain common features specific to implementation of the principles which underlie and determine the course of plurilingual and intercultural education:

- a holistic vision, which extends reflection on the curriculum to languages in learners’ repertoires, languages in their environment and languages taught at school;
- the language and cultural rights of learners - particularly the most vulnerable - the aim being a high-quality and equitable language education for all of them;
- an intercultural dimension in all teaching/learning of languages and other subjects, the aim being to enable all pupils to (inter)act interculturally (intercultural education);
- an effort to generate synergies between ML lessons, opening the way to consistent and efficient learning, and including among its aims the development of specific competences of the kind often termed “partial”, as well as interlingual/translingual strategies;
- adoption of the “languages in education, languages for education” approach, with languages including - in addition to those in learners’ repertoires - the others used in schools (of schooling, regional, minority and migration, foreign, etc.) in their “language-as-subject” dimension, with the aim of organising ways of approaching them, and helping learners to build up plurilingual repertoires;
- integration of languages used in teaching other subjects with one another, and with those other subjects, the aim being to capitalise on their knowledge-building function.

3.4. VARIABLE APPROACHES TO INTRACURRICULAR ORGANISATION

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

a) specific aims

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

b) temporal formats

It has often been said that the standard division of language lessons into several hours a week is not the only one conceivable, and that - total hours remaining constant - more intensive phases could be introduced, followed or preceded by lighter ones. Flexible arrangements of this kind already exist for other subjects (e.g. for field surveys and data-collection, pluridisciplinary projects, etc.).

c) globalisation of language hours

It has often been suggested, also, that the total hours devoted by schools to languages as subjects - languages of schooling, foreign, regional and other languages - should be managed flexibly. In principle, globalisation/sharing of this kind should make it possible to adjust, over time and in accordance with didactic options and priorities, the division of hours between languages, and also schedule periods when all learners would come together for activities of general interest and transversal scope.

d) modules

Whether or not the division of hours is varied, the idea of modules devoted to specific (sub-) aims, and involving one or more languages simultaneously, is worth considering. Possibilities include: an essentially cultural module within a more general syllabus; a multi-language module devoted to

53 Cf. Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education (www.coe.int/lang)
reviewing ways and styles of learning; a module on access to network resources or media analysis in a foreign language, using tools partly developed in the language of schooling; a module on intercomprehension strategies for closely and less closely related languages.

e) parallel or staggered learning of different languages

Two languages which work in similar ways, and effectively share certain lexical elements - or are, on the contrary, very dissimilar - can, if learned in parallel, prompt comparative questions which enrich both learning processes. In a different way, and provided that learners and teachers both take advantage of it, languages studied at an interval have the potential to mobilise acquired knowledge and competences (linguistic, didactic, cultural, strategic) in a manner which enriches learning, not only of the new language, but also of the first one.

f) perspective adjustments and pauses

Learning of the foreign language introduced as the first in ISCED 1 may be suspended at the end of ISCED 2, unless it is partly used in teaching other subjects (CLIL/EMILE) in ISCED 3. The hours “gained” in this way can then be devoted to learning a third foreign language or improving the second. A third foreign language can also be introduced, or the first or second be improved, by using various forms of assisted self-instruction, with or without learning aids, at a resource and documentation centre. All these approaches feed into a dynamic process which might be seen as a structuring element in a curriculum: compiling a first plurilingual portfolio, exploiting locally available resources, developing a learning culture.

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

3.5. SITUATION OF PUPILS FROM MIGRANT AND UNDERPRIVILEGED SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUNDS

Isolating certain groups of school attenders, and suggesting that their education rights differ from, or are greater than, those of other groups, is inevitably problematical. So-called positive discrimination is not always well-regarded or accepted. None the less, schools have a duty to allow for certain inequalities or special circumstances - environment, origin, living conditions or other handicaps - which make it harder for some pupils to complete their schooling successfully.

As far as curriculum questions are concerned, we shall consider just two such groups - pupils from migration and/or underprivileged socio-economic backgrounds 54.

There is a wide area where the two coincide, since most families who migrate for economic reasons live in underprivileged environments. We still have to make a distinction between them, however, just as we have to assume that they cannot be analysed in prototypical case terms, but are covered, to varying degrees, by the cases described in 3.3 - and are all equally entitled to the experiences listed in 3.2.

3.5.1. Young people from underprivileged backgrounds

Young people from underprivileged backgrounds are often described, wrongly, as suffering from communication handicap, and having minimal language resources, which are limited to informal contact with peers and the daily routines of family life. In fact, their repertoires are wide-ranging, and exposure to the media helps to enlarge them - at least in terms of comprehension. The language problems they do have are primarily due to the discrepancy between their own daily practice and the genres and norms which schools incorporate use and inculcate, and which depend more on “academic” competence, which is largely bound up with writing and written culture 55.

54 A guidance text and a number of specific studies on children of migrants have already been prepared, containing a whole series of references and practical indications (many of which can also be applied to children from underprivileged backgrounds). Here, therefore, we need consider only the curriculum aspects.

55 There is another possible discrepancy, which is essentially rooted in the anthropology of knowledge-acquisition at school, but which applies both to children from underprivileged backgrounds and to migrants, and has language dimensions: their ambivalent relationship with knowledge acquired at school, which they may perceive as alien and remote from the knowledge they acquire in their nearer environment - and may experience as driving a wedge
If these young people’s families and ordinary environment do less than those of others to foster literacy experiences and practices largely consistent with those encountered in schools (importance attached to books and the press, positive emphasis on continuous reading of long texts, discussion/interpretation of things read, and not just instant, snap reactions to things seen and heard), and also ongoing, varied and articulate spoken-word experiences and practices (explaining, recounting, arguing, discussing, commenting, etc.), then care must be taken, for example, to ensure that, from pre-primary school (ISCED 0) on, and as noted in 3.2., there are times when they listen while texts - stories, fairy-tales or real-life pieces on subjects which interest them - are read to them, and are taught to put their emotions, feelings and experiences into words.56

Similarly, there is no reason to assume that special and remedial coaching of these children in schools has to focus on the “basics” (elementary grammar and spelling, systematic learning of vocabulary). As with all language-users, reading and examining texts, and using the written and spoken word in various ways, will also develop, modify and refine their language competences.

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

**3.5.2. Diversity of children from migrant backgrounds**

As far as the curriculum is concerned, the fact that children from migrant backgrounds are not a homogeneous group reduces their “special case” status even further. In fact, one needs to remember that:

- children of migrants have different geographical and cultural origins, and their home countries’ schooling culture may be like or unlike that of the immigration country;

- their status as migrants may also vary considerably: migrant families from EU countries are not in the same position as, for example, illegal immigrants from Central Africa who have not been “regularised”, or children whose parents were immigrants, but themselves have the nationality of the host country, or dual nationality;57

- the languages and language varieties they use at home vary in their proximity to the immigration country’s language of schooling, and in the extent to which they are recognised, standardised, taught, etc.;

- relationships with school, and modes and degrees of community and family literacy, may vary considerably, depending on the cultural origins and religious practices of immigrant families; the desire to preserve and transmit their language and cultural practices, and the association-based initiatives often taken for this purpose, also vary greatly from one group to another;

- children of newly arrived migrants may be admitted to schooling on different levels, depending on their age, and may or may not have been attending school regularly in their home country;

---

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

57 There can be no ignoring the situation of the Roma, which differs from that of “ordinary” migrants. Now sedentary (though not usually well-integrated, if at all) in some European countries, they remain (or again become) nomadic in others (or the same). In spite of national, and above all international, campaigns aimed at improving their condition, e.g. by providing schooling for their children, they are generally rejected and excluded. Still haphazard in most cases, schooling initiatives face problems, due not only (as one hears, perhaps, too often) to lifestyles, cultural traditions and patterns of knowledge-transmission which are partly or wholly at odds with normal school practice, but also to the social ostracism which Roma suffer, and the fact that many schools treat their children as if they were handicapped or backward.
- the family may be planning to stay for a short time only, and then return to the home country, possibly even for reasons connected with the children’s further schooling - which will certainly affect their language policy;

- particularly in cities, the geographical grouping of immigrant communities varies considerably. Some districts have relatively homogeneous enclaves of immigrants with the same origin and background; others have a high immigrant population, but geographical and cultural origins vary greatly; in others again, immigrant and native communities cohabit in varying proportions. These differences affect the multilingual panorama and plurilingual practices in ways determined by language similarities and contacts, and also by relations between the various groups;

- this diversity of local situations is particularly evident in schools, where the languages present vary greatly in number and type, but which are - potentially and actually - ideal places for inter-language contacts and intercultural relations;

- thanks to modern technologies, multiform exchange with home countries or countries which use the same language is now possible, allowing families and communities, if they so wish, to keep in touch with some of their home languages and cultures.

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

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

Seen from this angle, education rights, and their language components, now entitle all schoolchildren in Europe to two kinds of education which seem, at first sight, an unlikely, if not positively contradictory, pairing:

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

- secondly, an education which prepares them to be mobile, operate across frontiers and move to other cultural and language environments, and which also respects, and helps to preserve, the outside elements which mobility brings into the school.

Tensions between the two are possible, and it is clear that various forms of plurilingual and intercultural education hold the only key, not to eliminating, but to managing both effectively and using them positively.

3.5.3. Specific measures

The general right to a plurilingual and intercultural education applies to all school-attending groups. It breaks down into more specific rights, which may not always be compatible, and whose exercise depends on language teaching policies, which also vary between contexts.

Because it is transversal in principle, and variously applied in practice, plurilingual and intercultural education is neither restricted to specific learner groups nor rigid in its methods. This is why it is described in this chapter in terms of learning experiences to which young people at school should be exposed, and in which they should participate.

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

- isolation, compartmentalisation, special streams or separate classes, although these solutions are frequently adopted, for various reasons (habitat, purpose of schooling, etc.);
- reduced syllabuses which, by sticking to the supposed “basics”, permanently deprive these pupils of competences, knowledge and windows on the world available to others.

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

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

a) that the various competences, discourse genres, communication formats and linguistic norms required for specific subjects, at specific stages in the course and in specific contexts, be clearly and precisely indicated;

b) that cross-linking factors between these subjects, in accordance with the various categories referred to in a) be emphasised, to ensure that this “functional” aspect of education produces economies of scale, and does not lead, cumulatively, to waste, extra costs or repeated penalisation;

c) that teachers and pupils be aware of the language dimensions of any subject studied - not just with a view to speaking and writing correctly, and managing communication in the class, but also to successful knowledge-building and competence-acquisition;

d) that schools ensure that the means of learning, developing and asserting oneself as a social agent, inter alia, by extending and refining one’s language repertoire and competences, are available to all learner groups;

e) that young people from migrant backgrounds be given the opportunity to learn (introduction, maintenance, development) their so-called language of origin; this is one aspect of a right which covers a number of things in practice: maintenance of family ties, contacts with the country of origin, assets for a future occupation; in the case of children for whom this language is their first one, there are also psycho-linguistic arguments relating to interdependence of the level of development of the first language and acquisition of a second one.

Where this final point is concerned, situations vary so widely that it is both hard and unwise to say or recommend anything more definite concerning the treatment of home languages in schools (formal lessons within or outside school hours, special classes, partly bilingual teaching, etc.). But the minimum transversal principles which apply in all cases are:

- these languages must not simply be ignored by schools;
- they are something schools can use to good effect in educating all pupils, and not a barrier to success for children who speak them;
- these children’s plans for their own future lives and personal development cannot be prejudged, and schools - although their first duty is to accept them fully and help them to adjust to school and community life in the host country - must also ensure that the price of achieving this is not sudden, total severance from their first environment.

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

The three chapters in this text describe, from different and complementary angles, the conditions essential to implementing plurilingual and intercultural education in curricula, and the practical consequences of doing that.

Without claiming to be exhaustive, they contain numerous recommendations and suggestions, whose vision of language teaching may seem a long way from the realities implied by existing curricula, current practices and dominant perceptions. This does not mean, however, that the gap cannot be bridged - or that our only choice is to leave things as they are.

The central aim of everything we say in these three chapters is to define plurilingual and intercultural education as precisely as possible, and so make it easier to take the right action in specific contexts. The arguments we develop help to pinpoint specific aims for new, improved curricula - as well as aspects which existing curricula cover already. Some sections of our text contain long lists of possible initiatives. Obviously, they do not list the conditions essential to making any change in curricula. In concrete and sometimes detailed terms, they set out to illustrate, explain and make credible an educational objective which too many people may still see as easy to accept in theory - but hard to realise in practice.

As this text itself says more than once, re-writing the curriculum to take fuller account of the general aim of plurilingual and intercultural education is far likelier to be a step-by-step than an all-or-nothing process. The first essential is to look closely at the context concerned - its requirements, possibilities and constraints - and also the extent to which the existing curriculum actually covers those factors. After that, the recommendations we make and the approaches we suggest can easily be used to identify the most effective ways of moving ahead in that context.

The present text is intended as an aid to action - at national/regional, local and even school and class level. To serve that purpose fully, it needs to be backed by case-studies and examples of initiatives actually taken with learners. The Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education on the Council of Europe website makes a substantial contribution to that pooling of experience.

We have not been able to explore some of the aspects mentioned here (teacher training, evaluation of plurilingual and intercultural competence, etc.) in detail. Readers can again consult the Platform for linked studies - studies which express the authors’ views alone, but discuss those aspects in more detail and broader perspective.

Finally, we need to remember that plurilingual and intercultural education involves learners actively, develops their ability to reflect on what they are doing, assess themselves and study independently, and makes them aware of their language repertoire and its value. Although we have said relatively little about the European Language Portfolio and the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters, or similar pedagogic approaches, they are by their nature useful supports in this process.

59 www.coe.int/lang
APPENDICES
**APPENDIX I**

Outline for a survey on social perceptions of languages and how they are dealt with in the curriculum

The protocol below is suggested as the basis for drawing up ad hoc surveys that can be adapted to suit the particular context.

| Knowing how public opinion perceives the different languages and variants, plurilingualism and interculturality | - What languages are specifically requested by families, pupils and public opinion? For what purposes? Which language choices are influenced by social aspirations? By the need to be recognised and valued? By cultural factors? By fashion? By deep-rooted traditions?
| - What opinions and perceptions are found with regard to:
| - the languages and variants present in society, including regional, minority and immigrant languages?
| - the language(s) of schooling?
| - the languages taught at school?
| - plurilingual and intercultural education?
| - bilingual/plurilingual people?
| - the presence of different cultures?
| - What is the position of families speaking a minority, regional or immigrant language on the use of those languages in the home? The teaching of those languages at school?
| - ...

| Analysing learners’ language needs | What languages meet
| - learners’ educational needs as individuals and as citizens?
| - learners’ current needs and learning motivation?
| - their foreseeable needs for the future? specific needs related to their future careers?
| - possible needs, unforeseeable at the present time, representing resources for the future?
| - ...

| Analysing context-driven language needs | What languages would be useful for:
| - social cohesion and inclusion?
| - the needs of society, the economy and the employment market?
| - diplomatic relations between countries?
| - cultural needs and the promotion of (inter)cultural values?
| - ...

| Ascertaining the degree to which international policies on linguistic rights are reflected in existing curricula | What steps have been taken or are planned to implement:
| - the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages
| - the Council of Europe Framework Convention for the protection of national minorities
| - the Hague Recommendations regarding the education rights of national minorities
| - the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights (supported by UNESCO)
| - Recommendations (69), (81)19 and (98)6 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to member states on modern languages
| - The policy document on “The linguistic and educational integration of children and adolescents from immigrant backgrounds”
| - Recommendation n° R (2000) 4 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to member states on the education of Roma/Gypsy children in Europe
| - ...

### Analysing existing language curricula and current language provision in schools and other institutions

- What languages are provided on a continuous basis in schools from ISCED 0 to ISCED 3
  - language(s) of schooling: one, two, three?
  - foreign languages:
    - how many foreign languages can a learner learn?
    - is provision highly varied or is it limited to a few languages?
    - which levels and courses offer more languages, and which offer fewer languages? What are the reasons for this?
  - classical languages:
    - how many languages are on offer?
    - for all learners?
    - at what levels and on what courses?
  - regional, minority and immigrant languages:
    - are they taught as a subject and/or as the language of other subjects for learners whose first language they are?
    - if so, is this a transitional measure?
    - if so, when does teaching of them start? When does it end?
- to what extent do current curricula meet the needs highlighted by the analysis? What are the strengths to be retained and built on? What are the weaknesses and shortcomings to be gradually eliminated?
- do institutions other than the state school system offer language teaching? Which ones?
- is out-of-school support provided for regional, minority and immigrant languages?
- ...
### APPENDIX II

**Outline for a local language survey**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identifying and describing learner categories</th>
<th>Number and percentage:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- totals for</td>
<td>- pupils belonging to a minority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- newly arrived pupils</td>
<td>- newly arrived pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- among these, pupils who have already attended school and those who have not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds</td>
<td>- pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- pupils with handicaps related to languages and language</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- …</td>
<td>- …</td>
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</table>

**Languages and language competences:**

- languages spoken at home (official or majority, regional, minority, immigrant)
- only understood at home (official or majority, regional, minority, immigrant)
- initial competences in the language of schooling
- initial competences in foreign languages
- language “wishes” on the part of learners and their reasons for wishing to learn them
- languages “encountered” on holiday, through travel or other experiences
- …

**Factors which may influence language learning:**

- age and level of cognitive development
- relationship with languages according to age, gender, origins, socio-cultural group etc
- the images conveyed by languages among young people/in society
- stereotypes about languages (easy/simple vs difficult/complex, pleasant/unpleasant, musical, rigid/logical etc)
- …

**Knowledge of other cultures:**

- contacts, however frequent, with people of other cultures
- tourism
- trips to the country of origin
- contacts and meetings with emigrant relatives
- reading novels, books or other documents
- reports and features in the media (TV, radio, Internet, newspapers, magazines etc)
- …

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specifying the context in which languages are used</th>
<th>- the fields in which they are used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- the situations</td>
<td>- the situations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the conditions and constraints</td>
<td>- the conditions and constraints</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX III

Outline for specification of teachers’ competences with a view to plurilingual and intercultural education

A plurilingual and intercultural education perspective requires teachers, and in the first instance language teachers, to possess, in addition to the usual competences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a plurilingual repertoire and language competences:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- communicative competence in one or even two languages other than the language of schooling, enabling them to provide teaching focused on communication and content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- an ability to think about languages and the development of plurilingual repertoires, ie metalinguistic and transversal competences, particularly as regards bridge building between languages and with the language of schooling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- some degree of expertise in plurilingualism: use of existing resources, management of plurilingual situations, awareness and use of the internal variability of any language etc</td>
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<tr>
<td>- …</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Decisions to be taken:

- What standard should be required of teachers in modern languages, including the less widely spoken ones:
  - for in-depth teaching of a modern foreign language?
  - to develop intercomprehension between related languages?
  - to teach subject content in that language? and simply to use plurilingual materials?
- How can that standard be guaranteed, monitored and measured, and which body would be responsible for that?
- …

training in interculturality and its values

- knowledge of the relationship between languages and cultures
- a range of knowledge, skills and attitudes with regard to intercultural dialogue
- experience of how to conduct classwork on interculturality which is not confined to anecdotal or picturesque aspects but activates the following among learners:
  - the ability to move away from their own viewpoint,
  - an ability to respect and/or take on another person’s viewpoint,
  - openness and curiosity about the diversity and wealth of cultures,
  - a benevolent attitude towards people of other cultures,
  - …

a responsible professional commitment

- an appropriate view of the learner:
  - as a social player,
  - as an informed party with his or her own personality,
  - as the main figure of his or her own learning,
  - …
- an ethical attitude involving respect for and use of the knowledge, feelings and experiences of all learners, and especially their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires, regardless of their origins and the group they belong to,
- taking responsibility for motivating all learners to develop their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires,
- awareness of the duty to guarantee the right of all learners to a plurilingual and intercultural education as an integral part of a good-quality education
- a commitment to finding varied paths enabling each learner to acquire the key competences and achieve the standards set,
- …
teaching skills relating to
- the incorporation of methodologies for communication-based teaching, the competence-based approach and the actional approach,
- methodologies related specifically to the development of plurilingualism and interculturality (EOLE, intercomprehension etc),
- bilingual teaching,
- modern assessment techniques
- working with a portfolio (eg the European Language Portfolio),
- ...

training common to all teachers (of foreign languages, languages of schooling and other subjects)
- exploration of the language and discourse dimension of the various subjects
- identification of areas of co-operation
  - convergences,
  - plural and/or partial approaches,
  - learning through intercultural encounters,
  - integrated language teaching,
  - CLIL / EMILE / integration of languages and subject content,
  - ...
- development of plurilingual materials for subjects
- choice of appropriate teaching methodologies and strategies
- classroom experiments based on action research approaches
- identification of cognitive and language gains from integrated teaching of languages and content
- development of independent and lifelong learning
- training in co-operation and interdisciplinarity
- ...

Organisation of training schemes
- What kinds of training should be offered to meet teachers’ needs and constraints, from among the following:

  Training outside school:
  - traineeships in the countries where the target language is spoken
  - local training courses
  - distance or combined distance and face-to-face training
  - participation in international projects
  - ...

  Training in school and in the classroom
  - action research projects
  - observation sessions in the classroom and reflective practice outside the classroom
  - on-site traineeships
  - ...
APPENDIX IV

Instruments and resources for developing and implementing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

However complex it may appear to be and whatever the level, the work of curriculum development can draw on instruments framed and approaches experimented with at European level. Subject to the adjustments which are always necessary, these can be used and applied in any context.

**European instruments**

Various instruments have been framed by the Council of Europe over the years in line with its principles and values in the field of human rights protection. These include:

- documents setting out policies inspired by those principles and values in the field of education and language teaching
- more technical instruments for implementing the language education policies advocated by the Council of Europe.

A small number of documents and instruments have been selected here which seem particularly relevant to curricular reflection on plurilingual and intercultural education; many other tools are also available, particularly from the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) in Graz, an institution set up by the Council of Europe to “encourage excellence and innovation in language teaching and to help Europeans learn languages more efficiently” and “to act as a catalyst for reform in the teaching and learning of languages”\(^{60}\).

For each document or instrument listed, the table gives a brief description and indicates the target groups, how it might be used with a view to curriculum development and, where available, the direct links on the websites of the Council of Europe’s Language Policies Division, the ECML and the European Commission.

This presentation starts with the more general documents and projects on language policies and ends with the more operational tools and instruments.

\(^{60}\) Cf. ECML website: [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at) → About us. The centre’s documents and instruments, which are directly accessible on line, are the result of projects carried out by international teams: [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at) → Resources
## Language education policies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INSTRUMENTS</strong></th>
<th><strong>DESCRIPTION</strong></th>
<th><strong>TARGET GROUPS</strong></th>
<th><strong>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</strong></th>
<th><strong>Internet sites</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe (2007) and the 21 reference studies providing in-depth analysis of various issues relating to languages and language policies (social representations, role of English, educazione linguistica, …)** | Underlining the need to develop language education policies to combat social exclusion and strengthen democratic citizenship in Europe, the Guide identifies procedures, methodologies and instruments for implementing such policies in order to preserve the linguistic diversity of European societies and develop plurilingual and intercultural competence.  
  *Main version*: those who decide language education policies  
  *Executive version*: decision makers involved in language education policies but who may have no specialist knowledge of technical matters in the field. | All decision makers responsible for framing language education policies. | Framework document providing an overview of decisions to be taken in the field of language education policy. In particular, the whole of Part III in both versions – entitled “Organisational forms of plurilingual education” – and the two chapters into which it is divided:  
5. “The creation of a culture of plurilingualism” and  
6. “Organising plurilingual education” abound in very practical, almost operational, ideas and suggestions for developing and implementing a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum.  
The Guide also presents and comments on the founding texts of the Council of Europe concerning plurilingualism and language policies (para. 2.2.1., pp. 34-35).  
The glossary (Appendix 2) of the main version, which defines the key concepts of language education policy, can be very useful for establishing a common language. | Guide and studies: www.coe.int/lang → Policy instruments |
| **Language Education Policy Profiles (2002)** | This is a process of reflection by representatives of the bodies concerned (authorities and members of civil society) on their language education policy, which offers them the opportunity to undertake a self-evaluation in a spirit of dialogue with Council of Europe experts. It is a forward-looking approach focusing on possible future policy developments in a country, region or city, with the Council of Europe experts acting as catalysts in this process. | Council of Europe member states, European cities and regions. | This is a useful process at any time, but especially before any reform of the language curriculum: the profile process helps the various local players to become more aware of the characteristics of the socio-cultural environment and of language teaching, including at school, and thus encourages consideration of them. | Profiles: www.coe.int/lang → Policy instruments |
The intercultural dimension

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<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue – “Living together as equals in dignity” (2008)</strong></td>
<td>Launched in 2008 (European Year of Intercultural Dialogue) by the Ministers for Foreign Affairs of the 47 Council of Europe member states, the White Paper sets various guidelines for the promotion of intercultural dialogue and mutual respect and understanding based on the Organisation’s core values.</td>
<td>Various stakeholders in European countries: policymakers and practitioners in the intercultural field.</td>
<td>The White Paper is of particular value for reflecting on the intercultural aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education during the process of curriculum development. It is conceived as a “significant pan-European contribution to an international discussion steadily gaining momentum”. Chapter 4 – “Five policy approaches to the promotion of intercultural dialogue” – has a section 4.3. devoted to the theme “Learning and teaching intercultural competences”. Chapter 5 – “Recommendations and policy orientation for future action: the shared responsibility of the core actors” - details in section 5.3. the recommendations for “Learning and teaching intercultural competences”.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/dialogue">www.coe.int/dialogue</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters (AIE) + various supporting documents (2009)</strong></td>
<td>The Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters (AIE) was designed to follow up the recommendations of the Council of Europe’s White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue “Living together as equals in dignity”, section 5.3. “Learning and teaching intercultural competences” (White Paper, paragraph 152). It is an example of those “[…] complementary tools [which] should be developed to encourage students to exercise independent critical faculties including to reflect critically on their own responses and attitudes to experiences of other cultures” (Ibid).</td>
<td>All learners. There are two versions of the Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters: a standard version and a version for younger learners.</td>
<td>A tool designed to encourage people to think about intercultural competences in the context of plurilingual and intercultural education, the AIE also offers a useful approach to thinking about the goals of intercultural education and their evaluation. The experience of an intercultural event is analysed through the answers to a questionnaire, which gradually lead the learner to become aware of his/her cultural reflexes and to take on the other person’s viewpoint.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Reference frameworks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching,  | This is an instrument which describes as comprehensively as possible:  
- all language skills,  
- all the knowledge required to develop them,  
- all the situations and fields in which one may be called on to use a foreign language to communicate socially.  
The CEFR has developed a description of the process of mastering a language by type of competence and sub-competence, using descriptors for each competence or sub-competence. The progressive mastery of each competence is graded on a six-level scale (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2). The reference descriptions and other CEFR-related descriptors are available in a bank of descriptors.  
|                                                                 | Teachers, examiners, curriculum and syllabus designers, textbook writers, teacher trainers, administrators and everyone involved in language teaching and the testing of language skills.  
                                                                 | This is the reference tool for the development of foreign language curricula. It facilitates a clear definition of teaching and learning objectives and methods and provides the necessary tools for assessment of proficiency.  
The competence levels are described without reference to any specific language. They can be used to describe learners’ competence profiles and to harmonise their assessment.  
The text is also important for the principles referred to in it. Chapter 8 - “Linguistic diversification and the curriculum” - focuses on curricular issues in the context of plurilingual and intercultural education.  
|                                                                 | CEFR: www.coe.int/lang  
Data bank of descriptors:  
www.coe.int/portfolio → Data bank of descriptors  
Guide for Users:  
www.coe.int/lang → Resources/Publications → Portfolio → Guides and Reports                                                                 |
| Assessment (CEFR) (2001)                                                 |                                                                 | Teachers, examiners, curriculum and syllabus designers, textbook writers, teacher trainers, administrators and everyone involved in language teaching and the testing of language skills.  
                                                                 | This is the reference tool for the development of foreign language curricula. It facilitates a clear definition of teaching and learning objectives and methods and provides the necessary tools for assessment of proficiency.  
The competence levels are described without reference to any specific language. They can be used to describe learners’ competence profiles and to harmonise their assessment.  
The text is also important for the principles referred to in it. Chapter 8 - “Linguistic diversification and the curriculum” - focuses on curricular issues in the context of plurilingual and intercultural education.  
|                                                                 | CEFR: www.coe.int/lang  
Data bank of descriptors:  
www.coe.int/portfolio → Data bank of descriptors  
Guide for Users:  
www.coe.int/lang → Resources/Publications → Portfolio → Guides and Reports                                                                 |
| Bank of CEFR-related descriptors  
Guide for Users                |                                                                 |                                                                 |                                                                                     |                                                                                        |
| Illustrations of levels of language proficiency  
Material illustrating the CEFR reference levels in different languages is available on the Council of Europe website: samples of oral production illustrating the six levels are available on DVDs and online; some samples of written production are also available online. Items and tasks for testing reading and listening comprehension skills in several languages at all six levels are available on CD-ROM.  
| Professionals in the field of languages.  
This material facilitates a common interpretation of the CEFR reference levels. It can be used by language teachers (not necessarily teachers of the same language) to gain practice at jointly defining language competences. It could thus serve, along with the CEFR, to create a common language for teachers at the same school and enable them to base their assessments on common criteria.  
| www.coe.int/lang → CEFR → Illustrations of levels of language proficiency                                                                 |                                                                 |                                                                                     |                                                                                        |

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework of Reference for Early Second Language Acquisition, under the auspices of Nederlandse Taalunie (2009)</th>
<th>This Framework of Reference for Early Second Language Acquisition concerns the language of schooling of the host country of immigrant pre-school children, but its aims are equally relevant to children whose mother tongue is the same as the language of schooling.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This document is aimed at: - teachers of pre-school children and their hierarchy, as a tool for scrutinising their language teaching and establishing a language policy, - materials developers, - inspectors, - teaching assistants, - teacher trainers, - educationalists and researchers, - those responsible for policies for promoting the teaching of second languages - test developers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This document can be a useful tool in developing a curriculum for the language of schooling at pre-school level, for immigrant and other children. The Framework contains minimum objectives defining what children should already be able to do with the language of schooling when entering primary education to avoid falling behind very quickly. The aim is ensure that all pre-school children have the resources to continue their schooling successfully.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Platform of resources for plurilingual and intercultural education → Box “Language(s) of schooling”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Curriculum Framework for Romani, developed in co-operation with the European Roma and Travellers Forum (CFR) (2008)</th>
<th>The Curriculum framework for Romani is based on the CEFR and: - covers the first 4 levels of the CEFR (A1, A2, B1, B2), - concerns 3 age groups: 3-6 years; 6-10 years; 10 -14 / 15 years, - addresses 11 themes. Roma culture (‘Romanipe’) is treated as a dimension cutting across the 11 themes. The CFR also offers checklists for self-assessment. 2 models of Portfolios have been developed for primary and secondary, as well as a Handbook for teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The same as for the CEFR (see above), but confined to the Romani language.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be used to develop curricula for three categories of learners: - those for whom Romani is also the language of schooling, - those who only have receptive competence in Romani, - those for whom Romani is not the language spoken in the home.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Minorities and migrants → Romani → Seminar 2008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference Level Descriptions (RLD) for national and regional languages</td>
<td>Whereas the specifications of the CEFR do not refer to a specific language, the RLDs represent a new generation of reference descriptions going beyond the “threshold level” and providing specifications language by language based on the CEFR level descriptors.</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures (FREPA) - ECML</td>
<td>The FREPA is a reference instrument developed as part of the ECML’s 2nd medium-term programme, focusing on knowledge, attitudes and skills whose acquisition can be facilitated more or less exclusively by pluralistic approaches.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Evaluation, examinations and tests in foreign languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manual for relating Language Examinations to the Common European Framework for Languages (CEFR) (2009)</td>
<td>Its primary aim is to help:  - apply transparent, practical procedures in order to situate examinations in relation to the CEFR,  - report on them in a cumulative process of continuing improvement.</td>
<td>Those responsible for examinations&lt;sup&gt;62&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>The Manual could be useful, among other things, at the stage where, after competence profiles have been established for the key levels of the school system based on the CEFR and the reference descriptions, thought is given to the types of examinations, centralised or not, which pupils should be required to take. In this process, attention will need to be focused on all the languages taught at school and on how to evaluate the competences specific to plurilingual and intercultural education.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Manual for relating Language Examinations to the CEFR.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forms for detailed analysis of examinations or tests (2009)</td>
<td>Forms and tables for each of the Communicative Language Activities (CEFR 4.4.) and for the Aspects of Communicative Language Competence (CEFR 5.2.). In most of the forms, a short description, reference and/or justification is asked for.</td>
<td>Examination designers, teachers</td>
<td>The type of analysis proposed may be appropriate when assessing the relevance of existing examinations and tests and their consistency with the principles adopted in new curricula.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Forms for detailed analysis of examinations or tests available in English only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference Supplement to the Manual for relating Language Examinations to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR)</td>
<td>This supplement to the Manual for relating Language Examinations to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) contains three main components: quantitative and qualitative considerations in relating certificates and diplomas to the CEFR and different approaches in standard setting.</td>
<td>Users of the Manual (examination designers, teachers).</td>
<td>Its aim is to provide the users of the Manual with additional information which will help them in their efforts to relate their certificates and diplomas to the CEFR.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Reference Supplement to the Manual for relating Language Examinations to the CEFR available in English only</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>62</sup> For use of the CEFR in evaluative practices in education, see also: TAGLIANTE, C. (2005): L'évaluation et le Cadre européen commun, Paris, Clé international.
## Learner self-assessment and self-development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>European Language Portfolio (ELP)</strong></td>
<td>The ELP is a personal document which encourages learners to analyse, evaluate and build on their school and out-of-school language learning and their cultural experiences.</td>
<td>Learners and their language teachers. There are different versions adapted to the particular educational context and age group.</td>
<td>Competence scales, a language biography and a dossier used to keep samples of personal work enable each learner to establish his/her own language and cultural profile, monitor its development throughout the learning process and reflect on his/her own learning. The descriptors used in the Portfolios already produced can be a source of inspiration to curriculum designers. The self-assessment approach used in the Portfolios could be proposed as an integral part of the assessment process.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/portfolio">www.coe.int/portfolio</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


## The language(s) of schooling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
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<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education (2009)</strong></td>
<td>This is a new instrument enabling member states to develop curricula for languages of schooling and all language teaching by drawing on the experience and expertise of other member states. The concept of plurilingual and intercultural education based on a comprehensive and integrated approach to languages in education (learners’ language and cultural repertoires) and for education (all languages taught or learnt) provides a unifying framework for reflection and for curriculum development.</td>
<td>People in the member states involved, at various levels of responsibility, in framing language education policies and developing curricula covering all languages in and for education.</td>
<td>The Platform offers reference tools that can be used to analyse and construct curricula for languages: • taught at school as subjects in their own right, • used for the teaching of other subjects. It is an open and dynamic resource, with a system of definitions, points of reference, descriptions and descriptors, studies and good practices which member states are invited to consult and use in support of their policy to promote equal access to quality education according to their particular needs, resources and educational culture.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Public information and awareness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| European Day of Languages (EDL) (declared at the end of the European Year of Languages 2001) | European Day of Languages is an event held every year on 26 September. It is recommended that "the Day be organised in a decentralised and flexible manner according to the wishes and resources of member states, which would thus enable them to better define their own approaches". | All citizens:  
- the general public  
- schools  
- policy-makers  
- the voluntary sector | European Day of Languages is to be used as a means of educating, informing and raising awareness among the public at large about plurilingual and intercultural education issues. Its aims are to:  
- alert the public to the importance of language learning and diversifying the range of languages learnt in order to increase plurilingualism and intercultural understanding;  
- promote the rich linguistic and cultural diversity of Europe, which must be preserved and fostered;  
- encourage lifelong language learning in and out of school, whether for study purposes, for professional needs, for the purposes of mobility or just for pleasure and exchanges. | www.coe.int/EDL |
The chapters of this document have already presented initial and in-service teacher training as a crucial element in the successful implementation of a curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education. Some documents which can serve as aids to reflection on this theme are listed here. The table below offers some aids to thinking about teacher training. Some are European Commission documents. The dimensions of plurilingual and intercultural education as proposed by the Council of Europe are taken into account in them, albeit partially. These documents nevertheless form an essential basis for rethinking teacher training.

### INSTRUMENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| The Training of Teachers of a Foreign Language: Developments in Europe - Revised Report August 2002 | This study:  
- examines the initial and in-service training of teachers of a foreign language in Europe  
- summarises developments in this field over the last few years in 32 countries, including the patterns of language teaching in preschool, in compulsory schooling and in the post-compulsory sectors  
- presents 15 case studies from various countries on training for primary and secondary education  
- makes recommendations on how good practice and innovation can be spread more widely across Europe, with reference to three areas:  
  - building a European infrastructure for training language teachers  
  - the European language teacher of tomorrow  
  - areas for further study  
- provides an initial sample profile of the European language teachers of the 21st century | Policy-makers, those responsible for training at all levels (universities, training institutes, schools, professional organisations providing training etc), teacher trainers | This wide-ranging and detailed study sets out numerous discussion points and practical proposals concerning both initial and in-service teacher training.                                                                 | www.ec.europa.eu/education/languages  
→ Language teaching → European Profile for Language Teacher Education  
Available in English only |
This European study, which follows on from the previous one, outlines the key elements in language teacher education in 21st century Europe. It consists of five parts:

1. Contexts for developing a European profile for language teacher education
2. European profile for language teacher education – a frame of reference
3. Overview of case studies
4. Overview of the Delphi study
5. Glossary

Three appendices set out in detail:

1. the 11 case studies conducted
2. quality assurance and enhancement guidelines
3. the report’s methodology

The profile was conceived as a frame of reference which could be used as an essential “checklist” for all those participating in theoretical and practical language teacher education.

The profile is based on:
- detailed research throughout the European Union,
- the opinions of specialists,
- numerous case studies

and proposes:
- examples of good practice
- a practical guide to implementation

As above.

The study can be used in establishing:
- the structure of teacher education courses
- the knowledge and understanding central to language teaching
- language teaching strategies and skills
- the values which language teaching should encourage and promote.

European Profile for Language Teacher Education, a Frame of Reference – Final Report
by Michael Kelly, Michael Grenfell, Rebecca Allan, Christine Kriza and William McEvoy
University of Southampton - UK

www.ec.europa.eu/education/languages
→ Language teaching → European profile for language teacher education

The full report is available in English. A partial version is available in French.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Audience</th>
<th>Website</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Profile for Language Teacher Education – A Frame of Reference (undated) by Michael Kelly and Michael Grenfell – University of Southampton</td>
<td>This document is based on the 2002 report (see above) and offers a comprehensive guide to the 2004 final report (see above). It describes each component of the profile in detail and outlines a series of strategies for its implementation and practical application. It presents a toolkit of 40 items which could be included in a teacher education programme. Its aims are to: - equip foreign language teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge and other professional competences - enhance their professional development - increase the transparency and portability of qualifications.</td>
<td>As above.</td>
<td>As above.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages EPOSTL A reflection tool for language teacher education by David Newby, Rebecca Allan, Anne-Brit Fenner, Barry Jones, Hanna Komorowska and Kristine Soghikyan ECML - 2007</td>
<td>This document contains: - an introduction presenting an outline of the EPOSTL; - a “personal statement” section to help student teachers to reflect on general questions relating to teaching; - a “self-assessment” section consisting of 193 “can do” descriptors to facilitate reflection and self-assessment by student teachers; - a dossier allowing student teachers to make the outcome of their self-assessment transparent, provide evidence of their progress and record examples of work relevant to teaching; - a glossary of the most important terms relating to language teaching and learning used in the EPOSTL; - an index of terms used in the descriptors; - a users’ guide.</td>
<td>Students undergoing initial teacher education.</td>
<td>The 193 “can do” descriptors can be used as a basis for rethinking language teachers’ professional competences in a plurilingual and intercultural education perspective.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Self-assessment of language abilities in a foreign language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTRUMENTS</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>TARGET GROUPS</th>
<th>USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION</th>
<th>Internet sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DIALANG</td>
<td>This is a site where everyone can test their own language abilities according to the skill levels of the CEFR in five areas: reading, writing, listening, grammar and vocabulary. 14 foreign languages are offered (Danish, Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Icelandic, Irish Gaelic, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Spanish and Swedish).</td>
<td>Anyone wishing to test their language abilities against the skill levels of the CEFR</td>
<td>Related to teacher training, although this tool is not specifically concerned with the language abilities required to work as a language teacher at the various levels of education. It could enable language teachers to establish their overall level in a language and the work required to improve it.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.lancs.ac.uk">www.lancs.ac.uk</a> → Research and Enterprise Services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX V
Learning methods and activities

This appendix contains a list - which does not claim to be exhaustive - of approaches and activities which may help to implement plurilingual and intercultural education. Essentially, they fall into three main categories:

1) Approaches which are demanding and complex in terms of language learning aims and use, and also teacher training. These approaches are normally applied to only a few languages, in which they set out to give learners a thorough command of the competences they need to carry out numerous language activities in various areas. Immersion, bilingual teaching and integrated language learning are examples of such approaches.

2) Approaches applied to a large, or indeed very large, number of languages, depending on options, and focused on developing, together or separately:
   - intercultural competences
   - transverse strategies
   - a global and all-embracing language education
   - partial competences which may be (very) highly developed.
   Intercomprehension, and activities designed to spark language awareness and openness to other cultures are examples.

3) Far simpler approaches or activities, which are recommended as a problem-free entry to plurilingual and intercultural education, e.g. the minimum curriculum, plurilingual activities and the use of plurilingual aids, but also certain one-off activities focused on language awareness and intercomprehension.

Types 2 and 3 make far lighter demands on teacher training than type 1.

Taken together, these approaches and activities - plus those used in teaching the language of schooling - and their linking in the curriculum help to create something new: a plurilingual pedagogy, for which plurilingual and intercultural education provides an integrating framework.

Each approach involves some activities which are specific to itself, and others which are transverse and used in other approaches as well.

Approaches are not mutually exclusive, and the dividing lines between them may sometimes blur, or even disappear. For example, an approach focused on skills-acquisition in one or two foreign languages may explicitly include transverse and intercultural skills among its aims as well. Similarly, intercomprehension, a type 2 skill, is also legitimate in type 1 tuition.

The following table gives a summary picture of various approaches and/or activities, attempting to describe them in very broad outline: the links can be used to access further information or find classroom activities and materials.

Choosing one or more approaches may depend on various factors:
- general and specific aims;
- the needs of a school or class;
- funds available, particularly for the more costly approaches;
- teacher training and, above all, teachers’ positive attitudes to innovative approaches;
- availability of teaching aids facilitating implementation in the class;
- etc.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>APPROACHES</th>
<th>BRIEF DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>AIMS</th>
<th>TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED</th>
<th>A FEW LINKS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immersion Dual language education, bilingual or even trilingual teaching CLIL/EMILE Language across the curriculum</td>
<td>The pedagogical status of “language in other subjects” (as compared with languages taught as subjects) is the dimension emphasised in these approaches, which differ enormously in respect of: - the subjects concerned (one, several, all); - exposure to, and use of, the language taught, which may provide for • almost total exclusion of the learners’ first language; • use of a second or foreign language in essentially ad hoc fashion in activities or projects connected with other subjects (CLIL/EMILE); • alternation of languages in teaching/learning a given subject, or throughout the curriculum; • successive use of languages in teaching the various subjects over time.</td>
<td>The aim is to teach and learn the second or foreign language by using it in studying other subjects. Depending on the model adopted, such use may be more or less extensive, and there may, or may not, be parallel teaching/learning of the second or foreign language as a subject. All of these approaches aim at thorough, parallel and integrated acquisition of the languages and subjects concerned. However, depending on the line followed, the balance struck between acquisition of language competences and acquisition of subject content may vary. One danger with these projects is that of seeing the other subjects merely as a means of acquiring proficiency in the second or foreign language.</td>
<td>The two or three taught languages used in teaching/learning one or more other subjects.</td>
<td>DUAL LANGUAGE <a href="http://www.cal.org/twi/">http://www.cal.org/twi/</a> <a href="http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/">http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/</a> <a href="http://www.lindholm-leary.com/">http://www.lindholm-leary.com/</a> CLIL <a href="http://www.tieclil.org/">http://www.tieclil.org/</a> <a href="http://www.euroclinet/index.php">http://www.euroclinet/index.php</a> <a href="http://www.upf.edu/dtf/alpme/index.htm">http://www.upf.edu/dtf/alpme/index.htm</a> <a href="http://www.cliccompendium.com/">http://www.cliccompendium.com/</a> <a href="http://www.univie.ac.at/Anglistik/views15_3_clic_special.pdf">http://www.univie.ac.at/Anglistik/views15_3_clic_special.pdf</a> <a href="http://www.irre-vda.org/utilita/deposito/UserFiles/File/LANQUA-report.pdf">http://www.irre-vda.org/utilita/deposito/UserFiles/File/LANQUA-report.pdf</a> <a href="http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/">http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/</a> EMILE <a href="http://www.emilangues.education.fr/">http://www.emilangues.education.fr/</a> BILINGUAL TEACHING <a href="http://www.irre-vda.org/nuovaire/gi_erre/vda_plus/index.cfm">http://www.irre-vda.org/nuovaire/gi_erre/vda_plus/index.cfm</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated language didactics (ILD) Integrated language pedagogy</td>
<td>This is an approach which “can facilitate the formulation and implementation of a unified language curriculum designed and projected as a whole. It is based on a fair balance between taking account of the differences between the L1, L2 or LE acquisition processes and the realisation that these processes display major psycho-linguistic affinities” This type of approach can also accommodate the pedagogy of third languages, i.e. those which come after the language of schooling and the first foreign language. ILT has two objectives, in addition to the aforementioned dual streamlining goals [cognitive and pedagogic […]]: - facilitating learning of the different language systems from the angle of reciprocal reinforcement by taking advantage, in educational terms, of their shared foundations (common functional system and/or underlying competence); - encouraging, anticipating in time, alerting and making systematic and automatic by means of efficient pedagogical support the “inter-linguistic” mental processes which may or may not take place, spontaneously and unconsciously, in the learners’ minds. (Ibidem) The aim is in-depth, consistent and conscious acquisition of the languages concerned.</td>
<td>In a diversified, but systematic manner, this approach should be applied to all the languages taught. When possible, it may also, perhaps, be applied - in a more ad hoc manner - to the languages in learners’ repertoires.</td>
<td>In a diversified, but systematic manner, this approach should be applied to all the languages taught. When possible, it may also, perhaps, be applied - in a more ad hoc manner - to the languages in learners’ repertoires.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.irre-vda.org/utilita/deposito/UserFiles/File/LANQUA-report.pdf">http://www.irre-vda.org/utilita/deposito/UserFiles/File/LANQUA-report.pdf</a> <a href="http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/">http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/</a> EMILE <a href="http://www.emilangues.education.fr/">http://www.emilangues.education.fr/</a> BILINGUAL TEACHING <a href="http://www.irre-vda.org/nuovaire/gi_erre/vda_plus/index.cfm">http://www.irre-vda.org/nuovaire/gi_erre/vda_plus/index.cfm</a></td>
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63 The two acronyms refer - with slight differences – to the same types of approach in an English-speaking (CLIL = Content and language integrated learning) and French-speaking (EMILE = Enseignement d’une matière intégré à une langue étrangère) context. EMILE reportedly focuses more than CLIL on the acquisition of subject content.

64 The quotations in this table are from Coste et al., 2007: A European reference document for languages of education? (Sections 3.5.3.1 and 3.5.4.4)
| Language awareness (UK) | This approach allows learners to think about languages, their similarities and differences, and also the nature of human language, with the help of written and audio aids relating to all the languages taught and known, but also to other languages which the school does not intend to teach. |
| Eveil aux langues (France) | This approach is both inclusive and intercultural, since it can focus pupils’ attention on the languages (language varieties) they actually speak - no longer seen just as everyday “tools”, but as something “worth thinking about”. In school, this gives those languages and varieties a visibility and legitimacy which genuinely raise their status. Gradually, reflection becomes broader, richer, more diverse and more complex, extending to a wider range of languages, and also to codes (icons, gestures, braille, sign language, language of animals, etc.) and alphabets which are new to pupils, going further into the distinctive features of the various forms of human communication (differences between the written and the spoken word, between registers, text modes, etc.) and giving them positive attitudes and greater sensitivity to language, languages and language learning. At pre-primary and primary level, this may generate a first awareness of plurilingualism as it exists in the class. The aim is not language “learning” in the conventional sense of the term, but education for language and languages, through language and languages. It is thus important to start educating children for linguistic and cultural diversity at a very early stage by showing them that it is “normal”. This is an approach whose aims cover both the acquisition of intercultural competences and the development of competences, attitudes and strategies which facilitate the development of plurilingualism. The intention is to make learners aware of the benefits of plurilingualism, and plurality and diversity of languages, and valorize their own repertoires. |
| Eveil et Ouverture aux Langues à l’Ecole (EOLE) (CH) | This approach can be applied, in one way or another, to all the children’s repertoire languages (also with the help of suitable materials, when these are available), the languages taught in the school, and other languages which are not yet taught, and are not known by either pupils or teachers. Plurilingual materials, with innovative suggestions for activities, are needed for this purpose (e.g. the Swiss EOLE materials, which suggest activities for over 60 different languages. | http://www.elodil.com/  
http://edilbase.univ-lemans.fr/index.php  
http://jaling.ecml.at/default.htm  
http://www.languageawareness.org/  
http://www.unige.ch/fapse/SSE/teachers/perregau/rech_creole_jou.html  
http://div.univ-lemans.fr/  
http://web.mac.com/d.elmiger/iWeb/eole-enligne/bienvenue.html  
http://www.unige.ch/fapse/SSE/teachers/perregau/rech_creole_jou.html  
http://div.univ-lemans.fr/  
http://web.mac.com/d.elmiger/iWeb/eole-enligne/bienvenue.html  
<p>|</p>
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<th>Method</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Resources</th>
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<td><strong>Intercomprehension</strong></td>
<td>This approach obliges learners to exploit their language repertoires fully and devise strategies for understanding written or spoken languages belonging to the same or even other language families. “This is an interesting, original and “economical” approach to diversifying language learning supply in the area of plurilingual education […] This makes it particularly well-suited to minority contexts in which […] language supply, which is much broader than in other contexts, may be experienced by some students and their families as an “imposed” programme which leaves no room for their personal tastes […] This one tool is based on the transfer of knowledge items and strategies”.</td>
<td>![List of resources](<a href="http://www.galanet.be/">http://www.galanet.be/</a> <a href="http://w3.u-grenoble3.fr/galatea/">http://w3.u-grenoble3.fr/galatea/</a> <a href="http://www.eurocomcenter.com/index.php?lang=fr">http://www.eurocomcenter.com/index.php?lang=fr</a> <a href="http://www.culture.gouv.fr/culture/dgjf/">http://www.culture.gouv.fr/culture/dgjf/</a> <a href="http://sites.univ-provence.fr/delic/">http://sites.univ-provence.fr/delic/</a> Eurom4/ <a href="http://dpel.unilat.org/DPEL/Creation/IR/">http://dpel.unilat.org/DPEL/Creation/IR/</a> <a href="http://www.hum.uit.no/a/svenonius/lingua/">http://www.hum.uit.no/a/svenonius/lingua/</a> <a href="http://www.llett.unipmn.it/ilte/">http://www.llett.unipmn.it/ilte/</a> <a href="http://www.eu-intercomprehension.eu/">http://www.eu-intercomprehension.eu/</a> <a href="http://www.silviaklein.de/Europint/kurs/esquisse.pdf">http://www.silviaklein.de/Europint/kurs/esquisse.pdf</a> <a href="http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/Aic/pdf/Meissner_r_2004.pdf">http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/Aic/pdf/Meissner_r_2004.pdf</a> <a href="http://www.redinter.eu/web/">http://www.redinter.eu/web/</a>)</td>
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<td><strong>Encounter pedagogy</strong></td>
<td>This approach is based on joint projects carried out by classes in different countries or regions who speak different languages. Its underlying principles are reciprocity and partnership. It aims at developing the attitudes and competences needed in contacts with other peoples and cultures, at broader socialisation allowing for differences/similarities between learners’ own and others’ values, and at an authentic experience which teaches learners to become independent. This is the ideal activity to develop both intercultural and language competences.</td>
<td><img src="http://www.etwinning.net/fr/pub/index.htm" alt="List of resources" /></td>
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<td><strong>Virtual mobility</strong></td>
<td>As above, but at a distance, using ICT. This may be one, or indeed - if direct contact is impossible - the only means of liaising on implementation of joint projects (cf. above). As above, but allowing for the special features of virtual communication.</td>
<td><img src="http://www.etwinning.net/fr/pub/index.htm" alt="List of resources" /></td>
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| Intercultural approach | The intercultural approach seeks to deconstruct exaggerated stereotypes of certain cultures, with a view to revealing their complexity and initiating real intercultural dialogue, based on awareness of learners’ own reference framework, the ability to see others’ viewpoint, and the development of intercultural negotiating competences. | This type of approach sets out to give learners the ability to step outside themselves, which is one aspect of the ability to abandon, momentarily, one’s own worldview and identify with those of other cultures, and to learn new ways of feeling, apprehending reality, thinking and acting. A deeper knowledge of other cultures helps learners to develop intercultural receptivity, as well as competences connected with the cultural dimensions. | All languages and subjects. | Byram, Michael (ed.) - Gribkova, Bella & Starkey, Hugh (2002). Developing the Intercultural Dimension in Language Teaching – A practical introduction for teachers [www.coe.int/lang → Resources / Publications → Selected studies](http://www.coe.int/lang) Autobiography of intercultural encounters (2009) [www.coe.int/lang → Autobiography...](http://www.coe.int/lang) CELV : Grima-Camilleri, Antoinette (2002). HOW STRANGE! The use of anecdotes in the development of intercultural competence. [http://www.ecml.at/Resources/ECMLPublications/tabid/277/PublicationID/36/language/en-GB/Default.aspx](http://www.ecml.at/Resources/ECMLPublications/tabid/277/PublicationID/36/language/en-GB/Default.aspx) INCA Project (Intercultural Calendar for Early Multilingual Learning) [http://www.incaproject.eu/web/content.asp?lng=fr&parent=INCA&section=SpecificAimS](http://www.incaproject.eu/web/content.asp?lng=fr&parent=INCA&section=SpecificAimS) |}

| Minimum curriculum (one week) | This is a curriculum - for one language and one culture which are not taught - covering just one week. | The aim is to put learners in touch with that language and culture, building on what they know of them already and trying to help them develop some minimum communication competences. | For the least taught languages. | [http://www.italianosubito.ch/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=4&Itemid=18&lang=it](http://www.italianosubito.ch/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=4&Itemid=18&lang=it) |
Plurilingual activities

These are all activities which are implemented using intercomprehension strategies and aids in more than one language, sometimes via different channels, e.g.:
- watching a film in English with Chinese subtitles, and summarising it in German;
- reading a story in a bilingual edition, listening to a recording of it in a third language, and re-telling it in writing in the language of schooling;
- watching a cartoon film in a language closely related to one’s own, with subtitles in another closely-related language, and telling the story in writing in a foreign language.

These activities can also take the form of exercises in thematic units devoted to learning other subjects (cf. Euromania project).

The aim is to proceed in such a way that learners train themselves, and learn to mobilise all their language resources, take risks and deploy success strategies in carrying out a linguistic and cognitive task.

All the languages taught in the school, and languages belonging to the same families.

http://www.euro-mania.eu/