

COMPASS

A framework for theory and research on
plurilingual didactic competences

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Colophon

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1 Introduction

The Framework proposed in this document originates within the initiative *Didactic Competences in the Multilingual Classroom* (COMPASS)^a promoted by the team of the project *One school many languages* (SMS 2.0)^b of Eurac Research. Both a research and professional development initiative, COMPASS aims to support teachers from German and Italian schools across South Tyrol in making the most of the increasing linguistic heterogeneity of their classes, and to accompany them on their way towards an increasingly inclusive and participatory plurilingual didactic practice.

The Framework described below responds to the need to have a clear reference model of the competences that teachers involved in (or shifting to) plurilingual education^c should possess. These competences have been identified through a thorough examination of existing models and frameworks related to language-sensitive subject teaching, linguistically-responsive teaching, intercomprehension, CLIL, and plurilingual education in the majority language classroom (among others, Candelier et al. 2012; Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Boeckmann et al. 2011; de Carlo & Anquetil 2019; Gogolin et al. 2010; Leisen 2013; Marsh et al. 2012; Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum 2014). Additionally, resources such as plurilingual education curricula, national and local guidelines for schools, and theoretical works on translanguaging have been taken into account and inspired our work. The Framework is also fruit of a multifaced process of consultation with experts: experts in applied linguistics at Eurac Research, teacher trainers working in the field of plurilingual education and pedagogical innovation, and scholars from a number of higher education institutions across Europe.

As exemplified below, the Framework identifies a variety of resources (grouped within three macro-areas, namely *Knowledge*, *Skills*, and *Commitment*) which can contribute to a teaching approach geared towards the features of plurilingual education. As such, the Framework originated as a tool to facilitate theory and research on plurilingual didactic competences, as well as to inform a professional development course within the COMPASS initiative. This aspect is particularly important since, as researchers involved in teacher training, we strongly feel we have the responsibility to stimulate teachers' awareness of the aims and potential benefits of plurilingual education, as well as to promote a view of plurilingual education that resists the compartmentalised, cross-cutting approach to the learning of languages and other subjects that can sometimes be found in schools (Beacco et al. 2016: 72).

To note, the Framework is not intended for personal use on the part of teachers, nor does it explicitly deal with curriculum design, in other words with the educational programme students are expected to work on in class. Yet the Framework implies that revised core contents be adopted to allow teachers to put their knowledge, skills and attitudes into practice. The Framework could therefore be utilised as a tool for informing modules and designing lesson plans. If appropriately adapted, it could also serve as a term of reference for the individual teacher to evaluate and review his/her own teaching under the lens of plurilingual education.

^a <https://sms-project.eurac.edu/research/2629-2/>

^b <https://sms-project.eurac.edu>

^c For a definition of the most relevant terms used in the Framework, which also include *plurilingual education* and the notion of *competence(s)*, please see the Glossary at the end of this document.



2 Structure of the Framework

In order to successfully implement plurilingual education in such a way as to leverage and expand students' linguistic repertoires, stimulate their interest and openness to linguistic diversity, and educate them for an increasingly multilingual and multicultural society, teachers need a variety of competences. For this Framework, these competences were broken down into twelve **resources**, or **categories**. These, in turn, were grouped into three **macro-areas**: *Knowledge*, *Skills* and *Commitment* (see Figure 1 below).

The first macro-area, *Knowledge*, comprises knowledge of linguistics as well as of language acquisition and of language learning processes (category 1), knowledge of concepts related to multi/plurilingualism and plurilingual education (2), and knowledge of sociolinguistics processes (3). All these categories, in our view, constitute an essential base for developing and refining plurilingual didactic competence.

The second and largest macro-area, *Skills*, includes a wide range of pedagogical and didactic abilities and is informed by the knowledge components of the Framework. To this macro-area belong a variety of categories that are concerned with the teacher's ability to assess their students' language needs and to design their lessons accordingly: these include the ability to reconstruct one's students' linguistic repertoires (4), identify the language demands of one's discipline (5), and select the most suited didactic approach (6). The same macro-area also encompasses a set of abilities that teachers need in their day-to-day classroom routine, namely: scaffolding (8), the ability to select tasks and topics to maintain and expand students' linguistic repertoires (9), the ability to adequately assess the competences of plurilingual students (10), as well as the ability to adopt a learner-centred approach in class (7), because putting the student at the centre of one's teaching is essential for truly giving voice to their identity and plurilingualism.

As its title clearly suggests, the *Commitment* macro-area includes the most explicitly attitudinal components of this Framework and thus takes into account personal factors such as those linked to beliefs, attitudes, motivations and values. To this macro-area thus belong the category labelled "Language activism" (Shohamy 2006), in which the focus lies in recognising the value of multilingualism/plurilingualism and in taking on an active role in promoting such a view in one's classroom and beyond (11), as well as the category "Language education as a transversal task", which calls for increased collaboration across disciplines and teachers (12).



Figure 1: Teachers' plurilingual didactic competences: macro-areas and resources/categories

After identifying the main resources/categories within each macro-area (Figure 1), these were further broken down into **components** so as to capture the various interrelated facets of the same phenomenon. Thus, for instance, the second category “Knowledge of concepts related to multi/plurilingualism and plurilingual education” was deemed to encompass two components, namely “Teachers have some basic knowledge of concepts related to multi/plurilingualism” and “Teachers know about different pluralistic and language-oriented didactic approaches”. As illustrated in the extract below (Figure 2), these components can be found in the left-hand column of the Framework.



2 Knowledge of concepts related to multi/plurilingualism and plurilingual education		
	Component	Concretisation
2A	Teachers have some basic knowledge of concepts related to multi/plurilingualism.	<i>Teachers know about the differences between terms such as multilingualism and plurilingualism as defined by the Council of Europe. They are also aware of notions such as language-internal multilingualism, linguistic repertoire and plurilingual competence. Teachers are aware that plurilingual speakers do not keep the resources of their complex repertoire “strictly separated in mental compartments” (Council of Europe 2018a: 159), but purposefully modulate their use in ways that are interconnected. Teachers have some awareness of the differences that are inherent in concepts such as multicompetence and translanguaging.</i>
2B	Teachers know about different pluralistic and language-oriented didactic approaches.	<i>Teachers are aware of the purposes, similarities and differences between various approaches including: awakening to languages; intercomprehension between related languages; intercultural approach; integrated didactic approach to different languages; language-sensitive and linguistically-responsive teaching, durchgängige Sprachbildung; translanguaging.</i>

Figure 2: Extract from the Framework showing category n.2, its components and their concretisations.

As Figure 2 shows, each component is explained in more detail through **concretisations**, which appear in the right-hand column of the Framework. The concretisation for component 2B, for instance, reports that:

Teachers are aware of the purposes, similarities and differences between various approaches including: awakening to languages; intercomprehension between related languages; intercultural approach; integrated didactic approach to different languages; language-sensitive and linguistically-responsive teaching; durchgängige Sprachbildung; translanguaging.

Before giving way to the Framework itself, a final note should be made with regard to the macro-area of *Commitment*. The boundary between *Commitment* and the other macro-areas, in fact, may at times not appear as straightforward as the one between *Knowledge* and *Skills*. This is because commitment to the ideals of plurilingual education is an integral part of most of the categories that fall into the areas of *Knowledge* and *Skills*. With *Commitment*, however, we explicitly refer to a teacher’s proactive capacity and readiness to mobilise his/her knowledge and skills to act as a social agent of change, to advocate for plurilingual students by valuing linguistic diversity and to take responsibility for their students’ development as plurilingual speakers.



3 The Framework

Macro-area 1: Knowledge

1	Knowledge of linguistics, of language acquisition and of language learning processes	
	Component	Concretisation
1A	Teachers ^d have some basic knowledge of linguistics.	<i>Teachers have basic knowledge of notions such as language typologies¹, oral and written registers², types of genres³, the distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)⁴.</i>
1B	Teachers have some basic knowledge of language acquisition and of learning processes in first, second and foreign languages.	<i>Teachers have basic knowledge of stages in language acquisition and of the role of the first language(s) (L1s) in additional language learning⁵. They know, for instance, that linguistic or metalinguistic practices learned in one language can be transferred to another⁶; that conversational fluency in a second and foreign language develops much more quickly than academic language skills⁷; that the early development of metalinguistic competence means a head start for language development and cognitive growth⁸. Teachers have some knowledge of the sociocultural and sociocognitive side of learning processes, whereby the social and the cognitive dimensions are mutually constitutive⁹. They also know that the use of emotionally-touching learning materials, contents and tools has a positive effect on students' motivation¹⁰ and on their (language) learning processes. Teachers are familiar with some of the most common misconceptions related to concepts such as linguistic transfer¹¹, fossilization¹², language separation¹³ etc., and recognize when multilingualism is considered as a deficit and not as a resource in their school¹⁴.</i>
1C	Teachers know about the role of language in all learning processes.	<i>Teachers know about the capacity to activate transfer strategies from one language, one competence or one subject to another¹⁵.</i>
2	Knowledge of concepts related to multi/plurilingualism and plurilingual education	
	Component	Concretisation
2A	Teachers have some basic knowledge of concepts related to multi/plurilingualism.	<i>Teachers know about the differences between terms such as multilingualism and plurilingualism as defined by the Council of Europe¹⁶. They are also aware of notions such as language-</i>

^d If not specified otherwise and throughout the Framework, the word "teachers" indicates teachers of all subjects.



		<p><i>internal multilingualism¹⁷, linguistic repertoire¹⁸ and plurilingual competence¹⁹.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers are aware that plurilingual speakers do not keep the resources of their complex repertoire “strictly separated in mental compartments” (Council of Europe 2018a: 159), but purposefully modulate their use in ways that are interconnected.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers have some awareness of the differences that are inherent in concepts such as multicompetence²⁰ and translanguaging²¹.</i></p>
2B	Teachers know about different pluralistic and language-oriented didactic approaches.	<p><i>Teachers are aware of the purposes, similarities and differences between various approaches including: awakening to languages; intercomprehension between related languages; intercultural approach; integrated didactic approach to different languages²²; language-sensitive and linguistically-responsive teaching²³; durchgängige Sprachbildung²⁴; translanguaging²⁵.</i></p>
3 Knowledge of sociolinguistic processes		
	<u>Component</u>	<u>Concretisation</u>
3A	Teachers know about the interconnection between language, culture, society, and identity.	<p><i>Teachers understand that language is not simply a tool used to exchange information but is also a system through which speakers can create and shape symbolic realities, including values, perceptions and identities²⁶. They are also aware that all languages are defined by the social, political, cultural or ethnic affiliation of their speakers²⁷. They critically reflect on the role of language for identity production and group identification²⁸, as well as in shaping a speaker’s way of being in the world²⁹.</i></p>
3B	Teachers know that languages are sociocultural and sociopolitical constructions. They know about the sociopolitical implications of language use.	<p><i>Teachers know that language can be an instrument for the authorization or illegitimation of a group or of an identity³⁰. They know examples and histories of language stigmatization in the area they live in.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers know about concepts such as majority and minority languages³¹ and are aware that minority languages can have a hidden prestige outside institutional contexts such as the school³².</i></p> <p><i>Teachers also know about demographic trends affecting national and local linguistic profiles.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers are aware of the influence of the family, the media and the social context on students’ language beliefs and uses³³.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers count on critical multilingual awareness in dealing with all these issues³⁴.</i></p>



Macro-area 2: Skills

4	Reconstructing students' linguistic repertoires and language biographies	
	<u>Component</u>	<u>Concretisation</u>
4A	Teachers reconstruct their students' linguistic repertoires and language biographies by adopting appropriate tools and strategies.	<p><i>In order to reconstruct their students' linguistic repertoires and language biographies³⁵, teachers promote a variety of activities and tools that best suit their educational context: e.g., they invite students to interview each other³⁶ or to complete their language portraits so as to visually represent their linguistic repertoire³⁷. They promote the use of the Language Biography, the Language Dossier and the Language Passport³⁸, and encourage them to write or tell language life stories that illustrate their language biographies and learning experiences³⁹.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers also motivate students to share language anecdotes⁴⁰ in class and to bring examples of how they use and build on their linguistic repertoire outside the school⁴¹. This can be done by asking students to report on their language experiences and linguistic landscapes⁴² (e.g., via photos or personal narratives) and by showing products of language use to the rest of the class (e.g., depending on the year of schooling, blogs, short fictional narratives, comic strips, self-recorded videos, self-composed song lyrics etc.). Under specific circumstances, teachers involve parents⁴³ and cultural mediators in the process of reconstructing students' language biographies and prior schooling and learning experiences⁴⁴.</i></p>
5	Identifying classroom language demands	
	<u>Component</u>	<u>Concretisation</u>
5A	Teachers identify the language demands of their disciplines and design their lessons accordingly.	<p><i>Teachers identify the linguistic and discursive features that may be challenging for their students⁴⁵, (e.g., discipline-related terminology, use of passive/active voice, processes of nominalization, sentence and text structure etc.). This process is facilitated by the awareness of the language biographies and linguistic repertoires of the students in the class, which can help a teacher work on their strengths in a language to build on another.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers develop appropriate tasks and tools that address the language demands they have identified⁴⁶.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers of non-linguistic subjects collaborate with language teachers in this process. Together, they also evaluate the impact of the devised tasks and tools on students' learning.</i></p>
6	Selecting the most appropriate didactic approach in the multilingual classroom	
	<u>Component</u>	<u>Concretisation</u>



6A	Teachers choose among different pluralistic and language-oriented approaches and methodologies in order to meet their educational purposes.	<i>Teachers choose a certain approach and/or methodology (also in combination, e.g., awakening to languages, linguistically-responsive teaching, intercomprehension, integrated didactic approach, CLIL etc.) with a clear objective in mind⁴⁷. The choice of approaches and tasks is not haphazard but shows a long-term commitment to plurilingual education (e.g., the expected learning outcomes, methods, tasks etc. are purposefully aligned and clearly stated⁴⁸). The implementation of one or more approaches and methodologies in class is thus neither episodic nor fragmentary but is coherently embedded in the curriculum.</i>
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7 Adopting a learner-centred approach

	<u>Component</u>	<u>Concretisation</u>
7A	Teachers adopt a learner-centred classroom approach and promote a wide range of collaborative methods which also stimulate students to use the resources of their linguistic repertoires.	<i>Teachers promote group and pair work and other learner-centred methods⁴⁹ to increase each student's talking time⁵⁰ and exposure to language input (e.g., classroom discussions, vocabulary games, flipped classroom activities, tea party, think-pair-share etc.), as well as to foster relations of positive interdependence among their students⁵¹. When appropriate, the proposed activities involve the class' entire linguistic repertoire, so that students have the freedom to express themselves in their strongest language(s)⁵² and can make sense of challenging content by drawing on all the resources available to them⁵³.</i>
7B	Teachers assign open-ended and problem-based tasks.	<i>Teachers work with open-ended and problem-based rather than closed tasks, i.e., tasks that allow for more than one solution (e.g., open-ended questions), and thus require more complex language uses⁵⁴. These include, for instance, projects that require the use of multiple languages and that can be organized in collaboration with teachers of other subjects (e.g., surveys conducted in and outside the school, plurilingual class newspapers, collections of short stories or poems etc.)⁵⁵.</i>

8 Scaffolding

	<u>Component</u>	<u>Concretisation</u>
8A	Teachers provide additional support aimed at enhancing their students' cognitive academic language proficiency.	<i>Teachers adopt tools and strategies that support their students' receptive skills (e.g., extralinguistic/multimodal support such as pictures and charts, word walls, notes at the margins of texts, glossaries, diversified tasks and exercises, different reading strategies etc.)⁵⁶. Teachers use their languages in a way that helps students become familiar with formal and grammatical correctness⁵⁷. Through appropriate strategies and tools (concept maps, graphic organisers, language cloze, etc.)⁵⁸, teachers support their students' productive skills as well as their ability to select relevant information and to organise it into coherent texts.</i>



		<p>Teachers work systematically on their students' academic vocabulary and discipline-related terminology. Thus, for instance, they introduce new vocabulary items by offering additional supportive information (appropriate use of the word in context etc.), and repeat them systematically (e.g., through a spiral curriculum)⁵⁹.</p> <p>The activities and tools promoted in class involve the various languages that make up the students' linguistic repertoires (e.g., multilingual glossaries, visual aids, maps, tutoring, multimodal tools, multilingual dictionaries) and thus aim at building on the students' previously acquired knowledge⁶⁰, also by leveraging on the cross-linguistic correspondences that exist across the languages available in the class⁶¹. The promotion of such activities and tools is an integral part of lessons in all subjects.</p>
8B	Teachers leverage their students' linguistic repertoire to enhance their learning of subject content.	<p>Teachers draw on their students' linguistic repertoires to facilitate content comprehension⁶² (e.g., by providing texts in different languages including students' home languages, by drawing on other languages for explanations etc.)⁶³.</p> <p>Teachers encourage their students to use their linguistic repertoires in a flexible way in order to participate with more confidence and motivation in the learning activities (group work, brainstorming, feedback, written reports, personal narrations etc.)⁶⁴. They also encourage their students to verbalise content knowledge in one language (e.g., the L1), before reformulating the same concepts in another⁶⁵.</p>
8C	Teachers encourage their students to critically reflect on their learning strategies and help them become more autonomous learners.	<p>Teachers explicitly discuss different learning strategies (e.g., reading styles and strategies, the different phases of the writing process, vocabulary learning strategies etc.), taking into account and resorting to their students' linguistic repertoires and previous language learning experiences.</p> <p>Teachers also help their students understand their own (language) learning strategies. They regularly offer tasks that encourage critical reflection on the used strategies in order to help their students become more autonomous (language) learners⁶⁶.</p>
9	Selecting tasks and topics to maintain and expand students' linguistic repertoires	
	Component	Concretisation
9A	Teachers promote activities and topics that leverage students' variegated linguistic resources and stimulate trans-linguistic mediation ⁶⁷ .	<p>Teachers promote trans-linguistic mediation activities where different languages are used for input and output (e.g., reading articles in one or more different languages on the same topic and producing an oral or written text in a language other than the input language; using a language to answer questions about a video shown in another language, etc.).</p> <p>In trans-linguistic mediation activities in which different languages are used for input and output, teachers help their students access and process the meanings of a source text,</p>



		<i>shape knowledge and subsequently verbalise it in the form of an oral or written output, also in communicative exchanges with the rest of the class. By doing this, teachers sustain their students to maintain and expand their linguistic repertoires⁶⁸.</i>
9B	Teachers promote activities and topics that stimulate students' metalinguistic and metacultural reflection/competence ⁶⁹ .	<p><i>Teachers promote the comparison of concepts across languages (e.g., numbers in French vs. German, events in history across languages and historiographies, linguistic loans in the specialised language of the discipline etc.), thus enabling students to see and appreciate the importance of language in all subjects and to understand the cultural differences reflected in the connotations and wording of concepts.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers of language subjects promote the analysis and comparison of grammatical phenomena, word formation processes etc. across languages and language varieties (e.g., cognates and homographs, word order across different languages, grammatical features of non-standard varieties etc.)</i></p> <p><i>The discoveries made by the students can be encapsulated into dedicated 'discovery books' that include texts, materials and metalinguistic reflections in various languages. All the activities that teachers promote to stimulate metalinguistic and metacultural competence also aim at maintaining and expanding the students' linguistic repertoires.</i></p>
9C	Teachers promote activities and topics that enhance their students' interest towards language ⁷⁰ .	<p><i>Teachers promote activities that enhance their students' interest towards their subject's terminology (e.g., etymology, different connotations of words in everyday vs. special language etc.).</i></p> <p><i>Teachers of relevant subjects (e.g., languages, history, geography) include topics that enhance their student's knowledge about and interest towards languages in society (e.g., majority and minority languages, endangered languages etc.).</i></p> <p><i>Teachers of language subjects include topics that enhance their students' knowledge about and interest towards languages (e.g., the evolution of languages, different writing systems, living/dead languages, non-verbal communication etc.).</i></p> <p><i>By promoting these activities, teachers nourish their students' interest in further expanding their linguistic repertoires.</i></p>
10	Assessing plurilingual students' language competences	
	Component	Concretisation
10A	Teachers use non-traditional assessment concepts that take account of their students' whole linguistic repertoires.	<i>Teachers adopt non-traditional assessment concepts that move away from the notion of multiple monolingual competences⁷¹. New forms of assessment focus on competences such as: trans-linguistic mediation; the ability to engage in metalinguistic reflection; the ability to make connections across languages, including unfamiliar ones</i>



		<p>(intercomprehension); the ability to communicate a message adequately despite limited command of a specific language⁷². The aim is thus to open up opportunities to assess students' ability in language, and not just in a given language⁷³. New forms of assessment look at the student as a whole person who is developing a rich plurilingual repertoire, and thus also take account of plurilingual students' complex linguistic practices outside the classroom.</p> <p>In the assessment, teachers purposefully align their tasks and methods to the expected learning outcomes and teaching activities⁷⁴. In doing so, they make use of purposefully designed checklists that are informed by the knowledge that teachers have of their students' linguistic repertoire and language needs, and which can be inspired by already existing resources for plurilingual education (e.g., the scales for "Mediation" and "Plurilingual and Pluricultural Competence" in the CEFR Companion Volume⁷⁵).</p> <p>For teachers of non-linguistic subjects, new assessment formats need to link up the evaluation of students' knowledge of given subject contents with that of language use, without separating the two⁷⁶.</p>
10B	Teachers promote a view of assessment as a shared task, that is, in synergy with their students.	<p>Teachers help students develop strategies and tools to assess their own language skills and progress (e.g., portfolios, personal narratives, checklists etc.)⁷⁷. Students' mistakes are viewed as chances for learning⁷⁸ and are corrected only when necessary and appropriate.</p> <p>Teachers view assessment as way to better access student thinking⁷⁹. Working in synergy with each individual student, teachers collect accurate information with which they construct their further teaching activities⁸⁰.</p>

Macro-area 3: Commitment

11	Language activism⁸¹	
	Component	Concretisation
11A	Teachers recognize the value of multilingualism and approach plurilingualism from a perspective of strength.	<p>Teachers are aware of the positive effect of plurilingual speakers' cognitive training on the ability to identify, compare and critically discuss language phenomena and thus enhance language and content learning⁸². This is why they encourage their students to leverage the knowledge and competences acquired in the languages they know to boost their learning process⁸³.</p> <p>Teachers also believe that the pedagogically-informed use of their students' linguistic repertoire (e.g., through trans-linguistic mediation practices) can give students better access to subject contents and thus allows them to navigate the complex waters of cognitively demanding academic tasks⁸⁴.</p>



11B	Teachers consider all their students capable of developing a rich plurilingual repertoire and take initiatives that empower students to develop positive attitudes towards their own and others' plurilingualism.	<p><i>Teachers believe that plurilingualism is something for all⁸⁵, including those students who are yet to develop a rich plurilingual repertoire. They devote specific moments in class to encourage their students to reflect – both at the individual and collective level – on their own language biographies (see Component 4).</i></p> <p><i>Teachers encourage their students to build a positive view of their developing plurilingual repertoire⁸⁶. This can be achieved by making their language resources visible and meaningful in class;⁸⁷ by creating an empowering classroom atmosphere⁸⁸ where students can feel safe to share their language experiences.</i></p> <p><i>Teachers also encourage students to develop an awareness of diversity and to look at others' repertoires as an enrichment, not only for the individual but also for the class and the community at large⁸⁹. This can be achieved through activities that leverage students' linguistic resources and stimulate trans-linguistic mediation and metalinguistic reflection (see Component 9).</i></p>
11C	Teachers involve their students' families in classroom activities that value linguistic and cultural diversity.	<p><i>Teachers set up initiatives and projects that involve their students' families (e.g., projects that draw on home traditions, music, literature, cuisine, visual arts etc.)⁹⁰. These aim to promote a more cohesive and open community both within and outside the class, reinforce plurilingual students' sense of self, inspire students to expand their linguistic repertoires, and support students whose home languages are not officially taught at school to develop their competences in the L1s further.</i></p>
11D	Teachers empower all learners to feel they can be active agents in an increasingly multilingual and multicultural society.	<p><i>Teachers set up initiatives and projects that involve institutions and cultural associations outside the school (other local schools, museums, theatres, libraries, music schools, city events, fairs, virtual exchanges with other students etc.)⁹¹. These aim to empower students to experience and appreciate the increasing linguistic and cultural diversity of their community⁹² and to develop the cultural understanding⁹³ and intercultural competence that are needed for more participatory and democratic citizenship⁹⁴.</i></p>
12 Language education as a transversal task		
	Component	Concretisation
12A	Teachers develop ways to cooperate with other language/content subject teachers.	<p><i>Teachers of language subjects cooperate with each other to promote convergent teaching strategies⁹⁵ (e.g., by using the same metalinguistic vocabulary, by planning concertedly and harmonizing educational objectives, teaching and assessment methods etc.).</i></p> <p><i>Teachers of all subjects develop ways to cooperate with each other in all matters related to language and schooling (e.g., by adopting the same pluralistic approaches across subjects, organizing joint projects etc.). Cooperation among colleagues</i></p>



		<i>valorises each other's transversal competences and creates fruitful educational alliances within the school⁹⁶. In their most concrete form, such alliances lead to the establishment of stable working groups that collaborate for the promotion of plurilingualism in their school. In all this, the role and commitment of the head teacher is fundamental to support collaboration and exchange of ideas among colleagues.</i>
12B	Teachers see and appreciate the importance of language in non-language subjects.	<i>Teachers believe that educating students with respect to language is a task for all subjects⁹⁷ because "every subject has a language dimension" (Beacco et al. 2016: 29). For this reason, they feel responsible for their students' language education.</i>
12C	Teachers take active part in continuing professional development.	<i>Teachers participate in professional development initiatives (e.g., courses, workshops, webinars, collective action research etc.) in order to acquire and refine their skills in the field of plurilingual education⁹⁸. Ideally, teachers share their knowledge, skills and commitment in the field of plurilingual education with other, also more skeptical teachers (e.g., by taking on an active role in their school and beyond).</i>

¹ Boeckmann et al. 2011

² Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Marsh et al. 2012

³ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019

⁴ Cummins 1979; see also Lange 2020

⁵ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Boeckmann et al. 2011; Candelier et al. 2012; Cummins 1979; Dipartimënt Educazion y Cultura Ladina 2016; Duarte et al. 2010; Fischer & Lahmann 2020; Lucas & Villegas 2011; Krumm & Reich 2011

⁶ Cummins 1979; see also Marsh et al. 2012

⁷ Lucas & Villegas 2011

⁸ Gogolin 2002; Krumm & Reich 2011

⁹ Vygotzky 1978; see also Boeckmann et al. 2011

¹⁰ Hascher 2010

¹¹ Boeckmann et al. 2011; García & Otheguy 2019; Kramersch & Witheside 2007

¹² Kramersch & Witheside 2007

¹³ Gogolin 2002; Grosjean 2020; Heller 2007; Wei 2018

¹⁴ Gogolin 2002

¹⁵ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Beacco et al. 2016; Cummins 1981

¹⁶ Council of Europe 2018a; for further terminology and definitions see Cenoz 2009; Cenoz 2013; De Florio-Hansen & Hu 2003; Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum 2014

¹⁷ Wandruszka 1975; see also de Cillia & Ransmayr 2019; Kaiser & Ender 2020; Ransmayr 2019

¹⁸ Blommaert & Backus 2013; Busch 2012 and 2015

¹⁹ Beacco et al. 2016; Council of Europe 2018a; Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum 2014

²⁰ Cook 2003

²¹ García 2009; Otheguy et al. 2015; Vogel & García 2017

²² Candelier et al. 2012; see also Andrade, Martins & Pinho 2019

²³ Becker-Mrotzek et al. 2013; Leisen 2013; Lucas & Villegas 2011 and 2013; Tajmel & Hägi-Mead 2017



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- ²⁴ Gogolin et al. 2010
- ²⁵ García 2009; Duarte & Günther-van der Meij 2018
- ²⁶ Candelier et al. 2012; Jessner & Kramersch 2015; Kramersch 2002
- ²⁷ Makoni & Pennycook 2007; Otheguy et al. 2015
- ²⁸ Bucholtz & Hall 2004
- ²⁹ *Habitus*, as in Bourdieu 1977
- ³⁰ Bucholtz & Hall 2004; Candelier et al. 2012
- ³¹ Gorter et al. 2014; Grenoble & Singerman 2014
- ³² Gogolin 2002
- ³³ Candelier et al. 2012; Cenoz & Gorter 2014; see also Bleichenbacher et al. 2019
- ³⁴ García 2016
- ³⁵ Lucas & Villegas 2011 and 2013; see also de Carlo & Anquetil 2019; Favaro 2004; Hesson et al. 2014
- ³⁶ Bettinelli 2013
- ³⁷ Busch 2018; for further examples see Carbonara & Scibetta 2020; Celic & Seltzer 2012; Colarieti et al. 2019
- ³⁸ Marsh et al. 2012
- ³⁹ Beacco et al. 2016; Busch et al. 2006; Fischer & Lahman 2020; García 2016; Pavlenko & Blackledge 2004; see also de Carlo & Anquetil 2019 for practical recommendations
- ⁴⁰ Busch et al. 2006
- ⁴¹ This refers to what Jones and Saville (2016) called the two other worlds of learning, namely the personal and the social worlds, in addition to the worlds of education and assessment.
- ⁴² Shohamy & Gorter 2008
- ⁴³ See, for instance, Dipartimènt Educazion y Cultura Ladina 2016
- ⁴⁴ Espinosa et al. 2016
- ⁴⁵ Beese et al. 2014; Leisen 2020; Lucas & Villegas 2011; Marsch et al. 2012; see also Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Fischer & Lahmann 2020
- ⁴⁶ Boeckmann et al. 2011
- ⁴⁷ Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum 2014
- ⁴⁸ Biggs 2003
- ⁴⁹ Beacco et al. 2016; Boeckmann et al. 2011; Leisen 2013; Marsh et al. 2012
- ⁵⁰ Funk et al. 2014
- ⁵¹ Natali et al. 2015
- ⁵² Busch et al. 2006
- ⁵³ Hesson et al. 2014
- ⁵⁴ Funk et al. 2014; Gogolin et al. 2010
- ⁵⁵ Beacco et al. 2016
- ⁵⁶ Beese et al. 2014; Gogolin et al. 2010; Hesson et al. 2014; Leisen 2013 and 2020; Lucas & Villegas 2011
- ⁵⁷ Beacco et al. 2016 ; Gogolin et al. 2010
- ⁵⁸ Duarte et al. 2010; Gogolin et al. 2010
- ⁵⁹ Gogolin et al. 2010; see also Bleichenbacher et al. 2019
- ⁶⁰ Candelier et al. 2012; Hesson et al. 2014; Schwienbacher et al. 2015
- ⁶¹ de Carlo & Anquetil 2019
- ⁶² Canderlier et al. 2012; see also Lemmrich et al. 2020
- ⁶³ Beese et al. 2014; Prediger & Redder 2020
- ⁶⁴ Boeckmann et al. 2011; Prediger & Redder 2020
- ⁶⁵ Dalziel & Guarda 2021
- ⁶⁶ Andrade, Martins & Pinho 2019; Ballweg et al. 2013; Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Boeckmann et al. 2011; Candelier et al. 2012; Deutsches Schulamt 2009; Gogolin et al. 2010; Schwienbacher et al. 2015
- ⁶⁷ For a definition of *trans-linguistic mediation*, see the Glossary at the end of this document. Other terms can also be found in the literature which share some similarities with the concept of trans-linguistic



mediation (e.g., *transliteracy* in Baker 2011; *translanguaging* in Canagarajah 2011, Carbonara & Scibetta 2020, Cenoz & Santos 2020, Espinosa et al. 2016, García 2009, Vogel & García 2017; *cross-linguistic mediation* in Beacco et al. 2016, Candelier et al. 2012, Council of Europe 2018a, Schwienbacher et al. 2015; *multilingual crossing skills* in Kramsch & Zhang 2018)

⁶⁸ Orellana & García 2014

⁶⁹ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Beacco et al. 2016; Carbonara & Scibetta 2020; Cescutti et al. 2020; Deutsches Schulamt 2009 and 2010; Dipartimènt Educazion y Cultura Ladina 2016; Direzione Istruzione e Formazione Italiana 2009, 2010a and 2010b; Krumm & Reich 2011; Prediger & Redder 2020

⁷⁰ Andrade, Martins & Pinho 2019; Beacco et al. 2016; Bettinelli 2013; Candelier et al. 2012; Carbonara & Scibetta 2020; Council of Europe 2018a; de Carlo & Anquetil 2019; Engel & Colombo 2018; European Commission 2011; Oomen-Welke 2020; Schwienbacher et al. 2015.

⁷¹ Beacco et al. 2016; Council of Europe 2018a; Gogolin 2002; García 2016; García & Ascenzi-Moreno 2016; Gorter & Cenoz 2017; Otheguy et al. 2015; Kramsch & Zhang 2018; Lenz & Berthele 2010; Lüdi 2020; Seed 2020; Shohamy 2011 and 2013; see also the concept of *parallel monolingualisms* as described by Heller 2007

⁷² European Commission 2011

⁷³ Otheguy et al. 2015; for a valuable example see also Seed 2020

⁷⁴ Biggs 2003

⁷⁵ Council of Europe 2018a

⁷⁶ Beacco et al. 2016; see also Bleichenbacher et al. 2019

⁷⁷ Andrade, Martins & Pinho 2019; de Carlo & Anquetil 2019; Lucas & Villegas 2011; Marsh et al. 2012

⁷⁸ Cescutti et al. 2020; see also de Carlo & Anquetil 2019

⁷⁹ García & Ascenzi-Moreno 2016

⁸⁰ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019

⁸¹ Shohamy 2006

⁸² Gogolin 2002; Direzione Istruzione e Formazione Italiana 2009

⁸³ Beacco et al. 2012; Dipartimènt Educazion y Cultura Ladina 2016; Direzione Istruzione e Formazione Italiana 2009

⁸⁴ Dalziel & Guarda 2021

⁸⁵ Boeckmann et al. 2011

⁸⁶ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; MIUR 2012 and 2014; see also Hesson et al. 2014

⁸⁷ Boeckmann et al. 2011

⁸⁸ Marsh et al. 2012; see also Cummins 1986; Carbonara & Scibetta 2020

⁸⁹ Colarieti et al. 2019

⁹⁰ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Cantù & Cuciniello 2012; Little & Kirwan 2020

⁹¹ See, for instance, Bleichenbacher et al. 2019

⁹² Beacco et al. 2016

⁹³ Schecter & Cummins 2003

⁹⁴ Boeckmann et al. 2011; Council of Europe 2007a; European Commission 2011; Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum 2014

⁹⁵ Beacco et al. 2016; Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Boeckmann et al. 2011; Cescutti et al. 2020; Deutsches Schulamt 2009 and 2010; Dipartimènt Educazion y Cultura Ladina 2016; Direzione Istruzione e Formazione Italiana 2009, 2010a and 2010b; Marsh et al. 2012; Schwienbacher et al. 2015.

⁹⁶ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Duarte et al. 2010

⁹⁷ Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Boeckmann et al. 2011; Leisen 2013; MIUR 2012; Seed 2020

⁹⁸ Boeckmann et al. 2011; Marsh et al. 2012; for further examples, see Bleichenbacher et al. 2019



4 Glossary

Competence(s)

In this document, we use the term *competence* (and *competences*) as defined by the Council of Europe (2018b: 32), namely as “the ability to mobilise and deploy relevant values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and/or understanding in order to respond appropriately and effectively to the demands, challenges and opportunities that are presented by a given type of context”. Importantly, the notion of competences includes not only internal resources such as skills and knowledge but also, as exemplified in this Framework, attitudes and values. These are “regarded as essential for behaving appropriately and effectively in democratic and intercultural situations” (ibid.: 33). In describing the competences needed to engage in plurilingual education, we draw on the concept that competences are situation- and task-specific, and that in specific situations they mobilise particular resources, coming under skills, knowledge and attitudes, which in turn are “different for each task and each situation” (Candelier et al. 2012: 11).

Intercultural competence

Not limited to language abilities, *intercultural competence* includes the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours that help a speaker “experience otherness and diversity, analyse that experience and derive benefit from it” (Beacco et al. 2016: 10). Intercultural competence thus represents “the basis of understanding among people” (Council of Europe 2007a: 114) that is needed for participatory and democratic citizenship (Council of Europe 2007a; Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum 2014). One of the ways through which intercultural competence can be developed is plurilingual education, a definition of which is provided below.

L1(s): first language(s)

The term *first language(s)* and its short form *L1(s)* denotes the language variety or varieties that a person acquires in early childhood, approximately before the age of two or three (Council of Europe 2007a: 114). The term is often used as a synonym for *heritage language* or *mother tongue*. Yet, the latter has affective connotations that make it inaccurate and, in some cases, even incorrect. It is not necessarily the case, in fact, that a child’s first language is that of his/her mother, and children can acquire more than one variety of language simultaneously if they grow up in a multilingual family environment (Council of Europe 2007a: 51; Boeckmann et al. 2011: 71-72). For these reasons, the term *first language(s)* is preferred in educational and research contexts, including the one in which the present Framework originates.



Linguistic repertoire

The term *linguistic repertoire* (also called *language* or *plurilingual repertoire*) refers to all the languages or language varieties (including one's first language or languages, non-standard varieties, languages learned at later stages in life etc.) that an individual has acquired over the course of his/her life in different ways (at home, at school, independently, etc.) and for which he/she has different skills (speaking, reading, etc.) and different levels of competence (elementary, independent, expert, etc.). An individual's linguistic repertoire can change over time: new languages can be added while others may be forgotten, stay dormant or vanish (Council of Europe 2007a: 116).

Language-oriented didactic approaches

Under the term language-oriented didactic approaches we have chosen to include a variety of approaches (including those widely known as *linguistically-responsive teaching*; *sprachsensibler, sprachaufmerksamer, sprachbewusster Unterricht*; *durchgängige Sprachbildung*; see for instance Gogolin et al. 2010; Leisen 2013; Lucas & Villegas 2011; Tajmel & Hägi-Mead 2017) in which language is seen as a fundamental tool to access new concepts and negotiate knowledge in all subjects (Bleichenbacher et al. 2019; Boeckmann et al. 2011). In such a view, competence in language and competence in subject content are inextricably intertwined (Airey 2016), and it is the teacher's responsibility to make sure that content is made accessible through language (van der Walt & Ruiters 2011). Although definitions of such approaches have been often formulated to define the teaching of students whose first languages differ from that of the school (see, by way of example, Lucas & Villegas 2011), language-oriented didactic approaches are also a valid support for students for whom the language of schooling is their first language (Beese et al. 2014; see also Pona & Chiappelli 2016 on the importance of *facilitazione linguistica* for all students).

Multilingualism

Several definitions exist for the concept of *multilingualism* (see, for instance, Cenoz 2009 and 2013; De Florio-Hansen & Hu 2003; Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum 2014). In this Framework, we follow the Council of Europe's decision to distinguish the term *multilingualism* from *plurilingualism* (see below). Based on this, multilingualism refers to the presence of more than one language or variety in a geographical area, regardless of its size. Individuals living in multilingual geographic areas may be plurilingual or monolingual, i.e., speaking only one of the languages/varieties present on the territory (Council of Europe 2007b: 8).

Plurilingualism

Drawing on the Council of Europe (2007b: 8), we define *plurilingualism* as referring "to languages not as objects but from the point of view of those who speak them". In this sense, plurilingualism refers to "the repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use, and is therefore the opposite of



monolingualism” (ibid.). An individual’s repertoire includes his/her first language and any other language variety he/she knows, including non-standard varieties such as dialects (see *Linguistic repertoire*).

Pluralistic approaches

The term *pluralistic approaches* refers to those “didactic approaches that use teaching/learning activities involving several (i.e., more than one) varieties of languages and cultures” (Candelier et al. 2012: 6). This is in contrast to approaches defined as “singular”, i.e., any didactic approach that takes into account “only one language or a particular culture and deals with it in isolation” (ibid.). Examples of pluralistic approaches include: awakening to languages; intercomprehension; intercultural approach; integrated didactic approach (Candelier et al. 2012).

Plurilingual education

The term *plurilingual education* is used to denote “a manner of teaching, not necessarily restricted to language teaching, which aims to raise awareness of each individual’s language repertoire, to emphasise its worth and to extend this repertoire by teaching lesser used or unfamiliar languages” (Council of Europe 2007a: 116). Expanding on this, we see plurilingual education as a form of education aimed both at developing a student’s linguistic repertoire, and at leveraging the resources of that repertoire to enhance his/her overall learning. Plurilingual education is also an instrument to promote participatory and democratic citizenship among individuals: it is also and particularly by raising awareness of and appreciation for all languages, in fact, that students can develop positive perceptions of their own and of others’ repertoires and, as a consequence, increased openness to diversity (Council of Europe 2007a; European Commission 2011).

Translanguaging

The term *translanguaging* can be interpreted through both a theoretical and a pedagogical lens. As theory, translanguaging is based on the belief that plurilingual speakers have an integrated linguistic repertoire which language users flexibly and purposefully draw on to make sense of things, and from which they select and use particular meaning-making features to achieve their communicative purposes in different contexts (Vogel & García 2017). As indexed by the prefix *trans*, translanguaging theory looks at communicative practices as “transcending autonomous languages” (Canagarajah 2018), and thus offers a radically different view compared to the traditional notion of the plurilingual speaker possessing two or more autonomous language systems (Vogel & García 2017). From a pedagogical standpoint, translanguaging sees plurilingualism as a resource for the whole classroom. Translanguaging activities leverage students’ entire linguistic repertoires and their dynamic language practices (ibid.) with the aim of enhancing their cognitive process, acknowledging linguistic diversity and expanding students’ knowledge and awareness of languages. In this document, the concept of translanguaging is strictly linked to that of *trans-linguistic mediation*, a description of which is provided below.



Trans-linguistic mediation

Trans-linguistic mediation is interpreted here as a complex phenomenon that takes place both at the individual level of the plurilingual speaker and at the social level. As for the former, trans-linguistic mediation is activated when a plurilingual speaker draws on his/her complex linguistic repertoire to cognitively access meanings before verbalising and mobilising them through language. As such, *trans-linguistic mediation* is strictly connected to “linguaging” (Becker 1991), that is to the cognitive process of “making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language” (Swain 2006: 97), a process which the Council of Europe describes as “talking the idea through and hence articulating the thoughts” (2018a: 33). Since linguaging is a continuous activity of all human beings in the world (Becker 1991: 34), it follows that *trans-linguistic mediation* occurs at any time when two or more languages are involved in the cognitive process, something that constitutes the norm in plurilingual speakers “however incomplete or truncated their knowledge of the individual languages may be” (Wei 2018: 16).

In this document, mediation is thus primarily regarded as an individual’s cognitive process in that, as Dendrinos observes (2006: 10), “any person involved in communication is a-priori concerned with his/her own meanings because, otherwise, it is impossible for him/her to make sense of things and to participate in an exchange (of meanings)”. Yet, *trans-linguistic mediation* as described here also has a social component. It is through linguaging, in fact, that thinking can be articulated and “transformed into an artifactual form” (Swain 2006: 97) and thus be mobilised in communicative exchanges with others. In such exchanges, *trans-linguistic mediation* implies the activation of a plurilingual speaker’s repertoire to relay information across languages, e.g., through translation, interpretation, paraphrase, and (re)formulations. Under this lens, the notion of *trans-linguistic mediation* mirrors closely that of (cross-linguistic) mediation proposed by the Council of Europe, which sees it as the mobilisation of language to create “the space and conditions for communicating and/or learning, collaborating to construct new meaning, encouraging others to construct or understand new meaning, and passing on new information in an appropriate form” (Council of Europe 2018a: 103). In such a view, mediation takes the form of a social act whereby a plurilingual speaker acts “as an intermediary between interlocutors who are unable to understand each other directly” (Council of Europe 2018a: 175).



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