

# INSIDE RESEARCH REPORTS

Research Domain: Generations and Development across the Life Span

Charles Berg, Nico Kneip, Romain Sahr & Christiane Weis (Eds.)

## Changing Educational Competences in a Context of Language Diversity: Luxembourg Related Outcomes from a European Project



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in a Context of Language Diversity



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Luxembourg Related Outcomes from a European Project

University of Luxembourg, Luxembourg

Project and publication realised by the Luxembourgish youth research centre



with the support of the Ministry of Family and Integration, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training as well as the *Benjamin Club/GEADE – Groupe d'étude et d'aide au développement de l'enfant asbl*.



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Lifelong Learning Programme

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## I. PRÉFACE

Charles Berg, Christiane Weis

*This is a hopeful book, and, its authors hope, a helpful one. (Hymes, 1972b, p. xi)*

La présente publication résulte du projet européen EUCIM-TE *Train Teachers for Mainstream Literacy Education* qui s'est déroulé de 2008 à 2010 dans le cadre du *Lifelong Learning Programme (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency)*. Le projet a ses origines dans le constat que, partout au monde, les enseignants sont confrontés à une population scolaire de plus en plus multiculturelle et plurilingue<sup>1</sup> et que, dans ce contexte, les questions de langues et notamment celles des langues d'accès au savoir (*academic language, Bildungssprache*) deviennent de plus en plus importantes. L'idée est de passer d'un enseignement compartimentalisé des langues à un enseignement inclusif. Or, il s'avère que, dans la plupart des pays, la formation initiale des enseignants ne les y prépare pas assez. Le but du projet était donc de développer au niveau européen un curriculum définissant des compétences de base dont les enseignants (et autres intervenants) ont besoin pour mettre en œuvre un *inclusive academic language teaching* (IALT).

Dans cette publication seront présentés quelques résultats du projet. Ceux-ci ont deux origines différentes. D'un côté, il s'agit de rapports liés directement au projet, d'un autre côté de textes plus réflexifs sur la situation de la diversité culturelle et linguistique dans notre pays et en Europe. Ces moments de réflexions ont abouti tout au long du projet à des prises de parole dans différents contextes. Contrairement à la production des documents contractuellement dus, l'élaboration des textes réflexifs n'a donc pas été planifiée systématiquement. Ils résultent en général de situations où les membres de l'équipe ont eu l'occasion de présenter différents aspects du travail de recherche et de construction curriculaire entrepris dans le cadre du projet. Le présent ouvrage est donc à lire en conjonction avec les autres documents du projet, notamment le *European Core Curriculum for Inclusive Academic Language Teaching*, dont la publication est en discussion mais qui est d'ores et déjà disponible en ligne (<http://eucim-te.eu/>).

Les textes que nous présentons témoignent de la création de multiples liens rendue possible grâce au projet. D'abord, l'Université du Luxembourg a réussi à gagner droit de cité dans un réseau international regroupant officiellement huit pays (l'Allemagne, le Royaume-Uni, les Pays Bas, la Bulgarie, la Slovénie, le Portugal, la Suède et le Luxembourg) auquel s'ajoute par la présence de Bernard Mohan, professeur émérite de l'Université de British Columbia, le Canada. Notre jeune université a donc pu coopérer avec des institutions de renommée comme l'Université de Cologne et le King's College de Londres. La coopération internationale a permis que le développement curriculaire se situe dans la prolongation de différents projets nationaux antérieurs tels que le projet FörMig<sup>2</sup> en Allemagne, le *Vancouver Project on Language/Content Integration* au Canada, le projet sur le « réajustement sur l'enseignement des langues » au

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<sup>1</sup> Nous utilisons aussi bien le terme « multilingue/multilinguisme » que le terme « plurilingue/plurilinguisme ». Le premier fait référence au contexte alors que le dernier se réfère à l'individu.

<sup>2</sup> Programm zur Förderung von Kindern und Jugendlichen mit Migrationshintergrund (<http://www.blk-foermig.uni-hamburg.de/>)

Luxembourg ainsi que les travaux réalisés en Angleterre dans le cadre de l'association NALDIC<sup>3</sup>. Outre la coopération universitaire internationale, l'équipe de recherche a également tissé des liens dans le contexte national tant au niveau de la société civile qu'au niveau des responsables administratifs et politiques. Ainsi l'Université a-t-elle conclu un contrat avec le Benjamin Club/G.E.A.D.E – Groupe d'Étude et d'Aide au Développement de l'Enfant asbl afin de bénéficier de son expérience en matière de plurilinguisme précoce. Par ailleurs, le TEP – *Teacher Education Partnership*, un groupe de personnes spécialement créé pour accompagner le projet et le relier au terrain, réunissait des formateurs pédagogiques universitaires et non-universitaires, des enseignants et des représentants du Ministère de l'Éducation nationale et du Collège des Inspecteurs, du Ministère de la Famille et de l'intégration (Département « Maisons relais; structures d'accueil de la petite enfance et enfants scolarisés»), des représentants des syndicats et de l'association des parents ainsi que des représentants d'associations directement impliquées dans la prise en charge extrascolaire des enfants (Caritas, Croix Rouge, maison relais). D'autre part, l'adaptation nationale a été élaborée en concertation avec les responsables du Ministère de l'Éducation nationale et de la Formation professionnelle ainsi que les responsables de la formation pédagogique.

Vu l'importance accordée à la création de réseaux, il semble symptomatique qu'un des textes du présent volume, celui de Joana Duarte, de Hans Joachim Roth et de Christiane Weis traite exactement de la méthode de mise en œuvre des *Teacher Education Partnerships*. Les textes les plus récents datent de la présentation finale du projet au King's College à Londres au mois de novembre 2010. Il s'agit d'une description de la situation de l'enseignement des langues au Luxembourg du point de vue d'un acteur politique (texte de Mady Delvaux-Stehres) et d'une réflexion sur le défi que représente la diversité ou même la super-diversité (Vertovec, 2006) pour la formation des enseignants en Europe. Les autres textes sont directement liés aux différentes étapes du projet : l'analyse des besoins, la production du curriculum pour les formations pédagogiques ainsi que le processus d'adaptation nationale du projet curriculaire.

Le caractère multilingue du présent document est un produit collatéral de la collaboration internationale que nous avons voulu maintenir eu égard au sujet traité. Nous ne recourons donc pas à la traduction mais reproduisons les textes dans leur version originale. On constate que le multilinguisme a non seulement été le sujet de nos travaux et débats, mais que le projet a induit une pratique assez intensive d'une communication multilingue.

Il est évident qu'un tel projet n'est possible que grâce aux multiples supports qu'il trouve au cours de son évolution. Nous sommes très reconnaissants aux membres du TEP luxembourgeois qui ont accompagné nos travaux pendant une période de deux ans et qui ont manifesté la ferme volonté de continuer les efforts en vue d'une mise en œuvre pratique. Nos entrevues et échanges réguliers ont permis d'ancrer le projet dans la réalité éducative et ont servi de source d'inspiration tout au long du projet. Notre gratitude revient également au Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, notamment au directeur du SCRIPT et à la directrice de l'EDIFF, ainsi qu'au Ministère de la Famille et de l'Intégration qui ont bien voulu soutenir financièrement la publication dans le cadre de l'accord de collaboration faisant fonctionner le CESIJE au sein de

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<sup>3</sup> National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum, <http://www.naldic.org.uk/>

l'université. Un grand merci revient enfin au groupe international de collègues avec lesquels nous avons noué, au-delà de l'échange professionnel, des liens d'amitié.

La fin d'un projet est à la fois un moment un peu mélancolique, mais aussi un moment d'espoirs et de souhaits: ainsi aspirons-nous à ce qu'une partie des idées développées dans le cadre du projet se répercutent dans les formations éducatives. En même temps, nous espérons pouvoir continuer au niveau européen et international l'échange de savoirs concernant la diversité et la super-diversité linguistiques et culturelles au Luxembourg, en Europe et dans le monde. La petite phrase de Dell Hymes que nous avons mis en exergue de notre texte mentionne également l'espoir. Hymes explique qu'il lui est important de parler d'espoir parce que l'ouvrage collectif qu'il introduit contient nombre de critiques, et il précise que ces critiques ne visent pas seulement les autres, les parents, les enseignants et leurs formateurs, mais également les scientifiques.



## II. MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION IN LUXEMBOURG

Mady Delvaux-Stehres

*Editors' note: The text is based on a keynote speech given at the closing conference of the EUCIM Project at King's College in London on 13<sup>th</sup> November 2010.*

Luxembourg is a very small country in between France, Germany and Belgium, and this geographical situation on the French/German linguistic border has shaped the history of our country. When the state was created in 1839, the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg lost parts of its French speaking population, so the new state was monolingual, with a population speaking Moselle-Franconian, a German dialect.

Yet, in 1839, Luxembourg decided to maintain a very, I think, original, language system, in which French and German were no longer specific to geographic territories, but to socio-functional sectors one may say. French was the written language of the eminent and German was the written language of the common people. Luxembourgish gradually grew to become the language of identity of the small Luxembourg community.<sup>4</sup>

Today Luxembourg has two official languages so-to-say, French and German, as well as one national language – Luxembourgish. In this way a Luxembourg resident can choose one of the three languages for official communication with the administration, and the administration is obliged to respond in the language chosen.

Official texts, laws, court decisions are in French, however, police or bailiff reports are written in German. A native Luxembourgish family speaks Luxembourgish at home, reads a newspaper in German, normally watches TV in Luxembourgish or German – some do it in French. They order their meal in restaurants in French, and they receive official communication in German and French.

Then, like in all other European countries, English is becoming increasingly important: music, Internet, online tapes foster the interest of young people to learn English, and at the same time, the technological innovations promote the Luxembourgish language.

For a long time Luxembourgish was only used orally, and now, in SMS and e-mails Luxembourgish is written more and more. Obviously, it is a more informal communication, and consequently we are allowed to write Luxembourgish with many grammatical and spelling mistakes.

So, in fact, the average Luxembourgish person is truly plurilingual in the sense that he or she uses different languages in parallel. Language switching is considered normal. In the same sentence, you use words from different languages, and you are understood. And that is the case for a resident whose mother tongue is Luxembourgish.

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<sup>4</sup> For a more detailed description of the Luxembourgish background see the following contribution.

Now the situation becomes more complicated if you take a closer look at how the population is made up: 43% are non-Luxembourgish. They are mostly European citizens, among which the Portuguese community represents the majority, and, of course, all the newcomers continue to speak their mother tongue, and they get along by talking one of the other official languages of the country.

Hence to the Luxembourg traditional trilingual nature – Luxembourgish, German, French – is added the plurilingualism of the individuals that form the Luxembourg society. As a result, in the streets of Luxembourg, you can hear all the languages spoken, and if you walk through the capital, there is no obvious language dominance.

So you might tell me this is great – yeah, but it’s terrible for someone visiting Luxembourg, and what is certainly a rich pool for foreign language researchers, remains a baffling problem for schools. And we have to deal with a certain complexity at school, and that is what makes my job as a Minister of Education so, I would say, exciting.

Since the first legislation on primary education, which dates back to 1843, the teaching of languages remains a politically debated issue. For each school reform, this subject provokes the most heated discussions in Luxembourg. Our educational system consists of pre-primary school which is compulsory for all children at four; primary school starts for children at six, and, at the age of twelve, the pupils are oriented towards one of three tracks in secondary school. So far nothing very original, except that we use three languages at school, Luxembourgish, German and French.

Their use varies according to the progression of the student in the school system, but whatever track or orientation, every child needs to master a relatively high level of the three languages in order to succeed. One of the missions of pre-school is to teach Luxembourgish to the many immigrant children.

At primary school the children are taught in German. German becomes the formal language of instruction in primary school, whereas Luxembourgish is used for informal communication. Learning to read and write in German certainly implies for the children the learning of a new language, but the closeness to the Luxembourgish language makes it relatively easy for the child whose mother tongue is Luxembourgish. This transition is, in fact, considered as a necessity, a transition from a basically oral language to one that is written and indispensable for learning.

From the second year of primary school on French is introduced and gradually gains more importance, to the point of becoming the main language of instruction in upper secondary school. In this way, every child learns first mathematics, history or any other subject in German, and then, after that, has to switch to French as the language of instruction. For that reason mastering French and German becomes a condition for succeeding in school. Then, in addition to studying Luxembourgish, German and French, English is introduced as a foreign language in the second year of secondary school.

Luxembourgish people are very proud of the multilingual tradition of their country. In the language profile drawn up by the Council of Europe in 2005, experts testify that Luxembourg represents an example of a “successful and ambitious language policy”.

Many students in Luxembourg graduate from secondary school with remarkable skills in several languages. Graduates from Luxembourg are able to pursue higher education in French, German and English-speaking countries, which of course offers wide opportunities.

But this multilingual education is taxing for all students, even for Luxembourgish pupils. Acquiring skills in the three languages does not come without its fair share of trouble. In fact, all students have to go through a trilingual education, not only an elite group of students as is the case in most other bilingual schools that I know of.

44% of the students in Luxembourgish schools do not have Luxembourgish as their mother tongue. This number is rising: in 2010, 58% of the children entering pre-primary school do not speak Luxembourgish. These children cannot transfer their knowledge of Luxembourgish to German, and they therefore struggle to attain the required levels in the languages and this leads to many failures at school, especially when this is combined with a socially disadvantaged background. As a result we are aware in Luxembourg of the high rate of grade repeaters and that of early school leavers.

The Luxembourg school is, in many respects, a school of segregation, in which children from socially disadvantaged backgrounds may succeed, but with much difficulty. In respect to the performance of 15 year-olds measured in the PISA study, Luxembourg hardly reaches the average of OECD countries, not only for reading but also for mathematics and science. There must be explanations, but all of them challenge our traditional education system.

With regard to mathematics and science, we claim that students spend much more time in learning languages and that it is difficult to find available time to develop skills in other, just as important, subjects. But with regard to reading skills, we find it difficult to explain. Is there something lacking in our education system? Is it because students are not tested in their mother tongue? Or should we settle for the fact that plurilingual students perform less well than monolingual ones?

We are trying to improve things – mainly in the field of language teaching. Because the singularity of the Luxembourg system is its multilingualism for all students, we focus on the question of language teaching. Following the above mentioned report by the Council of Europe, we drew up a 66-step action plan to readjust the teaching of languages, a plan that we are currently implementing.

The different actions can be grouped into three areas: defining objectives, adapting the mode of assessment and mobilising teachers. The objectives: Most people from Luxembourg are taught at a level which is close to that of a native speaker in all three, or even four, languages, adding English. These are exceptional students, but to our stakeholders, to people of education, they implicitly represent a model to imitate. Trilingualism is spontaneously understood, in our country, as mastering three languages perfectly.

However, this image is not realistic. Besides a few exceptions we tend to idealise, the mastering of these languages is normally uneven and striving for equilingualism does not correspond to a real need, because not all jobs require identical skills in all languages.

Today this seems obvious to me, but we needed the external view of the Council of Europe to raise our awareness, and following their recommendations, we are now specifying learning objectives for different languages. Based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, we are defining standards of oral, written skills as well as for reading and listening skills. These standards also serve as a basis for student orientation towards different vocational or learning paths.

So a student opting for administrative work must acquire written competences in several languages whereas someone who aims for a technical training needs to be proficient in at least one language. Then the assessment system: in parallel, we are in the process of adjusting the assessment methodology. Traditionally, our assessment system is based on the appreciation of written skills. To some extent I could say that the way of teaching modern languages in Luxembourg was like that for teaching dead languages, which is not very motivating for students. The requirement today to take into consideration the first three areas – writing, reading, listening – and reducing the value attributed to writing offers some encouragement to those students who have a good understanding of the language but who are not perfect in grammar and spelling.

We are also focusing on the difference between formative assessment which measures the ongoing progress of the student during the cycle, and the end of cycle assessment, which certifies for each student the level attained by the student at the end of the cycle.

And now I come to what is most difficult and you might easily guess what it is – it is the challenge to convince teachers to accept these changes and to apply them in the classroom. I must admit that this battle is not yet won, but I notice some positive reactions in many schools.

Luxembourg's education system is lucky to have teachers with very high linguistic skills. Every secondary school teacher had to obtain his or her degree in an English, German or French university. Teachers with a high competency in languages are, of course, a prerequisite for multilingual education. This *conditio sine qua non* does not only have advantages, because their training reinforces the teachers in a representation of the use and teaching of the language as a mother tongue. I believe that many teachers do not receive a sufficiently specialised training in language teaching and learning, which means that they are often not aware of the difficulties that arise from learning the school languages on the basis of a different mother tongue.

I have to add, that despite our long tradition of multilingual education, but because of the highly specialised teachers in German, French or English, we do not have in Luxembourg an integrated pedagogy for languages. Each language is treated independently from the others, which does not make it possible to resort to all the different forms of support which are specific to multilingual teaching, for example the use of paraphrases, of reformulation in another language. Therefore the transfer of competence, knowledge and strategies from one language to another is not assured in our schools. I believe that to make multilingual teaching and learning more efficient, teachers have to be made aware of the challenges of language learning for children, who are not taught in their mother tongue at school. And even more: they have to understand that children or young people who learned a language, maybe in the streets or even in a socially disadvantaged family, do not reach, without help, the level of academic language which is necessary to succeed in the education system.



And then, of course, teachers in school need to develop common reflection and set out a coherent strategy. They need to share their common vision that they can each of them apply to their subject. What holds true for language teachers also holds true for teachers of other subjects. They must help their students understand the concept of the different subjects, but also teach them how to handle and use technical terms, and how to express themselves clearly in all the subjects. In our schools all the teachers whatever their specialisation, are – or should be – language teachers. They all have to reinforce with students a language that enables the communication of complicated ideas. I believe that the skills required by a teacher working in Luxembourg's multilingual environment are the very ones needed by all teachers facing a class of children from a wide range of backgrounds and being taught in a language that they do not understand or have difficulties to understand.

I suppose you noticed that I can describe fairly well the education system in Luxembourg. And I can also develop the vision of the teachers we need – how they should be and should act. But I admit that I am not good, or not good enough, in making this vision real. I have the small hope, that the result of your work in the Comenius project will provide some elements of how to improve the training of teachers, how to develop the methodology they need, how to provide the materials that they can use in the classroom to improve teaching and learning. I wish that Europe can help me and many others in our European countries to improve the quality of schooling, because this is my aim. All the effort in my job is to make sure, or to give a chance to all the children in our schools to succeed in school so that they have a good start in life.



### III. NEEDS ANALYSIS REPORT FOR LUXEMBOURG

Charles Berg, Patrice Joachim, Nico Kneip, Romain Sahr, Christiane Weis

*Editors' note: The text represents the starting point in the project; it has been written in 2008 and its main aim was to give an overview of the situation in Luxembourg to the consortium members. The current paper is an updated version in which we have integrated more recent data. To the readers acquainted to the Luxembourgish situation some parts of the text might state the obvious; one should therefore keep in mind that the text was primarily addressed to a foreign audience.*

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## A. STATISTICAL DATA

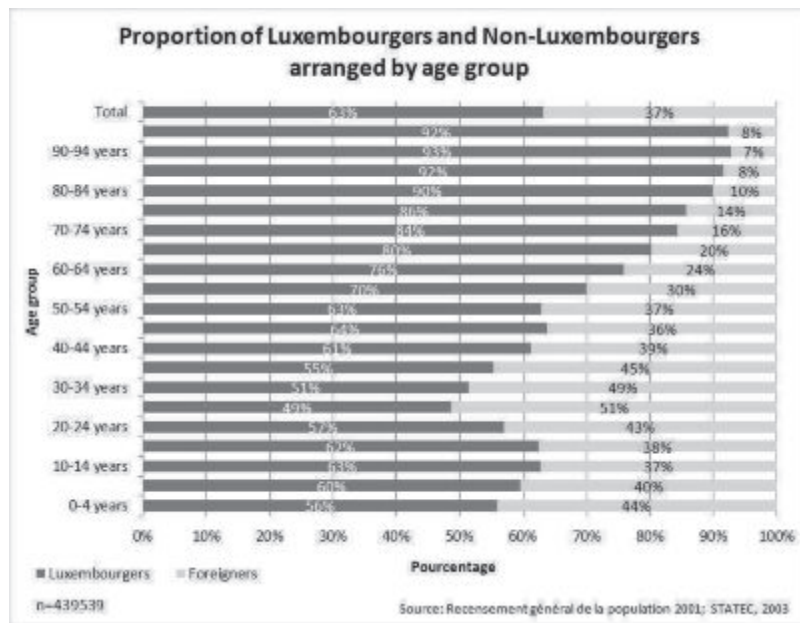
Luxembourg is one of the smallest member states of the European Union (EU), with a population of around 477.000 (estimation Statec, 2008)<sup>5</sup>. It is a trilingual country. French, German and *Lëtzebuergesch* are official languages. Use of the three languages (German, French and *Lëtzebuergesch*) is provided for in the language Act of 24<sup>th</sup> February 1984, which stipulates that *Lëtzebuergesch* is the “national language of Luxembourgers”, that the language of legislation is French (only French legal texts are authentic) and that French, German or *Lëtzebuergesch* may be used in administrative and judicial matters (MENFP & Council of Europe, 2005/2006)

### 1. MIGRANT SITUATION: HETEROGENEOUS COMPOSITION

During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, immigration made a significant contribution to the economic and social development of Luxembourg. At present, there is a substantial number of Non-Luxembourg residents, including Portuguese, Italian, French and German nationals (37%)<sup>6</sup> in the Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg (Statec, 2001). Some years ago there was also a big increase in the number of immigrants and asylum seekers especially from former Yugoslavia (Croatia, Serbia, Montenegro and Kosovo) (Eurydice, 2003/04).

### 2. PROPORTION OF LUXEMBOURGERS AND NON-LUXEMBOURGERS ARRANGED BY AGE GROUPS

FIG. 1: PROPORTION OF LUXEMBOURGERS AND NON-LUXEMBOURGERS ARRANGED BY AGE GROUPS



The figure above shows how Luxembourgish and Non-Luxembourg nationals are distributed in the different age groups. It illustrates that Luxembourgers and Non-Luxembourgers are spread very unequally in the different age groups. Foreign residents are primarily present in the age

<sup>5</sup> In the meantime the population has increased and is estimated 511.800 inhabitants in the year 2011 (estimation Statec, 2011).

<sup>6</sup> This percentage has gone up to 43,3 % in 2011. Since 1st January 2009 it is possible to get double nationality and 8335 persons have opted for the Luxembourgish nationality which means that they figure as Luxembourgers in the statistics.

groups from 0 to 44 years whereas Luxembourgish residents are over-represented in the age groups 44+. This would seem to suggest that there exists a primarily monocultural ageing Luxembourgish population in contrast to a multicultural younger population.

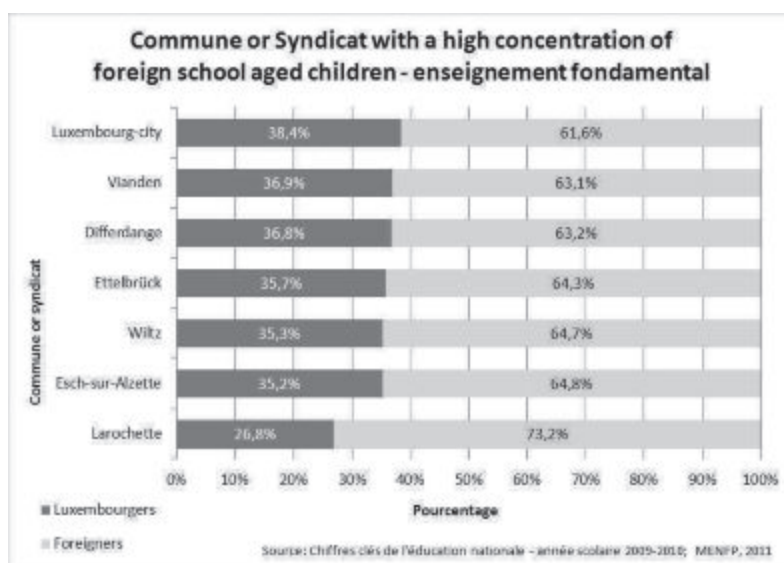
The figure above refers to the last available population census of 2001. The total population in 2001 was lower than today and the population trends are therefore an underestimate. In 2011 the total population is no doubt higher and we are approaching the 50/50 proportion of Luxembourgers and Non-Luxembourgers in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg (Meyers & Willems, 2008).

### 3. AREAS OF HIGHER CONCENTRATION OF NON-LUXEMBOURG NATIONALS

The geographical concentration of foreigners is by far the highest in the region of the capital (Luxembourg-City) as well as in Larochette and Wiltz, areas that have been focal points for immigrant settlement in the past (Eurydice, 2003/04).

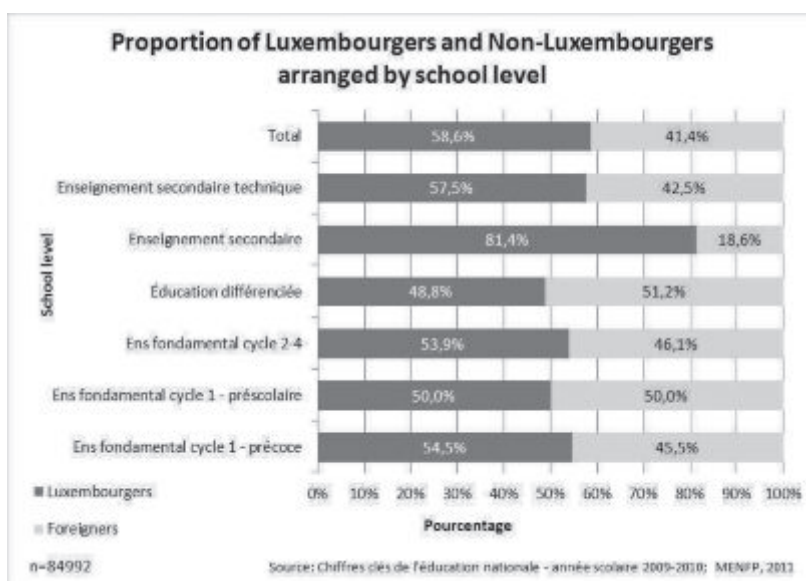
The figure indicates a few areas (beside Luxembourg-City, Larochette and Wiltz) where there is a higher concentration of Non-Luxembourg school-aged children (>60%) for the *enseignement fondamental* level. In the City of Luxembourg there is a similar variance in the concentration between urban quarters (Meyers & Willems, 2008).

FIG. 2: SOME AREAS WITH A HIGH CONCENTRATION OF FOREIGN SCHOOL-AGED CHILDREN



The next illustration gives an overview of the distribution of Luxembourgers and Non-Luxembourgers in Luxembourg schools, broken down by school types. It shows a rather significant multicultural situation.

FIG. 3: PROPORTION OF LUXEMBOURGERS AND NON-LUXEMBOURGERS ARRANGED BY SCHOOL LEVELS



The level of Non-Luxembourgers is around 45 to 50% at every school stage, except for the *enseignement secondaire* where they represent only 18,6%. The following table gives an idea about the heterogeneity of school-aged children at the different stages of schooling.

FIG. 4: DISTRIBUTION OF LUXEMBOURGERS AND FOREIGN STUDENTS AT PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL STAGES

Nationality	Fondamental Cycle 1 précoce	%	Fondamental Cycle 1 préscolaire	%	Fondamental Cycle 2-4	%	Education différenciée	%	Enseignement secondaire	%	Enseignement secondaire technique	%	TOTAL	%
luxembg.	2237	54,5	5018	50,0	17427	53,9	297	48,8	10379	81,4	14477	57,5	49835	58,6
portug.	941	22,9	2619	26,1	8141	25,2	204	33,6	867	6,8	6639	26,4	19411	22,8
ex-youg.	169	4,1	572	5,7	1727	5,3	17	2,8	250	2,0	1208	4,8	3943	4,6
french	221	5,4	520	5,2	1233	3,8	16	2,6	251	2,0	586	2,3	2827	3,3
italian	79	1,9	232	2,3	800	2,5	19	3,1	169	1,3	619	2,5	1918	2,3
belgian	96	2,3	251	2,5	711	2,2	7	1,2	242	1,9	225	0,9	1532	1,8
german	65	1,6	168	1,7	394	1,2	5	0,8	174	1,4	247	1,0	1053	1,2
other	297	7,2	646	6,4	1879	5,8	43	7,1	425	3,3	1183	4,7	4473	5,3
Total foreigners	1868	45,5	5008	50,0	14885	46,1	311	51,2	2378	18,6	10707	42,5	35157	41,4
Total	4105	100,0	10026	100,0	32312	100,0	608	100,0	12757	100,0	25184	100,0	84992	100,0

Source: Chiffres clés de l'éducation nationale - année scolaire 2009-2010; MENFP, 2011

Within the group of Non-Luxembourg nationals, the Portuguese are the most significant (22,4%). The number of other nationalities (French, Ex-Yugoslavian, Italian, Belgian and German) is much lower compared to the Portuguese group.

#### 4. TEACHERS AND EDUCATIONAL STAFF

Concerning the educational staff at *école fondamentale* level, the Luxembourgish schools comprised a total of 4825 people in the school year 2009-2010. 78,1% were *enseignants brevetés* (teachers with the necessary diploma who successfully gained a teaching position) and 21,9% *chargés de cours* (MENFP, 2011).

At secondary school level, there was in 2009-2010 a total of 4096 teaching staff: 74,8% were qualified secondary school teachers and 25,2% *chargés de cours*.

With regard to the teacher training at the University of Luxembourg (*Bachelor en sciences de l'éducation*), the number of students is estimated around 500.

## B. THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

This chapter gives an overview of the educational system in Luxembourg. First the structure will be presented and then the main bodies involved in decision making will be listed. In a further paragraph the curriculum will be described and the role of language teaching will be highlighted in particular. Finally the most important factors of curricular inertia and curricular innovation will be summarised.

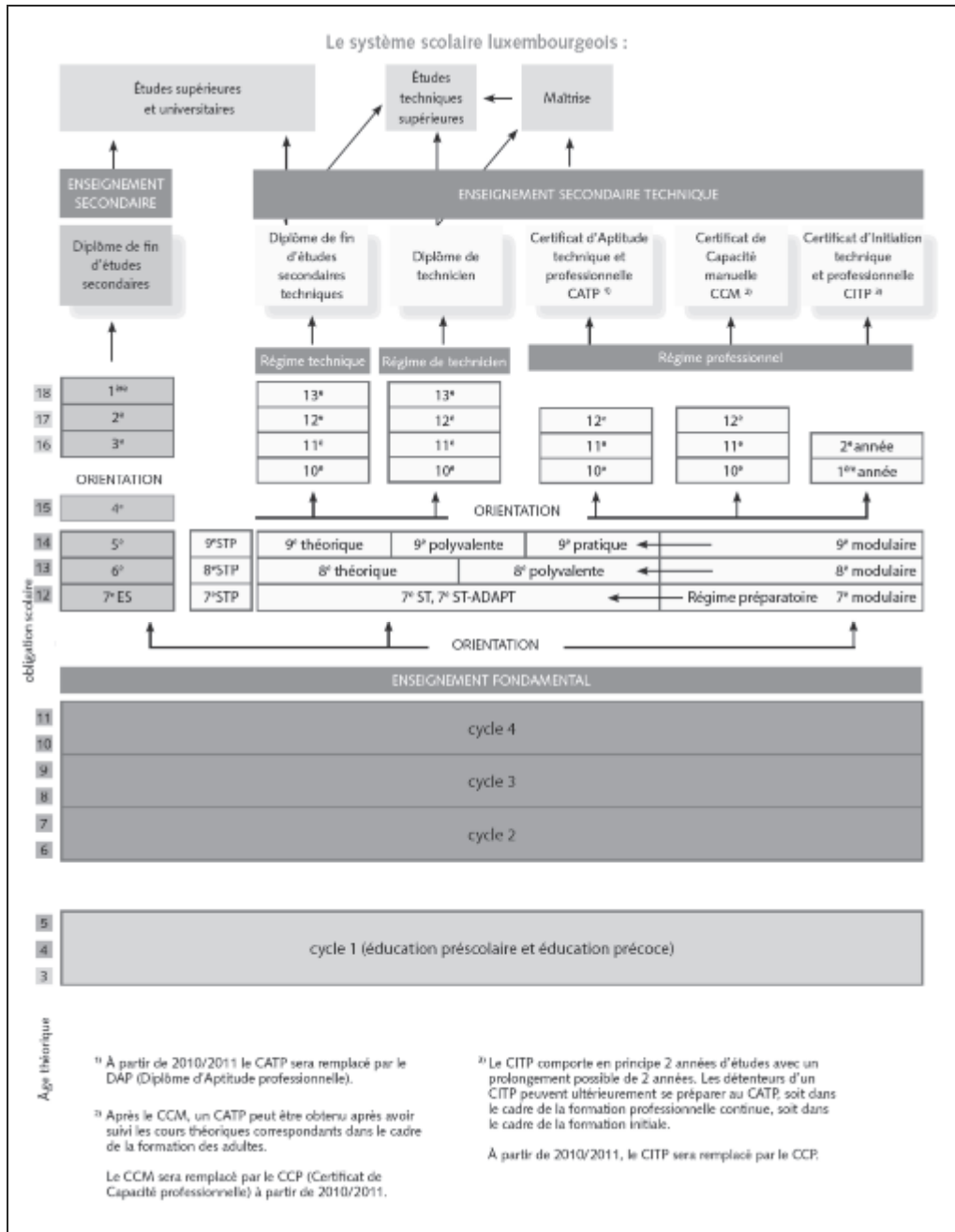
### 1. THE STRUCTURE OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

In Luxembourg, schooling is compulsory for a period of 12 years, from the age of 4 until the age of 16. In the "ideal case" the pupil will have gone through 8 years of the *école fondamentale* and 4 years of secondary school. Moreover, municipalities are constrained to offer early education classes (*précoce*) from the age of 3.

The school system is divided into two main layers. First, the *enseignement fondamentale* which includes the *éducation précoce*, *préscolaire* and the *enseignement primaire*. Second, the *enseignement post-primaire* which is divided into two streams, *enseignement secondaire* and *enseignement secondaire technique*. At present, the *enseignement fondamentale* is going through a phase of major change. This results from a deliberate policy drawn up by the Ministry of Education which culminated in the *enseignement fondamentale* bill which passed through parliament in February 2009. Schools will gain more autonomy and flexibility as a result. This will enable them to deal more effectively with the heterogeneity of the school population. The overall aim is to alleviate school failure and to reach higher levels of achievement for all pupils (cf. chapter on the new law for further details).

The following diagram gives an overview of the structure of the school system.

FIG. 5: STRUCTURE OF THE LUXEMBOURGISH SCHOOL SYSTEM



Source: MENFP, 2011, p. 9



The following table represents the organisational structure of the *enseignement fondamental*.

FIG. 6: THE ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE *ENSEIGNEMENT FONDAMENTAL*

ENSEIGNEMENT FONDAMENTAL			
AGE	STATUS	CYCLE	FORMER DESIGNATION
3+	OPTIONAL	1	ÉDUCATION PRÉCOCE
4+			ÉDUCATION PRÉSCOLAIRE
6+	COMPULSORY	2	ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE
8+		3	
10+		4	

The *enseignement fondamental* is divided into four cycles. The first cycle covers the former *éducation précoce* as well as the former *éducation préscolaire*. The other three cycles form the *enseignement primaire*.

Secondary education in Luxembourg is divided into two sections, general secondary education (SE) and technical secondary education (TSE). After *école fondamentale*, the children are orientated towards one or the other. The SE studies last seven years, lead to the *diplôme de fin d'études secondaires* and prepare the pupil for university studies. TSE comprises different paths (*régimes*) and lasts 5-8 years depending on the choice of the orientation. The main aim is to prepare pupils for working life while providing them with a general, social, technical and professional training. Some paths of the TSE may also give access to higher education.

## 2. INSTITUTIONS, DECISION MAKERS AND EDUCATIONAL STAFF

A series of institutions play an important role in the educational system. The legislative and statutory framework (laws, ministerial regulations, etc.) is defined by the Ministry of Education. Decisions concerning pedagogy, curriculum and instruction methods are taken at this level, but their practical execution rests with the schools themselves.

At *école fondamentale* level it is worth mentioning the *Collège des inspecteurs* (Council of inspectors, composed of one *inspecteur général* and 20 inspectors) which is in charge of the monitoring of *écoles fondamentales*. Furthermore it gives feedback to the Minister concerning questions of pedagogical orientation and school organisation.

The equivalent at secondary school level is the *Collège des directeurs* (Council of principals), composed of the principals and the vice-principals of the secondary schools. This institution serves as an intermediary between the Ministry and the schools. As far as content and curriculum are concerned, the *Commissions des programmes* (curriculum commission) suggest programmes as well as manuals that could be used in schools (one commission for each subject).

Another important institution is the SCRIPT, the Department of Educational Research and Innovation at the Ministry of Education. Both at *école fondamentale* and at secondary school level it has the following missions: to promote and implement innovation and research, to assure the quality of teaching in schools, to organise the in-service training of teachers and educational staff.

### 3. THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE CURRICULUM

Languages play an important role in the Luxemburgish school system. German, French and *Lëtzebuergesch* are mandatory and about 50% of a child's time at school is spent learning languages (Boisseau, 2003, p. 4). The role of languages in the school system is twofold. On the one hand, languages are school disciplines and on the other, they are vehicles for learning and communicating, and give children access to knowledge.

*Lëtzebuergesch* is mainly used in early education. Here, children with an immigrant background often encounter *Lëtzebuergesch* for the first time. This is particularly important since *Lëtzebuergesch* is considered to be a necessary prerequisite for a successful school career. In fact, a good knowledge of *Lëtzebuergesch* can be considered to open doors towards learning German (Maurer-Hetto et al., 2003).

In the *école fondamentale*, German is the main language giving access to literacy; notably first reading and writing education is in German. Moreover, German is used as an academic, vehicular language when teaching a certain number of other subjects. French lessons begin during the second cycle with a strong emphasis on oral communication.

Throughout secondary school German and French lessons are continued and English is taught from the second year onwards. It has a rather unusual status since it is considered to be the first foreign language taught in Luxembourg's educational system. From the fourth year onwards pupils have the possibility to learn Italian or Spanish. Another feature of secondary school concerns the teaching of non-linguistic subjects. In SE, German is the teaching language for the first three years, followed by French. In TSE, non-linguistic subjects are taught in German throughout the curriculum, except for mathematics which are taught in French. Furthermore, in some TSE sections, the working language is French.

Children's home languages are not taught in schools on a regular basis. However, at *école fondamentale* level the *cours intégrés en langue maternelle* enable children to follow subjects like history, geography and sciences in their mother tongue. Alas, these courses are effectively given only in Portuguese and Italian. Children therefore often attend language courses organised outside school.

### 4. CURRICULAR INERTIA AND CURRICULAR INNOVATION

In *école fondamentale* one teacher is in charge of all the subjects (with the exception perhaps of music, arts, physical education and religious/moral education) whereas in secondary school there is as a rule one teacher per subject. The architecture of the curriculum is rigidly compartmentalised. This partition leads to the splitting of the school into language sections and a claim-defending attitude of teachers; each of them is defending adamantly his or her own subject against the "intrusion" of any other subject. Cross-subject or interdisciplinary approaches are celebrated as good practices but are mainly limited to pilot projects. The fact that a huge amount of time is dedicated to language teaching (cf. above) causes disadvantages for content subjects (e.g. history, biology, etc.) as well as for other subjects such as *Lëtzebuergesch*, sports, arts and crafts. Furthermore, emphasis is put on language correctness: selection is often made on the basis of very high standards and a hypercorrectness that

underlies the idea that the Luxembourgish school system should turn every child into a triple native speaker.

However, over the last few years (especially with the definition of a language education policy profile), a series of innovations have been encouraged. Moreover, a strong emphasis is put on transversal and interdisciplinary aspects in teacher training (cf. following chapter). The tendency now is to move away from the trilingual equilingualism and to head for a realistic and diverse plurilingualism. Teachers and the public at large have to become aware that the triple duplicates of native speakers are not very realistic. They have to accept that there are many different ways to be plurilingual and that the diverse identities of plurilingual subjects are marked by their biographical trajectories and life choices. A major step forward is the new competence-based approach. Standards are linked to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) and they are defined as competences by referring to functional-communicative acts.

Hopefully the strong political will for change will have repercussions on the educational realities. The new direction represents indeed a tremendous opportunity for inclusive language learning and the move towards a more flexible curriculum architecture. Another positive “side effect” could be the improvement of the students’ confidence in their language skills. Language education could become a means of social inclusion.

### C. SURVEY OF PRE- AND IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

In the following chapter a brief survey is given about the training of those who, on a professional basis, are instrumental in the education of children and youth. These are primarily:

- 1) Teachers of the *enseignement fondamental*
- 2) Social and care workers, in particular those dealing with children and/or young people
- 3) Teachers at secondary schools

Particular focus will be given to the function and position of language(s) in the respective curricula of pre-service training and in-service training.

The official texts published by the authorised institutions were the main resource for this presentation. These set out most notably the objectives and methodical aspects of training.

#### 1. PRE-SERVICE TRAINING: TEACHERS OF THE ENSEIGNEMENT FONDAMENTAL<sup>7</sup>

Having obtained the *examen de fin d'études secondaires* students can opt to study educational science at the University of Luxembourg (Faculty of Language and Literature, Humanities, Arts and Education) if they want to become teachers in the *école fondamentale*. Candidates for the “Bachelor in Educational Sciences” (BScE) have to pass an admission test on the basis of selected texts from different knowledge domains in the languages of German, French, English and *Lëtzebuergesch* as well as in mathematics and natural sciences.

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<sup>7</sup> [http://www.uni.lu/studies/flshase/bachelor\\_en\\_sciences\\_de\\_l\\_education\\_professionnel](http://www.uni.lu/studies/flshase/bachelor_en_sciences_de_l_education_professionnel)

The BScE is a four-year study programme focusing on learning and teaching which is intended for students interested in the field of educational science in general and in acquiring the competences necessary for the teaching profession in particular. It provides a qualification for teaching pupils from 3 to 12 in the *école fondamentale*, teaching preparatory classes at the technical secondary school and teaching in institutions for children with special needs without any specialisation in specific school subjects.

The programme aims to combine theoretical considerations with field activities in a transdisciplinary perspective. Various educational approaches according to a sociocultural learning paradigm are intended to engage the students in a project of professional development and encourage them to reflect on the role, the status and professional identity of a teacher. The students experience a collaborative learning culture and become familiar with learning practices which draw upon cultural resources, human diversity and interdisciplinary cooperation.

The approach is based on shared activities. Thus, field activities (approx. 40%) and academic training join in the students' individual project and learning pathway. Tutorials and peer tutoring support the students' efforts to set up their own personal study programme.

Promoting the diversity of multilingual practices (German, French, English) in the programme's courses is one of the main principles of the BScE-programme. The students will develop especially the skills required to deal with the diversity of their pupils and to promote the development of plurilingual identities.

Subjects concerning the development and promotion of language and literature are part of a transdisciplinary curriculum line entitled "Signs and signifying practices". Each semester has its own topic with a seminar related to signs. The subjects of the courses throughout the 8 different semesters are as follows:

- 1) Language development (Semester 1: Module topic: Making the familiar strange)
- 2) Developing children's plurilingualism (Semester 2: Culture as a resource for learning)
- 3) Development of literacy (Semester 3-6: Acting in meaningful activities)
- 4) To learn a second language in a multilingual context (Semester 3-6: Individual pathways of learning and development)
- 5) Multimodal texts in the New Media Age (Semester 3-6: Creating and producing together)
- 6) The 'Self'-'Community'-'Society' Triangle as Language/Literacy Achievement (Semester 3-6: Developing autonomous learners)
- 7) Domain and language specific reading and writing (Semester 7: Creating Learning environments for older children)
- 8) Literacy and Language Learning (Semester 8: Creating Learning environments for younger children)

The curriculum promotes an overall engagement in multilingual education in a multicultural society. However, the curriculum seems rather unclear on how to bring about this engagement in the everyday work of a teacher within the classroom.

Having passed successfully the “Bachelor in Educational Sciences” the students are allowed to present themselves for the entrance examination as a teacher employed by the state. Students having made similar studies in another country (especially in Belgium) can participate in this examination provided they can prove that they have the necessary competences in the languages of German, French and *Lëtzebuergesch*.

## 2. PRE-SERVICE TRAINING: SOCIAL AND CARE WORKERS

The employment opportunities of social and care workers are many and cover a wide range:

- Structures that offer home day (and night) care for children, adolescents, adults and seniors
- Institutions which implement prevention projects in terms of poverty, crime or health
- Organisations which promote the inclusion of people with disabilities and
- Associations which give support to young people in difficulty, to detainees or to former detainees in the process of reconstructing their lives.

The areas of activity most nearly linked to children and adolescents are:

- Consulting services and facilities for children and adolescents
- Intercultural meeting centres, recreation areas, youth services
- Guidance services and school intervention
- Educational assistance in early care institutions and in the *école fondamentale*.

There are two different levels of qualification for young people intending to work in this field:

- Studies at secondary school level (*secondaire technique*)<sup>8</sup>
- Studies at university level<sup>9</sup>

At secondary school level the *Lycée Technique pour Professions Educatives et Sociales* (Mersch/Luxembourg) provides technical vocational training awarded after 8 years of secondary school with specialisation in the areas of social education during the last 3 years. This education is certified by the diploma of health professions and social professions (secondary school, technical division).

University studies can be made abroad or at the University of Luxembourg which organises the “Bachelor in Social Sciences and Education” as a vocational course.

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<sup>8</sup> <http://www.iees.lu>

<sup>9</sup> [http://www.en.uni.lu/studiengaenge/flshase/bachelor\\_en\\_sciences\\_sociales\\_et\\_educatives](http://www.en.uni.lu/studiengaenge/flshase/bachelor_en_sciences_sociales_et_educatives)

The focus lies on a general and interdisciplinary orientation in order to overcome the traditional distinctions between education and social work and to give the student a general orientation which goes beyond the traditional distinction in Luxembourg between teacher and social/care worker.

In practice, however, teaching about language(s) and the different aspects of language in the communication with children and young people do not have a significant place in the curriculum.

The languages of instruction are German and French, and knowing *Lëtzebuergesch* is not a prerequisite.

### 3. PRE-SERVICE TRAINING: TEACHERS AT SECONDARY SCHOOLS<sup>10</sup>

Educational access to the post of secondary school teacher has not yet been brought into conformity with the Bologna convention. Up to now a student has to follow university studies in the specific domain he intends to teach for at least 4 years. The student is free to study abroad or at the University of Luxembourg as far as these studies are offered by the UL. Thus a *Bachelor en cultures européennes* for English (1 year), French and German as well as for Philosophy and History is part of the programme of the UL. So students intending to teach language and literature in secondary schools in Luxembourg (German, French, English, Italian, Spanish) have to make their studies or to complete their degree in a country in which the language they intend to teach is the official language.

After having completed their degree, the students can pass an admission test in order to be admitted to a teacher training course for those wishing to work at secondary and technical secondary schools.

Each year the *Ministère de l'Éducation nationale* sets the total number of staff to be admitted to teaching practice and organises recruitment. In a preliminary test the candidates have to prove the necessary competences in the languages of German, French and *Lëtzebuergesch*.

The subsequent course for admitted candidates provides practical and theoretical educational training with a progressive integration into the task of teaching. The organisation of this programme is delegated by the State to the University of Luxembourg (*Formation pédagogique des enseignants du secondaire*).

The training begins after the first quarter of a school year and spreads over the next five consecutive quarters.

One part of the teacher training is organised around modules independent of the discipline of the student:

- Designing and conducting teaching and training activities
- Evaluation
- Communication

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<sup>10</sup> [http://www.wen.uni.lu//studies/flshase/formation\\_pedagogique\\_des\\_enseignants\\_du\\_secondaire](http://www.wen.uni.lu//studies/flshase/formation_pedagogique_des_enseignants_du_secondaire)

- Personal and Professional Development.

Courses are offered for interdisciplinary groups, families of disciplinary groups or for a single discipline.

The students are particularly encouraged to adapt their teaching to specific educational requirements, including language requirements of their classes and to cooperate with colleagues from different disciplines in cross- or interdisciplinary courses.

At the same time the trainees have a teaching load of 9 to 10 lessons per week and have to perform this task with the help of mentoring support from a tutor to guide and ensure the gradual integration of the trainees into the teaching profession.

The programme is sanctioned by a final exam in the form of submitting a file. If successful the trainee is awarded the diploma of teacher training which allows access to a probationary teaching period of a quarter. During this period the student takes part in a final examination whose success allows him to be appointed to the post for which he has completed the educational training.

#### 4. IN-SERVICE TRAINING<sup>11</sup>

The organisation of in-service training for teachers and for educational staff in the *école fondamentale* as well as for secondary school teachers is one of the tasks of the SCRIPT.

An extensive continuing education programme is offered by the *Institut de Formation Continue* covering various fields such as: culture of cooperation, administration, learning and teaching, language teaching, teaching of other disciplines...

These courses are run either during school-time or during free time by experts, most of whom come from other countries.

Teachers of the *école fondamentale* are free to participate in such courses, and participation can lead under certain conditions to a promotion in professional career.

Teachers in the secondary school are obliged to participate in such courses.

#### D. DOCUMENT REVIEW

Three different types of documents are relevant to teacher and social and care worker training: first, the documents linked to the training itself, such as the programme descriptions for the Bachelor studies. Second, more administrative documents published by the Ministry of Education as the main employer of teachers, for example *Les orientations pour la formation des instituteurs et institutrices* or the guidelines on how to apply for a teacher's post. Third legal documents, e.g. the new law voted in February 2009 on the *enseignement fondamental*.

Though the three types have a different status and depend on different authorities, a common feature is their normative character. They are, via different channels, vital for both the teaching of the training courses and for the learning of future teachers and social and care workers. With

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<sup>11</sup> <http://focoweb.script.lu:8080/script/html/accueil1.html>

regard to different training courses related curricular issues are sometimes regulated on different levels, e.g. in the organising of a course, in the fixing of the access conditions to the profession, or in the legal framing of a training course.

In accordance with the view of integrated language learning and development we favour a multi-professional approach. So our inquiry covers four different training courses which correspond to different professional profiles. A survey of all pre-service and in-service training structures has been given in chapter C. They are as follows:

- the training of *école fondamentale* teachers,
- the training of secondary school teachers,
- the training in social and care work (*enseignement technique*),
- the training in social and care work (university).

The list of selected documents reads as follows:

1. Enseignement postprimaire: Admission au stage pédagogique pour les lycées et les lycées techniques :

[http://www.men.public.lu/sys\\_edu/090326\\_recrutem\\_enseignants/090609\\_dossier\\_inscription\\_stage\\_2009.pdf](http://www.men.public.lu/sys_edu/090326_recrutem_enseignants/090609_dossier_inscription_stage_2009.pdf)

2. Université du Luxembourg: Bachelor en Sciences de l'Education (professionnel) (BScE)

[http://www.uni.lu/formations/flshase/bachelor\\_en\\_sciences\\_de\\_l\\_education\\_professionnel/](http://www.uni.lu/formations/flshase/bachelor_en_sciences_de_l_education_professionnel/)

3. Université du Luxembourg: Bachelor en sciences sociales et éducatives (BSSE): Programmes de formation (2009-2010)

[http://www.uni.lu/studies/flshase/bachelor\\_en\\_sciences\\_sociales\\_et\\_educatives\\_professionnel](http://www.uni.lu/studies/flshase/bachelor_en_sciences_sociales_et_educatives_professionnel)

4. Ministère de l'Education nationale et de la Formation professionnelle: Recrutement des enseignants-fonctionnaires à l'enseignement post-primaire:

[http://www.men.public.lu/sys\\_edu/090326\\_recrutem\\_enseignants/090326\\_recrutement\\_prof\\_postprimaire/index.html](http://www.men.public.lu/sys_edu/090326_recrutem_enseignants/090326_recrutement_prof_postprimaire/index.html)

5. Ministère de l'Education nationale et de la Formation professionnelle: Recrutement des enseignants à l'enseignement fondamental

[http://www.men.public.lu/sys\\_edu/090326\\_recrutem\\_enseignants/090326\\_recrutem\\_instituteurs/index.html](http://www.men.public.lu/sys_edu/090326_recrutem_enseignants/090326_recrutem_instituteurs/index.html)

6. Ministère de l'Education nationale et de la Formation professionnelle: Informations concernant les épreuves préliminaires

[http://www.men.public.lu/sys\\_edu/090326\\_recrutem\\_enseignants/090326\\_recrutement\\_prof\\_postprimaire/index.html](http://www.men.public.lu/sys_edu/090326_recrutem_enseignants/090326_recrutement_prof_postprimaire/index.html)

7. Ministère de l'Education nationale et de la Formation professionnelle: Les orientations pour la formation des instituteurs et institutrices

[http://www.men.public.lu/publications/periodiques/cen\\_numeros\\_speciaux/orientation\\_instituteurs/index.html?highlight=institutrices](http://www.men.public.lu/publications/periodiques/cen_numeros_speciaux/orientation_instituteurs/index.html?highlight=institutrices)



8. Règlement grand-ducal du 9 mars 2009 déterminant les modalités du concours réglant l'accès à la fonction d'instituteur de l'enseignement fondamental  
[http://www.men.public.lu/legislation/lois\\_rgd\\_recents/090326\\_rgd\\_concours\\_instituteurs.pdf](http://www.men.public.lu/legislation/lois_rgd_recents/090326_rgd_concours_instituteurs.pdf)
9. Texte coordonné du règlement grand-ducal du 2 juin 1999 concernant la formation théorique et pratique ainsi que la période probatoire des enseignants de l'enseignement postprimaire  
<http://www.legilux.public.lu/leg/a/archives/1999/0075/index.html>
10. Loi du 10 mai août 2005 portant création d'un lycée pour professions éducatives et sociales  
<http://www.legilux.public.lu/leg/a/archives/2005/0132/a132.pdf>
11. Loi du 21 mai 1999 concernant la fonction de candidat dans les carrières enseignantes de l'enseignement postprimaire  
[http://www.men.public.lu/sys\\_edu/090326\\_recrutem\\_enseignants/loi\\_21\\_05\\_1999.pdf](http://www.men.public.lu/sys_edu/090326_recrutem_enseignants/loi_21_05_1999.pdf)
12. Loi du 6 février 2009 relative à l'obligation scolaire
13. Loi du 6 février 2009 portant organisation de l'enseignement fondamental
14. Loi du 6 février 2009 concernant le personnel de l'enseignement fondamental  
[http://www.men.public.lu/actualites/2009/03/090312\\_ens\\_fond\\_brochures/090313\\_loi\\_memorial\\_a20.pdf](http://www.men.public.lu/actualites/2009/03/090312_ens_fond_brochures/090313_loi_memorial_a20.pdf)
15. Ministère de l'Éducation nationale et de la Formation professionnelle : formation continue  
<http://focoweb.script.lu:8080/script/html/accueil1.html>
16. Université du Luxembourg : formation pédagogique des enseignants du secondaire  
[http://wwwen.uni.lu/studies/flshase/formation\\_pedagogique\\_des\\_enseignants\\_du\\_seconadaire](http://wwwen.uni.lu/studies/flshase/formation_pedagogique_des_enseignants_du_seconadaire)
17. Pre-service training for social and care workers  
<http://www.iees.lu>

In the case of each of these documents, we have asked the following questions:

- Are the existing curricular elements related to language learning in general and to language development in a multilingual context in particular?
- Could the document be amended by integrating the EUCIM curricular modules which we are about to develop?
- How is the status of plurilingual language development defined as well as supported within educational practice?

From a corresponding analysis of the above mentioned documents we gain evidence for the following three general tendencies which are relevant to our development of a European Core Curriculum:

- Language development, language learning and language instruction are mainly considered by the official texts to be a school matter. Consequently language development does not play a role in the social pedagogy training course, whereas it generally appears in all documents concerning school teacher training. This is in a way

opposed to the general concern about the individual, the group and society in the “Bachelor in Social Sciences and Education” programme as well as the practical reality that social work very often plays an important role in children’s language learning. Very often teachers call upon social and care workers to intervene as language and reading specialists. A module on language learning and language development stressing the access to an academic language acquired via a non-mother tongue could be included, at least on an optional basis, in the two training courses for social and care workers and the “Bachelor in Social Sciences and Education”.

- In official positions there recurs a constant defence of Luxembourgish multilingualism covering the official languages *Lëtzebuergesch*, German and French. As a result, all teachers have to be trilingual. They have to prove their trilingualism before accessing the profession (*épreuves préliminaires*). This measure is double-edged: on the one hand all teachers have biographically experienced plurilingualism; on the other hand the language exam functions as a selection mechanism which notably hits students from a minority background. Indeed, languages other than the three official ones are strongly marginalised. Consequently, English becomes the only foreign language that can defend its status in the Luxembourgish context, and there is much less concern for the home languages of migrant people. Paradoxically the defence of Luxembourgish multilingualism can become a barrier to recognizing language diversity as a positive and enriching element. Handling diversity under highly complex conditions thus develops into a major challenge for all teachers and social and care workers and subsequently their training.
- The comparison of the teacher training as it was before and after the Bologna process as well as the evolution of the discourse in the educational system reveals the following trend: we are moving away from a compartmentalised view of teaching three or more languages towards a new accent on the transversal dimensions of language learning which stress multiculturalism and plurilingualism as being of particular richness. In general discourse, both on the side of the Ministry of Education (see e.g. *Les orientations pour la formation des instituteurs et institutrices*) and the University (cf. chapter C) we find a strong emphasis being laid on the diversity of students and the need for strongly individualised instruction. The flipside of the general convergence between the educational authority and the higher education institution is a lack of a precise and explicit correspondence on a more basic level. So there is no obvious matching between the five axes of the professional profile developed by the Government and the curricular structure given to the course by the University. As general topics, language, multilingualism and plurilingual identities are key themes in teacher training. As a consequence general didactics as well as specific instructional theory and methods for the teaching of German and French in the context of the Luxembourgish school have vanished from the teacher training curriculum. We are unable to find, therefore, a strong, credible and visibly identifiable way in which to help teachers cope successfully and practically with an extremely complex language ecology in classroom situations.

## E. ESTIMATED VALUE OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

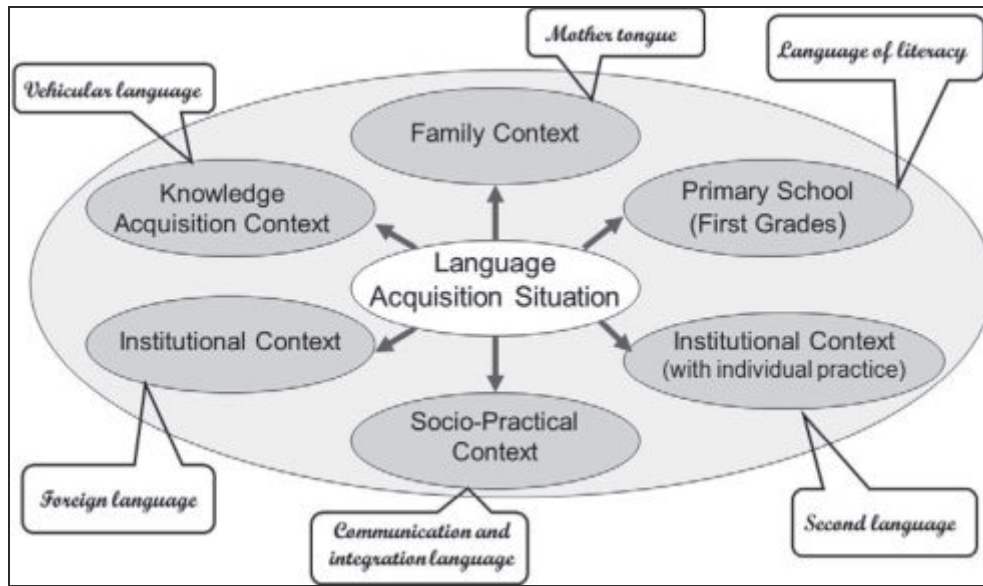
The following chapter describes how Luxembourg's perfectionist attitude towards trilingualism (L-D-F), born out of a special historical and socio-political situation, serves a rather merciless and unfair form of selection. We propose specific conceptual descriptions for the different qualitative levels of language usage which the system does not take into account. The social and demographic changes during the last 25 years, as well as the evolution of our common European perspective, call for a newly differentiated curricular approach.

Since the early days of Luxembourg school history (mid-19<sup>th</sup> century) trilingualism was an everyday practice in Luxembourg primary schools. We detailed above the specific time schedules for the 3 languages *Lëtzebuergesch*, German and French, which occupy more than 50% of the total curriculum at different school levels. However, the proportion taken respectively by these three languages varies during the different school years and school types. These proportions are linked to their specific functions and to the socio-cultural background of the pupils, which differ substantially as we climb the hierarchical ladder of school types (cf. chap. A). At the beginning of secondary education, English is the mandatory 4<sup>th</sup> language in secondary education. *Lëtzebuergesch* never does play an eliminating role in the school selection process, whereas, at the crossroad of primary and secondary school, German leads to the loss of an unjustifiable proportion of the Portuguese or French speaking pupils (Bamberg, Dickes & Schaber, 1977; Kneip, 1980, Wirtgen, 1981). For the Luxembourg pupils with lower socio-cultural background, French serves the same devastating purpose. This selective role has not been identified for English, neither for a 4<sup>th</sup> or 5<sup>th</sup> foreign language (Italian, Spanish) chosen by the students due to a special interest.

With EUCIM's project of new curriculum development for teacher training in mind, we would like to propose some conceptual distinctions of language usage which, in turn, are linked to substantial qualitative structural differences. These distinctions could guide us to define some anchor points for the construction of our European Core Curriculum. Until now, they were not integrated as differentiated themes of concern in the official teacher curriculum in Luxembourg (cf. chap. C). This is an important aspect to consider because it explains why the actual level of school evaluation, throughout all school types, takes as its main criterion the (perfect) quality level of the native speaker-writer. It also explains to a large extent the important social bias inherent in Luxembourgish schools which is one of the most "efficient" in Europe, as the recent PISA studies confirmed.

During the early educational years (up to 6 years) *Lëtzebuergesch* is the "integrative language" for all children: the official recommendation for the communication between social and care worker, teacher and children under 6 years is to speak *Lëtzebuergesch* within the group. Only some "bridge-building" usage of a foreign language is tolerated when, by chance, one of the teachers is able to provide it. There are some "good practices" (cf. chap. G), which try to encourage parental support of the language development during these early years for children of bilingual or other national origins. The quality of this "integrative and communication language" is, of course, rather elementary and a sort of grass-root language for everyday messages, descriptions and explanations. It continues to serve this function also during the first years of the *école fondamentale*.

FIG. 7: LANGUAGE STATUS TERMS USED IN THE EDUCATIONAL FIELD IN LUXEMBOURG



At the beginning of *école fondamentale*, German is the language giving access (for ALL children) to reading and writing (*langue d'alphabétisation*). Moreover German is for many children the first foreign language and also the “official” “communication and integrative language” for the main school subjects (i.e. the books for arithmetic are in German: German as *langue véhiculaire*, media for cultural content). As *Lëtzebuergesch* is a kind of German dialect (for instance, all Luxembourgish children understand intuitively and follow German television at 4 years of age), it facilitates structurally the access for most Luxembourg children to this cultural language and explains the political choice taken in the last century. Today, *médiateurs interculturels* (cf. chap. G) represent an example of “good practice” to assist immigrant children or specifically French, Portuguese and Serbian or Croatian speaking children in this integration process by means of the German language. The quality of this first *Bildungssprache Deutsch* develops progressively from a second (elementary) communicative and integrative language with simple comprehensible, descriptive and explanatory qualities during the *école fondamentale* years (up to 12 yrs) to more complex levels of academic competences during secondary school (up to 18 yrs). From 8 years on, French will develop the same “academic language” character along the same qualitative path. The main difference for French as second language is that this language is the real “foreign/second language” for the Luxembourgers. Its eliminatory impact increases progressively during *école fondamentale* with a final climax in (classical) secondary school, where the books for arithmetic, mathematics, biology, chemistry ... are also in French. So here French is also a *langue véhiculaire*, media for cultural and scientific content.

But nowadays the loss of gifted pupils due to perfectionist and elitist selection by means of performance in a 2<sup>nd</sup> language becomes a societal sin. Responsible politicians can no longer tolerate this situation (which was apparently still the case in the early seventies!).

With the important immigration of Portuguese and French speaking inhabitants and the above mentioned socially biased school elimination of Luxembourgish pupils or of those coming increasingly from Eastern Europe (mainly Ex-Yugoslavia), a change of perspective is needed: thus,

the dominating, and for all students, equally valid second/academic language criterion (i.e. native speaker competence in German and French), is one main discussion point in the application of the new school law adopted in 2009. Following the new coalition agreement of the government elected in June 2009, it will be possible (apparently) under diverse conditions (not yet detailed, but probably by nationality ...) to choose some sort of “light-German” or “light-French”, without abandoning the traditional trilingualism. However, even now it is not clear when and how these forms should be applied. New curricular guidelines for initial or in-service training of teachers have not yet been proposed. For the moment, the “ancient” guidelines detailed earlier (cf. chap C) are still valid. So, the new EUCIM curricula perhaps come “just in time”.

The language status terminology only partly comes as a systematic taxonomy. The following three dimensions play a role in the classification of languages following their status: the speakers’ relative proximity to a language, the interactional context in which a specific language acquisition takes place, the functional diversification of languages. As hybrid statuses are always possible, we generally are very cautious using concepts as mother tongue, family language, home language, heritage language, first language etc., though to a certain degree they all can make sense in different contexts.

#### F. OVERVIEW OF THE CURRENT MAIN PROBLEMS AND OBSTACLES IN EDUCATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Since the MAGRIP (*Matière grise perdue*) study<sup>12</sup> in the 1960’s (Bamberg, Dickes, & Schaber, 1977), the Luxembourg educational system has been confronted permanently with the following issue: social background continues to have a significant impact on school performance and academic success, and the Luxembourg school system, in spite of reforms and innovations, constantly “produces” a high percentage (around 40%) of unqualified school leavers. In the long run this threatens the transfer of qualifications from one generation to the next.

One explanation for this is related to the logic of reproduction of the educational system itself. Parents play indeed a crucial role in Luxembourg’s educational system (Davis, 1994, p. 109). They must assist their children with their homework. But their expectations and motivations differ considerably from one social class to another. This is the case for both immigrant parents and Luxembourg nationals.

Another form of explanation frequently refers to an implicit segregationist tendency within the educational system of Luxembourg (Martin et al., 2008, p. 484). From both academic failure and success, in fact, results a strong socially biased distribution of students over school types, e.g. Luxembourgers are over-represented in the *enseignement secondaire*, whereas students with a migrant background are over-represented in the *enseignement secondaire technique*. Along with mathematics, languages are a major cause of academic failure for many pupils. On the one hand, the German language represents an impediment for Romance language-speaking pupils. On the other hand, the French language is a cause of failure for Luxembourgish pupils from culturally

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<sup>12</sup> In the school year 1968-1969 a study with 2800 pupils (aged 12) was realised. The aim was to find out determinants for the school and professional careers of Luxembourgish children and to measure the influence school can have on their future lives.

less privileged families. Fehlen (2009) has shown that the actual language competences in the population are far different from the ideal trilingualism. In a survey on language use only 23% identify themselves as *Lëtzebuergesch*-German-French trilinguals. So in the logic of social reproduction and structural inequality the mastery of foreign languages becomes an element of social distinction and is linked to the eventual creation of a two-speed educational system. Since language competence functions as a powerful catalyst in the Luxembourgish school system with regard to learning in general, we find on the negative side a certain number of pupils who are, so to speak, inside school, but outside learning (Weis, 2007). Empirical studies and international comparisons show that this is more than a marginal or anecdotal scenario. Both for example in PISA (Bertemes et al., 2007) and in PIRLS (Berg et al., 2007) there was a relative weakness of students in Luxembourgish schools with regard to reading comprehension. The gap widens where reading comprehension goes beyond retrieving explicitly stated information, i.e. where literacy is most useful for the access to knowledge.

For more than four decades it has been in the mind of many experts (e.g. Bamberg et al., 1977; Kneip, 1980, 2009; Wirtgen, 1981; Berg & Thoss, 1996; Berg & Weis, 2005, 2007; Fehlen, 1998, 2009; Horner & Weber, 2008; Weber, 2009) that, where language teaching and language performance assessment are concerned, individual differences should be taken into account. Most studies have presented specific empirical data and theoretical arguments in favour of their proposals. In public debate their arguments were generally quickly translated into more or less oversimplified ideological and political discourses.

Unfortunately in the course of this long period up to the present moment neither a synthesis nor a strongly backed up social consensus has been reached. Nevertheless, we want to sum up a few interesting positions which have been articulated during the debate: sticking to the traditional second language selection criterion leads to social inequality of the school system and an everlasting reproduction of the same elite; abandoning the emphasis on high performance and with it Luxembourg's most cherished early-years' trilingualism, represents a qualitative loss for all children and will have negative effects on Luxembourg's international competitiveness; being more permissive with language performance assessment will lead to a more permissive appreciation of language competence which is not efficient enough for understanding and communicating on cultural and scientific subjects; abandoning the traditional approach will increase social strains and lead to a polarisation of different national population groups; the initial and in-service training methods are inadequate to the challenges of language development in diverse multilingual contexts; a twofold access to reading and writing with a German and a French path, although able to remove individual barriers, will be harmful on a national scale as it will induce a polarisation into two groups.

Against the actual background of long lasting inertia and resistance to change, it seems to be sheer hubris to pretend to change the language education situation through a European Core Curriculum. Why should we be successful, where all the others have failed for years? Nowadays the historical conjunction of a few separate elements gives rise to an optimistic outlook: we can indeed notice a new awareness of the demographic evolution, a changed context of educational policy making, the emergence of scientific focus concerning language development and language education in multilingual contexts.

The current demographic evolution is characterised by two key features. We generally live in an ageing society with a relative number of young people falling below 20% of the total population. As the major reason for population growth is not the excess of births over deaths, but the result of a net excess of arrivals in migration, the younger age groups are far more numerous than the older ones. Signs of a new awareness in public debate have emerged with intergenerational solidarity, social cohesion, integration of society, qualification of future generations becoming current issues over the last few years.

Educational policy making has been significantly affected by this evolution. For the last two terms of office (starting in 2004 and 2009) an innovative dynamic has emerged. With regard to language education the Luxembourg decision makers have seen themselves confronted with a double challenge: on the one hand the educational system must not impede the qualifications of the upcoming generations, but on the other hand it must continue to guarantee high standards matching the demands of Luxembourg's labour market. The articulation of this twofold challenge raised a new political will for change and innovative policies: over the last ten years a series of changes have been taking place within the Luxembourgish educational system. The most important elements forming an effective blueprint for a new school are the following: an ongoing participation in international comparative studies such as PISA and PIRLS, the implementation of a system of educational monitoring, a readjustment of language teaching (Berg & Weis, 2007; Berg 2007, 2008), the establishment of educational standards in terms of competences, and in the domain of language, making explicit reference to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, a reframing of primary education giving schools more autonomy and empowering teachers.

The overall specificities of the new policy style are the following: evidence-based policy making, relying on an in-depth exchange between knowledge production, decision making and practice; adoption of a non-sectorial approach and a more holistic view covering education from early childhood education to the end of secondary school; widening the view beyond instruction and aiming at generational stakes (knowledge, qualification and value transfer); becoming involved in a permanent dialogue with practitioners; prioritising political initiatives aimed at changing practices and educational realities, relying on grass-root projects; considering the national education system in a European and international context (PISA, PIRLS, Council of Europe).

The scientific discussion of school success and school failure, focusing on the access to academic language on a multilingual background and on teacher competences to reach that goal, delivers a new powerful key to a long-lasting problem. Changes in teacher education will be essential in reaching these ambitious policy aims.

Nevertheless we do not live in paradise; there will always be obstacles and challenges. One of the most important ones is probably the lack of coherent regulation of the normative frameworks for training professionals. Another one will be the traditional institutional divides between care and education as well as between school types. Last but not least, it will be difficult to overcome the gaps between policy making, scientific insights, and practice. Teacher Education Partnerships and policy advising are means to cope with these problems. These measures implicitly aim at changing educational research practice.

## G. GOOD PRACTICES

Within the early care and educational system a series of measures have been taken to promote the integration of children from immigrant backgrounds while trying to preserve their cultural identity.

### **1) *Lëtzebuergesch* for Benjamin (Benjamin-Club/G.E.A.D.E. asbl – early education)**

Benjamin-Club/ G.E.A.D.E. – Groupe d'Étude et d'Aide au Développement de l'Enfant asbl is an integrative early education initiative founded in 1981 by the child guidance service of the Ministry of Education and addressing children from 2-4 and their parents. These regular play and educational groups are organised in collaboration with the parents under the responsibility of a professional social and care worker and in the framework of a formal contract of collaboration arranged between the ministry and the private association "Benjamin-Club/G.E.A.D.E. asbl". During the last 3 years a special language learning programme was developed to encourage learning of *Lëtzebuergesch* in the context of the children's groups, by trying to involve the parents as partners. (Kneip & Herman, 2008). Special booklets and Cds are given to children and parents. They cover thematically representative everyday activities in the children's groups or at home as well as the main festivities of the year. Special play materials (puzzles, dice games, lotto games...) linked to the theme of a story are aimed to encourage playful learning of particular vocabulary or sentence structures. In the first instance, the text in *Lëtzebuergesch* is doubled by a French translation providing an opportunity for parents to understand and speak about the subjects in their own language to the children and, by the way, get an informal contact with the language of the country they live in. On a voluntary basis, parents can also take part in a more formal language course in *Lëtzebuergesch*.

### **2) The "Polyglot" books (for 3 to 6 years old children)**

The Benjamin-club/G.E.A.D.E. asbl has also edited 3 books in two versions (L-F-D/ L-P-F) presenting stories in 3 languages on inter-cultural themes or on topics stressing the beauty, value, richness and strength of a community of partners, where the specificity of every member finally contributes to the progress or success of the whole group. These stories are told regularly to the groups in *Lëtzebuergesch*. The translations give parents the opportunity to tell the stories or play the games with their children in their family-language.

### **3) The Story-Rucksack (cycle 1+2 of *école fondamentale*: 3-8 years old children) (Letsch, 2008)**

The children get a rucksack with one or two stories in one or more languages, and depending on the family situation, a CD telling the story in the child's family language and play materials with reference to the stories. At the age of 6, the access to literacy takes on a new comparative dimension to different spoken languages. Every child, every family can develop its own strategy of discovery and learning. In school, the teacher may introduce a supplementary reading, stressing the inter-cultural aspects and permitting a more detailed introduction, especially if the family conditions are unable to offer the possibility. Every two weeks, this rucksack can be changed with stories being adapted to the progress of the child's language acquisition and interests.



**4) The *cours intégrés en langue maternelle* and the inter-cultural mediators (cycle 3 to 4 of *école fondamentale* : 9-12 years old children)**

These courses enable children to follow subjects like history, geography and sciences in their mother tongue. However, the only languages offered are Portuguese and Italian. On the other hand, information sheets intended for parents have been developed and translated into several languages (Portuguese, English, Serbian, Croatian and Albanian). They are distributed to the parents and inter-cultural mediators working in the context of the schools and give supplementary help to improve the comprehension or the communication between teachers and parents (Unsen, Vallado & Tonnar-Meyer, 2005).

**5) The “welcome classes” (at technical secondary school level)**

These “welcome classes” (*classes d’insertion* and *classes d’accueil*) have been created to give children who have not gone through the Luxembourgish school system the opportunity to continue their schooling in Luxembourg. Pupils learn *Lëtzebuergesch* and French or German are taught using intensive methods. The aim is that pupils join the mainstream system as soon as possible.

**6) The *Baccalauréat international***

This final diploma of secondary studies giving access to university is offered in either French or English. There exists only a possibility of taking the diploma in one school in Luxembourg City.

## H. CONCLUSIONS: REQUIREMENTS FOR THE EUROPEAN CORE CURRICULUM

The current chapter draws first conclusions from the national needs analysis report of the Luxembourgish partner. Luxembourg is the smallest partner of the consortium but nevertheless its situation is highly relevant for the European project as a result of its complexity. It brings to the project something of definite national interest in inclusive language development under particularly complex conditions. Conclusions are structured into three parts. Firstly, we will sum up the complex language situation as well as the current ongoing dynamics for changing language teaching. Secondly, we will highlight the possible contributions of the Luxembourg partner to the European project. Finally, we will tentatively identify a few of the elements we expect to find in the European Core Curriculum.

The specific complexity of “language ecology” in Luxembourg does not consist solely in the fact that three languages are spoken in the country or that there are more than 30 nationalities in a school (e.g. *Lycée technique du Centre*) or that in a town like Dudelange you will find more than 80 languages. Similar phenomena occur all over Europe. What is very particular about Luxembourg is the fact that there are practically no monolingual speakers and that psychologically there is a high degree of interaction between different languages in the minds of speakers. Social cohesion strongly depends on the individual development of diverse multilingual subjects as well as on their interaction. The language situation corresponds to a social landscape with status paradoxes for most languages, concurrent codes for a lot of functional uses, a high degree of regulated and unregulated code-switching, intermediate systems and variable competences. An increased structural instability of all languages compensated by tendencies to hypercorrectness as well as tendencies to generational discontinuities appears as a correlate. As social knowledge is stored in more than one language, accessing academic language becomes in the Luxembourg context a synonym for accessing multilingualism.

Experts as well as decision makers are nowadays aware that the traditional compartmentalised structure is not fit for solving the countries communicative challenges. So there is a definite drive towards an inclusive holistic language education, which obviously must be different from second language teaching. Language education will no more be confined to a single area; families, schools and care institutions as well as out of school language learning are seen together, as facets of language development and education process as a whole. For family language acquisition (whatever the language is), access to literacy, integration and communication language use, school language for content learning, second language learning, foreign languages serve the common objective of individualised language development as a foundation for access to knowledge and for social inclusion.

The learning theory underpinning language development therefore moves away from a trilingual equilingualism to a realistic and diverse plurilingualism. This means a farewell to the threefold duplicates of native speakers and an emerging acceptance of diverse identities of plurilingual subjects. Language identities coincide with people’s biographical trajectories and life choices and will give them access to academic language use. Flexible assessment will be possible thanks to standards defined as competences by referring to a systemic functional view of language and by linking them to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

As a possible contribution to the European project we bring our life experience as plurilinguals. We can report on resources developed in a particularly difficult situation. We are used to considering language development as a social process in and beyond school. Finally, we know that reflection-in-action and meta-reflection on policy, curriculum and practice changes are necessary elements of change management.

Possible elements to be covered by the teacher training curriculum are: developing a teacher's awareness of language issues and their effects, including also the negative side effects of language avoidance (cooling out, exclusion), delivering instructional methods explicitly and efficiently with an aim to access academic language in non-mother tongues, methods of direct instruction of academic language in a non-mother tongue, methods of implicit development of academic language skills (immersion learning, CLIL), handling diversity, developing school policies for language and literacy development in a multilingual context (*plan de réussite scolaire*).

School curricula will hopefully develop towards a more flexible curricular architecture of multi-language development (*Mehrsprachigkeitsdidaktik*) integrating language learning and content learning. Language teachers' claim-defending attitudes will be replaced by a true commitment to the overall language development of their students. This will reinforce the confidence of students in their language competences and acknowledge language education as a means of social inclusion.

## I. GLOSSARY

In order to prevent misunderstanding, we preferred using in this document the “official” terms while describing the functioning of the school system. However, since these terms are in French, we will try to explain in this section their meaning in English.

**Chargé de cours:** “in charge of lessons”; people with a final diploma of secondary school as a minimum (but with no teaching diploma) having followed a training course and teaching in the *école fondamentale*.

**Classe d’accueil:** “welcome class” in the secondary school; class for pupils who arrive in Luxembourg at a later stage of their school career; the aim is that they join the mainstream system after a year or two.

**Classe d’intégration:** “welcome class” in the *école fondamentale*.

**Collège des directeurs:** “Council of principals”, serves as an intermediary between the Ministry and the secondary schools.

**Collège des inspecteurs:** “Council of inspectors”, in charge of the monitoring of the *écoles fondamentales*.

**Commission des programmes:** “Curriculum commission”; one for each subject; it recommends programmes and manuals to be used in secondary schools.

**Cours intégrés en langue maternelle:** “mother tongue lessons integrated in the curriculum”; at *école fondamentale* level children follow subjects like history, geography and sciences in their mother tongue.

**Diplôme de fin d’études secondaires:** “final diploma of secondary education”.

**Éducation différenciée:** “differentiated education”; education for children with special needs.

**Éducation précoce:** “early education”; optional schooling for three year olds.

**Éducation préscolaire:** “kindergarten”; 2 years of compulsory schooling for 4 and 5 year olds.

**Enseignant breveté:** “qualified teacher”; a teacher with the necessary diploma having successfully gained a teacher’s position.

**Enseignement fondamental/ école fondamentale:** “fundamental education”; includes the *éducation précoce*, the *éducation préscolaire* and the *enseignement primaire*.

**Enseignement post-primaire:** “post-primary education”; comprises the *enseignement secondaire* and the *enseignement secondaire technique*.

**Enseignement primaire:** “primary school”; 6 years of compulsory schooling for 6 year olds.

**Enseignement secondaire:** general secondary education.

**Enseignement secondaire technique:** technical secondary education.

**Épreuves préliminaires:** “preliminary tests”; before being able to start the vocational training as a teacher in the Luxembourgish school system, teachers have to prove that they are trilingual (*Lëtzebuergesch*, German, French)

**Formation pédagogique des enseignants du secondaire:** “pedagogical training for secondary school teachers”; this course provides practical and theoretical educational training for future secondary school teachers.

**Institut de formation continue:** “institute for in-service training”; on behalf of the Ministry of Education, this institute organises in-service training for the *école fondamentale* as well as for secondary school teachers.

**Langue d’alphabétisation:** language that gives access to reading and writing; in the Luxembourg school system it is German.

**Langue véhiculaire:** language that serves as a media for content learning; in the Luxembourg school system it is German and French.

**Les orientations pour la formation des instituteurs et institutrices:** “orientations for the training of fundamental education teachers”; this document, published by the Ministry of Education, gives information on what skills the teacher of the future should develop in his/her training.

**LTPES – Lycée technique pour professions éducatives et sociales:** “technical secondary school for educational and social professions”; after five years of “regular” (technical) secondary school, pupils can follow a three year specialisation in the area of social education.

**Plan de réussite scolaire:** “scheme for school success”; the new law on the *école fondamentale* foresees that each school has to define objectives and means to increase school success of their pupils.

**Social and care worker:** formerly known as *éducateur diplômé* (diploma at technical secondary school level) or *éducateur gradué* (3 years of higher education training, which has become, with the creation of the University of Luxembourg, the “Bachelor in Social Sciences and Education”). The term *éducateur* is no longer politically correct and has to be avoided as far as possible.

**SCRIPT – Service de coordination de la recherche et de l’innovation pédagogiques et technologiques:** “Department of Educational Research and Innovation” at the Ministry of Education.



## IV. TEACHER EDUCATION PARTNERSHIPS (TEPs): NOUVELLES STRUCTURES POUR L'INNOVATION DE LA FORMATION DES ENSEIGNANTS EN EUROPE

Joana Duarte, Hans-Joachim Roth, Christiane Weis

*Editors' note: The Teacher Education Partnerships (TEP) represent an original feature of the EUCIM project. Created at the beginning of the project they accompanied it throughout its lifetime or even beyond and established a permanent direct link to the practitioners in the educational field. This paper emphasises the importance of partnerships in education and gives an overview of the roles and the functioning of the TEP in the EUCIM project. The present article has already been published in the bilingual book "(Re)thinking Partnership in Education / (Re)penser le partenariat en Education" edited by Philippe Masson, Vivienne Baumfield, Kathrin Otrrel-Cass and Miranda Pilo.*

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### A. LE CONTEXTE

Dans la plupart des pays caractérisés par une forte immigration, les élèves d'origine immigrée, souvent plurilingues, réussissent moins bien à l'école que leurs pairs monolingues. Même si cette situation est bien connue dans le milieu de la recherche depuis les années 1970 (Bernstein, 1971 ; Oevermann, 1972) et 1980, ce n'est qu'au début du 21<sup>e</sup> siècle que l'étude PISA (Deutsches PISA Konsortium, 2001) a provoqué, notamment en Allemagne et au Luxembourg, un large débat public sur la problématique des sous-performances scolaires des enfants d'origine immigrée. En effet, il s'agit ici d'un phénomène auquel les pays industrialisés, connaissant une forte immigration, sont de plus en plus confrontés. Des chercheurs ont identifié un nombre considérable de facteurs sociologiques, politiques et structurels qui expliqueraient ces sous-performances scolaires. Cependant, d'après des recherches plus récentes, le parcours, notamment par rapport à l'accès à des facteurs linguistiques spécifiques, joue un rôle central dans les performances scolaires des élèves d'origine immigrée (Schiefele, Artelt, Stanat & Schneider, 2004). Non pas la langue de tous les jours pose problème mais un « type » spécifique de langue, appelé « langue d'accès au savoir », *academic language* en anglais ou *Bildungssprache* en allemand (Roth, Neumann & Gogolin, 2007).

Pour le moment il n'existe pas de consensus au sein de la communauté scientifique concernant la définition du terme *academic language*. Une grande variété de termes est utilisée en parallèle pour exprimer la même idée. Par exemple, le terme « langage technique » désigne un type

spécifique de langue nécessaire à la compréhension et à l'action dans une discipline comme les mathématiques ou les sciences naturelles (Ahrenholz, 2010). Dans notre cas, le terme *academic language* ou « langue d'accès au savoir » est utilisé pour dénommer le type de langue employée dans le domaine de l'éducation. Cette langue, caractérisée par un haut degré d'abstraction, est conforme aux règles de l'écriture scientifique et s'utilise surtout dans des situations de communications non-contextualisées (Habermas, 1981 ; Ortner, 2009). Des recherches montrent que la maîtrise d'une langue d'accès au savoir à un haut niveau est nécessaire pour obtenir de meilleurs résultats scolaires (Cummins, 2000).

Ce type spécifique de langue pose un nouveau défi aux enseignants auquel ils ne sont pas assez préparés. En conséquence, le rôle de l'enseignant dans des contextes de grande diversité linguistique devra changer, étant donné que, dans un environnement multilingue, tout enseignement devient un enseignement de langue. Pour un nombre important d'élèves, en particulier dans les zones urbaines des sociétés industrialisées, la langue parlée en classe est non seulement un but en soi mais aussi un moyen pour l'apprentissage et l'enseignement.

Afin d'examiner ces questions, un projet européen Comenius (programme pour l'éducation et la formation tout au long de la vie), regroupant huit pays membres de l'Union européenne, a été lancé. Son but principal est d'identifier les nouvelles qualifications dont les enseignants auront besoin si on passe d'une conception « compartimentée » à une conception « inclusive » de l'enseignement des langues. Il s'agit alors de promouvoir dans l'enseignement général l'acquisition de la langue d'accès au savoir, même si celle-ci est différente de la langue maternelle de l'élève. Constant Leung (2001) parle en ce sens, dans le contexte britannique, de *mainstreamed second language literacy education*. Une telle approche se distingue fondamentalement de l'enseignement d'une langue étrangère et en particulier de l'enseignement de la langue du pays d'origine visant en exclusivité les élèves d'origine immigrée. En effet, il s'agit bien au contraire d'initier les élèves quelque soit leur origine aux pratiques socio-communicatives de l'école et à l'acquisition des savoirs. Ainsi les écoles deviendront des *terreaux de littératie*<sup>13</sup> apportant une contribution au développement de leurs élèves au lieu de fonctionner suivant une logique de transmission de savoirs et de techniques culturels.

Le but principal du projet *EUCIM-TE—European Core Curriculum for Mainstreamed Second Language Teacher Education*<sup>14</sup> est par conséquent d'améliorer la formation initiale et continue des enseignants afin de mieux les préparer à travailler avec des élèves d'origine immigrée. À cette fin, un curriculum de base a été développé au niveau européen et a été par la suite adapté aux différentes situations nationales. Avant le début du projet, aucun Etat membre n'avait adressé explicitement ces besoins dans le curriculum en vigueur actuellement dans la formation des enseignants.

Le projet vise un changement profond de la formation des enseignants. En vue d'atteindre cet objectif, les membres du consortium ont adopté une approche originale et innovatrice en créant au niveau national des *Teacher Education Partnerships* (TEPs), c'est-à-dire des partenariats pour la formation des enseignants. La composition de ces groupes varie d'un pays à l'autre et différents types d'institutions (formation initiale et continue des enseignants, écoles, autorités publiques dans le domaine de l'éducation, etc.) sont impliqués dans le projet. Cette forme de

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<sup>13</sup> Pour l'emploi du terme « littératie », voir Berg & Lick, 2001.

<sup>14</sup> Plus d'information sous [www.eucim-te.eu](http://www.eucim-te.eu).



collaboration permet d'ancrer le projet dès le début dans la pratique quotidienne du secteur éducatif. Par ce biais, les idées du projet seront propagées et on peut espérer que ceci entraîne un changement au niveau des programmes de la formation des enseignants et au niveau des critères d'évaluation des examens et des concours d'admission à la carrière.

## B. L'IMPORTANCE DE PARTENARIATS EN EDUCATION AU NIVEAU EUROPEEN

Pour Sacliotto-Vasyenko (2009), « partnership is one of the European common principles concerning teacher competences and qualifications » (p. 57). Dans le monde globalisé d'aujourd'hui, les enseignants et les écoles devraient coopérer avec la communauté qui les entoure et même essayer de trouver des partenaires qui pourraient leur donner des solutions à des problèmes spécifiques.

Le groupe *Teachers and Trainers* du programme *Education and Training 2010* de la Commission Européenne a publié un rapport sur les relations qu'entretiennent les institutions responsables de la formation des enseignants avec les écoles. Dans ce rapport, l'importance de nouveaux partenariats en éducation et dans la formation des enseignants a été soulignée.

The aims and ambitions of partnerships can vary. In its most basic form a partnership should support the ambition to provide the best education for pupils. In this ambition three elements are crucial: a. improving methods for teaching and learning, b. raising the quality of teachers, and c. developing knowledge about teaching and learning through research. (2007, p. 3)

Ces objectifs semblent évidents et la plupart des chercheurs seraient d'accord pour dire que des partenariats constituent le meilleur moyen pour promouvoir l'innovation et la professionnalisation dans le secteur éducatif. Cependant, ces idées ne correspondent pas encore à la norme puisque la plupart des professionnels de l'éducation en Europe travaillent toujours de manière isolée. Buchberger, Campos, Kallos et Stephenson (2000) arrivent à la conclusion suivante:

Unlike the medical or other academic professions, the relations between teacher education, teachers and schools have not yet reached an optimum level. Examples of teacher education on the one side and schools and teachers on the other working completely independent of one another can be found. At the same time comprehensive attempts have sometimes been made to establish close partnerships between schools and institutions of teacher education. (p. 52)

Par conséquent, il faudrait développer, aussi bien au niveau national qu'europpéen, plus de partenariats pour traiter des problématiques actuelles dans le cadre de la formation des enseignants. Ceci concerne particulièrement un sujet aussi brûlant qu'est celui de la migration et la mobilité dans les systèmes éducatifs en Europe.

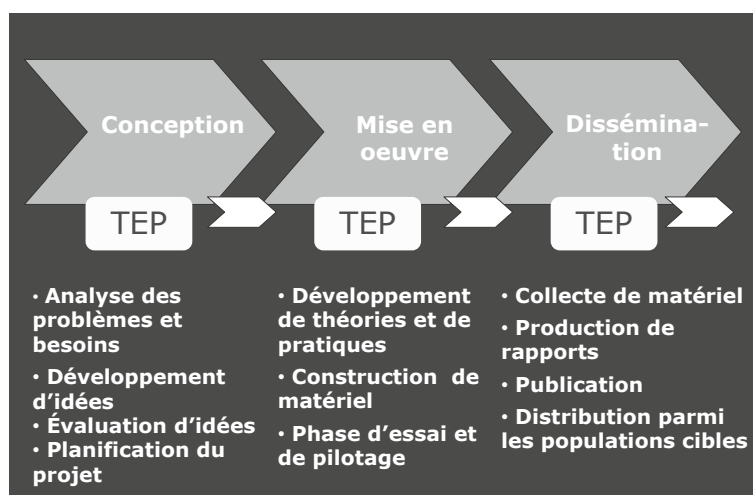
## C. LES *TEACHER EDUCATION PARTNERSHIPS* (TEPS) DU PROJET EUCIM-TE

Les *Teacher Education Partnerships* (TEPs) du projet EUCIM-TE sont des groupes de personnes qui détiennent à différents niveaux des responsabilités pour le développement curriculaire et sa mise en œuvre. Ils fonctionnent à un niveau national et regroupent des institutions d'enseignement supérieur, des personnes impliquées dans la formation initiale et continue des

enseignants, des autorités publiques, des institutions éducatives et d'autres organisations travaillant sur les problématiques liées à l'immigration. Leur objectif principal est de contribuer au développement du curriculum européen *European Core Curriculum for Mainstreamed Second Language Teacher Education*, du manuel qui l'accompagne ainsi que de ses adaptations nationales.

En général, on peut distinguer trois phases importantes dans les projets innovateurs : conception, mise en œuvre et dissémination. Comme le montre le graphique ci-dessous, les TEPs du projet EUCIM-TE jouent un rôle essentiel dans chacune de ces phases.

FIG. 8 : LE RÔLE DES TEPs TOUT AU LONG DU PROJET EUCIM-TE



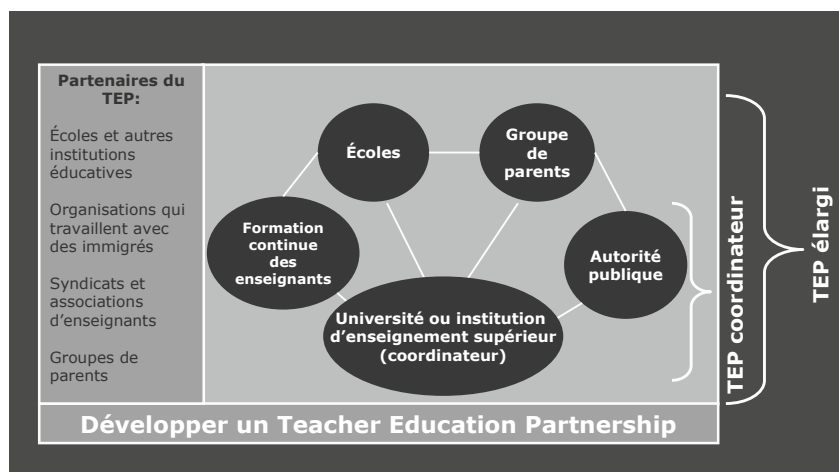
Dans la première phase du projet, les TEPs participent à des discussions en groupe et donnent un feed-back sur le travail réalisé par le consortium. Ils aident à rédiger et finaliser l'analyse des besoins, notamment en fournissant des données à travers des questionnaires et en participant à l'analyse de documents. Dans la deuxième phase, les TEPs sont des partenaires importants pour le développement du curriculum de base et pour son adaptation au contexte national. Enfin, les TEPs sont directement impliqués dans la dissémination du projet et dans l'exploration de ses résultats au niveau national. Ceci permettra l'intégration du curriculum à la formation des enseignants, aidera à changer les objectifs de la formation des enseignants et introduira les nouveaux concepts dans les écoles.

Comme mentionné auparavant, ces partenariats visent en général à adapter le curriculum européen au niveau national et à assurer sa dissémination auprès des institutions et des multiples acteurs du champ éducatif. À cet effet, les TEPs doivent faire connaître leur plan de travail, développer continuellement la qualité et faire circuler les évaluations faites par les experts. Les institutions impliquées et leurs partenaires forment ainsi un partenariat « en développement » qui pourra être élargi et travailler au-delà de la durée du projet.

Les TEPs sont composés d'une institution coordinatrice ainsi que d'autres institutions ou réseaux locaux. Chaque TEP comprend un TEP coordinateur qui gère les activités des institutions impliquées ; ce réseau regroupe des acteurs de différentes institutions : une université ou institution d'enseignement supérieur responsable de la formation initiale des enseignants, une organisation responsable de la formation continue des enseignants et une autorité publique

directement liée à la politique de la formation des enseignants. Par ailleurs, il existe un TEP élargi, qui est directement responsable de la mise en œuvre du curriculum à un moment ultérieur du projet. En fonction du contexte local et régional, ce groupe comprend des écoles et d'autres institutions éducatives, des organisations travaillant avec des immigrés, des associations de parents, des réseaux locaux, etc. L'implication d'autres institutions et de partenaires stratégiques au niveau local et régional fait partie des tâches du TEP. Le graphique ci-dessous illustre la structure du TEP comme un « partenariat en développement ».

FIG. 9: STRUCTURE D'UN TEP EN DÉVELOPPEMENT



De nombreuses recherches ont été menées sur les partenariats éducatifs impliquant des écoles et leurs communautés ainsi que sur les partenariats existant entre universités et enseignants. (Pilo & Gavio, 2009). D'après Sacliotto-Vasyenko, ces partenariats présentent certaines particularités. « There seems to be some peculiarities in the relations of the following partners working together: university and school teachers, teachers collaborating as pairs, teacher trainers and teachers, beginner and experienced teachers and teachers and partners external to education system » (2009, p. 59). Zay (2001), par exemple, revendique que la collaboration avec des professeurs d'université aide les enseignants à acquérir et développer leurs connaissances théoriques qui ont un impact direct sur leurs manières d'agir. Day (2001) identifie trois éléments essentiels pour garantir le succès de tels partenariats.

Les partenariats entre enseignants et tuteurs universitaires, établissements scolaires et départements de l'éducation, devraient donc être basés sur des principes d'équité: une identification conjointe (des types de réflexion choisis); une appropriation conjointe (des processus de réflexion); un respect mutuel (vis-à-vis de la responsabilité des individus à décider de leurs réponses au processus et aux aboutissements de la réflexion. (p. 51)

Les TEPs du projet EUCIM-TE impliquent des professeurs d'université et des enseignants ainsi que certains des groupes identifiés par Sacliotto-Vasyenko, comme par exemple des formateurs d'enseignants et des enseignants en formation. En outre, ils intègrent des partenaires potentiellement difficiles, comme des institutions politiques et administratives qui ne sont pas toujours enclines à collaborer avec des institutions de recherche comme des universités. Par ailleurs, les TEPs sont des partenariats qui se développent et s'agrandissent continuellement ; ils sont dirigés par un groupe coordonnateur formé par les partenaires les plus engagés et

permanents. En plus, ils sont reliés au consortium européen dans une communication bidirectionnelle : ils donnent un feed-back au groupe sur leurs activités et contribuent aux contenus du projet. De son côté, le consortium les tient au courant de l'avancement du projet et a recours à leur expertise.

Par conséquent, le rôle des TEPs est double. Au niveau national, ils servent de plateforme pour les acteurs du champ éducatif et réunissent des partenaires qui ne coopèrent pas toujours facilement. Au niveau européen, ils sont en relation étroite avec le consortium qui a une influence directe sur leur travail et en tire parti en même temps. Comment de tels partenariats contribuent-ils à l'innovation de la formation des enseignants en Europe ?

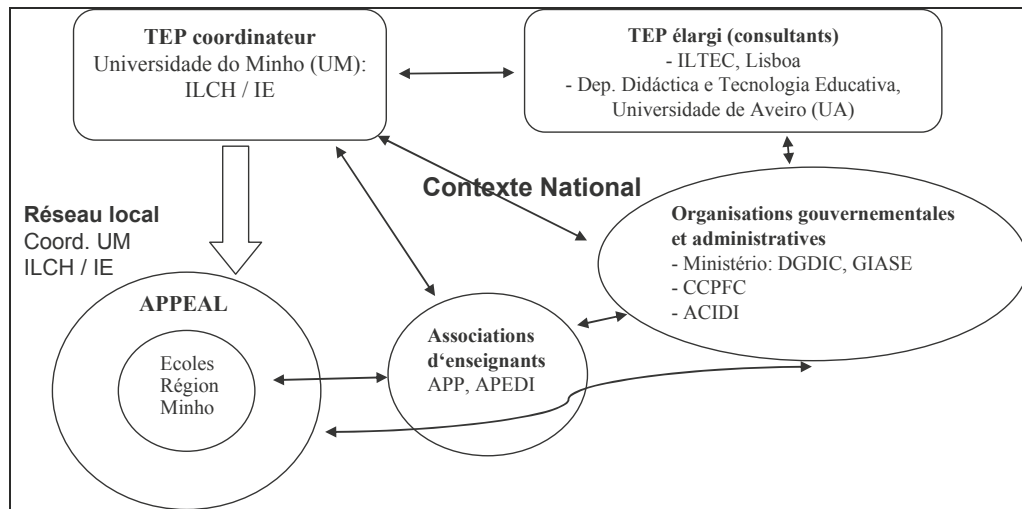
#### D. TROIS EXEMPLES DE FONCTIONNEMENT DES TEPs

Le projet EUCIM-TE compte huit pays partenaires. Au niveau européen, les huit pays représentent des régions qui diffèrent aussi bien du point de vue de la distribution géographique des migrants que de la tradition de migration. L'Europe centrale est représentée par l'Allemagne, les Pays-Bas et le Luxembourg ; la perspective scandinave est introduite par le partenaire suédois ; le sud de l'Europe est représenté par le Portugal ; l'Europe de l'Est a deux représentants, la Slovénie et la Bulgarie et enfin, le point de vue d'un pays anglophone est apporté par le partenaire britannique.

Ci-dessous trois exemples de TEPs seront décrits : les deux premiers sont le Portugal et la Slovénie qui représentent des contextes caractérisés par un multilinguisme émergent. Ces pays ne voient pas nécessairement l'importance et la nécessité d'établir un partenariat pour traiter un sujet comme celui de l'éducation des enfants d'origine immigrée. Le troisième exemple est le TEP du Luxembourg, un pays multilingue où les questions de migration et de langue sont depuis longtemps à l'avant-plan du débat public.

Comme suggéré dans les « Lignes directrices pour la création des TEPs » développés par le consortium (Duarte & Roth, 2009), le TEP portugais comprend une institution d'enseignement supérieur, une organisation gouvernementale et une institution responsable de la formation continue des enseignants. S'y ajoutent une autre institution d'enseignement supérieur, un centre de recherche privé, des associations d'enseignants et un réseau local existant entre l'institution d'enseignement supérieur et les écoles. En outre, des associations d'immigrés ont été contactées pour faire partie du TEP. Le graphique ci-dessous montre la structure actuelle du TEP portugais.

FIG. 10 : STRUCTURE DU TEP PORTUGAIS



Le cas portugais est une bonne illustration d'un TEP où les institutions de recherche et administratives responsables des questions de migration et de projets sur le terrain (par exemple le projet APPEAL<sup>15</sup>) sont représentées. En outre, le partenaire portugais a inclus les syndicats des enseignants (APP<sup>16</sup> et APEDI<sup>17</sup>) qui sont prioritairement concernés par le nombre croissant d'élèves d'origine immigrée ainsi que des représentants de parents actifs dans des écoles ou des associations d'immigrés.

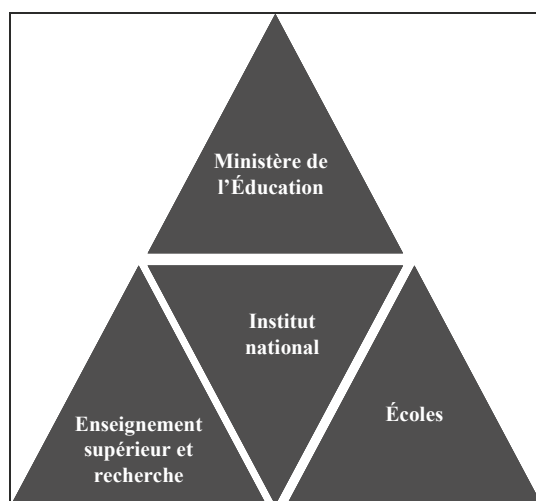
La structure du partenariat en Slovaquie, par contre, diffère fort de la situation décrite dans les lignes directrices, notamment en ce qui concerne la coordination du TEP. Comme le montre le graphique 4, la coordination est assurée par le *National Education Institute*, une organisation responsable pour la formation des enseignants, experte dans le développement des programmes scolaires et qui joue le rôle de conseiller pour le personnel éducatif enseignant et non-enseignant.

<sup>15</sup> Plan d'action-pour la promotion de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage des langues

<sup>16</sup> Association portugaise des enseignants

<sup>17</sup> Association des enseignants pour l'éducation interculturelle

FIG. 11 : LE TEP SLOVÈNE



Le cas slovène est un bon exemple pour illustrer les difficultés initiales rencontrées lors de la création d'un partenariat pour faire face aux effets de l'immigration sur le système éducatif. Au début, le processus de création était plutôt lent ; en même temps, les membres potentiels du TEP développaient un intérêt croissant pour la problématique de l'éducation des immigrants. Par conséquent, le TEP semble avoir émergé de façon lente mais presque naturelle de l'implication et de l'engagement des différents partenaires potentiels.

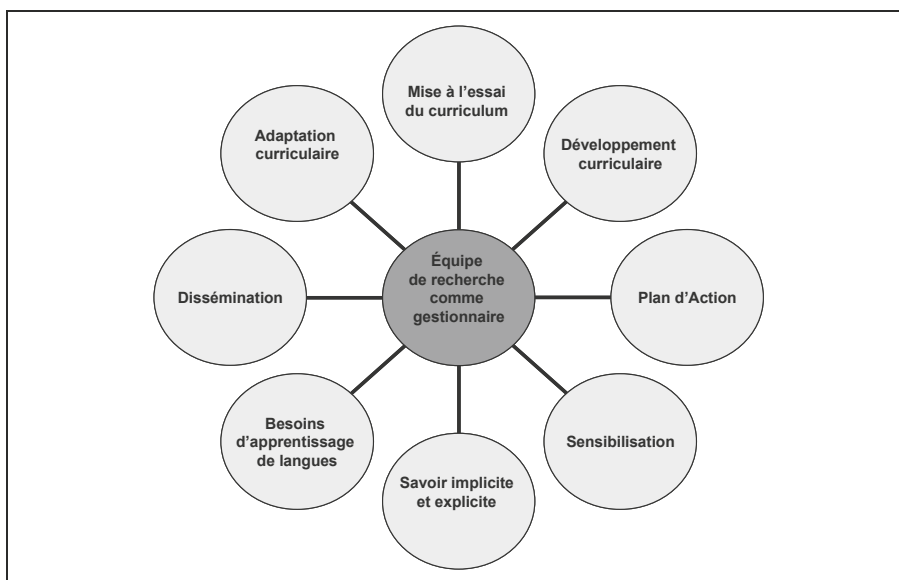
Afin de garantir le succès du projet, il était crucial d'examiner l'utilité et l'usage possible du produit final à un niveau national. En Slovénie, la difficulté réside dans le fait qu'en matière de curricula il n'y a pas d'autorité qui prenne des décisions au niveau national. En effet, les universités et les autres institutions responsables de la formation initiale et continue des enseignants sont indépendants pour développer leurs propres programmes. Pour assurer la durabilité du projet, il était nécessaire de s'échanger au préalable avec le directeur du Département pour le Développement éducatif du Ministère de l'Éducation et du Sport. La décision suivante a été prise : les résultats du projet de recherche seront présentés au conseil responsable de l'approbation des programmes dans le domaine de l'éducation. Ce conseil, désigné par le gouvernement, pourrait donner son approbation au curriculum européen et recommander le document aux autorités d'enseignement supérieur ainsi qu'aux universités et institutions liées à la formation des enseignants. La participation des institutions d'enseignement supérieur au projet contribuera directement à l'amélioration de la qualité de la formation des enseignants.

Au sein du TEP, le Ministère est représenté par un collaborateur du Département pour le Développement éducatif et par un fonctionnaire du Département international ; ce dernier est aussi impliqué dans le développement de mesures pour améliorer l'éducation des enfants d'origine immigrée. Comme ces personnes sont membres d'autres groupes de travail au niveau gouvernemental, des liens supplémentaires sont ainsi créés avec d'autres ministères (responsables des affaires intérieures, la santé, l'environnement/le logement, l'enseignement supérieur).

Le troisième exemple, le cas du Luxembourg, illustre encore une autre approche pour créer un *Teacher Education Partnership*. Comme le Luxembourg est un petit pays, il n'y a qu'un seul TEP

et ce dernier est géré par l'équipe de recherche. Les attentes par rapport aux membres du TEP ainsi que le nombre d'heures approximatif à investir ont été définis dans un règlement fixant des termes et conditions. Le graphique ci-dessous montre comment le TEP luxembourgeois travaille et décrit ses différentes fonctions.

FIG. 12 : DIFFÉRENTES FONCTIONS DU TEP LUXEMBOURGEOIS



Concernant la composition du TEP, le but principal était de mettre sur pied un groupe de travail comprenant des personnes qui travaillent à différents niveaux dans et/ou avec des institutions éducatives. Trois domaines principaux ont été identifiés : le système éducatif, la formation des enseignants et des intervenants travaillant dans des structures extrascolaires qui prennent en charge les enfants avant ou après l'école, les structures extrascolaires.

Le partenaire luxembourgeois a décidé d'intégrer les structures extrascolaires ainsi que la formation en pédagogie sociale dans leurs populations cibles. En effet, l'école et les structures extrascolaires sont intrinsèquement liées puisqu'elles ont affaire aux mêmes enfants. Le Luxembourg étant une société multiculturelle, les thématiques liées à la migration et au multilinguisme concernent tout le monde travaillant de près ou de loin dans le secteur éducatif.

Le TEP luxembourgeois réunit des personnes de différents horizons ; il y a des représentants de deux autorités gouvernementales, le Ministère de l'Éducation et le Ministère de la Famille (responsable des structures extrascolaires), des membres du Collège des Inspecteurs, des représentants de syndicats d'enseignants et d'associations de parents, des personnes travaillant avec des élèves d'origine immigrée, des professeurs liés à la formation des enseignants et d'autres intervenants, des organisateurs de la formation continue ainsi que des représentants des organisations responsables de la prise en charge/des activités extrascolaires des enfants et adolescents.

## E. CONSIDERATIONS FINALES: CONDITIONS POUR LE FONCTIONNEMENT DE PARTENARIATS AU NIVEAU EUROPEEN

Comme on le voit à travers les exemples mentionnés, les pays partenaires du projet EUCIM-TE ont adopté différentes approches pour créer leurs *Teacher Education Partnerships*. Néanmoins ils poursuivent tous le même but, c'est-à-dire la promotion de coopérations dans le domaine éducatif. D'après Sacliotto-Vasyenko (2009), de telles coopérations présentent les atouts suivants : « collaborating allows circulation, construction and reconstruction of knowledge, as well as the co-production of new knowledge » (p. 63).

Dans ce sens, les partenariats éducatifs d'EUCIM-TE ont pour intention de propager et de développer le savoir de leurs membres. En même temps ils visent la coproduction de savoir sous forme d'un curriculum européen de base. Le résultat final, qui sera appliqué par tous les pays partenaires, sera l'aboutissement d'un travail bidirectionnel entre les TEPs nationaux et le consortium européen.

D'après la typologie de Landry (1994), les TEPs peuvent être définis comme *associative partnership*. Ce type de partenariat présente certaines caractéristiques : coopération périodique entre les organisations participantes, collaboration à long-terme pour réaliser un projet éducatif commun et travail pour atteindre une série de buts et de responsabilités communs. Dans le cas des TEPs, les relations entre les partenaires sont dynamiques, formelles et transparentes ; par ailleurs, la collaboration donne accès à des ressources et permet la construction conjointe de savoir.

Lesain-Delabarre (1999) définit quatre formes principales de partenariat et les ordonne selon deux axes majeurs : le premier est celui « d'équité », c'est-à-dire l'égalité/l'inégalité des contributions de chaque partenaire par rapport aux effets qu'il retire de la coopération et par rapport aux répercussions que la coopération a sur les populations bénéficiaires. Le deuxième est celui de « formalisation » (ou « contractualisation »), désignant la précision avec laquelle les attentes à l'égard de chaque partenaire ont été définies dans un cadre précis, ces attentes pouvant être sources de régulations pour chacun des partenaires. Étant donné que les TEPs se caractérisent par une formalisation réduite en termes de structure et d'organisation, qu'ils sont basés sur une communication fréquente et informelle et qu'ils se construisent sur la volonté mutuelle de résoudre un problème commun, on peut les situer du côté « égalitaire » et « non formalisé » dans la typologie de Lesain-Delabarre. En mentionnant que de tels partenariats peuvent se révéler fragiles et peu évolutifs puisqu'ils reposent sur le « bon vouloir » des partenaires, l'auteur lance un avertissement dont il faudra tenir compte.

Les TEPs remplissent une des conditions, définies par Pilo et Gavio (2009), qui sont nécessaires à un partenariat dans le domaine de l'éducation. D'après ces auteurs, un tel partenariat a besoin des éléments suivants : « common theoretical frame, common methodology, sharing decisions, mutual trust, reliability » (2009, p. 153). En effet, les partenariats du projet EUCIM-TE partagent un savoir théorique commun auquel adhère tout nouveau partenaire. La compréhension mutuelle et la prise de décision démocratique constitue la base du travail des TEPs.

La construction de relations et le développement de confiance entre différentes institutions et communautés professionnelles, et notamment le temps qu'il faut investir pour le faire, sont bien documentés dans la littérature (McLaughlin, 2006). Dans le cas du projet EUCIM-TE, il fallait



environ six mois pour établir les partenariats, pour développer des objectifs et des responsabilités communs et pour commencer le travail sur le curriculum européen. Bien que le projet dispose d'un intranet et d'un forum de discussion en ligne, le fait que tous les partenaires se sont réunis régulièrement a facilité la phase initiale de la construction du groupe et du développement d'une confiance mutuelle. Néanmoins, avant de lancer un tel partenariat, il est important de se rendre compte que la survie du partenariat, pendant et au-delà du projet, dépend de la motivation voire de la persévérance du groupe coordinateur. Il est en effet difficile de garder tous les membres du TEP motivés pendant l'entièreté du projet et le succès est souvent lié à l'engagement d'un petit nombre de personnes.

En se basant sur les expériences faites avec les *Teacher Education Partnerships* dans le cadre du projet EUCIM-TE, les conditions suivantes pour des partenariats au niveau européen, décrites en théorie, peuvent être confirmées en pratique :

- construction commune du savoir
- buts à long-terme définis pour résoudre un problème éducatif commun
- formalisation réduite mais des responsabilités partagées : plan de travail et tâches définis de commun accord par tous les partenaires
- équité, respect mutuel et fiabilité entre partenaires
- cadre théorique et méthodologie communs
- temps initial et des réunions en face-à-face pour définir et garantir toutes ces conditions

Créer et travailler avec des partenariats comme le TEP est une expérience enrichissante. Dans notre cas, les membres du TEP sont des « agents du changement » dans le sens qu'ils créent des liens entre le consortium et ceux qui adoptent les changements (Hall & Hord, 2006). Dans le domaine de l'éducation, de tels partenariats sont sans doute le moyen le plus efficace pour provoquer un changement réel et durable dans la formation et la pratique des enseignants.



## V. EUCIM –TE: CORE CURRICULUM – EARLY EDUCATION SETTINGS: RECOMMENDED PRACTICES IN FIRST/SECOND LANGUAGE (BILINGUAL) OR MULTILINGUAL LANGUAGE LEARNING

Nico Kneip

*Editors' note: This text presents a series of recommendations and good practices which can be useful for people dealing with children in multilingual situations. It has already been published on [www.eucim-te.eu](http://www.eucim-te.eu) under Material/ Product 49.5: European Core Curriculum supporting material examples/ Luxembourg Partners – University of Luxembourg and Benjamin-Club – Early Education in Multilingual Learning Settings: Recommended Practices.*

The current chapter documents experiences, innovative practices and close-up data on interactions in educational settings which were realised in the “ Benjamin Club” groups. In fact we initiated, since 1995, a more systematic analysis of the linguistic situation of immigrant children aged 2 to 4 years and developed a support programme for children, parents and carers who have to cope with a bi- or multilingual situation (Kneip, 2005). These are based on different theoretical and empirical researches (Kneip, 1988, 1989; Kneip & Herman, 2008; Kneip, 2009). Moreover, on the one hand, the Benjamin Club antecedents represent an important input into the EUCIM-TE curriculum building process, and on the other hand, the reflection which went on in the Benjamin Club is parallel to debates in the international arena of education linguistics. So our colleague Constant Leung argued that the shift from grammar based pedagogy to communicative language teaching required a recontextualisation of theoretical concepts such as Dell Hymes’ communicative competence (Hymes, 1972a; Leung, 2005a). He also underlined (Leung, 2005b) that beyond the macro-level accounts which have been produced since the seventies (Bamberg et al., 1977; Kneip, 1980) and recently in PISA and PIRLS, we need close-up data on interactions. The current chapter comprises four parts, the first ones giving general guidelines which oriented the approach adopted by the Benjamin Clubs; they reach from general approaches via methodological recommendations to interventional techniques. At the end, we will present practice instances by the means of transcripts of interaction records. In the next contribution we will show how the Benjamin Club experiences were integrated into the conceptualization work which led to the European Core Curriculum.

### A. GENERAL APPROACHES

1. Encourage and support parents’ sensitivity for a correct and expressive practice in the daily use of maternal/paternal language.
- 2 Use social embedded activities (everyday rituals, frequent family or institutional occupations) inspired by first-language or mother-tongue communicative habits, link them to second or academic language designations in a playful manner (role playing, ...)
3. Pay attention to regular repetition of specific vocabulary and linguistic structures (situational based – daily routines).

4. Assure active collaboration of parents/cultural mediators (educators of migrant children's mother-tongue).
5. Apply principle of: "one person - one language" and assign a specific language to communicating persons in specific situations. So, in institutional bi-lingual education (notably with young children), a staff of two corresponding native speakers should be assured.
6. Organise temporal "slots", situational and/or "islands - places - rooms" of specific languages/cultures as an everyday routine, for instance in a multi-lingual family or a multi-lingual group situation.

## B. METHODOLOGICAL RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Define "integrative" (common) language – it is normally the language of the country.
2. Minimal staff of two educators (for 12 children), one being "cultural mediator" or knowing language of majority of migrant children present – possibly a parent. Define precise rules of "code-switching" for educators and children.
3. Establish progressively specific vocabulary in relation to significant daily situations/events, picture book reading, storytelling ... (insuring informal repetition – no "dry" vocabulary learning!)
4. Adapt sentences form (affirmation / negation / interrogation / tense forms) to specific child or age group: an informal qualitative structuring (and repetition) should be applied and no formal, non social embedded training.

## C. INTERVENTIONAL TECHNIQUES (ADAPTATION TO AGE AND LANGUAGE KNOWLEDGE REQUIRED)

1. Echoing children's utterances
2. Joking / juggling with syllables i.e. own creations, rhymes ...
3. Accompanying speech – describing one's own action or child's action
4. Accompanying gestures & mimics – always support understanding by gestures
5. Structuring words or/and actions with rhythms (by drumming, rattling, clapping hands, stamping feet ...), songs, circle plays ...
6. Modeling (Propose a word or sentence) & Expanding (finish an incomplete sentence or complete a formulation) & Scaffolding (construct a formulation in interaction)
7. Sequencing (telling or showing images of events in succession)
8. Story-telling and listening (telling events / stories without visual support)

## D. SOME EXAMPLES OF PRACTICES

1. **Snack-time - Early education situation 1:** cf. example “Morning snack” in the following contribution.

The described approach can be transposed to other everyday scenes: toilet going / going to bed / bathing / puppet playing / construction play – puzzle playing / out-door activity – exploring nature...

2. **Role-playing or life-situations** e.g. daily/weekly events – regular visits: grocer’s shop – supermarket, doctor, hairdresser, farm - animals, forest - nature, living area - transport

**Early education situation 2:** Group or Family situation - Group’s stroll or family’s Sunday walk in country-side with child aged 4 years; Mother/Mediator-Educator (M.E.): Chinese (Ch); Father/Native-Educator (N.E.): Luxembourgish (L); Child (Ch.1): Ch-L; Common language in group: L (bilingual situation for child)

**N.E.:** [L] *Oh! Look, there in the meadow, there are cows, many cows, big cows and small cows.*

**M.E.:** [Ch] (same information in Chinese)

→ **Validation of 1<sup>st</sup> language; Modeling-Expanding-Sequencing**

**N.E.:** [L] *The small cows are the children, they are called “calves”.*

**Ch.1.:** [Ch] - *addressing M.E.: Look (pointing), the small cow, what she’s doing!? ...*

**M.E.:** [Ch] *She’s drinking milk ... from her mother ... Like you, when you were a baby! (gives information in English to N.E.)*

**N.E.:** [L] *Yes, the small cow, the calf drinks milk from her mother.*

→ **Modeling – Scaffolding**

**Ch.1.:** [L] - *addressing N.E.: And there? There is a very big mother!*

**N.E.:** [L] *Oh! No, that is not a mother ... That is the father, that is the bull. He pays attention to all the cows and all the little calves. He does not want that we go near the cows or the calves ... then he gets very angry ... then he gets wild and hits with his head ... and with the horns ... (gives essential terms to mother)*

→ **Modeling – biological content-knowledge**

**Ch.1.:** *(a bit afraid, taking mother by hand)*

**M.E.:** [Ch] *You need not be afraid. The bull is behind the wire fence, he cannot come out ...*

**Early education situation 3:** Family situation – Story telling – at table: Common language between adults or at table in family: English (trilingual situation for child). Child tells father in L, what it has seen in the meadow. Mother continues in English.

**M.E.:** [E] *Sarah took me by the hand, because she was a bit afraid of the bull.*

**N.E.:** [E] *You were a little bit afraid ... (Echoing) Yes, I'm also afraid of the big bulls ... but the[<sup>/L</sup>]*  
*Stéier [<sup>/E</sup>] the bull is not wild, when you are only looking at the calves and at the cows.*

**M.E.:** [E] *Yes, it was nice to see the little calves with the cows ...*

**Ch.1.:** [E] *Yes, it was nice, I'm not afraid ... Can I have milk, please!*

## VI. LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION IN THE CONTEXT OF EARLY EDUCATION AND SCHOOLING: EDUCATIONAL COMPETENCES

Nico Kneip, Bernard Mohan

*Editors' note: The text is based on a presentation given at the closing conference of the EUCIM Project at King's College in London on 12<sup>th</sup> November 2010. It has been adapted to the purposes of this publication by adding Luxembourg relevant explanations and references to the text.*

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This paper will illustrate EUCIM-TE's approach to language and language acquisition in the context of schooling. It will look particularly at the context of early education and schooling, with a focus on educational competences. Though they are representing a heterogeneous group, we keep in mind all persons concerned by a child's education without distinction. So our educator target group consists of diverse actors such as parents, care takers, and teachers. Language learning indeed is not only a matter of formal education, but can take place in a lot of contextual settings where adults and children interact. Moreover we generally address a range of diversity variants, represented by two cases: the English speaking one, on the one hand, characterised by an official monolingualism, and the Luxembourgish one, on the other hand, characterised by a recognised multilingual practice. This corresponds to our intention to demonstrate how the shift in conceiving language and language learning suggested by EUCIM-TE can suit different situations all over Europe.

## A. EUCIM-TE LANGUAGE CONCEPT

EUCIM-TE explicitly points to the importance of “inclusive academic language teaching” (IALT). IALT aims to move away from the familiar “compartmentalised” approach to second language teaching to an inclusive practice of “mainstreaming” academic language learning. So, generally speaking, communicative competence becomes more important than foreign language mastery. This request may seem inappropriate to Luxembourg teachers as mathematics, history, geography, biology, etc. have always been taught in a “foreign” academic language i.e. German or French. But the main point of the EUCIM-TE project is to underline that the use of the specific academic language and, for instance the particular “genre” and “register” in the sense of M.A.K. Halliday’s linguistics (Halliday, 2009), should be the result of a teamwork approach between language and content teachers. In Luxembourg, the particular selective power of language in school performance has been shown since the late 1970’s (Kneip, 1980, 1988, 1989) and results mainly from what might be called a systemic misconception. The current school reform tries to reduce the unjustified loss of pupils, notably from migrant or socially deprived backgrounds by giving new institutional means to a more “inclusive” teaching. The competences listed below, as it has been said, are for all educators, pre-service student teachers and in-service teachers who work with linguistic minority students and monolingual students who need access to academic registers. They are also of value to parents.

## B. EDUCATIONAL COMPETENCES IN BRIEF

A first set of competences should enable educators to encourage the foundational quality of first and second language learning in order to develop and support learning of academic discourse i.e. its registers and genres, and associated social practices.

Register is defined by Halliday as “a set of meanings that is appropriate to a particular function of language, together with the words and structures that express these meanings. We can refer to a ‘mathematics register’ in the sense of the meanings that belong to the language of mathematics [...] and that a language must express if it is being used for mathematical purposes.” (Halliday, 1978, p. 195). Register means the special features of the language used in different school branches or diverse situational or environmental contexts (e.g. early childhood, journalistic, juridical register ...).

‘Genre’ refers to specific types of text or discourse. Martin & Rose describe a genre as “a staged, goal-oriented, social process” (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 8). “Genre” relates to literary forms (story, poem ...) or the purpose of the text (e.g. recounting events, explaining scientific contents ...) and implicates particular aspects of grammar and vocabulary (cf. the “Product 49.2: European Core Curriculum supporting material module 1: IALT –Supporting Material and Product 49.3: European Core Curriculum supporting material module 2: Methodology for IALT on [www.eucim-te.eu](http://www.eucim-te.eu)). The language practice should determine the structural aspects of the message, not the contrary.

The final aim consists in a successful language-sensitive subject instruction. So the primary emphasis lies on creating and maintaining linguistic conditions for a significant access to knowledge which will not be biased by the initial language background. The acquisition of the national language is not an objective as such, but it gains its significance in the course of a



student's biographical trajectory and remains subordinated to his access to socially and culturally relevant contents. Concretely this means that expert practitioners – for example science educators – make a particular selection of elements of scientific knowledge and activities that they consider important for students or novice scientists in a specific context and time. This practice in science, mediated by language and other semiotic means, needs to be adapted to the specific subject-matter. It can only be successful, when this selection is coherent, representative of basic concepts and takes into account the competences of the learners and the contextual conditions of learning. This applies of course also to parents who may explain natural phenomena to their young child in terms that meet the child's understanding competences, e.g. the sun "waking up" or "going to sleep".

A second set of competences enable educators to identify the language needs of learners in early social and institutional settings and in mainstreamed subject classrooms. Parents, educators in day care as well as teachers must try to describe or understand clearly the gap between the level of the possible language practice of the learner and the needed quality level or register to be applied in a specific population and/or a specific environment. Language acquisition consists not only in lexical and grammatical development; beyond vocabulary and structure the widening of the range of registers achieved by a cooperative access to relevant fields of practice is essential to language socialisation.

As Marshall et al. (2002) argue for early care and whole school multilingual policy, a third set of competences becomes visible. Educators should be able to reflect, order and organise arguments that explain and justify the specific language learning approach. This guarantees a systematic procedure in a not always systematic practice. For example, parents should know and explain their way of managing a bilingual family situation, workers in childcare and teachers should also know how and why they apply their multilingual methodology and policy in their institutional setting.

### C. REALISING EDUCATIONAL COMPETENCES IN PRACTICE

The above mentioned competences can be realised in practice when some fundamental personal attitudes are adopted, when a specific linguistic knowledge is acquired and managed by using particular skills. So the following three aspects are central to the curriculum.

#### 1. ATTITUDES

Educators should value language as a resource for making meaning and consider the learner's first language as a resource. Adults must motivate children to use language as one of the most important communicative tools. Numerous studies (cf. Kneip, 2009) have shown that this conscious and reflected use of language is the most differentiating variable between socio-professional levels and in explaining academic failure. Consequently, for native speakers, compensatory measures should be organised institutionally; for 2<sup>nd</sup> language learners particular efforts should be made to encourage the child's first language resources (for example, by implicating parents or cultural mediators – cf. the Benjamin Club example below), and thus assure the foundational quality of the used languages. Educators have to be aware that educational spaces should be spaces of language freedom. Languages are primarily valued

because of their communicative function and not because of their lexical and structural correctness.

## 2. KNOWLEDGE

Educators need a thorough knowledge of language, language structure and language use enabling them to analyse children's/students' everyday and academic discourse and to identify their specific needs. In normal living conditions the above mentioned encouraging and attentive attitude will trigger and increase the intuitive knowledge and sensibility for the children's everyday language (cf. jigsaw puzzle example below), but a more profound theoretical knowledge of language development and/or of the academic registers used in school should be part of the educator's pre- and in-service courses. Only such knowledge assures a competent identification and evaluation of the children's linguistic needs. Teachers should also inform the parents, how to handle the academic discourse(s) used in school. With such knowledge, both will develop the relevant skills mentioned below. The informed spontaneous reaction of teachers becomes a resource for students' learning and is often more important than the direct teaching of vocabulary and grammatical structure.

## 3. SKILLS

Educators should be able to identify genres and registers in children's/students' everyday and academic discourse and to assess their everyday and academic discourse in order to guide their future development.

### D. DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN EVERYDAY AND ACADEMIC REGISTERS

As mentioned above, the "register" concept is a central theoretical element in the EUCIM-TE curriculum. In the following section the differences between everyday and academic registers are stressed. Students can be aware of differences between everyday and academic uses of discourse, and the difficulty of academic uses, even if they might find it difficult to define the differences more exactly.

*S. (11 year old ESL student educated in Australia): "I can say what I want, but not for school work and strangers". (McKay et al., 1997. p.12)*

Research studies indicate that the development of academic registers takes considerably longer than more everyday conversational uses of language (Cummins, 1991). While ability with everyday registers can develop in a year or two, Collier (1987, p. 617) notes that "arrivals at ages of 12–15 experienced the greatest difficulty and were projected to require as much as 6–8 years to reach grade level norms in academic achievement when schooled in the second language" (cf. also Thomas & Collier, 2002).

It might reasonably be assumed that young children do not use academic registers before they are socialised into them in formal schooling. But it would be better to acknowledge that there is a gradient between everyday and academic registers and to recognise that young children are not limited to everyday, routine uses of language and can reflect on their language and knowledge at an early stage. The first example to be analysed will illustrate this phenomenon showing how the transition from everyday to academic registers can happen naturally and be partly self-regulated.

## E. ANALYSING EXAMPLES FROM EDUCATIONAL INTERACTIONS

The following paragraph applies register theory to three transcribed texts examples. The opening example (“Animal jigsaw”) illustrates the link between the framing of knowledge and the early development of academic registers. The second example (“Morning snack”) shows an everyday register and the last example (“Final interview on magnetism”) refers to an academic register.

We firstly want to illustrate the educational use of everyday and academic registers, and we secondly want to suggest the value of register analysis for sharpening our appreciation of the differences between such text examples.

Halliday and Hasan (1985) have proposed three “contextual variables” that can be helpful to differentiate the used register(s). As we explained earlier “register” describes how language varies according to context. The “contextual factors” are: field, tenor and mode. The “field” is the topic of the text, the social action taking place; the “tenor” the social roles of speaker and hearer (or writer and reader) and the “mode” is the part that language is playing.

### 1. ANIMAL JIGSAW

Here is an example where a young learner raises the question of the place of a kind of thing (a platypus) in taxonomy (animals). A platypus is an Australian semi-aquatic animal that is covered in fur and has a beak like a duck, feet with skin between the toes like an otter and a flat tail like a beaver. Platypuses are strange mammals, though they give milk to their young, they lay eggs like birds and are venomous like snakes or spiders. The adult educator, the child’s mother reacts in a natural way, but demonstrates nevertheless the relevance of the theoretical approach we are discussing.

FIG. 13: PICTURE OF A PLATYPUS



S aged 3 years 8 months, is looking at animal jigsaw puzzle pieces with his mother.

**S:** *There isn't a fox [i.e. on this animal jigsaw]; and there isn't – Is a platypus an animal?*

(Painter, 1999, p. 102)

The child is relating “platypus” and “animal” in a lexical taxonomy of animals and using the verbal form 'is' to classify. The child’s interrupting himself between “there isn’t” and “is a platypus an animal?” combined with an abrupt shift from a declarative utterance related to the here and now, to a general interrogation with a kind of scientific content, marks the double,

register-related meaning of “is”. In the first instance, “is” is employed in the context of a deictic utterance the meaning of which depends on who says it, where they are, whom they are talking to. “Is” makes sense as a functional part in an instance of indexical behaviour, in our case the child pointing to a jigsaw piece which lies in front of him and his mother. In the second part the meaning of “is” is entirely different. “Is” means to be classified as; there is no reference to situational parameters, but to a general, abstract, timeless taxonomy. “Is” represents a part of a symbolic operation as it is undertaken by scientists and knowledge workers. The double meaning of “is” may be explained by a register shift. The meaning of “is” changes in relation to the different modes, characterizing each of the registers.

The next example shows the same child discussing the properties or characteristics of animals: snakes and worms do not “have the property” of having legs, but lizards do.

**S.:** *Snakes and worms don't have legs.*

**M.:** *Ah, no.*

**S.:** *But lizards do.*

(Painter, 1999, p. 105)

The identification of taxonomies and properties is foundational to academic registers, where it is often elaborated to a considerable degree. Obviously language and knowledge acquisition happen in parallel. Register, one might say, is a linguistic tool for cognitive meaning work, and it represents one of the essential meeting grounds of both developmental lines. So the adult educationally interacting with children should be able to combine linguistic and cognitive scaffolding. A professional should be aware of these processes as well as be able to analyse and control them.

## 2. MORNING SNACK AT BENJAMIN-CLUB (LUXEMBOURG)

The second example shows how language learning can be supported in a multilingual group of early education. It is one of the numerous examples of good practice from the Benjamin Club (for more examples see the previous chapter). The adult educators are trained, but they have not been introduced to Hallidayian linguistics in general or register analysis in particular. They obviously practice a kind of whole-language approach, are sensitive to educational stakes in a situation of linguistic diversity and are strongly committed to their students’ language development. We split the transcript up and will comment on the different parts separately. Our reading tries to link the practical processes to the theoretical positions developed in the previous section. Notably we will try to point out what type of attitudes or knowledge are involved, and we will reconsider the text in the light of register analysis. On different grounds the example is more complex than the foregoing one. The focus is less on an individual child’s development than on social interaction. Adults hold a professionally active role, which is different from parents spending time naturally with their children. The communication is multilingual, three languages are involved, Luxembourgish, Portuguese and French; code switching is frequent: in some cases, it occurs naturally, elsewhere, it is educationally motivated and more or less systematic.

The specific situation can be described as follows: There are two adult persons, trained carers, in charge of 12 pre-school children. The first one is a native speaker of Luxembourgish; the second

one is a Portuguese speaking mediator, who is also fluent in Luxembourgish and French. There is no enforcement on language choice, i.e. neither is a language prohibited nor is it prescribed. The morning snack situation in which communication is embedded is a relevant and significant moment in the everyday life of the group.

In the transcript we use the following conventions:

**N.** = first carer, native speaker of Luxembourgish

**M.** = second carer, mediator, native speaker of Portuguese

**Ch1-Ch12** = Child 1 to Child 12; the children's age in years and months (y;m) is indicated in brackets.

All texts are reproduced in English translation. The original language is indicated in square brackets, L meaning Luxembourgish, P Portuguese and F French. A language shift in the course of an utterance is indicated by means of a slash with the reference to the alternative language which is now employed. Only the spoken text is set in italics.

**N.:** [L] *Look, dear children! All the good things, we have this morning. All good fruit!*

**M.:** [P/F] (repeats in Portuguese and French)

**N.:** (showing) *Here we have slices of apples, pears, bananas and oranges. But, look, Maria (= M.) has also bread, butter, jam and cheese. Who wants some fruit: apples or bananas? Who wants bread with jam or cheese?*

From the very beginning no language is excluded, the fact that communication happens is more important than the use of a specific language. The valuation of all languages relevant in the situation points out that the first language is a possible resource for coping with a situation. Register building happens not only in L2, but in all the languages which are available to a multilingual subject. A second feature of the first intervention of the professionals also allows an inference on their linguistic knowledge. They are aware of the relevant vocabulary and syntactical structures such as declarative and interrogative sentences they have to use to set the topic and to open the "Morning snack" semantic field. Moreover a tenor is set by defining the roles of hearer and speaker.

**Ch.1 (2;1):** (showing apples)

**N.:** [L] *You must tell me (showing and naming) – apples, pears, bananas or oranges.*

The second part shows a pedagogical behaviour consisting in the practice of "echoing, repeating/modelling". Under the regard of register analysis the tenor becomes clearer; adults do not only feed the children as parents do at home, beyond this they link the simple everyday act with language learning. Concerning tenor the adult speakers stress their educational authority by asking questions and giving orders (imperatives).

**Ch.1 (2;1):** *Apples!*

**N.:** [L] *Fine! – But say: "I want apples, please!"*

In the third part we find again an implicit reference to language teaching knowledge. N. demonstrates practices of "modelling for imitation of sentence structure". The end of her sentence stresses her role as an educational authority ("You must").

**Ch.1 (2;1):** [L] (repeats sentence).

**N.:** [L] *OK, perfect! Please ... here we are ... and you Sandro?, what do you want ...?*

**M.:** [P] *Yes, Sandro, what do you want?*

In the fourth part the educator role is again reinforced by a praising and question asking behaviour. Moreover an attitude of valuation of the first language is documented. The message transmitted is that no one should be excluded for language reasons from the morning snack situation; everybody can participate both in the eating and in the learning whatever their language is. So the first language is valued and it functions as an assuring and supporting structure which gives access to meaning.

**Ch.2 (2;3):** [P] *Cheese!*

**M.:** [P] *Ah! Sandro wants cheese, bread and cheese?*

**Ch.2 (2;3):** [P] *Yes, I want bread and cheese.*

**N.:** [L] *Sandro wants bread and cheese. Please!*

In this part the attitude to give both languages L1 and L2 a similar status is documented. L1 is used to reassure the child who will participate in the on-going communication in whatever language will be chosen.

**N.:** [L] *And you, Françoise?*

**Ch.3 (3,2):** [F] *I want bananas and oranges. – [/L] I want bananas and oranges, please.*

**N.:** [F] *O, Françoise, very good, very polite [/L] you want bananas and oranges. [/F] Here you are. [/L] Say it in Luxembourgish, please.*

Through language shifts all languages are valued and meaning making has a fair chance to happen. The adult person knows that she has to model the structure in L2 in order to encourage imitation.

**Ch.3 (3,2):** [L] *I want bananas and oranges, please.*

Before beginning to eat, children and adults join hands and sing or wish “good appetite” in all the languages used in the particular group. The “Morning snack” episode illustrates that everyday language registers are very often related to everyday scripts. Abelson and Schank (2008) define a script in the following way:

A script is a structure that describes appropriate sequences of events in a particular context. A script is made up of slots and requirements about what can fill those slots. The structure is an interconnected whole, and what is in one slot affects what can be in another. Scripts handle stylized everyday situations. They are not subject to much change nor do they provide the apparatus for handling totally novel situations. Thus a script is a predetermined, stereotyped sequence of actions that define a well-known situation. (p. 41)

A large part of the language acquisition process corresponds to the learning of scripts (Abelson & Schank, p. 222). The specificity of the early education situation recorded in our transcript consists of two features. The Morning snack is a Benjamin Club script which will be established through the repetition in the club, nevertheless the Morning snack echoes situations children may have experienced at home, being fed by their parents. The Benjamin Club situation is twofold because it is not only a situation of eating together, but also a learning sequence. Thus it loses in natural authenticity and gains a more general view in representing the objects which

make up the Morning snack scripts in a pedagogical way. The two sides of the complex script “having one’s snack” and “learning language” generate a specific language register. The field of discourse (topic: social activity) is having a meal together, a very familiar activity. Concerning the tenor of discourse, the social roles of speaker and hearer are: adults presenting and offering food, and children asking for food. The adults also provide language guidance. Concerning the mode of discourse (the part that language is playing), the language interaction is taking place in a relevant context of actions and things: food items are pointed out to the children and named, the children can see others being offered food, taking it and eating it. The language register can be acquired either in L1 or in L2 or in a combination of both languages. The knowledge of functional linguistics and register analysis could sharpen an educator’s approach to children’s language acquisition and increase their flexibility and accuracy. In the next paragraph we will, by illustrating students’ talk on magnetism, illustrate how coming of age also means discovering new registers in the context of school learning corresponding to the transition from a more enactive to a more symbolic representation.

### 3. LEARNING MAGNETISM AT GRADES 1 AND 2

The “Final interview about magnetism” comes from a study of two elementary school classes that were studying a unit on magnetism. We will call them Class A and Class B. The children were 6 to 7 years old (Slater & Mohan, 2006). At the end of the unit on magnetism, the children were individually interviewed by the researcher to explore their knowledge of magnetism and were asked to explain how magnetism worked. This example is very brief, but it will serve the purpose of illustrating academic discourse at this age level.

“Final interview about magnetism”: Class A (native speakers of English)

*Researcher: How does magnetism work?*

*Class A: L1 student: Okay you have a red one here and a red one here ... if you try and stick them together they won’t stick. If you have a grey and another grey they won’t stick but if there’s a red and a grey they’ll stick.*

A register comparison between “Morning snack” and “Final interview about magnetism” highlights a number of differences between them as examples of everyday and academic registers. “Morning snack” is based on a register linked to an everyday script, whereas “Final interview about magnetism” activates an academic register. The field of discourse (topic) is magnetism, a scientific topic which has just been studied and understood in a new way. Field of discourse (social activity) is being interviewed about what you have learned, a very new activity for these children. Concerning the tenor of discourse, the social roles of speaker and hearer are: adult as interviewer, asking for scientific explanations and child as interviewee, providing scientific explanations. Concerning the mode of discourse (the part that language is playing), the language interaction is taking place in an interview room. The child does not have the relevant context of actions and things to rely on. There are no magnets and no metal objects or iron filings etc. for the magnets to attract. The child has to deal not with a real situation, but with a generic type which has to be represented symbolically.

It can be seen that register description offers a way to explore significant differences in texts. A further stage of register analysis would show how such differences are realised in the lexis and

grammar of texts using the analysis of functional grammar. We will not examine detailed grammatical analysis here but it can be easily understood how educators have to deal with vocabulary and grammatical structure in relation to situationally and culturally relevant tasks, as well as how register analysis can help to achieve this. In the next paragraph we will illustrate how register related pedagogical behaviour can have positive effects on students' language learning.

#### F. DOES TEACHING ACADEMIC REGISTERS HELP?

We will now compare the Class A example given above with a Class B example with respect to the explanations they gave in their final interviews to the question "how does magnetism work?". Class A students were all native speakers of English (L1 students). Class B students were all ESL learners (L2 students). We have given a typical example for each group.

*Class A: L1 student: Okay you have a red one here and a red one here ... if you try and stick them together they won't stick. If you have a grey and another grey they won't stick but if there's a red and a grey they'll stick.*

*Class B: L2 student: If you put north with north ... repel. If south and south again repel. North and south attracts. South and north attracts.*

It is clear that the Class B explanation is superior to the Class A explanation. In other words the explanation by the ESL learner is better than the explanation by the native speaker. This is not what people normally expect, but it can happen if the ESL learners are taught well. The Class B explanation uses the correct technical terms for magnetism. It describes the poles as north and south. It talks of magnets attracting and repelling. This is not simply a matter of knowing the right words, but a matter of understanding the technical meanings. The Class A explanation does not use the correct technical terms. It describes the poles as the red one and the grey one. It talks of magnets sticking or not sticking. These are the wrong meanings. Magnetic poles are not defined by their colour. Magnets do not stick like glue and they attract at a distance. Not sticking is not the same as repelling. A further difference is that the Class B explanation makes general statements which hold in the generic knowledge framework throughout (*If you put north with north ... repel*), whereas the Class A explanation starts by referring to particular things and actions in the here and now, in a way they are regressing by reconstructing the situational context instead of generalising their observation in an abstract generic model (*Okay you have a red one here and a red one here ... if you try and stick them together they won't stick*).

Was there a difference between the teaching of the magnetism unit in Class A and the teaching of the magnetism unit in Class B? The study of these two classes looked in detail at the classroom interaction during the magnetism unit. Both classes were organised around a series of simple experiments and there was a cycle of interaction around each experiment. In Class B, the students did the experiment and there was a final phase when they reported on the experiment guided by the teacher. This has been called "teacher-guided reporting" and has been noted as a powerful way for learners to be scaffolded to guide them to develop academic language (Gibbons, 2003; Gardner, 2004). Looking at the transcript of the classroom interaction it is easy to see that the teacher was carefully and consistently assessing and scaffolding such features of explanation as the technical terms of magnetism and general statements that appear in Class B's explanation.



In these classroom interactions the teacher in Class B was assessing the students' use of features of the register of magnetism and scaffolding their use when needed.

### G. STRUCTURALIST VERSUS REGISTER LANGUAGE MODELS FOR ASSESSMENT

Assessment of registers is very different from traditional structuralist approaches to language assessment and is based on a very different model of language, a systemic functional model. The difference between the structuralist and register language models for assessment is given in the table of contrast below. One difference is that the structuralist approach is focused on the evaluation of the correctness of form. It places great stress on the correction of grammatical errors. There is nothing wrong with correcting errors, but it lacks a broader perspective on language development. The differences we noted between the Class A explanation and the Class B explanation would have been ignored by an error correcting perspective, but they are crucial to providing adequate scientific explanations, and if a learner is not supported to learn them, they will have little success with the language of science.

<b>Structuralist language model</b>	<b>Register language model</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language as a set of rules</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language as a resource for making meaning</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language form unrelated to meaning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language form related to meaning</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language learning as acquiring correct forms</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language learning as extending resources for making meaning in context</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluate correctness of form; judge meaning independently from form</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluate text as making meaning with resources in context</li> </ul>

### H. CONCLUSION

In our discussion of language development in the context of early education and schooling we have centred on register and the difference between everyday registers and academic registers. We have illustrated how everyday registers are important for the foundational stages of learning and teaching. Teachers can support learners to build up the foundation of language by using everyday registers in familiar contexts so that they can develop their first language more fully and are enabled to extend their multilingual capacities in second languages. We have illustrated how academic registers are important in education to help learners develop their educational potential and make progress in the mainstream across the curriculum.

In addition, we have shown how support for the development of academic register and appropriate formative assessment of academic register, can make a significant difference to learners engaged in language acquisition, even at the very beginning of schooling, and even when L2 learners are compared with learners who are native speakers of English. This support and assessment draws upon a model of language that is very different from the traditional model of language. It is essential that schools and education systems take up this model to support foundational language development and the development of academic registers in order to move to a more inclusive practice of "mainstreaming" academic language learning.



## VII. MEHRSPRACHIGKEIT ALS CHANCE UND HERAUSFORDERUNG: KONZEPTE UND MODELLE AUS LUXEMBURG

Charles Berg

*Editors' note: The text is based on a paper given on 11<sup>th</sup> June 2010 at the conference „Mehrsprachigkeit: Chance oder Hürde beim Schriftspracherwerb? Empirische Befunde und Beispiele guter Praxis“ at the University of Bayreuth.*

Zum Thema der Tagung „Mehrsprachigkeit: Chance oder Hürde beim Schriftspracherwerb?“ hoffe ich etwas beitragen zu können, indem ich über Erfahrungen aus Luxemburg berichte. Ich komme nämlich aus einem Land, in dem, wie Shlomo Allon, unser Kollege aus Israel, es ausdrückt, viele Menschen eine Muttersprache haben, die ihre Mutter nicht beherrscht hat. Auch hat Cléo Vilson Altenhofen in seiner Mainzer Dissertation (Altenhofen, 1996) über das Hunsrückische am Rio Grande gezeigt, wie unpräzise, unzutreffend, vieldeutig und belastend der Begriff Muttersprache in wissenschaftlicher Hinsicht sein kann. Die gleiche Argumentation kann man nachvollziehen mit Blick auf das *Lëtzebuergesch* im Illinois und Wisconsin (Gonner & Schmit, 2008), die Brüsseler Sprachenvielfalt, wie sie im Umkreis von Hugo Baetens-Beardsmore (Baetens-Beardsmore & Witte, 1987) beschrieben wurde, oder die eigentümliche Gemengelage von Italienisch, Französisch, Frankoprovenzalisch und Titsch, die im italienischen Aostatal herrscht (Diémoz, 2002; Cavalli, Coletta, Gajo, Matthey & Serra, 2003).

Heute gilt diese Feststellung nicht mehr nur für die exotischen Fälle; Mehrsprachigkeit ist besonders in urbanen Ballungsgebieten zur allgemeinen Realität geworden. Um der leidigen und empfindlichen Diskussion über Muttersprache zu entgehen, hatten Christiane Weis und ich formuliert, Mehrsprachigkeit sei vielleicht die Muttersprache der Luxemburger (Berg & Weis, 2005). Dieser Spruch war als Kalauer gemeint, dennoch bezogen wir in der Presse Prügel dafür (Fehlen, 2006; Weber, 2006). Ausdrücken wollten wir, dass es schwierig ist, die Frage nach der Muttersprache in Luxemburg eindeutig und pädagogisch hilfreich zu beantworten, dass die Lage komplex ist und dass man in pädagogischer Hinsicht auch kommunikative Kompetenzen jenseits des Einzelsprachlichen im Blick behalten sollte. Luxemburg ist trotz der Probleme, die sich aus der Mehrsprachigkeit ergeben, bildungsmäßig ein Beispiel für eine funktionierende mehrsprachige Erziehung. Die meisten Luxemburger sind drei- oder viersprachig. Die LESELUX-Studie, eine PIRLS/IGLU-Replikation, weist für die Sechstklässler im Deutschen einen Wert von 587 Punkten<sup>18</sup> auf. Damit liegt die Luxemburger Leseleistung über dem internationalen Höchstwert, den die Viertklässler der Russischen Föderation (Top-Position im Ranking mit 565 Punkte) in der Originalstudie erzielt haben. Aber auch für die Leseleistung im Französischen wird immerhin ein überdurchschnittlicher Wert von 517 Punkten erreicht. (Bos et al., 2009, S. 38) Die spezielle Situation in Luxemburg wird besonders dadurch interessant, weil im 21. Jahrhundert in einer globalen Perspektive manchmal Gründe gegeben werden, warum bilinguale Erziehung gut

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<sup>18</sup> Die offizielle PIRLS-Skala hat einen Mittelwert von 500 und eine Standardabweichung von 100.

für alle Kinder, quer durch die Welt, sei und dass man sich allerorts mit der Frage auseinandersetzen müsste, wie sich das bewerkstelligen ließe.<sup>19</sup>

Mein Vortrag greift die angedeutete Problematik der multilingualen Lesekompetenz auf und umfasst drei Teile. Zuerst werde ich einen knappen Aufriss der Luxemburger Mehrsprachigkeitssituation geben und will dabei auch die pädagogische Problematik des Sprachlernens im Allgemeinen und die des Schriftspracherwerbs im Besonderen beleuchten. Im zweiten Teil werde ich einige Initiativen und Untersuchungen aus Luxemburg vorstellen, die eventuell unsere vorerst auf Deutschland bezogene Diskussion weiterbringen könnten. Im letzten Teil, als Schlussfolgerung sozusagen, will ich auf das laufende europäische, von der Universität Köln koordinierte EUCIM-TE-Projekt eingehen, in das beispielsweise das deutsche FörMig-Projekt mündet, aber auch die britische NALDIC-Bewegung (*National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum*), die Vancouver-Projekte von Bernard Mohan und schließlich auch viele Initiativen, die in den letzten Jahren in Luxemburg unternommen wurden. Was ich vermitteln werde, hat Praxisrelevanz nicht in dem Sinne, dass ich Ihnen sagen werde, was Sie zu tun haben, aber indem es vielleicht dazu beitragen kann, dass man Praxis mit andern Augen sieht. Insgesamt geht es mir dabei darum dreierlei zu zeigen: Erstens, in einem multilingualen Kontext ist die Entwicklung einer mehrsprachigen Lesekompetenz möglich. Zweitens, dieser Prozess stellt Herausforderungen, die man auf unterschiedlichen Ebenen aufnehmen muss. Drittens, die Erfahrung im mehrsprachigen Raum ist heute bedeutsam für die Bedingungen des Sprachlernens und Aufwachsens überhaupt.

#### A. ZUR BESCHREIBUNG DER LUXEMBURGER MEHRSPRACHIGKEIT

Luxemburg ist ein kleines Land (80 km lang, 40 km breit), mitten in Europa, an der Grenze von Romania und Germania, zwischen Belgien, Frankreich und Deutschland. In der mündlichen Kommunikation ist *Lëtzebuergesch*, sprachhistorisch eine westmoselfränkische Mundart, 1984 durch Gesetz zur Nationalsprache geworden, die dominante Sprache. Daneben wird ebenfalls Deutsch und Französisch gesprochen. Der Prozentsatz der Kinder, die bei der Einschulung in die Vorschule angeben, ihre Familiensprache sei *Lëtzebuergesch*, ist aber stark rückläufig. Laut einer alarmierend gemeinten Arbeitsstatistik aus dem Bildungsministerium gibt es in dem 2004 geborenen Jahrgang nur noch 42% Luxemburgophone. Auch bei den Schülern Luxemburger Nationalität ist der Anteil der Luxemburgischsprachigen rückläufig. Dafür hat aber der Besuch von Kursen für Luxemburgisch als Fremdsprache stark zugenommen. Die Tendenz erklärt sich wahrscheinlich durch den demografischen Befund, dass das Bevölkerungswachstum mehr dem Nettozuwanderungs-überschuss als dem Geburtenüberschuss zu verdanken ist. Bezogen auf die Schriftsprache sieht die Lage anders aus. Hier gibt es zwei konkurrierende Sprachen: Deutsch und Französisch. Allerdings behauptet sich das Luxemburgische (in einer spezifischen Form) als SMS, E-Mail und Internetsprache, wie es auch die linguistischen Sprachbeobachter (Gilles, 2009) festgestellt haben. Die Babel-Situation wird dann perfekt, wenn internationale und Migrantensprachen (Portugiesisch, Italienisch, Englisch, Russisch, Serbokroatisch, Spanisch etc.) hinzukommen.

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<sup>19</sup> Cf. z.B. : « [...] bilingual education is above all, an enterprise of love for the children of the world who will be the men and women of the future. » (Garcia & Baetens-Beardmore, 2009, S. 383).

Zur Interpretation der Sprachensituation greife ich auf den Begriff der Sprachökologie zurück. Er wurde 1972 von dem Harvard-Linguisten und Skandinavisten Einar Ingvald Haugen geprägt. Haugen gebrauchte den Begriff als biologische Metapher und versuchte den Geist der biologischen Ökologie auf das Leben der Sprachen zu übertragen. Demgemäß verstand er Sprachökologie als die Untersuchung der Interaktionen zwischen einer gegebenen Sprache und ihrer Umwelt, das sind im wesentlichen Sprecher und Gemeinschaften. Die Linguisten und Soziolinguisten haben die Arbeiten Haugens kaum rezipiert und widmeten sich den höheren Aufgaben der Untersuchung der Phonologie, der Syntax, des Lexikons. Von einem ökologischen Standpunkt aus aber lassen sich viele Aspekte der klassischen Linguistik in Frage stellen, und diese Fragen entsprechen in mancher Hinsicht auch den Überlegungen, die Sprachlehrer vor ihren multilingualen Klassen anstellen. Sprache erscheint weniger als ein losgelöstes Regelsystem, sie wird vielmehr als ein situativ eingebettetes Sozialverhalten wahrgenommen, das den Bedürfnissen menschlicher Vergesellschaftung entspricht: Kommunikation, Kultur und Zugehörigkeit. Im 21. Jahrhundert hat die Sprachökologie einen neuen Auftrieb erfahren. Zeichen hierfür sind die Veröffentlichung des neunten Bandes der *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, welcher der Sprachökologie gewidmet ist, und die Veranstaltung eines interdisziplinären M.A.-Kurses an der Universität Berkeley, bei dem Kalifornien in seiner Mehrsprachigkeit als besonders angemessener Forschungsraum für sprachökologische Studien angesehen wird. Im Syllabus des Berkeleyer Kurses heißt es u.a.:

This is not a traditional psycholinguistics or cognitive science course, but rather an experimental attempt to integrate the disciplines that study language in a broader framework that we refer to as "language ecology". This is part of an emerging interdisciplinary effort at Berkeley to explore language within its individual, societal, cultural, and historical frameworks. [...] We situate language in contexts of individual mental processes as well as contexts of interaction between individuals in a society and between social groups. We approach language learning and language use as a nonlinear, relational human activity, co-constructed between humans and their environment, contingent upon their position in space and history, and a site of struggle for the control of social power and cultural memory (Berkeley Language Center, 2010).

Es sind nicht oberflächliche Befunde, die den Kern der Luxemburger Sprachökologie ausmachen. So ist es sicher nicht wesentlich, dass Luxemburg ein Land ist, in dem es drei Landessprachen gibt, dass eine Schule wie das *Lycée technique du Centre* von Schülern von mehr als dreißig Nationalitäten besucht wird oder dass die Gemeindeverwaltung meiner Heimatstadt Düdelingen angibt, hier würden mehr als 80 verschiedene Muttersprachen gesprochen. Distinktive Merkmale sind hingegen folgende Tatbestände. Es gibt in Luxemburg sozusagen keine monolingualen Sprecher. Fernand Fehlen (1998) hat zum Beispiel aus Umfrageergebnissen folgende Sprachgebrauchstypologie und eine entsprechende Verteilung vorgelegt.

FIG. 14: VERTEILUNG NACH SPRACHGEBRAUCHSTYPEN

1	Les germanographes – D/F	34%
2	Les germanographes – D/E	5%
3	Les « vieux luxembourgeois francographes »	22%
4	Les « nouveaux luxembourgeois francographes – les enfants des Italiens »	7%
5	Les « francophones »	3%
6	Les trilingues L/D/F	23%
7	Les bilingues L/D	5%

Quelle: Tabelle erstellt nach Fehlen, 1998, S.49-50

Auch wenn eine derartige allein auf Umfragedaten bezogene Konstruktion immer Unsicherheit aufweist und vielleicht nur partiell zutrifft, gibt Fernand Fehlens Versuch doch ein Gefühl für die Diversität der Plurilingualität in Luxemburg und dafür, wie bei ihrem Zustandekommen historische Kontingenzen, soziokulturelle Differenzen und neuere Arbeitsmarktentwicklungen zusammenspielen mögen.

Außerdem kennen die meisten Sprachen Varietäten, aber auch Statusparadoxe. Das Deutsche etwa ist für viele Luxemburger die erste Schriftsprache. Vom Schriftsteller Georges Hausemer (1984) wurde es als „Stiefmuttersprache“ bezeichnet. Es ist eine Sprache, die sich diskreditiert hat, von der man sich unter Umständen distanzieren mag, die in bestimmten Situationen bewusst nicht gebraucht oder bewusst mit Akzent gesprochen oder verballhornt wird. Im Wettstreit mit dem Luxemburgischen bekommt das Deutsche deutlich den zweiten Preis. Luxemburgisch wird von vielen emotional hochgewertet, ist dennoch rückläufig und gilt als unangemessen im akademischen und professionellen Gebrauch. Französisch ist einerseits die steife Schriftsprache, in dem der viel zitierte offizielle französische Brief geschrieben werden soll, und dann wieder in einer mündlichen Variante mit einer Pidginisierungstendenz das Verständigungsmedium zwischen Einwanderern und Luxemburgern. Portugiesisch ist für die einen die verachtete und verspottete Immigrantensprache und für die anderen die Sprache des Herzens und der Heimat.

Psychologisch gibt es im Denken der Sprecher eine ausgeprägte Interaktion zwischen den Sprachen. Idiome werden aufeinander bezogen, erhellen sich gegenseitig. Sprecher entwickeln im Verhältnis zu Bildungs- und Lebenslaufverfahrungen diverse multilinguale Subjektivitäten aus. Es entsteht eine soziale Landschaft mit konkurrierenden Kodes und eine zum Teil regulierte, zum Teil nicht regulierte Praxis des *Code-switching*. Sprachen kennen eine erhöhte strukturelle Instabilität, auf die zum Teil mit Hyperkorrektheit, angeblicher Hyperkorrektheit oder Appellen an die Hyperkorrektheit reagiert wird. Familien sind oft durch eine generationale Diskontinuität der sozialen Praxis der Mehrsprachigkeit geprägt. Soziales Wissen wird in mehr als einer Sprache gespeichert und zur Verfügung gestellt.

Georg Mein, Germanist an der Universität Luxemburg, meinte neulich in einem Presseinterview, Luxemburg sei ein Schlaraffenland für Sprachforscher. Ist man als Bildungsforscher an Kontexten und Strukturen des Aufwachsens und an ihrer nachhaltigen Veränderung interessiert und soll man als intelligenter Benutzer des linguistischen Wissens Praktikern Hinweise geben, wie man

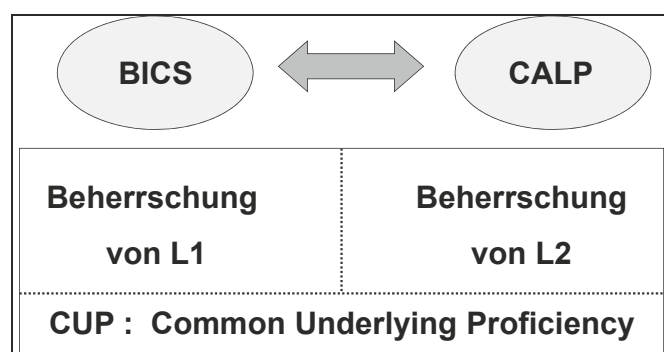
mit einer solchen Situation umgehen kann, erscheint sie eher als Albtraum. Die Herausforderung wird weniger lustig, viel problematischer. Man könnte es dann eher mit Frank Sinatras *New York, New York* halten und sagen: *And if I can make it there, I'm gonna make it anywhere.*

Für Schüler in Bezug auf ihre Entwicklung und besonders im Hinblick auf den Schriftspracherwerb hat die Mehrsprachigkeit zwei Gesichter. Ein lachendes, bei dem die Mehrsprachigkeit als Quelle der Bereicherung erlebt wird und zur Grundlage für multikulturelle Flexibilität wirkt. Der einzige Wermutstropfen ist vielleicht die Frustration darüber, dass man in keiner der Sprachen das Niveau von Topmonolingualen erreicht und ab und zu den Druck der Mehrsprachigkeit empfindet. Am anderen Ende des Spektrums aber wird, besonders dann, wenn die komplexe Sprachökologie auf eine migrationsbedingte Mehrsprachigkeit trifft, die Sprachsituation leicht ein Bedingungsfaktor von Schulversagen und sozialer Exklusion, von dem besonders Kinder mit Migrationshintergrund betroffen sind.

Ein wesentliches Moment in diesem Zusammenhang bleibt es, ein Verständnis dafür zu schaffen, was beide Gruppen, die Verlierer und die Gewinner, unterscheidet. Jörg Dollmann und Cornelia Kristen (2010) haben sich bei ihrer Untersuchung türkischer Grundschüler auf Unterschiede zwischen L1 und L2 bezogen. Dabei werden zwei negative Szenarien sichtbar: sprachliche Marginalität und monolinguale Segmentation. Das Kind beherrscht im ersten Fall keine Sprache richtig, im zweiten Fall bleibt es ausgeschlossen, weil es in seiner Familiensprache eingeschlossen ist. Auf der anderen Seite lassen sich zwei positive Szenarien identifizieren: monolinguale Assimilation und kompetente Bilingualität. Im ersten Fall kann der Schüler besser Deutsch als Türkisch, im zweiten Fall ist er in beiden Sprachen kompetent. Da beide Wege zu guten Schulleistungen führen, spielt der Unterricht in der Erstsprache logischerweise keine Rolle in Bezug auf den Schulerfolg. Dollmans und Kristens Analyse haben etwas Bestechendes, weisen dennoch eine charakteristische Schwäche auf. Der Parallelismus zu soziologischen und sozialpsychologischen Integrations- und Assimilationsmodellen führt dazu, dass Sprachwelt und Sozialwelt als nebeneinanderstehend gesehen werden und gerade so sprachökologische Austauschmechanismen vielleicht nicht erfasst werden.

In der Zweitspracherwerbsforschung hat aber seit Jahrzehnten der Bezug zu Sprachgebrauchssituationen es erlaubt, wesentliche Differenzierungen herauszuarbeiten. Das gilt etwa für die Unterscheidung zwischen alltäglicher Kommunikationssprache und einer spezifischen Bildungssprache. Jim Cummins (1979) hat die wichtige Unterscheidung zwischen *Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS)* und *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)* eingeführt. Sprachdiagnostische Fehleinschätzungen kommen gerade dadurch zustande, dass die fließende Beherrschung einer Sprache für den Alltagsgebrauch in der Regel kaum etwas aussagt über die Beherrschung einer dekontextualisierten und strukturierten Bildungssprache.

FIG. 15: DIE ELEMENTE VON JIM CUMMINS' MEHRSPRACHIGKEITSANSATZ: BICS VS. CALP, CUP



Der Zugang zur Bildungssprache, mit dem besonders wissensbezogenes Leseverstehen verbunden ist, entscheidet dabei maßgeblich über den Schulerfolg. Hinzu kommt die *Common Underlying Proficiency*, die zugrundeliegende gemeinsame Kompetenz. Gerade diese Tiefenstruktur des Kompetenzprofils entscheidet darüber, ob das betroffene Kind die biografischen Entwicklungsaufgaben bewältigt, die wohl mit Sprachbeherrschung zu tun haben, aber weit über die Beherrschung einer Einzel- oder gar einer Zweitsprache hinausgehen: Gelingt es zum Beispiel dem Kind in den frühen Jahren, seine Wirklichkeit angemessen zu strukturieren, gelingt auch am Übergang zur Grundschule der Zugang zur Schriftsprache, später der Zugang zum Wissen, noch später zum Arbeitsmarkt sowie zur politischen, gesellschaftlichen und kulturellen Partizipation. Die Hinweise machen deutlich, wie die Ansätze von Jim Cummins eine sprachökologische Hinterfragung, die besonders pädagogisch relevant ist, erleichtern können. Cummins fügt dabei der Differenzierung von verbaler und kognitiver Intelligenz, eine weitere Unterscheidung hinzu: nämlich die zwischen den Faktoren, die von der Beherrschung einer Einzelsprache abhängen, und den zugrunde liegenden Sprachkompetenzen, die sich generell auf die kommunikative Bewältigung von Alltagsaufgaben beziehen, die wohl sprachlich sind, aber dennoch nichts mit der Beherrschung einer Einzelsprache zu tun haben.

## B. INITIATIVEN UND EMPIRISCHE ANALYSEN AUS LUXEMBURG

Ich werde anhand von Beispielen auf unterschiedlichen Ebenen versuchen, einen Eindruck von den Bemühungen, die derzeit in Luxemburg aktuell sind, zu vermitteln. Mein erstes Beispiel bezieht sich auf die Systemebene und verweist auf den von den bildungspolitisch Verantwortlichen eingeleiteten Reformprozess *Réajustement de l'enseignement des langues*.

Der Ausgangspunkt ist das Koalitionsabkommen und die Regierungserklärung von 2005. Hier findet sich die Formel *Réajustement de l'enseignement des langues*. Gemeint ist, dass man zwar an der Luxemburger Mehrsprachigkeit festhalten will, gleichzeitig aber Negativeffekte wie die übertriebene Selektion, die den generationalen Qualifikationstransfer gefährdet, abpuffert. Die Luxemburger Regierung suchte die Kooperation mit der Sprachpolitikabteilung des Europarates und mit der Universität und ließ in einer mehrere Etappen umfassenden Prozedur ein nationales Sprachbildungsprofil erstellen (Berg & Weis, 2005; Goullier et al., 2006; Berg & Weis, 2007; Berg & Weis, 2008). Ergebnis waren allgemeine Orientierungen für eine Veränderung der Sprachbildungspolitik: ein Überdenken der curricularen Methodologie, eine verstärkte Anerkennung der Diversität von Sprachlernkarrieren und individuellen Sprachprofilen, die Betonung transversaler Aspekte der Sprachbildung, die Unterstreichung der plurilingualen



Dimension des Sprachgebrauchs, die Mobilisierung von Institutionen und Akteuren in einer kohärenten und gemeinsamen Veränderungsdynamik. Das letzte Treffen mit unterschiedlichen Akteuren in der Bilanzierungsphase war überaus positiv. Das *Réajustement de l'enseignement des langues* wurde als Ausdruck einer kohärenten Politik gewertet, ein Großteil der angekündigten Maßnahmen war verwirklicht worden (Goullier et al., 2009). Dennoch bleibt bis heute der Nachweis aus, dass sich auch bei den Schülerleistungen, wie sie etwa in PISA und PIRLS (bzw. IGLU) gemessen werden, Folgen bemerkbar machen. Auf jeden Fall wird am Ende des Prozesses bildungspolitisch eine Richtung der Transformation des Bildungssystems deutlich. Die Ausgangsrealitäten waren durch eine rigide kompartmentalisierte Curriculumarchitektur gekennzeichnet. Es galt als selbstverständlich, dass der Sprachunterricht ein Großteil der Unterrichtszeit beanspruchte und dass das zuungunsten der Sachfächer, Geschichte, Naturwissenschaften, aber auch des Luxemburgischen, der Kunst und des Sports ging. Dieser Logik entsprach, dass Sprachlehrer ihre Fachstundendeputate verteidigten wie Goldgräber ihre Claims und dass die einzelsprachliche Korrektheit die wichtigste Rolle im Selektionsprozess spielte, auch wenn das auf Kosten der *Common Underlying Proficiency* geht.

Heute ist eine Alternative zwar nicht von allen akzeptiert, dennoch wird deutlich sichtbar, dass wir uns von der Vorstellung eines trilingualen Equilingualismus weg bewegen hin zur Akzeptierung eines realistischen und diversen Plurilingualismus. Wir verabschieden uns vom Mythos des dreifachen *native speaker* und beginnen die diversen Identitäten multilingualer Subjekte, wie sie durch biografische Karrieren und Lebensentscheidungen geprägt sind, zu begreifen. Hilfreich sind dabei Standards, die sich am Europäischen Referenzrahmen für Sprachen orientieren. Aus dem gesamten Prozess entsteht die Hoffnung auf eine außergewöhnliche Chance der expliziten und reflektierten Erneuerung der Sprachbildung, die aufbaut auf einer kompetenzorientierten flexibleren Curriculumarchitektur und die den Schülerinnen und Schülern ein verstärktes Selbstvertrauen in ihre kommunikativen und sprachlichen Möglichkeiten gibt.

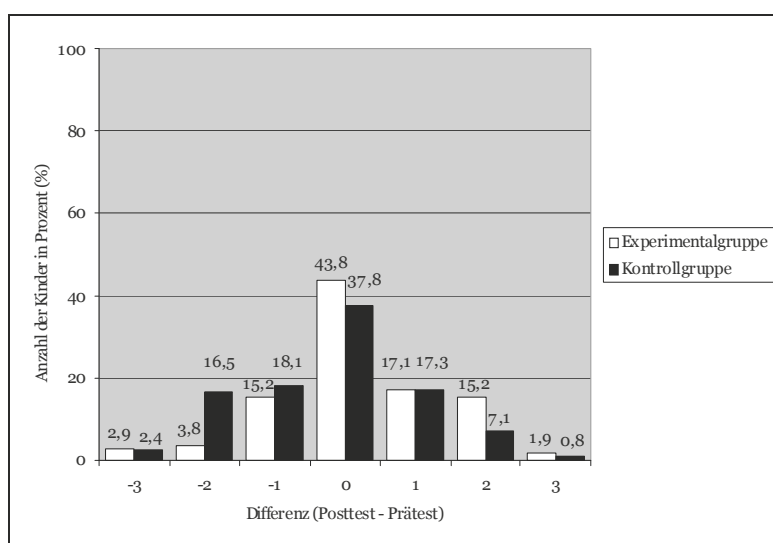
Während mein erstes Beispiel stark bildungspolitisch verankert ist und die Transformation des Systems anpeilt, bezieht sich das zweite Beispiel auf eine viel konkretere und praxisnahe Ebene. Es handelt sich hier um einen Punkt des Aktionsplans, der von einem Verantwortlichen mit einer kleinen Gruppe von Lehrern durchgeführt wurde. Mirko Mainini (2008) führte eine Untersuchung des Leseverstehens im zweiten Schuljahr durch. Das Projekt war als Aktion 30 im Aktionsplan vorgesehen. Dort hieß es:

Conjointement avec l'Université du Luxembourg, un membre du Collège des inspecteurs de l'enseignement primaire mènera un projet concernant l'apprentissage et l'enseignement de la compréhension de textes en 2<sup>e</sup> année d'études. L'objectif est d'identifier les méthodes didactiques adaptées au concept élargi de la littératie dépassant la simple technique du décodage de mots et s'ouvrant sur la compréhension de textes dans des situations réelles. Le projet sera accompagné de mesures de formation et réfléchira sur la transférabilité de l'approche. (Berg & Weis, 2007, S. 60f.)

Im Fokus des Projektes stand die konkrete Veränderung der Unterrichtspraxis, die durch Lehrerfortbildung erreicht werden und auf eine Steigerung der Schulleistungen der Schülerinnen und Schüler hinauslaufen sollte. Die Ausgangsüberlegung war, dass leseschwache Schüler oft das

Gelesene passiv und oberflächlich rezipieren. Mirko Mainini will also die aktivere Auseinandersetzung mit dem Text fördern, indem er den Lehrern hilfreiche Strategien hierfür zugänglich machte. Er arbeitet besonders mit zwei Ansätzen: *explicit teaching*, dem direkten Unterricht von Lesestrategien, und mit *Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies*. Ziel von beiden Ansätzen ist, bei den Schülerinnen und Schülern eine stärkere Selbstreflexion als Grundlage der Selbststeuerung des Lernens anzuregen. Methoden wie Hypothesen bilden, lautes Denken, Fragen stellen, Zusammenfassen und graphisches Darstellen eines Textes stehen im Vordergrund (Duke & Pearson, 2003).

FIG. 16: QUARTILE DES LESEVERSTÄNDNISSES (PRÄTEST-POSTTEST-DIFFERENZ/GRUPPE)



Quelle : Mainini, 2008, S.107

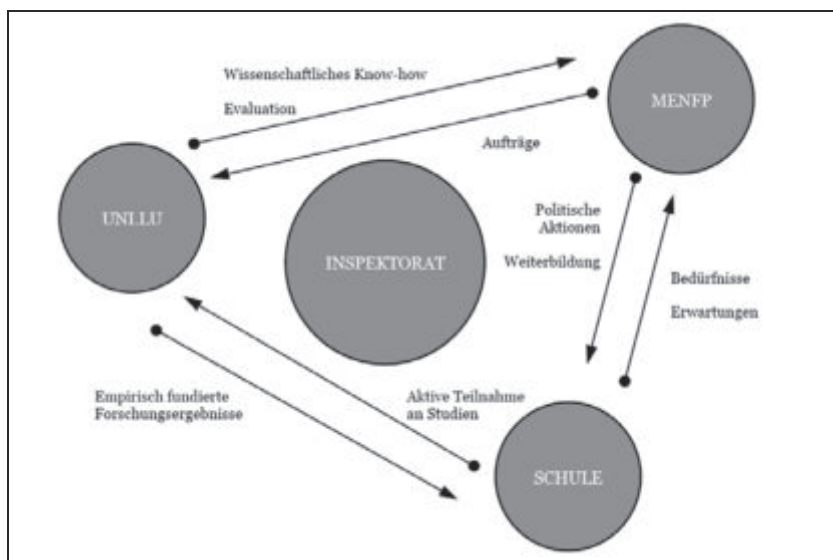
Mainini arbeitete fünf Wochen lang mit den Lehrerinnen und Lehrern der Treatmentgruppe. Er vergleicht im Post- und Prätest die Leseleistungen der Schülerinnen und Schüler anhand des Hamburger Lesetests Hamlet. In Bezug auf die Lesegeschwindigkeit kommt es nicht zu einer signifikanten Differenz.

Der Vergleich von Post- und Prätest aber weist trotz der kurzen Dauer eine signifikant höhere Verbesserung des Leseverstehens in der Treatmentgruppe auf. Kinder mit Migrationshintergrund haben den größeren Nutzen von der Intervention, denn ihr Leseverständnis hat sich im Vergleich zu luxemburgischen Muttersprachlern relativ stärker (zwischen dem Prä- und dem Posttest) verbessert. Dem „Schereneffekt“, der sich in der Kontrollgruppe feststellen lässt, wird also in der Treatmentgruppe entgegengewirkt. In der Gruppendiskussion, die ich mit den beteiligten Kolleginnen und Kollegen durchgeführt habe, war das zentrale Motiv, dass Maininis Intervention die Selbständigkeit der Schüler gestärkt habe und dass der Gewinn für die Lehrerschaft in einer parallelen Stärkung von Selbständigkeit und Selbstverantwortlichkeit lag.

Für mich stellt das Ergebnis der Arbeit eine kleine Sensation dar. Es ist tatsächlich gelungen, auf überzeugende Art und Weise den Nachweis zu erbringen, dass Veränderungen möglich sind. Sie hängen von der Lehrerschaft ab. Sie können durch eine wissenschaftlich fundierte und praxisnah

vermittelte Lehrerfortbildung erreicht werden und kommen besonders den benachteiligten Schülern zugute. Ein Schlüssel zum Erfolg ist dabei die Steigerung der Autonomie der Schüler und des Lehrpersonals, und beides geht Hand in Hand. Zum Schluss weist Mirko Mainini darauf hin, dass die Generalisierung des mikroskopisch nachgewiesenen Effekts eine effiziente Synergie von Institutionen voraussetzt.

FIG. 17: STRUKTURBEZIEHUNGEN IN MAININIS MODELL



Quelle : Mainini, 2008, S.121

Mein drittes Beispiel habe ich aus einem anderen Bereich gewählt. Im vierten Teil des Aktionsplans wurde die Wichtigkeit der internationalen Vergleichsstudien in einer Zeit der sich internationalisierenden Bildungsstrukturen unterstrichen, Luxemburg hat deshalb an PISA und PIRLS (bzw. IGLU) 2006 teilgenommen. In Luxemburg wurde an einer kleineren Stichprobe im Jahre 2008 eine Replikation der PIRLS-Studie, die sogenannte LESELUX-Studie (Berg et al., 2009), durchgeführt, die sich nicht auf die erste Schulsprache Deutsch beschränkte, sondern auch die Leseleistung in der zweiten Schulsprache Französisch berücksichtigte. In PIRLS wird die Lesekompetenz, besser wohl die Leseverstehenskompetenz, in zwei Dimensionen untergliedert: die Nutzung von textimmanenten Informationen und das Heranziehen externen Wissens. Bei PIRLS schneiden die Luxemburger Schüler besser in der ersten Dimension ab. Für mich war das einerseits die Folge rigider Unterrichtsmethoden, hing aber auch damit zusammen, dass die Schulsprache Deutsch nicht unbedingt die Sprache ist, in der auch das Alltagswissen gespeichert wird. Die LESELUX-Studie bestätigt in Bezug auf das Deutschlesen das Ergebnis von PIRLS.

FIG. 18: VERGLEICH DER SUBSKALEN „INFORMATIONEN LOKALISIEREN UND DIREKTE SCHLUSSFOLGERUNGEN ZIEHEN“ UND „EINORDNEN, INTERPRETIEREN UND BEWERTEN VON INFORMATIONEN“

Datenquelle	Klasse	Informationen lokalisieren und direkte Schlussfolgerungen ziehen			Einordnen, interpretieren und bewerten von Informationen			Differenz
		M	SE	SD	M	SE	SD	
PIRLS/IGLU 2006 (Deutsch)	5	565	1,2	73	548	0,9	63	17
LESELUX 2009 (Deutsch)	6	562	2,6	70	582	2,1	62	1
LESELUX 2009 (Französisch)	6	511	2,6	83	522	2,3	72	-11

M: Mittelwert; SE: Standardfehler des Mittelwerts; SD: Standardabweichung

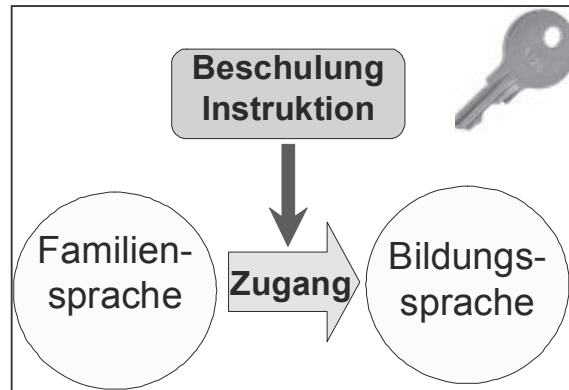
In Bezug auf das Französischlesen stößt man aber auf ein überraschendes Muster. Das Verhältnis ist hier umgekehrt. Offensichtlich verhindern die mangelnden Fremdsprachenkenntnisse bei dem vor kurzem erst begonnenen Französischlernen die Nutzung der textimmanenten Informationen beim Lesen eines unbekanntes Textes. In dieser Notlage aber werden vermutlich die am Deutschen entwickelten, auf externes Wissen bezogenen Strategien übertragen. Sie wirken also tatsächlich im Sinne von Jim Cummins' *Common Underlying Proficiency*. Schade, dass Sprachlehrern und besonders Fremdsprachenlehrern oft wenig daran liegt, gerade diese grundlegenden Transversalkompetenzen zu entwickeln.

### C. SCHLUSSFOLGERUNG: IALT (INCLUSIVE ACADEMIC LANGUAGE TEACHING)

Die schulische Förderung des multilingualen Lesens setzt eine neue Grenzziehung des Sprachunterrichts im europäischen Raum voraus. Es handelt sich dabei um einen komplexen Prozess, der schon begonnen hat, der keineswegs aber allein den Unterrichtspraktikern angelastet werden kann, vielmehr nach einem Zusammenspiel von Bildungspolitik, Curriculumdesign, Unterrichtspraxis und Bildungsforschung verlangt.

Wir können heute dank der in verschiedenen Staaten geleisteten Arbeit wesentliche Momente der angepeilten Innovation angeben. Eine neue Grenzziehung für den Sprachunterricht sollte auch der didaktischen Ausfransung, wie sie Renate Valtin und mir bei der Analyse der PIRLS- und LESELUX-Fragen zur Unterrichtsgestaltung aufgefallen ist, entgegenwirken (Berg & Valtin, 2007). Wir stießen nämlich auf eine überaus breite Palette von angeführten Methoden, die verbunden ist mit einer großen Unsicherheit und Unbestimmtheit bezüglich der Festlegung verbindlicher didaktischer Zielsetzungen und Vorgehensweisen. Positiv gewendet bedeutet die neue Grenzziehung jedenfalls, dass man sich auf ein alternatives Sprachmodell bezieht, das die kulturelle Durchwachsenheit der Kontexte, in denen Kinder und Jugendliche heute aufwachsen und Qualifizierungen erwerben, anerkennt. Die Literacy-Kompetenzen, auf die man sich dann fokussiert, sind zwar einzelsprachlich realisierbar und liegen dennoch jenseits des Einzelsprachlichen. Sprachunterricht dient nicht einseitig der Vermittlung von Sprachkompetenzen, sondern verbindet Wissens- und Spracherwerb. Er bezieht sich nicht mehr ausschließlich auf die korrekte Beherrschung der Schriftsprache, sondern integriert die Multimodalität (Kress, 2010) der derzeitigen Wissenskommunikation in den schulischen Bereich. Der Sprachlerner wird so als multilinguale Subjektivität im Sinne von Claire Kramsch (2009) gesehen, die sich zum Teil selbst konstruiert.

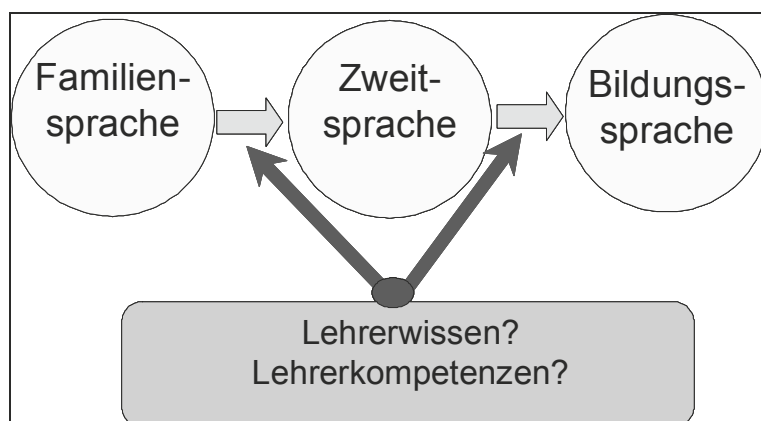
FIG. 19: ZUGANG ZUR BILDUNGSSPRACHE ALS SCHLÜSSEL



Wir wissen längst, dass für Kinder mit Migrationshintergrund sprachliche Faktoren als Bedingung von Schulerfolg eine wichtige Rolle spielen. Es handelt sich aber nicht nur um Sprache im Allgemeinen, sondern besonders um den Zugang zur Bildungssprache. Es geht also nicht ausschließlich darum, Kenntnisse der in der jeweiligen Gesellschaft gesprochenen Sprachen zu erwerben, sondern Zugang zu gewinnen zur bildungs- und schulsprachlichen Kommunikation. Dabei kann unter spezifischen Umständen auch der Rückgriff auf die Herkunftssprache als Ressource dienen. Es wurde also hier regelrecht ein Schlüssel gefunden, der einen Ausweg aus dem Dilemma aufzeigt. Es wird nämlich ein Handlungsspielraum aufgewiesen zwischen zwei unbefriedigenden Positionen: auf der einen Seite dem resignativen Akzeptieren der Sozial- und Kulturkapitaldistribution verbunden mit dem Eingeständnis pädagogisch-didaktischer Ohnmacht, auf der anderen Seite dem moralischen Appell an überschätzte Welt- und Machtveränderungsfähigkeit der Lehrerschaft.

Um die neue Fragestellung hat sich im europäischen EUCIM-TE-Projekt um Hans-Joachim Roth von der Universität Köln eine internationale Gruppe zusammengefunden, die ein europäisches Kerncurriculum entwerfen will, das der Förderung eines *inclusive academic language teaching* dient. Das europäische Kerncurriculum soll das Ergebnis einer Konsensbildung innerhalb einer internationalen Gruppe sein, wobei die einzelnen Partner jeweils von nationalen Bedarfsanalysen ausgehen. Gleichzeitig wurden die Arbeiten des Konsortiums über den Weg der nationalen *Teacher Education Partnerships* (siehe Beitrag IV) rückgebunden an den Austausch mit nationalen Entscheidungsträgern und Praktikern. Die *European Core Curriculum*-Entwicklung unterscheidet sich von einem eigentlichen Curriculum Entwicklungsprozess, da es sich ja nicht um die Erfüllung eines auf einen bestimmten organisatorischen Rahmen bezogenen Mandats handelt. Der Prozess ähnelt vielmehr der Simulation eines Curriculumentwicklungsprozesses als Vorwegnahme einer Konsensbildung in einer sich internationalisierenden europäischen Bildungslandschaft.

FIG. 20: PÄDAGOGISCHES WISSEN UND KOMPETENZEN FÜR DEN UMGANG MIT SPRACHLICHER DIVERSITÄT



EUCIM-TE überwindet vom Konzept her Defizitmodelle des multilingualen Lerners und lässt andererseits Organisationsformen wie einen kompartimentalisierten Sprachunterricht, bei dem die Zweitsprache nebenher unterrichtet würde, hinter sich, zugunsten eines integrativen Modells, bei dem die sprachliche und kommunikative Bildung in und jenseits des Einzelsprachlichen angesiedelt wird und einen zentralen Bestandteil des schulischen Bildungsauftrags und der allgemeinen schulischen Qualifikationsvermittlung darstellt. Unsere englischsprachigen Kollegen, Constant Leung und Bernard Mohan, sprechen von *mainstreamed second language education*, einer allgemeinen Entwicklung der Bildungssprache durch Regelbeschulung, auch aber nicht nur für Kinder mit Migrationshintergrund. Die Entwicklung der Bildungssprache wird damit eine bewusste Kernaufgabe der Schule. Durch die mit der Alphabetisierung entwickelten Leseverstehensstrategien wird die Grundlage für den Zugang zur Bildungssprache gelegt (vgl. Carlo, 2007). Fachlernen und Sprachlernen werden, wie Bernard Mohan es demonstriert hat, zusammengeführt. Sprache wird nicht allein als Sprachstruktur, *langue* im Sinne de Saussures, verstanden, sondern im Wesentlichen als Sprachvollzug, *parole*, und sie steht im Zusammenhang mit einer wissensbezogenen kommunikativen Sozialpraxis. Sprachlernen nimmt ausdrücklich Bezug auf einen Wissensrahmen (*knowledge framework*). Sprache wird so zum Medium der Bildung, indem Kinder durch Sprache auch die Welt und das Miteinander mit Andern erfahren (Mohan, 2001). Die behutsame, als *scaffolding* (Gibbons, 2002) verstandene Stützung der Entwicklung der Bildungssprache wird dabei über die Grenzen des Einzelsprachunterrichts, aber auch der Sachfächer hinaus, zur zentralen didaktischen Figur. Es geht dabei keineswegs um eine lineare Didaktisierung des Bildungsspracherwerbs im Sinne einer Zweck-Mittel-Relation, sondern darum, dass Schule als institutionalisierter Ort wirkt, an dem Erwachsene und Kinder sich in sinnvollen gemeinsamen Tätigkeiten des Wissenserwerbs treffen und dass in den *acts of meaning* (Halliday, 2009) dieser Sozialpraxis auch Sprachsozialisation geschieht. Der Fokus liegt also nicht auf sozialtechnologischer Effizienz, sondern auf einer identitätsbildenden Sinnstiftung, die zwar Voraussetzung sozialer Integration, aber keineswegs Vorbestimmung gesellschaftlicher Zukunft ist.

Das Bewusstmachen von wissens- und bildungsbezogenen Diskursstrukturen anhand von *Graphic Organizers* ist ein Beispiel für das explizite Unterrichten bildungssprachlicher Kompetenzen. Xiangying Jiang und William Grabe (2007) zeigen zum Beispiel, dass nicht die Verwendung von *Graphic Organizers* an sich den Lernerfolg sichert, sondern dass der Bezug auf

Genre und Register die Auswahl der *Graphic Organizers*, die in einer bestimmten Situation didaktisch und sozialisatorisch sinnvoll sind, steuern kann. Ähnlich könnte man sagen, dass der hier angedeutete Weg der didaktischen Reflexion es auch erlauben würde, die Leseverfahren aus der überzeugenden Zusammenstellung von Erika Altenburg (2010) auszuwählen, die in einer spezifischen Bildungssituation signifikantes Lernen unterstützen.

Der Anspruch, dass die Schule einen gerechten und demokratischen Zugang zur Bildungssprache gewähren sollte, ruft natürlich Erinnerungen an die Sprachbarrierendiskussion wach, an Basil Bernsteins (1971) Gegenüberstellung von restringiertem und elaboriertem Kode sowie Ulrich Oevermanns These der Abhängigkeit des sprachlichen Ausdrucks von der Schichtzugehörigkeit (1972). In diesem Zusammenhang ist es wichtig, auf eine wesentliche Differenz aufmerksam zu machen. Bei der hier eingenommenen Perspektive geht es weniger um die Beschreibung von Sprachvarianten als gesellschaftlichen Distinktionskategorien als darum zu begreifen, dass Sprache ein Medium des Lernens und gleichzeitig Lernen ein Medium des Spracherwerbs sein kann, das Kindern unterschiedlicher Herkunft und mit unterschiedlichen Voraussetzungen im Respekt ihrer Autonomie und jeweiligen Diversität zugänglich gemacht werden kann. So wird ein bei Basil Bernstein und Ulrich Oevermann schon angelegter didaktischer Aspekt verstärkt.

Für Lehrer handelt es sich zweifelsohne um eine große Herausforderung. Spontan sind es folgende Elemente eines neuen Qualifikationsprofils, die ich mir vorstellen kann: Lehrer brauchen eine reflektierte Plurilingualität, sie brauchen außerdem Fähigkeiten zum strukturellen Sprachvergleich, auch wenn sie diese nicht direkt an ihre Schüler vermitteln. Sie brauchen schließlich ein neues Wissen über Sprache und Sprachentwicklung, wie es zum Beispiel in der Linguistik M.A.K. Hallidays (Halliday, 2009) vermittelt wird, und sie brauchen neue Methoden, wie sie unter anderem von Bernard Mohan oder von Pauline Gibbons entwickelt wurden. Das EUCIM-TE-Projekt liegt sozusagen am Schnittpunkt unterschiedlicher Konzepte der Lehrerbildung (vgl. z.B. Zeichner, 2006), indem das europäische Kerncurriculum zuerst einem Professionalisierungsansatz entspricht, da es durch den Bezug auf die Hallidaysche Sprachtheorie auch die fachliche Unterfütterung stärkt und sich schließlich der Verwirklichung sozialer Gerechtigkeit verpflichtet weiß. Im November dieses Jahres wird am King's College in London das Europäische Kerncurriculum, ein neues pädagogisches Leitbild, das auf die Sprachentwicklung in multilingualen Räumen abzielt, vorgestellt.

Erlauben Sie mir bitte abschließend eine knappe Bemerkung zum Thema unserer Tagung: Mehrsprachigkeit – verstanden als diverse Plurilingualität (nicht jeder ist auf die gleiche Art und Weise mehrsprachig) – wird in vielen Hinsichten, gesellschaftlichen, politischen, sprachpädagogischen und lesedidaktischen, eine Hürde bleiben, solange als wir uns nicht radikal der Herausforderung einer grundlegenden Erneuerung der Sprachbildung in Europa stellen. Tun wir aber diesen Schritt, stellt Mehrsprachigkeit allemal eine Chance dar.





## VIII. CHALLENGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION: FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY

Charles Berg

*Editors' note: The text is based on a keynote speech given at the closing conference of the EUCIM Project at King's College in London on 13<sup>th</sup> November 2010.*

The following text is dedicated to European teacher education under the specific angle of linguistic diversity. At the very core of our project we addressed questions about knowledge, skills, qualifications and values teachers had to acquire to be able to cope with linguistic diversity. At this moment I want to take a different look. I intend to step back and to try to contextualise our work in a larger framework.

True, I feel excited about the international co-operation we have experienced in the project and also about the outcomes. But I will not only praise the project and its achievements; indeed I cannot refrain from speaking also about my doubts. So my text will not only not follow a rhetoric of marketing, but moreover I will explicitly decline too optimistic expectations. Nevertheless I invite you to a critical consideration of the model presented. Our aim is that you will take it into account by developing national curricula and your own personal practice as teachers and teacher educators.

My presentation comprises three parts: Firstly, I set the scene by making a few general remarks on education in the light of Pinocchio's adventures. In a second step, I will point to specific aspects of the project and finally, I will try to state explicitly what could be considered as being the central challenges for European teacher education.

### A. FROM PINOCCHIO TO THE PROJECT

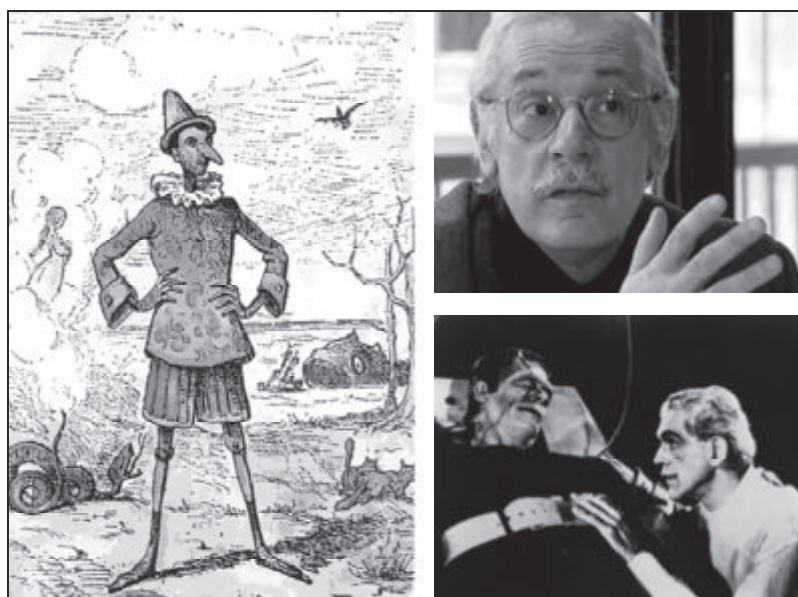
My first part will refer to a chapter of Philippe Meirieu's book "Teaching: Scenario for a New Profession". It is typical for Meirieu to use figures from literature in order to make his theoretical thinking understandable. One of his books is dedicated to Dr Frankenstein. As I thought it somewhat cruel to refer to Mary Shelley's novel, I opted for Pinocchio.

*Le Avventure di Pinocchio* was written by the Italian journalist Carlo Lorenzini who published under the pseudonym Carlo Collodi. The first half of the novel was initially published as a serial between 1881 and 1883. Later on it was completed as a book for children. The beginning reads as follows:

Centuries ago, there lived... 'A king!', my little readers would say immediately. No children, you are mistaken. Once upon a time there was a piece of wood. It was not an expensive piece of wood. Far from it. Just a common log of firewood, one of those thick, solid logs that are put on the fire in the winter to make cold rooms cozy and warm. (Chapter 1)

'Once upon a time' seems to announce the narrative genre of the fairytale, but then the kind of fictitious dialogue with the reader indicates a change of direction in the course of the narration. The genre conventions are modified, the story is not about a king or a prince but about an ordinary log of wood. Consequently the genre shifts, the story transmogrifies into a text type. It becomes a reflective parable about the work on others, applied in our case to the work with the linguistically different.

FIG. 21: PHILIPPE MEIRIEU AND HIS REFERENCE FIGURES PINOCCHIO AND FRANKENSTEIN



The first analogy consists in how the log enters into the world of those who will work on and with it. In an open democratic society – even more so under the conditions of super-diversity (Vertovec, 2006) – children come by surprise. Teachers and educators have no influence on their qualities and nature. In the very beginning they even do not know where their students come from. Antonio, who is called Master Cherry because of his red nose, first finds the log. And he utters a purely instrumental desire: "This has come in the nick of time. I shall use it to make the leg of a table." (Chapter 1) This is not at all surprising in the case of teachers. They want to make something useful out of the children they find in their class. But students have their lives, they react and they have a voice to do so.

The difference between Antonio or Master Cherry and Geppetto or Polendina is very significant. Geppetto is poorer than Antonio, but whereas Antonio is a carpenter, Geppetto is a woodcarver, kind of an artist. He is called Polendina because his hair has the colour of polenta. Antonio has an instrumental dream, manufacturing a wooden table leg whereas Geppetto has a more social dream. Antonio is frightened and he gets rid of the strange log as soon as possible. The choleric Geppetto, by nature not at all inclined to excesses of tenderness, becomes emotionally involved; he grumbles and cries but nevertheless sticks to his work, as a good teacher would do in a difficult situation.



GEPETTO 1 BY MARGI GEERLINKS, 1999  
STUX GALLERY, NEW YORK



GEPETTO 2 BY MARGI GEERLINKS, 1999  
STUX GALLERY, NEW YORK

FIG. 22: GEPETTO 1 & 2 BY MARGI GEERLINKS

Despite his commitment and despite all his efforts Geppetto is not entirely successful. The marionette runs away and causes a public scandal, sanctioned by the following reactions:

"Poor Marionette," called out a man. "I am not surprised he doesn't want to go home. Geppetto, no doubt, will beat him unmercifully, he is so mean and cruel!" - "Geppetto looks like a good man," added another, "but with boys he's a real tyrant. If we leave that poor Marionette in his hands he may tear him to pieces!" (Chapter 3)

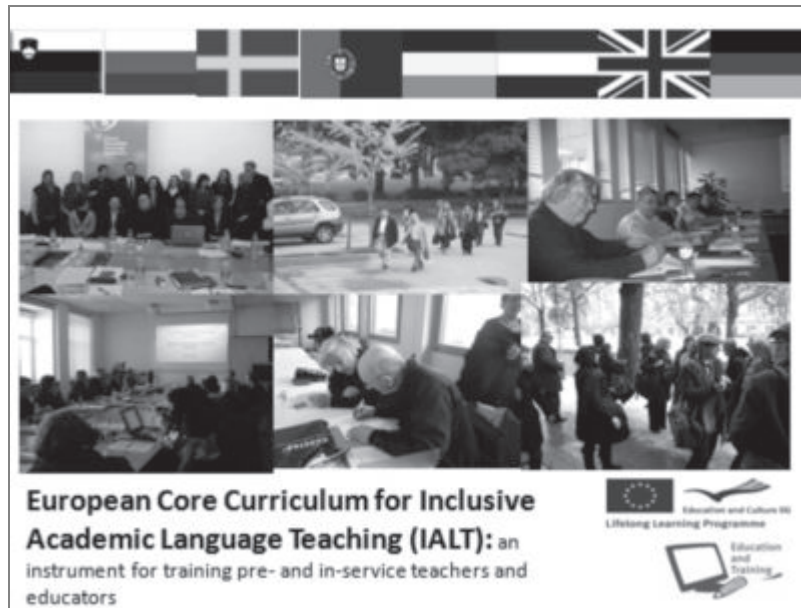
Teaching, and especially failure of teaching, can obviously become very easily a matter of public discourse. The popular opinion does not refrain from blaming teachers and those responsible for public education in an exaggerated and unfair way. And in the end teachers have also personal voices which may be perceived by their students: "It is I', answered a voice. It was the voice of Geppetto." (Chapter 6)

Teachers and students establish a dyadic relationship in which both find a voice which is heard by the other. This obviously is a prerequisite for students' growth.

At the end the marionette becomes a beautiful boy. Unfortunately this is not the result of pedagogical effort. On the contrary it is the work of a blue-haired fairy. So here the analogy does not work anymore. Fairies do not exist in the world of real education. In the earlier version of the novel without a fairy poor Pinocchio was hanged as a criminal.

But, not unlike the work of a fairy, there appears a surprising convergence between narrative fiction, educational theory and educational linguistics. This convergence leads straight into the core where the challenge lies in European teacher education. On the one hand we have departure, rupture and failure similar to Pinocchio's dangerous and twisty way of becoming autonomous. On the other hand the educationalist Philippe Meirieu speaks about making the other emerge in the very act of teaching. Finally we know nowadays that there are no deficient languages as such. In terms of identity function a low prestige language such as my mother tongue *Lëtzebuergesch* weighs as much as Southern British English. East London Cockney may in some contexts be as relevant as Parisian French from the *Académie Française*, and the slang of the *Banlieue* can be one of the media by which I live as much as Oxfordese is for others.

FIG. 23: THE CONSORTIUM MEMBERS AT WORK



What actually happens is that through a person's biographical trajectory with its specific ruptures and encounters, turning points, successes and failures, a self-constructed, multilingual identity develops (Kramsch, 2009). The task of school education will be to provide activities and interactions ensuring that knowledge and school-relevant language skills as elements of common underlying proficiency will be included in the growing linguistic patchwork of multilingual identities. This is the sense behind inclusive academic language teaching, and this goes obviously beyond the mere transmission of academic language.

## B. ABOUT THE PROJECT

We have been working on an EU-funded project for a period of two years. There were eight countries involved from all over Europe. Communication was intensive. It comprised different types such as face-to-face consortium meetings, national team meetings and teacher education partnerships. A total of two hundred people or even more were involved. The learning platform ILLIAS from the University of Cologne, internet sites in different countries and more than a thousand email exchanges enabled and document a high intensity of communication.

The consortium coordinator managed to gather a unique set of competences and expertise which constitutes the communicative and cognitive basis for the proposal we publicly present today. I am going to point out a few aspects of the project. These are the following: Needs analysis, main content elements for teacher/educator education and basic openness of the European Core Curriculum. With regard to the needs analysis, I will not repeat what can be found in the project documents but I will give my appreciation concerning the challenges for teacher education. I will not give details about the contents of the European Core Curriculum. These can indeed be found in the published document. The basic openness of the project will be the essential aspect I am dealing with.

The needs analysis indicates a basic challenge for European teacher education systems consisting of three elements: a first point concerns the demographic evolution, the second point deals with the scientific evolution in disciplines like linguistics and educational linguistics and the last point speaks about the inappropriateness of language education work in today's schools. We are confronted with a growing linguistic diversity in European multilingual and multicultural populations. After what I like to call the post-Chomskyian revolution we have at our disposal amazing insights provided by linguistics and educational linguistics. But we do not manage to avoid school-failure for students with a migrant background. One of the reasons is that schools all over Europe are factually multilingual schools with a monolingual habitus. They do not use available knowledge on language acquisition and multilingualism. Their teachers lack skills and competences to properly deal with linguistic diversity.

The European Core Curriculum is basically meant as an answer to the described situation. The entry we chose is teacher training. We tried to identify main content elements for teacher education which might possibly transform positively the situation of teaching in contexts of high cultural and linguistic diversity.

A first element concerns the modified status of language development and a modified approach to school language as a second language. Indeed language cannot be considered as a subject matter alone but has to be seen as a transversal teaching aim in or even beyond the curriculum. Language learning is no longer compartmentalised in English, French or German. The individual language repertoire is constituted not through addition but through integration. Therefore the objective of language learning changes entirely, the essential goal becoming the acquisition of common underlying competences. Second language acquisition happens not as segregated foreign language instruction, but in the course of mainstream education.

A second element consists of the body of practically relevant knowledge concerning language and language development. Teachers have to understand language as a socially constituted set of acts of meaning which ground a language-based pedagogy. The scope of language teaching and language education lies beyond direct language instruction. It is intimately linked with knowledge acquisition and cognitive growth.

Innovative methods of classroom intervention are the third element of the teacher education curriculum. They comprise content and language-integrated learning, the basic mechanism consisting in double scaffolding: scaffolding of knowledge acquisition on the one hand and scaffolding of language development on the other hand (Gibbons, 2002). Thus the European Core Curriculum generally provides innovative criteria for understanding and shaping learning tasks, educational problems and educational situations.

The last element refers to the school level. Schools can be a language-development promoting or harming environment. Therefore teachers must be able to link language education and school development in a whole-school language policy.

As an implicit element the European Core Curriculum refers to a vision of a teacher as a professional. He is obviously still a classroom actor, able to teach and to intervene to make his students learn. However he also has a theoretical awareness and sensitivity about language and learning in multilingual contexts, which is definitely rooted in the progress of linguistics, as e.g.

Halliday's theory of language and language acquisition (Halliday, 2009). Moreover, he is able to take an active part in a collective action, being one of the individuals which make the school as an institution go further in the field of language education.

The European Core Curriculum however is not a curriculum *stricto sensu*. The research team has never been a mandated body asked to deliver a curriculum to whatever educational authority. On the contrary, the European Core Curriculum is a playful and tentative reflection on possible norms rather than a fixed corpus of prescriptions. It owes its existence more to educational imagination than to being enforced by power and authority.

Neither is the European Core Curriculum a magic device ready for use. We do not pretend to have found 'what works' (as they would say in the US) and we have certainly not invented a tool that brings salvation for everyone. The European Core Curriculum is more about how teaching work realistically is or could be. It represents an expertise and experience based contribution to a public debate on how new contours can be given to language education as an institutional practice of socialization. It is more an element in a dialogue, an invitation to conversation than a corpus of laws.

Finally, teachers have been considered in all our debates as independent professionals, as reflective practitioners who manage and develop their knowledge in action. Generally we acknowledge the autonomy of their personal action and we are aware of their self-constructed dynamic professional identities. Teachers are not puppets on a curricular string – they can transfer elements from the European Core Curriculum into their personal everyday classroom practice. Transformations will happen in the gaps; we have not sewn a perfect curtain but we look for chinks in order to make change happen. Moreover, we are well aware of cultural and institutional differences between European countries. The work on the project indeed has actually increased this awareness. Therefore an important element of the conversational process is a translation into a national context. National adaptations have a threefold function: they are validations of the initial proposal; they are contextualizations, and they will hopefully generate part of the sustainability we want to initiate. Lastly I have to mention our concept of educational practice. Indeed we do not understand it as being derived from theoretical assumptions. Educational theory does not consist of technological axioms ensuring success; they are narrative, metaphorical elements which can inspire practitioners in their actions.

Thus, for all these reasons, the European Core Curriculum is less a monolithic design for the future than a modest invitation to play – an invitation to explore possible alternatives and to experience new contours of language education in curriculum development and everyday practice. It is a conversational proposal for professionals by professionals.

### C. CONCLUDING REMARK

I was influenced and inspired by my enthusiastic reading of Tamara Bibby's "Education – An 'Impossible Profession'?". The core challenges for teacher education consist in qualifying teachers to bring together learning, growing up and language development, to be aware of the dilemma structure of teaching as a relational practice as well as to refrain from "the terribly aggressive desire to do good, to cure, to rescue", which "simultaneously strips the deserving, the ill, the uneducated of their humanity and the professional of the illusion of selfless care" (Bibby, 2011, p. 144). Because in educational settings dealing with diversity and super-diversity (Vertovec, 2006) finally, one has to accept 'good-enoughness', in the sense of Melanie Klein and Donald Winnicott,. Compared to these more general assumptions beyond teaching techniques, the language related aspects of the European Core Curriculum will make practical sense. Accepting a student's language means accepting his inner life. That is a condition of providing a subjective and sensible access to academic language and to powerful knowledge he will own and by which he will and can live. This goes, as I have already said, beyond only transmitting academic language.

It actually means taking into account the double complexity of current teaching practice and of contemporary societies. Teaching practice is underpinned by polymorphous reasoning in action (Tardif & Lessard, 1999, p. 409), not derived from a coherent theory or a unique rationality, whereas society is an "experiment [...] and a labyrinthine construction we must enter and exit in many ways and by many ways since 'the way - does not exist'" (Rajchman, 1998, p. 5).

All these represent a definite challenge to higher education institutions. By no way it is an easy game for them/for us. Academia has a strong reluctance to change, as illustrated in the following quotation: "Academics will agree or reluctantly admit that change in higher education, particularly when issues of curricula and pedagogy are in question, is a hard-fought battle, rarely won by innovators." (Friedman & Deek, 2003) Nevertheless universities have at least three essential assets at their disposal. The question is whether we are able to use them. Universities firstly can trust in international exchange and networking. This will provide the relativizing factor, making the familiar strange<sup>20</sup> and opening paths towards new possible solutions. The second asset is the dialogue between disciplines, sub-disciplines and professions. In our case applied linguistics, socio-linguistics, intercultural education and general education. We had in our team both specialists and go-betweens; the challenge for university is to put into context complementary competences for producing professionally relevant knowledge and skills. Finally,

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<sup>20</sup> The dictum "making the familiar strange" has become a topos of postmodernist and constructivist rhetorics. Nevertheless it seems important to keep in mind the semantic lineage behind the slogan. Normally it is said that making the familiar strange echoes the concept of остранение (estrangement, defamiliarization) from the Russian formalist Viktor Shklovsky's literary theory (Shklovsky, 2004, p. XVI; Crawford, 1984). Shklovsky's defamiliarization model characterizing art as device becomes famous because of Roman Jakobson regularly referring to Shklovsky in his Harvard lectures (e.g. Jakobson, 1987, p. 360 "estranged"; Winner, 1987, p. 261). From here the concept makes a great career it is e.g. used in Tzvetan Todorov's poetics of prose (Todorov, 1971: "rendre le familier insolite"), in Jerome Bruner's theory of narrative knowledge (Bruner, 1986, 1990, 1991, 1996) and in Umberto Eco's theory of translation (Eco, 2007). A parallel semantic line consists in Bertolt Brecht's theory of *Verfremdung* (Knopf, 1986, pp. 378-402). Though so there is no obvious link between Brecht and the Russian formalists, there could be a common root in Hegel's philosophy. Hegel said: "Das Bekannte überhaupt ist darum, weil es bekannt ist, nicht erkannt." (Hegel, 1952, S. 58). So even indirectly quoting this tradition obviously means to stress alterity, awareness of distance, self-construction more than identity, *Einfühlung* and empathy, mimesis.

universities may be able to bridge gaps between practice, research and theory by promoting both theory-driven and practice-driven research. Therefore universities probably have to function as 'multiversities' (Kerr, 2001; Brint, 2002) where practical arts like education are given a fairer chance.

The context for these stakes is obviously more general than higher education. For all of us are now aware that we live in uncertain times (see Castel, 2009). They are uncertain in a number of ways. The professional and institutional situation concerning our future as teachers and as researchers is far from clear. Furthermore the kind of issue we are dealing with, i.e. ethnic and linguistic diversity has changed and a lot of what we believed in the last fifty years or so might not be the case anymore. Delivering an open European Core Curriculum as an experimental, internationally shared ground will hopefully be a contribution to cope with rising uncertainties by giving hybridity and hypermodernity a chance.



## IX. THE NATIONAL ADAPTATION IN LUXEMBOURG

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*Editors' note: The IALT Core Curriculum has been developed at a European level and is not applicable as such in the partner countries. The present paper has been written as a sort of "action plan" defining how the national adaptation could take place in Luxembourg. The text obviously has no decision making status; it is nothing less and nothing more than a tentative draft of a possible strategy, understood as a contribution to a public debate by a group of experts.*

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### A. INTRODUCTION

The present document gives an overview of the national adaptation process in Luxembourg. An essential question regarding the sustainability of the EUCIM-TE Project actually consists in asking how can the European Core Curriculum be adapted and implemented at a national level.

Obviously the Core Curriculum developed at a European level is not applicable as such. It must be adapted to the national situation characterised by the coexistence of curricula covering different fields. Moreover neither the EUCIM-TE Consortium nor the national EUCIM team has a whatsoever authority on teacher/educator education curricula. Therefore the implementation of the Core Curriculum as a political action is definitely beyond the project's jurisdiction. Nevertheless it could be an important contribution to a public as well as scientific debate if we were able to demonstrate how elements of the European Core Curriculum could be adapted to the Luxembourg context and be transposed into the existing curricular structures. We conceive our task as a modest one. We are not prophets who could envisage the future, nor do we intend to design an educator training device which would work as a panacea for all the problems of multilingual and multicultural education in diverse societies. What we are concerned about is to become involved in dialogues and exchanges both with practitioners and decision makers who

are currently in charge in order to understand elements of the current historical dynamics of educational culture in our country.

The current text comprises three parts. Firstly, we will describe the strategy we adopted for the national adaptation process. Secondly, we are going to present the suggested ideas for the implementation of Core Curriculum elements in Luxembourg. Finally, we will consider more concretely how these ideas could be put into action in different contexts.

## B. STRATEGY FOR THE NATIONAL ADAPTATION

We were considering the complex situation and we became entirely aware that we could not substitute to political actors. Moreover we were interested in going in depth with regard to the problem of the current dynamics of change and inertia of the educational system. Consequently we developed an appropriate method to gain a grounded knowledge relying simultaneously on exchanges with field actors and on our reflection as professionals on the problem of language education in a social context of cultural diversity.

The process was structured into different stages, where collection of data and analysis were not separated into sequential steps, but where they were linked in an iterative spiral. We decided to start with non-directive interviews with people at decision level from six different domains.

### 1. INTERVIEW DOMAINS

In conformity with the analysis made for both the TEP constitution and the National Needs Analysis Report, we identified six domains and we tried to contact an interview partner representing the top hierarchical level of the domain concerned; this could be the study director, the leading civil servant or the managing officer in charge of the domain. We managed to find interview partners who suited our definition and who were prepared to talk to us. We contacted them on the phone to inform them briefly about our expectations and to fix a date. Afterwards we mailed a formal invitation letter with a brief description of the European project. The six domains were the following: the pre-service primary school teacher training (university level: Bachelor in Educational Sciences), the pre-service training in social pedagogy (university level: Bachelor in Social and Educational Sciences), the pre-service training for social workers (secondary school level), the pre-service training for secondary school teachers (hybrid training scheme between university and schools), the in-service training and the Ministry of Education.

### 2. DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Our aim was to get answers to the following questions: What form could the national adaptation document take in their eyes? How can elements of the Core Curriculum be introduced into the existing curricula or documents? What role could our interviewees play in the national adaptation process? Three aspects were important for us: 1) to identify together with our highly competent interviewees statutory texts and norms to which an eventual transformation had to be applied 2) to assess the practical opportunity they saw for an in-depth-change ensuring a sustainable adaptation of the European Core Curriculum. 3) to hear their views on problems, difficulties and resistances the adaptation process could encounter. We drafted a very succinct interview guide, our main concern being the valorisation of our interviewees. It was crucial to let them speak freely in order to get from them as much information as possible.

Before discussing the aforementioned questions we explained that we were interested in their views on possible transformations in their field. We underlined their competence and knowledge and our expectations to gain good quality data through talking to excellent participants. Then we briefly presented the project and the European Core Curriculum. After the introductory part the conversation went on in a free, rather informal and spontaneous way. Three members of the research team took part. The encounters took place in a small meeting room at the University or in a very few cases at the office of our interviewee.

Not knowing exactly what to expect and thinking we would encounter more resistance and scepticism it was surprising to see how eagerly the interviewees accepted our invitation to participate in an interview and how freely and openly they were prepared to speak about possibilities for the national adaptation process.

In the following we will try to give a short summary of the procedures we applied for analysing the data as well as the different issues discussed and the possible entries identified by our interviewees. In this respect it is very important to point out that the described outcomes are based on the statements made by our interviewees and reflect their views and opinions.

### 3. ANALYSIS

All interviews have been recorded and we worked on the audio files after the interviews. Concerning the proper analysis, a report of each interview summarising the main ideas/issues discussed has been written, read and discussed during a team meeting; furthermore we listened again to the most interesting passages in order to be absolutely sure about what had been said by the interviewees.

### 4. VALIDATION

In a further stage for enhancing the rigour and quality of our inquiry, we presented the results from the interviews to the TEP members. We understood that move as a kind of communicative validation. This should involve crosschecking of merging findings, the core idea being to aim at obtaining feedback in order to refine our understanding of practical situations and social realities. We indeed wanted to check if our interviewees' proposals were understandable for practitioners and if they considered them as being feasible and sensible in the context of their individual work. Moreover since the TEP members were acquainted with the entire project from the beginning on, they were in a position to judge the progress we had made. We also encouraged TEP members to add further elements to the proposed changes. We used the gathered information to enrich the picture we had already obtained.

## C. OUTCOMES OF THE INTERVIEWS

Generally a complex picture of the educational field and its decision making bodies emerged from our analysis. None of our interview partners held an entirely negative view, for instance by reacting defensively with resilience towards change, but all of them emphasised that they were realistic enough also to see negative aspects.

## 1. DIFFICULTIES

Concrete problems which could hinder or simply fail the national adaptation process were recurrently mentioned. Our interviewees spoke about the compartmental structure of the educational sector and especially of the sector of training in education and language teaching. Every subsector seems to create and function according to its own rules and hardly any cooperation/consultation takes place between the different training sectors. Consequently our respondents regretted the obvious lack of coordination as well as of coordinating bodies and exchange platforms. At the TEP meeting it has been pointed out that these coordinating bodies do exist but they lack of recognition and authority and are therefore not accepted as such.

In the mind of our interview partners, a sustained and structured communication under whatever form seems a bare essential for an in-depth-change of the practice of teaching and learning. So it is recurrently mentioned as a desideratum in our interviews. It should at least bear a visible impact and an acknowledged relevance in the public conversation shaping the normative profile of professionals and their competences. The University as main provider of teacher and educator training on the one hand and the Ministry of Education as main employer in the educational sector on the other are considered as possible partners of such a structural dialogue. Nevertheless, despite a rather explicit image of a possible remedy, we could not trace such processes going successfully on, not even in a low dosage. On the contrary, with regard to the current educational and professional culture, resilience to consultation and synergies, tendencies to a further fragmentation as well as a claim defending rejection of offers coming from outside were repeatedly mentioned.

Moreover, the general image of the University of Luxembourg drawn by our interview partners was ambivalent. For most of them the University of Luxembourg being the most important provider of teacher and educator training could play an important part on its own. University people could develop in the shaping of their courses a coherent “teacher/educator in a multilingual society” profile to be applied to different training programmes. On the one side hopes and expectations were connected with the tremendous opportunity for change engendered by the creation of the University. On the other side, the University did not manage to gain an appropriate credibility. Our interview partners, both from outside and inside University, partly expressed disappointment. Indeed none of them was definitely positive about the University playing a major transformative role as a recognised unifier. The University on the contrary was even seen as being at risk of failure because of internal tensions and a lack of internal communication.

## 2. CIRCUMSTANCES THAT COULD FURTHER THE SUCCESS OF THE NATIONAL ADAPTATION PROCESS

Besides the problems, a certain number of positive aspects and circumstances that could further the success of the national adaptation process have been identified. The current era is marked by a strong political will to change, open to new ideas and aware of the importance of an inclusive holistic language education. This obviously represents a major chance for a transformative pedagogy. However, to produce change in the educational field, a strong political will is not sufficient. Indeed, a rethinking of language education on a broader level, and notably within the institutions in charge of its implementation, is needed in order to guarantee the

success of the IALT curriculum in Luxembourg. It is hence very important that the desired changes by policy makers are supported by practitioners in the educational field; a strong top-down communication is therefore indispensable. A crucial question is whether an innovative model of language teaching will reach and convince teachers and educators and let emerge a new educational practice. A second circumstance that might constitute an advantage is the fact that major changes are foreseen in the educational landscape and notably in the different types of training in the coming years. For instance the current implementation of the 2009 school reform as well as the re-organisation of academic educational studies for the concerned staff are favourable moments for fixing new corner-marks of a multilingual education in Luxembourg. Generally the position of our interview partners was split: on the one hand all this gives a transformative action such as the one proposed through the European Core Curriculum a fair chance, but on the other it generates uncertainties making predictions difficult.

### 3. POSSIBLE ENTRIES

After having specified the more general aspects in relation to the implementation of IALT elements in Luxembourg, our interviewees pointed out the possible entries in their respective fields.

Regarding **pre-service primary school teacher** training the ongoing restructuration could provide a fair opportunity to integrate IALT elements. There is no opposition with official documents stating the general aims of primary school teacher education. Among others the following elements which seem directly related to the EUCIM-TE rationale are stated with regard both to the students themselves and to their future pupils: taking learner diversity (cultural, social, lingual, religious, etc.) into account, promoting the development of multilingual identities.

However, for the moment it remains difficult to tell where exactly and how these elements could be introduced. We could not identify explicit hints pointing in the direction of language of schooling in the sense of either Mary J. Schleppegrell (2004) or the Council of Europe (Vollmer, 2006; Fleming, 2009), no mentioning of systemic functional linguistics, framework of knowledge, genre pedagogy, language registers, content and language integrated learning etc. So the general impression is that agreeing on general aims and adapting concrete specified contents to a training course remains quite a different matter.

The documents our interview partner referred to deal with the focus and the structures of the BScE; we could not identify a rigorously curricular fixing of contents and it was not possible to talk about the amendment of texts. Furthermore, decisional procedures and responsibilities are far from being explicit and transparent. It is uncertain who is in charge of the curriculum and how curricular decisions would be enacted. Consequently, course contents largely depend on personal choices. Though experts on multilingual education have been hired, there is neither a definite institutional line unifying their efforts nor a coherent policy of quality assurance. Finally the University of Luxembourg is far from demonstrating an exemplary solution to the problem of linguistic and communicative competences in a context of high diversity. Regarding the students there is no clearly outlined language policy. English is furthered as the international medium of scientific communication. As German and French are no longer separated into different subject areas, the tacit and unintended effect is an avoiding of French, which is not automatically mastered as an academic language by the teacher students, but which nevertheless constitutes

an important component of academic and professional communication in the Luxembourg context.

The situation is not entirely gloomy. Theoretically at least there is a strong advocacy in favour of oral communication. This could make the passage to academic language more difficult, but it disrupts at least the tradition of an excessive, quasi fetishised emphasis on written language correctness, opening a prospect on social and authentic language use. An opportunity for mainstream second language learning is also given by the fact that different languages are no longer separated into different subject matters, but that there is a common domain for language development and language learning. One of the major tasks of the training course would be to further the students' awareness for the problem of language development in the sense of Jim Cummins' common underlying proficiency. For example language development, developing writing and literacy as social practices are currently considered beyond particular language, the training structures are ahead of school realities.

With the help of our interview partner the thorough consideration and reflection on a complex situation conducts us to adopt a low profile entry. There is a chance for promoting IALT ideas through establishing a regular exchange of information, e.g. a first step would be to present the project to others involved in teacher training.

Regarding the university **pre-service training in social pedagogy** the situation is different from teacher education and far more structured.

The training in social pedagogy has a special status because not all its students will be working with children in educational or care institutions. Therefore it does not make sense to integrate IALT elements into the common-core syllabus. However, the modular structure of the training offers the possibility to integrate an IALT module on an optional basis which could be chosen by the students who want to work with children. Such a module could be launched in the next academic year (2011/12). In the eyes of our interview partner the logical continuation of the EUCIM-TE project would be to propose an IALT sub-module which could possibly be integrated in the current optional module covering early childhood. The research team has been encouraged to contact the persons in charge of this early care domain. Unfortunately we have not been successful in arranging an exchange with the relevant persons.

An academic course could be imagined aiming at future teachers and educators working in a more or less educational context. The course would be organised as a transversal module. In terms of content it would cover central aspects of the core curriculum as a complement or in combination with existing language specific modules. The module could comprise three components.

A first component covers language development and learning. Different contexts have to be taken into account, such as bilingual (FL[first language] + L) /trilingual (FL+L+D/F) situations (latter only for teachers). Theoretical content elements under the first heading could relate to language models, the opposition of spoken and written language, as well as notions of "language genres" and "language registers". Also language didactics or educational linguistics should be included. This subfield covers language acquisition in first, second language as well as in multilingual settings. Theoretical content elements could also be academic language and content

learning including the IALT approach. Moreover future educators should learn how to support language development, and how to develop team interventions in case of language problems and deficiencies. They should become qualified to work with ethnic minority children and their parents and be systematically trained in language management in multilingual settings.

A second component covers language description and evaluation in a more diagnostic and clinical approach. Possible elements are the identification of formal language qualities and characteristics, of developmental levels of the three national languages including a reference to specificities of language learning in Luxembourg and the handling of CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, Council of Europe 2007) in the Luxembourg context. Finally assessment in terms of competences and evaluating language progress in informal and formal settings should be one of the professional skills acquired through teacher education.

The third component covers problem centred training in practice (to be realised during internships). Under this heading, figure elements such as the: construction of specific curriculums/programmes for particular (integrative) groups of children with specific background constellations such as migration, social risk, mental handicap. In these contexts it will be especially important to emphasise team intervention as well as combining language development and content learning in thematic “project work” referring notably to the CLIL approach developed at the University of Luxembourg (Hansen et al., 2009). (social embedded learning & content learning); language and homework support in school complementary care structures (*maisons relais*); elaboration/training of different modalities of parental involvement and language support at home.

Regarding **the vocational pre-service training for social workers** the change management is easier to handle because there are ongoing official processes concerned with national curriculum development. The moment is favourable because different commissions are working at curricular elements for the upper grades of secondary education which are planned to be available in 2013-2014. This is the ideal framework to place IALT elements into the context of an official framework. Our interview partner is ready to become active as a gate opener if we want to contact relevant persons involved in the decision making process. Furthermore there is a work group elaborating a competence profile for social workers. Again it would be advisable to integrate IALT element into this text. Subject matter bound curricular commissions could be an entry, but it is very difficult to institute change via this channel. A final opportunity is given through the new policy granting school autonomy. IALT elements as part of a whole school language policy could always be integrated into a school project and become a prioritised matter of a school’s institutional development.

The problem of academic language exists on two levels. It is a subject matter problem and a problem of professional competences to be acquired during the training period. Furthermore it is also a problem of the school itself with regard to their trainees. Students enrolled for the vocational course have themselves difficulties to master the academic language. Therefore a pilot project aiming at the mastery of academic language in relationship with knowledge to be acquired would be sensible in the eyes of our interview partner.

At this level, the general language development and evaluation policy of the Ministry of Education could take into account the specific language “entry conditions” of the students and

insist on their preparation for the “academic registers” required in the early care structures. Their education could cover also three components: Language development and learning in a bilingual context (FL + L / L+D/L+F) with elements such as language learning in everyday life: functional model at home, in playgroup, on playgrounds, in children’s living environments, spoken language with simplified “genres” and “registers”: naming, reporting, explaining elementary situations and events; language learning through play or project activities & content learning (in natural environments); supporting language development, team intervention in case of language problems and deficiencies, work with ethnic minorities and parents (language management in multilingual settings. A second component covers language description and evaluation with elements such as identification of language qualities and characteristics—assessment in terms of competences, with reference to CEFRL (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), evaluating language progress in informal and formal settings or contexts. A third component covers problem centred training in practice (to be realised during internship) with elements such as: elaboration and combination of language development and learning in thematic “project work” (social embedded learning + content learning); introduction to teamwork, language and homework support in school complementary care structures (*maisons relais*), elaboration/training of different modalities of parental involvement and language support at home.

The modular structure of the **pre-service training for secondary school teachers** allows a certain flexibility concerning the introduction of IALT elements. However, being a hybrid training scheme between university and secondary schools, the difficulty lies in gaining the acceptance of the teachers in the field. They understand themselves firstly as German, French or English teachers; they have often studied in the corresponding countries and question the practicability of an overarching project. An ideal solution would be to develop a pilot project with a secondary school which encourages all their teachers in training (*stagiaires*) and possibly also the rest of the staff to participate in an IALT training course. In this way an IALT training would be linked to a school development project.

With regard to **in-service training**, our interview partner thinks that offering an IALT in-service training would not be very attractive. Following his experience with similar offers only few teachers will choose such a course. Therefore he strongly recommends a bottom-up approach which would guarantee the success of an in-service training course. The demand for a particular training must come directly from a school which after having identified certain needs/questions tries to get an answer via an in-service training. Only if these pre-conditions are fulfilled the training stands a chance of success. It has been suggested to integrate IALT elements into a larger training framework of multilingualism and its development in school settings and to try to find schools interested in such training. A TEP member has pointed out that the problem of a bottom-up approach lies in the transmission of good ideas from one school to another. At this stage political action becomes very important because the implementation at a national level of ideas developed “at ground level” can only be a top-down one.

The **Ministry of Education** being the main employer of teachers has developed reference texts defining the profile of both primary and secondary school teachers; these documents summarise the essential competences a teacher should have and describe the Ministry’s expectations towards the training programmes. Since many changes have taken place over the last years in



the Luxembourgish school system, a revision of these documents has become necessary. The Ministry has suggested that IALT elements could be integrated into the new versions of these profiles and has encouraged the research team to write the corresponding text parts. Furthermore, the Ministry has decided to give the EUCIM project a certain visibility by participating in the London conference and by organising a presentation of the project to international bodies.

The integration of IALT in the profile texts could have a direct impact on pre-service educational programmes since the university refers to the governmental documents.

#### 4. FURTHER COMMENTS AND SUGGESTIONS MADE BY TEP MEMBERS

The TEP members agreed with most of the ideas/issues pointed out by our interview partners. In addition, they gave advice concerning the implementation of the curriculum and came up with a series of very concrete ideas that could be realised in near future. This practically orientated approach is probably linked to the fact that the TEP members are practitioners of the educational field and know what is feasible in their respective domains.

Concerning the integration of the “early childhood” domain the following points were raised: It has been pointed out that the development of academic language takes not only place in schools but also in other educational institutions such as early care structures (*crèches, maison relais*). The problem is that educators working in early care structures do not have the necessary know-how to cope with languages in multilingual contexts. To tackle this problem one TEP member (representing the Ministry of Family and Integration) made a very concrete suggestion. He wants to organise as soon as possible in-service training sessions on language development issues for the educators employed in their *maison relais*. Indeed, language development is one of the Ministry’s priorities for the coming years and one should see this as an opportunity to develop a training programme. Concrete offers like this one will help to implement the ideas of the Core Curriculum and make that it will not remain a piece of paper but give normative guidance to educational action.

In the same line it would be helpful to establish a link between school and care structures. In order to bring school teachers and educators of care structures closer together, one could imagine organising on a local basis (e.g. commune) a common training programme for these two groups, the advantage being that this idea could be implemented fairly quickly. It is important to mention that a whole series of good practice exists already in this field. Ideally one should valorise what has been done so far and try to integrate it into future projects. In the longer term it would seem logical to create links between the pre-service trainings of teachers and educators.

It will be important to introduce new ideas into secondary schools. At this level the problem lies in the fact that the different subjects taught are characterised by different epistemologies. Our colleague from University has been trying over the last 10 years to integrate a CLIL approach into secondary schools but the lack of success is linked to the strong resistance of these groups to open up to new ideas. A possible entry could be that teachers in training do small research projects on these issues for their *travail de candidature*. Another possibility might be to find one secondary school prepared to get their whole staff involved in an in-service training on language development issues.

Finally the implication of parents was particularly emphasised. As far as language development is concerned the focus often lies on educational institutions and there is a tendency to forget about THE structure where language acquisition starts, i.e. the family. Therefore it would be very important to tell parents (notably those with migration background) how indispensable it is to speak to their children in their mother tongue. At this level an easily accessible documentation on language development and how to further it within the family (which could be translated into different languages) would be a tremendous help.

#### D. PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

The TEP members are willing to help with the concrete implementation of the Core Curriculum in Luxembourg, notably by trying out new projects and by organising training sessions for their target groups. The TEP members will be contacted once the Core Curriculum is finished in order to plan future steps. The TEP will obviously continue to exist as a work group and guarantee the sustainability of the project.

Politically the TEP could dedicate its activities to gain more coherence in a national language education policy. In this sense the creation of a coordinating body in charge of academic and vocational training of teachers, educators and assistants in social settings in order to re-assess the actual programmes of 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> language or multilingual education of children, pupils and students. A specific consideration should be given to the integration of an IALT approach and the significance of language in content learning. If a language education charter were to be developed at national level, IALT elements could play their role. Generally this would help different educational, instructional i.e. institutional levels, the responsible actors in (language and content) education should have the possibility to rely on clear choices concerning the national linguistic policy. Thus they could elaborate a coherent, pertinent and fair language learning and evaluation model which takes into account the diverse national, cultural and social background of children and students.

The TEP could also work as a platform to generate ideas and provide contacts for running pilot projects involving partnerships between researchers and practitioners. Such projects could be the following:

In the domain of early childhood education it would be important to launch a pilot project on integrative learning of the national language, *Lëtzebuergesch*, combined with children's learning of their first language. This could benefit from the Benjamin Club/G.E.A.D.E. asbl experience and would represent a support for children with a migrant background.

Good practices in language support in the context of playgroups, leisure activities, sports, games, cultural events for different age levels could be described, documented and analysed in order to spread working and practicable models.

Multilingual story telling/story reading and integration of elements from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, songs, rhymes, everyday rituals e.g. greetings, could be furthered and explored and analysed in the role they play in combined knowledge and language development in a pre-IALT logic.

The development of linguistic and communicative competences is not only a matter of school education. It actually happens in between schools and families. Therefore family literacy which is not well explored in Luxembourg plays an important role. The main focus should be on processes linking the family and the institutional educational actors and the possible interpenetration of both domains. The management of parental involvement in diverse roles such as educational assistants, resource persons and cultural mediators in the context of organising and coordinating experiences is obviously a practice to be developed and studied.

Supporting both primary and secondary schools to develop, document and evaluate IALT orientated language policies for their whole school is a further suggestion which has been made at different occasions. For secondary schools this would imply crucial shifts in mentalities. The access to universities is less dependent on becoming a triple quasi native speaker than on acquiring academic language and communication competences and developing an individually appropriate multilingual identity. Furthermore language learning would not only be seen as a subject matter in school, but as a transversal aspect intimately intertwined with knowledge acquisition. Thus, developing new contours for language teaching and learning also means adopting a language based pedagogy which strongly concerns content learning as well.



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