



Analytical framework and identification of best practices



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Abstract

The ongoing DIGI-LINGO Erasmus+ project focuses on identifying good digital and virtual teaching practices in foreign language classes and providing recommendations based on that analysis. To that end, a theoretical framework has been developed considering the Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning (PTDL) approach developed by the European Centre for Modern Languages. The PTDL approach aims to provide the learners with deeper learning and therefore this DIGI-LINGO Erasmus+ research seeks to apply the PTDL approach model to foreign language teaching domain in order to identify the main pillars to a comprehensive approach to language teaching. Those pillars have served as indicators for good teaching practices that were adapted to create questionnaires used as a methodological tool targeting three main aspects: PTDL parameters, interculturality and the use of digital tools in foreign language teaching.

Additionally, a questionnaire to gather some background information on the schools was also distributed. It is important to point out that the questionnaire targeting the use of digital tools is a direct adaptation of the SELFIE (Self-reflection on Effective Learning by Fostering the Use of Innovative Educational Technologies), a free tool designed by the European Education Area. The questionnaires were distributed to a series of schools select by the project partners in the following areas: Kristau Eskola schools in the Basque Country (Spain); schools chosen by Central Denmark Region in Denmark; schools from the Vestland County in Norway; and the Het Gemeenschapsonderwijs in Belgium. The different schools have been intentionally identified to have different degrees of investment in digital tools and competence as well as a diverse student corpus. The reasoning beneath this decision lies in the will of advising a heterogeneous group of schools according to the same PTDL parameters. The data collected and analysed from the questionnaires will be presented in a separate publication, along with recommendations on how to improve the teaching practices of foreign language in the different schools and partner regions.

Key words: foreign language teaching, pluriliteracies teaching for deeper learning, PTDL, digital competence, interculturality, good teaching practices, Erasmus+, DIGI-LINGO.

About DIGI-LINGO

DIGI-LINGO: Enhancing Digital Language Teaching and Virtual Exchange

The DIGI-LINGO project is in line with the recommendations on a comprehensive approach to the teaching of languages published by the European Commission in 2018. The document underlines the importance of language competence for mobility, cooperation and mutual understanding between the union members and across borders (European Commission, 2018, p.2). Thus, the focus of the current recommendations is to improve the learning of modern languages in schools to enhance the language competence of young people so that they can acquire in addition to the language of schooling two more European languages. To achieve this objective, the commission recommends to promote student-centred and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) methodologies; to create language-aware schools that support multilingual classrooms and carry out linguistically inclusive practices; to integrate digital tools to broad the language offer, facilitate language exposure and support those languages that are not taught at school; to foster collaboration with parents and partnerships with non-formal sectors; and to reconsider the assessment of language competence, especially considering the growing multilingual profiles in the European classrooms (European Commission, 2018, p.13-14).

Theoretical Framework

Considering the recommendations of the European commission (2018), the DIGI-LINGO project aims to define a comprehensive approach to language teaching where language and content integrated learning, inclusive practices to respond to the increasing linguistic and cultural diversity in the European classrooms; and the opportunities offered by the digital tools play a central role. Therefore, this theoretical framework aims to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What are the pillars of a comprehensive approach to language teaching?

RQ2: Which factors determine successful foreign language teaching?

RQ3: How can digital and virtual tools and the international dimension promote language teaching?

As the first objective of the current project is to define a comprehensive approach to language teaching, the first part of the research will focus on analysing the contributions of the recently consolidated Pluriliteracies Teaching model (2021) to the well-known Communicative approach in Foreign Language teaching. The review of the main principles of the communicative approach will be helpful to understand how Content and Language Integrated approaches such as the Pluriliteracies for Deeper Learning Approach open new paths not only to better understand the communicative function of language but also the benefits of integrating language and content in the Foreign Language Classrooms to promote deeper learning, and consequently, better communicative competence among the FL learners.

From Communicative Approach to Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach in language teaching (2015 Coole, Kwakernaak, 2015; Dönszelmann, Beuningen, Kaal, Graaff, 2020) aims to develop “communicative competence” (CC) which Hymes (1972) claimed. CC refers not only to the ability of the learner to use language for different purposes and functions but also knowing how to use different dimensions of language. For instance, knowing when to use informal and formal speech, being able to understand and produce different types of texts, and knowing how to use the language in different situations, even if there might be limitations with the language knowledge (Richard & Rodgers, 2014, p.90). Therefore, a communicative approach comprehends language as a means of communication; language should be used to communicate.

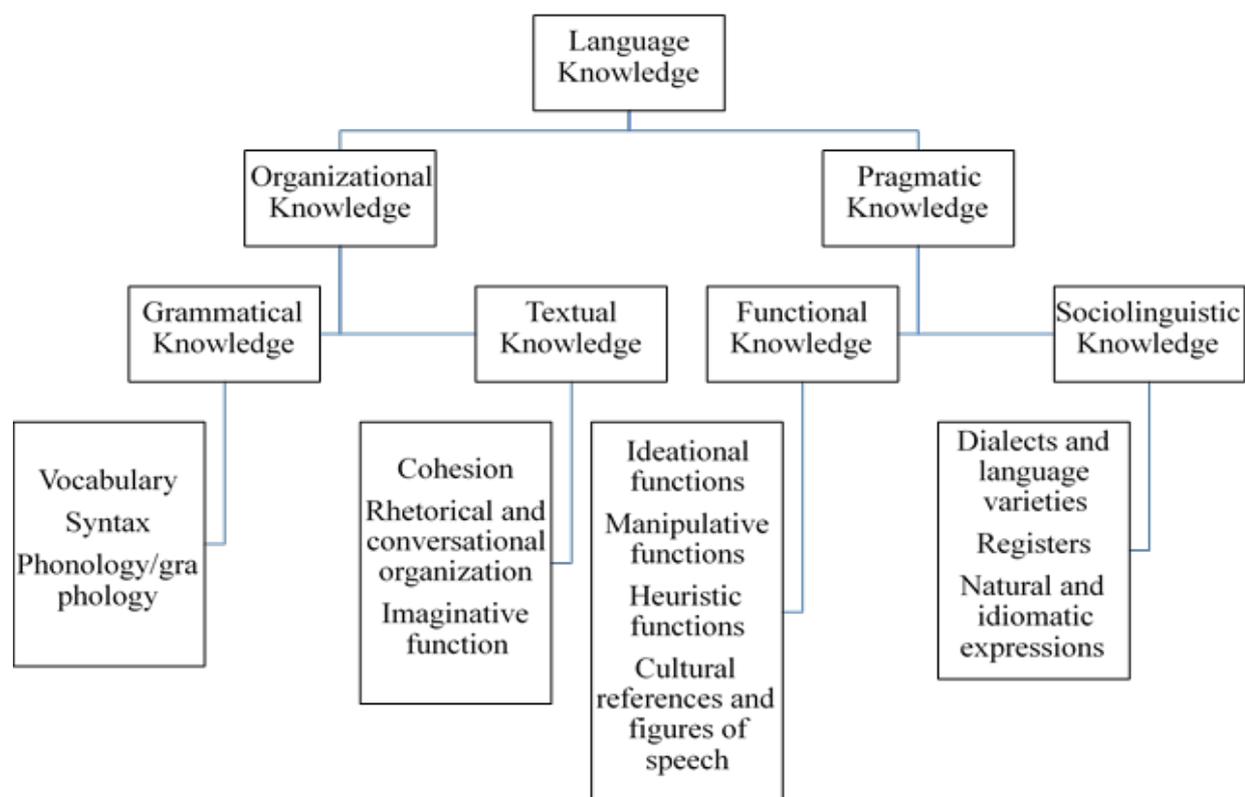
The theoretical characteristics that build the base of communicative language learning are explained by Richard and Rodgers (2014, p.89) as follow: language is used as a system to make an express meaning; the allowance of interaction and communication is the main 21st century purpose of language; and the focus of language is not merely in its grammatical structural features, but using language as a whole to communicate meaning in discourse. Therefore, language learning is seen by Richard and Rodgers (2014, p. 91) as a result of particular processes, which include collaborative interaction between the language learners and language users, to create and negotiate meaning through meaningful and purposeful interactions. Learners interpret the feedback received while using the language and putting attention to the language is heard in order to be able to incorporate new language forms to one’s developing CC. This is done by experimenting different ways of saying things as a social mediator who constructs meaning in a social setting. Learners or experts who scaffold the learner facilitate these processes. It could be suggested collaborative dialogues and cooperative tasks as an appropriate context to carry out these processes.

Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980) and Bachman and Palmer (1996) had challenged the traditional view of language, which has been named as the “formal” view of language. This view understood language as a system of structurally related elements (grammatical units, lexical items) for transmission of meaning, therefore, the mastery of these elements is the goal of this view (Bovellan, 2014, p.47). However, Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), and Bachman and Palmer (1996) focus on the functional aspect of language, emphasizing the communicative dimension of language rather than the structured system. Thus, CC was identified as the core concept in the communicative approach by these experts.

In the mid 1990's, Bachman and Palmer suggested a model that made emphasis on language ability and built a more specific and comprehensive model than Canale and Swain (1980). The authors stated that the crucial characteristic of CC or as they named communication language ability, is the language ability which is a compound of two broad areas: **language knowledge** and **strategic competence** (Bagarić, 2007, p.98). Figure 1 below suggests that language knowledge is composed of two main components, **organizational knowledge** and **pragmatic knowledge** that complement each other and are necessary to reach communicatively effective language use (Bagarić, 2007, p.98). On the one hand, **organizational knowledge** connects the abilities needed so as to control formal language structures such as **grammatical** and **textual knowledge** as Figure 1 shows. **Grammatical knowledge** is made up of independent areas of knowledge (vocabulary, syntax, phonology and graphology), which capacitate the individual to make correct grammatical sentences as well as comprehend the propositional content. On the other hand, **textual knowledge** enables the production of spoken or written texts by connecting and combining independent utterances into a text through cohesion, rhetorical (ways of developing narrative texts, descriptions, comparisons, classifications) and conversational organization (conventions for initiating, maintaining and closing conversations), and imaginative functions (Bagarić, 2007, p. 98).

On the other hand, **pragmatic knowledge** refers to the skills to create and interpret discourse. Two areas of knowledge, **functional knowledge** and **sociolinguistic knowledge** are included within pragmatic knowledge. **Functional knowledge** enables the expression of communicative intent by matching action patterns with linguistic forms (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1995, p. 17), this knowledge enables the individual with the correct linguistic form for a specific intention. For instance, "a non-native speaker saying upon leaving "it's nice to have met you" to someone he has already met many times instead of "it was nice seeing you" (Celce-Murcia, et al., 1995, p.19), this means that the intention and linguistic form do not match. **Sociolinguistic knowledge** relates the appropriate creation and interpretation of utterances based on specific sociocultural conventions (Bagarić, 2007, p.99). The next area in Bachman and Palmer is (1996) strategic competence. **Strategic competence** is understood as "the knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them" (Celce-Murcia, et al., 1995, p.26) in order to set goals, assess communicative sources, and plan. Hence, communication strategies "are seen as hinge between the learner's resources (competence) and what he/she can do with them (communicative activities)" (CEFR, 2011, p.25). Goal setting includes identifying tasks and choosing the tasks that are going to be completed. Assessing communicative sources involves linking different areas of communicative language ability such as topic knowledge (real world knowledge) and affective schemata (the emotional link with topic knowledge. The areas are related by the individual to carry out the task based on past conscious or unconscious affective or emotional experiences in relation to a real-world knowledge (Bachman & Palmer 1996, p.65). Planning requires making decisions on how to make use of language knowledge and the other components in order to successfully carry out the task (Bagarić, 2007, p. 99).

Figure 1. Area of language knowledge



Note: Adapted from (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p.68)

Even though the model for CC created by Bachman & Palmer (1996) the general principles of communicative approach are still widely accepted more recent views claim that the stress is in the functional aspect of language and CC which promotes interaction in a social context instead of dividing CC into clear parts since as Bovellan (2014, p.48) states, there is constant bleeding between and among the parts. Therefore, the views in communicative approach increasingly understood language learning as learning language while being engaged in concrete activities where a set of meaning making resources are used to learn the language by participating in talk-in interactions that are situated in social actions (Morton, 2012, 64). The concrete activities (Morton, 2012, 64) in the educational setting could be understood as communicative activities that involve communicative tasks, “workplans” (Ellis 2003, p.9-10), which may be worked in isolation or interactively and entails an interaction in a social context (CEFR, 2001, p.14). Communicative activities involve reception activities (listening and reading) and production activities (speaking and writing). Therefore, the four language skills: reading, listening, writing and speaking (CEFR, 2001) are used to complete communication and acquire the language dimensions that form the CC (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale & Swain 1980).

Task were recently mentioned as a methodology to carry out the communicative activities and promote CC among learners, as task are also central to Content and Language Integrated Learning, it might be relevant to look at the characteristics of **Task Based Learning** in the Foreign Language context, as this aspect will be common to the Communicative and Pluriliteracies Approaches.

Task-Based Learning

Task Based Language Teaching refers “to the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers, 2014 p.174). The main principle of this approach claims that a language is learned by using the language for functional purposes in the learning process of the language (Van den Branden, 2006, 132-133). This approach presents “tasks” as the motor for purposeful and functional language instruction.

Two different types of tasks could be differentiated: unfocused and focused (Ellis, 2009, p.230-231). Unfocused tasks provide the opportunity to learners to use language in general communicatively, in contrast, focused tasks are designed to use a specific grammar structure in a communicative situation (Ellis, 2009, p.230-231). However, focused tasks can still be distinguished from a “situational grammar exercise” since focused tasks fulfil the principles underlined in the definition of Ellis (2003, p.9-10). Moreover, tasks could also be classified as “input-providing” and “out-put prompting” (Ellis, 2009, p.230-231). “Input-providing” tasks involve listening and reading skills, “out-put prompting” tasks engage students in writing or speaking.

Thus, as mentioned in the definition (Ellis, 2003, p.9-10), tasks give the chance to communicate in any of the language skills and some tasks may integrate more than one skill (Ellis, 2009, p.230-231). It has been observed that different types of tasks could be used in Task based language teaching, however, these tasks have some methodological phases that could be used in practice: pre-task, during the task and post-task (Ellis, 2003, p.244). The “pre-task phase” frames the activity by establishing the outcome of the task and planning the activity. The “during the activity phase” refers to the actual task, students carrying out the task. This is the only obligatory phase in Task Based Teaching even if the other phases could increasingly benefit the process. Finally, the “post-task phase” involves students in a reflection process about the task (Ellis, 2003, p.244).

Task Based learning seems to bring the principles of the communicative approach to the FL classroom, however, many researchers have recently been critical of some issues that this approach brings along. One of the main issues addressed by Ellis (2017) is the need to define the concept of task and the type of task employed in class. Long (2005) suggests adapting the tasks according to the learners' needs since students also express interests apart from needs and the learning process should not only be focused on providing learners with functional needs (Ellis, 2017) but also including the interests of the learner. Therefore, there is still an extensive debate about a number of issues the TBA raises. Along these lines appeared the Content and Language Integrated Learning or CLIL approach in 1990 proposed by the Finnish professor David Marsh. TBA can still be integrated within the CLIL approach (Tardieu & Dolitsky, 2012) but as we are going to discover in the following lines, CLIL appears to bring purposeful tasks in relation to real world issues, real content, to the core of the foreign language teaching, having an impact on learners' motivation (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.143), and the PTDL model provides the key elements and tools to consciously promote a deeper learning in the Foreign Language subject and in the

development of the communicative competence. Therefore, the PTDL model could be an appropriate framework to respond to the recommendations done by the European Commission (2018) and to define a more comprehensive approach to language teaching for the DIGI-LINGO project.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Ormrod (2010) defined the concept of learning as a long-term change in behaviour impacting achievement, engagement, mental representations and attitudes derived from experience. As Meyer et al. (2018) state, learning in a formal setting is a direct result of teaching. Forsyth (2016) claimed that teaching, on the other hand, is “an intentional intervention designed to result in a cognitive, affective, or behavioural change in another person” (p.3). If teaching is going to result in learning as a long-term change, then teachers as main agents of implementation of the teaching activity in a formal setting, have the responsibility to understand, adjust and implement the most appropriate teaching practices in each context.

According to Coyle & Meyer (2021), if education aims to provide the students with a lifelong learning experience, then the objective is to obtain deeper learning and develop transferable knowledge and skills. To this end, the authors have introduced the Pluriliteracies Approach to Teaching for Learning (PTDL), a new teaching approach that intends to overcome the shortcomings surfaced by the previous Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) model.

Both CLIL and PTDL are teaching approaches proposed and developed by the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) pertaining to the Council of Europe. Bilingual and multilingual education programmes have extensively been used for language teaching purposes. However, it was not until recently when traditional grammar-focused approaches were set aside to focus on a more communicative model of language teaching. Although the definition for CLIL has been a matter of extensive debate, most researchers converge on the fact that learning a subject in a second language other than the native tongue of the students, requires deeper attention and therefore, deeper learning occurs (Llinares, 2015; Van de Craen, 2017). Although the CLIL model was thoroughly developed by Coyle et al. (2010), Coyle and Meyer (2021) designed a follow-up to CLIL in their new Pluriliteracies approach by trying to address the main concerns raised previously by CLIL.

Paradigm Change: From CLIL to PTDL

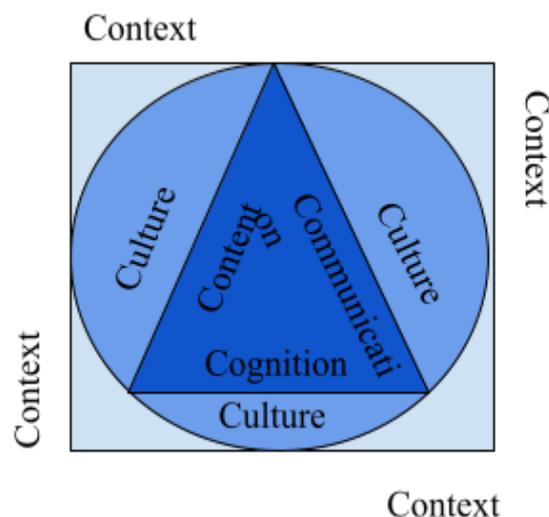
Research and experts (Coyle, 2015; Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck, 2017; Skinnari & Nikula, 2017; Meyer & Coyle; Coyle, 2018) have claimed for a paradigm change from Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) to a Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning approach (PTDL) in the CLIL classrooms. This paradigm change aims to resolve some of the tensions identified in CLIL between language and content (Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck, 2017 p.6) and find answers for questions such as; “why is there little evidence to show how learners are benefiting over time in terms of their subject learning? What does an integrated approach to content and language learning really mean for teachers and learners? What kind of practical guidance is available to enable CLIL teachers to work effectively? Are there fundamental differences between language learning and language-using for learning?” (Halbach, Meyer & Schuck, 2017 p.3) How can we reposition the Foreign Language Classroom in the Pluriliteracies context? (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.140).

All these questions and concerns raise from the reported evidence (Vollmer, 2008; Dalton-Puffer 2007, 2015) on the deficit in academic language use in all forms of communication, and in writing in particular; and a notable absence of cognitive discourse functions such as “defining, explaining or predicting” observed in the CLIL classrooms. This consequence has been related to the dominant role of “language learning” over “language using for learning” in the CLIL classroom, interfering in the transfer of research on the development of mainstream language across disciplines to the CLIL classroom (Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck, 2017 p. 6). Skinnari & Nikula (2017) provided an illustrative example to highlight the relevance of a balanced role of “language learning” and “language using for learning” in order to carry out cognitive discourse functions: “*you have to know the central concepts or basic vocabulary of biology first to be able to speak about biology*” (p.236).

The imbalance identified between content and language in the CLIL approach has driven experts to redefine what an integrated approach means in this context. For instance, Meyer & Coyle (2017) define PTDL: This approach focuses on helping learners become literate in content subjects and to empower them to successfully and appropriately communicate that knowledge across disciplines, cultures and languages in a wide variety of modes in order to become creative and responsible global citizens (p.6).

Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) proposed a CLIL approach based on the 4Cs model: content, cognition, communication and culture as shown in Figure 2 to raise awareness of the components of integrated learning beyond content and language. The authors wanted to create an integrated approach for learning and using languages in the curriculum.

Figure 2. The 4Cs Framework



Note: The 4Cs framework aims to integrate these four concepts (content, cognition, communication and culture) into the learning process. Adapted from Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010).

Even though the 4C model was developed to guide CLIL teachers to work effectively, researchers underline that it does not tell us how to integrate learning over time, it captures the “what” rather than the “how” (Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck, 2017, p.6).

In order to answer the “what” and the “how” questions, conceptualisation of the knowledge and the use of the language to make the understanding visible are identified as core principles in meaningful content learning. Meyer & Coyle (2017) posit that:

“Subject learning consists of two distinguish- able but interrelated building blocks: knowledge building and knowledge sharing/communication. We believe that the most relevant process for the latter is the automatization of relevant skills via a wide range of balanced practice activities.” (p.6).

Therefore, the need to evolve the 4C model to better answer to “how” to carry out meaningful content learning made Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck (2017. P. 11) articulate the following principles to be considered in the evolved Pluriliteracies model:

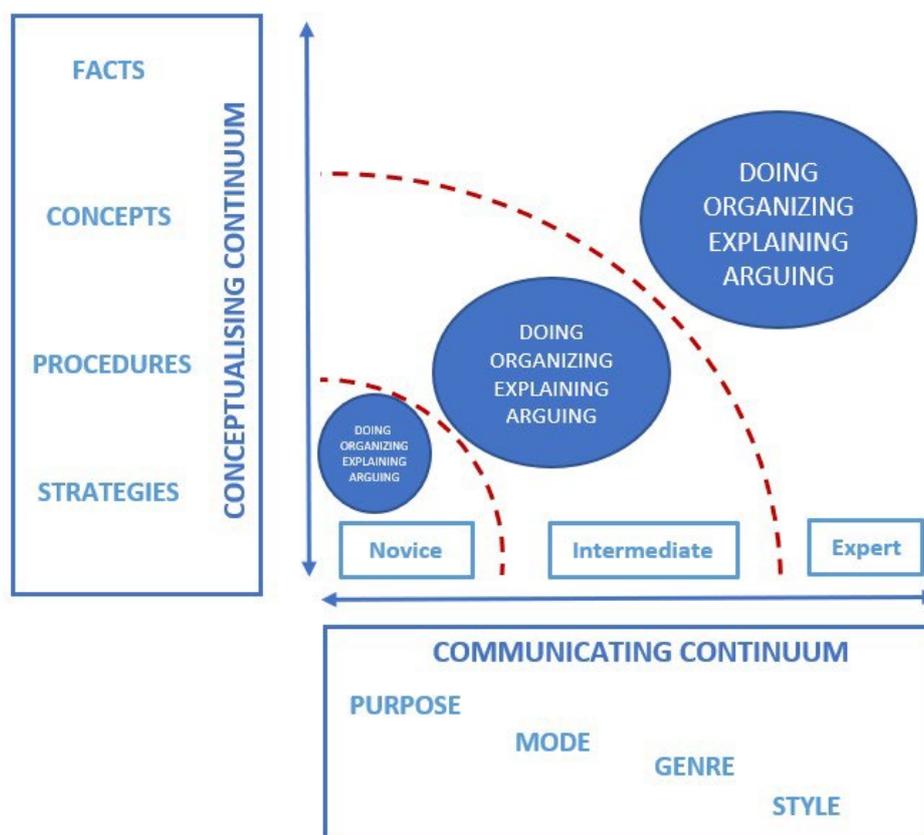
1. Conceptualizing learners' progression
2. Focusing on the learner
3. Linguaging for understanding
4. Realizing cultural embeddedness
5. Rethinking scaffolding for learner development

The Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning (PTDL) model aims to provide clearer guidelines for teachers to promote deeper learning across languages, disciplines and cultures,

bringing to the core of the learning process the disciplinary or subject specific literacies (Meyer & Coyle, 2017).

To achieve deeper learning, teachers should prepare students to make connections between the conceptualization continuum and the communication continuum of learning as shown in the first Pluriliteracies model proposed by Coyle and Meyer (2021) in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3. Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning (PTDL) model



Note: PTDL model reflects the connection between the conceptualizing continuum and the communicating continuum, that is, the connection between creating knowledge and communicating that knowledge. Adapted from Graz Group (2015).

The appropriate connection between these continua will help students become expert meaning makers in all the dimensions that subject learning involves (Meyer & Coyle, 2017 p.3). The connections between these continua mean that to build knowledge, students have to follow subject specific procedures to be able to transform facts and observation into conceptual knowledge. Then, to successfully communicate the knowledge, the student has to identify the purpose and the audience, and based on this, make the appropriate choice of mode, genre and style of the message. Thus, when students are involved in knowledge building activities within a subject, it will be necessary to actively make connections between the continua: doing science, organizing science, explaining science and arguing science (Meyer & Coyle, 2017, p.7). But, what do experts really mean by deeper learning?

Deeper Learning

In the previous section, it was mentioned that the intention of the PTDL approach is to provide guidelines for teachers to promote deeper learning across languages, disciplines and cultures (Meyer & Coyle, 2017). Thus, it might be relevant to analyse how “deeper learning” has been defined within the PTDL framework. Meyer & Coyle (2017) define deeper learning as:

The successful internalisation of conceptual content knowledge and the automatization of subject specific procedures, skills and strategies – rests on learners’ acquisition of disciplinary literacies. We posit that disciplinary literacies in turn only develop when learners actively engage in subject specific ways of constructing knowledge and when they are taught how to language their understanding appropriately and in an increasingly complex and subject appropriate manner (p.1).

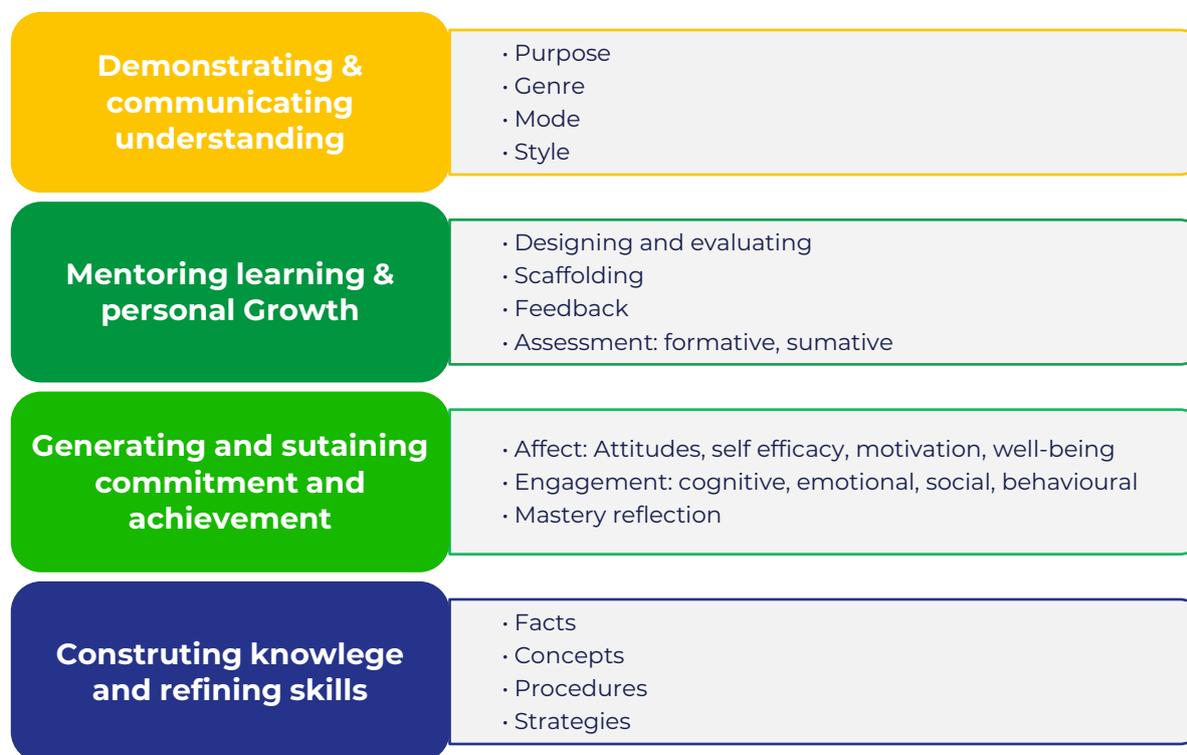
Then, deeper learning does not only require making meaning of the concepts of the subject but also the automatization of the subject specific procedures, skills and strategies, this is, to be literate in the specific discipline. However, deeper learning also involves the ability to transfer what was learned in one situation to a new situation The progress in the learning is visible when learners use more sophisticated ways to link the conceptual and the communicative continuum to make their understanding visible (Meyer & Coyle, 2017 p.7). This is, the learner is able to verbalize more complex conceptual knowledge using appropriate language related to the discipline and the communicative situation. Brown & Wilson (2011) explain, “learning is conceived as a progress toward higher levels of sophistication and competence as new knowledge is linked to existing knowledge and deeper understandings are developed (p.225).”

Although the first pluriliteracies model draft focused on the mechanisms of deeper learning, generating and maintaining students’ engagement and achievement has been proved to be a fundamental part of the learning process as well (Coyle & Meyer, 2021). Therefore, knowledge construction or conceptualizing continuum as identified above in Figure 2 and knowledge communication or communicating continuum are two important dimensions of deeper learning but Coyle and Meyer (2021) admit that there are also other dimensions playing an important role in the teaching-learning process. According to the authors, “learning cannot be separated from language” (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.77) and therefore, the learning process is successfully acquired when the student is able to communicate and express the recently acquired knowledge, proving intentional understanding of the content. However, Coyle and Meyer (2021) also emphasize that awareness and understanding of the cultural dimension is essential to successfully communicate and transmit knowledge. Additionally, progression is also impacted by students’ growing capacity and their ability to critically reflect and regulate their learning process.

As a result, Coyle and Meyer (2021) decided to transform their two-axis pluriliteracies model displayed in Figure 3 above into a revised four-dimension pluriliteracies model showcased in

Figure 4 below that could integrate all the domains embracing the different ecologies and components taking part in the teaching-learning process.

Figure 4. The revised Pluriliteracies Model for Deeper Learning



Note. The revised Pluriliteracies Model for Deeper Learning integrates two new dimensions that should be included in the learning process. Adapted from Coyle and Meyer (2021)

This revised model shown in Figure 4 includes the two axes proposed at the beginning in Figure 3: knowledge construction, now reflected as “Constructing knowledge & Refining skills” and knowledge communication or “Demonstrating and Communicating Understanding” as called in the latest model shown above in Figure 4. Additionally, Coyle and Meyer (2021) have incorporated another two dimensions. One of these dimensions relates to creating and maintaining learners’ engagement and progress called “Generating & Sustaining Commitment and Achievement” and another dimension covering teacher’s role and responsibilities called “Mentoring, Learning and Personal Growth” as indicated in Figure 4.

Furthermore, Coyle and Meyer (2021) state that “pluriliteracies development will only take off and can only be sustained when all of the four dimensions of the model are continuously integrated and active. This is, in essence, our approach to embracing a holistic view of teaching and learning” (p.86).

The current research agrees on the fact that the revised Pluriliteracies Learning for Teaching model proposed by Coyle and Meyer (2021) is a comprehensive teaching-learning approach and therefore, we would like to take the four dimensions proposed by these authors as the main pillar for our current research. Due to the scope of the current research, these four pillars will need to be applied to the foreign language teaching domain and therefore, it is important to look at the role of language in the process of knowledge construction.

Role of language in knowledge construction

Language plays a crucial role in knowledge construction as it mediates conceptual development by “languaging” (Swain, 2006). Languaging refers to “the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language” (Swain, 2006). Therefore, “languaging” is essential to internalize conceptual knowledge, and consequently, carry out a deeper learning (Meyer, Coyle 2017 p.10).

Language seems to be the “primary evidence of learning” for linguists (Mohan, 2010) because it has the potential to make thinking and learning visible (Meyer & Coyle, 2017 p.10). The learner reveals the conceptual understanding through the language repertoire used to express thinking and understanding (Meyer & Coyle 2017 p.10).

Thus, it can be said that language has two functions in learning. On the one hand, language makes the understanding and thinking of the learner visible. On the other hand, teachers can use language as a tool to intervene pedagogically to reconfigure the conceptual structures of the learners (Meyer & Coyle, 2017 p.11), this is, the learner’s understanding and thinking about a specific concept. Meyer & Coyle (2017, p.10) underline the following ideas to explain the interplay between language and thinking:

1. Concepts and propositions are cognitive patterns of varying complexity.
2. The shape of those patterns is determined by language which indicates how individual elements of a pattern are linked.
3. Analogous to the view of the mind as a constantly shifting system, these patterns aren’t static but meaningful and dynamic: “In nature’s pattern forming systems, contents aren’t contained anywhere but are revealed only by the dynamics. Form and content are thus inextricably connected and can’t ever be separated” (Kelso 1995: 1).
4. Conceptual growth is the result of the complexification of the patterns underlying concepts and propositions.
5. “Learning new concepts or complex skills depends on practice, which creates specific neural wiring that supports schema or skills formation” (Jackson, 2011: 96)

The ideas explained by Meyer & Coyle (2017, p.10) reinforce the understanding of the interplay of language and learning to make learning visible and reconfigure conceptual structures, however, what linguistic tool makes the learning visible? Cognitive Discourse Functions (CDF) *“are the specific cognitive-linguistic tools that make thinking visible and thus allow teachers to mediate their learners’ thinking and understanding by reconfiguring their internal conceptual structures”* (Meyer & Coyle 2017 p.16).

CDFs are the linguistic tools interconnecting the four dimensions within the PTDL model for learning (Figure 3). CDFs promote the active role of the student in the process of knowledge construction since CDFs activate specific language processes (report, describe, classify, explain and define) that are essential for the formation and strengthening of mental patterns (Meyer & Coyle, 2017). CDFs could be understood “as ‘micro genres’ which can be combined to “build” the larger genres representative of the various disciplines like a lab report, for instance” (Meyer, Coyle, 2017, p. 13). The use of CDFs in teaching allows integration in planning, when students are asked to report, describe, classify, explain and define content the four dimensions interplay as the teacher will have to create a rich **affective** context where the student will **engage** and **self-regulate** his/her learning to **master** certain knowledge while practicing subject specific **strategies** and **procedures** to construct **factual** and **conceptual** knowledge with a **purpose** to communicate the learning making appropriate **genre, mode** and **style** choices. The use of CDFs as linguistic tools that make students learning visible will also allow teachers to intervene pedagogically to **scaffold**, give **feedback**, apply summative and formative **assessment** and **evaluate and design** the dynamic processes (Coyle & Meyer, 2017; Coyle and Meyer, 2021).

Dalton-Puffer (2015) & Polias (2016) created a classification, adapted in Table 1 below, to explain the connection between the activity domains, CDF and corresponding genres (Coyle & Meyer, 2017):

Table 1. Cognitive Discourse Function

Knowledge and Activity Domain	Cognitive Discourse Function	Activator (operatoren)	Corresponding Genres
Doing	Report	Report, inform, recount, narrate, present, summarize, relate	Experiments and protocols, lab reports, (auto) biographical / historical recount, historical report
Organising	Describe	Describe, label, identify, name, specify	Descriptions, comparisons, compositions, classifications, historical accounts
	Classify	Classify, compare, contrast, match, structure, categorize, subsume	
Explaining	Explain	Explain, reason, express, cause/effect, draw conclusions, deduce	Temporal explanations, factorial / consequential explanations, theoretical explanations
	Define	Define, identify, characterize	
Arguing	Explore	Explore, hypothesize, speculate, predict, guess, estimate, simulate, take other perspectives	Arguments (analytic-persuasive), discussions
	Evaluate	Evaluate, judge, argue, justify, take a stance, critique, recommend, comment, reflect, appreciate	

Note: Adapted from Coyle & Meyer (2017)

All in all, it can be concluded that language plays an important and crucial role in the PTDL model for learning and that CDFs could work as linguistic tools to foster the integration of the dimension and the interaction among factors.

How is PTDL implemented in the FL classroom?

The Pluriliteracies Teaching Model and Foreign Language Teaching: building bridges between the communicative approach and the PTDL model

In the previous lines, in addition to the main principles and dimensions of the PTDL approach, the role of language and the CDFs as linguistic tools to integrate content and language and activate all the dimensions were explained. Before going deeper into defining the factors within the PTDL model, it might be interesting to discuss how this model contributes positively to FL teaching and specify more how this model could be implemented in the FL classroom. Coyle and Mayer (2021) explore the ways PTDL can help the foreign language teacher reframe the language lesson to respond to the current needs of the learners and the society by offering “*an inclusive space for developing critical understanding of languages, cultures and literatures*” (p. 140).

CLIL is not far from the communicative approach in FL teaching, the thematic contents in CLIL guide language processes and support language production by creating meaningful contexts to teach listening and reading strategies and structures and lexis for spoken and written language (Coyle & Meyer, 2021), creating meaningful context to develop learner’s communication competence and all its components. Considering the recommendation of the European Commission (2018), promoting the learning of two European languages to enhance mobility, cooperation and mutual understanding, CLIL in foreign language teaching offers the learner opportunities to promote their own identities by talking about their local environment, their homeland, its natural resources and values (McKeeman, n.d; Vickov, 2007) as they become proficient in the foreign language. As CLIL brings real world content to the language lessons, integrating real world-content might not only increase the motivation of the learner but also benefit the teacher as the content is ready made (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.141).

The PTDL approach, which has been developed to answer to the gaps identified in CLIL as explained in previous sections, requires a perspective shift among foreign language teachers to perceive themselves not only as foreign language teachers but also as language and literature as subject teachers who are informed about all the factors within the PTDL model, so that they focus on the use of the language through the CDFs to promote learner’s communication skills and achieve a deeper learning of the content and the language (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p. 143). As we have mentioned earlier CDFs are linguistic tools that foster the integration of content and language and trigger the interaction among factors in the PTDL model, facilitating a deeper learning of the content and an acquisition of more sophisticated language.

When talking about language learning, culture plays a crucial role, also when it comes to learning a foreign language for intercultural communication (Corsitto & Ugalde, 2001). Therefore, Coyle and Meyer (2021) reflect on the role of culture in the foreign language classroom that wants to apply the PTDL model. This is why culturally responsive teaching or linguistically appropriate practices are included in the PTDL philosophy in order to create PTDL inclusive classrooms that will promote intercultural communication competence. As Gay (2010, p.31) states: “Seeing cultural differences as asset: creating caring learning communities where culturally different individuals and heritages are valued; using cultural knowledge of ethnically diverse cultures, families, and communities to guide curriculum development, classroom climates, instructional strategies, and relationships with students; challenging racial and cultural stereotypes, prejudices, racism, and other forms of intolerance, injustice, and oppression: being change agents for social justice and academic equity; mediating power imbalances in classrooms based on race, culture, ethnicity, and class, and accepting cultural responsiveness as endemic to educational effectiveness in all areas of learning for students from all ethnic groups”.

Therefore, in the foreign language classroom where the PTDL framework is applied, not only the culture of the target language will play a central role as source of real world content but the increasing cultural diversity in our society and schools will play an important role as the communication channels multiply and the focus of language teaching evolves from communication competence to intercultural communication competence. For this reason, traditional language-based approaches should evolve and emphasize the importance of multiliteracies to enable the learners to deconstruct and reconstruct meaning through tasks that promote the critical and active engagement of learners (Coyle, Meyer, 2021).

It has just been stated that culture plays a crucial role in language learning, literature as a cultural artifact is identified by Coyle and Mayer (2021) as a subject discipline that has a great potential in developing inclusive pluriliteracies practices for deeper learning (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p. 144) in the foreign language classroom. The application of genre pedagogy, cognitive discourse functions and the PTDL model could lead to meaningful teaching of language, literature and culture (p. 157).

Literature, Literacies and Language Teaching

Traditionally, the study of literature has been reserved for learners with high linguistic competence, to ensure the access to literature for learners with lower linguistic competence, edited or simplified text have been used (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p. 148). However, literature provides the learner with opportunities to engage in creative and reflective experiences through authentic text using a variety of styles and genres (poetry, short stories, novels) encouraging the learner to construct meaning (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.148, p.149). In order to really see the pedagogical potential of literature in the FL classroom and the PTDL model, the concept of literature should be expanded.

“Literature in its many different forms provide cultural artifacts or text - in broadest sense- have authenticity, cultural value and meaning. The content learned in language lessons, in the nature of meaning making (concepts, information and ideas) communicate through different types of text (cultural artifacts) and their relevance to the worlds of the learners, deepening their awareness and sense of identity” (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p. 150).

It is important to underline that when talking about text in this context, text refers to its broadest sense referring to language manifestations in all modalities (spoken, written, audio, video, graphic or plurimodal) (Coyle & Meyer, 2021). Thus, when literature text are considered multiplicitous and other authentic types of texts are studied alongside (e.g. advertisement, newspapers reports, magazines, popular song lyrics, blogs, social media and multimodal text from “everyday” to the classical), the pedagogical potential shifts to a new reality, as the interaction with the new language and culture fosters self-awareness of the learner’s identity in the new language (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p. 150).

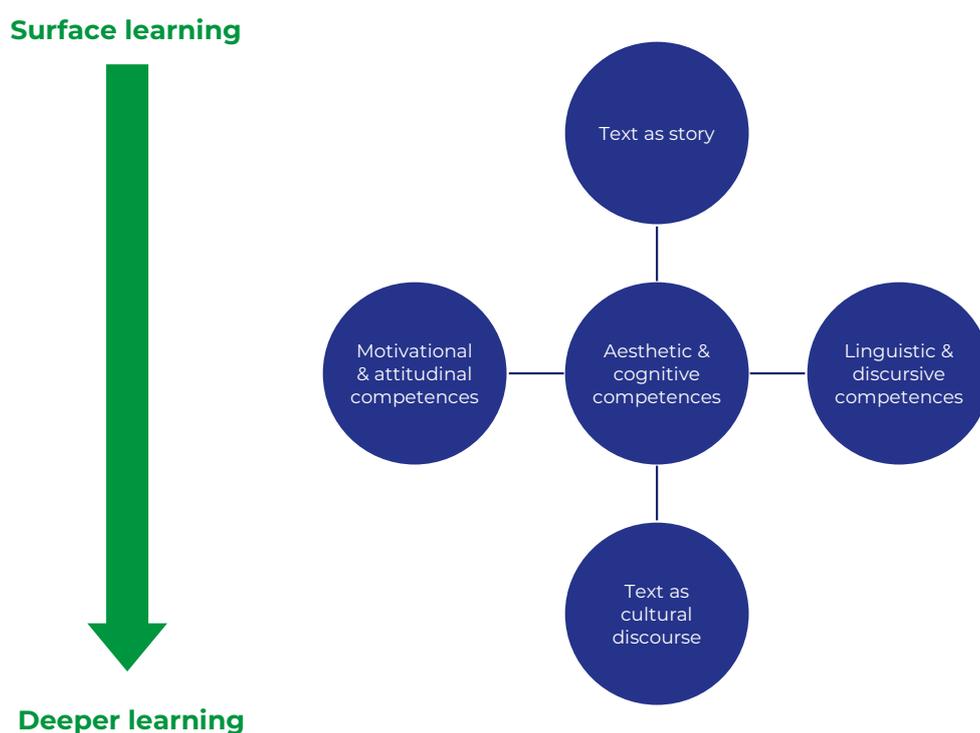
This is why, as Coyle and Meyer claim, “we need to expand traditional reading comprehension models in the deeper learning literature classroom and move from single text to multiple sources of information as learners develop their discourse” (Coyle & Meyer, p.157). Exploring multimodal ways of working on literature and texts in the broadest sense may help the collective finding alternatives to overcome the barriers that literary reading has had to make meaning due to the linguistic complexity. This is why work should be done applying genre pedagogy, cognitive discourse functions and pluriliteracies models (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.157).

Teachers can start by following a criterion to choose the type of text that will be used in the FL classroom. First of all, it will be important to understand the texts as socio-cultural tools for curriculum making and promoting culturally relevant pedagogy (this pedagogy will be explained in later sections) and not as a mere linguistic artifact. In Coyle and Meyer’s words *“selecting a text only according to its lexical and grammatical level of difficulty is no longer appropriate, instead, co-selection of texts with learners according to their interests, identities, creativity and civic responsibility - alongside the development of skills required to access and*

interpret texts, gradually leading to greater nuanced and sophisticated discourses” is suggested to bring progressive pathways for deeper learning to the foreign language classroom (p. 156).

To promote a deeper learning with regards to literature, not only the selection of the text but also the treatment of the text should be transformed to achieve a deeper learning and transferable knowledge and skills. The FL teacher should help learners move beyond the stage of surface learning where texts are treated as stories to reach a level of interpretation where texts are treated as complex cultural discourses (Coyle and Meyer, 2021, p. 156).

Figure 5. Deeper Learning Literature



Note: Deeper Learning Literature. Adapted from Coyle and Meyer (2021)

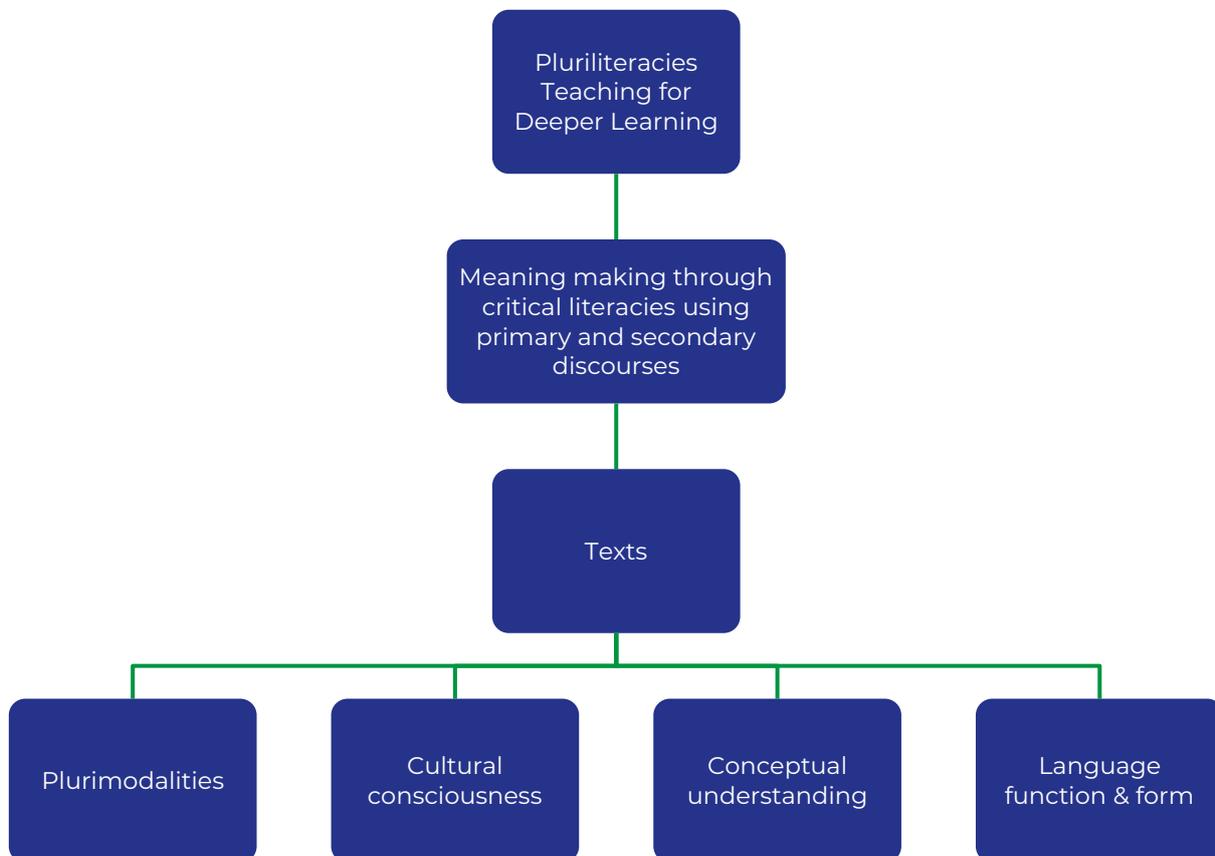
The Figure 5 shows that the dimensions within the PTDL model; Generating and sustaining commitment and achievement (motivational & attitudinal competencies); Constructing knowledge and refining skills (aesthetic & cognitive competencies); Demonstrating and communicating understanding (linguistic discursive competences); and Mentoring Learning & Personal Growth (selection of text and scaffolding to go beyond surface learning), are applied together with the cognitive discourse functions as the linguistic tool to promote the treatment of the text as cultural discourse and promote a deeper learning.

Understanding the concept of text as it is defined in this context, it is essential for the FL teacher to expand the pluriliteracies development. The text used in class could be range in style, length and purpose, besides being plurimodal (oral, written, audio, video) and pluricultural (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.159). For instance, “a text can be a paragraph from a newspaper, a video clip of a TV show, a short story, a song, a novel or a blog by a learner” (Coyle & Meyer, 2021 p.159).

Bearing all this in mind, Coyle and Meyer state that “content of language learning and teaching in schooling is open to wide interpretation. This can be seen as advantageous. It provides the language teacher with opportunities to select diverse and specific texts (in discussion with learners) which provide pathways for progression by developing ways of using social, cultural and linguistic tools for meaning making across languages. When learners are involved in deeper learning, drawing on the texts used for knowledge-building, analytical competencies and discourses, they will be developing skills which are transferable. These skills in turn will impact on the development of other subject-specific disciplinary skills (p.157).

This means that the FL teacher can provide a wide range of experiences, which are not necessarily embedded in subject-disciplines but related to world issues and themes related to learners interests, to develop learners' understanding on how meaning is created through the use of language (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.158). It will be the role of the teacher to mentor the process, foster critical reflection and make these processes visible if developing learner's competence in text analysis and text co-construction in line with literacy strategies across languages is the objective. Grammar dominant approaches are no longer appropriate to achieve this objective, however, this does not mean that grammatical understanding is not necessary, on the contrary, it is essential to practice linguistic forms to be able to construct meaning and self-reflection (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.158). Figure 6 summarizes the pluriliteracies approach we are describing for FL learning:

Figure 6. Exploring a Pluriliteracies approach for language teaching and learning



Note: Exploring a Pluriliteracies approach for language teaching and learning (adapted from Coyle & Meyer, 2021).

After highlighting the importance of text as content, text as culture and text as language, designing tasks to support pluriliterate language use which empowers learners to successfully communicate knowledge and understanding across cultures and languages seems to be a challenge (Coyle & Meyer, 2021).

As explained before, Task Based Language teaching has been functioning within the communicative and CLIL framework. Tasks play a crucial role in PTDL too, and this view still agrees with the main principles of TBL, language is learned by using the language for functional purposes in the learning process of the language (Van den Branden, 2006, 132-133). However, challenges have been identified in task design as experts claim that tasks are not adequately performed, and consequently, deep learning is not achieved (Coyle, Meyer, 2021. p. 162). Coyle and Meyer hypothesize that this may be because language classrooms seem to favour performance tasks over learning tasks, the imbalance may result in inadequate task performing and language learning, this is, *“the fact that learners appear to be ‘busy’ does not necessarily mean that they are engaged in learning which is challenging or which leads to deeper understanding”* (Coyle & Meyer, 2021, p.162). To overcome this challenge, Coyle and Meyer (2021) reiterate that language and content cannot be separated: *“learners will only be able to advance their ability to communicate knowledge adequately if we help them increase their understanding of the content they are trying to communicate. Therefore, we have to reconceptualise ways in which texts relating to topics and themes provide opportunities for learners to engage in deep practice, deep understanding and the development of growth mindset”* (p.166).

Hallet (2016) provides a Genre Matrix to illustrate the idea that in Language Education there are three macro-genres that are divided into more specific micro-genres. Being aware of the text genres and multimodality of text could contribute to developing *textual fluency*, which is defined by Coyle and Meyer (2021) *“the ability to critically evaluate and produce a wide variety of plurimodal text and text types”* (p.163).

Table 2. Hallet's Genre Matrix

Macro genre	Genre	Oral mode	Written mode	Multimodal mode	Digital mode
Narrative text	Recount	Talking to friends at school: My practicum in Australia	Written account: My practicum in Australia	Written account: My practicum in Australia	Blog entry: My practicum in Australia
	Story	Phone call to my parents: My friend's accident and helicopter rescue	Written story: My friend's accident and helicopter rescue.	A cartoon: My friend's accident and helicopter rescue	Social network post/collage: My friend's accident and helicopter rescue
	Anecdote	Talking to my friend: An incident at the holiday camp	An email to my friend: An accident at the holiday camp	Photo album: An accident at the holiday camp	A slide show for my family: An accident at the holiday camp
	Exemplum	Classroom presentation: The	A school magazine article: The story of the	A flyer: The story of the life of a pair of jeans	Online presentation/website: The

Macro genre	Genre	Oral mode	Written mode	Multimodal mode	Digital mode
		story of the life of a pair of jeans	life of a pair of jeans		story of the life of a pair of jeans
	Vision	An illustrated scenario: The first three months after my school final exam	Diary entry: The first three months after my school final exam	An illustrated scenario: The first three months after my school final exam	Chat forum contribution/Prezi: The first three months after my school final exam
Expository	Description	Conversation: A new apartment	Estate agents expose: New apartment	Estate agent brochure: A new apartment	Website presentation: A new apartment
	Report	Presentation: Aborigines in contemporary Australia	Written report: Aborigines in contemporary Australia	A poster: Aborigines in contemporary Australia	A multimedia collage/Padlet: Aborigines in contemporary Australia
	Explanation	Oral explanation: How an electric bike works	Written explanation: How an electric bike works	Illustrated magazine page: How an electric bike works	Wiki text: How an electric bike works
	Procedure	Instruction: How to build a paper plane	Instruction: How to build a paper plane	Illustrated manual: How to build a paper plane	Step-by-step YouTube video: How to build a paper plane
	Protocol	Introducing rules for new members: ten dos and don'ts in the theatre club	Written rules for new members: Ten dos and don'ts in the theatre club	A booklet for new members: Ten dos and don'ts in the theatre club	Social network group post: Ten dos and don'ts in the theatre club
Arguments	Exposition	A speech: Abolish child labour	A to the president: Abolish child labour	A pamphlet: Abolish child labour	A website: Abolish child labour
	Discussion	Peer discussion: The pros and cons of prohibiting alias names on the internet	Written discussion: The pros and cons of prohibiting alias names on the internet	A wall display: The pros and cons of prohibiting alias names on the internet	An overview of chat forum entries: The pros and cons of prohibiting alias names on the internet
	Argument	Debate: A limited mobile phone account	Parent-child exchange: A limited mobile phone account	Object-related discussion: A limited mobile phone account	Parent-child WhatsApp exchange: A limited mobile phone account
	Persuasion	An election campaign speech	An election campaign leaflet	An election campaign flyer	An election campaign newsletter/video

Note: Hallet's Genre Matrix. Adapted from Coyle and Mayer (2021).

However, as Coyle and Meyer (2021) remark, this matrix does not address the question of how to conceptualize progression or learning pathways in these genres. The experts claim that if CDFs are used as vital parts of more complex genres, not only to activate all the dimensions and factors within the PTDL model but to conceptualize progression within the genre use into literacy levels: novice, intermediate and advanced (p.166). Working with CDFs as linguistic tools

will allow students to progress in these genres as they build conceptual knowledge and improve their linguistic performance in terms of fluency, syntactic and lexical complexity, accuracy and task adequacy (Coyle & Meyer, 2021. p.166) through the application of micro-genres (CDFs).

All this means that grammar oriented or competence-based approaches that focus on the development of the four language skills are not sufficient for developing a pluriliteracies approach for deeper learning, and new strategies should be implemented in the FL classroom. Coyle and Meyer (2021) provided some guidance to start implementing the PTDL approach for deeper learning in the FL classroom:

Figure 7. Deeper learning strategies



Note. Deeper learning strategies. Adapted from Coyle and Meyer (2021)

After reflecting on how the PTDL model could be implemented in the FL classroom, it might be relevant to explore deeper linguistically appropriate and culturally relevant pedagogies. These perspectives on languages and cultures play an important role in the FL education as the requirements for FL learners are: using the language for mobility, cooperation and understanding between cultures and people with different identities. Besides, as the cultural and linguistic diversity of schools is increasing, finding the appropriate strategies to develop critical thinking and cultural consciousness among the learners to promote their intercultural communication competence seems to be vital (Agirdag, 2020; Ormaetxea-Urreta, 2021).

PTDL and Linguistically and Culturally Appropriate Practice

As it was mentioned in the introduction, one of the recommendations of the European Commission (2018) is to create language-aware schools since many European schools are becoming multilingual and multicultural places. Many students speak different languages at home and at school, and they do not have a common language with the teacher or other pupils. The cultural backgrounds are different and many pupils are learning the schooling language as a second language (European Commission, 2018, p.10). The European Commission (2018, p.10) states that education and training should be a powerful tool for integration. Actions should be taken to remove the existing barriers and promote the participation of students with immigrant backgrounds. One of the main barriers students with immigrant backgrounds find is language competence, therefore, it is essential that a comprehensive approach to language teaching and learning develops guidelines to promote linguistically and culturally inclusive practices.

Therefore, considering the reality in many European schools, and the review on foreign language approaches done in previous sections, it was clear that recent language teaching approaches have set aside more traditional grammar-based perspectives and are evolving towards more communication-oriented goals. The implementation of communicative language teaching was one of the first steps towards a language teaching methodology embracing social and cultural aspects of the language. New approaches resulted in new teaching methodologies including materials and assessment. The Common European Framework of Reference created by the Council of Europe contains all these innovations.

Additionally, the Common European Framework of Reference has also included the “Intercultural Dimension” among the aims of language teaching. The objective is to promote interaction among students of different nationalities, increase linguistic and identity awareness and create intercultural speakers.

Byram, Gribkova and Starkey (2002) developed a manual published by the European Council with practical advice on how to insert the intercultural dimension into language teaching. The authors adopt a social view of language interaction where the context and social identity of the interlocutors plays a role in the conversation. Communicative competence or the capacity to discern appropriateness within a conversation is therefore key in a successful interaction. Similarly, when sharing a conversation with a person from a different country, national identities come into play and the risk of falling into stereotypes also increases. As Byram, Gribkova and Starkey (2002) state, “the intercultural competence in language teaching aims to develop learners as intercultural speakers or mediators who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity.” (p.9). As a result, this approach aims to develop both the linguistic competence as the student will be able to speak and the cultural competence since learners should be capable of interacting with speakers from other cultures, languages and identities.

In the previous point, the role of language in the CLIL classroom has been discussed mostly in relation to “language using” to achieve deeper learning since deficit in academic language and absence of cognitive discourse functions were raised as important issues to address in the paradigm change (Vollmer, 2018; Dalton-Puffer 2007, 2015). Language is understood as a means of communication that evolves from basic literacy skills to expert subject specific literacy skills; and a tool for knowledge construction that makes the learning of the learner visible by using Cognitive Discourse Functions as the linguistic tool.

However, even though it has been claimed that “language learning” has been dominant in the CLIL classrooms (Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck, 2017 p. 6), the paradigm-change to PTDL also raised concerns in relation to “languages” and “language learning” in the CLIL classroom (Coyle, 2015; Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck, 2017; Skinnari & Nikula, 2017; Coyle, 2018).

Coyle, Halbach, Meyer & Schuck (2017, p.5) highlight that in content and language integrated contexts, where a L2 or FL is the medium of instruction, we cannot talk about “language” but we should talk about “languages”. Language is used as a plural because using a L2 or a FL as the medium of instruction does not mean that the L1 of the student would not be part of the learning process. In addition, the rapid demographic, economic, technological and political changes have changed the linguistic profiles and cultural roots of the learners (Coyle 2018, p.167-168). Multilingualism and multiculturalism come to the core of the CLIL classroom as the immigrant student population increases (Skinnari & Nikula, 2017, p.233). Therefore, even though the language of instruction is one of the official language/s of the territory, we should still talk about “languages” in the CLIL classroom as diverse linguistic profiles and cultural roots coexist in the classrooms. This is applicable to the FL CLIL classroom as different language co-exist while learning the language through real-world content related to different subject matters.

The growing linguistic and cultural diversity in schools, and consequently in CLIL programmes and FL classrooms, seem to be ignored as monolingual ideologies might still be the tendency among teachers (Skinnari & Nikula, 2017, p.241). Consequently, experts identified needs to be addressed in relation to multilingualism in the CLIL Classrooms: recognition of every language in the classroom to promote equity and inclusion; awareness of the sociolinguistic perspective among teachers; and practical knowledge on how to support multilingual students (Skinnari & Nikula, 2017, p.241).

The inclusion of the linguistic and cultural background of the students could contribute to the development of plurilingual and pluricultural competence (Coyle, 2015, p.5). Gracia (2009) emphasized that:

“bilingual education, including CLIL, is about much more than the acquisition and use of additional languages to support learning. She highlighted the need for learners to become global and responsible citizens as they learn to function across cultures and worlds, that is beyond the cultural borders in which traditional schooling often operates” (2009, p. 6).

Considering the needs and challenges raised in the PTDL approach in relation to multilingualism and multiculturalism (Gracia 2009; Coyle, 2015; Skinnari & Nikula, 2017, p.241;

Coyle, 2018; Onderwijsraad, 2020), investigating practical practices to respond appropriately to the growing diversity in our classroom may be relevant. Finding ways to get to know better the learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds; promote equity and inclusion (Skinnari & Nikula, 2017, p.233); address motivation issues; find specific approaches to encourage rapid language acquisition (Coyle, 2018) and promote the development of plurilingual and pluricultural competence to learn to function across cultures and worlds (Coyle, 2015; Garcia, 2009) may be key for successful PTDL foreign language classrooms.

Digital Tools

Previously in this theoretical framework, it was claimed that the teacher is the main agent in the implementation of teaching. The teacher is responsible to understand the context, adjust and implement appropriate teaching practices according to that specific context. Bearing in mind the rapid development of technology and the new windows that digital tools have opened in the field of education, and in FL teaching, it might be relevant to analyse the potential of digital tools in language teaching and learning as they make accessible a broad variety of language offer, increase the language exposure opportunities, provide with tools to support those languages that are not taught at school, and support the acquisition of the schooling language for pupils who are not familiar with the school language (European Commission, 2018, p. 30). Bearing in mind all these aspects, this analysis aims to offer guidelines to teachers to successfully implement the use of digital tools within the PTDL model and promote understanding of the current educational context for appropriate implementations in teaching.

The research evidence shows that the use of digital tools could activate factors involved in the four dimensions of the PTDL for learning and teaching model, for example, the empirical findings in relation to advantages and drawbacks of using digital tools and the factors that influence the teachers including digital tools in their teaching (Prasojo, Mukminin, Habibi, Marzulina, Sirozi & Harto, 2018; Zhang & Chen, 2022; Grosu & David, 2013) could help teachers in designing-evaluating and scaffolding learning. Approaches like **gamification** could create favourable conditions for students' engagement, language development competence and achievement of objectives set (Nurieva, 2020). The **flipped classroom** could help with strategic and conceptual knowledge construction while offering flexibility based on an individual's mastery level (Ghufron & Nurdianingsi, 2021). In addition to these approaches, **virtual exchange platforms** could provide authentic communicative and cultural contexts, setting affective, engaging and purposeful learning contexts where students can make their learning visible (Belz, 2003; O'Dowd & Lewis, 2016; O'Dowd, R., & O'Rourke, B., 2019).

Consequently, in the following sections the principles that determine a successful use of digital tools in the FL classroom will be defined and digital approaches such as: gamification, flipped classroom and virtual exchange platforms will be studied as the evidence shows that they might be potentially appropriate to activate the factors and integrate the dimensions within the PTDL approach in the FL classroom.

RQ2: Which factors determine successful foreign language teaching?

Successful Foreign Language Teaching

In the previous section, the pillars of a comprehensive approach to language teaching have been identified within the PTDL framework. Then, the PTDL framework has been explored within the FL classroom, and finally, the international dimension (language and culture diversity) and the digital tools were also included in the pillars of a comprehensive approach to language teaching. In the following section, the intention is to describe what a “good practice” is in the FL classroom, and for that, the factors that could determine successful foreign language teaching will be explained.

The paradigm-change from CLIL to PTDL provided a model for pluriliteracies teaching for deeper learning (Coyle, 2018, p.173). This model considers “plurilingual learning as a complex, fluid and contextually hybrid” phenomenon (Coyle, 2018 p.173). Coyle (2018) also underlines that integrated learning is not only the integration of language and content but also focuses on the growth of learner-teacher partnership. Thus, in the following lines, the factors that form the four dimensions in the model for PTDL for deeper learning will be described. The understanding of the factors within the four dimensions, with a special focus on the factors that positively respond to the international dimension in the classroom and the use of digital tools, would determine the definition of good practices in foreign language teaching.

Factors in the PTDL Model

According to Meyer et al. (2018) oversimplifying the deeper learning process into only cognitive and linguistic dimensions can be risky since learning is considered to be a social process and therefore, there are several other factors that must be taken into account. Many researchers have focused on the importance of factors other than the ones intrinsically tied to teaching and learning. In a recent study, Pietarin et al. (2014) emphasized how students' well-being and their emotional and cognitive engagement plays a key role in school achievement. Similarly, Ning and Downing (2010) observed the interaction between self-regulation and motivation. The authors discovered that self-regulation resulted in motivation and they also found that "student motivation was the strongest predictor of academic performance" (p.682). Indeed, self-regulation, when applied to learning, is defined as a process that helps learners with their thought, behaviour and emotional management in order to successfully achieve the goals set by the learning process (Zumbrunn et al., 2011). Self-regulated learning has been divided into three phases: forethought and planning, performance monitoring, and reflections on performance (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002; Zimmerman, 2000). Forethought and planning phase consist of analysing the task and setting goals towards the completion of the said task. The performance monitoring phase allows students to use strategies to advance in that task and monitor their progress. During the reflections on performance, learners assess their own performance on the task while also taking into account the effectiveness of the strategies employed (Zumbrunn et al., 2011).

Well-being, motivation, self-regulation or emotional engagement are components that have usually been considered obscure or abstract and being concepts that are hard to measure, they have been removed from research. However, there are considered to be key factors to include as part of good teaching practices.

Meyer et al. (2018) also consider components such as emotional engagement or motivation to be essential within the learning-teaching ecologies and they have therefore revise their pluriliteracies approach model and they have added another dimension dedicated to promoting and maintaining students' emotional and cognitive engagement in the classroom (Meyer et al., 2018). The authors claim that, by adding the mentoring dimension the revised model finally integrates the diverse factors involved in teaching and learning processes as well as the components needed for the creation of deeper learning ecologies (Meyer et al., 2018).

The revised Model for Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning is shown by Meyer et al. (2018) in Figure 3. In the following lines, we will be going through the components expressed by Meyers et al. (2018) in each of the dimensions of the Pluriliteracies Teaching for Deeper Learning model.

Constructing knowledge and refining skills. The constructing knowledge and refining skills dimension refers to the different kinds of knowledge: factual, conceptual, strategic and procedural. This dimension fosters the successful internalization of conceptual and factual

content knowledge and the automatization of subject specific strategies and procedures (Coyle, 2018).

Concepts are the unit of cognitive structures that are hierarchically represented in blocks of organized knowledge (Meyer, Coyle, 2017, p.8). Concepts are formed when new regularities are perceived, and consequently, new meaning and knowledge is constructed (Novak 2002). Concepts play a crucial role on how we perceive, understand and act in the world since concepts make individuals conscious about reality (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014).

Facts are known to be true, there is clear evidence, and they are usually memorized. The understanding of the concept and memorization of facts foster the internalization of conceptual and factual knowledge.

Strategies involve the actions taken to respond to a task. These strategies need to be instructed and practiced being able to develop the desired skills. Research made since the 1970s has focused on defining the concept of learning strategy (Lee, 2010). Oxford (1990) referred to learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p.134). For the past two decades, research on language learning strategies has substantially increased. Wenden (1987) defined language learning strategies based on learning behaviours, such as learning regulation; cognitive theory, including learners' strategic knowledge of language learning; and affective theory, pointing to learners' motivation and attitude. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified language learning strategies into three categories: metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective. Similarly, Rigney (1978) and Rubin (1975) defined language learning strategies as "behaviours, steps, or techniques that language learners apply to facilitate language learning" (p.136). As a result, language learners will be able to apply distinct language learning strategies when encountering a reading or writing task in a foreign language. According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies share the following characteristics:

1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed
3. Expand the role of teachers
4. Are problem-oriented
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner?
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive
7. Support learning both directly and indirectly
8. Are not always observable
9. Are often conscious
10. Can be taught

11. Are flexible
12. Are influenced by a variety of factors

Language learning strategies have been classified according to different taxonomies. O'Malley et al. (1985) distinguished three main categories within language learning strategies: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies involve executive functions, that is, these strategies require planning for learning, monitoring learning process and evaluating this process after the completion of the activity. Cognitive strategies are applied to specific learning tasks and require the manipulation of the learning material. Some of the most used cognitive strategies are: repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer or inference. Socio-affective strategies are connected with social mediation and transaction with others. Brown (2000) affirms that the main socio-affective strategies are cooperation and question for clarification.

Rubin (1987) on the other hand, differentiates strategies contributing directly to language learning from those contributing indirectly. Learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies are considered types of strategies that can contribute directly or indirectly to language learning (Rubin, 1987). Within the learning strategies, the author points out two subtypes of learning strategies that contribute directly to language learning: cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive learning strategies. Rubin (1987) identifies clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inference, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring as cognitive learning strategies. On the contrary, planning, prioritizing, setting goals and self-management are considered metacognitive learning strategies (Rubin, 1987). Communication strategies are less focused on language and more focused on participation in interaction and clarifying the meaning. Social strategies are those in which learners engage in order to practice their knowledge. These strategies expose the learners to the target language but do not address language specific objectives in a direct way.

Oxford (1990) takes the communicative aspect of the language as the main objective to reach when employing language learning strategies. The author also divides the language learning strategies classification into direct and indirect strategies. Oxford (1990) subdivides direct strategies into three subcategories: memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. Similarly, the author also divides indirect strategies into another three groups: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

Main classifications suggested for language learning strategies are summarized in the language learning strategies classification made by various researchers since the 1970s in Table 3:

Table 3. Classifications suggested for language learning strategies

Researchers & year	Language learning strategies classification		
O'Malley et al. (1985)	Metacognitive strategies		
	Cognitive strategies		
	Socio-affective strategies		
Rubin (1987)	Learning strategies	Cognitive learning strategies	Clarification / Verification
			Guessing / Inductive inference
			Deductive reasoning
			Practice
			Memorisation
			Monitoring
		Metacognitive learning strategies	Planning
			Prioritising
	Communicative strategies		
		Social strategies	
Oxford (1990)	Direct strategies	Memory strategies	Creating mental linkages
			Applying images and sounds
			Reviewing well
			Employing action
		Cognitive strategies	Practicing
			Receiving and sending messages strategies
			Analysing and reasoning
	Indirect strategies	Metacognitive strategies	Creating structure for input and output
			Centring learning
			Arranging and planning learning
		Affective strategies	Evaluating learning
			Lowering anxiety
			Encouraging oneself
		Social strategies	Taking emotional temperature
			Asking questions
Coopering with others			
	Empathising with others		

Note. Adapted from Lee (2010) and Hardan (2013).

The foreign language teacher should be aware of all these strategies and the student should be encouraged to implement, monitor and evaluate their language learning process. As the student combines different strategies, different **procedures** will be triggered (Coyle, 2017; Meyer, Coyle, 2017).

Coyle (2017, p.19) propose the following guidelines to create rich context to promote the automatization of subject specific strategies:

1. To successfully complete a task, students need to be taught when and how to apply subject specific strategies.
2. The application of the strategy in an authentic context will promote more meaningful learning, favouring the internalization of this knowledge.
3. The student needs opportunities to reflect on and receive feedback on the strategy used to support the automatization of the strategy.

The clustering of subject specific strategies, this is, a series of actions conducted in a certain order, will trigger subject specific **Procedures**, for example, the actions needed to set an experiment.

Demonstrating and communicating understanding. This dimension focuses on language as the link between meaning making and understanding of the subject matter, this is, language is used to learn, to communicate and internalize and externalize understanding. Communication refers to the language that is used for communication purposes, to construct knowledge and become aware and understand personal thinking processes (meta-cognition). This dimension promotes an essential role of language, this being shaping student's thinking and learning (Coyle, 2015, p.90-96). The factors involved in this dimension are:

The **purpose** sets the reason why the student is carrying out a certain task, therefore, to be able to communicate their knowledge, the learner should successfully identify the purpose and the audience, and based on that, choose the appropriate gender, mode and style to respond to the communicative purpose (Meyer & Coyle, 2017). The **genre** refers to the type of text that represents a discipline, for instance, a lab report (Meyer & Coyle, 2017). The cognitive discourse functions are understood as "micro genres" that could be combined to form a specific type of text that represents a discipline, Table 2 shows some examples (Meyer & Coyle, 2017).

Table 4. Cognitive Discourse Function and Corresponding Genres

Cognitive discourse function	Corresponding Genres
Report	Experiments & protocols
	Lab reports
	Investigations
	(Auto-)Biographical, historical
	Recount
	Historical report
Describe Classify	Descriptions
	Comparisons
	Compositions
	Classifications
	Historical Account
Explain Define	Temporal explanations
	Factorial / consequential explanations
	Theoretical explanations
Explore Evaluate	Arguments
	Discussions

Note: Adapted from Coyle & Meyer (2017)

The **mode** of communication is understood as the way that the message is going to be delivered, for example, orally, written or through images. Based on the purpose and the audience the student will have to use a formal or informal **style**.

Generating and sustaining commitment and achievement. One of the first components of the Generating and Sustaining Commitment and Achievement dimension, as explained by Meyer et al. (2018) is **affect**. Affective objectives embrace concepts such as attitude, self-efficacy, motivation and well-being. Affective learning outcomes have been considered crucial for education in many researches. Martin and Bolliger (2018) reported that student-teacher engagement strategies were valued most by students and resulted in a higher motivation. On the other hand, Idsoe (2016) observed how perceived inclusion by peers at school directly impacted positive and negative affect among students. As a result, creating the most appropriate learning environment becomes an essential task for teachers. These learning environments will create learning experiences that will directly shape the motivation to learn.

Deci and Ryan (2000) state that social contexts that allow the fulfilment of basic needs promote natural growth processes such as motivation while environments hindering autonomy, competence or relatedness result in poor motivation, performance and well-being. Therefore, teachers must focus on creating a learning environment that ensures the physical but also emotional well-being of the students in order to create motivation to invest effort in learning.

Self-efficacy is defined by Bandura (2006) as problem-solving ability and the expectation to succeed. Blazar and Kraft (2017) connected teaching and self-efficacy development when they

observed large effects of teachers on students' self-efficacy in different ways. They concluded that students' attitudes and behaviour were a direct result of teaching practices. Additionally, other research has also shown that it is not only students' self-efficacy that impacts their performance, but teachers' own self-efficacy also impacts children directly (Woolfolk & Davis, 2006).

Furthermore, emotional well-being has also been identified as an influential factor of the learning outcome of students. Well-being is defined as a multi-faceted construct referring to the psychological, cognitive, social and physical functioning as determined by a multitude of factors (OECD 2017, p.62). Surprisingly, it was not until 2015 that the PISA study started gathering information about the students' well-being at schools. Well-being has been directly connected with health and both thoroughly several aspects of daily life including personal growth, motivation, learning and achievement (Konu & Lintonen, 2006; Suhrcke & de Paz Nieves, 2011).

Another concept that has a high impact in the learning process is **engagement**. Engagement is explained as the level of active involvement of the student in activities created for learning. Meyer et al. (2018) describe it as a multidimensional construct that consists of behavioural, cognitive, emotional and social patterns of behaviour. Cognitive engagement is showcased as the effort invested to acquire successful learning habits.

Mastery or the dominance of certain knowledge and skills is an important objective of the teaching and learning processes (Meyer et al., 2018). Teachers have, therefore, the responsibility to provide students with activities, learning environments and feedback that allows the students to be aware of their progress and achievements.

Reflection is the last construct contained within the Generating and Sustaining Commitment and Achievement dimension suggested by Meyers et al. (2018). Self-reflection has been considered essential for self-regulated learning according to many researchers (Boekaerts, 1999; Zimmerman, 2000). An appropriate self-regulated learning helps the students adapt their learning goals, learning and studying behaviour (Heemsoth & Heinze, 2016; Lüftenegger et al., 2012) have concluded that self-reflection is a predictor of interest, motivation and confidence in one's own abilities.

Mentoring, learning and personal growth. According to Meyer et al. (2018), learners will not commit successfully with their learning needs unless they connect and engage with the content and objectives posed by the teacher. Following these lines, the authors claim that the first three dimensions "(1) generating and sustaining achievement and commitment, (2) construction knowledge and refining skills, and (3) demonstrating and communicating understanding" (p.246) are complemented by a fourth dimension that reflects teacher's role in the teaching-learning process.

As a result, the Mentoring, Learning and Personal Growth dimension focuses on key aspects regarding teachers' role and design and evaluations, scaffolding, and providing feedback and assessment tasks.

Designing and evaluation learning. Although recent approaches advocate for putting aside teacher-centred designs and adopting student-focused perspectives where teachers become mere facilitators, Meyers et al. (2018) claim that deeper learning requires teachers to adopt a “proactive role in driving the learning process forward using whatever strategy works best according to individual learners and tasks.” (p.246) This process will require interaction and dialogue about learning. Other researchers have also supported this idea of the teacher as an “activator” of the learning process, more than a facilitator (Hattie, 2012). Therefore, Meyers et al. (2018) affirm that it is not the tag of the teacher that is in debate but the capacity of teachers and students to work together towards shared goals. As a result, instead of identifying the teacher as a mentor, the authors state that the PTDL model requires teachers to “design and evaluate the dynamic processes involved in mentoring for learning” (p.247). An appropriate design will require scaffolding provided by feedback and assessment (Meyers et al., 2018).

The term **scaffolding** originated as a construction-field term that later, was metaphorically coined in the learning process. It was first introduced into the educational area in the 1970s by Bruner and Sherwood (1976) and Wood et al. (1976). Scaffolding has been closely connected with Vygotskian sociocultural theory, and more specifically to the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Vygotsky distinguished two development stages: the actual development level and the potential level and the ZPD is defined as “the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Scaffolding has been defined as the support given to the learners in order to move from their current developmental stage towards their potential developmental stage. Scaffolding is therefore an adaptive support structure provided to learners to help them with self-regulated learning. The term scaffolding has transitioned from parent-child interaction to teacher-student interaction (Gonulal & Loewen, 2018). Moreover, scaffolding can take place in expert-novice interactions, but it can also take place among same-level peers, which means it does not need to be only from teacher to student but it can also happen among students (Gonulal & Loewen, 2018).

Scaffolding helps students work on their content and linguistic tools but also on their self-confidence through feedback and assessment provided by teachers. Implication and involvement of students in defining learning tasks and objectives ensures that they make sense of the process, increasing their motivation and commitment (Meyers et al., 2018).

Coyle and Meyer (2021) suggest a “reconceptualisation of scaffolding as mentoring learning which is both dynamic (because it spans every phase of learning-teaching) and multi-dimensional (because it targets every domain of learning).” (p.176). In order to implement this mentoring of learning, teachers should foresee potential difficulties in the learning process and provide the appropriate support to overcome those obstacles.

The transition from surface to deeper learning takes place through a collaboration of students and teachers in both physical and virtual spaces (Stoll & Louis, 2007). There are many recommendations centred on providing teachers with strategies to engage students. However,

Meyers et al. (2018) claim that PTDL's distinctive approach requires teachers to use strategies that will promote engagement alongside confidence, personal growth and autonomous lifelong learning. Scaffolding can also be provided using the L1 of the students (Romli et al., 2021) or it has been also implemented by using flipped-classrooms (Rajaram, 2019).

Feedback and Assessment. Corrective feedback has been defined as “information from any source regarding the learner’s L2 performance in order to stimulate acquisition” (Cornillie et al., 2012, p.50). Several research has confirmed that providing feedback is beneficial for foreign language acquisition and that it has a lasting effect on it (Ellis et al., 2006; Russell & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Vandeveld, 2019; Surma, Vanhoyweghen, Sluijsmans, Camp, Muijs & Kirschner, 2019). Feedback has been provided in various ways including implicit feedback, explicit feedback, recasts (reformulations of learner’s words correcting the error); reformulations (positive evidence) or prompts (signals of error) among others (Cornillie et al., 2012). It can be exchanged among students or between the teacher and the students. Feedback points towards a mutual understanding of the progression the students are doing regarding their growth in the different aspects of the pluriliteracies approach (Meyers et al., 2018). Transparency and co-design of the rubrics is key to engage students in their own evaluation process. Additionally, formative assessment will provide students with diverse feedback including peer and self-assessment. Evaluation criteria must be carefully designed and agreed upon, so it gives the students the opportunity to improve their performance. Claxton et al. (2011) affirms that adaptive feedback and integrated assessment play a crucial role in helping students to learn from mistakes and coping with it. PTDL aims to create a dialogue situation in which both teacher and student discuss and understand the progress within interconnected dimensions of learning exposed by the PTDL model.

Both feedback and assessment must consider and deeply reflect on the pedagogical objectives targeted (Keijzer et al., 2016; Vanhoof & Speltincx, 2022). Feedback has been considered the “critical nexus between learning goals, tasks and learning outcomes for deeper learning, on the one hand, and student engagement, task performance and the development of a growth mindset on the other” (p.110). Hattie & Timperley (2007) defined feedback as the “information provided by an agent (e.g. teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one’s performance or understanding’ (p.81). According to the author’s work, feedback should be guided by three key questions: (1) where am i going? Or feed-up (2) how am I going? Or feedback and (3) where to next? Or feed-forward. Coyle, D., & Meyer, O. (2021) recommend building rubrics, goals, processes and tasks collaboratively so the objectives are transparent. Students’ involvement in the process results in a successful task completion and improvement.

Intercultural Competence. The international/intercultural dimension/competence was identified to belong to the generating and sustaining commitment and achievement dimension as affective (attitudes, motivation and well-being) and engagement (cognitive, emotional, behavioural, social) factors are involved in this dimension. To successfully integrate intercultural competence in the FL teaching, it is essential to understand this concept and identify the principles that will determine good practices to promote and develop intercultural competence in the FL Classroom.

Linguistically and Culturally Appropriate Language Teaching

Intercultural understanding or intercultural competence, terms that have been interchangeably used, is “a disposition and competence, and includes: knowledge and understanding; beliefs, values, and attitudes; intercultural, interpersonal and life skills; and engagement in positive action” (Rader, 2018 p. 24). Byram, Gribkova & Starkey (2002) described the components of intercultural competence as follows: attitudes referring mainly to curiosity and openness, “readiness to suspend any disbelief about other cultures and belief about one’s own” (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002, p.12). Knowledge about different social groups and communities and about its products and practices. Skills of comparison, interpreting, relating, discovery, interaction; and critical cultural awareness to evaluate on the basis of different criteria cultural perspectives, practices and products (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002). At this time, when the world is confronted with local and global issues in relation to migration, sustainability, climate change or water scarcity; cultural understanding plays a crucial role to foster the collaboration and communication needed across cultures (Rader, 2018) and develop inclusive citizenship among the young learners. Inclusive citizenship refers to the competences needed in order to function as a democratically and interculturally competent citizen (Council of Europe, 2016).

The need to be an informed, compassionate and engaged member in the local and global community is also visible in our classrooms, as Garcia (2009) mentioned, learners need to become global citizens and develop a international mindedness (Rader, 2018) as the classrooms are also becoming more and more linguistically and culturally diverse. Therefore, Rader (2018) claims that intercultural understanding needs to be strategically, intentionally and mindfully developed by every teacher, not only foreign language teachers, and across the whole curriculum (Rader, 2018). The European council (2016) also provides a framework to develop competences required for democratic culture and intercultural dialogue to foster inclusive citizenship among learners.

According to Byram, Gribkova & Starkey (2002), one of the main concerns among the teachers when teaching interculturality is the lack of knowledge about these cultures. Teachers wonder how they are going to teach a culture without previously having any exposure to it. Byram, Gribkova & Starkey (2002) emphasize that the goal of teaching intercultural dimension “is not the transmission of information about a foreign country” (p.14). According to the researchers, the intercultural dimension focuses on: helping learners to understand how intercultural interaction takes place; how social identities are part of all interaction; how their perceptions of other people and others people's perceptions of them influence the success of communication; how they can find out for themselves more about the people with whom they are communicating. (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002, p.14).

Therefore, teachers do not need to have extensive knowledge about the culture they want to talk about. Besides, it is nearly impossible to know everything about a culture since the diversity

found within any social group is greater than imagined and additionally, identity as well as social beliefs and values and concepts that evolve and change. The teacher can give some information about the culture, but the main goal of the teacher is to design activities and class-contexts that help create a conversation among students. The objective of the teacher is hence, to create tasks that allow the learners to make a comparison with their own culture and perspective. When designing tasks, for instance, the teacher could put issues of poverty and social justice in the tasks to create meaningful context to work on the values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and critical understanding (Council of Europe, 2016) to develop inclusive citizenship among learners.

The first step to respond to the teacher's concern mentioned by Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, (2002) and some of the challenges mentioned before regarding multiculturalism and multilingualism in CLIL classrooms (Gracia 2009; Coyle, 2015; Skinnari & Nikula, 2017, p.241; Coyle, 2018) could be to provide opportunities for teachers to develop intercultural competence, only then, teachers would be able to design and implement a culturally responsive curriculum and accompany students in the development of their personal intercultural competence (Rader, 2018) to create an inclusive classroom.

In order to create linguistically and culturally inclusive classrooms, a very important aspect is to be able to “really see” your students, valuing their cultural and linguistic identity would promote a “sense of belonging” in the group (Rader, 2018). Nevertheless, seeing the “other”, your students, and accompanying them in their development of intercultural competence may be challenging if you have not reflected on certain aspects yourself as a teacher. As Rader mentions “it is through understanding and valuing our own personal and cultural identity that we are able to recognise the value that personal and cultural identity holds for others as well” (Rader, 2018 p.).

The teacher should reflect on personal identity, for instance: “what are the cultures and languages that make me who I am? What beliefs and values do I hold and how were they formed? What is my personal story and what has been my life experience?” (Rader, 2018). Becoming aware of the value of your personal identity will help you as a teacher value, respect and honour your students' identity. Besides, the better you “see” your students the more will you get to know yourself, as intercultural understanding involves a reciprocal process (Rader, 2018). It would also be crucial for teachers to reflect on the complexity of identity, the dichotomies between “me” and the “other” and the relationships between dominant and subordinate identities to become aware of the unequal power and avoid falling into stereotypes and internalize negative messages about the subordinate identities (Rader, 2018).

As you are involved in the reciprocal process of getting to know yourself and your students, it is vital that you reserve time to ask questions to your students and families to get to know who they are, and give them time to tell you who they really are. Otherwise, incorrect assumptions could be made, especially because there is an increasing number of “Third Culture Kids”, who are having different “cross cultural” experiences, growing in our classrooms. Rader (2018) defines Third Culture Kids as children who spend most of their developmental years outside of the

culture of their parents as they do not live in the passport country or they have moved inside the country, for this reason, their identity is influenced by these cultures to varying degrees. A child who is living or has lived, has meaningfully interacted with two or more cultures for a significant period of time is defined as a Cross Cultural Kid (up to age 18) (Rader, 2018). The new cross cultural experiences have included new profiles to the Third Culture Kids we could find in our classrooms: “children from bi/multicultural homes, bi/multiracial homes/ children of immigrants, children of refugees, children of borderlands, children of minorities, international adoptees, educational cross cultural kids who go to school within a different cultural context than the traditional home culture or schools, and domestic cross cultural kids who have moved within subcultures within the child’s home country” (Rader, 2018).

Bearing this in mind, getting to know how your students and their families identify themselves becomes increasingly important to be able to understand the cultural differences in the classroom and work together, growing learner-teacher partnership (Coyle, 2018, p. 173). In addition to that, it is significant to provide students with opportunities to explore their identities as we also acknowledge all of their cultures and languages that make them who they are (Rader, 2018). This could be the key for intercultural inclusion and a transition from “assimilation” (fitting in, being like everyone else) to “integration” (belonging, being who you are and reaching in to the new culture; adapting) as “when students are valued they are more deeply engaged, and when they value themselves they can more deeply engage with others” (Rader, 2018). Another practical strategy that Byram, Gribkova & Starkey (2002) recommend is using role-playings or simulations in order to increase self-awareness and encourage observation.

Considering the diversity among the students in increasing numbers of our classrooms, and the different profiles that have emerged from third culture kids (Rader, 2018), it is important to highlight that “no curriculum for language education should or could be transposed directly from one national system to another” (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002, p.15). If doing so, one of the pillars of the PTDL approach, generating and sustaining commitment and achievement would not be appropriately applied in the classroom. Another issue common to teachers and linked to the curriculum is the need to follow a previously designed curriculum. In these cases, Byram, Gribkova & Starkey (2002) recommend starting with the themes or topics suggested in the textbook or material selected and then, to move forward into more critical and intercultural topics that can be related. One of the strategies can be connected with making the students start with familiar situations and then, ask them to reimagine those situations in an unfamiliar context.

If direct encounters with other cultures are not available, then teachers should prepare students to ask the appropriate questions. Thus, teachers can help students understand that retaining their own culture and languages and reaching into the new cultural context are equally important to understand each other better and be able to learn, work and live together (Rader, 2018).

The following Table 5 summarizes the principles that should be considered to successfully work on intercultural competence in the FL classroom:

Table 5. Principles that determine the development of Intercultural Competence (IC)

- Intercultural competence is not developed by transmitting information about countries to students.
- Intercultural competences focus on:
 - Helping learners to understand how intercultural interaction takes place.
 - How social identities are part of all interaction.
 - How their perceptions of other people and other people's perceptions of them influence the success of communication.
 - How they can find out for themselves more about the people with whom they are communicating.
- The main goal of the teacher is to design activities and class-contexts that help create a conversation among students.
- The teacher must develop intercultural competence himself/herself to be able to really “see” the students and create conversations between them.
- The teacher reserves time to get to know the students and their family.
- The teacher is aware of the new third culture kids profiles that could be found in the classrooms.
- The teacher provides students with opportunities to explore their identities and acknowledges all of their cultures and languages that make them who they are.
- The teacher creates an inclusive classroom where students feel they belong.
- The teacher designs tasks where students can work on the values, skills, attitudes, knowledge and critical understanding needed to develop inclusive citizenship.

(Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002; Rader, 2018 Council of Europe, 2016)

Principles that determine successful use of digital tools in FL

Digital tools have been related to the four dimensions defined in the PTDL. The potential of digital tools to engage students, assist in language development and objective achievement; offer flexibility based on different mastery-levels to construct knowledge; create authentic and purposeful communicative context to make learning visible; and help teachers in designing, evaluating and scaffolding learning, could be worth to look at when defining a good practice in FL teaching (Mesie, Perry, & Rose, 2017). The objective in this section will be to identify the principles that determine successful use of digital tools in the FL classroom. To achieve this objective, the results of studies that aim to understand the influence of teacher's training and beliefs; school culture and school conditions; and the advantages and disadvantages of the use of e-learning will be considered.

Teacher training, beliefs and school culture. The study conducted by Prasojo, Mukminin, Habibi, Marzulina, Sirozi and Harto (2018) aimed to identify the beliefs teacher trainees have in relation to digital tools; how the new generation of teachers, which could be the first “digital native teachers” generation integrate digital tools in their teaching; and what obstacles they identify when integrating digital tools in the classroom.

The study results showed that the students had had appropriate training at university and they were used to using technology for education, communication, entertainment and business. However, the majority of participants did not make use of digital tools during their lessons. 12 out of 60 students integrated digital tools in their teaching activity. The devices used were projectors and laptops and the applications included: Microsoft PowerPoint, PDF reader, Microsoft Excel, and Microsoft Word (Prasojo et al., 2018, p. 26).

Regarding the beliefs of the teachers, the study found out that around 80% of participants believed that digital tools has a positive impact in teaching activities. The participants underline digital tools as a way to promote acquisition and comprehension of knowledge, draw students' attention, give cutting-edge information, provide information in many forms (videos, pictures, diagrams, text), foster active participation (Prasojo et al., 2018, p. 27).

Finally, the study found that the main concern of the participants were the school culture and the conditions of the facilities, for instance, broken tools, electric instability and poor classrooms (Prasojo et al., 2018 p. 28). Furthermore, the processes established at school to make use of the facilities seemed an obstacle for teachers affecting their decisions in integrating digital tools in the classroom (Prasojo et al., 2018 p. 28).

Considering the results of this study, it could be concluded that some of the aspects that determine the successful use of digital tools in the FL classroom are teacher training, teacher beliefs and the school culture and condition. The research work done by Zhang & Chen (2022) supports that there is a clear connection between the teacher's Technological Pedagogical

Content Knowledge (TPACK) and the teacher's actions, this is, actual technology use in teaching (Zhang & Chen, 2022 p. 13). This study contributed to clarify that teachers with TPACK not only showed intention and positive behaviour, but they would also take action.

Zhang and Chen (2022, p.15) also underlined that to successfully integrate digital tools in the FL program, it is necessary that the FL teachers are prepared with the appropriate proficiency, methodological strategies to teach the subject and the skills to combine technological and non-technological resources. These aspects should be guaranteed in order to integrate digital tools successfully and have a positive impact. Prasojo et al., (2018) study showed that current teachers seem to be prepared and convinced that digital tools have benefits to offer in the teaching and learning process, nevertheless, without the appropriate facilities, tools, resources and bureaucratic processes it is challenging to integrate technology programs in education (Prasojo et al., 2018 p. 30).

Advantages and drawbacks of e-learning. Grosu and David (2013) investigated the advantages and drawbacks of e-learning in relation to the fulfilment of learner's needs in the foreign language classroom. The results show that the advantages identified by students and teachers are those related to learning autonomy, time management, flexibility of interaction, innovation, reduction of cost and fast access. The ones identified only by students are: objective assessment, lack of peer and teacher pressure, access to more than one specialist and people from different cultural backgrounds. Teachers point out that not only linguistic skills are improved through e-learning but also other skills such as computer literacy and students' sense of responsibility (Grous & David, 2013, p.48-49).

The findings show that the disadvantages mentioned by students and teachers are: large variety and confusing e-platforms, no face-to-face contact, challenging to keep a steady learning schedule, difficulties to improve speaking skills, lack of immediate teacher feedback and internet access difficulties (Grous & David, 2013 p. 49). The drawbacks mentioned only by students are related to health issues (too much screen time), easy distraction with other online activities and difficulties in developing study strategies and habits (Grous & David, 2013 p. 49). Teachers remark the lack of opportunities for students to compare their progress with others for assessment purposes. Assessing students' progress and improvement also becomes challenging as they do not understand the whole picture of the students' process. Besides, the need to adapt materials for e-learning and respond to the needs of diverse students is underlined by teachers (Grous & David, 2013 p.50).

In conclusion, the investigation shows that e-learning seems to be more beneficial for students as it enhances accessibility, time management, reduction of costs and the attractiveness of innovation through digital tools. Teachers and students felt that e-learning challenged the opportunities to work on speaking skills, technical problems had a negative impact and the large e-learning platform variety seemed confusing (Grous & David, 2013 p.50).

Therefore, it could be concluded that the investigation offered a better understanding of the advantages and drawbacks in relation to e-learning in the FL classroom. Based on the results, the researchers recommend a blended teaching approach in order to maximize the learning

process of the students. This solution could help respond to some of the challenges raised during the investigation and build bridges between traditional and digital education.

Factors that determine successful use of digital tools in the FL classroom. The results of the studies reviewed above reveal the factors that should be considered to use digital tools successfully in the FL classroom. On the one hand, the teachers should have appropriate training on the field and a positive attitude towards implementing digital tools in the classroom (Prasojo et al., 2018; Zhang & Chen, 2022). However, the finding provided by Prasojo et al., (2018) showed that the school culture and school conditions are determining for teachers to integrate digital tools in their teaching. Thus, the cooperation of teacher training services and the schools to prepare teachers and provide them with appropriate resources and procedures seems to be an important aspect to promote good digital-tool practices in the FL classrooms. In 1987, Chickering and Gamson (1987), established certain principles to define a good practice of digital tools:

1. Stimulate contact between teachers and students.
2. Develop cooperation between the students.
3. Use active learning techniques.
4. Provide immediate feedback.
5. Allow tasks to be carried out on schedule.
6. Communicate positive expectations.
7. Respect the diversity of capacities and modes of learning.

Although these were established long ago, Alonso-García et al. (2019) consider them basic parameters for the proper use of digital tools as good teaching practices. Alonso-García et al. (2019) conducted a systematic literature review targeting studies covering good teaching practices with the use of digital tools at higher education level in Spain. The authors ended up reflecting the results of 27 different papers. Answering to their second research question “what were the good teaching practices with digital tools?” Alonso-García et al. (2019) found some common characteristics among papers:

1. The focus of the activity was on the student
2. The use of digital tools encouraged collaborative work
3. Digital tools favoured autonomy

The authors claimed that the seven principles proposed by Chickering and Gamson (1987) were present in all the 27 research articles analysed within their study and the main emphasis was placed on prioritizing collaborative learning among students.

The findings of Grosu and David (2013) helped identify other factors that should be considered when talking about good use of digital tools in the classroom. This study points out that a

blended approach could be a possibility to benefit students from the use of digital tools in the FL classroom and overcome the challenges identified in online learning programs. The blended approach could promote learning autonomy, flexibility of instruction, fast access to learning materials, innovation and time management skills (Grosu & David, 2013). Special attention should be given to designing a clear e-platform in order to offer the best conditions for students to get all the benefits mentioned earlier. In addition to that, the blended approach should provide adequate face to face time to offer a steady learning schedule, provide opportunities to work on speaking skills and receive feedback from the teachers and the other students. The face-to-face time should also provide the teacher with better evidence of the learning process of the student and the opportunity to better respond to the diversity of the classroom (Grosu & David, 2013).

Table 6 below summarizes the main principles that determine a successful use of digital tools in the FL classroom:

Table 6. Principles that determine successful use of digital tools in the FL classroom

- Teachers should have been trained to use digital tools in the classroom.
- Teachers should have Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge.
- Teachers should believe that digital tools have a positive impact in teaching
- The school culture and the school conditions should provide good quality resources and straightforward procedures to use digital tools in teaching.
- Teachers should be prepared with the appropriate proficiency, methodological strategies to teach the subject and the skills to combine technological and non-technological resources.
- The teacher should use a blended approach to promote the advantages of e-learning and overcome the challenges of full-time online teaching.
- The blended approach should promote learning autonomy, time management, flexibility of interaction, and innovation.
- The activities should be focused on the students.
- The use of digital tools should foster collaborative work among students.
- The e-platform used for the blended approach should be clear and help students develop study strategies and habits.
- Face-to-face learning should focus on developing speaking skills and provide immediate feedback.
- Face-to-face time should provide enough evidence to create a “picture” of the students’ progress and improvement.

(Grosu & David, 2013; Zhang & Chen, 2022; Prasajo, Mukminin, Habibi, Marzulina, Sirozi & Harto, 2018; Alonso-García et al, 2019)

Defining good teaching practice. Throughout this section the factors that determine successful foreign language teaching have been explained. First, the factors that build the four dimensions of the PTDL model have been explained to facilitate the understanding of all of the factors this model considers promoting deeper learning in the classroom. Then, intercultural competence was placed in the dimension of generating and sustaining commitment and achievement, and the factors to consider in the FL classroom in relation to intercultural competence were explained. Finally, digital tools were linked to the four dimensions of the PTDL model and the factors that define a good use of digital tools were underlined. Thus, considering all the factors identified, in the following lines a definition of a “good practice” will be provided.

The Figure 4 developed to visually explain the model for pluriliteracies teaching for deeper learning (Coyle, 2018, p.173) shows that a good practice of FL teaching is based on the integration of the four dimensions: constructing knowledge and refining skills; demonstrating and communicating understanding; generating and sustaining commitment and achievement; and mentoring learning and personal growth. The integration of the dimensions involves all the factors and components that play a crucial role in the teaching and learning processes to achieve deeper learning (Meyer et al., 2018).

Due to the rapid demographic, economic, technological and political changes components within some of the dimensions have been highlighted by experts, for instance, the development of intercultural competence to foster well-being among the increasing amount of immigrant and third culture students in the PTDL classroom, and using digital tools appropriately to assist students with different linguistic and cultural profiles in their knowledge construction and skills developments (Coyle 2018; Skinnari & Nikula, 2017).

Therefore, a good practice of FL teaching should integrate the four dimensions of the PTDL model, paying special attention to the intercultural competence and the use of digital tools. The teacher needs to focus on creating rich contexts, as explained in Table 3, where conversation between students and cultures take place as students get opportunities to explore their identities. In terms of Byram, Gribkova & Starkey (2002), “the ‘best’ teacher is neither the native nor the non-native speaker, but the person who can help learners see relationships between their own and other cultures, can help them acquire interest in and curiosity about ‘otherness’, and an awareness of themselves and their own cultures seen from other people’s perspectives” (p.10). Creating inclusive classrooms where students feel like they belong will impact students’ affect, engagement, mastery and reflection, consequently, students will generate and sustain commitment towards learning and have greater achievements. The appropriate use of digital tools combined with face-to-face teaching as seen in Table 6 provides strategies and procedures to students to construct knowledge and refine skills. Furthermore, the effective use of digital tools allows “the transformation of educational practices into more collaborative, interactive, and motivating models for the student” (Alonso-García et al., 2019, p.2; Fernández, 2016), which triggers the integration of the rest of the PTDL model’s dimensions.

RQ3: How can digital and virtual tools and the international dimension promote language teaching?

Digital Tools

This theoretical framework has identified and explained the pillars of a comprehensive approach to language teaching within the PTDL framework. In addition to that, the factors that determine successful foreign language teaching, with special emphasis on intercultural competence and the use of digital tools in the FL classroom have been identified. In the following section, the aim is to provide practical tools to enhance language teaching by integrating digital tools in the FL teaching and working on intercultural competence.

Gamification. The world is becoming more and more digitalised, rapidly, daily human activities require digital tools and processes (Camacho & Iruskieta, 2021; Delarue, 2017; Mesie & Kammenga, 2020). Therefore, the new generation called the generation Z, borned in 2000-2019, is growing up actively using tablets, gadgets and smart watches as a Digital Native (Prensky, 2010). The digitalization of society and the characteristics of the digital generations is having a great impact in education and pedagogy, fostering the evolution of traditional approaches, for instance, the use of traditional game mechanism education into Gamification in digital education (Nurieva, 2020). Gamification is defined as the usage of game elements and game mechanics in non-game contexts to engage users and solve problems (Herger, 2014).

The main difference between “game” and “gamification” is the location of the player. In the game, the player moves to the gaming space, while in gamification, the player stays in the real world to fulfil personal goals driven by inner motivation, this is, the player does not acquire any role he/she reminds him/herself while achieving personal goals (Nurieva, 2020, p. 1852).

As the main aim of gamification is to engage students in the educational process, it is present alongside the educational course, from setting the goals to becoming able to apply the knowledge gained (Nurieva, 2020). However, in order to effectively implement gamification in the foreign language teaching, it is important to become aware of the different types of players we can find in our students. Richard Bartle (2004) defined four types of players:

1. Killers: they are very competitive. The main aim is to win and for that they fight against other players.
2. Achievers: earning points, levels and virtual goods is the main aim of achievers, not necessarily to succeed in the game but to feel prestigious for having these items.
3. Socializers: they play to communicate with other people and users, the game itself is not important for them.
4. Explorers: They are very curious; their goal is to discover the virtual goal and its hidden places.

The students in the classroom can change their characteristics based on the situation as all of them contain all the previously defined player characteristics in them, even though some characteristics may be more dominant in some students (Nurieva, 2020).

Another aspect that should be considered to implement gamification effectively is the different components that this approach is built of: game elements, game design techniques and non-game context:

Game elements

Game elements are formed by game mechanisms and game dynamics. The combination of these elements motivates students in their learning process where effort is awarded but failure is not punished.

- Game mechanics: scores, levels, badges, trophies, leader boards, tasks, avatars and individual profiles.
- Game dynamics: achievements, competition, progress, collaboration and surprise
- Game design techniques: this component refers to the visual experience of the game.
- Non-game context: this component refers to the educational objectives behind the game.

The study conducted by Nurieva (2020) at the high school level aimed to confirm if teaching with gamification technology was more effective than traditional ways of teaching. The results show that gamification has a great pedagogical potential since the study demonstrated that gamification leads to achieving objectives sets in the foreign language classroom and improving learners' language competence. Nevertheless, the investigation identified a need to continue investigating didactic, methodological and psychological aspects to effectively apply technological gamification in the learning process (Nurieva, 2020, p.1858).

Flipped classrooms

The flipped classroom is an instructional strategy where students learn new information mostly through videos outside of the classroom to later engage in realistic problem-solving activities in the classroom with the teacher (Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2021). This blended learning strategy allows the students to learn at their own speed and increase their active participation in the classroom as they already had time to become familiar with the new concepts outside of the classroom (Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2021).

This strategy could be beneficial in the foreign language classrooms. It is known that to successfully learn a foreign language practice over an extended period of time is necessary. Thus, students should be provided with many activities where they can actively participate to develop the foreign language learning outcomes. Due to the insufficient time in the classroom for the desirable number of active activities, extending the teaching time outside the classroom

to work on the different concepts of the foreign language, for later, actively practice them in the classroom seems to be a possible solution that digital tools can bring to foreign language teaching (Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2021). In addition to that, flipped classrooms bring students to the center promoting their active participation in the classroom and giving them the autonomy to work on the materials outside the classroom (Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2021, p.121).

The study carried out by Ghufron & Nurdianingsi (2021) evaluated the strengths, weaknesses and effectiveness of flipped classrooms with computer- assisted language learning in the English as Foreign Language writing class. Previous research on the implementation of the flipped classroom in EF teaching showed positive results, for instance in listening skills (Vaezi, Afghari & Lotfi, 2019); developing speaking skills, improving fluency and clarity, lexical capital, grammar precision and pronunciation skills (Köroglu & Cakir, 2017); writing skills (Zou & Xie, 2019).

Previous studies also reported advantages of using flipped classroom in the EF classroom: creation of less disruptive educational environments (Amiryousefi, 2017); encourages students to learn new words and concepts outside the classroom, helps them with problem solving and boosts students' motivation (Boyraaz & Ocak, 2017); decreases students' nervousness (Chen Hsieh et al., 2017); promotes the development of learners' in-depth learning strategies (Gasmi, 2017) and improves learner digital-tool skills (Huang & Hong, 2016).

Challenges about the implementation of FC have also been reported: internet related problems (Egbert, Herman, & Lee, 2015), benefits only inspired learners (Yang, 2017) and extra workload for learners and teachers (Zhang, 2017). The effect of FC has also been investigated and even though most studies confirmed the effectiveness of the FC in the EFL classroom, some studies demonstrated that FC is not effective in EFL context, reporting no significant difference between the groups using traditional and FC approach (Al-Harbi & Alshumaimeri, 2016; Suranakkharin, 2017).

The study conducted by Ghufron and Nurdianingsih (2021) revealed that applying FL with CALL in the EF writing class has several advantages: stimulating learners autonomy, improving learning and teaching processes, providing more time for practice and feedback during the face-to-face sessions, promoting active learning, promoting students' responsibility to learning, promoting collaboration and cooperation among students, providing flexibility for students and teachers in the learning process, increasing motivation, engaging students in the learning process and development of digital tool skills.

The weaknesses identified in the application of FC with CALL in the EF writing class are: extra time for material preparation, increase of teachers' workload, technological problems faced by students, low motivated students do not have high commitment to learning (Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2021). Finally, the study reports that the application of FC in the EFL writing class is moderately effective (Ghufron & Nurdianingsih, 2021).

Tools to work on the four skills

Macaro, Handley and Walter (n.d) review aimed to analyse the effectiveness of computer assisted language learning in the primary and secondary phases of L2 education. The findings revealed positive findings regarding vocabulary learning using different multimedia tools, however, the results seem to be inconclusive due to problems in the study design. In relation to grammar, the results show that the use of discussion forums did not have a significant impact on grammar acquisition (Macaro, Handley & Walter, n.d). The review concluded that using ASR-based computer-assisted pronunciation training system PARLING should be further investigated since even though there was not significant difference between the control and the experiential group, the results show that technology may be helpful to improve students' pronunciation (Macaro, Handley & Walter n.d).

In relation to reading comprehension there is a lack of clear advantages, the technologies used are: FastForWord, multimedia storytelling website, social tagging and discussion forums (Macaro, Handley & Walter, n.d). The studies reviewed about listening skills contain a study using interactive digital stories, a game-based system (virtual presentation), which found out that the use of the technology had a positive impact on listening skills. On the other hand, email exchange seems to also have some positive impact, however, the use of fast-forward programs and netbook did not have a positive impact compared to the control group. Thus, the results seem conflicting, nevertheless, those only focused on listening skills reported positive results (Macaro, Handley & Walter, n.d).

Studies that looked into the improvement of writing skills through the use of technology, in this case the use of WIKI, show positive findings, however, only one study was reviewed as the rest did not show a rigorous study design (Macaro, Handley & Walter, n.d). Speaking studies show that there is not strong evidence to support that technology helps improve speaking skills, however, the evidence suggests that the combination of technology and non-technological pedagogies could be beneficial. Technology used: text chat, voice chat (Macaro, Handley & Walter, n.d).

Virtual exchange platforms

Virtual exchange platforms or telecollaboration have been important intercultural tools designed for bringing students from different cultures, languages and national identities together in order to promote learners' languages skills, digital competence and intercultural capacities (Belz, 2003; O'Dowd & Lewis, 2016; O'Dowd & O'Rourke, 2019).

According to O'Dowd and O'Rourke (2019) virtual exchange programs have gone through a tremendous growth in recent years becoming one of the most popular applications in foreign language teaching. Apart from being a tool to develop linguistic competence, its potential for online intercultural exchange programs has also been emphasized. Tools such as Conversifi and Talkabroad are providing the students with the opportunity of sharing experiences and

opinions with their intercultural counterparts no matter how far they are. X-Culture was also an example of a teacher-student network to provide learners with international experience online.

There are many other examples of virtual exchange platforms, some of them identify themselves as non-for-profit organizations: The Sharing Perspectives Foundation aims to provide learners with the opportunity to collaboratively learn about socio-political issues across the world (Sharing Perspectives, 2019; O'Dowd & O'Rourke, 2019). Similarly, Soliya is another platform that wants students to establish more collaborative and compassionate relations (Soliya, 2019). Both these projects are among the initiatives promoted by the Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange project sponsored by the European Commission (O'Dowd & O'Rourke, 2019).

Another popular example of this virtual exchange platform is eTwinning, sponsored by the Lifelong Learning Programme of the European Union. eTwinning aims to establish cooperation among schools of different countries to develop joint projects using the virtual platform offered by the eTwinning portal. Some research has also pointed out the contribution that eTwinning makes to teachers across countries by providing them with different experiences and perspectives on foreign language teaching (Holmes, 2013). Other researchers have also pointed out that eTwinning is likely to be one of the most important tools to develop intercultural competence while also acquiring linguistic competence (da Silva, 2011; Akdemir, 2017). When observing the potential advantages and disadvantages of eTwinning, Akdemir (2017) reported answers of the participants as follows. The majority of them through the main advantages of the platform were: enabling intercultural exchange, enhancing learning/teaching, raising student engagement and developing language skills. When asked about the disadvantages, students stated that the disadvantages were mainly: the lack of digital-tool literacy (both students and teachers), infrastructural drawbacks, difficulty in finding a suitable partner and the need to follow the curriculum (p.185).

When talking about virtual exchange, it is important to remark that overall, the preference for synchronous communication has prevailed over other types of virtual exchange platforms among students (O'Dowd & Rourke, 2019). The authors claim that "the ultimate ambition of virtual exchange practitioners is to promote understanding across national and cultural divides" (O'Dowd, R., & O'Rourke, 2019, p.4).

Intercultural Competence

Taking into consideration the diversification of the linguistic and cultural profiles at schools and the need to educate students to be global citizens (Rader, 2018) and develop inclusive citizenship, approaches based on research that aim to provide practical guidance to bring into the classroom many of the principles needed for intercultural understanding have emerged.

Linguistically Appropriate Practice

Chumak (2012) defines Linguistically Appropriate Practice (LAP) as a new approach to work with immigrant children. LAP is based on dynamic bilingualism which Garcia (2009) explains as the ability of the individual to use the whole language repertoire that he/she has to navigate a multilingual world. Therefore, dynamic bilingualism sets aside traditional views on subtractive and additive bilingualism (Lambert 1975), which supported a linear and static approach to bilingualism, to underline the social and communicative aspects the speakers encounter when they “language” (Garcia, 2009). In the DIGI-LINGO context, dynamic bilingualism could be considered as dynamic multilingualism as the students in the FL classroom may already know more than 1 language.

LAP understands language learners as emergent bilinguals/multilinguals, this is, recognizes the home languages of the students, understanding that they have certain proficiency in their home language and they are familiar with literacy, and this experience will add when they start learning the language of the school (Chumack, 2012).

As emergent bilingual/multilinguals, immigrant students have dual/multi language and literacy needs, consequently, they need concrete support to develop all their languages (Chumak, 2012). This way to understand emergent bilinguals/multilinguals made Chumack (2012) reconsider the silent period stage in the acquisition of a new language, reaching the conclusion that immigrant children are silenced because a monolingual approach that does not include the language/s the child knows is adopted (Chumack, 2012). As a result, immigrant children experience “language shock” (Olsen, 2000) and “extreme linguistic uncertainty” (Garcia, 2009) as they realise that the language they know does not matter and they are treated as novice language learners (Chumack 2012).

The different ways to understand bi/multilingual students in the classroom defines different classroom practices (Chumack, 2012: p. 39):

- Assimilative: “immigrant children are absorbed into the majority language and culture”.
- Supportive: “Teaching and learning the classroom language is a priority; the importance of home languages is acknowledged; and cultural differences are celebrated”.
- Inclusive: “home languages are included in the curriculum; all children experience linguistic diversity; teaching staff works closely with families to promote bilingualism and bi-literacy”.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP) refers to effective teaching in culturally diverse classrooms (Irvine, 2010). Applying CRP has shown to maximise the learning of the student, when the teacher gets to know the culture of the students, he/she can translate it to instructional practice (Irvine, 2010). This pedagogy lays on the theoretical understanding that learning is a socially mediated process and related to students' experiences and cultures, that form a generational road map that shapes an individual's behaviour (Irvine, 2010). Schools are usually shaped by mainstream cultural assumptions, consequently, when the cultural mismatches happen, the results tend to be negative: miscommunication, confrontation, hostility, self-esteem issues, and possible school failure (Irvine, 2010).

To avoid the negative effects and apply CRP appropriately the teacher should (Irvine, 2010):

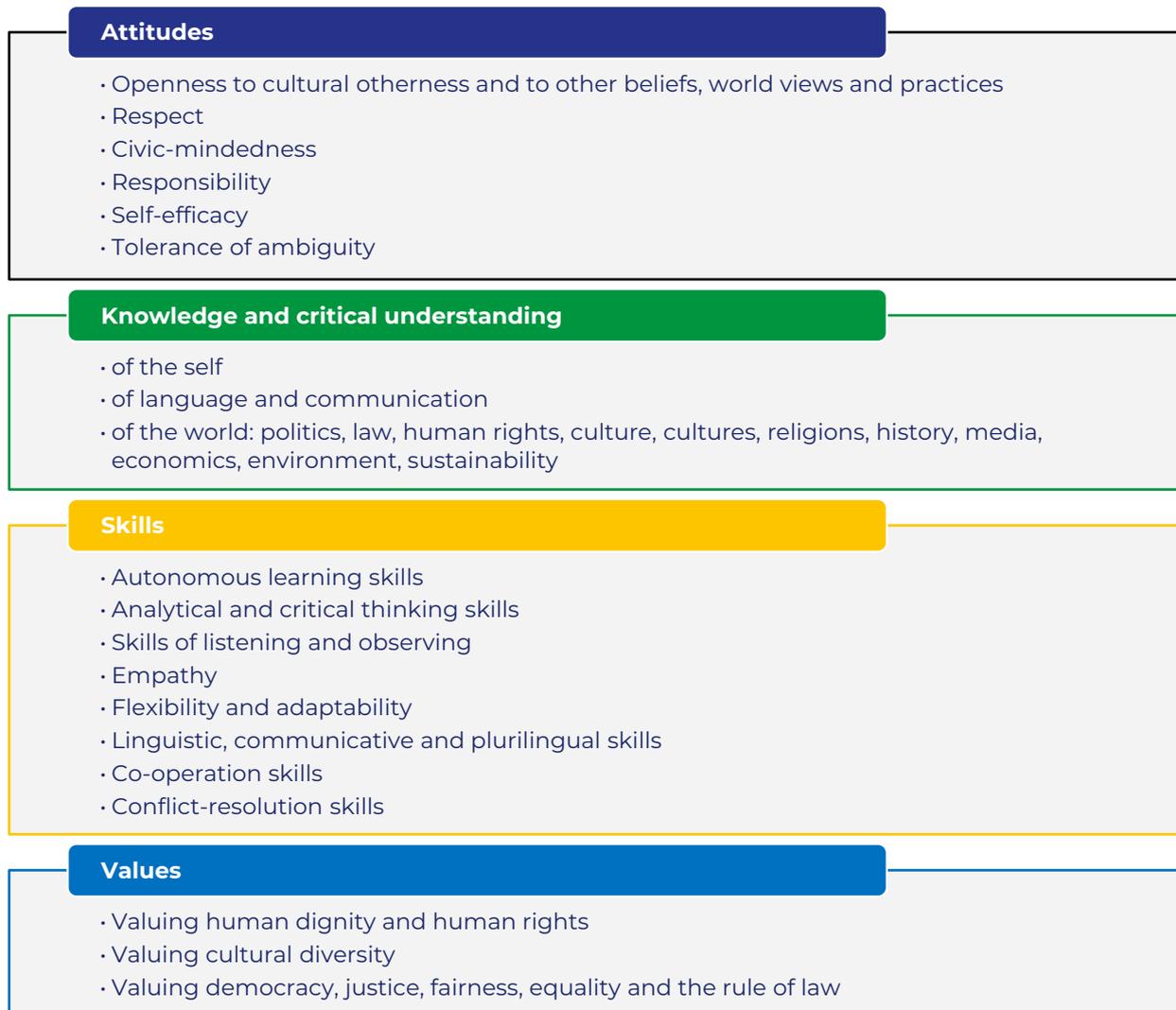
- Have a good knowledge of the content and the ability to include representations of students' experiences to help students make connections between new knowledge and home, community and global settings.
- Build bridges between what the student knows and what is unknown for him/her.
- Create contexts where students' voices can emerge and they can construct knowledge and meaning from their personal perspective.
- Build caring relationships with the students
- Be a teacher researcher and reflect on his/her teaching practice
- Have time to observe other teachers teaching and attend personal development courses
- Promote justice to confront racism, sexism and classism

In relation to the last point mentioned, the teacher can also use existing models that aim to promote inclusive citizenship among learners to be able to function democratically and interculturally appropriately.

Model of competences required for democratic culture and intercultural dialogue

The model developed by the European Council (2016) is in line with the Linguistically appropriate practice and the Culturally Relevant pedagogy explained previously and provides a clear list of the values, attitudes, skills, knowledge and understanding necessary to learn by an individual to function as a democratically and intercultural citizen, this is, a framework to develop inclusive citizenship. The Council includes the following competences in the mode:

Figure 8. The 20 competences included in the model



Note: The 20 competences included in the model. Adapted from Council of Europe (2016)

The FL teacher should consider these competences to design democratic and intercultural learning situations where students can develop the competencies needed to meet the demands, challenges and opportunities presented appropriately and effectively (Council of Europe, 2016).

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