



GLANG
CITIZEN

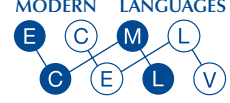
DEVELOPING DIGITAL CITIZENSHIP AND LANGUAGE COMPETENCES

ENG

Christian OLLIVIER

Catherine JEANNEAU

E-lang citizen team

EUROPEAN CENTRE FOR
MODERN LANGUAGES

CENTRE EUROPEEN POUR
LES LANGUES VIVANTES

COUNCIL OF EUROPE

CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE

Developing digital citizenship and language competences

Christian OLLIVIER, Catherine JEANNEAU

Translated by Catherine Caws

European Centre for Modern Languages
of the Council of Europe, Graz

French edition:
Développer citoyenneté numérique et compétences langagières
ISBN 978-92-871-9317-9

Translation into English by Catherine Caws

The opinions expressed in this work are the responsibility of the author and do not necessarily reflect the official policy of the Council of Europe.

Reproduction of extracts (up to 500 words) is authorised, except for commercial purposes, as long as the integrity of the text is preserved, the excerpt is not used out of context, does not provide incomplete information or does not otherwise mislead the reader as to the nature, scope or content of the text.

The source text must always be acknowledged as follows: “Council of Europe, 2023”.

All other request concerning the reproduction/translation of all or part of this document should be addressed to the Directorate of Communications, Council of Europe (F-67075 Strasbourg Cedex or publishing@coe.int).

All other correspondence concerning this document should be addressed to the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe, Nikolaiplatz 4, A-8020 Graz, Austria (information@ecml.at).

Cover page and layout:
European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe
www.ecml.at

ISBN 978-92-871-9318-6
Council of Europe, 2023

Table of contents

| | |
|--|-----------|
| List of figures..... | 7 |
| 1 Introduction..... | 9 |
| 2 Digital citizenship..... | 10 |
| 2.1 Profile | 10 |
| 2.2 A social actor with a plural identity involved in various communities..... | 11 |
| 2.3 Rights, responsibilities, and values | 12 |
| 2.4 (Inter)acting online in specific domains | 15 |
| 2.5 A social actor who acts in a specific way..... | 16 |
| 2.6 Characteristics of actions by a citizen as user of digital tools and resources | 16 |
| 2.6.1 Personal attributes | 16 |
| 2.6.2 Background / Infrastructure..... | 17 |
| 2.7 Links with language education..... | 17 |
| 3 Digital literacy | 20 |
| 3.1 Origins and specificities of the notion of digital literacy | 20 |
| 3.2 Differences between “literacy”, “competences” and “abilities” | 21 |
| 3.3 Digital literacy: a multifaceted concept..... | 23 |
| 3.3.1 Dimensions of digital literacy..... | 23 |
| 3.4 From instrumental digital literacy to identity building | 25 |
| 3.4.1 Digital literacy and agency | 25 |
| 3.4.2 Digital literacy and identity building..... | 25 |
| 3.5 Concept of digital literacy adopted by the project | 26 |
| 3.6 Digital literacy and language learning and teaching | 26 |
| 3.7 Digital literacy model adopted | 28 |
| 3.7.1 Technology literacy | 29 |
| 3.7.2 Meaning-making literacy..... | 29 |
| 3.7.3 Interaction literacy..... | 30 |
| 3.7.4 Socio-interactional context..... | 31 |
| 3.7.5 Spatial, temporal, and material context | 31 |
| 3.7.6 Critical, ethical, and citizenship framework..... | 31 |
| 4 An active, participatory, and transformative pedagogy | 32 |
| 4.1 Situated, distributed, and shared learning | 32 |
| 4.2 Providing support | 34 |
| 4.3 Reflection | 35 |
| 4.4 Connecting learning “ <i>in the wild</i> ” and in institutional settings | 36 |
| 4.5 In summary..... | 38 |
| 5 Fundamentals of the socio-interactional approach - Primacy of social interactions | 39 |
| 5.1 Social interactions | 39 |
| 5.2 Importance and influence of social interactions..... | 40 |
| 5.3 Social interactions and co-construction of meaning..... | 42 |
| 5.4 Social interactions and online communities..... | 44 |
| 5.5 In summary..... | 46 |

| | | |
|----------|--|-----------|
| 6 | Pedagogical approach - Real-world tasks to (learn to) communicate for real..... | 47 |
| 6.1 | Key elements of the socio-interactive approach | 47 |
| 6.2 | A task-based approach and an extension of the action perspective | 48 |
| 6.3 | Typology of tasks according to social interactions | 49 |
| 6.4 | Real-world tasks | 51 |
| 6.4.1 | What are real-world tasks..... | 52 |
| 6.4.2 | Pedagogical tasks derive from real-world | 55 |
| 6.4.3 | Real-world tasks take place on open and participatory sites | 56 |
| 6.4.4 | Real-world tasks are not imposed, they are proposed | 57 |
| 6.4.5 | Real-world tasks have a dual grounding..... | 57 |
| 6.5 | Pedagogical implementation of real-world tasks | 58 |
| 6.5.1 | The philosophical ideas behind TBLT | 58 |
| 6.5.2 | The TBLT approach adopted by e-lang citizen | 59 |
| 6.6 | Teachers and their learners..... | 61 |
| 6.6.1 | Learners performing real-world tasks | 61 |
| | Teachers and their roles..... | 63 |
| 6.7 | The issue of evaluation..... | 65 |
| 6.7.1 | Social evaluation in the socio-interactive context of the task | 65 |
| 6.7.2 | Formative evaluation in the educational context..... | 65 |
| 6.7.3 | Peer and self-assessment | 66 |
| 6.7.4 | Mirror tasks for summative assessment | 66 |
| 6.8 | Reflective tasks..... | 67 |
| 7 | Presentation of the task sheets..... | 68 |
| 7.1 | A two-part sheet | 68 |
| 7.2 | Sections of the sheets | 68 |
| 7.2.1 | Task | 68 |
| 7.2.2 | Website | 69 |
| 7.2.3 | Other information: level, language activities covered, digital citizenship and literacy objectives | 69 |
| 7.2.4 | Possible steps..... | 71 |
| 7.2.5 | Hints - Keep in mind who you are addressing | 71 |
| 7.2.6 | Hints - Work on the language-related aspects | 72 |
| 7.2.7 | Aspects to think about | 72 |
| 7.3 | Differences between the real-world task sheets and reflective task sheet..... | 73 |
| 8 | Invitation..... | 75 |
| | Bibliography | 76 |

List of figures

| | |
|---|----|
| Figure 1 – The 20 competences included in the competences model for a culture of democracy | 15 |
| Figure 2 – DigComp conceptual reference model, 2022 | 23 |
| Figure 3 – Model of digital literacy in language learning/teaching adapted from Ollivier and the e-lang project (2018) | 31 |
| Figure 4 – Task model | 56 |
| Figure 5 – Task description in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet | 73 |
| Figure 6 – Presentation of suggested sites in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet | 74 |
| Figure 7 – Digital citizenship and literacy objectives in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet | 75 |
| Figure 8 – List of language activities targeted in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet..... | 76 |
| Figure 9 – Presentation of the multilingual dimension in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet | 76 |
| Figure 10 – Hints for learners “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet: socio- interactional component | 77 |
| Figure 11 – Hints for learners in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet: language component | 77 |
| Figure 12 – Suggestions for reflection in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” learner task sheet..... | 78 |
| Figure 13 – Hints for learners in the reflective task sheet “WikiHow - the world of instructions” | 79 |

1 Introduction

This booklet provides an introduction to the central concepts of digital literacy and citizenship and to the pedagogical approach developed by the *e-lang citizenship* project (“Digital citizenship through language education”, www.ecml.at/elangcitizen). This project (2020-2022) complements the *e-lang* project (“Digital citizenship through language education”, www.ecml.at/elang) and is part of the Council of Europe’s European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) programme “Inspiring innovation in language education: changing contexts, evolving competences”. We are publishing this booklet because we believe that any proposal for the use of digital technology must be based on a clearly articulated didactic and pedagogical concept.

In addition, we felt it was important to define what the project team means by digital citizenship and digital literacy. In the first two chapters we therefore set out our definitions and outline the components that constitute digital citizenship and literacy.¹

The pedagogical framework of the *e-lang citizen* project is based on two main concepts: an active, participatory, and transformative pedagogy (presented in chapter 3), and a socio-interactive vision of communication and action (explained in chapter 4). These principles, presented in this booklet, feed into language teaching, and learning practice through the promotion of real-world tasks (discussed in chapter 5). These tasks enable learners not only to develop language and action competences in authentic situations and to act as language users, but also to exercise and strengthen their digital literacy and citizenship. Learners thus become, through the realisation of real-world tasks, citizens and users of languages and digital tools and resources. Throughout the book we will use the term citizen as user of languages and digital tools.

In addition to this type of task, the *e-lang citizen* project includes reflective tasks (presented in chapter 5) which address different dimensions of digital citizenship and enable learners to reflect on the use(s) of digital technology, particularly their own usages.

In chapter 6, we explain how the project has guided the design of the task sheets that we have developed for language teachers who wish to implement the pedagogical approach of the *e-lang citizen* project. These task sheets, which teachers can adapt to suit their learners, their needs, their constraints, and their contexts, are freely available in a database on the project website. The tasks are proposed for secondary and higher education.

As with the proposals made in the *e-lang* project, we hope that the proposals we are about to make will be of interest to practitioners who wish to help their learners develop digital literacy and citizenship while developing communication and action competences.

1. Regarding this last concept, we take up and extend what we had proposed in the framework of the *e-lang* project.

2 Digital citizenship²

The main objective of the *e-lang citizen* project is to open avenues for work on digital citizenship in language education. The notion of “digital citizenship” is therefore at the very heart of the project. Digital citizenship is complex and dynamic because it is constantly evolving and includes many facets and dimensions³: it is still far from being a set notion. Therefore, before tackling the pedagogical aspects, we felt that it was essential to specify how we conceive this notion.

In this chapter we present a profile of a digital citizen, user of languages and of digital tools and resources. This profile is based on a meta-analysis of 98 recent texts in which we have identified definitions of digital citizenship and its components. These texts, published between 2016 and 2020, come from national and international organisations (such as the Council of Europe or Unesco) and specialists in the field⁴.

It should be noted at the outset that this profile is neither a model nor a goal to be achieved. It is a structured compilation of what the team found in the literature reviewed. It is intended to enable language educators to identify the aspects they can work on with their learners if they wish to contribute to digital citizenship education.

Rather than “digital citizen”, we prefer to speak of a citizen as user of languages and digital tools and resources. Indeed, we cannot conceive, on the one hand, of a digital citizen and, on the other hand, of a non-digital citizen. Instead, we perceive such a person as someone who is involved in various communities, who participates in both digital and non-digital communities, that are potentially linked to each other. It also allows us to focus on the person as a social actor rather than portraying a more abstract concept.

2.1 Profile

Before developing each of the facets of the citizen as user of languages and digital tools, we propose herein a general profile based on the recent literature that we have reviewed.

2. This chapter is partly based on the profile of the language and digital citizen published on the project website (*e-lang* Team, 2021). Interested readers will find a more detailed version in an article published in the journal *Lidil* (Ollivier et al., 2021).

3. (Choi et al., 2017)

4. The list of texts is available online:

www.zotero.org/groups/2719003/meta-analyse_citoyen_usager_du_numerique/library.

It is a person (a subject) whom we consider to be:

- a social actor
 - with a plural identity,
 - involved in various communities (online and offline);
- whose actions are largely influenced by rights and responsibilities linked to individual and shared values;
- (inter)acting with technology in digital spaces
 - in specific areas,
 - in specific ways,
 - based on personal attributes and
 - depending on the context / infrastructure available.

2.2 A social actor with a plural identity involved in various communities

With the expansion of the internet, involvement in online communities has multiplied. People are now members of several online and offline communities and have no obligation of loyalty to one particular community⁵. We use the word “communities” in its broadest sense. Depending on the case, these communities may be speech communities, consisting of a few people who are directly involved in the communication. For example, it could be two people engaged in a conversation or a group of colleagues involved in a discussion. In other cases, they may be larger communities federated by a website.

Depending on the group to which individuals belong, their involvement may vary. They may highlight a particular facet of their identity or even construct entire sections of their identity on a particular platform. By selecting to use their name or a different pseudonym, sharing certain information about themselves, and through their online actions on various platforms, one single person may construct a specific identity in the communities in which they are involved.

In their actions, citizens as users of digital tools easily move from online to offline and vice versa. Their actions in one space can have repercussions in the other⁶. Thus, getting information online can lead to action in the offline space, and conversely, what a user experiences, learns, or experiments in the non-digital space can be transmitted onto a digital platform.

The important thing for the citizens as users of digital tools is to succeed in articulating and managing their actions and the facets of their identity online and offline in the various communities in which they participate.

5. (Emejulu & McGregor, 2019)

6. (Alharbi & Alturki, 2018)

2.3 Rights, responsibilities, and values

When engaging with communities, rights and responsibilities are at the heart of the notion of citizenship. As mentioned above, in the case of citizens as users of digital tools (as opposed to citizens of a country), there is no single community or society with a single system of values, rights and responsibilities that serves as a specific point of reference. When involved in different communities, digital citizens must therefore consider the rights and responsibilities that govern each of these communities, whether they are explicitly specified or implicitly derived from existing practices. While acting online, users must therefore be aware that there exist multiple reference systems and be able to understand and take them into consideration. They must also consider their own values and ethics, as well as the rights and responsibilities that go beyond those governing actions within the various communities.

Indeed, some authors refer to rights and responsibilities that are essentially political, economic, and social in nature⁷ and that would be valid beyond single communities. These include copyright and respect for intellectual property and licences, the right to privacy and security (including data and personal security, in relation to notions of psychological and physical well-being), the right to access tools, the network, digital media and information, the right to inclusion (in relation to respect for diversity), to freedom of speech, publication and creation⁸. The notions of social justice, equity and equality also appear occasionally⁹. Some authors add to these rights those of advocacy, freedom of assembly and demonstration¹⁰.

A series of rights (of “4th generation”¹¹), specifically related to the digital environment, would complete this list:

*le droit à l'autodétermination informationnelle (le droit à maîtriser le dépôt et le devenir de ses propres données générées par l'activité sur les réseaux numériques), le droit à l'oubli, le droit à la portabilité des données (le droit de pouvoir transporter et utiliser ses données en passant d'un système informatique à un autre), le droit d'accès aux données ou à leur rectification*¹².

The choice of which values, and thus which rights and responsibilities, are emphasised is a matter that communities decide implicitly or explicitly. In the case of national and supranational organisations, these decisions have a strong political dimension. The European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML), which is funding the *e-language citizen* project, is thus

7. (Mossberger et al., 2017)

8. (Richardson & Milovidov, 2019)

9. (Brown et al., 2016; Emejulu & McGregor, 2019)

10. (Türk, 2018)

11. (Türk, 2018)

12. (Türk, 2018) The right to informational self-determination (the right to control the storage and fate of one's own data generated by activity on digital networks), the right to be forgotten, the right to data portability (the right to be able to carry and use one's data when moving from one computer system to another), the right to access or rectify data.

promoting values that the Council of Europe¹³ places at the heart of its activities: human rights, democratic rights, and the rule of law. A Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education¹⁴ adopted in 2010 defines these two educations and specifies the values put forward as follows:

“Education for democratic citizenship” means education, training, dissemination, information, practices and activities which aim, by equipping learners with knowledge, skills and understanding and moulding their attitudes and behaviour, to empower them to exercise and defend their democratic rights and responsibilities in society, to value diversity and to play an active part in democratic life, with a view to the promotion and protection of democracy and the rule of law.

Human rights education includes

education, training, dissemination, information, practices and activities which aim, by equipping learners with knowledge, skills and understanding and moulding their attitudes and behaviour, to empower them to contribute to the building and defence of a universal culture of human rights in society, with a view to the promotion and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

Linked to this, the Council of Europe has set up the project “Competences for democratic culture and intercultural dialogue”, which has developed a *Reference Framework of Competences for Democratic Culture*¹⁵. This *Framework* includes a model of competences for a culture of democracy which lists 20 competences in the booklet *Competences for democratic culture – Living together as equals in democratic and culturally diverse societies*¹⁶.

13. (Committee of Ministers, 2019)

14. (Council of Europe, 2010)

15. www.coe.int/en/web/reference-framework-of-competences-for-democratic-culture

16. (Council of Europe, 2016)

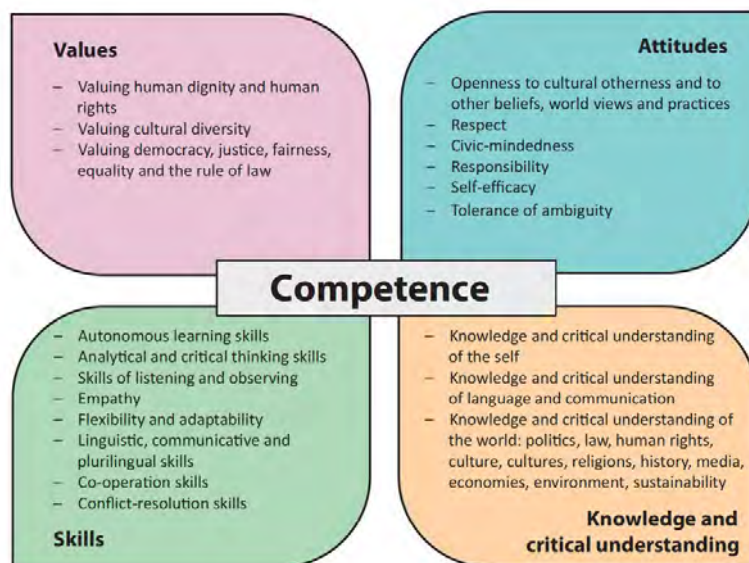


Figure 1: The 20 competences included in the competences model for a culture of democracy

The materials developed for this *Framework* have the common aim to “equip young people with all of the competences that are needed to take action to defend and promote human rights, democracy and the rule of law, to participate effectively in a culture of democracy, and to live peacefully together with others in culturally diverse societies”¹⁷.

All these elements have been considered in the framework of the *e-lang citizen* project as well as the work on digital citizenship and literacy. These elements highlight the specificity of the action of a citizen in the digital space. A model of the language and digital citizen cannot include specific values in itself. Indeed, it is part of the responsibilities of citizens to adhere within the digital space, to different values depending on the communities with which they come into contact. Citizens also need to know how to manage these connections and value systems and be aware of the possible conflicts related to values that may result from them.

As the *e-lang* project is carried out at the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe, the rights promoted by the Council of Europe are reflected in our work and the achievements of the project. As such, they constitute a solid basis for the work on digital citizenship. For more information we therefore refer to the different documents and reference materials produced within the Council of Europe projects on the Reference Framework of Competences for a Democratic Culture¹⁸ and on digital citizenship education¹⁹.

17. www.coe.int/en/web/reference-framework-of-competences-for-democratic-culture

18. www.coe.int/en/web/reference-framework-of-competences-for-democratic-culture

19. www.coe.int/en/web/digital-citizenship-education/home

2.4 (Inter)acting online in specific domains

The texts in the corpus reflect the diversity of actions that citizens can undertake online: thinking, feeling, but also communicating, learning, working, consuming (goods and content), creating, playing and establishing and maintaining social relationships.

These actions can take place in the following five areas: social (interpersonal and community), socio-economic, educational, cultural (or intercultural) and political (in the broadest sense of the word).

Depending on their involvement, citizens as users of digital tools can be classified into four types²⁰:

- Consumers and spectators: this category includes activities such as browsing, searching, reading, listening, watching and everything related to information processing (verification, evaluation, etc.);
- mediators (sharers) who relay, or even evaluate or comment on, for example, information;
- creators of content, practices, tools, but also ways of interacting (in forums, blogs, wikis, etc.) and participating in the digital society;
- society's change makers who participate in the construction of a societal project, promoting, for example, inclusion, health, well-being, environmental protection, or the fight against inequalities. This type of citizen as user of digital tools contributes to changing the context, but also the communities (online and offline), and therefore the rights, responsibilities and values that underpin them.

It should be noted that these are not stages or levels to be reached in a linear fashion. This classification makes it possible to categorise the role of citizens in communities according to their actions. In fact, the degree and forms of commitment of a person vary according to their interests, the context, their mastery of codes and conventions, the languages spoken, their feeling of security or insecurity in speaking out, etc.

Regarding environmental issues, for example, a person may be “content” to get informed, thus acting as an (informed) consumer of information, on the basis of which they may (or may not) act in the non-digital space. In the area of culture, they will mainly relay information (which they will have previously selected and verified) on performances or cultural events in their region. This same person could be a content creator through an original travel blog on which they would recall their travel experiences online without relaying any political or social issues.

20. (Cassells et al., 2016)

Finally, they could play a transformative role in the “*Black Lives Matter*” movement by proposing concrete actions.

2.5 A social actor who acts in a specific way

The authors of the corpus which was analysed identify the specific actions undertaken by citizens who use digital technology. We list below the characteristics of citizen action that we were able to identify in the literature. The action of the citizen as user of languages and digital tools would thus *ideally* be as follows:

- constant and regular;
- competent and efficient;
- informed and aware (open-minded);
- ethical and responsible (free, meaningful, courteous, respectful, tolerant, inclusive, following netiquette, legal);
- safe for the person, others, the environment, physical and mental health, etc.;
- coherent (in line with a citizen’s own beliefs, values, etc.).

2.6 Characteristics of actions by a citizen as user of digital tools and resources

2.6.1 *Personal attributes*

In the field of languages and digital technology, a citizen who is a user of languages and digital tools requires the following:

- knowledge (such as language, cultural, or digital knowledge);
- competences (particularly cognitive and socio-emotional) and knowhow (technical);
- an awareness (in relation to the different dimensions that constitute digital citizenship: for example, awareness of what is a safe (or not), ethical (or not) action);
- a critical understanding of information, uses, digital, etc.;
- attitudes or soft skills that include the ability to engage.

Thus, to act ethically and responsibly requires, for example, an awareness of what constitutes ethical and responsible action, a knowledge and critical understanding of one's rights and responsibilities. One also needs to have the necessary experience (e.g. technological) and skills to exercise one's rights and responsibilities and to be willing to make a personal commitment. A person should also – among other things – be aware of the impact (ecological, social...) of their action and act accordingly.

In addition, many authors stress the importance of being open to lifelong learning²¹ to cope with constantly changing contexts, technologies, and practices.

2.6.2 Background / Infrastructure

To act as a citizen in the digital space, the individual must have the above-mentioned personal attributes. In addition, the context and infrastructure must also be conducive to acting as a citizen. The authors of the analysed texts highlight certain conditions that favour the application of digital citizenship:

- equitable or even equal access and quality to technology, networks and online content;
- a secure technological infrastructure;
- a legal framework that promotes agency and participation;
- reliable sources of information;
- not to forget an essential element: free and equal access to digital citizenship education.

2.7 Links with language education

In designing the profile of the citizen as user of digital tools, we defined objectives for digital citizenship education. These objectives aim at helping people to (inter)act in several languages in the digital space in a regular, ethical, responsible, or safe manner. The purpose of this section is therefore to show the relevance of language literacy for the implementation of digital citizenship.

First and foremost, a large part of the actions of the citizen as user of digital tools requires a solid involvement with language activity. Without proper language literacy, it is not possible to act as a citizen. It is impossible to search, read, listen, watch, and process information in a meaningful way. It is also hardly possible to participate in a forum, contribute to a wiki, etc. Moreover, the citizen-user of digital tools reads in one language or another, publishes in one or more languages, or uses several languages at the same time. In a digital world, where

21. (Frau-Meigs et al., 2017 ; NetSafe, 2018 for example)

languages are blended or even intermingled, a plurilingual competence – a key objective of language education – is thus becoming increasingly essential. Conversely, without the attributes of the citizen as user of digital tools, it is difficult to demonstrate good quality language use in the digital space. The citizen as user of digital tools is thus often a user of both digital technology and languages.

Digital citizenship education and language education are similar in that both aim at developing and training a social actor²². Both recognise that this social actor acts within plural communities. This can be a speech community formed by the people directly involved in an act of communication, or “virtual” groups whose members reside all over the world. Within a socio-interactional approach²³ in language education, which underlies digital citizenship education, these communities play an essential role. Indeed, it is a premise on this approach that that people’s actions are largely determined by their interaction with and within these communities. The actions of citizens are, in fact, largely influenced by the community in which they (inter)act.

The language dimension related to exercising citizenship and the notion of a citizen as user of languages and digital tools, conceived as a social actor are two important connections that bring together language training and digital citizenship education. There are also more specific interconnections between both concepts that seem essential.

- The notion of mediation, the importance of which is underlined in language teaching, in particular by the *CEFR Companion Volume*²⁴, is a key notion in education for digital citizenship, in particular because of the many uses of sharing and mediating on social networks.
- The notion of diversity of people, societies and communities forms the basis of the intercultural dimension of all communication and is an important element in the education of a citizen as user of languages and digital tools. To be such a citizen requires the development of an awareness of the values at play (individual and shared values); it also requires a consideration of the codes and conventions that govern the specific contexts of (inter)action and allow for inter-comprehension; this is motivated by openness to diversity and to Otherness, and to acknowledge that individuals, communities, and societies may be transformed. This is close to Byram’s *savoir s’engager* approach²⁵ which requires a critical cultural awareness.
- Among the rights mentioned by digital citizenship specialists are those that are at the heart of language education: the right to inclusion and respect for diversity, specifically cultural and linguistic diversity.

22. (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018)

23. (See below and Caws et al., 2021; Ollivier & *e-lang* Project, 2018)

24. (Council of Europe, 2018)

25. (Byram, 1997)

- Last, plurilingual competence is an essential asset for participation in digital spaces in which participants use one or more languages or even mix several languages. This competence is especially important if a person intends to obtain information from multiple sources of information, particularly those published in different languages. This is also particularly relevant when one wants to find out about something related to a country where the language of publication is a “foreign” language. Similarly, being involved in certain international movements entails being in contact with people whose languages may be different. Communicating with these partners in their own language or letting everyone communicate in their own language and activating strategies of intercomprehension can be a definite advantage over using a lingua franca that is not the language of any of the people involved in the exchange.

Consequently, we feel that language teaching and learning could be oriented towards a language education which, through reflective tasks and processes, would emphasise the development of attitudes (especially critical ones), skills and knowledge, and awareness necessary for the exercise of (digital) citizenship. These should enable individuals to (inter)act in different languages on and offline within local and global communities and in interpersonal relationships in a safe, informed, critical, ethical, and responsible way.

In the pedagogical framework that follows, we will develop the foundations of a language education that integrates education for digital citizenship and propose concrete ways to implement it. Before doing so, however, we will first detail the various dimensions of digital literacy.

3 Digital literacy

Due to the widespread presence of digital technology in many aspects of life, both professional and personal, and knowing how to best use and manage these technologies and their applications has become a societal and educational priority. This need became very apparent during the Covid-19 pandemic when so many of our daily activities (e.g. work, education, socialising) went online. The periods of confinement and the shift to online learning have shown that developments in digital literacy, especially in education, are still needed.

The term digital literacy is often used to refer broadly to the ability to use digital technology effectively, but it also encompasses other aspects such as adopting a critical and ethical stance towards technology.

However, despite being used frequently, the term “digital literacy” lacks consensus on a proper definition. Among the elements that contribute to confusion are the influences of many research areas, each bringing different perspectives to the subject. Furthermore, the concept of digital literacy and that of digital citizenship, discussed in the following chapters, are very similar and this creates some overlap between the two concepts which can further reinforce the difficulty of clearly distinguishing and defining both terms. It is therefore important for our project to define and delimit them. In addition, even if “digital literacy” seems to be the most widely used term, other terms can also be found to designate this notion, such as “digital competences” advocated by the European Commission in the *European Framework of Digital Competences for Citizens*²⁶ or “digital capability” notably chosen²⁷ by the members of the Jisc organisation²⁷.

In this chapter, we will therefore attempt to explain the notion of digital literacy, which is one of the bases of the *e-lang* project, and the elements it covers. To do this, we will quickly review the various aspects associated with it and look at some central definitions. This short overview will allow us to position ourselves in relation to the existing work on the subject and to present the model of digital literacy in language learning and teaching that we have adopted in our project.

3.1 Origins and specificities of the notion of digital literacy

The notion of digital literacy emerged in the late 1990s. Previously, digital competences were largely conceived as being purely technological knowledge or skills. This essentially technical approach associated the use of information and communication technologies with the ability to use digital²⁸ tools, that is with a set of generic skills, such as knowing how to use a word processor or how to create a graph from a spreadsheet. This perspective, which was also very present in early definitions of digital literacy, situated the individual on a scale of competences ranging from beginner to expert in the performance of tasks requiring the use of digital

26. (Vuorikari et al., 2016; 2022)

27. (Beetham, 2017)

28. (Bélisle, 2006)

technology. Certifications such as the *European Computer Driving Licence* (EDCL) illustrate this approach in the form of a progression represented by descriptors where the competence assessed is acquired (or not).

In his 1997 book, which is often cited as a reference in the field, Gilster already distanced himself from this functional concept by stating that “digital literacy is about mastering ideas, not keystrokes”²⁹. He thus highlighted the cognitive dimension of digital literacy. Indeed, for Gilster, digital literacy allows individuals to fully understand what is presented in digital format since it allows them to process information (access, manage and evaluate it) and to produce it. It must therefore include a capacity for critical thinking that enables “making informed judgments about what you find on-line”³⁰.

3.2 Differences between “literacy”, “competences” and “abilities”

The notion of “digital literacy” is distinct from the notions of “competences” and “abilities”, both in the contexts in which they are used and in regard to the meanings attributed to them. As Spante et al.³¹ point out in their study, these terms are often used interchangeably. However, they found that while the term “digital competences” seems to be more prevalent in official publications, “digital literacy” is more frequently used in research.

The terms “competences” and to some extent “abilities” are thus more often connected to the professional world where they are presented as a condition for good performance in that context. The term refers to the digital skills needed to work in a specific field (e.g. knowing how to use specialised calculation software in the financial field or online booking software in the tourism field). The term also implies a focus on the technology itself or the task at hand. To be competent with digital technology suggests putting into practice or operationalising knowledge, skills and understanding of the technology. This ability allows a person to perform several tasks such as: to identify the digital tools adapted to a specific task, to modify practices according to changes in technologies, or to interact or collaborate with the help of technologies. Digital competences can therefore be validated or assessed (an example is the *European Reference Framework of Digital Competences for Citizens*³² which includes 21 competences on 8 levels of mastery. Their level of acquisition can be assessed using descriptors).

29. (Gilster, 1997)

30. (Gilster, 1997)

31. (Spante et al., 2018)

32. (Carretero-Gomez, Vuorikari & Punie, 2017)

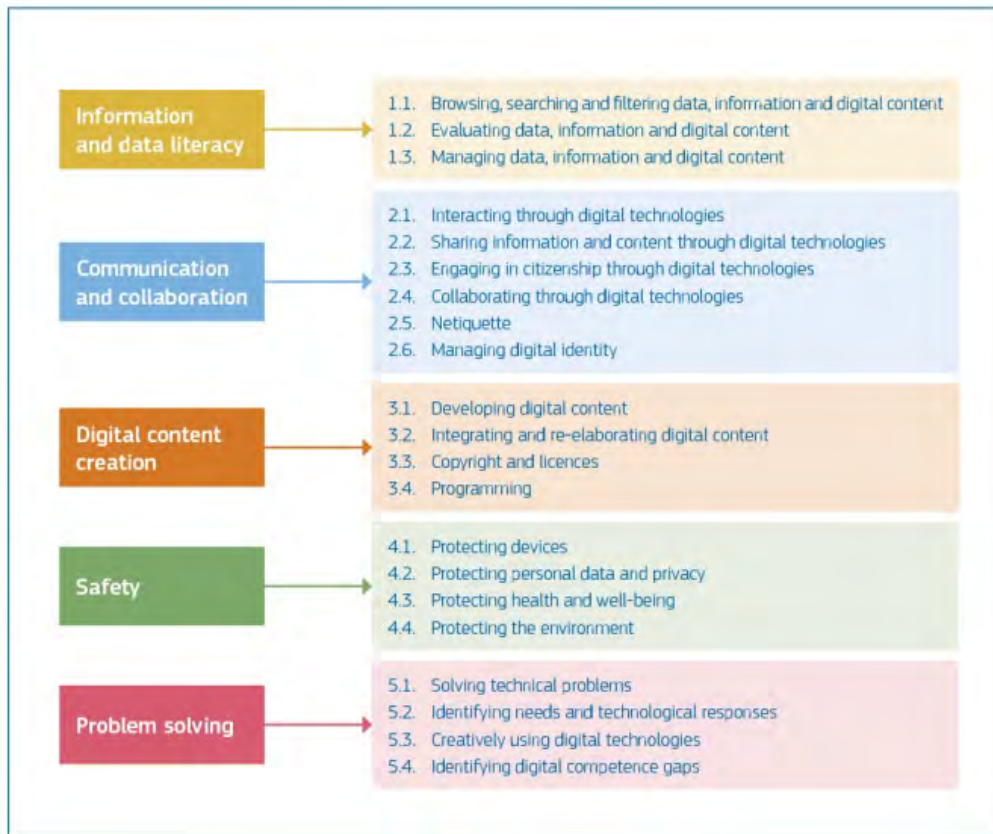


Figure 2: DigComp conceptual reference model, 2022

Digital literacy, on the other hand, is more concerned with the development of the individual and thus considers him or her as a social actor, a user of digital tools. As such, digital literacy combines cognitive aspects and social practices.

While all three notions – digital capability, competence, and literacy – include the need to take a critical distance from digital tools, digital literacy places a stronger emphasis on individual values, attitudes, and beliefs. In addition, it emphasises the importance of language – especially the discursive and textual dimension – and includes a social dimension which can also be found in language learning.

To summarise:

- “Digital competences and abilities” focus on the technology itself and the ability to apply technological knowledge and skills, often in the professional or academic environment;
- “Digital literacy” focuses on the individual who lives, both online and offline, in a variety of environments, and on their development within these contexts; it is concerned not only with their skills in using digital technology, but also with their values, attitudes and beliefs towards technology and the wider world. The notion of literacy also

emphasises the importance of language, particularly in its discursive and textual dimensions.

3.3 Digital literacy: a multifaceted concept

As already mentioned, it is difficult to establish a set description of the concept of digital literacy for which there are so many models and definitions. Since the concept emerged, it has gone through different phases of development, influenced, among other things by the theories guiding these currents, but also by the evolution of technologies and the practices they entail. For this reason, we call the concept “fluid”, meaning that it is constantly changing. This fluidity also explains why it is difficult to define it in a clear and consistent way.

3.3.1 Dimensions of digital literacy

Let us look at the different dimensions that experts attribute to digital literacy. Digital literacy is taken here in a broad sense, not in the narrow context of language learning or teaching, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

As mentioned earlier, digital literacy is about personal development. Through understanding technologies, the individual can transfer already acquired skills to new contexts³³. The concept also emphasises the cognitive dimension allowing individuals to adapt their skills to their needs. Finally, it includes an informational component which focuses on the ability to find, manage, use, produce, transmit and communicate information presented in digital format in an effective way³⁴.

The sociocultural perspective, which has had a significant influence on language sciences and language didactics, especially in relation to the notion of communication, also has an impact on the concept of literacy. Within this perspective, digital practices are seen as social practices that are influenced by cultural, social, political, and historical contexts³⁵. These practices require the use of codes and conventions for the construction of meaning or for its transmission. As such, writing an e-mail can take different forms depending on the context. The format and content of the message may vary according, for example, to the media, the cultures (in the broad sense and the narrower sense of the community) of the people involved, the relationship between them, or the environment in which they are operating. It is therefore necessary to know how to recognise, understand and develop practices that are part of the (digital) culture in question. Any use of digital technology can then be conceived as a socially situated practice that should consider the constraints defined by the context of communication, whether it is the genre, the code, the style, the mode of communication or the linguistic register appropriate to the given situation.

33. (Gourlay, Hamilton & Lea, 2013)

34. (Meyers, Erickson & Small, 2013)

35. (Martin and Grudziecki, 2006)

In our socio-interactional approach, taking interpersonal factors into account plays an essential role. It is not only a question of being aware of the sociocultural constraints (that is, the norms to be adhered to), but also of being aware of the constraints connected to the interpersonal relationship that individuals build with the people with whom they communicate when using digital tools.

The definition of digital literacy proposed by Martin and Grudziecki highlights these aspects:

*Digital Literacy is the awareness, attitude, and ability of individuals to appropriately use digital tools and facilities to identify, access, manage, integrate, evaluate, analyse and synthesise digital resources, construct new knowledge, create media expressions, and communicate with others, in the context of specific life situations, in order to enable constructive social action; and to reflect upon this process.*³⁶

This definition also emphasises that digital practices take place in a variety of media, allowing for the (co-)construction of meaning through various modes of communication and interaction. The multimodal component appears in many models of digital literacy where the diversity of media used to create meaning is recognised. For The New London Group³⁷, the construction of meaning must take into account five aspects that may come into play: linguistic, visual, auditory, gestural, and spatial aspects as well as the modes generated by the interaction or a combination between these different elements.

The complexity of the contexts and modes of communication means that digital literacy cannot be conceived as a simple blend of generic and transferable skills, but rather as a variety of literacies that allow access to meaning according to the contexts and communication practices involved. This is sometimes referred to as “multiliteracies”, which include computer literacy, technological literacy, informational literacy, media literacy, visual literacy, communicative literacy, or socio-emotional literacy³⁸. As can be observed, there is no consensus as each model of digital literacy focuses on different elements.

Last, while from a cognitive perspective, critical skills allow a person to become aware of the impact of digital technologies and media on communication and practices, from a sociocultural perspective, it is essential to know how to identify the powers and forces at play to recognise who dominates the social practices concerned. Within a socio-interactional perspective, this critical positioning takes on a more civic and ethical dimension.

The views discussed herein are based on different understandings that are difficult to combine. However, it is interesting to recognise the richness that these different perspectives can bring, as they show that digital literacy is a complex and constantly evolving concept. To us, the following elements should be included:

36. (Martin and Grudziecki, 2006, p. 255)

37. (The New London Group, 1996)

38. (Martin and Grudziecki, 2006; Eshet-Alkalai, 2004)

- Digital literacy is not an isolated competence; rather it must recognise the contexts in which digital practices take place (both sociocultural and socio-interactive).
- Digital literacy includes many elements that can also be called literacies. These literacies are characterised by the various media tools, digital technologies as well as the uses and practices that these imply, including language, discourse, and text, which are of particular interest to us and to which we will return.
- The ability to take a critical stance is an integral part of digital literacy.

3.4 From instrumental digital literacy to identity building

If we focus on the individual when addressing the development of digital literacy, it is possible to consider digital literacy as potentially transformative, i.e. as having a direct impact on the way people think and reason³⁹. Digital literacy could then lead to “intellectual empowerment”.

This concept of digital literacy has two main implications: agency and identity building.

3.4.1 *Digital literacy and agency*

Research shows that the development of digital literacy can lead to an increase in participation (especially online), creativity (in the case for instance of remixing of digital content) and agency (the ability and opportunity to act freely according to one’s ideas as a social actor; movements such as #BLM – Black Lives Matter – or young environmentalist movements such as #ClimateStrike and #FridaysforFuture are good examples of such agency). The individual goes beyond the status of consumer to become an actor and creator of content, as shown for example by contributions to participatory sites where content is generated by users (for instance in sites like Wikipedia). This view of digital literacy is then in line with the vision of the language learner/user advocated, among others, by the Council of Europe⁴⁰, which sees them as social actors (we will come back to this notion later).

3.4.2 *Digital literacy and identity building*

Secondly, and directly related to this phenomenon, it should be stressed that the development of values and attitudes towards the digital world, especially from a critical, ethical, and civic point of view, can also contribute to the construction of identity and intellectual empowerment. The attitude towards the digital world can in fact be compared to a “savoir-être” and a “savoir-faire”, knowing how to behave and knowing how to (inter)act, which are part of the very identity of everyone. Through their use of digital technology, individuals (learners) “have to be aware of the impact that technologies and digital practices may have on the environment,

39. (Bélisle, 2006)

40. (Council of Europe, 2001, 2021)

culture, society and people”⁴¹, not only to understand existing digital practices, but also to contribute to their production. Since digital literacy is then presented as enabling empowerment, a certain degree of autonomy, and a sense of responsibility that allows individuals to become involved and to demonstrate civic participation, and thus to become social actors, the concept of digital literacy converges with that of digital citizenship.

To summarise, digital literacy development can enable individuals:

- to increase their participation and engagement online (and offline);
- to continue to build their identity within various communities and in various forms of participation as social actors and citizens, users of digital tools, and by learning to live with others online (and offline).

3.5 Concept of digital literacy adopted by the project

Based on the analysis of the different facets of digital literacy that we have observed so far, our vision of digital literacy aligns with the definition proposed by Ferrari in the *DigComp* project. This definition focuses on the individual rather than the technology. Personal attributes or characteristics (soft skills, attitudes, values) are as important as knowledge and skills. Digital literacy is conceived as:

*a set of knowledge, skills, attitudes (thus including abilities, strategies, values and awareness) that are required when using ICT and digital media to perform tasks; solve problems; communicate; manage information; collaborate; create and share content; and build knowledge effectively, efficiently, appropriately, critically, creatively, autonomously, flexibly, ethically, reflectively for work, leisure, participation, learning, socialising, consuming, and empowerment.*⁴²

As seen earlier, digital literacy is a fluid concept, influenced both by the theoretical perspectives used by the authors who attempt to define it and by the evolution of technologies. Rather than trying to develop a fixed framework of skills to be acquired, it may be preferable to conceive of the concept as an evolving developmental process that focuses on the individual and their immediate environment.

3.6 Digital literacy and language learning and teaching

The concept of digital literacy has a prominent place in educational policies. There are many digital literacy initiatives at different levels (local, national, even supranational) aimed at preparing future generations to live within an information society.

41. (Ollivier and *e-lang* project, 2018, 11)

42. (Ferrari, 2012, p. 30).

What role can language education play in these initiatives and what are the intersecting points between digital literacy and language learning and teaching?

There are many connections between language learning and digital literacy development. It is possible to group the connections between these two areas into five broad categories:

- construction of meaning;
- communication and interaction;
- importance of contexts;
- agency;
- construction of identity.

Let us now review these elements.

Language and digital environments are frequently associated with the construction of meaning. Semiotics is an important component of linguistics and focuses on how meaning is constructed through, among other things, languages. This aspect is therefore very present in language education where the learner is exposed to new reference points, new representations, and new systems.

Digital tools offer new ways of conveying meaning. It makes it possible to create artefacts that are presented in various modes (visual and/or audio, for example), sometimes in combinations that are unique (a web page can include linguistic elements in the form of text, visual elements such as images, auditory elements in the form of sound clips, but also infographics that combine the linguistic and the visual, or videos that also combine several modes of conveying meaning). Some authors, such as Thorne⁴³, define digital literacy as a semiotic activity. Furthermore, as Ware⁴⁴ points out, although digital literacy studies are generally concerned with the development of these skills in the mother tongue, many elements of digital literacy are also present in the context of foreign or second languages. As described by Lotherington and Jenson, “*literacy engages people in texts and discourses that traverse space and time on screens in which we can access and mix semiotic resources that include a multiplicity of languages*”⁴⁵.

This citation also highlights the fact that digital literacy is concerned with communication and interaction mediated by the technologies that facilitate these exchanges in a variety of languages. In this way, digital literacy is not only associated with an individual’s personal skills, but also with their ability to (inter)act with others. These considerations are central to language learning and teaching.

43. (Thorne, 2013, p. 193): “Digital literacies is a term used to describe a semiotic activity mediated by electronic media”.

44. (Ware, 2017)

45. (Lotherington and Jenson, 2011, p. 226)

This aspect leads us directly to the importance of context in communication. Through our interactions, whether face-to-face or digital, contexts have a direct impact on the construction of meaning. These contexts, whether spatio-temporal, sociocultural, or socio-interactive (as we will see later in this book), influence communication. We do not, for example, interact in the same way if we express ourselves on an open platform or in private, in the context of a professional or personal activity for a targeted or undefined audience. These considerations, which may come more naturally in a first language, are more difficult to put into practice in a foreign language.

The development of digital literacy enables people to act using digital technology, thus, to increase their agency. Similarly, language teaching aims to develop independent and autonomous use of languages and to transform language learners into language users. This concept is prominent in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* and the recently published *Companion Volume*⁴⁶. In both cases, the aim is to develop a social actor.

Lastly, all these elements lead to the construction of identity. Digital technology allows for openness to the world and greater commitment. Moreover, beyond skills and knowledge, individuals must be able to adopt attitudes, behaviour, skills and know how to handle effectively not only digital technology, but also a language (or languages) other than their main language. We may consider as examples the ability to adapt our utterances to given communication situations, to recognise who the audience(s) is/are as they may belong to various communities (including speech communities), or to recognise and follow specificities of digital textual genres – an e-mail, for instance, is not written in the same style as a letter.

These connections between digital literacy and language learning and teaching are reflected in the model of digital literacy that was adopted in the *e-lang citizen* project. We will now describe and explain this model.

3.7 Digital literacy model adopted

For the *e-lang citizen* project, digital literacy refers to the combination of attitudes, awareness, knowledge, capacity to know how to act and behave, and competences. The model that was adopted is adapted from the one developed by Ollivier and the e-lang team⁴⁷ as part of the team's previous project with the ECML (European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe) on digital literacy and language teaching and learning. We have since slightly modified this model to include the multimodality of digital practices, to consider the context of these practices, which we believe influences them, and finally to add the citizenship aspect which is at the heart of our new project.

46. (Council of Europe, 2001 and 2020)

47. (Ollivier and *e-lang* project, 2018)

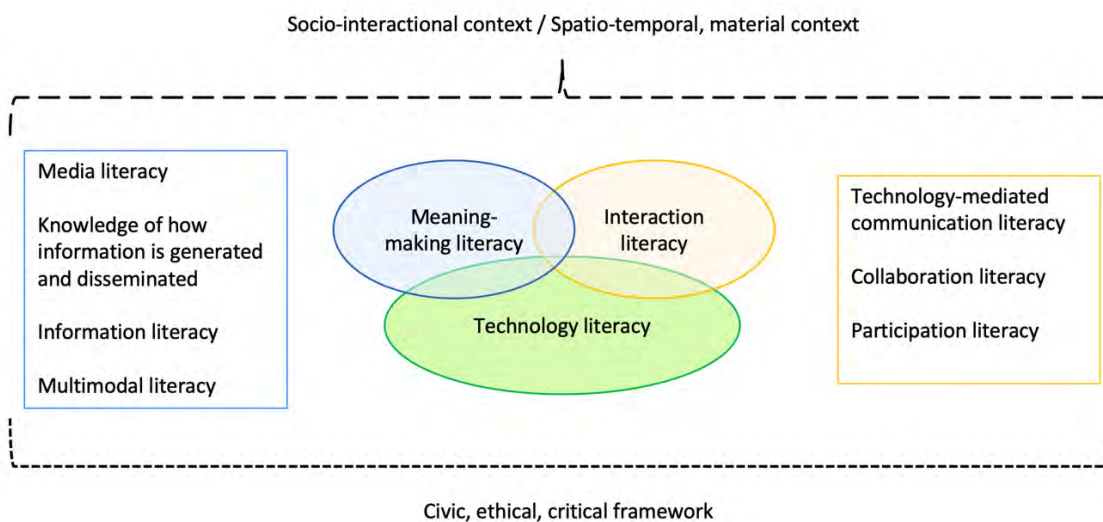


Figure 3: Model of digital literacy in language learning/teaching, adapted from Ollivier and the e-lang project (2018)

We will now review the various elements of this model.

3.7.1 Technology literacy

Technology literacy is the basis for digital literacy and the condition for the development of the other elements of digital literacy. It includes the ability to identify and handle digital tools and resources (device, software, application...) effectively. We are therefore dealing here with functional and operational skills. In the context of language learning and teaching, this may involve not only knowing that a good automatic translator exists, knowing how to use it appropriately and how to make use of all its features, but also knowing the technological limitations of this tool.

3.7.2 Meaning-making literacy

The areas that are included within meaning-making literacy deal with semiotics, i.e. the creation of meaning in various aspects or modes. They include:

- **Information literacy:** everything to do with information, from an individual’s ability to identify their own needs or gaps in a specific field to the ability to find sources for information, to evaluate and manage this information, and to create or transmit it. This constitutes a complex task in the first language when the context and sociocultural parameters are known, and it is even more challenging in a foreign or second language (and culture). It is more difficult to decode information when language or culture can create an additional barrier to accessing meaning, hence the value of an interdisciplinary approach.

- **Media literacy:** this focuses more specifically on the genres related to communication media (e.g. e-mail) and how messages are constructed and interpreted according to the platforms used. Again, language and language usages can have an influence on this literacy.
- **Knowledge of creation and dissemination of information** (also called “background knowledge”): this refers to the knowledge that a person can have of the ways in which information is produced and disseminated, for example understanding how articles are created on Wikipedia or how Google reviews are generated.
- **Multimodal literacy:** this literacy focuses on the creation of meaning from a variety of elements regardless of the communication modality: language, sounds, images, gestures, or space. This literacy is all the more important in language teaching as the scope or meaning of these elements may differ from one culture or community to another (think here of the use of emojis or certain signs or symbols linked to a community, such as the rainbow flag in relation to the LGBTQ+ community, for example); they may therefore provide clues or, on the contrary, create barriers to accessing meaning.

3.7.3 *Interaction literacy*

Interaction literacy combines the communicative and collaborative dimensions, as both are related to interactions between several people. It includes:

- **Technology-mediated communication literacy:** it refers to the awareness of the specificities of digitally mediated communication and of the genre(s) and style(s) of communication adapted to this medium. It is therefore related to the ability to (inter)act with others in an appropriate way using the available technologies;
- **Collaborative literacy:** this literacy is put into action to communicate, work or co-construct content with others using digital technology. It includes, among others, an intercultural awareness;
- **Participation literacy:** this focuses on online engagement and the ability to take part in (online) communities.

The contexts and framework listed below are key elements of our model. They define all these literacies since it is within the contexts and the framework that action takes place. They are therefore constantly changing.

3.7.4 *Socio-interactive context*

Interpersonal relationships and the socio-cultural dimension have a critical influence on (inter)action. Language learners/users need to be aware of the people they are addressing as well as the implications that this relationship, and the roles of each person within it, has on communication or exchange. They need to take these interactional factors into account when carrying out the task and actions. To participate effectively in a forum, one must, for example, be aware of the profile of the readers and their expectations, which also implies a respectful attitude towards others.

3.7.5 *Spatial, temporal, and material context*

The spatial, temporal, and material context refers to external factors and conditions that also influence (inter)action, such as location and material conditions. For example, a person does not communicate in the same way with her/his manager depending on time constraints, and the length of a message will also depend on the device (mobile phone or computer) or the application that is used to communicate.

3.7.6 *Critical, ethical, and citizenship framework*

The critical, ethical, and citizenship framework includes the values, attributes and attitudes that guide all practices within a digital space. This includes in particular:

- building and managing online identity;
- protecting and securing this identity;
- managing digital footprint issues;
- respecting others.

The critical dimension goes beyond that addressed in information literacy. What we mean here is the ability to take a step back from the information found online, knowing how to act or behave appropriately in a specific situation and environment within a digital space, and being able to question the benefits, limits and risks of digital tools, infrastructures, and practices.

This model is even more interesting in the context of language learning and teaching as it conceives learners as active users and aims to help them become digital citizens.

A good understanding of what digital literacy entails and how it has evolved provides a context for our discussion. It also helps us to understand its importance for the development of a digital citizen as user of languages and digital tools and resources. As we shall see, digital literacy and digital citizenship are two interconnected concepts. Digital citizenship, which is a more recent concept, appears to be a societal extension of the concept of digital literacy and therefore brings interesting elements that complement digital literacy.

4 An active, participatory, and transformative pedagogy

In this chapter, we will briefly present our pedagogical rationale and the foundations of our approach to language learning and teaching.

In the literature that we have analysed to draw a profile of the citizen as user of languages and digital tools, authors⁴⁸ strongly advocated an active pedagogy for digital citizenship education. We also believe that it is through experiencing digital citizenship that learners will be able to develop the different ways of acting that characterise a citizen as user of languages and digital tools.

4.1 Situated, distributed, and shared learning

The approach we present in this book is in part based on the socioconstructivist model of learning, as initially defined by von Glasersfeld⁴⁹ (for constructivism) and Vygotsky⁵⁰ (for socioconstructivism), enriched by recent approaches on situated, distributed, and shared cognition⁵¹.

Learning is situated because individuals construct their knowledge, skills, awareness, or attitudes through their activity within an individual and very specific context. This context is shaped by historical processes and social, economic, philosophical, or political representations that are specific to the context in which each person evolves and (inter)acts. When tasks are carried out on a participatory site as part of learning in an educational institution, this context is twofold. On the one hand, there is the context of the digital platform and on the other hand, there is the context of the educational environment. Each context plays a role in the experience and the learning that emerges from it.

Contributing to an open wiki to develop a free participatory travel guide (such as Wikitravel) or visiting a travel review site such as TripAdvisor to write a review will place users in contexts that are outside the educational space. However, the actions, attitudes, productions, and learning associated with participating in either of these platforms will be unique to each digital environment. On both sites, it is possible to share reviews of restaurants or bars. However, Wikitravel encourages people to present only establishments that they would recommend, whereas TripAdvisor welcomes users to post any reviews, including negative reviews. Both business models also invite citizens to question their need or desire to participate in these sites and if they do, what attitude to adopt on these platforms. From an educational standpoint, the values or beliefs of the people involved and of the system itself are marked by history, material conditions, or ideas of what education represents. Depending on the context, the teaching and learning process will be more or less collaborative, transmissive, teacher or learner centred,

48. (Committee of Ministers, 2019; Pierre, 2019)

49. (von Glasersfeld, 1984, 1995)

50. (Vygotsky, 1978)

51. (Atkinson, 2010; Thorne et al., 2021)

focused on specific objectives, skills, or attitudes. Consequently, a person who is carrying out a task on a participatory site within an institutional setting will be confronted with various systems of values, rights and responsibilities while also dealing with a digital context that will play a key role in their activity and learning.

This conception of situated learning leads us, in the case of work on digital communication, literacy and citizenship, to give preference to experiential learning. Indeed, we believe that individuals can learn to develop the knowledge, skills or attitudes necessary to exercise digital citizenship and appropriate language use when they are immersed in authentic situations.

The use of digital tools and resources has also become an essential element in the learning process. Some of these tools and resources can relieve the cognitive load. Others can help to compensate for a lack of knowledge or skills and thus support a person's language use and learning. If we place ourselves within a perspective of distributed cognition and consider digital tools as being complements to people's cognitive competences, we must then reflect over the benefits that they may bring to the realization of tasks. We must also consider their limits and the consequences they can have on people. For example, the use of an automatic translator (such as Google translation or DeepL) will make it possible to understand texts that would otherwise have been difficult to understand for someone who has only a basic level of competences in the target language. Access to information made possible in this way can facilitate learning. On the other hand, indiscriminate use of such tools may lead to the assumption that it is no longer useful, or even necessary, to learn languages. As a result, we feel that it is of utmost importance to be involved in an ongoing reflection on these aspects (see below).

Lastly, our approach emphasises the fact that learning has a strong social and interpersonal dimension as it takes place through interaction(s) with other people (peers, teachers, as well as any other individual who may be involved in the learning process). The context of learning also plays an essential role. In addition, learning by doing tasks on participatory sites involve other users of these sites. On the one hand, learner-contributors must keep in mind the people they are addressing. On the other hand, the reactions shown by these users, the feedback they may provide, or the type of modifications they make on original contributions, in the case of a wiki for example, will also contribute to the overall learning.

It is through experience, through interactions with others and with the environment and using different artefacts that people will learn and, in our case, develop their language competences and their digital literacy and citizenship. Situated, distributed, shared and participatory action thus has a transformative function. This should lead people to question and even change their positions, in particular by being confronted with the views and experiences of others⁵². All learning can then be considered transformative for those who re-evaluate their ideas, sometimes even their beliefs, or even what they thought was established knowledge.

52. (Lafortune & Daudelin, 2001)

This is what we aim to achieve through real-world tasks that enable learners to:

- experience communication in authentic situations;
- experience the exercise of citizenship;
- put into practice their digital literacy.

In terms of social interaction, on the one hand, learners carry out tasks on participatory sites where they have to take into account the people whom they are addressing and from whom they may get feedback. On the other hand, learners work with their teacher and peers to complete these tasks. These interactions that permit an experience of authentic communication, citizenship and digital literacy should enable learners to become aware of the nature of these interactions, as well as help learners develop the necessary conditions to implement them in well-defined authentic situations.

4.2 Providing support

Learning can be seen as an individual construction which is achieved through interaction with others, with a context and with digital tools. However, these interactions alone do not guarantee successful learning. Posting a message in an online forum, for example, does not necessarily mean that the person involved in the task has learned something or has achieved the intended learning objectives. Support is often needed to help people build their learning. Wood, Bruner, and Ross⁵³ have emphasised the importance of support to ensure successful learning. We note that this support aims in particular to:

- mobilise the learner to enhance their commitment to the task at hand. This is essential in real-world tasks. Teachers should not impose such a task, but rather propose it to the learners, trying to get them to engage with it as language users and digital citizens. This can be done by making the learning objectives explicit, by highlighting the language and citizenship dimensions related to the task or by focusing on the intrinsic value of the task;
- simplify the task by limiting any cognitive overload. This can be done by dividing the task into stages, by supporting the learners through the various stages, by preparing them in advance, or even by offering digital tools and resources to facilitate their work. Teachers should also ensure that the task is appropriate to the current proficiency level of their learners;
- keep the attention of the learner-language users on the essential elements of the task, in particular the social interactions involved. For instance, teachers can regularly refer learners to the social contract of the platform on which they must carry out the task

53. (Wood et al., 1976)

- its explicit and implicit rules – or remind them of the expectations that recipients or readers may have in regard to the result of the task;
- help learners to analyse existing productions as typical examples of what they might produce themselves;
- solicit, encourage and/or support initiatives, projects, ideas for tasks that students may generate.

In addition to these various roles played by a teacher-tutors there is – particularly in the field of citizenship – the role of helping learners-language users to reflect on their own action.

4.3 Reflection

For the development of digital citizenship and literacy, we consider that the act of reflecting⁵⁴ is a key element for two main reasons. On the one hand, our targeted audience has experienced, to varying degrees in their personal lives, digital tools that involved them as people and citizens. On the other hand, we are proposing tasks that should enable them to experience digital citizenship and literacy to develop their awareness, skills and attitudes as critical citizens, users of languages and digital technology.

Our pedagogical approach is built on the principle that we learn through action and through the reflection that is intrinsically linked to it. Our approach thus combines the following:

- tasks grounded in real life which put learners in a real situation and make them act “for real”, combined with a continuous reflection on the interactions involved, the process of carrying out the task, the artefacts mobilised, the ethical and responsible dimension of the task, etc.;
- specific activities that lead people to take a reflective look at their own use of digital technology and the uses to which they are exposed.

Real-world tasks aim to develop the potentials of a citizen as a user of languages and digital tools and resources by combining action and reflection. The learner acting as a reflective citizen is engaged in reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. As far as the former is concerned, during the task process, the action pushes learners to reflect in order, on the one hand, to apprehend the situation in which they act and, on the other hand, to behave as a responsible citizen. Once the task has been completed, we propose a reflection-on-action. This process should enable learners-users to look back at their action, critically assess the way in which they

54. See Schön (1994). It should be noted, however, that in the proposals for reflective activities that emphasise reflection on action, our conception differs somewhat from that of this author, who promotes the notion of reflection in and on action in the professional world. For more details on the topic of reflection, see Tardif, Borgès and Malo (2012) or Schneuwly (2012).

have carried out the task and solved any problems it may have posed. This post-reflection also enables them to become more aware of their (new) achievements. It encourages them to reflect on their actions as citizens using languages and digital technology. The role of accompanying teachers is essential at this stage. They can help learners reflect on their action during the task process and after the completion of the task.

Real-world tasks thus aim at developing learners' digital citizenship and literacy and at providing an opportunity to put them to best use in a digital space. Some of these tasks will involve uses that are familiar to the learners, others will not. The latter lets learners-users discover new possibilities, in particular creative or transformative digital usages (see Chapter 1 above), which will help to emphasise self-expression and identity building in the target language.

Other tasks will focus explicitly on reflection. They will focus on existing usages of digital tools by the learners or on usages that they encounter in their everyday life. The aim of these reflective tasks will be to encourage a reflection on these usages, to invite learners to distance themselves from the digital users they encounter on a daily basis, and even to consider opportunities for interaction in the target language. These tasks should also lead them, in the future, to be more reflective while they use digital technology and more aware of the values, norms, or rules that are associated with them.

Our pedagogical approach seeks to build competences, an awareness, or attitudes in learners. Therefore, it relies heavily on the combination of the following aspects:

- action and participation in real contexts, i.e. outside the educational environment, on digital platforms and using other digital artefacts where appropriate;
- interpersonal interactions (on online platforms and in teaching and learning situations) taking into account the context of interactions (online and offline);
- reflection;
- support by a teacher.

4.4 Connecting learning “*in the wild*” and in institutional settings

By inviting learners to act on platforms that were not originally designed for either language learning or the building of digital citizenship and by supporting them in these tasks, we are building a bridge between learning “*in the wild*”⁵⁵, i.e. outside of any educational context, and supported learning in an institutional setting. In this regard, our project aligns with a growing movement in the field of education and digital technology that is increasingly interested in the

55. (Hutchins, 1995)

learning possibilities that interactions on online platforms outside of educational spaces can bring.

Two (fairly) recent publications clearly illustrate this growing interest in learning “*in the wild*”. The first book, published in 2013, is entitled *Case studies of openness in the language classroom*⁵⁶. The second, published in 2019, is entitled *New case studies of openness in and beyond the language classroom*⁵⁷. Note the addition of “*beyond*” in the title. The first volume provides one contribution about students’ exchanges with Internet users through comments on blogs or through their own blogs. In contrast, the 2019 volume devotes an entire section to “Working *in open spaces*”. Similarly, in the field of language teaching and learning, the publication of a special issue of the journal *Language Learning and Technology* devoted to “*digital wilds*” is also evidence of this interest⁵⁸. Thorne, Hellerman and Jakonen⁵⁹ propose the idea of “*rewilding*” which consists of “*dynamically augmenting and integrating formal learning settings with the vibrancy of linguistically and experientially rich engagement occurring elsewhere in the social-material world*”. They call for “*increasing the ecological alignment of domesticated instructional spaces vis-à-vis the heterogeneity, complexity, and unpredictability of interaction in the wild (the latter defined here as extramural contexts)*”⁶⁰.

It is within this movement of interconnection between the educational world and the world outside education that we base our reflections on a socio-interactional approach implemented through real-world tasks. In this regard, our approach also aligns with the action-oriented approach of the *European Framework of Reference for Languages* and with project-based pedagogy. As a reminder, one of the major objectives of project-based pedagogy is precisely to connect the educational environment with the world outside of the educational space. Most specialists in project-based pedagogy include – as we do for real-world tasks in a socio-actional approach – a direct contact with the real world outside the walls of the institution. Kilpatrick asks, for example, the following question: “*could we [...] expect to find a better preparation for later life than practice in living now?*”⁶¹. Jung⁶² suggests that the specificity of projects is that they allow for the application of acquired skills in authentic life situations. Gudjons⁶³ places social relevance (“*gesellschaftliche Praxisrelevanz*”) among the ten criteria he provides for defining a project, indicating that, at best, a project has an impact on the real world.

56. (Beaven et al., 2013)

57. (Comas-Quinn et al., 2019)

58. (Sauro & Zourou, 2019)

59. (Thorne et al., 2021).

60. (Thorne et al., 2021, p. 108).

61. (Kilpatrick, 2009, p. 515).

62. (Jung, 2005)

63. (Gudjons, 1986)

4.5 In summary

Our pedagogical approach aligns with the following characteristics. It is:

- active and experiential because, in the case of real-world tasks, we propose that learners perform tasks in authentic social interactions outside the educational environment;
- participatory, as these tasks give learners the opportunity to act “for real” and to contribute to participatory sites;
- transformative, as the proposed tasks aim to form a citizen as user of languages and digital tools;
- reflective because, in all the activities and tasks proposed, learners are invited to reflect on their action, their uses of digital technology and those they are confronted with during and after the completion of the tasks and activities. At the very least, the tasks prepare them for such reflection.

Through this active, participatory, transformative, and reflective pedagogy involving tasks on open digital platforms, we further aim to connect learning in an institutional setting with participation and learning in real life, “*in the wild*”. Individuals are encouraged to be learners, and more importantly language users and digital citizens by experiencing authentic communication, digital literacy and citizenship.

In the following chapter we will specify the aspects that are directly related to language learning and teaching. We will also propose a socio-interactional typology of tasks and define more precisely real-world tasks.

5 Fundamentals of the socio-interactional approach – Primacy of social interactions

Our view of communicative competence has been largely specified in the pedagogical framework produced in the *e-lang* project⁶⁴ which precedes this one. Consequently, we will only repeat here the essential elements to enable readers to better understand our approach.

We consider that for all human action and communication, social interactions, i.e. the relationships between the people directly or indirectly involved in the action or communication, form a central element.

The *Companion Volume* of the *CEFR* also refers to the importance of this dimension in online interactions, stating as an ultimate goal (C2) that the individual should be able to “adjust language flexibly [...] to the context” and “adapt [...] their register and style to suit different online environments [...]”⁶⁵.

5.1 Social interactions

We speak of social interactions to emphasise the dynamics of human relationships. On the one hand, all actions and communication require interaction (direct or indirect) with other people. On the other hand, any action and communication can have repercussions on our relationship with these people. Therefore, acting always occurs within social interactions and we ought to take them into account and understand that any action may modify our relationship with the people concerned in the interaction. As such, we are all part of a socio-interactional movement which considers that social interactions are the decisive element of any communication or action and that all communication involves a co-production of meaning⁶⁶.

Before going any further, we will clarify the distinction between *social* interactions and *language* interactions. *Language* interaction occurs whenever language is used to interact with someone, and it includes turn taking. This can occur in writing or oral communication or via multimodal interaction. A debate, a conversation, or an exchange of messages on an instant messenger platform are examples of language interactions.

However, some uses of language do not constitute language interactions. For example, recording your greeting for your voice mail or leaving a message on someone’s voice mail is an oral production. Listening to the radio is an oral reception activity. They do not, however, include any interaction activity per se.

64. (Ollivier, 2018)

65. (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 85)

66. (Brassac, 2001, 2004; Charaudeau, 2006; Culioli, 1990; Jacques, 1979, 1979, 2000; Kasper, 2006; Kerbrat-Orecchioni, 2005; Mey, 2009)

Any use of language, whether language interaction occurs or not, forms part of *social* interactions, i.e. it is done by taking into consideration other people involved directly or indirectly in the said interaction. For instance, when we record a message for our voice mailbox, we keep in mind the people we think might call us. If we are looking for a job and are expecting calls from companies, we will probably avoid messages that sound too “cool” and instead, record a professional message. Similarly, on the radio, we do not listen to a comedian, a news anchor or a politician in the same way. Whether in language interaction, reception, production, or mediation – the four language activities acknowledged by the *CEFR*⁶⁷ – there are always *social* interactions underlying these language activities.

Every use of language takes place within social connections (direct or indirect, near or far) with other people. We speak of interactions to account for the fact that these connections are constantly changing. In any (inter)action, we may, in fact, be led to wonder about what we are going to do or say depending on the people involved. Very often, this gives rise to interactions in our minds. We will ask ourselves questions, wonder how what we are going to say or do will be understood, wonder about the intentions of the other person, we will provide internal answers to these questions, we will evaluate these answers, ask ourselves new questions, and so on. These social interactions are permanently present whether or not they involve language interaction. When we listen to the radio, we consciously or unconsciously take into account what we know or think we know about the person speaking. We do not listen in the same way to one politician as to another, to a humourist or an academic expert, even if they are discussing the same topic. We tend to wonder what they might mean based on what we already know about them. These processes always involve social interactions, yet, only in some cases do they involve language interactions.

5.2 Importance and influence of social interactions

Social interactions form the basis of the socio-interactional framework in which all action and communication take place. They also largely define communication and action. The following two examples will illustrate, on the one hand, this critical importance and influence of social interactions in human action and communication and, on the other hand, the dynamics of these interactions.

For our first example let’s imagine that you are planning to give a collective gift to a (girl)friend. You will need to communicate with the other people that plan to also contribute towards the gift. You will also need to consider these people’s needs and interests: what is their relationship with the friend for whom you are planning to buy a gift? How much can they afford? Are they sincerely interested in contributing towards the gift? What is your own relationship with them? It is also important to keep in mind the friend for whom the gift is intended, since the choice of gift depends directly on that person. Furthermore, the choice of gift will say something about your relationship with this friend, for example, about whether you know her tastes, or about the value of your friendship in terms of the time invested in

67. (Council of Europe 2001, 2020)

finding or making the gift, sometimes even in terms of its financial value. In the end, the gift may therefore have consequences on your relationship with the other people involved as well as with the friend, who may be disappointed that you know her so little or, on the contrary, delighted to receive the gift, or simply happy that you thought of her.

Our second example is more connected to the language dimension of interaction. During a radio programme, the host asked the French actress Isabelle Huppert whether she thinks about the audience when performing on stage. She replied as follows:

*on pense à lui et tout ce qu'on dit au fond, on le dit à son partenaire, [...] on le dit à soi-même aussi avant tout, mais on inclut le public dans ce qu'on dit. Ce n'est pas une adresse directe, mais le public est là, bien sûr*⁶⁸.

This statement shows that social interactions are numerous and multifaceted. It also shows that when acting in a play – i.e. a communicative activity – actors/actresses take into account their partner(s) to whom they are speaking directly, as well as themselves and the audience to whom they are speaking indirectly.

These two examples illustrate the complexity of social interactions that influence action and communication. When communicating, we must constantly keep in mind the people whom we are directly addressing through language, as well as other individuals who participate indirectly in the interaction and to whom we are speaking indirectly. We even need to consider other people who are not present but belong to the context of the interaction. Knowing how to communicate, as well as how to (inter)act, means being mindful of this complex web of relationships and taking it into account.

Let us look at another example. You need to prepare a short speech with a photo slide show for a (boy)friend's birthday. You will have to keep in mind the friend who is celebrating his birthday and the people who might attend the party. This will influence the choice of photos, the anecdotes they might tell, or the choice of register and words. Being aware of social interactions will enable you to communicate according to the relationships you entertains with the different people involved. This attention to all these potential social interactions will also ensure that communication does not have a negative effect on these relationships. For example, it is important to please the friend who is celebrating a birthday, to make everyone or certain people laugh and/or be moved, or to avoid offending anyone. To do this effectively, it is therefore essential to keep in mind all the people you are addressing. As such, preparing for the speech becomes an internal dialogical process: you plan your oral intervention *with* the people who will be involved in mind. You ask yourself whether your choices are relevant to all these

68. www.franceinter.fr/emissions/on-aura-tout-vu/on-aura-tout-vu-du-samedi-12-fevrier-2022, 46'24"-46'46". "We think of the audience and everything we say is basically said to our partner, [...] we say it to ourselves first, but we do include the audience in what we say. It's not a direct address, but the audience is there, of course."

people or to certain people for whom you are specifically targeting parts of your speech. You also ask yourself how these people will perceive what you are going to say.

In the tradition of Bakhtin⁶⁹, Jacques formulates this process of inner dialogue with the other as follows:

*ce sont mes oreilles qui te parlent parce que je signifie pour autant que je te comprends. C'est ma voix qui t'écoute parce qu'au fur et à mesure que je parle, j'écoute ou plutôt je parle l'écoute que je te prête de ma propre parole*⁷⁰.

Based on this line of thought and in accordance with scholars who follow in the tradition of Hymes⁷¹, we view language communication competence as multifaceted and composed of various dimensions or sub-competences: linguistic, socio-cultural, pragmatic, strategic, etc.⁷²

However, we also argue that the competence to (inter)act linguistically requires *first* a socio-interactive competence that allows a person to act and interact in accordance with the social interactions in question. Grillo explains this concept as follows: “l’aptitude à la communication [...] réclame encore et surtout une compétence communicationnelle qui garantit l’adéquation des actes accomplis relativement à la relation engagée”⁷³. It is on the basis of the social interactions involved that participants make their decisions concerning the other dimensions of communicative competence. For example, they will make specific linguistic choices according to the place, age, social status, or profession of their interlocutors⁷⁴; they will also use words or grammatical structures that are specifically adapted to the people they are addressing. As such and depending on the person or persons involved in the interaction, their pragmatic objectives will differ.

5.3 Social interactions and co-construction of meaning

The aspect of social interactions is even more important as the construction of meaning depends on the relationship individuals entertain with others. The same word or expression, for example, may not have the same meaning depending on the person who uses it. As the result of our relationships with others, certain terms can take on particular connotations and constitute a collaboration between people. During oral language interactions, the process of meaning construction, considered here as a collaborative act between people, is particularly visible. To

69. (Bakhtin, 1986)

70. (Jacques, 2000, p. 63) It is my ears that speak to you because I mean as much as I understand you. It is my voice that listens to you because, as I speak, I listen, or rather I speak the listening that I lend you of my own word.

71. (Canale & Swain, 1980a; Council of Europe, 2021; Coste, 1978; Hymes, 1972; Moirand, 1982)

72. For example, the *CEFR* considers three dimensions: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic (Council of Europe, 2001, 2021).

73. (Grillo, 2000, p. 257) The ability to communicate [...] still requires, above all, a communicative competence that guarantees the adequacy of the acts performed in relation to the relationship involved.

74. (Krefeld, 2015)

illustrate this fact, we will take the example below. It is an extract from a conversation taken from Brassac and Grégori⁷⁵ and slightly modified (and translated). It proposes four possible exchanges in which the first statement is always the same. These four extracts show how the interactions between the two interlocutors shape the meaning of the first statement. The scene takes place in front of L's apartment building, after E has just given L a lift.

Sequence 1

E1 Do you have a phone here?

L1 Yes, the place is modern.

E2 Ah ... I wouldn't have thought.

Sequence 2

E1 Do you have a phone here?

L1 Yes the number is 04-83-35-36-09.

E2 Ah that's great, I'll be able to call you then.

Sequence 3

E1 Do you have a phone here?

L1 Yes, the place is modern..

E2 (laughs) Ah well, I was hoping that you'd give me your number.

Sequence 4

E1 Do you have a phone here?

L1 Yes, the number is 04-83-35-36-094.

E2 Ahh, I wasn't actually asking you for the number.

In sequence 1, the meaning of E1 is constructed by both partners as a question about the presence or not of the telephone in the apartment. In sequence 2, the two interlocutors construct the meaning of E1 as an indirect request to obtain L's telephone number. In sequence 3, L co-constructs E1 as a request for information about the presence or absence of the telephone. E clarifies his intention in E2 and thus allows both interlocutors to co-construct E1 as an indirect request for L's phone number. In the last sequence, the opposite happens. L assumes that E wanted to know his phone number and E makes it clear that this was not his intention.

Brassac and Grégori conclude that it is difficult from the outside to know when the two people have understood each other:

If one is tempted to answer "yes, they understood each other in sequence 2", it is because one thinks that E's communicative intention was to ask for the phone number (and not just to ask if L had a phone). [...] But what right do we have to say this? In the end, the important thing is not to know what E meant when he said E1, "the important thing is the meaning that the two people give to their interaction, in the very moment of the conversation, to E1.

75. (Brassac & Grégori, 2000)

In other words, what is important is the meaning that E and L co-construct from E1. This conversation extract shows us that meaning is a production in which both interlocutors participate. The meaning only transpires through the interaction between the speaker/writer and the listener/reader.

5.4 Social interactions and online communities

So far, we have mainly talked about cases where people who are interacting socially already know each other and have developed an interpersonal relationship. However, in everyday life, we also communicate in formal and informal exchanges with people we know little or nothing about. This is particularly the case when we participate in online forums or participatory projects open to all. In cases such as these, the interpersonal is often replaced by the socio-cultural, i.e. the social rules of communication within the community of reference which determine “*the extent to which certain propositions and communicative functions are appropriate within a given socio-cultural context*”⁷⁶.

Within the context of informal interpersonal connections, these rules are mostly implicit. We acquire them by acting and seeing others act in various communities. These socio-cultural rules therefore depend on the community of reference. In France, for example, civil servants intuitively address each other by using the pronoun *vous* when they do not know each other; however when university students address each other, they typically know to use the informal address *tu* (in most academic fields) even if they do not know each other. Yet, these rules become less important if an interpersonal relationship has already been established. They are then replaced by interpersonal rules, usually implicit and derived from the state of the relationship. To go back to one of the examples mentioned above, we would say that a person can be on first-name terms with a civil servant if both persons know each other in another setting where they were already on first-name terms or if, over the course of meetings, a more personal relationship has been established.

In a more formal context, implicit rules can be complemented by explicit rules. For example, in recent years many communities (e.g. companies and institutions) have developed documents setting out rules of good conduct. States and organisations have long established rules or even laws that set out the rights and responsibilities of their members.

The same is true in the digital space, where part of this social contract is explicit, and part is implicit. The implicit part is acquired through the observation of how other individuals use language and interact. As for the explicit part, many communities provide details on the rules of interaction, resulting from usage and/or decisions taken by the community or by some of its members. For example, Wikipedia has defined certain rules over the years. The French site states that these were “*établies au début du projet Wikipédia, autrement dit sur la Wikipédia*

76. (Canale & Swain, 1980b, p. 30).

anglophone, essentiellement par l'usage, par consensus, sur les pages de discussion ou sur les listes de discussion" and that new ones were adopted "par prise de décision"⁷⁷.

These rules are linked to rights and responsibilities, as we have seen when we outlined the profile of the citizen as user of languages and digital tools. Wikipedia, for example, has established a "code of conduct"⁷⁸ which requires, among other things, that contributions be "made in a viewpoint-neutral way" and that copyright and general laws be respected. Wikivoyage, the participatory online travel guide, emphasises the primary importance of social interaction through a page of recommendations entitled "Wikitravel: the free travel guide". The Wikitravel community explicitly stresses that the mission of the site is to "create a free, complete, up-to-date and reliable world-wide travel guide". The site also specifies the intention that should guide all participation: "Wikitravellers are members of a world-wide community of contributors to Wikitravel. [...] it's probably safe to say that people who are involved with Wikitravel care about travel in general, and about sharing knowledge with others in particular.". What clearly transpires is that contributors must keep in mind the travellers who will be reading the contributions that they add to the site.

Regarding communication between members of the community, the code of conduct of the French version of Wikipedia states that "preference should be given to constructive exchanges of arguments as close as possible to the subject matter, refraining from any derogatory, aggressive or insulting remarks". The Universal Code of Conduct⁷⁹ adopted by the Board of Directors of the Wikimedia Foundation, to which the Wikipedia encyclopaedias belong, states that "each member of the Wikimedia community [...] is responsible for his or her actions" and that expected behaviour includes "mutual respect" (including "listening and trying to understand what others want to say to you"), "courtesy, collegiality, solidarity and good citizenship".

The importance of social interaction in relation to the notion of (digital) citizenship are clearly apparent in these rules. Being a citizen as user of languages and digital tools, means being able to act and interact within different communities, ranging from very large international communities to speech communities that bring together a few people engaged in a specific interaction. Acting as a citizen as user of languages and digital tools also means acting within the socio-interactive constraints of the community in which one is involved, whether these constraints are interpersonal or socio-cultural. This requires taking into account the specific rights and responsibilities that are defined by particular values and that underlie the various subgroups in which an individual is involved.

77. <https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wikip%C3%A9dia:R%C3%A8glesetrecommendations>. "Established at the beginning of the *Wikipedia* project, in other words on the English Wikipedia, essentially by usage, by consensus, on the discussion pages or on the discussion lists" and that new ones have been adopted "by decision".

78. <https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wikip%C3%A9dia:Codedebonneconduite>

79. <https://meta.wikimedia.org/wiki/UniversalCodeofConduct/fr>

A person may decide or even try to go against these constraints. However, they must realize that, in some cases, such decision may have legal consequences; a person may incur penalties, receive calls to order, be temporary or permanently excluded from a community, or even become ostracised by other members. At the interpersonal level, a departure from expected practice can lead to moments of uncertainty and misunderstanding or even to a deterioration of relationships. However, such behaviour can also have a positive and transformative effect. They can lead to positive changes in community practices and interpersonal relationships, usually if they occur at the right time, i.e. when the relationship is ready for further change. For example, a change from formal to informal language in languages where the distinction is known requires that the state of social interaction is favourable. This may happen naturally, or it may be negotiated after considering whether the time is right, or whether the other person would accept it. In other words, it may be done after the situation has been internally considered by all members and the decision to switch to an informal mode of communication feels right. The point to remember is that it is essential to be aware of the social interactions involved, their importance and the effect of our actions on them.

5.5 In summary

We note the following aspects:

- Social interactions form the central and decisive element of all action and communication for individuals, particularly for citizens, user of languages and digital tools;
- social interactions play a critical influence on the various options that are required for (inter)action and regarding the construction of meaning;
- social interactions are dynamic and evolve as actions occur.

We will now focus on the aspects of language learning and teaching that we feel are essential to help learners develop a strong social-interactional competence.

6 Pedagogical approach – Real-world tasks to (learn to) communicate for real

In the previous chapters, through the presentation of our model of digital literacy and the profile of a citizen as user of languages and digital tools, we have defined the objectives that digital literacy and citizenship education seek to achieve. We have also described the main pedagogical principles and the foundations of our approach that is based on linguistic theories. In this chapter, we will discuss the didactic dimension related to language teaching and learning. In particular, we will do the following:

- present the key elements of our socio-interactional approach and situate it in relation to the CEFR action-oriented perspective;
- define what we call real-world tasks, which constitute the key element of our approach;
- explain how we view the implementation of these tasks;
- specify the role played by teachers during the implementation of real-world tasks;
- discuss the issue of evaluation from a socio-interactional perspective;
- present what we call reflective tasks.

This chapter is followed by two examples of tasks that we expand on in more details: a real-world task and a reflective task.

6.1 Key elements of the socio-interactional approach

As we have explained earlier, social interactions are at the heart of all action and communication. In addition, (inter)acting linguistically requires a socio-interactional competence that allows a person to be in harmony with the social interactions involved. The socio-interactional approach in didactics therefore intends to place social interactions at the centre.

The socio-interactional approach views learners as social actors and places them in situations where they can go beyond their usual role of learner to become real users of languages and digital tools. In this way, the learner experiences first-hand the importance that various social interactions may have on communication.

The main objective of our approach is for learners to become aware of the importance of social interactions for any action taken by a person and a citizen. The objective is to help learners think beforehand about the socio-interactional perspective of the task that they are about to carry out, to keep it in mind throughout the task and, subsequently, to evaluate the

appropriateness of their action in relation to this perspective. This process should enable learners to develop their socio-interactive competence, which is the key to all action and interaction, as well as their digital literacy and citizenship.

We also felt it important to propose a typology of tasks characterised according to the social interactions involved, and to suggest tasks that are more likely to assist learners to develop their socio-interactive competence. This point is illustrated later in this chapter when we distinguish between target or rehearsal tasks to be implemented in simulated social interactions, tasks that take into account the social reality of the teacher-learners group, and tasks that are embedded in real life outside of the educational environment. Each of these tasks can contribute to helping learners develop their socio-interactive competence. We will show how real-world tasks present a particular interest in this regard.

6.2 A task-based approach and an extension of the action perspective

Influenced by the work on *Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT)* and the *CEFR*, language didactics has largely adopted the task as a central element of teaching and learning. Through what the *CEFR* calls “target tasks” or “rehearsal tasks” or “real-life tasks” in the 2001 version and in the *Companion Volume*, the aim is to prepare learners to be “a “social agent”, acting in the social world and exerting agency in the learning process”⁸⁰. It implies “learning to use language rather than just learning about the language (as a subject)”⁸¹. The aim is to develop the “ability to communicate in real life” in order to “enable learners to act in real-life situations, expressing themselves and accomplishing tasks of different natures”⁸². The *Companion Volume* also emphasises the “co-construction of meaning (through interaction)” in language. It states that “at times, this interaction will take place between teacher and learner(s), but at times, it will be of a collaborative nature, between learners themselves”⁸³.

Our approach has obvious similarities with the *CEFR* but it also contains elements that clearly differ from it. Like the *CEFR*:

- our approach aims to develop the ability to communicate and act (linguistically and non linguistically);
- our approach considers the learner and the user of languages as social actors;
- our approach proposes real-world tasks.

However, our approach proposes tasks that go beyond in-group interactions of learners and teachers and places greater emphasis on social interactions in authentic communicative contexts.

⁸⁰. (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 28)

⁸¹ (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 30)

⁸². (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 29)

⁸³. (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 30)

6.3 Typology of tasks according to social interactions

In general, when compared to the task-based approach, we propose to broaden the typology of tasks to allow learners to (inter)act beyond the educational context in complex, diverse and authentic social interactions. Nunan⁸⁴, for example, excludes real-world tasks from possible tasks in teaching-learning situations. As for target tasks, real-world tasks, or macro-tasks (depending on the authors), these are generally conceived as activities that reflect actions that learners may have to do in real life. In this sense, they are “close to real life”, but usually remain tasks that prepare for real world, carried out only within the teacher-learners group. Like other approaches, these types of tasks have their merits and have proven their legitimacy in language teaching. They have the advantage of providing learners with a safe space where their (inter)actions are not visible to the public, and where they can practise safely and make mistakes without any real consequences (such as affecting other people). However, these tasks are limited when it comes to providing diverse and authentic social interactions. In addition, the omnipresence of the teacher, who often also evaluates these tasks, means that the teacher-learner(s) social interaction plays a crucial role in the completion of the task.

Let us look at an example. If a teacher asks her/his learners to write an e-mail to a friend in the target language to invite them to their birthday party, in many cases the learner will not actually write to a friend (and do they have any friends with whom they communicate in the target language?). The students know that the only person who will read the e-mail will be their teacher. They will therefore act in accordance with the relationship they have with their teacher and will likely wonder what the teacher would expect of them if they were sending a birthday invitation by e-mail. As such, the learner will not have the supposed recipient of the e-mail in mind when they write the e-mail; instead, they will imagine that they are writing to their teacher and whomever she/he represents. The learner then pretends to write to a friend while in fact addressing their teacher. If the teacher then gives feedback to the learner, it will often include feedback or corrections on linguistic, pragmatic, or socio-cultural errors. In contrast, in real life, the recipient of such an e-mail would respond to indicate whether they could come to the party and would ask for clarification if something was unclear in the original e-mail.

The previous example illustrates that although the intention is to prepare learners, the characteristic social interactions of a teaching-learning situation can largely distort the communication context for which we intend to prepare learners. Therefore, we propose to add real-world tasks to the typical range of tasks. Real-world tasks are performed by learners in the “real” world, i.e. outside the educational environment.

We have divided the tasks into three main groups according to the social interactions they involve.

- The first group includes **tasks which involve simulated social interactions**, as seen in the e-mail example above. This simulation is central to global simulations and is

⁸⁴. (Nunan, 2004)

common in what the *CEFR* calls “target” or “rehearsal” tasks. In this kind of task, the recipients do not really exist and will not receive the product of the task. These tasks prepare for and reflect real life, but they take place entirely within a pedagogical situation. They may mobilise language uses close to those that a similar task would involve in real life, but the social interactions are also marked by the pedagogical framework. They are in some ways like theatre rehearsals, with the audience, the final recipient of the performances, missing. The advantage is that the setting is more protected than that of real life or the actual performance of the play.

- The second group includes what we will call the **tasks grounded in the social reality of the class**. The recipient of the product or result of these tasks is the teacher-learner group or certain people within this group. Pakdel discusses social action tasks, embedded in the “social context” in which learners find themselves. The class is seen “as a social entity in its own right within which each learner acts as a member”. In these tasks, “learners are not asked to adopt an imaginary social status or to consider themselves in a different spatiotemporal configuration from that in which they actually find themselves”⁸⁵. This can be, for example, advice given to each other on how to learn better, or writing workshops where it is known that the texts will be shared within the group. Also included in this type are exchange or telecollaboration projects between classes where the product of the task is addressed to all or some of the participants. In this type of tasks, the social interactions are real and authentic, and the tasks have a real social significance.
- The third group consists of **real-world tasks** which offer learners the opportunity to act and interact beyond the school institution in complex, diverse and, above all, real social interactions. Examples of such tasks include theatre performances open to a large audience, or a radio programme prepared and hosted by learners. As the *e-lang citizen* project focuses on the digital world, we will explain below the specificity of real-world tasks carried out online on participatory sites.

It should be noted that the same action can be performed as a target task, a task grounded in the social reality of the class or a real-world task. Teachers will choose the method of implementation according to their pedagogical motives, what competence they intend to help learners develop, or as a specific educational context. The teacher may also propose a rehearsal task (see 6.2) or a task grounded in the social reality of the class as options for learners who do not wish to participate in a real-world task. To illustrate these possibilities, we will look at an example where the objective of the task is to recommend a local restaurant or bar:

85. (Pakdel, 2011, pp. 123, 124 and 125)

- Target task
Imagine that you are involved in a project to create a tourist guide for your city. Choose a restaurant or bar in your city that you will introduce/recommend to help your (imaginary) readers prepare for their stay in your city.

- Tasks grounded in the social reality of the class
Do you sometimes go out to other restaurants or bars? We are going to write a short guide to restaurants and bars in our city for our group. Choose an establishment that you like and present it to give others ideas for going out.

- Real-world task
You will write a brief presentation of a restaurant or a bar in your city to share it on the Wikitravel website. In this way, you will participate in the construction of a participatory online tourist guide and help your readers to prepare for their stay in your city.

Each of these tasks has a similar objective, namely to introduce a restaurant or a bar. However, the social interactions and the stakes are very different. It is in the case of the real-world task that learners will experience authentic communication and action because through the task, they are addressing a large audience outside the educational institution who, above all, will potentially be interested in the contributions that learners will post. Learners will have to consider the social rules of the platform, the expectations of the future readers and the community (especially in terms of quality of information, the way it is presented, etc.). In other words, in the case of the real-world task, learners need to account for the whole complexity of the social interactions involved.

The approach we advocate is therefore action-oriented in that it proposes that learners be social actors and users of the language. It is socio-interactional in that it aims to develop strong socio-interactive skills and takes full account of the social interactions that underpin all action. Its specificity is that, in addition to the usual types of tasks that prepare for real life, it offers tasks that give learners-users the opportunity to use languages in real (non-simulated) social interactions beyond those of the educational context. Real-world tasks, carried out on participatory websites, allow learners to experience authentic communication and exercise their digital citizenship, while developing their language skills, digital literacy and the essential elements of an action as citizens, users of languages and digital tools.

6.4 Real-world tasks

As previously explained, real-world tasks are activities that contain a pedagogical element that is performed in the real world, outside the educational institution. The nature of these activities can differ greatly from traditional in-class ones and may or may not take place in a digital space. They may be of a very different nature and may or may not be part of the digital space.

However, as our focus is on the development of digital citizenship through language education, we will focus on *digital* real-world tasks.

For example, depending on the level of the learners, they can contribute to Wikipedia, publish information on an online tourist guide such as Wikivoyage or Wikitravel, or share a recipe on a dedicated forum. They could also respond to online inquiries (regarding their town, for example), make recordings of literary works available to blind or partially sighted people, share a text and photo tutorial or a video, participate in exchanges on a social network, etc. The project's team of experts and its network provide a database with many other detailed examples.

In the following sub-chapters, we will detail some specific features of real-world tasks that have not yet been mentioned.

6.4.1 What are real-world tasks

Like any other task proposed to learners, real-world tasks have a learning purpose. A task can focus on assisting the learners to develop their language, intercultural and plurilingual competences, their digital literacy, or other personal attributes that are necessary to exercise our digital citizenship.

The description of the task should include all essential elements for the learners.

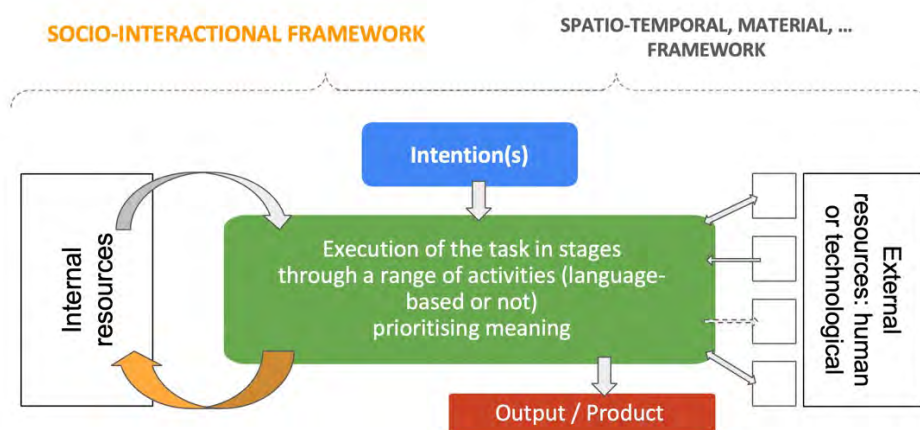


Figure 4: Task model

A task is performed within a specific socio-interactional framework which plays a decisive role. The spatio-temporal and material (tools available) framework is also influential – to a lesser degree but not negligible – on the progress of the task: a task will not be carried out in the same way depending on the time or tools available.

Directly related to the socio-interactional framework – the social interactions involved – are communicative purposes. It is important to make these explicit when presenting any task if we

want to avoid a situation where a learner is just performing a learning task: we write, for example, to respond to the teacher's instruction to learn to write and without any real intention to communicate. However, when a person shares an opinion on the page of a newspaper article dealing with a political theme (for example), it is in a spirit of commitment, of sharing and possibly debating with other Internet users.

From the intentions and the socio-interactional, spatio-temporal and material frameworks, an action will ensue which may be divided into several stages. This action will usually have a language dimension and a non-language dimension (including citizenship). For example, sharing information on a participatory tourist guide requires both language skills (e.g. because the information will have to be written) and non-language skills (e.g. everything to do with the choice and resizing of photos – if any are added – but also the formatting of the contribution as well as the selection and evaluation of the information a person chooses to give). It should be noted that these non-language aspects can provide an opportunity, in a school situation, to work with other disciplines (plastic arts, computer science, etc.). As far as the citizenship dimension is concerned, it is exercised as soon as we reflect on the choice of what we are going to put forward: if, for example, we present a restaurant, what type of restaurant will we choose? A vegetarian restaurant? Fair trade? Committed to waste reduction and recycling? Employing staff with disabilities? Etc.

To perform the task, the person will have to mobilise their internal resources, i.e. their competences, attitudes, awareness, or literacies. In addition, the completion of the task will ideally allow the person to enrich their internal resources. This task, in addition to the explicit learning objectives, will provide various opportunities for implicit learning.

To overcome difficulties that are beyond a person's internal resources, or to better manage the task, the user-learner may seek various external resources: human or non-human, technological or non-technological, digital, or non-digital. For example, if a person has difficulty understanding a text, they may request help (human resource) or use a dictionary (digital or not) or an automatic translator (digital resources). Depending on the way the person reflects on these external resources while using them and/or after using them, they may decide to integrate them into their own learning environment for a potential future use. While performing the task, a person may also learn specific strategies to better use these external resources.

Lastly, every task generates an output and an outcome. What we call an output is any noticeable element that is produced, in particular any visible, audible, or tangible element. This can be an e-mail, a letter, a post in a forum, a comment on a press article, an audio recording of a text, a photo, a video, etc. In some cases, the outcome will not be perceptible to the senses. For instance, an exchange may lead to a decision. Reading a text may lead to providing better information or producing an instance of pleasure.

The following two tasks contain all these elements (except for the resources which depend directly on the individual performing the task) which we have reproduced in the tables below.

We deliberately chose one task in which the citizenship dimension is evident and another in which it is present but not apparent at first sight.

Example of task 1

You will comment on a newspaper article on a subject related to your country or to international news. You may provide additional information and share your opinion with the newspaper's readers.

| | |
|---|--|
| Socio-interactional framework | The newspaper's website and its rules. The task is carried out with the "readers of the newspaper" in mind. |
| Spatial and temporal framework, material | The newspaper's website, in this case the space dedicated to comments on an article. |
| Purpose | To provide additional information and/or share opinions with the newspaper's readers. |
| Action with a language (and non-language) dimension | Write a commentary. |
| Output | The published commentary. |

Example of task 2

You will write an article on a restaurant or a bar in your city to share it on the Wikitravel website. In this way, you will participate in the construction of a participatory online tourist guide and help your readers to prepare for their stay in your city.

| | |
|---|--|
| Socio-interactional framework | The Wikitravel website and its rules. The task is carried out with "interested English-speaking tourists" in mind. |
| Spatial and temporal framework, material | The Wikitravel site, in this case a wiki. |
| Purpose | "Participate in the construction of a participatory online tourist guide and help [its] readers to prepare their stay in your city". |
| Action with a language (and non-language) dimension | "Write a presentation of a restaurant or bar in [your] city." |
| Output | The "presentation of a restaurant or bar in [their] city". |

6.4.2 *Pedagogical tasks derive from real-world*

As a rule, real-world digital tasks are not invented or designed by teachers. They already exist on some sites or parts of sites.

Wikipedia explicitly invites contributions. The slogan that accompanies the title of the encyclopaedia is in French: “L’encyclopédie libre que chacun peut améliorer”⁸⁶ and in English: “*the free encyclopedia that anyone can edit*”⁸⁷. In addition, the Wikipedia community has many pages that explain how to contribute. Likewise, the general forum on the Supertoinette website dedicated to cooking states: “this forum allows you to ask questions, provide answers, or share your secrets, tips, advice and comments on cooking”⁸⁸. In its rules, Twitter also states at the beginning: “L’objectif de Twitter est d’être au service de la conversation publique”⁸⁹ / “*Twitter’s purpose is to serve the public conversation*”⁹⁰.

In some cases, these tasks may be invented and reflect the originality and creativity of the learners; however, to be accepted on the chosen platform, they must fit in with its purpose. In addition, it is important that the product of the task addresses a real audience. The goal should not simply be to get noticed at all costs (by adopting practices that might not always reflect a sense of citizenship) but to learn to go beyond the social (learning) group that is made up of a teacher and other learners. For example, posting a video on YouTube is not in itself a real-world task if it is not aimed at a clearly identified potential wider audience. Many videos posted on YouTube are, in fact, only viewed a few times. It is therefore essential to target an existing or potential community and produce something that might be of real interest to that identified audience.

If the site invites real-world tasks, it is up to the teacher to decide how exactly the task should be formulated. A good formulation of the task will ensure that it is explicit and precise. If needed, the task instructions will include all the elements that required to fulfil the task (see 6.4.1). For example, asking learners to participate in the Wikihow website is a very vague task. Asking them to produce and share a tutorial on the best ways to learn languages by participating in participatory sites is a much more explicit real-world task. A more precise formulation of the task will allow teachers to refine the task according to the learners’ needs, competence level and teaching/learning objectives.

In some cases, real-world tasks can be entirely invented by teachers and the learners and can be done outside existing social platforms. Indeed, it is feasible that a group may wish to create a website on a particular theme, to defend their ideas or express their views of citizenship. However, in such a case, it may be difficult to give visibility to the project. Publishing a site

86. https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wikip%C3%A9dia:Accueil_principal

87. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page. “The free encyclopedia that anyone can edit”.

88. www.forums.supertoinette.com/

89. <https://help.twitter.com/fr/rules-and-policies/twitter-rules>

90. <https://help.twitter.com/en/rules-and-policies/twitter-rules>

that receives no or few visits from outside members loses some of the socio-interactional interest of real-world tasks. As a reminder, one of the main interests of real-world tasks is to allow people to act and interact socially with people outside the educational world. In addition, publishing sites that attract few readers contributes to the increase in data and data storage, hence it increases energy consumption.

6.4.3 Real-world tasks take place on open and participatory sites

Real-world tasks can be seen as a controlled version of informal language learning in the *digital wilds*⁹¹. The *digital wild* refers to learning outside the institutional educational framework through participation in communities or contexts whose primary purpose is not language learning or on sites that have not been developed by educational institutions and are not administered by such institutions. Several research studies have shown the value of involvement in participatory sites, including fanfiction communities⁹² and online games and their exchange platforms⁹³. Research has shown the following:

- learners make meaningful use of the target language in situations which enable them to interact authentically and meet real communicative needs;
- through participation in these sites, learners build an identity in the target language and an identity as users (not just learners), and in some cases become experts;
- they are motivated to learn the language of their “native” peers with whom they communicate;
- they develop strong linguistic and language competences that are specifically adapted to the situations they encounter.

Within our approach, the sites where real-world tasks are performed should meet the same criteria as those used to define the *digital wilds*⁹⁴:

- they are neither developed nor administered by an educational institution;
- they are not primarily concerned with language teaching or learning.

Real-world tasks offer an opportunity to enjoy the benefits of “*in the wild*” learning in teaching and learning situations. By proposing this type of task to learners, we invite them to (inter)act

91. (Sauro & Zourou, 2019)

92. Fan fiction is a text, often a story, that fans write and share, or even write together, to extend or transform a novel, manga, series, film, etc., or to give life to a celebrity they like.

93. (Black, 2009; Curwood, 2013; Hannibal Jensen, 2019; Lam & Kramersch, 2003; Lam & Rosario-Ramos, 2009; LeVelle & Levis, 2017; Pasfield-Neofitou, 2011; Sauro, 2017; Shafirova & Cassany, 2019; Sundqvist, 2009, 2019; Thorne & Black, 2011; Yi, 2007, 2008)

94. (Sauro & Zourou, 2019, p. 2)

and learn by (inter)acting on sites open to all. The support received by their peers and/or teachers allows them to approach the large, untamed spaces of the Internet and to travel through them as smoothly as possible. Moreover, the work on digital citizenship adds a tool to help learners act safely on online platforms.

6.4.4 Real-world tasks are not imposed, they are proposed

Pedagogical negotiation is part of any project and activity offered to learners. It is particularly important in the case of real-world tasks. Indeed, some researchers⁹⁵ have pointed out the potential problem of imposing real-world tasks on learners: if learners do not identify with the project, they may perform the task as a school task, ignoring the social-interactional framework embedded in the real-world task, and thus undermining the intended effects.

Moreover, in an approach to education for digital citizenship, we feel that we should not force learners to participate in a site that may hold values and principles with which they do not approve.

For these reasons, we advocate not imposing real-world tasks, but proposing them to the learners and explaining to them the interest of participating in them. If the whole group or some of its members refuse, they can suggest an alternative or teachers can propose a similar activity as a task grounded in the social reality of the class or as a rehearsal task. An example of variations of the same task was proposed above (see 6.3). Alternatives to those illustrated earlier are possible in most cases.

6.4.5 Real-world tasks have a dual grounding

We have just mentioned peer and teacher support for learners to enable them to participate in open platforms in the safest possible way and thus reduce their possible vulnerability. As such, real-world tasks are also grounded in the educational world.

This dual grounding also allows teachers to support learners in their acquisition of the target language. They can suggest activities or learning paths, or they can accompany them during the task process depending on the approach they choose (see below). Teachers can then provide feedback when necessary, or offer specific support as needs emerge.

Dual grounding also helps to bring authenticity to the teaching-learning situation. The language teacher acts as a specialist in the target language and in language teaching and learning. If the project has a strong non-language dimension and includes an interdisciplinary component, each teacher will act as a specialist in her/his own discipline. Teachers are the guides, assistants, and mediators of learning. The exchanges between them and the learners focus on the methods used to perform the task or any other elements which become, for the learners, learning objectives.

95. (Sockett & Toffoli, 2012; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010)

In this way, the classroom becomes the place where exchanges centre on the completion of the task. These exchanges can take place in the target language, in the language of schooling or in one or more languages available to the members of the class. The online platform is the place for communication in the target language driven by the task and its product.

6.5 Pedagogical implementation of real-world tasks

As mentioned above teachers can choose the approach they wish to use when proposing real-world tasks. In the area of language teaching, where tasks play a central role, two main approaches coexist: the strong and weak versions of *Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)*⁹⁶. The weak version, which Long calls “*task-based language teaching*” (*tblt*, with lower case letters) and Ellis calls “*task-supported language teaching*”, corresponds to an approach that proposes more or less precise teaching steps for carrying out the tasks. The objectives are set by teachers, who propose activities to achieve these objectives and carry out the task.

The strong version is the one we are using in the *e-lang citizen* project for the reasons we explain below.

6.5.1 *The philosophical ideas behind TBLT*

Long⁹⁷ indicates nine basic principles underpinning *TBLT*:

- *éducation intégrale*: educating the whole person that is, taking into account the person as a whole in a caring environment of cooperation;
- learning by doing;
- individual freedom: lessons plans are not set in advance, but guided by the individual needs of the learners and their (psycholinguistic) readiness to learn. Long sums up this concept in one formula: “*Students lead, the teacher follows*”⁹⁸;
- rationality, emphasizing “the power of reason, rational thinking, and science to bring about positive social change”⁹⁹;
- emancipation;
- learner-centredness: teaching content is defined by the present and future communicative needs of the learners and attention to language-related issues are guided by learners’ willingness to learn;

96. Ahmadian & Long, 2021; Ellis, 2003, 2017; Long, 1985, 2015; Nunan, 2004.

97. (Long, 2015, pp. 66-82). This presentation is from our 2021 publication (Caws et al., 2021).

98. (Long, 2015, p. 70)

99. (Long, 2015, p.71)

- egalitarian relationships between teachers and learners, reducing hierarchy, coercion and oppression of all forms, in particular to create favourable conditions for learning;
- participatory democracy, aimed in particular at involving the learner in the entire teaching-learning process (discussion of objectives, discussion of the approach to be implemented according to the specificities of the learners, assessment methods, etc.);
- mutual aid and cooperation.

6.5.2 *The TBLT approach adopted by e-lang citizen*

Several of the principles highlighted above correspond to aspects of digital citizenship education, to our pedagogical principles, to the idea that real-world tasks should not be imposed on learners, and to our view that a learner is a person and a user of languages and digital technology. Applying these principles provides an opportunity to harmonise the goals of citizenship with our approach by the implementation of real-world tasks. To that effect, you will see that the task sheets designed by the *e-lang citizen* project team propose a description of the task without a set procedure for carrying it out; also, the task sheets indicate only a few of the dimensions of digital literacy and citizenship that can be developed through the task.

In the strong version of *TBLT*, teachers suggest a task and leave it to the learners to decide how they want to accomplish it. Teachers only ensure that the task is achievable for learners, and they choose the task in relation to the affordances (that is the opportunities) it presents, that is, for the learning potential of the task. The goal is that learners will develop new knowledge, competences, and literacies by carrying out the chosen task.

The teacher’s role is to accompany the learners. This role is performed in two main ways: providing feedback when necessary and suggesting a particular focus on important elements (particularly linguistic, language and communicative aspects) when a specific need arises.

Long¹⁰⁰ talks about “*negative feedback*”, while Ellis¹⁰¹ prefers to talk about “*corrective feedback*”. In both cases, these refer to implicit and explicit feedback provided by teachers following learners’ errors with the intention to help them correct themselves and learn. As far as our approach is concerned, we simply speak of feedback to avoid focusing on the error or the correction and to favour positive and formative feedback.

To explain the “focus” aspect referred to by Long¹⁰² in the term “*focus on form*”: these are moments when learners are asked to focus their attention on an important element of language and possibly to do specific work on this aspect. In an approach that includes digital literacy and citizenship, we felt that it was appropriate to extend the notion of “*focus*”, initially centred on

100. (Long, 2015)

101. (Ellis, 2009)

102. (Long, 2015)

language aspects, to the various components of communication and action mediated by technologies in a space that requires citizenship. Examples of focus can be on a grammatical point that poses a problem and is necessary for the completion of the task as well as an aspect related to the dimension of digital citizenship or literacy that will have an impact on the task at hand. For instance, if the task requires a search for information and teachers find that the learners have difficulty evaluating and selecting what they find, they may propose to reflect on this search aspect and add activities to focus on it. Teachers could also suggest working specifically on the social rules of the chosen site. In the task sheets featured in the *e-lang citizen* project, we propose three main categories for these “*focuses*”: a category focused on language issues, another category focused on the socio-interactional dimension and a third category dealing with a critical reflection on the resources used, the process of carrying out the task and its citizenship dimension.

Teachers may also provide learners with *input*: additional resources that should help them to complete the task. These can be texts like the one to be produced, or documents containing essential information to be used for the task. In our worksheets, in line with our view that social interaction plays a central role, we either provide links to specific pages of sites that define the social contract of the platform, or we invite learners to conduct some research to discover the social rules of the platform before they carry out the task.

As an additional input or even a possible support to the task, we invite learners to pay particular attention to three types of elements: the socio-interactional dimension, the language dimension and the reflective dimensions that seem essential to us.

Regarding the socio-interactional dimension, we provide links to the pages containing the social contract of the site. In addition, we suggest ideas for reflecting on the other users of the platform and, for instance, what their expectations may be. This aspect helps to emphasise the crucial importance of social interactions and values. It also encourages consideration of the socio-interactional dimension to ensure that learners’ actions are informed and responsible in online communities.

Regarding the language dimension, we often encourage learners to analyse other users’ publications on the chosen site. We thus stress the fact that it is critical to be aware of the specificities of the genre of the expected output. A contribution to a tourist guide such as Wikivoyage, for example, is very different from a comment on TripAdvisor, even though in both cases a restaurant or hotel is recommended. This dimension is essential regarding digital literacy and requires a specific focus. To prepare for this, teachers could choose a few typical productions of the textual genre that other users have posted and that highlight the key elements of the genre: a particular textual structure, a specific style, recurring linguistic elements, etc. Within the framework of a “*focus on form*”, specific work can also be done with learners to help them observe and compare the texts chosen by their teacher, in order to identify what constitutes the typical structure and all the particular features.

We also propose, where appropriate, some digital tools that can be used as external resources to reinforce learners' internal resources. In addition, the ECML *ICT-REV* project (www.ecml.at/ict-rev) offers an inventory of ICT tools and open educational resources that teachers can consult.

Last, we suggest a phase of reflection (see below). Reflection consists in taking a critical look at the experience gained through the task. A particular focus on citizenship and digital literacy will be recommended. The objective of this time of reflection is to help learners develop their digital citizenship and literacy through critical thinking on their own actions. These elements of reflection can occur during and after the completion of the task. They contribute to the implementation of the two components of reflection as presented in the chapter on the pedagogical foundations of the project. This complements the learning that takes place during the gained experience of digital citizenship offered by completing the task.

An element of reflection can also be added on various other aspects: the values of the sites used to perform the tasks, the way in which other Internet users act on the site, the reliability of information found on certain sites, the issues of copyright, etc.

To help teachers who would prefer to propose tasks within a precise set of teaching steps, we also included in the teacher's sheet some possible steps that can be used to develop a lesson plan.

The last chapter of this book contains an example of a task sheet produced by the *e-lang citizen* project.

6.6 Teachers and their learners

6.6.1 Learners performing real-world tasks

Through the completion of real-world tasks, learners go beyond their role as learners to become users of languages and digital tools. The dual grounding in the real world and in the educational environment allows people to act primarily as learners in the class and primarily as users in the public space of the chosen platform. This unique situation may avoid the phenomena of "double enunciation" that research has noticed during regular exchanges within a classroom. For instance, Bange¹⁰³ has shown that learners will sometimes use rising intonation, normally associated with questions, while expressing an opinion. The reason for this is that, on the one hand, learners act as "communicators" and verbalise their thoughts and, on the other hand, they act as learners and ask for confirmation that the linguistic resources used are relevant or correct. While in the educational space they may act essentially as learners, on the platforms of real-world tasks they will be able to become real users of languages and digital tools. Real-world use is no longer postponed until after the preparation period in an educational institution; instead it is offered as part of the learning process.

103. (Bange, 1992)

Accomplished people and citizens

In the approach we advocate, we consider learners as people with knowledge, skills, attitudes, and the ability to be critical, etc. In the project, we consider this person as a citizen with rights and responsibilities and an individual who is capable of critical, responsible, and socially committed action in various communities as an observer/consumer, mediator, creator, or influencer. This is in line with the strong version of the TBLT which calls for the learner to be seen as capable of carrying out tasks by mobilising internal and complementary external resources.

The learner dimension is of course important. It is also taken into account in the grounding of the teaching-learning situation where teachers and the other members of the class will be able to provide the necessary support for each individual to complete the tasks.

Language and digital users in their own right

By participating in real-world tasks learners become full-fledged language users. The use of languages corresponds to the social contract of the chosen sites. Learner-users are guided to employ one or more languages depending on the site. On a French forum, for example, it is preferable to express oneself in French to discuss or debate with other Internet users. However, the experience of American students participating in English on the forums of the newspaper *Le Monde*¹⁰⁴ has shown that when a person respects the purpose of a site (in this case, to discuss current affairs) and can provide added value (because this person is from a country discussed in the forum), it is perfectly possible to use a language other than the dominant language and thus to engage in multilingual exchanges. In such cases, utilising inter-comprehension strategies or digital tools such as automatic translators can provide valuable aid to understanding your interlocutors.

Moreover, using one or more language(s) becomes more meaningful. It is no longer a question of using the language for the primary purpose of learning it, but of using it to act and interact with other speakers of the language. A person typically speaks a language or languages to communicate for real, to participate in exchanges with real people, or to make contributions of potential interest to other users of the platform. Research has shown that using languages in real-life contexts constitutes an important element of motivation; this motivation also arises from the fact that learners then realize that what they do in the target language is useful to others and taken seriously¹⁰⁵.

104. (Hanna & de Nooy, 2003)

105. (Ollivier, 2010)

Citizens, users of languages and digital technology like other individuals

Learner-users – in the sense that they are both learners (in the context of the institution) *and* users (of the site) – participate in the selected platforms like any other user of these sites, with the same rights and responsibilities. For this reason, drawing learners’ attention to the socio-interactive context, and to the social contract that governs action and communication on the chosen platform is a critical aspect of our approach.

This enables them to act as language and digital citizens and to exercise real digital citizenship while experiencing authentic communication in particular social interactions.

Experts

Learner-users, who perform real-world tasks, are required to mobilise, and share their knowledge and skills in the domain addressed by the task. They thus act as domain experts and share their knowledge in the target language to make it accessible to some of its speakers.

Sharing a video with tips for a video game, participating in online exchanges on the use of a digital artefact or on subjects of interest to the participants, sharing a recipe from one of their cultural worlds on a dedicated forum, adding information about their city or region on a participatory encyclopaedia, responding to future tourists who ask for advice on an upcoming stay in the learners’ country, all of these tasks require mobilising expertise that learners already possess or that they can develop further before publishing their contributions.

Teachers and their roles

Many of the roles played by teachers are evident from what was described above. We will summarize them below and add more details about teachers’ roles.

A prospector

Teachers might be termed prospectors in the sense that they will identify “natural resources”¹⁰⁶ (digital tools or resources) that are freely accessible and contain possible affordances for their learners, particularly at the socio-interactive and civic level. This search can be specific or part of an ongoing process automatically monitored. As they surf the Internet, teachers will be able to compile a list of sites and identify tasks that can be performed within these sites by analysing which elements could support learning, particularly regarding the development of language, literacy, and digital citizenship. This will give teachers a bank of tasks and sites that they can utilise for their learners when the time is right. In addition, the *e-lang citizen* project offers its own bank of tasks that teachers can browse using key words to find gold nuggets for their learners.

106. www.cnrtl.fr/definition/prospection

Teachers also act as prospectors when they check whether learners adhere to the real-world tasks that they propose (and not impose). It is essential that they draw learners' attention to the benefits and specificities of real-world tasks so that they perform them in accordance with the real socio-interactional context and not as educational tasks.

To motivate learners and ensure that learners comply with/carry out the tasks, it is recommended to perform a pre-analysis of their needs, values, and interests. Teachers will then be in a better position to propose tasks that correspond to their learners' aspirations and social needs.

An expert guide

This has been explained at length in an earlier section, so we will just briefly reiterate it here. If we opt for the strong version of the *TBLT*, a central role that teachers will play is mentoring students and responding to their needs as they perform their tasks. Through mentoring, teachers offer formative feedback and provide a focus to specific elements according to the needs that emerge during the completion of the task. They thus act as coaches and experts in the target language(s), in language teaching and learning, and in digital citizenship and literacy. To do this, they will have tested the proposed tasks themselves beforehand by contributing to the selected platforms, thus developing expertise that will enable them to better support learners.

This mentoring role is also present in the case of a “*task-supported language teaching*” approach¹⁰⁷ (see 6.5), but in this case, it is coupled with a guiding role since teachers propose a specific procedure to guide the completion of the task and the development of the targeted skills, knowledge, or literacy.

Teachers do not provide summative evaluation

We have indicated that in a *TBLT* approach, teachers are required to provide evaluative feedback to support learners in the completion of the task and their learning. However, it would be counterproductive to provide a summative assessment of the task product. This would adversely influence the socio-interactional context and could lead learners to question their teacher's expectations more than those of the audience for whom their productions are intended.

107. (Ellis, 2013)

6.7 The issue of evaluation

We address this issue because it is regularly brought up by teachers when we present our socio-interactive approach and real-world tasks.

6.7.1 *Social evaluation in the socio-interactive context of the task*

As we have mentioned above, teachers should not provide a summative evaluation of the students' outputs in order not to distort the socio-interactive context. The evaluation should ideally remain within the socio-interactive context of the task and be based on this social dimension. It will therefore be up to the users of the sites on which the real-world tasks are carried out to provide (or not) the social evaluation according to the social contract (implicit or explicit) of the community and their expectations.

This social evaluation can take many different forms. On a wiki, it can take the form of accepting or deleting contributions, but also of modifying and improving their content or form. Students who were invited to present their hometown on Wikipedia felt that comments on their texts were a sign of recognition of their contributions¹⁰⁸. On a recipe forum, blog or vlog, feedback can be a thank you, an opinion on how the recipe tasted, or even suggestions for alternatives. The feedback then focuses on what is essential in the specific context and on dimensions related to digital literacy and citizenship. On Wikipedia, what matters is the informational and formal quality of the contributions. On a recipe forum, the feasibility and outcome of the recipe will be the focus of the social evaluation. Learners can experience this social evaluation in accordance with the socio-interactive context of the task. In addition, the feedback provided by other Internet users can form an interesting basis for reflection on one's own action regarding linguistic, literacy, and citizenship dimensions (see examples of tasks in 7.2).

6.7.2 *Formative evaluation in the educational context*

While summative assessment by teachers is excluded, formative assessment is welcome. Indeed, it is an integral part of *TBLT* where evaluative feedback is seen as a primary source of learning.

Teachers who accompany learners in carrying out the task will therefore give them feedback whenever it is appropriate and relevant. They can also suggest (and not impose) that learners take an expert critical look at their productions before they publish them. This will help learners to better situate their contributions in the given socio-interactive context and will enhance the protection of learners-users (inter)acting in the *digital wild*.

108. (Ollivier, 2007, 2010)

6.7.3 *Peer and self-assessment*

As we have already mentioned, the task can be performed with peers. Peers can provide critical and constructive feedback on the work of the other members of the class. To guide this feedback, we recommend that teachers set aside a time to make a list of criteria that can be used to assess the quality of a contribution with their learners. This list can be established by reflecting on the expectations of the site's users and by consulting the social rules established by the community. It can be used for cross-assessment by peers, but also for self-assessment by the learners.

Depending on the site, these criteria vary. On Wikitravel, for example, it is requested that the descriptions of establishments (restaurants, cafés, bars, etc.) be written in a neutral manner, whereas this neutrality is not requested when publishing a review on a site such as TripAdvisor. The news website 20minutes, which allows comments on the articles published, requests that contributions be “written with care (spelling, grammar, typography). SMS language, abuse of typographical signs such as “????” or “!!!!”, and the use of capital letters should therefore be avoided”¹⁰⁹. This is not the case for all sites.

The site-specific list can also be completed with elements related to digital citizenship: were copyrights respected? Was the task performed in an informed way? Did the users exhibit proper ethical and responsible behaviour? Did they behave in a way that protects others and themselves? Etc.

A list of criteria should help to reinforce the need to pay attention to the socio-interactional context; it should also help learners to get used to enquiring about this context before participating in an open platform and, more generally, before using languages and digital tools.

6.7.4 *Mirror tasks for summative assessment*

Last, we must take into account that in many cases educational institutions require teachers to give grades and thus to carry out summative assessments. Since this is excluded at the level of the real-world task, we propose to reserve a time for summative assessment after the real-world task by giving learners a “mirror task” of the real-world task. This mirror task will be a real-world target task (see section 6.3 for the distinction between the different types of task). Following below are two examples of mirror tasks:

- After inviting learners to comment on a newspaper article on the website of a daily newspaper, they could be offered another article and asked to imagine that they are posting a comment on it.

109. www.20minutes.fr/charte-commentaires

- After learners have posted a short story about an unpleasant situation on a website such as VDM (www.viedemerde.fr/) or FML (www.fmylife.com/), they can be asked to tell a positive story from their life.

Teachers will set the evaluation criteria according to the institutional framework and the objectives they have set for the tasks. However, we invite them to focus as much as possible to what is essential in the original socio-interactional context. The criteria may have already been defined with the learners during the task in the process of self- or peer-assessment.

6.8 Reflective tasks

As we have previously mentioned, reflection is fundamental amongst the elements that we propose to learners to support them in completing tasks. To this end, the project proposes reflective tasks, in addition to the real-world tasks. The objective of these tasks is to make learners reflect on the advantages and limitations of digital technology, the way in which digital technology is used, and more specifically how they use it. Reflective tasks address different dimensions of digital citizenship and literacy.

This type of tasks can be designed in very different ways: group debates based on documents relating to digital usages; individual reflections on personal usages of digital technology in the form of a diary or feedback journal; surveys distributed to the class or even to users outside of the educational institution; posters highlighting advice on how to act as a citizen when using digital technology; etc.

One of the tasks we suggest is centred on an exchange that occurred between learners and their teacher about an incident that has occupied the Wikipedia community, in Scots, the Scottish language. A teenager wrote many contributions to the encyclopaedia without knowing the language. The community was divided between those who considered this an act of vandalism and depreciation of the Scots language and those who felt that the young man had done a great job and contributed to the growth of the encyclopaedia. The Wikipedia community still had to correct the articles. The discussions provoked by this event are used as an opportunity to reflect on the process of creating and managing information on a wiki such as Wikipedia, on the literacies needed to participate in the online encyclopaedia and on the perception that learners may have of Wikipedia.

7 Presentation of the task sheets

In this last chapter, we present the structure of the task sheets that have been produced by the *e-lang citizen* project. The purpose of these task sheets is threefold:

- provide teachers with tasks that they can adapt and implement in their own contexts;
- provide concrete illustrations of the approach proposed in the framework;
- motivate teachers to design their own activities by following the proposed model and adapting it to their own teaching and style.

We illustrate the presentation with extracts from a real-world task and a reflective task. These sheets can be downloaded from the project website through a database. The database allows users to select the tasks in various ways: proficiency level as per the *CEFR*, level of education, language targeted for the activity, and, of course, dimensions of literacy and digital citizenship. These sheets were developed by the *e-lang citizen* team and participants in the project network which was initiated in February 2022.

7.1 A two-part sheet

Each sheet has two parts: the first is intended for teachers, the second describes the suggested activity to learners. The sheets are provided in text format. Teachers can therefore modify them to suit their audience.

7.2 Sections of the sheets

7.2.1 Task

Both teacher and learner sheets start with the presentation of the task exactly as it can be suggested to learners.

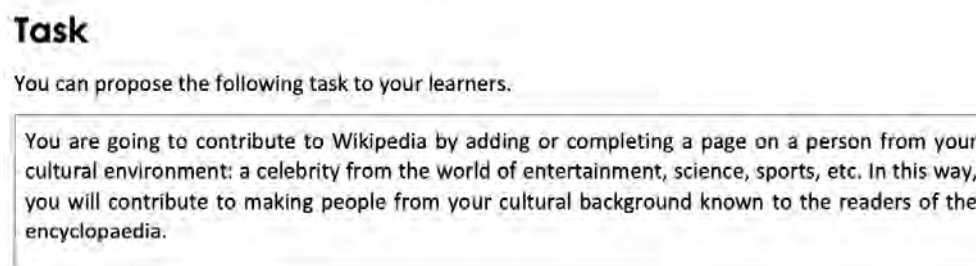


Figure 5: Task description in “Present a personality on Wikipedia” sheet

The task indicates the elements that characterise it, namely:

- an action (with a language dimension and often also a non-language dimension): here, adding or completing the presentation of a celebrity requires a language activity, since it is necessary to write a text, and it also includes a non-language dimension, the specific formatting of a Wikipedia article, for example;
- social interactions: here, with Wikipedia readers;
- the context: here, the encyclopaedia;
- the intention: here, to contribute to Wikipedia.

7.2.2 *Website*

The following section presents the site(s) that the *e-lang* team selected for this specific task.

| |
|---|
| <p>Site</p> <p>Wikipedia:https://www.wikipedia.org</p> <p>The encyclopaedia is based on the collaborative principle of a wiki, i.e., a platform engine that allows several people to edit web pages. Everyone can participate in this project by sharing their knowledge or skills (in formatting for example). No registration is necessary, but the IP address of the publication (allowing the identification and location of the computer used) is then recorded by the site and appears in the history of the page.</p> <p>The online encyclopaedia is available in many languages.</p> <p>Alternative for young children: there is a collaborative encyclopaedia created by children in French: Wikimini, https://fr.wikimini.org/wiki/Accueil. For French and other languages, there is also Vikidia: https://www.vikidia.org/.</p> |
|---|

**Figure 6: Presentation of suggested sites in
“Present a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet**

7.2.3 *Other information: level, language activities covered, digital citizenship and literacy objectives*

Various information is then provided.

- The **CEFR level** at which the task seems possible. It is given as an indication. It should be noted that the tasks are adaptable to different levels from the one indicated.

- The objectives in terms of digital citizenship and literacy. For digital citizenship, the objectives correspond to the ways of acting, defined above:
 - o competent and efficient;
 - o informed and aware (enlightened);
 - o ethical and responsible (free, meaningful, courteous, respectful, tolerant, inclusive, following netiquette, legal);
 - o safe for the individual engaged in the task, for others, for the environment, for physical and mental health, etc.;
 - o coherent (in line with an individual’s personal beliefs, values, etc.).

For digital literacy, the objectives are linked to the dimensions of digital literacy as presented in Chapter 2:

- o technology literacy;
- o media literacy;
- o knowledge of the creation and dissemination of information;
- o information literacy;
- o visual literacy;
- o technology-mediated communication literacy;
- o collaborative literacy;
- o participation literacy.

Digital citizenship and literacy

| | Dimensions covered by the task | Possible specific objectives |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
| Digital Citizenship | Ethical and responsible | Selecting personalities according to thoughtful, responsible, and ethical criteria, possibly favouring articles on personalities based on their gender or their membership of visible or invisible minorities. |
| | Critical | Taking a critical look at Wikipedia, its operation, and its reliability. |
| Meaning-making literacy | Information Literacy | Carrying out documentary research. |
| Interaction Literacy | Participation Literacy | Contributing to an online collaborative encyclopaedia. |

Figure 7: Digital citizenship and literacy objectives in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet

This information can be found in the “teacher” and “learner” sheets; however, it is presented in different ways. The description is more technical for teachers. It indicates the key dimensions of digital literacy and citizenship that are addressed. The aim is not to list all the possible dimensions that the task requires, but only those that we propose to focus on.

- The sheets also indicate the **priority language activities**. This information is provided for guidance only. We do not list all the language activities that may be required to carry out the task; instead, we focus on those that are central to the task and on which, according to the project team, teachers could work more specifically. Teachers will adapt these activities to their context and the needs of their learners.

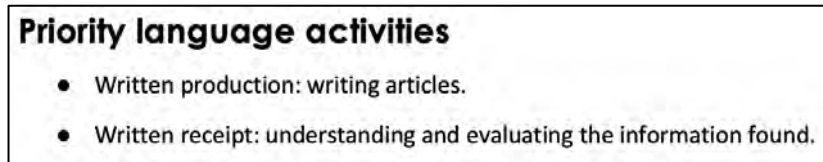


Figure 8: List of language activities targeted in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet

- For tasks that include a plurilingual and/or intercultural dimension, explicit information is indicated.

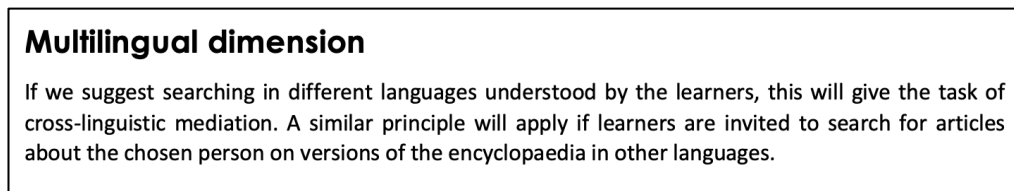


Figure 9: Presentation of the multilingual dimension in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet

7.2.4 Possible steps

The approach adopted is *Task-Based Language Teaching*, i.e. without a scenario, as the learner sheet will show. However, the project team was keen to offer teachers a possible sequence of steps to complete the task. This is primarily aimed at practitioners who are more inclined to provide their learners with a teaching scenario.

These possible steps constitute, of course, only a proposal, and they are not included in the learner sheet. Instead of these suggested steps, the learner sheet includes advice separated in two distinct parts. As explained earlier, we consider these hints essential.

7.2.5 Hints – Keep in mind who you are addressing

This part draws learners’ attention to the socio-interactional dimension of the task. It often includes recommendations on ways to find and consider the social contract of the chosen site or to think about the expectations that people who will read or view the productions will have in mind.

Keep in mind who you are addressing

Before you start preparing your article, it would be worthwhile to find out about the social rules of the Wikipedia community. In the different languages, there is a page that specifies these and gives recommendations. Check this page in the target language and/or in other languages you understand.

You can access the page in French "[Règles et recommandations](#)" or in English "[Policies and guidelines](#)" and then choose one of the many languages in which it exists. Listing the rules that you think are essential will give you a grid for evaluating your contribution once you have made it.

When choosing information, also think about what readers would like to find on your page.

**Figure 10: Hints for learners in
“Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet: socio-interactional component**

7.2.6 Hints – Work on the language-related aspects

This second section of advice focuses on the language dimension and the genre of the text to be produced. It provides recommendations for discovering, analysing, and considering the specific format of the textual genre to be produced. It frequently encourages learners to consult documents like those to be produced, to identify particular (para)textual, (meta)discursive, multimodal elements and then to produce documents that are as close as possible to the genre expectations.

Work on the language-related aspects

Consult similar pages in the target language by looking for personalities from the same field as the one you are going to present. You can analyse them to help you build your article: what is the structure of these pages? What information is given? In which order? Is there a particular layout with sidebars? Are there any recurring linguistic elements?

**Figure 11: Hints for learners in
“Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” task sheet: language component**

This aspect allows learners to work on the new genres generated by digital practices.

7.2.7 Aspects to think about

This is the part that corresponds to the reflective tasks that we mentioned earlier in this booklet. Learners are invited to reflect on their digital practice during the task, and above all on the literary and civic dimension of the task. For example, they will be asked to think about the change of perspective that a task can generate, or about the (civic) criteria of choice when it comes to presenting a person, a place, or a restaurant.

For you to think about

While completing this task, you can reflect on the following:

- What do you think of this way of working of the encyclopaedia?
- Has this experience changed your view of Wikipedia, especially its reliability? Why or why not? Have you thought about “sourcing” your article? Why do you think this is relevant (or not)? Does it encourage you to check in the future whether sources are indicated on the articles you consult?
- What guided your choice of ‘your’ personality? What other criteria could you have used? Have you thought about posting an article about a personality based on their gender, visible or invisible minority status? Why or why not? Why might it be important to feature this kind of personality?

**Figure 12: Suggestions for reflection
in “Presenting a personality on Wikipedia” learner task sheet**

These suggestions are an integral part of the task (during and after the task) and are a key element of the digital citizenship and literacy development as featured on the learner sheets. We therefore recommend that teachers encourage learners to read this section carefully before starting on the task.

7.3 Differences between the real-world task sheets and reflective task sheet

Reflective tasks encourage, as the name suggests, reflection on a specific aspect of digital citizenship based on a document that can trigger a discussion or through a target task that addresses one or more dimensions of digital citizenship.

Teacher sheets are constructed in the same way for all types of tasks.

Learner sheets may differ slightly in the types of advice given. The headings “Keep in mind who you are addressing” and “Work on the language dimension” are not relevant to all the tasks proposed. They are either removed or replaced by advice more appropriate to the task. The FOMO sheet, for example, only has a section on “Work on the language dimension”. The WikiHow sheet offers advice on how to implement the task.

For you to think about

While completing this task, you can reflect on the following:

- What kind of information do you find in the selected texts?
- When you compare articles on a particular topic, what differences do you find regarding the advice offered? Could you explain these differences?
- In your opinion, is the content appropriate or sufficient? Is all the information valid, necessary and/or correct? Why or why not?
- Is there any possibility to comment or revise the content?
- What limitations or weaknesses of Wikihow have you identified? Do you plan to use the site in the future? Why or why not? And if so, what precautions will you take?
- Does reading this/these text(s) change your view of Wikihow? If so, how?
- In your opinion, what qualities, skills and knowledge are necessary to contribute to Wikihow?
- If you used Resoomer and/or an automatic translator, what did you think of their performance? Did they help you understand the texts? What limitations or weaknesses of these tools have you identified?

**Figure 13: Hints for learners
in the reflective task sheet “Wikihow - the world of instructions”**

8 Invitation

We invite all readers of this booklet to consult the database on the project website (www.ecml.at/elangcitizen) and to make full use of the sheets that we have included. These sheets may be adapted to their users' context and to the needs of their learners. All are available in English and French. They offer tasks that can be performed in various European languages.

We hope that these sheets will provide many opportunities to engage in real-world and reflective tasks with learners and that they will help them develop their language skills, as well as their digital literacy and citizenship. We also hope that these tasks will inspire teachers to develop their own reflective and real-world tasks.

Bibliography

Ahmadian M. J. & Long M. H. (eds.) (2021), *The Cambridge handbook of task-based language teaching*, Cambridge University Press, <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108868327>.

Alharbi W. O. & Alturki K. I. (2018), "Social media contribution to the promotion of digital citizenship among female students at Imam Mohammed Bin Saud Islamic University in Riyadh", *English Language Teaching*, 11(1), pp. 80-92, <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n1p80>.

Atkinson D. (2010), "Extended, embodied cognition and second language acquisition", *Applied Linguistics*, 31, pp. 599-622, <https://doi.org/10.1093/APPLIN/AMQ009>.

Bakhtin M. M. (1986), "The problem of speech genres", in M. M. Bakhtin, *Speech genres and other late essays*, University of Texas Press, pp. 60-102.

Bange P. (1992), "À propos de la communication et de l'apprentissage de L2 (notamment dans ses formes institutionnelles). Acquisition et interaction en langue étrangère. Nouvelles perspectives dans l'étude de l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère en milieu scolaire et en milieu social", 1, pp. 53-85, <https://journals.openedition.org/aile/4875>.

Beaven A., Comas-Quinn A. & Sawhill B. (eds.) (2013), *Case studies of openness in the language classroom*, Research-publishing.net.

Black R. W. (2009), "Online fan fiction, global identities, and imagination", *Research in the Teaching of English*, 43(4), pp. 397-425.

Brassac C. (2001), "L'interaction communicative, entre intersubjectivité et interobjectivité", *Langages*, 144, pp. 39-57.

Brassac C. (2004), "Action située et distribuée et analyse du discours : Quelques interrogations", *Cahiers de linguistique française*, 26, pp. 251-268.

Brassac C., & Grégori N. (2000), "Co-construction de sens en situation de conception d'un outil didactique", *Studia Romanica Posnaniensia*, 25/26, pp. 55-66, https://repozytorium.amu.edu.pl/jspui/bitstream/10593/7549/1/06_Ch_Brassac_N_Gregori_Co-construction%20de%20sens%20en%20situation%20de%20conception_55-66.pdf.

Brown E. L., Krūsteva A. & Ranieri M. (eds.) (2016), *E-learning and social media: The cost of integration*, Vol. 10, Information Age Publishing; eBook Collection (EBSCOhost).

Byram M. (1997), *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*, Multilingual Matters.

Canale M. & Swain M. (1980a), *Approaches to communicative competence*, SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Canale M. & Swain M. (1980b), “Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing”, *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), pp. 1-47.

Cassells D., Gilleran A., Morvan C. & Scimeca S. (2016), *Élever des citoyens européens. Développer la citoyenneté active avec eTwinning 2016*, Bureau d’assistance européen eTwinning, www.etwinning.net/eun-files/book2016/FR_eTwinningBook.pdf.

Caws C., Hamel M.-J., Jeanneau C. & Ollivier C. (2021), *Formation en langues et littérature numérique en contextes ouverts – Une approche socio-interactionnelle*, Éditions des archives contemporaines, www.archivescontemporaines.com/books/9782813003911.

Charaudeau P. (2006), La situation de communication comme lieu de conditionnement du surgissement interdiscursif, *Tranel (Travaux neuchâtelois de linguistique)*, 44, pp. 27-38, <http://doc.rero.ch/record/12852?ln=fr>.

Choi M., Glassman M. & Cristol D. (2017), “What it means to be a citizen in the internet age: Development of a reliable and valid digital citizenship scale”, *Computers & Education*, 107, pp. 100-112, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2017.01.002>.

Comas-Quinn A., Beaven A. & Sawhill B. (eds.) (2019), *New case studies of openness in and beyond the language classroom*, Research-publishing.net.

Coste D. (1978), “Lecture et compétence de communication”, *Le Français dans le monde*, 141, pp. 25-33.

Council of Europe (2001), *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, Cambridge University Press, <https://rm.coe.int/16802fc1bf>.

Council of Europe (2010), *Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education*, www.coe.int/edc.

Council of Europe (2019), Recommendation CM/Rec(2019)10 of the Committee of Ministers to member states to develop and promote digital citizenship education, [https://search.coe.int/cm/Pages/result_details.aspx?Reference=CM/Rec\(2019\)10](https://search.coe.int/cm/Pages/result_details.aspx?Reference=CM/Rec(2019)10).

Council of Europe (2020), *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Companion volume*, Council of Europe Publishing, Strasbourg, www.coe.int/lang-cefr.

Culioli A. (1990), *Pour une linguistique de l'énonciation*, Ophrys.

Curwood J. S. (2013), "Fan fiction, remix culture, and The Potter Games", in V. E. Frankel (ed.), *Teaching with Harry Potter – Essays on classroom wizardry from elementary school to college*, Jefferson, pp. 81-92.

Ellis R. (2003), *Task-based language learning and teaching*, Oxford University Press.

Ellis R. (2009), "Corrective feedback and teacher development", *L2 Journal*, 1(1), <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/2504d6w3>.

Ellis R. (2017), "Task-based language teaching", in S. Loewen & M. Sato (eds.), *The Routledge handbook of instructed second language acquisition*, Routledge, pp. 108-125.

Emejulu A. & McGregor C. (2019), "Towards a radical digital citizenship in digital education", *Critical Studies in Education*, 60(1), pp. 131-147, <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2016.1234494>.

E-lang team (2021), *Citizens as users of languages and digital technology*, Council of Europe (European Centre for Modern Languages), www.ecml.at/Portals/1/6MTP/project-ollivier/documents/e-lang-citizen-profile-EN.pdf.

Frau-Meigs D., O'Neill B., Soriani A. & Tomé V. (2017), *Digital citizenship education – Overview and new perspectives*, Council of Europe, <https://rm.coe.int/prems-187117-gbr-2511-digital-citizenship-literature-review-8432-web-1/168077bc6a>.

Gilster P. (1997), *Digital literacy*, Wiley Computer Pub.

Grillo E. (2000), *Intentionnalité et signifiante : Une approche dialogique*, Peter Lang.

Gudjons H. (1986), *Handlungsorientiert lehren und lernen: Projektunterricht und Schüleraktivität*, Klinkhardt.

Hanna B. E. & de Nooy J. (2003), "A funny thing happened on the way to the forum: Electronic discussion and foreign language learning", *Language Learning and Technology*, 7(1), pp. 71-85, <https://www.lltjournal.org/item/2418>.

Hannibal Jensen S. (2019), "Language learning in the wild: A young user perspective", *Language Learning and Technology*, 23(1), pp. 72-86.

- Hutchins E. (1995), *Cognition in the wild*, MIT Press.
- Hymes D. H. (1972), “On communicative competence”, in J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (eds.), *Sociolinguistics. Selected Readings* Penguin, pp. 269-293.
- Jacques F. (1979), *Dialogiques: Recherches logiques sur le dialogue*, Presses universitaires de France.
- Jacques F. (1982), “Le schéma jakobsonien de la communication est-il devenu un obstacle épistémologique”, in N. Mouloud & P. Vienne (eds.), *Langages, connaissance et pratique*, PUL, pp. 157-184.
- Jacques F. (1985), *Dialogiques 2 – L’espace logique de l’interlocution*, Presses Universitaires de France.
- Jacques F. (2000), *Écrits anthropologiques: Philosophie de l’esprit et cognition*, L’Harmattan.
- Jeanneau C. & Ollivier C. (2018), “The e-lang Project: Towards a socio-interactional approach for language teaching and learning”, *TEANGA – The Journal of the Irish Association for Applied Linguistics*, 25, pp. 154-169, <https://journal.iraal.ie/index.php/teanga/article/view/59>.
- Jung E. (2005), “Projektpädagogik als didaktische Konzeption”, in V. Reinhardt (ed.), *Projekte machen Schule: Projektunterricht in der politischen Bildung*, Wochenschau, pp. 13-34.
- Kasper G. (2006), “Speech acts in interaction: Towards discursive pragmatics”, *Pragmatics and language learning*, 11, pp. 281-314.
- Kerbrat-Orecchioni C. (2005), *Le discours en interaction*, Armand Colin.
- Kilpatrick W. H. (2009), “The project Method”, in A. J. Milson, C. H. Bohan & P. L. Glanzer (eds.), *American Educational Thought: Essays from 1640-1940*, IAP, pp. 511-524.
- Krefeld T. (2015), “L’immédiat, la proximité et la distance communicative”, in C. Polzin-Haumann & W. Schweickard (eds.), *Manuel de linguistique française*, De Gruyter, pp. 262-274, <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110302219-013>.
- Hanna B. E. & de Nooy J. (2003), “A funny thing happened on the way to the forum: Electronic discussion and foreign language learning”, *Language Learning and Technology*, 7(1), pp. -7185, www.lltjournal.org/item/2418.
- Lafortune L. & Daudelin C. (2001), *Accompagnement socioconstructiviste: Pour s’appropriier une réforme en éducation* (1st ed.), Les Presses de l’Université du Québec, <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv18pgzz5>.

- Lam W. S. E. & Kramersch C. (2003), “The ecology of an SLA community in computer-mediated environments”, in J. Leather & J. van Dam (eds.), *Ecology of language acquisition*, Kluwer Academic Publishers, <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/700e/92c82f6def0325e545b593aa21504798d547.pdf>.
- Lam W. S. E. & Rosario-Ramos E. (2009), “Multilingual literacies in transnational digitally mediated contexts: An exploratory study of immigrant teens in the United States”, *Language and Education*, 23(2), pp. 171-190.
- LeVelle K. & Levis J. (2017), “Understanding the impact of social factors on L2 pronunciation: Insights from learners”, in J. Levis & A. Moyer (eds.), *Social dynamics in second language accent*, De Gruyter Mouton, pp. 97-118.
- Long M. H. (1985), “A role for instruction in second language acquisition: Task-based language teaching”, in K. Hyltenstam & M. Pienemann (eds.), *Modelling and assessing second language acquisition*, Multilingual Matters, pp. 77-99, <https://books.google.fr/books?id=8uXBeeVdsKsC&pg=PA77#v=onepage&q&f=false>.
- Long M. H. (2015), *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*, John Wiley & Sons.
- Mey Jacob. L. (2009), “Pragmatics: Overview”, in J. L. Mey (ed.), *Concise encyclopedia of pragmatics*, Elsevier, pp. 785-797.
- Moirand S. (1982), *Enseigner à communiquer en langue étrangère*, Hachette.
- Mossberger K., Tolbert C. J. & Anderson C. (2017), “The mobile internet and digital citizenship in African-American and Latino communities”, *Information, Communication & Society*, 20(10), pp. 1587-1606, <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2016.1243142>.
- NetSafe (2018), *From literacy to fluency to citizenship – Digital citizenship in education* (2nd ed.), Netsafe, www.netsafe.org.nz/the-kit/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/From-literacy-to-fluency-to-citizenship_July-2018.pdf.
- Nunan D. (2004), *Task-based language teaching*, Cambridge University Press, <http://assets.cambridge.org/052184/0171/sample/0521840171ws.pdf>.
- Ollivier C. (2007), “Ressources Internet, wiki et autonomie de l’apprenant”, in B. Gómez-Pablos & C. Ollivier (eds.), *Neue Tendenzen in der romanistischen Didaktik*, pp. 203-219.
- Ollivier C. (2010), “Ecriture collaborative en ligne : Une approche interactionnelle de la production écrite pour des apprenants acteurs sociaux et motivés”, *Revue Française de Linguistique Appliquée*, 15(2), pp. 121-137, www.cairn.info/revue-francaise-de-linguistique-appliquee-2010-2-page-121.htm.

Ollivier C. (2018), “Le projet e-lang – Vers une littératie numérique pour l’enseignement et l’apprentissage des langues”, *Courriel européen des langues*, 40, 4, www.ciep.fr/sites/default/files/atoms/files/courriel-europeen-des-langues-mai-2018.pdf.

Ollivier C. & e-lang Project (2018), *Digital literacy and socio-interactive approach to language teaching and learning*, Council of Europe (European Centre for Modern Languages), www.ecml.at/Portals/1/5MTP/Ollivier/e-lang%20EN.pdf.

Ollivier C., Jeanneau C., Hamel M.-J. & Caws C. (2021), “Citoyenneté numérique et didactique des langues, quels points de contacts?”, *Lidil – Revue de linguistique et de didactique des langues*, 63, <https://doi.org/10.4000/lidil.9204>.

Pakdel A. (2011), De l’activité communicative à l’activité sociale d’apprentissage des langues en ligne : Analyse de la dynamique sociale en contexte institutionnel, Aix-Marseille Université, <http://tel.archives-ouvertes.fr/tel-00637137/>.

Pasfield-Neofitou S. (2011), “Online domains of language use: Second language learners’ experiences of virtual community and foreignness”, *Language Learning and Technology*, 15(2), pp. 92-108, www.lltjournal.org/item/2739.

Richardson J. & Milovidov E. (2019), *Digital citizenship education handbook*, Council of Europe, <https://rm.coe.int/16809382f9>.

Sauro S. (2017), “Online Fan Practices and CALL”, *CALICO Journal*, 34(2), <https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.33077>.

Sauro S. & Zourou, K. (2019), “What are the digital wilds?”, *Language Learning and Technology*, 23(1), pp. 1-7, <https://doi.org/10.125/44666>.

Sauro S. & Zourou K. (eds.) (2019), *Language Learning and Technology*, 23, www.lltjournal.org/item/3090.

Schneuwly B. (2012), “Praticien réflexif, réflexion et travail enseignant: L’oubli de l’objet et des outils d’enseignement”, in M. Tardif, C. Borgès & A. Malo (eds.), *Le virage réflexif en éducation*, De Boeck Supérieur, pp. 73-91, <https://doi.org/10.3917/dbu.tardi.2012.01>.

Schön D. A. (1994), *Le praticien réflexif. A la recherche du savoir caché dans l’agir professionnel*, Éditions logiques.

Shafirova L. & Cassany D. (2019), “Bronies learning English in the digital wild”, *Language Learning and Technology*, 23(1), pp. 127-144.

Sockett G. & Toffoli D. (2012), “Beyond learner autonomy: A dynamic systems view of the informal learning of English in virtual online communities”, *ReCALL*, 24(2), pp. 138-151, <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344012000031>.

Sundqvist P. (2009), *Extramural English matters: Out-of-school English and its impact on Swedish ninth graders’ oral proficiency and vocabulary* [PhD Thesis], Karlstad University.

Sundqvist P. (2019), “Commercial-off-the-shelf games in the digital wild and L2 learner vocabulary”, *Language Learning and Technology*, 23(1), pp. 87-113, www.lltjournal.org/item/3098.

Tardif M., Borgès C. & Malo A. (2012), “Introduction”, in M. Tardif, C. Borgès & A. Malo (eds.), *Le virage réflexif en éducation*, De Boeck Supérieur, p. 7-17, <https://doi.org/10.3917/dbu.tardi.2012.01>.

Thorne S. L. & Black R. (2011), “Chapter 12. Identity and interaction in internet-mediated contexts”, in C. Higgins (ed.), *Identity formation in globalizing contexts. Language learning in the New Millennium*, De Gruyter Mouton, p. 257-277, <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110267280.257>.

Thorne S. L., Hellermann J. & Jakonen T. (2021), “Rewilding Language Education: Emergent assemblages and entangled actions”, *The Modern Language Journal*, 105(S1), pp. 106-125, <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12687>.

Toffoli D. & Sockett G. (2010), “How non-specialist students of English practice informal learning using web 2.0 tools”, *ASp. La Revue Du GERAS*, 58, pp. 125-144. <https://doi.org/10.4000/asp.1851>.

Türk P. (2018), “La citoyenneté à l’ère numérique”, *Revue du droit public et de la science politique en France et à l’étranger*, 3, 623, <https://hal.univ-cotedazur.fr/hal-02491660/document>.

von Glasersfeld E. (1984), “An introduction to radical constructivism”, in P. Watzlawick (ed.), *The invented reality*, Norton, pp. 17-40.

von Glasersfeld E. (1995), *Radical constructivism: A way of knowing and learning*, The Falmer Press.

Vygotsky L. S. (1978), *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*, Harvard University Press.

Wood D. (1976), Bruner J. S. & Ross G., “The role of tutoring in problem solving”, *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17(2), pp. 89-100.

Yi Y. (2007), "Engaging literacy: A biliterate student's composing practices beyond school", *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16(1), pp. 23-39.

Yi Y. (2008), "Relay Writing in an Adolescent Online Community", *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 51(8), pp. 670-680.

**Sales agents for publications of the Council of Europe
Agents de vente des publications du Conseil de l'Europe**

BELGIUM/BELGIQUE

La Librairie Européenne -
The European Bookshop
Rue de l'Orme, 1
BE-1040 BRUXELLES
Tel.: + 32 (0)2 231 04 35
Fax: + 32 (0)2 735 08 60
E-mail: info@libeurop.eu
<http://www.libeurop.be>

Jean De Lannoy/DL Services
c/o Michot Warehouses
Bergense steenweg 77
Chaussée de Mons
BE-1600 SINT PIETERS LEEUW
Fax: + 32 (0)2 706 52 27
E-mail: jean.de.lannoy@dl-servi.com
<http://www.jean-de-lannoy.be>

CANADA

Renouf Publishing Co. Ltd.
22-1010 Polytek Street
CDN-OTTAWA, ONT K1J 9J1
Tel.: + 1 613 745 2665
Fax: + 1 613 745 7660
Toll-Free Tel.: (866) 767-6766
E-mail: order.dept@renoufbooks.com
<http://www.renoufbooks.com>

FRANCE

Please contact directly /
Merci de contacter directement
Council of Europe Publishing
Éditions du Conseil de l'Europe
F-67075 STRASBOURG Cedex
Tel.: + 33 (0)3 88 41 25 81
E-mail: publishing@coe.int
<http://book.coe.int>

Librairie Kléber
1, rue des Francs-Bourgeois
F-67000 STRASBOURG
Tel.: + 33 (0)3 88 15 78 88
Fax: + 33 (0)3 88 15 78 80
E-mail: librairie-klieber@coe.int
<http://www.librairie-klieber.com>

NORWAY/NORVÈGE

Akademika
Postboks 84 Blindern
NO-0314 OSLO
Tel.: + 47 2 218 8100
Fax: + 47 2 218 8103
E-mail: support@akademika.no
<http://www.akademika.no>

POLAND/POLOGNE

Ars Polona JSC
25 Obroncow Street
PL-03-933 Warszawa
Tel.: + 48 (0)22 509 86 00
Fax: + 48 (0)22 509 86 10
E-mail: arspolona@arspolona.com.pl
<http://www.arspolona.com.pl>

PORTUGAL

Marka Lda
Rua dos Correios 61-3
PT-1100-162 Lisboa
Tel: 351 21 3224040
Fax: 351 21 3224044
E-mail: apoio_clientes@marka.pt
www.marka.pt

SWITZERLAND/SUISSE

Planetis Sàrl
16, chemin des Pins
CH-1273 ARZIER
Tel.: + 41 22 366 51 77
Fax: + 41 22 366 51 78
E-mail: info@planetis.ch

UNITED KINGDOM/ROYAUME-UNI

Williams Lea TSO
18 Central Avenue
St Andrews Business Park
Norwich
NR7 0HR
United Kingdom
Tel. +44 (0)333 202 5070
E-mail: customer.services@tso.co.uk
<http://www.tsoshop.co.uk>

**UNITED STATES and CANADA/
ETATS-UNIS et CANADA**

Manhattan Publishing Co
670 White Plains Road
USA-10583 SCARSDALE, NY
Tel: + 1 914 472 4650
Fax: + 1 914 472 4316
E-mail: coe@manhattanpublishing.com
<http://www.manhattanpublishing.com>

**Council of Europe Publishing/Éditions du Conseil de l'Europe
F-67075 STRASBOURG Cedex**

Tel.: + 33 (0)3 88 41 25 81 – E-mail: publishing@coe.int – Website: <http://book.coe.int>

What is digital citizenship and literacy? What link can be made between digital citizenship education and language training? How can we concretely embed digital citizenship and literacy into language learning and teaching?

The goal of this book is to answer these questions and to provide concrete ways of helping learners to develop their digital citizenship while learning and practising languages as authentically as possible.

The authors propose a definition of digital literacy and draw a profile of a citizen as user of languages and digital tools and resources. They highlight the many points of contact between digital citizenship education and language education. They also outline the foundations of a socio-interactional pedagogical approach that fully accounts for the social interactions in which all human actions take place. Finally, the booklet shows how the approach can be implemented through “real-world tasks”, which are at the heart of the e-lang citizen project. These tasks, to be carried out on participatory online sites, give learners the opportunity to (inter)act for real as language users and as citizens acting in an informed, competent, safe, ethical and responsible way.

www.ecml.at

The European Centre for Modern Languages is a Council of Europe institution promoting excellence in language education in its member states.

ENG

www.coe.int

The Council of Europe is the continent’s leading human rights organisation. It comprises 46 member states, including all members of the European Union. All Council of Europe member states have signed up to the European Convention on Human Rights, a treaty designed to protect human rights, democracy and the rule of law. The European Court of Human Rights oversees the implementation of the Convention in the member states.



<https://book.coe.int>

ISBN 978-92-871-9318-6

7.50€ / 15US\$

