



MASTERARBEIT | MASTER'S THESIS

Titel | Title

Tailoring Tasks to Translanguaging: Opening up the *More!* Coursebook for
Translanguaging Practices in the Austrian EFL classroom

verfasst von | submitted by

Lejla Secibovic BEd

angestrebter akademischer Grad | in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Education (MEd)

Wien | Vienna, 2025

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt |
Degree programme code as it appears on the
student record sheet:

UA 199 507 509 02

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt | Degree pro-
gramme as it appears on the student record
sheet:

Masterstudium Lehramt Sek (AB) Unterrichtsfach
Englisch Unterrichtsfach Französisch

Betreut von | Supervisor:

Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Christiane Dalton-Puffer

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Christiane Dalton-Puffer, whose guidance, insightful feedback, and kind encouragement sustained me throughout the entire process of writing this thesis. Her expertise and constructive criticism greatly contributed to shaping the final work, while her supportive remarks helped me regain motivation whenever it was most needed.

I am deeply grateful to my family and friends for their patience, understanding, and unwavering support during this demanding period. Special thanks go to my brother Tarik, my friend Emelie and my sisters Merjem and Fatima, who were always there to listen, encourage me, and share in the ups and downs of balancing teaching with thesis writing. My heartfelt thanks also go to my friend Rumeysa, whose kindness and steady encouragement always lifted me up and made me feel proud of my work.

My deepest thanks go to my mother and my stepfather, who supported me throughout my school years and studies and always encouraged me to do my best, while ensuring that I could fully focus on my education without having to worry about other matters.

Above all, I would like to thank my husband, Tarik, for his constant encouragement and for celebrating the milestones of this journey with me. He accompanied me through its many highs and lows and made each step along the way brighter.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	i
List of Abbreviations	iv
List of Figures	iv
List of Tables	iv
1 Introduction	1
2 Multilingualism in Austria	8
2.1 Austria's Linguistic Landscape	8
2.2 Teacher Perspectives	11
2.3 Policy Shifts and Evolving Attitudes	12
2.4 Multilingual Pedagogies in Austria and Germany	22
2.5 The Case for Translanguaging in Austria	24
2.6 Curricular Guidelines	27
3 Theoretical Framework	31
3.1 Core Concepts in Multilingualism	31
3.2 The Multilingual Turn	33
3.3 Translanguaging: A Paradigm Shift	41
4 Implementing Translanguaging in the Austrian EFL Classroom	47
4.1 Challenges and Considerations	47
4.2 Translanguaging in Content Subjects vs. EFL Instruction	50
4.3 Practical Strategies for the Austrian EFL Classroom	57
5 Analysis of the <i>More!</i> Coursebook Series	66
5.1 Understanding the <i>More!</i> Series: Context and Relevance	66
5.2 Analytical Framework and Methodology	67
6 Findings and Discussion	72
6.1 Pre-Adaptation Profile of the <i>More!</i> Coursebooks: Language Use and Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	72
6.2 Opening Tasks for Translanguaging: Adaptation Strategies for the <i>More!</i> Series	76
6.2.1 Evaluating the Adaptability of <i>More!</i> Tasks	76
6.2.2 Core Principles and Prerequisites for Translanguaging Adaptation	78
6.2.3 Adapting Vocabulary Tasks	79
6.2.4 Adapting Grammar and Language-in-Context Tasks	82
6.2.5 Adapting Reading Tasks	83
6.2.6 Adapting Listening Tasks	85
6.2.7 Adapting Speaking Tasks	86
6.2.8 Adapting Writing Tasks	88
6.2.9 Adapting Pronunciation Tasks	89
6.2.10 Integrating Translanguaging Ideology into Tasks	91
6.2.11 Introducing Project-Based Tasks	92
6.3 Synthesis of Findings and Adaptation Principles	92
7 Conclusion	94
7.1 Summary of Key Findings	94
7.2 Implications for Practice	96
7.3 Limitations	97
7.4 Potential for Further Research	98

7.5	Outlook.....	98
8	References.....	100
	Appendix.....	108
	Appendix A: Overview of Translanguaging Strategies Discussed in Section 4.3	108
	Appendix B: Coursebook Analysis Grid	110
	Appendix C: Analysis Sample (80 Tasks)	111
	Appendix D: Coursebook Analysis & Adaptation (Completed Analysis Grid)	115
	Appendix E: English Abstract.....	129
	Appendix F: German Abstract.....	130

List of Abbreviations

BICS.....	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
BMUKK.....	Österreichisches Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur
BMWF.....	Österreichisches Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung
CALP.....	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CEFR.....	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLIL.....	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CUP.....	Common Underlying Proficiency
EFL.....	English as a Foreign Language
ELF.....	English as a Lingua Franca
ELT.....	English Language Teaching
FLI.....	Foreign Language Instruction
L1.....	First Language
L2.....	Second Language
L3.....	Third Language
LAC.....	Language Across the Curriculum
LBVO.....	Leistungsbeurteilungsverordnung
LISA.....	Linz International School Auhof
OECD.....	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ÖIF.....	Österreichischer Integrationsfonds
ÖSZ.....	Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum
SRDP.....	Standardisierte Reife- und Diplomprüfung
TALIS.....	Teaching and Learning International Survey
TL.....	Target Language

List of Figures

Figure 1: Students with a non-German L1 across Austrian federal states.....	1
Figure 2: Languages spoken by Austrian students with a non-German L1 in 2021/22.....	9

List of Tables

Table 1: Number of tasks in the analysis sample by book and task type.....	68
Table 2: Quantitative summary of the category <i>Task Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires</i>	74
Table 3: Quantitative summary of the category <i>Translanguaging Adaptability</i>	77

1 Introduction

In recent years, Austrian schools have faced unique challenges due to the increasing social, economic, and cultural diversity among their students, particularly in urban areas (ÖIF 2018: 1). Data collected by the Austrian Integration Fund (ÖIF) in 2020 suggests that students with a migration background often encounter significant obstacles to academic success, including difficulties with the language of instruction and the generally lower educational and professional status of their parents. Notably, in 2020, over a quarter (26.8%) of all students nationwide and more than half (52.7%) of students in Vienna were using a non-German language as their primary language of communication (ÖIF 2021: 4). As the chart below illustrates, the prevalence of students with a non-German first language differed across Austrian federal states. Vienna exhibited the highest percentage at 52.7%, followed by Vorarlberg at 26.4% and Upper Austria at 22.8%, whereas Kärnten had the lowest percentage at 16.2% (ÖIF 2021: 4).

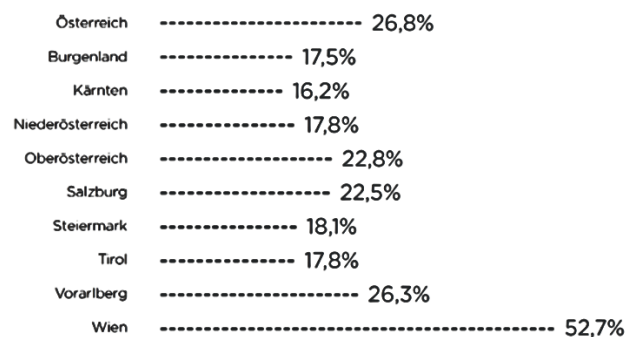


Figure 1: Students with a non-German primary language of communication across Austrian federal states (ÖIF 2021: 4)

Moreover, the distribution of students with a non-German primary language also differs across school types. In 2021, approximately three out of ten students (30.9%) in primary schools, 33.8% in secondary schools (Mittelschulen), and between 21 and 22% in lower and upper secondary academic schools (AHS-Unterstufe and Oberstufe) spoke a non-German language as their primary means of communication (Statistik Austria 2022: 24). Turkish and languages of former Yugoslavia, such as Bosnian, Croatian, and Serbian, were the most common languages spoken by these students.

While the mastery of more prestigious languages such as French, Spanish or English is often welcomed and even encouraged in classrooms, the above mentioned less prestigious languages spoken by a large number of students in Austria are often seen as a hindrance to learning and educational success. A plan of the Upper Austrian state government in 2015 and more

recent efforts of the Lower Austrian state government (comprised of the right-wing FPÖ and the conservative ÖVP parties) to enforce German as the only language to be spoken during breaks and on the school premises (*Der Standard* 2023), demonstrate that attempts to render students' primary languages invisible and even repress their use are not merely isolated incidents. It is true that, according to the ÖIF (2021: 5), the impact of language barriers is associated with lower educational success and higher rates of students without a compulsory school leaving certificate (*Pflichtschulabschluss*). For instance, in 2020, among students with a non-German primary language, the proportion without a compulsory school leaving certificate was significantly higher at 10.6% compared to students with German as primary language at only 3% (ÖIF 2021: 5).

However, the belief that suppressing or even prohibiting students' non-German primary languages in schools could eliminate these disparities is unfounded and entirely inaccurate. Rather, the opposite is the case: The data above highlight the need to support students with diverse linguistic backgrounds in the Austrian education system by moving away from traditional teaching models based on the idea of a monolingual German-speaking student as the norm towards more inclusive approaches. More inclusive multilingual models of teaching would take into consideration the entire language repertoire of each student, including second and foreign languages, as well as different language varieties, encouraging them to use their knowledge of other languages and dialects to their advantage and build meaningful connections between them. This would not only entail cognitive advantages for all students but also increase the confidence and motivation of students with a non-German primary language and thus contribute to more educational equality in the long-term.

In a country as linguistically diverse as Austria, where students speak a wide range of home languages, including Turkish, Bosnian/Serbian/Croatian, Persian, Polish, Somali, Russian, Arabic, Chinese, and many others, a dynamic and flexible teaching approach is crucial. In response to the question of how a multilingual teaching concept can be effectively implemented, regardless of the language(s) spoken by the teacher or the type and number of languages spoken in a class, the concept of *translanguaging* provides an adequate answer.

Translanguaging, a concept which will be thoroughly examined in this thesis, is applicable to all subjects, but particularly viable in content subjects such as history, geography, or biology.

Consequently, there is a wealth of literature on translinguaging in content subjects. Equally valuable and essential, yet arguably more controversial is its implementation in foreign language instruction, specifically in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). This may explain why there are fewer studies available on this topic.

Another reason for this scarcity may be the persistence of the debunked “ideal” of the monolingual principle in EFL instruction, which advocates using only English in the classroom, making the inclusion of any other languages seemingly unnecessary. In practice, however, Austrian teachers frequently rely on German, particularly in the early years of EFL learning (grades 5 to 10), to communicate with students, provide instructions and explanations, and even translate key terms. Using this approach, many highlight differences and parallels between the foreign language and the assumed first language German, to facilitate learning. This is also reflected in official course books, where German-English vocabulary lists are the norm and grammar is often explained in German.

If the logic holds that deliberate language comparison between the first language and the target language, English, can benefit students, why not provide those with other first or even second or foreign languages the opportunity to benefit from such a comparative approach as well? Undoubtedly, our learning processes are inherently linked to the establishment of connections between new information and already existing knowledge. This process of relying new information to what we already know does not only provide us with a sense of security and orientation but also facilitates the development of neural connections within the brain and enables us to better structure, restructure, develop and even reassess existing knowledge.

Cummins (2009: 319) summarizes this basic principle of learning by emphasizing that the already existing knowledge of learners is the basis for any future knowledge building. With large parts of the learners’ already existing knowledge being encoded in their first language, it is necessary for its activation and further development to combine foreign language knowledge with the cognitive schemata of the first language (Cummins 2009: 319). This connection, however, clearly cannot be effectively established if students’ first languages are ignored and excluded from the classroom.

In light of the challenges and inequalities faced by Austrian students with a non-German primary language, this thesis explores translanguaging in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction in Austria. By examining how translanguaging practices can be effectively integrated into EFL teaching and materials, this thesis aims to contribute to a more inclusive and supportive educational environment for students with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. By leveraging translanguaging strategies, the aim is to enhance the learning of EFL and promote a more equitable distribution of educational opportunities across schools with diverse student populations.

The need to adapt teaching practices to the multilingual reality in classrooms is increasingly recognized by teachers in Austria and other European countries. A survey carried out by Boeckmann (2012: 261–262) demonstrates that, already a decade ago, many teachers in Europe acknowledged the necessity of a multilingual approach in their classrooms. However, he points out that a majority of teachers seemed to be unprepared to handle the linguistic diversity present in schools, which, according to one of the respondents, often “leads to the majority language being mostly taught as if it were the mother tongue of all learners in the class” (Boeckmann 2012: 264).

Although it can be assumed that today, thirteen years after this survey, the awareness of Austrian educators regarding linguistic diversity has increased, the complex and varied nature of the languages present in classrooms and the effort required to research and implement concepts for multilingual instruction may deter teachers from incorporating such methods in their EFL lessons, especially considering the high levels of stress and work demands they typically already face.

The lack of suitable teaching materials further hinders the implementation of translanguaging and other multilingual approaches in practice, as it would require either creating new materials or adapting existing ones, which is often unfeasible due to time constraints. This may be one reason why Boeckmann (2012: 262) underlines the importance of promoting plurilingualism in the field of materials development. He further emphasizes that the course book, being a very familiar tool for most teachers, influences the teaching process far more than curricula or other curricular guidelines, which, according to him, makes innovations in textbooks a relatively direct means of bringing about changes in teaching practices (Boeckmann 2016a: 197).

As a full-time teacher of English and French in an upper secondary academic school in Linz, and with experience teaching English at an Austrian middle school with over 90% non-native German speakers, I am well aware of the pressures and time limitations teachers encounter while attempting to introduce innovative teaching approaches. Nonetheless, I recognize the urgent need for such teaching strategies to be effectively realized. My personal experience of growing up with Bosnian as home language and later learning German, English, Latin, French, and Spanish has enabled me to appreciate the power of translanguaging in language acquisition and communication. This understanding motivates me to explore and promote translanguaging in my lessons, which can often be challenging due to the lack of adequate materials.

Thus, the purpose of this thesis is to make pedagogical translanguaging in the EFL classroom more practical and achievable by addressing this matter. While a teacher's openness and flexibility are crucial prerequisites for any multilingual teaching approach, the influence of teaching materials, especially course books, on teachers' practices cannot be underestimated. I am convinced that the availability of suitable teaching materials, or lacking those, a comprehensive guide on how to easily adapt existing materials, can encourage open-minded teachers to experiment with translanguaging in their classrooms, reduce their inhibitions toward this pedagogy, and facilitate the implementation process.

Translanguaging seems to be particularly relevant in lower secondary EFL classrooms (i.e. in grades 5 to 9), where the proportion of students with a non-German primary language is typically higher and the proficiency in the target language is still limited. Considering that creating new translanguaging materials for grades 5 to 9 is beyond the scope of this thesis, the primary goal will be to investigate methods of modifying existing materials for translanguaging purposes. To achieve this objective, I have chosen the *More!* series, the most widely utilized EFL course book series used in lower secondary education, which I have personally implemented during my teaching experience in middle school.

The central focus of this research is the adaptation of these EFL materials, guided by current discussions and understandings in the fields of translanguaging and multilingualism. Existing research on translanguaging in EFL has been largely confined to bilingual classrooms, where both teachers and students share the same languages (e.g., Spanish & English, Korean & English, Welsh & English). It has, for the most part, largely overlooked how translanguaging can be

practically implemented in superdiverse EFL classrooms, where students speak multiple first languages that are not necessarily shared by the teacher – as is the case in Austria.

While effective translanguaging strategies for superdiverse classrooms can be deduced from existing literature, Austrian EFL textbooks generally lack tasks that support these practices. This thesis seeks to bridge this research gap by adapting the widely used *More!* series to incorporate translanguaging practices, providing concrete strategies for fostering multilingual engagement in Austrian EFL classrooms.

To achieve this, the following research questions will frame the theoretical analysis and empirical focus of the thesis:

1. *Why should translanguaging be integrated into EFL instruction in Austria, given the present sociolinguistic context?*
2. *To what extent do Austrian curricular guidelines support or constrain the implementation of translanguaging in EFL instruction?*
3. *Which pedagogical strategies for the practical implementation of translanguaging are particularly viable in Austrian EFL classrooms, given the educational framework?*
4. *How can the More! Student's Books and Workbooks 1-4 be adapted to effectively incorporate translanguaging practices in lower secondary Austrian EFL classrooms?*

This thesis is structured to systematically address the research questions by providing a sociolinguistic analysis of Austrian society, a policy evaluation, theoretical foundation, pedagogical strategies, and an empirical adaptation of the *More!* coursebook series.

Chapter 2 explores Austria's sociolinguistic context to establish why translanguaging should be integrated into EFL instruction. It examines the linguistic diversity of today's student population and discusses the educational challenges faced by multilingual learners. Additionally, this chapter analyzes Austrian curricular guidelines to determine whether they support or constrain translanguaging in EFL classrooms. While the curriculum emphasizes target language immersion, it also acknowledges students' prior linguistic knowledge as a resource for learning. This analysis answers the first two research questions by illustrating the sociolinguistic need for translanguaging and the extent to which Austrian educational policies allow for its implementation.

Chapter 3 provides the theoretical foundation for this study, defining key concepts related to multilingual education and situating translanguaging within broader multilingual pedagogies. It explores how different approaches to language teaching have evolved, from monolingual models to more flexible frameworks that embrace linguistic diversity. By examining existing research on translanguaging, this chapter lays the groundwork for identifying effective strategies that align with both theoretical insights and the curricular realities discussed in chapter 2.

Building on this foundation, chapter 4 focuses on the practical implementation of translanguaging in the Austrian EFL classroom. It responds to the third research question by identifying viable pedagogical strategies that facilitate multilingual engagement while maintaining the integrity of EFL instruction. Special attention is given to balancing target language exposure with multilingual scaffolding, fostering metalinguistic awareness, and addressing the specific challenges of superdiverse classrooms, where students speak multiple home languages that may not be shared by the teacher.

Chapter 5 outlines the methodology of the study, explaining the selection of the *More!* series as the focus for analysis, the creation of the analysis grid, and the sampling process for tasks. Chapter 6 presents the results of the coursebook analysis and proposed adaptations, showing how selected tasks can be modified to incorporate translanguaging strategies in line with the Austrian curricular framework and the theoretical framework outlined in chapter 4. Finally, chapter 7 concludes the thesis by summarizing the findings in relation to the research questions, discussing pedagogical implications, identifying limitations, and suggesting potential avenues for further research.

By systematically addressing the research questions through a combination of sociolinguistic analysis, curricular evaluation, theoretical exploration, and empirical textbook adaptation, this thesis aims to demonstrate that translanguaging is not merely a theoretical concept but a practical and achievable approach to fostering multilingual engagement in Austrian EFL classrooms.

2 Multilingualism in Austria

2.1 Austria's Linguistic Landscape

Austria's present-day cultural and linguistic diversity stems from decades of immigration and the continued movement of people in an increasingly interconnected world (Münz 2011: 185–188; Boeckmann 2016b: 55–58). Although the historical circumstances of immigration to Austria are complex, the cumulative effect is clear: today's population reflects a broad spectrum of cultural traditions and home languages.

Recent migration statistics confirm that this diversity is not static but continues to grow. Data from Statistik Austria (2021: 35–42) reveal that, despite its small size, Austria's demographic composition has been shaped by globalization and a blend of diverse cultures and languages. There is no indication that this trend will change in the near future. Rather, increased globalization and the freedom of movement are likely to lead to even greater diversity. As of October 31, 2021, 1.83 million individuals – one in five residents – were born outside of Austria (Statistik Austria 2023b: 59). Nearly 30% of those born after 1985 have a migration background, with second-generation individuals accounting for approximately 40% of this group (Statistik Austria 2023b: 60).

While such figures challenge the notion of a homogeneous student body, they only partially reflect the true diversity present in Austria, as official data typically only consider migration history over the past two generations. Moreover, *birth country* and *language* offer distinct perspectives: As Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 26) emphasize, neither provides automatic insight into the other. Generally, statistics can only offer a very one-dimensional view on reality, particularly in the context of such complex issues as identity and culture (Brizić & Lo Hufnagl 2011: 271). Therefore, they need to be examined from as many different angles as possible with the aim of avoiding overgeneralization. Within this thesis, the data presented in this chapter serve primarily as a starting point for understanding why more inclusive multilingual approaches in education are both beneficial and necessary.

As origin alone does not reveal the linguistic background of Austria's residents or its students, it is worth examining available data on languages spoken both nationally and in schools. However, most large-scale statistics on primary languages or family languages must be approached

cautiously, given that they depend on information supplied by respondents within sometimes unfamiliar contexts (e.g. parents during brief school enrolment conversations) (Brizić & Lo Hufnagl 2011: 272). In this context, Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 272) point out that reported percentages can vary significantly depending on how individuals are questioned about their languages, citing the example of languages such as Kurdish or Romani, which may be concealed by speakers for their sociopolitical status or due to fear of discrimination.

The majority of Austria's population is "German-speaking with a variety of German dialects" (Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019: 201). The Austrian Constitution also recognizes seven official language minorities – Burgenland-Croatian, Slovene, Hungarian, Czech, Slovak, Romani, and Austrian sign language (Austrian Federal Chancellery 2011: 9) – which are estimated to account for less than 1.5% of the school population (Statistik Austria 2007: 239). By contrast, in 2021/22, 31.6% of Austrian students reported speaking at least one additional language besides German (Statistik Austria 2023a: 9), most commonly Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian (22%), Turkish (17.5%), and Arabic (7.3%), as shown in Figure 2.

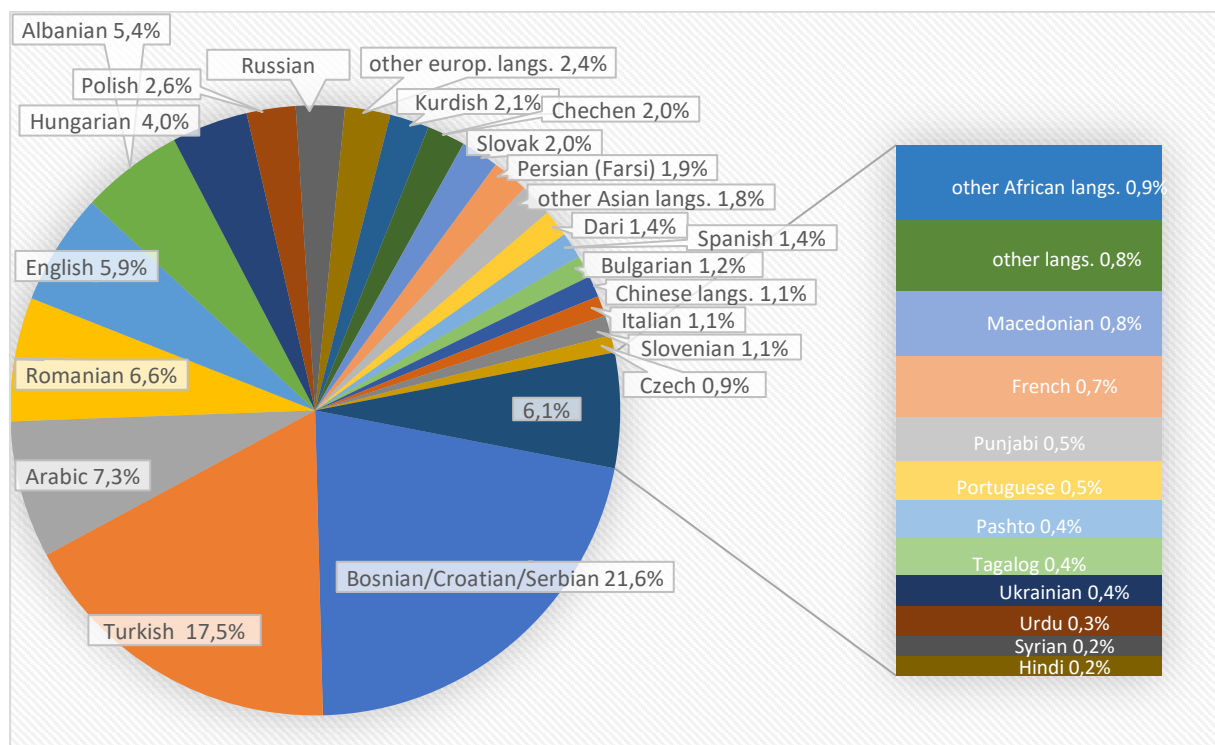


Figure 2: Languages spoken by Austrian students whose primary language of communication is not German in the school year 2021/22 (Statistik Austria 2023a: 9–10)

Because less frequently spoken languages are grouped under "other languages" in this survey, a precise count of all languages spoken by Austrian students is not provided. Historical data

from 2001 reported about 250 distinct languages in Austria (Statistik Austria 2007), whereas a 2011 study by Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 27) conducted in Viennese schools documented 110 “family languages” spoken by students. It is reasonable to assume that more than a decade later, the variety of languages has further increased.

Such diversity can leave teachers feeling overwhelmed with the reality of superdiverse classrooms, leading them to focus exclusively on German as the “model language” for drawing parallels to grammar, vocabulary, and other aspects of the English language. The range shown in figure 2 demonstrates why not just any multilingual teaching concept is suitable for the Austrian educational context. Traditional models of multilingual teaching fail to address this diversity by focusing on two or, at most, three languages, requiring the teachers to master these languages to effectively assist students.

In summary, Austria’s cultural and linguistic profile clearly contradicts the notion of a uniform, monolingual German-speaking student body as target audience of teaching. Investigating the origins and family languages spoken by Viennese primary school children in 2011, Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 271) come to the same conclusion, emphasizing the significant diversity teachers face, and maintaining that it cannot be addressed merely through inadequate resources, quick fixes, or premature conceptions of the teaching profession. Drawing attention to the importance of a detailed and objective perception of the multilingual student body, Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 271) warn against overgeneralization, as their findings indicate that children of various origins share more similarities than commonly perceived, and their differences do not necessarily reflect frequently made initial assumptions.

Understanding this diversity provides a crucial foundation for exploring how educators navigate multilingual classrooms. While demographic data show the increasing presence of multilingual students, it is equally important to consider teacher perspectives and how these influence classroom practices.

2.2 Teacher Perspectives

The Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), conducted regularly by the OECD¹ in approximately 50 countries worldwide, including Austria, provides insights into teachers' perspectives on different aspects of teacher education, teaching practices, and professional development. In a 2008 TALIS survey, “on average [...], 47% of teachers report[ed] a high or moderate need for professional development for teaching in a multicultural [or multilingual] setting” (Jensen 2010: 63). In Austria, this applied to only 34% of teachers, while 28% indicated no need at all for professional development in this area (Schmich & Schreiner 2010: 29).

A decade later, the 2018 TALIS results showed “a global increase in the share of teachers expressing such a need”, suggesting that they view cultural and linguistic diversity as a growing challenge (OECD 2019: 33). In Austria, 36% of teachers reported a high or moderate need – 5% lower than the EU-23 average (Schmich & Itzlinger-Bruneforth 2019: 46) – despite Austrian teachers ranking fifth internationally in the proportion of countries where more than 10% of students had a first language other than the language of instruction (OECD 2019: 32).

The 2018 data also indicate limited preparation for working in diverse classrooms: only 31% of Austrian teachers had formal training in teaching in multicultural/multilingual settings, and just 18% had taken part in relevant professional development in the previous year (OECD 2019: 206, Table I.3.38). Only 15% felt well or very well prepared (11% below the international average) and over a quarter felt unable to cope with the challenges of a multicultural classroom (OECD 2019: 206, Table I.3.38).

While 77.9% of Austrian teachers reported high competence in promoting positive relationships and interactions between students from different backgrounds, only 51.9% felt able to adapt their teaching to students' cultural diversity, “signal[ling] that more efforts can be made by teacher education systems, but also by teachers themselves, to make use of relevant instructional tools and strategies to adapt their lessons” (OECD 2019: 31).

¹ OECD: The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism are influenced by broader educational policies and ideological shifts. The next section examines the evolution of Austria's language policies and their implications for multilingual pedagogies in schools.

2.3 Policy Shifts and Evolving Attitudes

Over the past two decades, multilingualism has been increasingly addressed at the European level through numerous statements, guidelines, and recommendations. In Austria, the Ministry of Education has launched initiatives drawing on international expertise and evaluations of the state of multilingualism in schools (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 233). Under the Council of Europe's Language Education Policy Initiative, a *Language Education Policy Profile* was created for Austria (Council of Europe, BMUKK & BMWF 2008), documenting the status quo, identifying areas of action, and providing recommendations.

The current government program (Republic of Austria 2025: 186–187) acknowledges multilingualism as a societal factor, but emphasizes the mastery of the German language as the primary means of ensuring educational success. Unlike, for instance, the 2008-2013 government program, which stressed the importance of the first language, the current policy framework prioritizes German proficiency from an early age through systematic language monitoring in kindergarten, expanded German support measures, and mandatory summer schools for students classified as “extraordinary” due to insufficient mastery of German (Republic of Austria 2025: 186–187). Additionally, “orientation classes” are being introduced for newly arrived students with insufficient school experience and German skills, and schools with high proportions of non-German speaking students receive additional funding (Republic of Austria 2025: 187).

While there is a stated commitment to expand ethnic minority language education (Republic of Austria 2025: 186), this applies only to officially recognized autochthonous minorities. Efforts to recruit teachers with migration backgrounds, including first language teacher training, partially acknowledge multilingualism but focus on “Deutschperfektionierung” rather than fostering multilingual education (Republic of Austria 2025: 186). Aligning with the political rightward shift over the past decade, the current dominant ideology seems to be moving away from efforts to promote multilingualism and back towards reinforcing the dominance of German as the national language.

Although there was a focus in the past on expanding multilingual forms of education, particularly considering the languages of immediate neighboring countries and new global economic partners (Republic of Austria 2008: 205–206), initiatives that aimed to improve the educational success of multilingual students from the two largest language groups in Austria, namely Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian and Turkish through bilingual educational measures were repeatedly prevented, according to Herzog-Punzenberger and Schnell (2012: 233). They note how even the use of Turkish words to learn the letter “ü” in primary school sparked strong political backlash.

Herzog-Punzenberger and Schnell (2012: 256) as well as Becker (2011: 12) highlight the ongoing debate about whether non-native German speakers with the same performance levels as native speakers still face disadvantages in grading and access to higher education. While some argue that differences in educational outcomes are linked to parental attitudes, research shows that educational aspirations have leveled out across socio-economic backgrounds, with some immigrant families even surpassing non-immigrant ones in their ambitions (Weiss 2007: 54).

Although it is difficult to determine the exact extent to which well-performing students encounter systemic disadvantages, there is consistent evidence that, overall, non-native German speakers achieve less success within the Austrian education system. A clear performance gap exists: they are three times more likely to leave school without completing compulsory education (ÖIF 2021: 5), are underrepresented in academic secondary schools (*AHS*) and higher vocational schools (*BHS*), and are overrepresented in special needs schools (*Sonderschulen*) (Statistik Austria 2022: 207). Even when they do enter an *AHS* or *BHS*, the dropout rate after the first year is approximately 20% higher than that of native German speakers (Statistik Austria 2022: 60) making them less likely to graduate with a *Matura*.

While these disparities are undoubtedly linked to the generally lower socio-economic status of many children from immigrant families – a crucial predeterminant for educational success – the fact that the performance of students with a migration background varies significantly between different host countries clearly indicates that other factors are also at play, particularly structural ones within the education system itself, which have yet to be addressed. Teltemann & Windzio (2011: 336) refer to this phenomenon as “cognitive exclusion” of minorities.

As Herzog-Punzenberger and Schnell (2012: 252) observe, in many European countries, between one and two-thirds of the performance gap between monolingual and multilingual students remains even after considering the parents' educational and occupational backgrounds. In Austria, over half of this difference persists. By contrast, indigenous minorities, such as Carinthian Slovenes and Burgenland Croats, have exemplary educational achievements and higher rates of intergenerational educational mobility compared to their monolingual German-speaking peers (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 236), suggesting that not multilingualism itself, but the way it has been approached by the education system thus far may be standing in the way of students' academic success.

European policy continues to prioritize multilingualism, as reflected in documents such as the *Council Resolution on the Promotion of Linguistic Diversity and Language Learning* (Council of Europe 2022), the European Parliament's resolution to promote multilingualism (European Parliament 2008), and the more recent *Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers on the Importance of Plurilingual and Intercultural Education for Democratic Culture* (Council of Europe 2022). Yet attitudes differ by language prestige: prestigious or legally protected minority languages receive support, while others, such as Bosnian/Serbian/Croatian, Romanian, or Arabic, are often seen as obstacles. Although over half of the world's population is plurilingual, plurilingualism is often treated as a minority issue in Europe, particularly when linked to migration (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 232).

On a national level, attitudes towards multilingualism have varied across different governments, with conservative parties such as the ÖVP or FPÖ disregarding students' home languages and placing an emphasis on the sole importance of the national language German. In contrast, more socialist parties, such as the SPÖ, have shown a willingness to actively implement the recommendations of the European Union in the past. Nonetheless, ensuring equal access and participation in education has been a longstanding principle in Austrian education policy (Republic of Austria 2008: 204, 2025: 175, 2020: 200), though its implementation has varied across different governments.

The Austrian Constitution affirms support for autochthonous ethnic groups:

The Republic (Federation, provinces and municipalities) subscribe to its linguistic and cultural multiplicity having grown, expressed in the autochthonous ethnic

groups. Language and culture, existence and preservation of these ethnic groups are to be respected, safeguarded, and supported. (Republic of Austria 1930: 8(2))

However, immigrant community languages lack similar recognition in the education system (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 231). This may partly explain higher achievement among protected minorities, who benefit from home language support and reduced prejudice, at least in dedicated bilingual schools (e.g. “BG/BRG für Slowenen”). It raises the question of whether extending such positive conditions to speakers of other minority languages would yield similar outcomes.

Despite a commitment to equal opportunities for all children, a clear hierarchy in school types still exists in Austria, with more prestigious schools having fewer multilingual students (Statistik Austria 2023a: table 9). Similar disparities exist in Austrian tertiary education: Second-generation Turkish immigrants show lower post-secondary mobility than in Belgium, France, or the Netherlands, all offering comparably higher upward mobility (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 251).

Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 22–23) emphasize that unequal access to valued resources, such as education, financial means, and rights, profoundly affects social cohesion. A key determinant is the place of birth of individuals or their parents, to which education systems respond differently across countries. In Austria, the long-term educational impact of an immigrant background is particularly pronounced, with disparities persisting across generations. This is due not to immigrant status alone but also to insufficient proficiency in German, often a second or third language for these children (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 229).

Brizić (2006: 346) addresses the importance of students’ linguistic starting point, which is crucial for acquiring proficiency in the language of instruction. If the goal of integration in the Austrian education system is mastering German and achieving educational success, this linguistic starting point cannot be ignored. Focusing solely on German while disregarding a child’s linguistic identity may lead to low self-esteem in students or even feelings of rejection towards the host society, thereby negatively influencing academic success, German proficiency and potentially the entire integration process.

Although practices in which students are encouraged to apply their entire linguistic repertoire in mainstream classrooms are not common in Austria, there have been initiatives to address

the students' linguistic starting point through separate first language instruction on the one hand and additional support classes for German on the other hand (OECD 2019: 99). The Austrian Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Research defines its first language instruction program as follows:

First language instruction is a voluntary, free program offered by the Austrian regular school system. Its aim is to enhance students' language skills in their first, second, or everyday family language. The instruction reinforces everyday language use while gradually developing academic language proficiency. Additionally, reading and writing skills are taught, contributing to the development of a multilingual identity. (Republic of Austria 2024a)

Supporting the development of students' home languages, and, thereby, their multilingual identities, through additional first language instruction can have a positive long-term impact on their self-confidence and academic success (Niedrig 2011: 102–103). However, it is important to note several limitations of these programs. As they are voluntary and typically scheduled in the afternoon, participation rates may be affected. Furthermore, these courses are not graded, and students who choose to learn their home language do so in isolation from their classmates, meaning that the first language remains largely segregated from the everyday reality of the classroom. This also applies to the so-called “Deutschförderklassen”, where students who lack sufficient language proficiency to follow regular lessons are placed in separate classes and provided with intensive German instruction to enable their integration into a regular classroom (Republic of Austria 2024b).

This separation of language support into isolated programs highlights a systemic challenge: the need for a more integrated approach that addresses the linguistic and academic demands of students within the mainstream classroom environment. While the vast majority of students with a non-German L1 manage to acquire German everyday language through existing language support measures, many still face challenges in mastering the language specifically used in educational contexts, *academic language*, which ultimately determines success in school.

In recent years, Austrian educational discourse has increasingly emphasized this distinction between *Alltagssprache* (everyday language) and *Bildungssprache* (academic language), recognizing the latter as a key factor for academic success. One of the central features of *Bildungssprache* is that it involves complex, decontextualized language, which is thought to be more abstract and precise than everyday communication. Cummins (2000: 58) refers to this

distinction as the difference between *Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills* (BICS) and *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency* (CALP). In multilingual learning contexts, students may have sufficient everyday language skills but lack the academic language necessary for success in school. Research has shown that students from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, whether monolingual or plurilingual, are often less exposed to the academic register, which places them at a disadvantage in terms of educational outcomes (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 235–236; Gogolin & Lange 2011: 109–111).

It should be noted that, as summarized by Baker & Wright (2021: 326–327), there has also been criticism of this distinction for:

- 1) making everyday language seem like something primitive and further reinforcing a certain kind of language discrimination,
- 2) disregarding the high complexity of everyday language and the many higher-order thinking skills involved, e.g. in a playground conversation where children plan a football match and deploy several different cognitive skills in doing so,
- 3) oversimplifying the complexity of language proficiency in general by dividing it into only two areas of competence.

Even without drawing explicitly on Cummins' (2017: 60, 2000: 58) *BICS/CALPS* distinction, it is clear that the language used in everyday peer conversation differs, at least in register, from the language expected in academic settings. Consequently, students can profit from an increased focus on these differences, making it a valid pedagogical approach to integrate this distinction into teaching across all subjects.

Historically, students were expected to acquire *Bildungssprache* implicitly, without explicit focus on its differences from everyday language. To address the disadvantages faced by non-native German speakers and students from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds, there has been a shift towards more holistic and continuous language support (*durchgehende Sprachförderung*), which integrates language education across subjects and grades. This comprehensive approach to language development recognizes that all teachers, including those in content areas like biology and mathematics, play a role in fostering students' linguistic capabilities (Boeckmann 2016b: 58; Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 255).

The concept of *durchgehende Sprachförderung* goes beyond subject-specific language instruction, proposing that academic language should be explicitly taught and practiced throughout the curriculum. Teachers are expected to become language-aware educators, adapting their instruction to incorporate language development. Research, including an ÖSZ project (Carnevale & Wojnesitz 2014), has underscored the importance of such approaches, demonstrating the need for language-sensitive teaching across all subjects. This initiative provided resources such as teaching materials (e.g. on www.sprachsensiblerunterricht.at (Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum 2025)) and handbooks aimed at improving teachers' awareness of language demands in their classrooms (Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019: 210).

The concept of continuous language support, which has its root in the *Language Across the Curriculum (LAC)*² movement, focuses on the consistent and systematic development of academic language, recognizing it as essential for students with German as a second language to achieve long-term educational success (Gogolin & Lange 2011: 118). This approach emphasizes explicit language instruction and acknowledges the unique challenges faced by second-language learners, such as the need for time and sustained effort to develop proficiency. Importantly, it advocates for incorporating students' first languages into the learning process, which not only enriches the classroom experience for everyone but also gives second-language learners a valuable foundation to build upon. Teachers play a critical role in this process, serving as language role models and fostering an environment where students feel encouraged to use language confidently, even when making mistakes. This involves actively engaging students in discussions, respecting their contributions, and treating errors as opportunities for growth within the learning process (Gogolin & Lange 2011: 120).

Despite this shift in perspective, Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger (2019: 208) criticize that “the fact that Austria is a multilingual country and the education system has to adapt to this situation has so far only marginally changed teacher education curricula”, which still seem to

² The *Language Across the Curriculum (LAC)* movement emerged in England during the 1980s. LAC proposed that language support should extend across all subjects and learning areas, integrating language development into every aspect of the curriculum. Alongside this, the concept of *language awareness*, also originating in England, encouraged educators to reflect on the language demands their students face and to take an active role in supporting them. These key ideas have significantly influenced contemporary approaches to language-sensitive teaching, including those in Austria (Gogolin & Lange 2011: 117).

be based on an imaginary monolingual society. Boeckmann (2016b: 58) criticizes that in spite of the fifty year long history of increasing immigration to Austria and the parallel process of euroization and globalization, very little change has occurred in the Austrian education system over the past decades and public education remains largely characterized by monolingualism. Although it seems that, for the most part, Austrian teachers are not yet implementing multilingual pedagogies in their day-to-day teaching practices, some changes have taken place in the past two decades. One of these changes was the development of a *Multilingualism Curriculum* (Krumm & Reich 2011). As Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger (2019: 202) note, this curriculum “is complementary to the regular subject curricula and promotes ways of enhancing language learning and fostering multilingualism across the curriculum” as it “specifies the general aims of Austrian language policy and contributes to the integration of language learning in the concept of lifelong learning” (Krumm & Reich 2011: 4). Despite not being part of the national curriculum, this multilingualism curriculum served as a starting point for the implementation of general language education in teacher training (Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019: 202), although the workload was only limited to six credits (out of a total of 360 ECTS-credits that constitute the Bachelor and Master of Education studies).

Apart from German support classes and first language instruction, Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell (2012: 238) mention two other ways in which the Austrian government has reacted to the growing number of multilingual students with a non-German L1 since the 1990s: the status of *extraordinary students* which allows students with very poor German proficiency to participate in classes without being graded until they have sufficient mastery of the language to become regular students, and the teaching principle of *intercultural learning*, which has been embedded as a cross-disciplinary concept in Austrian curricula since 1992. However, Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell (2012: 238) criticize these strategies for the lack of mandatory requirements for schools, as well as insufficient documentation and quality assurance.

Nonetheless, the concept of intercultural learning has been a key term in Austrian educational discourse over the past decades. The fact that this concept was incorporated into the curriculum 32 years ago when the third era of globalization had just begun, however, raises the question of how well it is adapted to today’s modern society. Moreover, in the context of modern

language learning and multilingualism, another question arises, namely what role, if any at all, culture(s) should play in the language classroom.

The concept of intercultural learning has evolved significantly since its incorporation into Austrian language education in 1992, reflecting broader shifts in the understanding of “culture” itself. Traditionally, culture was seen as a monolithic entity, closely tied to the nation-state, “where the concept of nation implied internal homogeneity and clear external borders” (Delanoy 2017: 171). This perspective has historically shaped Austrian language education, where intercultural learning has been approached through a lens that closely associates cultural diversity with linguistic, ethnic, and national identities, aligning with the socio-cultural and intercultural competencies outlined in the CEFR (Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019: 215). However, as cultures today are increasingly understood as fluid, dynamic, overlapping, and globally interconnected (Delanoy 2017: 175), scholars have begun questioning whether this traditional approach adequately reflects the realities of globalization. The term “intercultural” (i.e. *between* cultures) still implies fixed boundaries between cultural groups, suggesting that each individual belongs to a distinct culture and that members of “different” cultures should learn from one another. In contrast, *transculturality* offers a more accurate framework, acknowledging the hybrid and evolving nature of identities and better capturing the complexity of cultural belonging in today’s world (García & Sylvan 2011: 389; Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019: 215).

This evolving understanding of culture has also had an impact on the curriculum, as it underwent a significant revision with the introduction of the *Grundsatzerlass Interkulturelle Bildung* (BMBWF 2017) in 2017. This update reflects contemporary international perspectives, drawing on policy documents from bodies such as the United Nations and the European Union. Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger (2019: 203) describe the new framework as moving beyond the traditional focus on understanding and accepting other cultures, and promoting a more critical engagement with cultural diversity instead. It encourages students to identify and challenge stereotypes and cultural biases, particularly those that reinforce power imbalances.

These developments raise an important question for FLI, which has traditionally been tied to the national “culture” of Britain and, though less dominant in Austria, also to that of the United States. If cultural identity is highly individual and difficult to delimitate, one might ask whether

it could be set aside in favor of a purely language-focused approach. The idea is that leaving the “outdated” concept of culture out of the equation would help level the playing field for all language learners. However, although traditional notions of culture are recognized as purely social constructs, ideas of cultural separation persist in people’s minds and continue to have real-world consequences for those who are assigned to a particular culture. Just as certain languages are automatically linked to specific cultural identities, individuals are often placed into cultural categories that shape their experiences and opportunities. The fact remains that language and culture are inherently intertwined and cannot be fully separated. Thus, even though culture is a social construct, it still plays a key role in how individuals define themselves and navigate the world around them. Simply setting it aside in favor of a purely language-focused approach would mean ignoring the ways in which cultural ideas shape real-life experiences and interactions. In the language classroom, this would not only take away the chance for students to critically reflect on how culture influences their own perspectives, but also the opportunity to express who they are and embrace their identities that are inevitably connected to culture, whether in fluid, overlapping ways or through more clearly defined social boundaries.

In this context, Delanoy (2017: 163–176) offers a critical perspective on the celebration of fluid and individualized cultural identities. He cautions that while it is important to recognize these dynamic identities, such a focus risks overlooking the need for collective action to effect meaningful social change. According to Delanoy, the ultimate goal of language education should be to empower learners not only to communicate effectively but also to engage responsibly with broader societal issues. According to Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger (2019: 215), this view underscores the necessity of integrating communicative *and* cultural competences, suggesting that a revision of the national curriculum may be required to better reflect this integrated approach.

This view aligns closely with the pedagogical approach of translanguaging, which serves as a central theoretical concept throughout this thesis (see Chapter 3.3 for a detailed discussion). Translanguaging allows students to draw on their full linguistic and cultural repertoires, offering a practical approach to achieving this integration. By embracing the diversity of students’ linguistic and cultural backgrounds, translanguaging not only enhances language acquisition

but also fosters a deeper intercultural and transcultural understanding, which is increasingly important in today's educational landscape (García & Sylvan 2011: 389).

While Austria's language policies have evolved over time, the extent to which they support multilingual pedagogies in practice remains uncertain. Although monoglossia continues to dominate mainstream education, some institutions have successfully implemented models that challenge this norm. Examining multilingual pedagogies in Austria and Germany provides concrete examples of how alternative approaches can be integrated into educational systems. The analysis of these models in the following section contributes to answering the first research question by demonstrating the potential of non-monolingual frameworks and their relevance to the Austrian context.

2.4 Multilingual Pedagogies in Austria and Germany

Discussing the many successful models of bilingual education that exist across the world, especially in the U.S. and Canada, Boeckmann (2016c: 6) observes that not all of them are suitable for implementation in Austria. He outlines that bilingual models, which typically account for only two languages, fall short in addressing the extensive linguistic diversity found in many Austrian schools. This highlights the need for evolving these models into multilingual ones. In Austria, *immersion* and *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) methods are often applied primarily for the benefit of the linguistic majority, without adequately considering students from minority language backgrounds. Given the significant potential of content-based language instruction, expanding its use to promote greater equity for students who are not native speakers of the dominant language would be highly beneficial. While such strategies can be implemented on a small scale by dedicated teachers, they would have a much greater impact if adopted as part of broader, school-wide initiatives that integrate coordinated language instruction or a comprehensive language curriculum (Boeckmann 2016c: 6).

Nonetheless, schools that enable students to expand their knowledge and develop their identity in more than one language through immersion or dual language instruction, such as the *Lycée Français* in Vienna, the *Linz International School Auhof*, or the *Lycée Danube*, remain successful examples of how a well-structured bilingual program can effectively support linguistic diversity while maintaining a high level of academic achievement. These schools provide a

strong counterpoint to the traditionally monolingual education system in Austria and effectively challenge the argument that growing up multilingually leads to deficits in academic success or inadequate mastery of the national language. However, it is important to note that these institutions primarily enroll students from more advantaged socioeconomic backgrounds and cater to prestigious languages, which often limits their accessibility and relevance to the broader, linguistically diverse student population in Austria. This disparity highlights the need for more inclusive educational models that value and promote linguistic diversity across all language backgrounds, not just those associated with higher social status.

Bilingual schools offer an example of educational institutions that deviate from the monolingual norm. While in Austria such schools with dual language instruction are reserved for more prestigious languages like English or French, in Hamburg, bilingual elementary school classes were introduced in 2000 in four different language combinations with German: Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Turkish. In these classes, students receive instruction in two languages, divided roughly equally in terms of time. The student composition adheres to a principle where both monolingual children of each language and bilingual children are taught together (Neumann 2011: 181). Students learn to read and write simultaneously in both languages, providing them with a strong foundation in literacy. According to Neumann (2011: 182), these programs create authentic situations where bilingualism becomes a practical skill, and translation abilities are necessary.

Neumann (2011: 181–182) lists the strong academic performance of the students as a significant achievement of this bilingual model in Hamburg's elementary schools. Analyses of language development data focusing on reading ability, vocabulary, grammar, and linguistic competence alongside mathematics performance, demonstrate that these bilingual classes effectively prepare students for success in the German education system (Roth, Neumann & Gogolin 2007: 149). Furthermore, in all six bilingual classes studied, there is only a weak correlation between social background and educational outcomes, contrasting with typical patterns in the German and Austrian school system. The findings suggest that incorporating children's heritage languages into the process of learning German and adopting language-sensitive subject instruction could weaken the strong link between social background and academic success

prevalent in the German educational system (Neumann 2011: 181–182), which is likely also applicable to the Austrian educational system.

Despite the success of these bilingual schools in both Austria and Germany and their higher performance compared to the currently prevalent model of monolingual schools with additional heritage language instruction, bilingual schools do not offer a long-term, satisfactory solution for all members of society. The linguistic diversity in Austria and Germany is simply too vast to be adequately represented within bilingual programs, which typically focus on a limited number of languages and insist on rigid language separation. This can lead to the exclusion of less commonly spoken languages, leaving some communities without access to such educational opportunities. Additionally, the resource intensity required for bilingual education, including the need for proficient teachers and specialized curricula, makes it challenging to implement on a large scale. These factors suggest that while bi- or multilingual education can lead to better academic outcomes, it is not a universally applicable solution across the diverse and multilingual societies of Austria and Germany. However, it is an example of how beneficial it is for students to be able to use their entire language repertoire for overall academic achievement and a further argument for the implementation of translanguaging methods in mainstream classrooms.

Building on the discussion of existing multilingual approaches, the following section examines the specific advantages of pedagogical translanguaging for Austrian EFL classrooms. It situates translanguaging within Austria's current linguistic landscape, directly addressing RQ1 and highlighting its potential to bridge existing gaps in multilingual education.

2.5 The Case for Translanguaging in Austria

The integration of translanguaging into Austria's education system offers a promising approach to addressing the linguistic and educational challenges faced by multilingual students. Research consistently highlights the importance of students' linguistic identities (Brizić 2006: 345), which encompass all the languages and varieties they speak. A flexible and positive relationship with all these languages is crucial for fostering linguistic self-confidence, which plays a decisive role in academic and linguistic success. This perspective challenges the traditional notion that linguistic assimilation alone determines educational outcomes, emphasizing the value of maintaining and developing proficiency in both L1 and L2 instead (Brizić 2006: 345).

A key concept in multilingual education is *linguistic seed capital*, referring to the linguistic resources that students bring with them upon entering school (Brizić 2006: 345). Both linguistic seed capital and parental support are crucial for successful multilingual education. Research shows that students with strong L1 proficiency at school enrolment, combined with high motivation to use their L1 and positive self-esteem in their L2, tend to achieve better command of the language of instruction (Brizić 2006: 353). Likewise, children whose families encourage L1 use and development often experience greater academic and linguistic success (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 241).

Conversely, low proficiency in the L1 and diminished self-esteem in the L2 correlate with weaker outcomes, even when students demonstrate a positive attitude toward learning the instructional language (Brizić 2006: 353). Similarly, educational practices that discourage parents from speaking their native language with their children, especially when their proficiency in the instructional language is limited, may undermine students' potential for success (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 241). These findings highlight the need for early and sustained L1 support in Austrian education both through family involvement and educational policies, as it fosters stronger German acquisition and overall academic success.

Moreover, as Brizić (2006: 356) observes, many multilingual students face added challenges because certain linguistic groups are stigmatized not only in their home countries but also in the countries where they immigrate. This double disadvantage can have a serious impact on their educational progress. To tackle this, schools should focus on creating opportunities that strengthen students' confidence in using both their first language(s) and the language of instruction by integrating parents and their languages into daily school activities (Brizić 2006: 356–358), both practices that are inherent parts of translanguaging pedagogy (García & Kleyn 2016: 74).

Additionally, research highlights that educational success is strongly linked to the ability to balance elements of both the host culture and the culture of origin, a concept referred to as *selective acculturation*. This approach often involves developing and affirming students' home languages alongside the language of instruction, thereby fostering a sense of multilingualism within families and schools. Such practices not only enhance linguistic competence but also

strengthen students' identities, contributing to their overall academic success (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 253). In this context, translanguaging proves particularly relevant for the Austrian EFL classroom, as it actively supports selective acculturation by affirming and integrating students' diverse linguistic and cultural identities. By deliberately incorporating resources and activities that invite students to draw from their home languages and cultures, translanguaging facilitates meaningful engagement with the target language. For instance, incorporating literary texts from diverse cultural contexts into the classroom provides learners with opportunities to explore, reflect on, and connect their linguistic and cultural experiences (Baker & Wright 2021: 630).

At the core of successful multilingual education is the understanding that linguistic self-confidence in the instructional language is one of the most important predictors of second language acquisition (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 254). This finding surpasses even motivation as a determining factor, highlighting the psychological dimension of language learning. By creating classroom environments where students' linguistic repertoires are valued and integrated, translanguaging can help to cultivate this essential self-confidence and enable Austrian students to excel academically.

Research conducted by Griessler (2001: 50) in two bilingual Austrian schools provides concrete examples illustrating how moving away from a monoglossic educational framework can yield significant advantages through linguistic transfer and cross-linguistic influence. A comparative study involving *Linz International School Auhof (LISA)*, the *Lycée Français de Vienne*, and a traditional Austrian academic upper secondary school demonstrates that students exposed to multiple languages develop heightened metalinguistic awareness, which significantly facilitates subsequent language acquisition. While the strong performance of LISA and Lycée Français students may also be influenced by the potentially more advantaged socioeconomic backgrounds of their student populations, this does not diminish the relevance of the findings for understanding the pedagogical benefits of multilingual environments. These results support the argument that Austrian students benefit considerably from educational environments which actively promote and value multilingualism. Further evidence from Griessler (2001: 57–58) underscores how multilingual learning environments enhance students' linguistic flexibility and problem-solving abilities. Instead of resorting to avoidance strategies, they often employ

creative paraphrasing techniques to navigate lexical gaps (Griessler 2001: 54). Griessler's study also suggests that acquiring a third language can reinforce second-language proficiency, strengthening overall linguistic competence. This aligns with the core principles of translanguaging, which emphasize the interconnected nature of linguistic knowledge and the advantages of a holistic approach to language learning.

While these findings highlight the potential benefits of translanguaging, its implementation in Austrian EFL classrooms is shaped not only by pedagogical considerations but also by institutional and curricular frameworks. The following section critically examines Austrian EFL curricula, determining the degree to which translanguaging aligns with official educational policies and thereby providing a direct answer to RQ 2.

2.6 Curricular Guidelines

The Austrian education system recognizes the increasing linguistic diversity of its student body and has made efforts to integrate multilingual education into both its lower and upper secondary curricula. The federal curriculum acknowledges that rapid societal changes, particularly in the areas of culture, science, demography, and migration, require an education system that fosters intercultural competence and linguistic inclusion, while also strengthening the students' sense of their regional, Austrian and European identity (BMBWF 2023a: 4). According to the Austrian Federal Ministry of Education (2023b: 8), "schools must take into account the social and cultural diversity of students and ensure that every child is supported in their linguistic and educational development".

As discussed in section 2.3, a central principle of the Austrian curriculum is *intercultural learning*, aimed at fostering understanding of cultural values and encouraging respectful interactions among students with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The curriculum (BMBWF 2023b: 12) states that "students should acquire knowledge about different cultures, engage with diverse perspectives, and actively shape their cultural environment," and also highlights the "sensitivity [of teachers] for the psychological and social situation of children with a migration background." While this approach promotes openness to diversity, it remains rooted in a somewhat outdated view of cultures as distinct and separate entities – a limitation examined in detail earlier in this chapter.

Intercultural learning is further supported through the integration of social competence development into language education. The curriculum emphasizes that language learning should extend beyond grammar and vocabulary to include awareness of cultural perspectives and communication styles, stating that “foreign language instruction should contribute to students’ ability to navigate cultural diversity, reflect on their own cultural identity, and develop sensitivity towards different linguistic communities” (BMBWF 2023b: 55). This aligns with intercultural communicative competence frameworks, which stress that language learning should cultivate not only linguistic proficiency but also the skills to engage meaningfully with speakers from diverse cultural backgrounds (Beacco et al. 2016: 10).

The Austrian Federal Ministry of Education emphasizes the role of students’ prior linguistic knowledge in facilitating new learning experiences. According to the curriculum, “learning should build upon students’ prior knowledge and linguistic experiences, incorporating students’ home languages as a means of facilitating deeper understanding and cognitive development” (BMBWF 2023b: 12). By integrating first languages into classroom practices, the curriculum aligns with plurilingual education principles, which argue that existing linguistic competencies should be used strategically in the acquisition of additional languages (Council of Europe 2007: 28).

Furthermore, language-sensitive teaching across all subjects is highlighted as a core principle of the curriculum. It states that “all subjects should incorporate strategies that promote linguistic awareness, enabling students to consciously reflect on linguistic structures and enhance their communicative abilities” (BMBWF 2023b: 12). This approach aims to ensure that language development is not confined to subjects such as German, English or other foreign languages, but is embedded throughout the curriculum, allowing students to develop subject-specific language proficiency while strengthening their overall linguistic competence.

The curriculum also emphasizes the value of examining differences and similarities between languages as a didactic strategy. It notes that “contrasting and comparing different linguistic structures enhances metalinguistic awareness and promotes deeper comprehension of language principles” (BMBWF 2023b: 31). This perspective acknowledges that students’ existing linguistic knowledge can serve as a valuable cognitive resource in acquiring new languages. Additionally, it explicitly states that “first-language knowledge should be considered in second-

language acquisition processes,” as “a strong foundation in a student’s home language significantly contributes to the development of proficiency in additional languages” (BMBWF 2023b: 28).

A key area of tension within the curriculum arises in foreign language instruction. On the one hand, the curriculum strongly promotes the target language as the primary medium of communication, stating that “teaching should be predominantly conducted in the target language to immerse students in authentic linguistic contexts” (BMBWF 2023b: 42). This aligns with conventional foreign language teaching methodologies, which emphasize maximizing exposure to the target language to develop communicative competence and fluency. *The communicative approach*, as described by Richards & Rodgers (2014: 86), underscores the importance of immersive exposure, arguing that authentic language use in meaningful contexts is essential for language acquisition. Similarly, Krashen’s *input hypothesis* (1982: 21) suggests that exposure to language input that learners can understand is fundamental to second language development, supporting the idea that immersion in the target language fosters more natural and effective language acquisition.

On the one hand, the curriculum advocates for the “primacy of the target language” (BMBWF 2023b: 56), stating that “as much of the target language as possible” (BMBWF 2023b: 57) should be used in foreign language instruction. It further specifies that “the techniques of transfer and translation are only to be used selectively as an aid in understanding and learning” (BMBWF 2023b: 57) and are “reserved for the upper secondary level as special learning and teaching objectives” (BMBWF 2023b: 57).

However, the curriculum simultaneously acknowledges the importance of utilizing students’ prior linguistic knowledge to facilitate learning. It states that “students’ prior linguistic knowledge and home languages should be actively used to facilitate understanding and scaffold learning” (BMBWF 2023b: 28). This recognition aligns with contemporary research on language acquisition, which suggests that strategic use of the first language can support cognitive processing, particularly when students encounter complex linguistic structures in the target language (Cummins 2000: 37).

The coexistence of these two principles within the curriculum reflects a broader debate in language education: while full immersion can accelerate target language acquisition, the use of

multilingual scaffolding can enhance comprehension and cognitive engagement. This contrast is particularly relevant in the implementation of translanguaging strategies in EFL education, where educators must balance the benefits of maximum target language input with the cognitive advantages of leveraging students' existing linguistic resources. The curriculum does not offer clear guidelines on how to balance these competing strategies, leaving individual schools and teachers to determine their own approach.

Additionally, the curriculum underscores the importance of fostering inclusive classroom environments that accommodate students from diverse linguistic backgrounds. It explicitly states that “schools must create an environment that fosters equal learning opportunities for all students, irrespective of their linguistic background” (BMBWF 2023b: 13). This principle aligns with broader European Union policies that promote plurilingual education as a means of fostering social cohesion and educational equity (Council of Europe 2022). While these policies provide a strong theoretical foundation for multilingual education, their implementation depends heavily on teacher attitudes and varies from school to school.

In conclusion, the Austrian curriculum lays a solid foundation for translanguaging and multilingual education in general by emphasizing “intercultural” learning, linguistic awareness, and inclusivity, thereby providing a clear answer to RQ 2. However, the contrast between target language immersion in foreign language instruction and the acknowledgment of students' prior linguistic knowledge poses a key pedagogical challenge that is unique to foreign language instruction. Addressing this issue requires a nuanced approach that balances immersive techniques with the cognitive advantages of multilingual scaffolding, ensuring that students can develop both linguistic fluency and metalinguistic awareness in an inclusive and effective learning environment.

Chapter 2 has explored the multilingual reality of Austrian classrooms, the evolving policy landscape, and the role of multilingual education in the curriculum. While these factors set the stage for understanding the opportunities and challenges of implementing translanguaging, a deeper look into the theoretical foundations is needed. Chapter 3 takes this step by examining key concepts in multilingualism, tracing the shift from monolingual to multilingual pedagogies, and positioning translanguaging within broader discussions on language education.

3 Theoretical Framework

3.1 Core Concepts in Multilingualism

Multilingualism is a complex phenomenon that can be understood both on an individual and a societal level. To situate translanguaging within broader discussions on multilingual education, it is essential to clarify key concepts related to language interaction, dominance, and fluency. This section provides an overview of these fundamental concepts.

The Council of Europe (2001: 4) defines *multilingualism*³ as the presence of multiple languages within a given geographical area, community, or institution. It describes linguistic diversity and the coexistence of different languages in various social and political contexts. The term *multilingualism* is often used to describe both individual and societal linguistic diversity. To distinguish between these levels more precisely, the term *societal multilingualism* can be used to refer to the use of more than one language within a broader social group, whereas *individual multilingualism* aligns closely with the concept of *plurilingualism*.

*Plurilingualism*⁴ is an individual-centered concept, emphasizing a person's ability to use and navigate between different languages. The Council of Europe (2001: 168) defines it as “the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent, has proficiency of varying degrees in several languages and experience of several cultures”. This definition challenges the notion that languages exist in separate, compartmentalized systems within an individual. Instead, *plurilingual* competence is seen as dynamic and evolving, where a person draws flexibly on their linguistic repertoire to interact across languages.

Closely tied to plurilingualism is the concept of *heteroglossia*, which, like plurilingualism, challenges the notion of languages as separate, autonomous systems and instead emphasizes their

³ A debate within multilingualism research concerns whether *bilingualism* should be considered a subtype of multilingualism or a separate phenomenon (Jessner-Schmid 2015: 65). While the terms are often used interchangeably, bilingualism is more accurately viewed as a subset of multilingualism, as multilingualism encompasses both bilingual and multilingual individuals, i.e. those who speak more than two languages.

⁴ Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger (2019: 207) further distinguish between *inner plurilingualism*, which includes varieties within the same language (such as dialects and sociolects), and *outer plurilingualism*, which refers to competencies in multiple named languages.

fluid and dynamic interaction (Bakhtin 1981: 270–271; García 2009b: 145). In contrast, *monoglossia* upholds the idea that only one legitimate language should be used, reinforcing monolingual norms and suppressing linguistic diversity, effectively leading to the need for language separation in individuals (García 2009b: 141; Cenoz & Gorter 2015: 7). *Diglossia*, while also based on language separation, differs in that it acknowledges the coexistence of two linguistic varieties or languages but assigns them strictly separate functions, with a “high” variety used in formal domains and a “low” variety reserved for informal settings (Baker & Wright 2021: 96–97). Expanding on heteroglossic principles, *transglossia* extends this perspective beyond the individual, describing social multilingual practices in which languages exist within an interrelated communicative network (García 2009b: 148). These perspectives highlight the shift from traditional language separation models toward approaches that embrace linguistic fluidity.

As research on multilingualism has expanded, so has the need for clear distinctions between the various languages individuals acquire and use. Traditional research defines *first language* (*L1*) and *second language* (*L2*) based on the order of acquisition. However, this terminology can be problematic, e.g. when two languages are acquired simultaneously. Additionally, as Jessner-Schmid (2015: 65) points out, the chronological sequence of language learning is not always the most relevant factor in determining an individual’s dominant language. Over time, an *L1* may become an *L2* or *L3* depending on changes in linguistic needs and environments.

To address shifts in language dominance, a distinction can be made between *primary* and *secondary languages*, with the *primary language* being the one in which an individual is most proficient (Montrul 2012: 169). Jessner-Schmid (2015: 65) further notes that emotional connections to a language may also affect classification, leading some individuals to define their *L1* based on personal or familial significance rather than proficiency or order of acquisition. The complexities in defining the languages in an individual’s repertoire extend further when considering proficiency, functionality, identification, and automaticity (Jessner-Schmid 2015: 66).

In this thesis, the term *L1* is used to refer to the first language(s) acquired chronologically in early childhood, typically learned from parents or caregivers. This definition acknowledges that individuals can have more than one *L1* if they acquire multiple languages simultaneously during this early stage of life.

The distinction between *majority* and *minority languages* is also relevant when discussing the social implications of translinguaging. According to Montrul (2012: 169), *majority languages* are spoken by dominant social groups, hold official status, and are widely used in media and education, such as German in Austria and Spanish in Spain. *Minority languages*, by contrast, belong to ethnolinguistic groups with less social, cultural, or political influence. These include indigenous languages, e.g. Burgenland Croatian, regional languages such as Welsh or Basque, as well as various immigrant languages, e.g. Turkish in Austria. *Language shift* is a common phenomenon among minority language speakers, particularly among children who grow up acquiring greater proficiency in the dominant societal language than in their L1, sometimes leading to a reversal of their primary and secondary language roles (Montrul 2012: 169). In this case, the minority language can also be referred to as *heritage language*. Montrul (2012: 168) describes heritage speakers as individuals who are exposed to a minority or immigrant language from childhood but later develop greater proficiency in the majority language of their community.

Finally, the term *home language* specifically denotes the language spoken within the family setting, which may differ from an individual's primary language in wider social contexts and can shift depending on familial circumstances.

This section outlined key concepts in multilingualism, examining how languages are categorized, used, and experienced across individuals and societies. Despite the multilingual repertoires of many individuals, educational models have long been shaped by the notion that languages should remain separate, influencing how multilingualism is approached in classrooms. To understand how translinguaging fits into multilingual education, it is essential to explore the historical and theoretical evolution of multilingual pedagogies. The following section provides this foundation, tracing the shift from rigid language separation to integrative approaches and identifying multilingual classroom strategies that have proven most effective.

3.2 The Multilingual Turn

In recent decades, theory on language education has experienced a noticeable shift away from predominantly monolingual teaching models towards approaches that foreground learners' dynamic and plural linguistic repertoires. This development, also referred to as the *multilingual turn*, challenges traditional notions of language separation and static bilingualism, inviting a

more holistic look at how learners truly use their linguistic resources (García 2009a; Baker & Wright 2011; Otwinowska & Angelis 2014; Conteh & Meier 2014). Essentially, these new pedagogical paradigms highlight the many ways in which multiple languages interact in multilingual speakers' minds and encourage educators to draw on a learner's entire linguistic repertoire, including any home, community, or previously learned languages, to enhance cognitive processes, identity-building, and school success.

Formal bilingual programs, introduced across many countries to meet the needs of students whose home language differs from the main language of instruction, have historically played a central role in shaping multilingual pedagogies. Much of the international research classifies these programs into categories such as *submersion*, *transitional bilingual education*, *maintenance (or developmental) bilingual education*, *immersion*, and *two-way bilingual (or dual medium) programs* (Benson 2009: 63; Baker & Wright 2021: 402–427). While these programs have laid the foundation for multilingual practices, many of the earlier models operated under a *subtractive approach*, aiming to gradually replace students' L1 with the dominant societal language (Baker & Wright 2021: 862). Programs such as submersion and transitional bilingual education placed learners into mainstream classrooms, expecting them to assimilate into the majority language and culture, but often at the cost of their L1 development (Benson 2009: 67; Niedrig 2011: 95).

In addition to being subtractive, many bilingual education programs traditionally followed a *monoglossic* model, treating bilingualism as two separate and autonomous linguistic systems that should not interact in educational settings (García & Sylvan 2011: 385). This perspective, often referred to as the *two solitudes assumption* (Cummins 2008: 65), shaped bilingual education policies worldwide, reinforcing the idea that languages should remain compartmentalized.

Over time, a shift toward *additive bilingual models* led to approaches such as maintenance bilingual education and two-way immersion, which aim to develop and sustain students' home languages alongside the majority language (Benson 2009: 68). These programs recognize bilingualism as an asset rather than a transitional phase toward monolingualism. However, even in additive models, language use is typically strictly regulated (Benson 2009: 69), maintaining

clear separations between languages in instructional settings. This reflects a monoglossic ideology, in which bilingualism is seen as involving two separate linguistic systems rather than an integrated repertoire.

Over time, bilingual education has taken many different forms, shaped by shifting beliefs about language learning and the role of linguistic diversity in schools. *Submersion*, historically common in North America and parts of Europe, involves placing students directly into majority-language classrooms without much or any specialized support in their L1. In Austria, this approach was widely experienced by the children of so-called “guest workers” who arrived in the 1960s and 1970s (Friebs 2005: 10). Without structured German language support, they were expected to acquire the language solely through exposure, often struggling to keep up with academic content. Benson (2009: 65) criticizes submersion as a cruel form of schooling also known as “sink or swim”, arguing that “its only justification is the myth of ‘maximum exposure’, i.e. as much exposure as possible to the dominant language at the expense of the mother tongue”. However, it quickly became evident that submersion students often fall behind academically, as they face challenging content in a language they do not yet fully understand. As a form of subtractive bilingualism (Baker & Wright 2021: 862), submersion marginalizes students’ L1s rather than fostering their development. The goal is not bilingualism but assimilation into monolingual mainstream norms, with no additional linguistic support.

A step up from submersion is *transitional bilingual education*, which also aims primarily at integrating non-dominant language speakers into a majority-language classroom but uses their L1 more purposefully as a scaffold during early years. The transitional model typically envisions an initial period in which students study academic content in both their L1 and the target language (TL), with the L1 gradually phased out after the learners gain basic TL proficiency (Niedrig 2011: 95–96). Though transitional programs are likely to produce better outcomes than submersion, critics like Benson (2009: 67) or Niedrig (2011: 95) point out that they still treat the minority language as temporary, i.e. something to be replaced by the majority language once students can handle full instruction in the TL. As a result, many children never develop advanced literacy in their home language, ultimately limiting their potential for balanced bilingualism, which is a key criticism of subtractive, or so-called *weak*, forms of bilingual education.

Maintenance or developmental bilingual education, on the other hand, aims to bolster students' first languages over an extended period, while simultaneously introducing and strengthening the school's majority language (Benson 2009: 68). In a maintenance program, the minority language is not a mere vehicle for transitioning to the TL, but a legitimate medium of instruction to be preserved long term. This fosters *additive bilingualism*, where students keep developing both languages instead of trading one for the other. According to Niedrig (2011: 97), heritage language instruction in Austria can be considered a form of language maintenance. Research in a variety of settings, including the U.S. and parts of Europe, demonstrates that sustained L1 instruction correlates with higher overall academic achievement (Thomas & Collier 2002; Kilpi-Jakonen & Alisaari 2022; Tegunimataka 2021). Maintenance programs often reflect a deeper ideological commitment to linguistic diversity, regarding children's home languages as assets rather than obstacles. However, implementing maintenance on a large scale demands resources, trained teachers fluent in both languages, and political backing (Benson 2009: 68; Niedrig 2011: 96–97).

Immersion programs, popularized by Canada's French immersion model, are often perceived as another *strong form* of bilingual education (Benson 2009: 68), opposed to weak forms such as submersion, as they aim to develop the students' entire linguistic repertoire and not just the majority language. In the classic Canadian design, children from English-speaking homes learn much or all of their subject matter, such as math, science, or social studies, through French. Instead of "phasing out" one language, immersion aims for additive bilingualism, hoping that students will acquire near-native levels of proficiency in the target language while maintaining their L1 (Niedrig 2011: 92–93). Immersion has also spread to other contexts, sometimes reversing the roles of majority and minority languages; for example, a minority or regional language (e.g. Welsh) might be used to teach content to English-speaking pupils. While typically viewed as successful for majority-language learners, immersion can pose complications if the minority language is actually a child's home language and not well supported outside of school (Benson 2009: 69). In that case, if teachers do not systematically nurture students' literacy and academic language in their L1, these programs risk resembling submersion for certain learners.

Two-way bilingual (dual medium) programs bring together roughly equal numbers of students from two language backgrounds and teach academic content in both languages, aiming for

balanced bilingualism among all participants (Niedrig 2011: 97). The ideal scenario sees each language used around 50% of the time, giving native speakers of each language the chance to serve as peer models for the other group. Research from U.S. schools with Spanish-English two-way classes shows that students often emerge with strong proficiency in both languages, as well as a more positive attitude toward linguistic diversity (Niedrig 2011: 98). Though resource-intensive, two-way programs demonstrate how bilingual education can benefit both minority- and majority-language speakers, supporting cultural understanding alongside language acquisition. Neumann (2011: 183) highlights the positive outcomes of such programs in various language pairings, referencing a bilingual elementary school in Hamburg with multiple branches where German is combined with Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Turkish each.

Although earlier two-way bilingual programs promoted linguistic inclusivity, they maintained predefined language allocations in instruction (Benson 2009: 69). However, since teachers were often proficient in both languages and students interacted across language groups, informal communication may have led to more fluid language use than the structured model intended. Building on such tendencies, dynamic models of multilingual education have emerged, moving beyond both subtractive and monoglossic assumptions to embrace the fluid and interactive use of languages. They define the languages in an individual's repertoire on a continuum rather than seeing them as separated entities (Hornberger 2003: xiv). This rather recent shift, defined as the *multilingual turn*, represents a fundamental rethinking of multilingual education, recognizing that multilingual speakers naturally engage in flexible language practices rather than adhering to rigid, monolingual norms. At the center of this shift is translanguaging, which not only challenges traditional boundaries between languages but also redefines multilingual competence as the ability to strategically draw from one's full linguistic repertoire to make meaning, communicate, and learn (García & Wei 2014: 66).

However, the idea that bilinguals use their languages fluidly is not entirely new. Earlier research, such as Cummins' *interdependence hypothesis* (1979), and discussions on *metalinguistic awareness* (Bialystok 1987: 154, 2001: 122), already suggested that bilinguals' linguistic systems are interconnected rather than compartmentalized. Nevertheless, the broad application of these insights in pedagogy has only recently become more widespread.

Another key characteristic of the multilingual turn is the rejection of the notion that language learners are deficient native speakers. Traditionally, language education was grounded in a monolingual and monocultural framework, shaped by a monolingual bias positioning the native speaker as an idealized linguistic model (Ortega 2014: 34). This perspective framed learners who did not achieve native-like proficiency in an L2 as inadequate, reinforcing a narrow and restrictive view of linguistic competence. However, the multilingual turn challenges this assumption, redefining language learners as skilled multilingual speakers rather than failed native speakers (Block 2014: 56). Instead of striving for monolingual-like proficiency, they are recognized for their plurilingual competence, using multiple languages in flexible and creative ways depending on communicative needs (Council of Europe 2001: 4)

This recognition of multilingualism as an educational asset has led scholars to advocate for more flexible approaches to language use in the classroom. García & Sylvan (2011: 386) highlight that “the multilingual/multicultural classrooms of today are characterized by an increased plurality of practices [...] building on [students’] different language practices, rather than simply promoting and teaching one or more standard languages”. Teachers and students navigate multiple languages in real-time, often blending formal bilingual education with more flexible instructional practices.

One such practice is *code-switching*, a natural phenomenon occurring in multilingual settings. Code-switching simply means shifting from one language (or dialect) to another in the course of a conversation or even within a single utterance⁵ (Baker & Wright 2021: 209). Traditionally, teachers were expected to discourage code-switching in favor of maximal exposure to the target language (Wei & Martin 2009: 117). The fear of language confusion or even “semilingualism”, i.e. the state of not fully acquiring either language (MacSwan & Faltis 2020: 149), strongly reflects the monolingual norm that was dominant before the multilingual turn and, in many contexts, remains prevalent today.

⁵ In the context of code-switching, researchers distinguish between “the ‘monolingual mode’, when bilinguals use one of their languages with monolingual speakers of that language, and the ‘bilingual mode’, when bilinguals are in the company of other bilinguals and have the option of switching languages” (Baker & Wright 2021: 209–210).

Critics of code-switching argued that it led to deficiencies in grammar and vocabulary. In cases of intrasentential code-switching, some claimed that children may not receive sufficient exposure to either language to fully internalize grammatical, semantic, and lexical rules (MacSwan & Faltis 2020: 150). However, research has demonstrated (MacSwan & Faltis 2020: 157) that bilingual children “acquire the grammars of both languages from bilingual data, even under conditions of intrasentential code-switching” (MacSwan & Faltis 2020: 151). Additionally, code-switching itself has been shown to be highly rule-governed and systematic, as it adheres to the grammatical framework of a dominant language known as the *matrix language* and thus requires a precise understanding of grammatical structures (Baker & Wright 2021: 209–210).

Another key element of multilingual pedagogies is *language awareness*, rooted in the idea that students benefit from exploring how languages function. Language awareness activities prompt learners to examine linguistic phenomena, such as grammar patterns, word origins, or register differences in various languages. Pupils might compare how different languages express the same idea or note how cognates facilitate comprehension across related languages (Ballinger et al. 2017: 48). Furthermore, Gogolin et al. (2020: 120) note that language awareness is increasingly viewed as a cross-curricular and interdisciplinary approach that fosters multilingualism by encouraging sensitivity to and conscious engagement with language throughout a student’s education. This perspective emphasizes the importance of integrating students’ linguistic backgrounds across all subjects to develop a more comprehensive understanding of language use. Language awareness can also incorporate reflection on power dynamics, for instance exploring why certain dialects or languages enjoy higher status. This approach aligns with the broader concept of *critical language awareness*, urging students (and teachers) to see linguistic choices as linked to issues of identity, social hierarchy, and cultural representation (Ballinger et al. 2017: 49).

A further classroom-level approach sometimes grouped under multilingual pedagogies is *intercomprehension*. As described by Boeckmann (2016c: 5), this technique can be applied both in everyday interactions and in education, serving as a component of multilingual didactics. In oral communication, intercomprehension allows each speaker to use their own language while still being understood by others, provided that all participants have receptive multilingual

skills. This strategy offers an alternative to the use of a lingua franca, emphasizing partial competencies rather than full mastery. Instead of requiring complete proficiency in multiple languages, intercomprehension focuses on developing and applying partial comprehension skills across several languages. To facilitate this, transfer and inference processes play a crucial role. Otwinowska & Angelis (2014: xiv) argue that, although less well-known than immersion or bilingual programs, intercomprehension can be valuable in certain contexts, allowing teachers to show that partial understanding is both legitimate and beneficial, and that bilingualism need not always mean perfect mastery of all skills in every language.

Closely related to intercomprehension is the broader concept of *plurilingual education*, advocated by bodies like the Council of Europe (2001: 5), which encourages learners to develop competence in multiple languages to varying degrees, depending on their needs, personal histories, and educational goals. Instead of insisting on monolingual-like proficiency in each language, a plurilingual mindset recognizes that people often utilize overlapping skill sets across languages, e.g. strong reading ability in one language, basic conversational ability in another, high-level writing in a third, and that all these repertoires can reinforce one another (Cavalli et al. 2009: 8–9). The notion of plurilingual education should inspire teachers to let students draw on whichever languages they have, in whatever ways might enrich classroom participation, and foster a positive self-image (Cavalli et al. 2009: 8).

Given the complexity of linguistic diversity in contemporary classrooms, no single rigid model can adequately address the needs of all multilingual learners. While certain bilingual models, such as maintenance or immersion programs, may be effective in contexts where only two languages dominate, they fall short in superdiverse settings where a wide range of home languages exists, many of which are not shared by teachers. In such environments, translanguaging should serve as the foundational pedagogical approach, as it allows learners to draw on their entire linguistic repertoires without being constrained by artificial language boundaries. However, translanguaging does not need to function in isolation. Rather, it can be enriched by complementary practices, such as language awareness projects, intercomprehension strategies, or structured code-switching, which offer additional scaffolding and support for language learning (Creese & Blackledge 2010: 106). In Austrian classrooms, where superdiversity is increasingly the norm, translanguaging provides a pedagogical foundation that is both inclusive

and adaptable, ensuring that all students can engage in meaningful learning while maintaining access to their full linguistic resources.

Among the various multilingual approaches discussed, translanguaging has shown to be a particularly influential paradigm, especially when combined with established multilingual strategies to adapt to the specific needs of a classroom. The next section explores the origins and principles of translanguaging, highlighting how it differs from traditional bilingual education models and outlining its advantages.

3.3 Translanguaging: A Paradigm Shift

The concept of translanguaging originated in Welsh bilingual education and has since expanded into a broader theoretical framework that challenges traditional views of language use. Initially, it referred to a pedagogical strategy designed to support bilingual students, but over time, scholars have conceptualized translanguaging as an essential feature of multilingual communication. Cen Williams first introduced the term *trawsieithu* in the 1980s, referring to a bilingual instructional practice in Welsh English education (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b: 643). In this approach, students received input in one language and produced output in another, requiring them to process content across both languages in a planned and systematic manner. Williams' primary motivation was to strengthen students' weaker language while encouraging deeper comprehension through active engagement with both languages (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b: 644).

Expanding translanguaging beyond its pedagogical use, García reconceptualized it as a dynamic and natural feature of bilingual communication. She defined translanguaging as “*multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage to make sense of their bilingual worlds* [original emphasis]” (García 2009a: 112). This interpretation positioned translanguaging not as a teaching tool but as a fundamental cognitive and communicative process bi-, and by extension, multilinguals naturally engage in. Unlike earlier models of bilingualism, which viewed language learning as acquiring two separate linguistic systems, García's (2009a: 34) perspective draws on *dynamic bilingualism*, i.e. the integrated nature of the bilingual mind, in which individuals use all linguistic resources flexibly according to context and communicative needs.

Building on this perspective, Baker (2011: 288) further defines translanguaging as “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages”. Lewis, Jones & Baker (2012b: 641) explain that “both languages are used in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organise and mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning”.

Historically, attitudes toward bilingualism have shifted significantly: According to Lambert (1973: 19–20), in the early 20th century, bilingualism was often viewed as a cognitive deficit, with scholars warning that exposure to multiple languages could hinder academic development. However, later research, particularly in the late 20th century, reframed bilingualism as an additive cognitive advantage (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b: 643), highlighting how bilingual individuals develop greater cognitive flexibility and metalinguistic awareness. Additionally, a central conceptual change introduced by García and later scholars is the rejection of the *monoglossic ideology*, the notion that languages exist as discrete and autonomous systems, in favor of dynamic bilingualism (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012a: 656). This challenges traditional educational approaches that separate languages into strict categories, often reinforcing language hierarchies that privilege dominant languages while marginalizing others (García & Sylvan 2011: 390).

Seen through a broader cultural lens, translanguaging is also closely linked to *transculturation*, a concept introduced by Fernando Ortiz to describe how cultures evolve not through simple replacement, but through constant exchange and transformation (García & Sylvan 2011: 389). Ortiz challenged the idea that cultures exist in pure, isolated forms, instead showing how they grow by adapting and blending. This idea also involves Mignolo’s concept of *border thinking*, which highlights how knowledge is created outside of dominant Western frameworks, shaped instead by lived experiences in multilingual and multicultural spaces (García & Sylvan 2011: 389). The notion of translanguaging as a subversive and transformative practice is particularly relevant in multilingual communities (Otheguy, García & Reid 2015: 283). By using their languages fluidly, they challenge institutional policies which try to confine language use to rigid categories. More than just a linguistic practice, translanguaging is a form of resistance and empowerment, showing that languages are not fixed codes to be followed, but living, evolving expressions of identity and belonging.

While translanguaging is often associated with *code-switching*, García & Sylvan (2011: 389) argue that the two concepts are not interchangeable. As already established, code-switching refers to the alternation between two languages within a conversation, often governed by grammatical or social constraints. In contrast, translanguaging encompasses a broader range of bilingual communicative strategies, including reading, writing, speaking, and thinking across languages (García & Sylvan 2011: 389). Unlike code-switching, which assumes the existence of separate linguistic systems in speakers' minds, translanguaging frames bi- and multilingualism as an integrated process (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012a: 659). Following Pennycook's (2006: 67) deconstructivist view of language, some researchers (e.g. Otheguy, García & Reid 2015: 293) go so far as to reject the existence of discrete languages within individual speakers altogether – a position that remains controversial in ELT research (see MacSwan & Rolstad 2024: 725-726).

Likewise, although translanguaging can involve *translation*, the two concepts remain different. García & Sylvan (2011: 389) highlight that translation generally preserves the separation of languages, prioritizing one as the primary medium of communication, whereas translanguaging fosters fluid interaction between languages.

Co-languaging, another related term, refers to the structured and collaborative use of multiple languages within educational settings, where educational content is presented parallelly in multiple languages rather than blended fluidly in discourse. Unlike translanguaging, which encourages the dynamic integration of linguistic resources, co-languaging maintains a clearer separation between languages while ensuring accessibility and comprehension for diverse linguistic groups (García 2009a: 612–614).

In sum, while translanguaging can encompass various practices such as code-switching, co-languaging, translation, and other multilingual techniques discussed thus far, it remains a distinct concept in its own right. Rather than merely combining these approaches, it integrates and expands upon them to create a fluid, dynamic framework that allows speakers to draw on their full linguistic repertoire for meaning-making and communication (García & Sylvan 2011: 389). Unlike other multilingual strategies, translanguaging does not seek to preserve boundaries between languages but actively challenges and transcends them, fostering a holistic and flexible approach to language use. As such, it represents a paradigm shift in how multilingualism is understood and leveraged in educational and social contexts.

One of the primary benefits of translanguaging is its ability to enhance cognitive engagement and deepen learning. Instead of confining students to one language at a time, translanguaging enables them to access and express knowledge across multiple languages, leading to deeper understanding. Lewis, Jones & Baker (2012b: 644) highlight that translanguaging allows students to receive information in one language and respond in another, reorganizing content in a way that enhances learning, which they term *dual language processing*. This flexibility ensures that students are not merely decoding language but actively processing meaning. In content subjects, translanguaging enables students to access academic content without being hindered by their proficiency level in the dominant language, reducing cognitive overload and enabling them to actively participate in their learning environment on the same level of complexity as other learners in the classroom (Hall & Cook 2012: 290).

Moreover, Baker & Wright (2021: 568) argue that translanguaging fits within a sociocultural theory of learning, particularly Vygotsky's *zone of proximal development*, where new knowledge builds on pre-existing understanding. Similarly, Cummins (2009: 319) emphasizes that learners' prior knowledge serves as the foundation for any future knowledge building. Since much of students' existing knowledge is encoded in their first language, activating and expanding this knowledge requires integrating foreign language instruction with the cognitive schemata of the first language. This connection cannot be effectively established if students' home languages are ignored or excluded from the classroom. Additionally, according to Cummins' theory of *common underlying proficiency (CUP)*, individuals transfer academic and linguistic knowledge, regardless of which language they acquire it in, to their other known languages (García & Kleyn 2016: 11). Unlike monolingual instruction, where students may rely on rote memorization without deep comprehension, translanguaging requires learners to actively process and conceptualize information before synthesizing it in another language. This requires cognitive engagement and meaningful content processing, making structured hybrid language use an effective and efficient learning strategy (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b: 644).

Translanguaging also enhances *metalinguistic awareness*, enabling learners to analyze, reflect on, and manipulate language structures with greater flexibility. This heightened awareness plays a key role in literacy development and in strengthening language-based analytical skills, both of which are essential for fostering *Bildungssprache* in the Austrian educational context.

By allowing students to bridge everyday language with academic discourse, translanguaging, if used strategically, could help them engage with the complex requirements of *Bildungssprache* more effectively. For example, García & Sylvan (2011: 389) argue that translanguaging fosters cognitive flexibility, as students must constantly evaluate and select the most appropriate linguistic resources to convey meaning.

Neurolinguistic research further supports the translanguaging perspective, demonstrating that bilinguals activate both of their languages even when using only one (Hoshino & Thierry 2011; Thierry & Wu 2007). Guillaume Thierry's studies indicate that when individuals receive input in one language and retrieve content in another, their semantic networks are strengthened, leading to more effective cognitive processing (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b: 650). The implications of such findings reinforce the importance of flexible language use in educational settings, as strict separation of languages may not align with how bilinguals naturally process information (Otheguy, García & Reid 2015: 302).

Beyond cognitive benefits, translanguaging serves as a tool for social justice and equity in education, while strengthening multilingual students' linguistic identity and self-confidence, the latter being a key factor in successful language acquisition (Gardner & MacIntyre 1993: 3; Clément, Dörnyei & Noels 1994: 441). In Austria, students with a migration background who speak a non-prestigious minority language can profit immensely from this approach, as they are all too often marginalized, and their first languages looked down upon. The use of one's first language, unless it is a high-status language such as French or English, is often equated with the unwillingness to integrate into Austrian society and met with disdain, which may further reinforce pre-existing feelings of insecurity in some multilingual students. Traditional monolingual educational models reinforce this exclusion by positioning students' L1 as a hindrance rather than an asset and relegating it to informal or non-academic domains. Translanguaging challenges this ideology by positioning all languages as valuable tools for academic and social development.

Similarly, García & Sylvan (2011: 398) emphasize that recognizing and validating students' diverse linguistic practices fosters a sense of inclusion and empowerment. In multilingual classrooms, translanguaging allows students from different linguistic backgrounds to collaborate

and learn from one another, breaking down hierarchical language norms that privilege dominant languages. Thus, education becomes not only a tool for knowledge acquisition but also a means of individual and cultural liberation, granting students a sense of agency over their learning. By acknowledging and embracing students' linguistic realities, translanguaging empowers them to actively engage in their own struggle for educational equity, rather than being confined to restrictive monolingual frameworks as passive recipients of linguistic norms (García & Sylvan 2011: 398; Lankiewicz 2014: 15).

Additionally, translanguaging extends the scope of collaborative learning to an inclusive classroom practice in which all students, regardless of their linguistic background, work together to achieve shared learning goals. García & Sylvan (2011: 395) describe how students with varying levels of proficiency benefit from peer interaction in heterogeneous classrooms. Advanced students reinforce their understanding by explaining concepts to peers and drawing on all the languages at their disposal in doing so, while less proficient students gain access to academic content through L1 scaffolding and peer support. While such collaborative structures are common across many pedagogical models, a translanguaging stance distinctly legitimizes students' diverse language practices within these interactions, thereby strengthening both access and agency in the learning process. This legitimization is particularly significant when a newcomer student is supported by a peer who shares the same L1: if their collaboration in Arabic, for example, is not merely tolerated but explicitly welcomed, the interaction occupies a substantially different role in the classroom. In the absence of such a stance, students may still engage in peer support but often feel the need to conceal it or fear potential reprimand. By contrast, translanguaging reframes these practices as pedagogically valuable contributions to shared learning objectives and actively encourages them.

Having established the theoretical underpinnings of translanguaging, the next step is to explore how these concepts can be implemented in real classroom settings. Chapter 4 presents concrete strategies for integrating translanguaging into Austrian EFL instruction, considering both the pedagogical potential and the challenges of multilingual classrooms.

4 Implementing Translanguaging in the Austrian EFL Classroom

4.1 Challenges and Considerations

Translanguaging challenges long-standing assumptions about language use, bilingualism, and education, raising several key considerations for researchers, educators, and policymakers. These considerations include the ideological shift from monolingual to multilingual and, ultimately, translingual perspectives, the role of institutional policies in shaping translanguaging practices, and the balance between linguistic flexibility and target language proficiency. While translanguaging offers numerous pedagogical and cognitive benefits, its implementation requires careful planning to navigate the constraints of traditional educational systems and linguistic ideologies. Its application in foreign language classrooms, where maximum target language exposure is an essential factor, requires particular attention to ensure it complements rather than hinders immersion-based learning.

Scholars view the persistence of monoglossic ideologies and, more recently, diglossic perspectives, as one of the most pressing concerns regarding translanguaging (Conteh 2018: 446; Li 2018: 16; Cummins 2009: 320). They argue that many national and institutional language policies continue to enforce language separation, viewing bilingualism through the lens of parallel monolingualism and refusing to recognize and harness students' home languages as a valuable resource for learning. These policies are believed to pose systemic barriers to the institutional implementation of translanguaging.

In the Austrian context, however, there has now long been a consensus that students' L1s play a crucial role in acquiring additional languages and achieving academic success. The most recent Austrian curriculum acknowledges students' first languages as an educational asset and even explicitly advocates for their inclusion to support deeper content comprehension (BMBWF 2023b: 12), reflecting a theoretical shift to more heteroglossic perspectives on language. This, however, remains far from being realized in practice. It seems that the greatest challenge in the current Austrian educational context lies not in policy but in the practical implementation of translanguaging practices within real-world classrooms.

Furthermore, despite largely progressive perspectives on multilingualism in the national curriculum, highly outdated monoglossic views still persist among certain societal groups. A recent

example in Austria is the attempt to introduce “Pausensprache Deutsch,” a policy proposed by the right-wing FPÖ party, which aimed to mandate that students speak only German during school breaks. Framed as a measure to promote German language proficiency, this initiative sought to regulate students’ linguistic behavior even outside the classroom, reinforcing monoglossic ideologies and restricting students’ ability to fully utilize their linguistic repertoires in social interactions. Such policies reflect a broader trend among right-wing movements in Europe, where restrictive language regulations are often entangled with nationalist discourses that position monolingualism as the norm and multilingualism as a threat to social cohesion.

Even though this policy was ultimately never realized, the attempt to introduce it shows that traditional language ideologies remain deeply entrenched in society and are indeed dominant at certain schools and among some individuals. At the same time, teachers with more inclusive views on language use often lack the training and know-how needed to effectively implement translanguaging, as they have been trained in monolingual instructional paradigms (Faulstich Orellana & García 2014: 388; Boeckmann 2012: 264). Many feel overwhelmed by the complex linguistic dynamics of today’s superdiverse classrooms and may therefore resort to familiar, traditional teaching methods that provide a feeling of safety. In some cases, teachers may hesitate to allow translanguaging in the classroom due to fears of administrative disapproval or concerns about classroom management (García 2009a: 622).

In addition, translanguaging requires a pedagogical shift from teacher-centered instruction to more student-centered, interactive learning environments, which may not align with traditional classroom practices in certain educational systems (García & Sylvan 2011: 396). To overcome these challenges, professional development programs should provide educators with the necessary strategies, resources, and theoretical foundations to effectively implement translanguaging while supporting students in developing proficiency in the academic target language.

Another major challenge in translanguaging research is addressing students’ perceptions of and attitudes towards multilingualism, which can shape their willingness to engage with multilingual learning strategies. García (2009a: 622) draws attention to the fact that, in many educational settings, the dominant language is associated with academic success, professional op-

portunities, and social mobility, leading students to internalize language hierarchies that position their home languages as inferior. This can result in resistance to translanguageing, as some students may view it as a barrier rather than an asset in their language learning journey.

To shift these perceptions, educators must foster critical language awareness, helping students recognize the value of their linguistic resources and understand how multilingualism can be leveraged as a cognitive and communicative advantage. Classroom discussions about linguistic diversity, language policies, and real-world bilingual practices can help challenge monolingual bias and increase critical language awareness (Ballinger et al. 2017: 49), thus empowering students to embrace translanguageing as a legitimate and enriching academic and social practice.

The debate surrounding translanguageing also extends to concerns about academic language proficiency and standardized assessment. While translanguageing is widely recognized for enhancing comprehension and content engagement, some scholars argue that it may not provide sufficient exposure to academic registers in the dominant language (Canagarajah 2011b: 23). In many educational contexts, standardized assessments are conducted exclusively in the official language of instruction, requiring students to demonstrate competence in academic registers (García 2009a: 301). This is also true for the Austrian *Matura*, where mastery of German *Bildungssprache* is inevitably a key determinant of success, even if it is not explicitly the skill being tested. In subjects like biology or history, where one might assume that factual knowledge is the primary requirement for a successful completion of the *Matura*, the ability to articulate this knowledge effectively in academic German is equally, if not more, important.

Therefore, if translanguageing is not implemented strategically, there is a risk that students may rely too heavily on their home languages and struggle to develop the necessary skills in the target language. At the same time, translanguageing can serve as a bridge to academic language proficiency by providing students with multiple entry points into complex material, ultimately leading to deeper content retention and stronger literacy development in the target language (García 2009a: 673; Baker & Wright 2021: 556). This implies that in content subjects, a carefully structured and well-planned use of translanguageing strategies may be highly beneficial to achieving both deep content mastery and advanced academic language development. In the

teaching of language subjects, the issue is more nuanced and the applicability of translanguageing remains a key area of discussion.

While translanguageing has been widely studied in bilingual and multilingual settings, its effectiveness in foreign language education is less conclusive. In contexts where students are still in the early stages of acquiring a foreign language, some scholars caution that excessive reliance on translanguageing may reduce exposure to the target language and slow acquisition (Williams 2002, quoted in Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b: 644). At the same time, others argue that strategic translanguageing can serve as a support mechanism, particularly for vocabulary development, comprehension, and confidence-building (Creese & Blackledge 2010: 112; Conteh 2018: 446). The extent to which translanguageing should be integrated into foreign language instruction depends on instructional goals, student proficiency levels, and institutional expectations, making it necessary for educators to adapt translanguageing practices to fit specific classroom needs.

In conclusion, research on translanguageing's cognitive benefits continues to expand. However, the greatest barrier to effective implementation is not linguistic but ideological, as many educators and policymakers continue to view dynamic linguistic practices as detrimental rather than beneficial. These contrasting perspectives suggest that while translanguageing has undeniable advantages, its success depends on educators' ability to implement it strategically within existing educational constraints (Creese & Blackledge 2010: 107). The traditionally required rule of maximum target language exposure may seem like a constraint on the successful implementation of translanguageing in Austrian EFL classrooms, but whether this is truly the case will be examined in the following section.

4.2 Translanguageing in Content Subjects vs. EFL Instruction

The application and the attitudes towards pedagogical translanguageing differ significantly depending on whether it is used in *content subjects* or in *foreign language instruction (FLI)*. In content teaching, the primary goal is for students to comprehend, retain, and ultimately apply *subject content*. Drawing on students' L1 in this process poses little risk to the dominance of German, as they are continually exposed to it in their daily lives. Nonetheless, in the Austrian educational context, where the consistent development of academic language and subject-specific

German terminology is a fundamental cross-curricular goal (BMBWF 2023a: 6), it remains essential to systematically guide students toward expressing and discussing subject content in German at an advanced linguistic level.

As discussed in the previous section, translanguaging is a useful tool in content subjects, particularly during the initial comprehension phase, when students are introduced to new concepts. If the core idea of a concept is first grasped in any language, it becomes significantly easier to later express it using subject-specific terminology introduced by the teacher (Hall & Cook 2012: 290). This approach allows students to separate cognitive tasks, first focusing on understanding and retaining content in whichever language or language variety (including different Austrian dialects) they feel most comfortable with, before shifting their attention to producing it in academic German. By doing so, translanguaging helps prevent cognitive overload while reinforcing deeper mental processing (Hall & Cook 2012: 290). The variation in linguistic input and output requires complex cognitive operations, ensuring that students engage meaningfully with the material, rather than merely parroting it back without true comprehension (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012b: 645–646).

Ultimately, this should also facilitate a deeper focus on expressing subject matter using *Bildungssprache*, not only for students with a non-German L1, but also for those who speak a different register, variety or dialect of German during the comprehension phase. Once students fully grasp the meaning of the content, they can more effectively refine their language structures to meet the requirements of *Bildungssprache*. This is because they are now focusing solely on language, rather than simultaneously processing content and struggling to express it in an academic way, which should ultimately allow for greater linguistic precision and fluency. Thus, translanguaging in content subjects acts as a bridge to developing awareness of the linguistic demands of academic discourse. By making the implicit expectations of *Bildungssprache* explicit, it enables speakers of all linguistic backgrounds to access and apply it effectively (García 2009a: 647).

By contrast, in *foreign language instruction*, the objective is to enable students to dynamically and situationally use a new language, a process that involves multiple cognitive functions, such as vocabulary acquisition, memorization, contextual application, the interpretation of nuances, pronunciation training, and more. In *content teaching*, language serves primarily as a

medium for conveying information. However, in *FLI*, language is *both* the *medium* and the *primary learning objective*, necessitating a fundamentally different approach to translanguaging.

A key consideration in Austria is that German is the dominant language, and most students are exposed to it throughout the day – in school, in media, in conversations with teachers and peers, and even as a *lingua franca* among students from diverse linguistic backgrounds. This means that the status of German is never truly at risk. English, however, occupies a more complex position. While it is far less endangered than other foreign languages due to its global dominance and strong presence in social media, it is still taught within a German-dominated environment and therefore has to actively compete for students' attention. After all, there is only a limited amount of time that can be devoted to any given language (Butzkamm 2003: 30).

One of the core principles of language acquisition is that it requires extensive comprehensible input (Krashen 1982: 21) in the target language, as it is only through sufficient exposure that students can develop intuitive grammatical understanding, lexical depth, and linguistic fluency. In a setting where exposure to English is already limited to three hours per week for some students, it is crucial to maximize this input during lessons.

This means that, under no circumstances, should teachers fall into the trap of convenience by defaulting to German when English could be used (Butzkamm 2003: 36), neither in their own speech nor in students' interactions: Language is learned by *using* it and producing comprehensible output (Swain 2000: 97), making mistakes, correcting them, and gradually improving. Many English teachers already struggle to motivate students to speak English in class and create an immersive environment that fosters intuitive language acquisition. They constantly have to encourage students to use English and to resist the tendency to revert to German out of convenience, shyness, or fear of making mistakes.

This raises an important question: *How does translanguaging fit into all this?* If some students are already reluctant to use English, and if so much effort is invested in creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to immersive learning and the maximization of comprehensible input and output, how can a pedagogical approach that explicitly allows the use of multiple languages be reconciled with these objectives?

In the field of ELT, the mere suggestion of opening up space for languages other than English in the EFL classroom has long been, and often still is, met with skepticism, if not outright rejection – even in light of advancements in multilingual research and the European Council’s (2001) promotion of plurilingualism. This resistance is largely rooted in the *monolingual principle*, which has shaped language teaching for decades (Li 2018: 16). Given its long-standing influence, the monolingual principle remains the primary argument against the use of pedagogical translanguaging in foreign language teaching, an argument that, notably, does not apply to content subjects. Thus, a closer inspection of this fundamental difference between content and foreign language instruction is necessary.

Historically, monolingual teaching principles in foreign language education stem from the belief that a target language should be learned in the same way as a first language, a notion that led to the widespread adoption of the *direct method*. This method assumes that learning a TL should replicate L1 acquisition, relying on maximum exposure and minimal interference from L1 (Cummins 2007: 223), thereby effectively ruling out the use of translanguaging strategies. However, this assumption fails to account for three critical issues:

1. **L1 acquisition occurs during a critical period when the brain is biologically primed for language learning** (Lenneberg 1967: 176–177). During this time, young children receive an immense amount of linguistic input in their L1, far exceeding the limited exposure students have to English in a classroom setting. By the time students begin learning a foreign language, this critical period has often already passed, meaning their cognitive and neurological conditions for language acquisition are fundamentally different. Therefore, attempting to replicate L1 acquisition through immersion alone is neither viable nor efficient in foreign language instruction.
2. **The monolingual approach treats bilingual learners as two monolinguals in one person, rather than recognizing the interconnected, dynamic nature of the multilingual mind** (García & Kleyn 2016: 12). This conceptualization, rooted in outdated societal expectations rather than current understandings of multilingualism, fails to reflect how multilinguals actually use and process their languages. Moreover, it sets unattainable goals for foreign language learners as it measures them against the standard of a monolingual

native speaker (Hall & Cook 2012: 278–279; Rabbidge 2019: 185). As has been established, the linguistic system of a plurilingual individual differs fundamentally from that of a monolingual speaker (Canagarajah 2011b: 1; Otheguy, García & Reid 2015: 295). Instead of aiming for perfection in a single language, modern linguistic realities call for a dynamic, flexible, and context-sensitive use of multiple languages. This paradigm shift has already been recognized by the European Council (2001: 4–5), reflecting a broader movement toward embracing plurilingual competence as the norm rather than the exception.

3. **Ignoring students' existing linguistic knowledge leads to inefficiency.** Rather than leveraging their cognitive resources, it forces students to learn everything from scratch, making acquisition slower and more challenging (Cenoz & Gorter 2020: 1). Moreover, teaching practice has repeatedly demonstrated that, even when teachers attempt to ban students' L1 from the FL classroom, they continue to use it as a mental scaffold to make sense of the target language until they have reached a high enough level of proficiency for the TL to function independently (Butzkamm 2003: 36). One clear example is that students instinctively engage in translation as a learning strategy, regardless of whether teachers explicitly encourage it (Butzkamm 2003: 31). Both anecdotal evidence from scholars (Butzkamm 2003: 31) and classroom observations support this claim. In my own teaching experience, for instance, a Thai-speaking student translates her English vocabulary list into Thai to better retain both the English and German words in preparation for a vocabulary test, simultaneously strengthening her proficiency in German, the majority language. Evidently, students naturally rely on their L1 to make sense of new languages (Hall & Cook 2012: 280), and ignoring this strategy would be negligent and highly inefficient. Instead, teachers should recognize translation and other translanguaging strategies as cognitive tools that enhance efficiency and deepen learning (Cummins 2009: 319). By acknowledging and actively integrating these strategies into instruction, educators can help students optimize their existing learning techniques. Guiding learners in strategically refining and applying these methods allows them to maximize the benefits of the strategies they already use, consciously fine-tune their repertoire of autonomous language learning tools, and ultimately equip themselves for lifelong language learning.

Finally, a clear parallel emerges when comparing content teaching to FLI: In content teaching, the L1 serves as an invaluable tool for understanding content, while in FLI, it is equally essential for grasping both *content* and *concepts* (Butzkamm 2003: 31). Denying students to engage in translanguaging by claiming that content is not relevant in FLI would be an unfounded assumption. It disregards the fundamental purpose of language, which, as noted by linguists such as Saussure, Halliday, Searle or Pinker, is to convey meaning. Thus, it can be said that every utterance carries communicative *content*, conveyed through linguistic forms and structures whose meaning must be decoded by the interlocutor within a given context. This significance of *meaning-making* is also highlighted by García & Sylvan (2011: 389), who advocate for the term *linguaging* over the more static concept of *language* to highlight that language is not merely a meaning-deprived, fixed system of rules and structures, but mainly a discursive practice used to fulfill different communicative functions.

This connection between content and communication is reflected in assessment practices as well. *Task fulfilment*, relating to the quality and depth of content produced, is a key assessment criterion in both oral and written production in the Austrian SRDP in English. In fact, it is not only one of four equally weighted assessment criteria but also the determining factor in whether a text is evaluated at all. This strong emphasis on task fulfilment as the primary condition for assessment mirrors the fundamental role of content in FLI, further reinforcing that language learning cannot be meaningfully separated from the transmission and negotiation of content.

If learners have no content to convey when producing spoken or written output, no amount of vocabulary or grammatical accuracy will make their speech effective or communicative. Content and concepts, along with universal principles of human communication and procedural know-how, are primarily encoded in the L1 (Cummins 2009: 319). The ability to construct convincing arguments, provide relevant examples to support one's reasoning, structure speech or writing into coherent units, and develop the central message of a text – all these processes will likely be mentally processed through the learner's L1. As learners progress to higher proficiency levels, their reliance on the L1 as a scaffold gradually decreases, allowing the target language to become internalized and used independently (Butzkamm 2003: 36). English teachers, most

of whom have already reached this level and no longer rely on such scaffolding, should remain mindful of this process to maintain a learner-centered approach.

Equally to content knowledge, learners owe much of their conceptual knowledge to their first language. For instance, if a student already understands an abstract concept such as *democracy* in their L1, they merely need to associate the English term *democracy* with the pre-existing concept. Unlike a native speaker acquiring their first language, they do not need to reconstruct the concept from scratch (Butzkamm 2003: 31; Cummins 2007: 233). Instead, they can leverage their prior knowledge, facilitating a more efficient and meaningful learning process. Although exploring the nuances of such concepts in the target language could serve as an excellent stimulus for language production, the foundational understanding is already established. This conceptual knowledge is actively employed across all language competencies as part of a *common underlying conceptual base* (Kecskés & Papp 2000: 40). In listening and reading comprehension, encountering the term *democracy* will activate the learner's existing understanding of the concept, which was originally encoded in the L1. Similarly, in spoken and written production, expressing an opinion on democracy in English will inevitably involve drawing on one's prior knowledge, originally acquired in the L1. Thus, the goal of ELT should be to activate learners' existing conceptual, procedural, and content knowledge while expanding their L1 repertoire with the forms and structures necessary to express that knowledge in English – much like how translanguageing in content teaching supports students in articulating content knowledge in German *Bildungssprache*.

All of these examples demonstrate that language cannot function separately from content. The claim that translanguageing is only applicable to content instruction, on the basis that language is merely about forms, sounds, or grammar, is therefore entirely unconvincing. Language is, above all, a vehicle for meaning, and meaning is inextricably linked to content. This is not to mention the lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic knowledge that can be developed through conscious language comparison, cross-linguistic awareness-raising activities, and tools like translation (Griessler 2001: 50). Consequently, acknowledging the role of the L1 in foreign language instruction is not a concession but an optimization of the learning process, one that fosters deeper understanding, better retention, and more effective communication in the target language.

In conclusion, the key challenge in ELT, as opposed to content teaching, lies in balancing the need for high target-language exposure with the strategic use of translinguaging to enhance transfer and metalinguistic awareness. Rather than replacing comprehensible English input, translinguaging should function as a scaffold to support learning. Teachers should prioritize English use while selectively employing translinguaging to activate prior knowledge, reinforce learning strategies, and deepen conceptual understanding. When applied intentionally and in a structured manner, translinguaging offers significant cognitive benefits, making language learning more efficient and engaging. Moreover, the heightened efficiency of translinguaging strategies compared to purely monolingual teaching techniques may enable teachers to optimize instructional time, ultimately creating even more space for target-language exposure.

Understanding the differences between content-based and foreign language instruction highlights the need for targeted strategies that facilitate translinguaging in EFL classrooms. The next section introduces specific teaching techniques that allow for multilingual engagement while maintaining a strong focus on English language development.

4.3 Practical Strategies for the Austrian EFL Classroom

A fundamental prerequisite for the practical implementation of translinguaging in the EFL classroom is fostering an open and positive attitude towards *all* languages, not just dominant or prestigious ones, but the full linguistic repertoires that students bring with them (Boeckmann 2012: 267). It is not enough for English teachers to support multilingualism in theory while valuing only institutionally recognized or socially esteemed languages. The question is not *whether* foreign language teachers embrace multilingualism, but *what kind* of multilingualism they acknowledge and legitimize. To create a truly inclusive learning environment, the first essential step for teachers is to move beyond a hierarchical, monoglossic or even diglossic view of languages and adopt a perspective that aligns with both the European Council's (2001: 7) vision of plurilingualism and the translinguaging perspective.

If students do not perceive their entire linguistic repertoire as valuable, and if teachers hesitate to integrate all languages, including minority, non-standard, and migrant languages, into their instruction, then any attempt at translinguaging is bound to be half-hearted at best. Simply encouraging students to use their L1 as a resource signals that their languages are something positive and valuable, something that belongs in the classroom rather than something that

should be left at the door. This alone can fundamentally reshape a student's relationship with their L1, particularly if it has low prestige. Feeling that their home language is not just tolerated but actively acknowledged in an academic setting can be transformative (Rabbidge 2019: 184).

To strengthen this approach, parents should also be involved in the process, as translanguaging can bridge the gap between home and school, making learning more meaningful and inclusive. Encouraging students to discuss schoolwork in their home language not only reinforces content knowledge but also allows minority-language parents to support their children's education more actively, even if they are unfamiliar with the school language (Cummins 2007: 226; Baker & Wright 2021: 557–558). Moreover, strong home-school collaboration is a key factor in school effectiveness, and translanguaging provides a unique opportunity to break down language barriers between families and schools, fostering a more reciprocal and culturally inclusive educational environment (Baker & Wright 2021: 596).

By leading with example, i.e. by embracing linguistic diversity in its full, heteroglossic sense, teachers contribute to a broader societal shift in attitudes toward multilingualism. Over time, this can help dismantle linguistic hierarchies and foster an environment where all languages are valued. As Hall & Cook (2012: 288) emphasize, learners should see their first language as an inextricable part of themselves, one that remains valuable even as they develop proficiency in another language.

Once this foundation is established, a key consideration for the practical implementation of translanguaging in Austrian classrooms is how to effectively manage the diversity of languages present. In today's superdiverse classrooms, where students speak a wide range of languages that teachers may not understand, translation serves as a highly practical tool for integrating L1 use into EFL instruction. Unlike other translanguaging strategies that rely on bilingual teachers or shared languages among students, translation allows learners to access and process English through their strongest linguistic resources without requiring the teacher to know their L1. However, for translation to be an effective pedagogical tool, students must be guided in how to use it strategically rather than simply defaulting to unstructured L1 use.

One key aspect of this is training students to use online translation tools effectively (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012a: 661). Many students automatically turn to *Google Translate*, but without proper guidance, they may not recognize its limitations, especially for minority languages. A

practical way to highlight these issues is to design classroom activities where students compare translations across different tools. For example, students could translate idiomatic expressions such as “I pulled an all-nighter” into their L1 using *Google Translate* and then evaluate whether the output makes sense. This can be particularly effective for languages that are underrepresented in digital translation tools, as students will quickly notice how high-prestige languages (e.g. English-French) tend to yield more accurate results than less widely spoken languages (e.g. English-Bosnian). After identifying such issues, students can critically discuss in English why certain languages receive better translation support than others and what strategies they can use to work around these limitations. Through this process, students not only develop critical language awareness but also enhance their ability to evaluate language use, fostering a more analytical approach to translation rather than blindly relying on machine-generated outputs.

To move beyond *Google Translate*, teachers should introduce students to different types of translation tools based on their specific benefits. Bilingual dictionaries such as *PONS* are useful for individual words, while context-aware AI tools like *ChatGPT* or *DeepL* are more reliable for full sentences and idiomatic phrases. Providing students with such transferable procedural knowledge not only enhances their learning of English but also equips them with essential skills for acquiring additional languages, making them more effective and autonomous language learners.

By embedding translation into interactive classroom activities, teachers can ensure that it becomes a tool for deeper learning rather than a shortcut. Instead of viewing translation as a way to bypass English, students learn to use it strategically to compare language structures, clarify meaning, and build their metalinguistic awareness. The growing accuracy of AI-based translation tools like *ChatGPT* presents exciting new possibilities for multilingual education, making it easier to integrate all languages, not just dominant ones, into language learning. When students learn how to use these tools effectively, translation becomes a powerful scaffolding strategy that helps them bridge their L1 and English in a meaningful way.

While proponents of translanguaging emphasize the importance of allowing students to draw flexibly and dynamically on all the languages at their disposal, they also recognize that, in reality, students will need to conform to societal language norms in order to be successful (García

2009a: 706). Many contexts still expect adherence to standardized language practices, and navigating these expectations is essential for academic and professional advancement. Translanguaging pedagogy does not ignore these realities but rather equips students with the skills to move between flexible language use in supportive environments and the standardized forms expected in formal settings.

Thus, the ultimate objective of English language instruction in Austria remains the ability to use English in socially accepted and contextually appropriate ways, ensuring that learners can navigate real-world communication where English serves as a shared means of interaction. While traditional ideologies of language separation still shape many formal contexts, emerging perspectives, particularly within *English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)* research, challenge the notion that effective communication requires strict adherence to native-speaker norms (Seidlhofer 2011; Tatsioka et al. 2018). In global interactions, multilingual speakers frequently draw on their full linguistic repertoires, and successful communication is often about negotiating meaning rather than conforming to monolingual expectations. However, because standardized English is still privileged in many academic and professional settings (notably, the Austrian *SRDP*), translanguaging pedagogy must not only empower students to flexibly use all their linguistic resources but also equip them with the awareness to adapt to different communicative norms when necessary. Thus, to enable students to navigate academic settings, translanguaging must be implemented in a way that gradually reduces reliance on L1 and fosters increasing independence in the target language.

Structured bilingual scaffolding provides an effective strategy for doing this. In this approach, students strategically use their L1 as a bridge to English, with the goal of steadily prioritizing the target language. García & Kleifgen (2010: 67) emphasize that scaffolding must be intentional and goal-oriented, ensuring that L1 use does not become a substitute for English exposure but a form of support in acquiring a high level of English proficiency. Scaffolding should serve as a temporary support mechanism, helping students grasp complex concepts before transitioning to full English engagement. One way to implement this is by allowing students to brainstorm ideas in their L1 before writing in English (Velasco & García 2014: 15). By formulating their thoughts in the language they are most comfortable with, they can focus on content development without being hindered by linguistic limitations. Once they have established their ideas,

they can then focus on translating and structuring their responses in English. Velasco & García (2014: 12) suggest that these scaffolding techniques are particularly effective in supporting academic writing, as they help students organize their thoughts more clearly while gradually internalizing English structures and accelerating acquisition.

Collaborative learning further enhances the effectiveness of translanguaging strategies while also providing a way for teachers to integrate students' L1 without speaking it themselves, simply by pairing students with shared L1s. When students engage in peer discussions and multilingual reading activities, they reinforce their understanding through social interaction (García & Sylvan 2011: 395). Creese & Blackledge (2010: 111) demonstrate the role of code-switching between the L1 and English in the process of comprehending a text or task. In my experience, students naturally alternate between German and English when working through a task, using their L1 to clarify meaning before transitioning to English. This process helps them articulate their thoughts more precisely, so why not extend this benefit to students with other L1s by encouraging them to collaborate if they wish so? During class discussions, teachers can take note of moments when students relied on their L1 for support and later prompt them to reproduce those contributions in English by asking targeted follow-up questions. This approach ensures deeper comprehension, allows students to refine their ideas before expressing them in English, and reduces language anxiety, making them more confident speakers.

Multilingual reading circles operate on a similar principle, allowing students to read texts in different languages before collectively synthesizing meaning in English (García & Kleyn 2016: 28; García 2009a: 720). Additionally, group research projects where students gather information from sources in their L1 but present their findings in English encourage the active application of translanguaging techniques. Cummins (2008: 73) gives the example of students "examining media reports on contemporary issues and comparing the way events and controversies are reported in different languages". If this comparison is discussed in English, students engage in challenging target language output production while simultaneously developing their critical language awareness.

Metalinguistic reflection is a key aspect of translanguaging, as it encourages students to analyze language use explicitly rather than relying on unconscious acquisition. To implement this in the classroom, teachers can design tasks that require students to compare grammatical structures,

recognize linguistic similarities and differences, and reflect on their language choices across contexts. For example, contrastive analysis exercises, where students examine how sentence structures in their home language differ from those in English, can help them develop a deeper awareness of syntactic and morphological patterns (Ballinger et al. 2017: 49). These activities support language transfer, improving both academic English proficiency and overall linguistic flexibility.

A particularly effective approach is focusing on cognates, which serve as a powerful tool for vocabulary acquisition. Since much of the academic lexicon in English comes from Latin and Greek, English shares many cognates with other languages, especially Romance languages (Cummins 2007: 230–231), such as Romanian, an L1 for many Austrian students. However, students should not be limited to connections with prestigious languages like French or Spanish. They should also be encouraged to explore lexical similarities with their home languages, including minority and non-standardized languages. For example, speakers of Bosnian/Serbian/Croatian may notice overlaps with German due to historical contact, while Arabic speakers may recognize loanwords in English that entered via Spanish. Encouraging students to actively search for linguistic links in their own language repertoire makes translanguaging more inclusive and allows everyone to see their linguistic background as a resource.

Beyond their home languages, students can also draw on other foreign languages they learn at school, such as Latin, French, or Spanish, to support their understanding of English. As an English and French teacher with knowledge of Spanish and Latin, I regularly use these connections in class, leading to many lightbulb moments where students suddenly grasp a new word or structure by recognizing a familiar pattern. This allows them to use such linguistic similarities as mnemonic devices, reinforcing their understanding and application in both languages and thus contributing to the mutual strengthening of the languages in their repertoire.

Another powerful strategy for fostering a transcultural perspective in the EFL classroom is the use of literature from diverse cultural contexts, as literary texts provide learners with unique opportunities to explore, reflect on, and connect their linguistic and cultural experiences (Baker & Wright 2021: 630). Literature serves as a critical space for identity exploration, allowing students to engage with fictional characters as constructed identities, which invites both identifi-

cation and critical deconstruction. As Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger (2019: 216) note, literature has been at the center of inter- and transcultural pedagogy, even as its role has been progressively marginalized in the Austrian FL curriculum, where it is treated as just another thematic topic at lower secondary levels or one among many text types at upper secondary levels. However, scholars widely agree, as cited by Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger (2019: 216), that literary texts create productive cognitive dissonance, prompting learners to deconstruct cultural assumptions and rethink notions of identity and belonging. This dissonance can arise from narrative techniques or the inclusion of problematic and taboo themes, both of which challenge existing perspectives and foster critical engagement with cultural norms. Incorporating literature into translanguaging pedagogy thus provides an effective means of developing cultural competence, as it helps students engage with understanding as a fluid, evolving process that remains partial and shaped by multiple perspectives – a process that is inherently subjective, dialogic, and constructivist in nature (Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019: 216).

Incorporating translanguaging into assessment practices further ensures that multilingual students' competencies are accurately measured. Traditional monolingual assessments often fail to capture the full range of students' linguistic abilities, leading to an incomplete picture of their proficiency (Otheguy, García & Reid 2015: 299). Alternative assessment strategies, such as multilingual oral presentations, where students plan their speech in their L1 before delivering it in English, could provide a more holistic evaluation of language skills by recognizing the cognitive and communicative processes that multilingual students naturally engage in.

In the Austrian educational context, teachers have considerable freedom in assessment, as many aspects of student performance can count toward *Mitarbeit* (class participation), which is defined broadly in the *Leistungsbeurteilungsverordnung (LBVO)*. According to §4 LBVO (BMUK 2021: 2), participation includes not only oral, written, and practical contributions, but also engagement in securing learning outcomes, working on assignments, processing new material, and demonstrating understanding. Additionally, it explicitly recognizes both individual and collaborative work as part of classroom performance. Since translanguaging-based assessment methods align with these criteria, teachers can legally and effectively integrate them into their grading practices through participation assessment. This flexibility allows educators to

acknowledge students' full linguistic repertoires while ensuring that translanguaging remains a practical and policy-compliant approach to evaluating multilingual learners.

Nonetheless, this must be implemented strategically and with caution, as the final product being assessed must still reflect students' competencies in *English*. The principle remains that translanguaging serves as a support mechanism, not as the defined learning goal outlined in the curriculum. This distinction is particularly crucial in preparation for the *Matura*, where students are expected to demonstrate their ability to perform in English without relying on other languages. Thus, while translanguaging offers valuable scaffolding, its role in assessment should always be aligned with curricular objectives and language proficiency expectations.

In sum, the following strategies emerge from the analysis:

- Valuing full linguistic repertoires
- Parental involvement
- Strategic use of translation
- Training in translation tool use
- Introducing varied translation resources
- Structured bilingual scaffolding
- Pre-task L1 brainstorming
- Collaborative L1 peer work
- Multilingual reading circles
- Multilingual research projects
- Metalinguistic reflection
- Cognate exploration
- Cross-language connections with other FLs
- Use of diverse literature
- Translanguaging in assessment
- Matura-aligned translanguaging

A structured overview of these strategies with specific examples and sources is provided in Appendix A. Along with practical examples from the *CUNY-NYSIEB Translanguaging Guide* (Celice & Seltzer 2013), this set of strategies will serve as a basis for proposing modifications and adaptations for the *More!* coursebook tasks in the subsequent chapters.

While Chapter 4 presents practical strategies for implementing translanguaging in Austrian EFL classrooms, the next step is to examine how these ideas can be operationalized through actual teaching materials. Chapter 5 introduces the *More!* coursebook series, outlining its role and prominence in Austrian lower secondary education, and details the methodological framework used to assess its alignment with translanguaging pedagogy. This sets the stage for the in-depth analysis and adaptation proposals presented in Chapter 6.

5 Analysis of the *More!* Coursebook Series

5.1 Understanding the *More!* Series: Context and Relevance

The *More!* coursebook series (Puchta et al. 2023a, 2023b; Puchta et al. 2024a, 2024b, 2024c, 2024d; Gerngross et al. 2018a, 2018b) is currently among the most widely used EFL textbooks in Austrian lower secondary education. According to information provided by the publisher, the first two volumes (*More!* 1 and *More!* 2) became available via the *Schulbuchaktion* in the 2008/09 school year, followed by *More!* 3 and *More!* 4 in subsequent years. While no official data on distribution rates exist, the publisher notes that *More!* quickly became the most purchased EFL coursebook in this sector and is in use at the majority of Austrian schools, at least in some classes (Helbling Verlagsgesellschaft 2024, personal communication). Although such claims should be interpreted with caution in the absence of independent data, the series' prominence in Austrian classrooms is nonetheless evident.

Each of the four levels of *More!* consists of a Student's Book and a Workbook, structured around thematically organized units and aligned with CEFR levels A1 to B1. The materials address all four language skills, alongside grammar explanations, vocabulary development, and added video impulses for certain tasks. Additional features such as integrated digital components are also included. According to the publisher, one reason for the series' popularity is its multi-modal offering, which includes digital and interactive materials for both teachers and students.

For the purposes of this thesis, the analysis focuses exclusively on the Student's Books and Workbooks of *More!* 1 to *More!* 4 in their standard editions. The editions selected for *More!* 1 to *More!* 3 are the most recent versions aligned with the 2023 curriculum reform. For *More!* 4, the newest edition has not yet been published at the time of analysis, so the 2018 *General Course* edition is used. Other components of the series, such as Teacher's Books, exam preparation materials, online resources, and the *Enriched Course* versions which offer more demanding tasks and are only available in the older edition of the textbook series, are not included, as examining them would extend beyond the scope of this research. This focus is methodologically justified in that the selected volumes represent the core materials most consistently used by students and teachers in Austrian lower secondary classrooms, and thus constitute the most relevant basis for assessing the series' compatibility with translanguaging pedagogy.

Due to its widespread use and curricular alignment, the *More!* series offers a useful basis for examining the extent to which mainstream EFL materials in Austria are compatible with translanguaging pedagogies. As discussed in earlier chapters, lower secondary classrooms often display high linguistic diversity, yet most teaching materials are structured around either a monolingual approach or an implicit German-English transfer model. How coursebooks such as *More!* position themselves with respect to students' multilingual resources, whether by providing, restricting, or ignoring opportunities for linguistic flexibility, has direct implications for the implementation of inclusive practices.

These questions are particularly relevant at this stage of schooling, when students are just beginning to acquire English. Connections to their existing linguistic repertoire can play a decisive role in supporting comprehension and confidence. Ideally, such support would be gradually reduced over time as learners build increasing autonomy in the target language. Whether and how the *More!* series supports translanguaging, and to what extent its materials can be adapted to enable more inclusive, multi- and translingual classroom practices, is explored in depth in the coursebook analysis presented in chapter 6.

5.2 Analytical Framework and Methodology

The coursebook analysis follows a qualitative, interpretive approach aimed at critically examining the Workbooks and Student's Books in the *More!* coursebook series in light of translanguaging pedagogy. Building on the theoretical and pedagogical strategies outlined in Chapter 4, the objective is to assess the extent to which the tasks contained in the coursebooks address learners' full linguistic repertoires in their original form and, where they do not, to determine whether and in what ways they can be adapted for this purpose. This methodological framework is designed to address the fourth research question, namely how the *More!* Student's Books and Workbooks 1-4 can be adapted to effectively incorporate translanguaging practices in Austrian EFL classrooms.

The *More!* series was chosen due to its wide use in Austrian lower secondary education and my personal familiarity with the materials from teaching practice. Both Student's Books and Workbooks for each level were included to provide a comprehensive view of the series' task design. Given the extensive number of tasks in the series, it was necessary to select a representative sample for detailed analysis. For each of the eight books, ten tasks were selected, resulting in a

total of 80 tasks. Attention was paid to ensuring that the sample was balanced, i.e. that it reflected a range of competences (listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, language in context, pronunciation), covered a wide selection of units and topics, and at the same time mirrored the actual makeup of the books. For example, the low number of speaking tasks in the sample reflects the share of speaking tasks in the Student's Books and Workbooks. Similarly, since the Workbooks contain a comparatively high number of grammar-focused activities, the Workbook task sample also included proportionally more grammar tasks. This ensured that the analysis reflected both the diversity of skills and content across the series and its structural composition. Table 1 provides an overview of the number of tasks per task type included in the analysis sample for each of the eight books. In this table, tasks which address more than one competence, e.g. a reading task also involving vocabulary noticing, were coded according to the primary competence they were judged to address.

Task Type	More! 1 SB	More! 1 WB	More! 2 SB	More! 2 WB	More! 3 SB	More! 3 WB	More! 4 SB	More! 4 WB	TOTAL
Vocabulary	3	3	2	1	1	2	1	2	15
Grammar & Lang. in Context	1	2	1	4	0	4	0	2	14
Reading	0	1	1	1	3	1	2	1	10
Listening	2	1	2	2	3	1	2	3	16
Speaking	2	0	2	1	1	0	1	0	7
Writing	1	3	1	1	0	2	2	2	12
Pronunciation	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	6
TOTAL	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	80

Table 1: Number of tasks in the analysis sample by book and task type

Appendix C provides a detailed overview of the task sample, listing each task with a brief description, the primary and secondary competences it addresses, and its exact location in the book (unit and page), thereby enabling clear identification and ensuring traceability.

The analysis itself was conducted using a custom-designed grid (Appendix B), which included a number of categories and subcategories. For greater clarity regarding the structure of the analysis grid, the six main categories are presented below in **CAPITAL LETTERS**, with their corresponding subcategories given in *italics*.

SKILL FOCUS identified the main receptive or productive skill(s) addressed by the task, such as *Vocabulary* or *Pronunciation*, with secondary skills noted where relevant.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT classified the nature of learner output required: tasks coded as *closed* allowed only one correct answer or a fixed set of predetermined responses (e.g., multiple-choice questions, fill-in-the-blanks with a single possible solution), *semi-open* tasks allowed for some choice or variation within defined parameters (e.g., sentence completion with multiple possible endings, guided role plays with fixed prompts but varied responses), and *open* tasks generally invite unrestricted, creative language production. The latter category did not occur in the coursebooks.

TASK TYPE assigned a general, reusable label to the activity (e.g. matching, gap-fill, guided speaking prompt) to allow comparability across units and levels.

OPENNESS TO LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC REPERTOIRES described the extent to which the original task design made space for the use of languages other than English. This was determined by examining the task instructions, prompts, and materials to see whether the use of other languages was explicitly invited, indirectly supported, or entirely absent. Coding for this category was based on observable features in the task instructions, prompts, and materials rather than on individual learner behavior or potential teacher-led adaptation. To capture this, the category was subdivided into five levels:

At the most restrictive end, *English only* tasks were framed entirely monolingually, with English as the sole legitimized working language and no acknowledgement of other languages. A second category, *English-German*, referred to tasks in which German appeared alongside English, typically in translations or instructions, thereby acknowledging it as a resource. *Visually cued tasks* offered additional non-verbal elements such as pictures, icons, maps, numbers, or symbols. While these features could implicitly support learners in drawing on any language they knew, the tasks themselves neither named nor explicitly invited the use of those languages. The category *Partially open* was applied to tasks that made limited reference to languages beyond English or German, for instance by including isolated greetings, place names, or cultural references, without integrating these into the language learning process. The most open category, *Full repertoire*, was reserved for tasks that explicitly invited or enabled learners to draw on their entire linguistic repertoires beyond English and German, for example, by prompting cross-linguistic comparisons or inviting preparation in multiple languages. This highest level of openness was not applicable to any of the tasks in the *More!* coursebook series.

The category **TRANSLANGUAGING ADAPTABILITY** classified the kind of modification required to open a task up for translanguaging purposes and was subdivided into *task-internal*, *task-external*, and *not meaningfully adaptable*. Tasks marked as *task-internal* could be adapted based on the existing material in the task itself, without introducing new materials or examples. In these cases, multilingual and translingual strategies directly supported the execution of the task at hand, for example, a brief L1 brainstorming before writing, an L1 retelling of a listening text to check meaning, in-task cognate noticing, or using a dictionary while drafting. Importantly, for the purpose of this analysis, for both speaking and writing tasks, any preparatory phase using the L1 was also classified as task-internal, as such preparation is interpreted as naturally being part of the task's execution and typically does not require the teacher to provide additional materials. Pre-writing or pre-speaking brainstorming in the L1 often forms an integral stage of the communicative process and ideally draws on learners' existing repertoires as part of their natural thinking strategies or is at least encouraged as such by most teachers. Since no separate materials are introduced and the activity flows directly into the assigned coursebook task, this support is considered internal rather than task-external⁶.

In contrast, *task-external* adaptations required the teacher to supplement the original task with additional materials or activities beyond what was printed in the coursebook, such as incorporating a short multilingual reflection task, providing extra prompts or introducing cross-linguistic awareness-raising activities with linguistic examples from other L1s.

The final subcategory of **TRANSLANGUAGING ADAPTABILITY**, *Not meaningfully adaptable*, was used for tasks where integrating other languages would likely cause confusion or undermine the pedagogical aim, such as tightly controlled pronunciation drills or form-focused exercises where cross-linguistic comparison is unreliable. In such cases, introducing other languages

⁶ It is important to note that this classification of *task-internal* vs. *task-external* was created specifically for the purpose of this thesis to reflect the required teacher-effort for task adaptation and differs from the way pre- and post-tasks are traditionally understood in language pedagogy. In task-based learning, pre-tasks and post-tasks are separate activity phases designed to prepare for or follow up on the main task, often with their own learning objectives and materials. In the present analysis, however, the labels *task-internal* and *task-external* were not based on chronology but on the degree to which an adaptation remained embedded within the existing task structure. A task-internal adaptation could still occur before or after the main communicative act, as long as it formed a natural part of carrying out the original activity and required no additional materials, linguistic examples or discrete sub-tasks.

could create unnecessary cognitive load without any clear learning benefit, and the task was therefore best kept in English, with clarity ensured through concise modeling or visual cues. However, it is important to note that even tasks in this category can still benefit from learners' shared L1 use as a spontaneous metalanguage to clarify meaning with a peer before, during, or after the activity, a practice naturally occurring and implicitly welcomed by many teachers, at least when students use the dominant language (i.e. German). When such collaboration is welcomed and legitimized by the teacher in all L1s, students are likely to engage in it naturally when it is needed, without requiring explicit translanguaging adaptations.

Finally, the category **ADAPTATION STRATEGY** contained a concise, classroom-feasible suggestion for modifying the task to enhance its translanguaging potential, drawing on the strategy repertoire described in Chapter 4.3., principles outlined in the CUNY-NYSIEB guide (Celic & Seltzer 2013), and on a creative yet theoretically grounded consideration of how learners' full repertoires could be meaningfully activated within the given classroom context. Each selected task was entered into the grid, and coding was done based on the task's original design and instructions. Adaptations were recorded separately in the final column of the grid.

This methodological design allowed for the systematic identification of patterns in how the *More!* Workbooks and Student's Books, in their current form, a) accommodate or limit translanguaging practices, and b) for the formulation of targeted, practical adaptations that will be presented and discussed in the following chapter.

6 Findings and Discussion

This chapter synthesizes the results of the coursebook analysis and discusses possibilities for meaningful translinguaging adaptation in the Austrian EFL classroom. The findings are based on the systematic coding of 80 tasks across the four volumes of the *More!* series using the purpose-built analysis grid introduced in Section 5.2 (see Appendix B). The complete dataset is provided in Appendix D, which details the classification of each task by skill focus, instructional format, task type, translinguaging adaptability, degree of openness to learners' linguistic repertoires, and, where applicable, a proposed adaptation strategy. The following sections summarize and interpret these results.

6.1 Pre-Adaptation Profile of the *More!* Coursebooks: Language Use and Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires

From a multilingualism and translinguaging perspective, the *More!* Workbooks and Student's Books display an overall design that is strongly oriented toward English immersion, with very selective inclusion of other languages. The rare occurrence of languages beyond English is almost exclusively limited to German, reflecting its position as the dominant language of schooling in Austria. This use of German, however, is not embedded within a broader pedagogical strategy to activate learners' linguistic repertoires. Instead, it functions primarily as a “crutch”, as an unavoidable tool for explanation or basic comprehension support, without exploiting the potential to integrate learners' pre-existing linguistic practices and knowledge into richer pedagogical practices.

The use of German is most prominent in the treatment of grammar and vocabulary. Grammar explanations throughout the series are presented in German, with English examples illustrating the rule or pattern. This bilingual format acknowledges the utility of the L1 (in this case, German) for metalinguistic explanation, enabling learners with a German L1 to grasp complex structures more efficiently by drawing on established grammatical terminology in a familiar language. However, it also reinforces the privileged position of German as the sole legitimate mediating language in the classroom, thereby excluding learners whose strongest language is not German from accessing these explanations on their own linguistic terms. Furthermore, the use of German does not extend to cross-linguistic awareness-raising. Parallels and contrasts

between English and German are not topicalized in any of the grammatical explanations or overviews, and cognates are not highlighted, meaning opportunities to build metalinguistic knowledge through comparison are not utilized. In this respect, German functions as a necessary explanatory vehicle rather than as part of a deliberate multilingual strategy.

Vocabulary support is also organized in ways that favor German as the sole mediating language. In the Student's Book, the glossary at the end is a German-English word list accompanied by IPA transcription of the English words. In the Workbook, German-English vocabulary lists appear at the end of each unit, with an example English sentence to illustrate usage in context. Additionally, the Workbook contains a "Wordfile" after each unit: a visually rich resource presenting mostly nouns with clear pictorial representations labeled in English. These Wordfiles are well-structured and accessible for learners independent of their L1s, yet from a translanguaging standpoint, their potential for multilingual engagement remains untapped. For example, learners could be invited to annotate the visuals with equivalents in their other known languages or to compare cross-linguistic cognates, but such activities are absent from the design.

German also appears in a more peripheral role through instructions, which are given in German for the first three units of the *More! 1* Workbook, which is intended mostly for homework and other forms of autonomous practice. This language choice likely aims to provide initial support for learners completely new to English, who might struggle to interpret written task instructions independently at the beginning of their learning process. The disappearance of German instructions after Unit 3 suggests an assumption that by this point, learners will have acquired sufficient competence to process instructions in English without further language support. By contrast, the Student's Book, intended primarily for classroom use under teacher guidance, features English-only instructions from the very start.

A closer examination of the category **OPENNESS TO LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC REPERTOIRES** is presented in Table 2, which highlights the clear dominance of *English-only* tasks in the *More!* series:

<i>Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires</i>					
	English only	English-German	Visually cued	Partially open	Full repertoire
More! 1 SB	7	-	3	-	-
More! 1 WB	4	4 (instructions)	2	-	-
More! 2 SB	7	-	3	-	-
More! 2 WB	9	-	1	-	-
More! 3 SB	10	-	-	-	-
More! 3 WB	10	-	-	-	-
More! 4 WB	9	1 (translation)	-	-	-
More! 4 WB	9	-	-	1	-
TOTAL	65	5	9	1	-
PERCENTAGE	81.25%	6.25%	11.25%	1.25%	0%

Table 2: Quantitative summary of the category *Task Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires*

Out of the 80 tasks analyzed, 65 (81.25%) were entirely monolingual in design, making no explicit allowance for the use of any language other than English. This overwhelming proportion confirms that, in its core task design, the series does not position learners' full linguistic repertoires as resources for meaning-making, interaction, or content mastery. From a translanguaging perspective, such a design reflects a traditional "maximum exposure" approach to target-language teaching (Cummins 2007: 221), which prioritizes immersion and reduces the visible role of other languages in the learning space.

The second most frequent subcategory in the sample was *visually cued tasks*, which accounted for nine tasks (11.25%). While visual input such as pictures, maps, or symbols can indirectly support all learners in drawing on their own linguistic resources to aid comprehension, they can be particularly valuable for those for whom German scaffolds may pose a barrier. Visuals are more universally accessible than, for instance, German translations, but the absence of any explicit prompt or space for other languages means that this potential remains implicit and entirely dependent on learners' initiative or teacher mediation. In other words, these tasks are "latent" in their multilingual affordances but do not actively structure opportunities for multilingual engagement. Notably, the visually cued tasks in the sample appeared in *More! 1* and *More! 2*, but were absent in *More! 3* and *More! 4*, indicating a gradual shift away from reliance on visual scaffolding, and, with it, a potential reduction in the opportunities for learners to indirectly draw on their own languages to support understanding.

Only five tasks (6.25%) in the sample fell into the *English-German* category, and these mostly did not appear as part of the task mechanics themselves. Rather, they were limited to one vo-

cabulary task prompting students to translate English expressions into German and four German-language instructions in the early units of the *More! 1* Workbook, functioning as peripheral scaffolding rather than integrated multilingual pedagogy. Just one task (1.25%) qualified as partially open, containing isolated elements from other languages without incorporating them into the activity in a way that might invite comparison, reflection, or creative use. Notably, no task in the sample reached the *full repertoire* category, meaning that the original design of the *More!* coursebooks never explicitly acknowledges or incorporates languages beyond English (and, to a limited extent, German).

These figures reflect the qualitative observations made earlier in this section: the *More!* series offers minimal and highly selective multilingual affordances, with a clear privileging of German as the only legitimized mediating language. Other languages in learners' repertoires remain entirely invisible in the task design, and even where German appears, it is used in ways that do not exploit the potential for integrated multilingual pedagogy. From a translanguaging standpoint, the series positions English as the exclusive language of legitimate classroom interaction, with other languages relegated to peripheral roles. This aligns with a monoglossic orientation to language learning, which, in the Austrian context, is reinforced by curricular guidelines advocating the "primacy of the target language" and recommending its maximum use in instruction (BMBWF 2023b: 56–57). In doing so, the *More!* series follows the *monolingual principle* (Li 2018: 16) and echoes the principles of the *direct method*, which assumes that foreign language learning should replicate first language acquisition, relying on maximum exposure and minimal interference from the L1 (Cummins 2007: 223).

Although the curriculum also acknowledges the value of students' prior linguistic knowledge and home languages for scaffolding understanding (BMBWF 2023b: 28), this multilingual dimension remains largely untapped in the *More!* coursebooks, where the emphasis on English primacy is clearly foregrounded. As a result, the coursebooks acknowledge the presence of multiple languages in the classroom only in limited, minimal ways, for instance, by including character names such as "Fatima" to signal diversity, or by presenting a single reading text on the meanings of certain hand gestures across different cultures. However, these activities are consistently framed in English and are not designed to activate or draw on learners' own linguistic repertoires, so multilingualism appears only superficially, as merely another theme to

be covered in English from the position of an external bystander, rather than being actively mobilized as a pedagogical resource.

The series treats the use of German as a temporary crutch rather than an integral part of the learning process, while entirely excluding other languages. This contrasts with a translanguaging-informed perspective, which views learners' languages not merely as transitional aids but as enduring cognitive and communicative resources (García 2009a: 112; Baker 2011: 288). As Lewis, Jones & Baker (2012b: 641) note, languages can be used in a “dynamic and functionally integrated manner” to mediate mental processes, meaning-making, and learning. Sustained multilingual integration could provide ongoing benefits, particularly in superdiverse classrooms where German may not be the shared L1 and where other languages could play an equally valuable role in meaning-making, knowledge construction, and classroom interaction. In such contexts, ignoring students' home languages risks underutilizing the “cognitive schemata” and conceptual knowledge encoded in them, which, as Cummins (2009: 319) emphasizes, are essential for building new knowledge in the target language. The following section explores how the tasks in the *More!* series could be adapted to actively incorporate such multilingual practices, transforming them from largely monolingual designs into flexible activities that engage learners' full linguistic repertoires.

6.2 Opening Tasks for Translanguaging: Adaptation Strategies for the *More!* Series

Building on the findings of the coursebook analysis, the following section explores how the *More!* series can be adapted for translanguaging, beginning with a closer look at its adaptability potential, then outlining essential principles for implementation, and finally presenting a range of concrete adaptation strategies, illustrated with examples that demonstrate creative ways of integrating students' full linguistic repertoires into the coursebook tasks.

6.2.1 Evaluating the Adaptability of *More!* Tasks

Table 3 presents the results for the **TRANSLANGUAGING ADAPTABILITY** category, revealing that the vast majority of sampled tasks from the *More!* series are meaningfully adaptable to

translanguaging pedagogies. Across all four levels of the series, 95% of the analyzed tasks were categorized as either internally adaptable (40%) or externally adaptable (55%), with only 5% falling into the category *Not meaningfully adaptable*.

<i>Translanguaging Adaptability</i>			
	Task-internal	Task-external	Not meaningfully adaptable
More! 1 SB	6	4	-
More! 1 WB	5	5	-
More! 2 SB	5.5*	3.5*	1
More! 2 WB	5	4	1
More! 3 SB	2.5*	7.5*	-
More! 3 WB	2	7	1
More! 4 SB	4	6	-
More! 4 WB	2	7	1
TOTAL	32	44	4
PERCENTAGE	40%	55%	5%
*For some tasks, both task-internal and task-external adaptation strategies were identified. In such cases, adaptability was coded as equally divided between the two categories, which resulted in decimal values.			

Table 3: Quantitative summary of the category *Translanguaging Adaptability*

In this context, *internally adaptable* refers to tasks that can incorporate translanguaging opportunities with only minimal changes to their original structure or materials, such as adding an initial brainstorming phase in students' home languages before carrying out the main task in English. *Externally adaptable* tasks, on the other hand, may not inherently allow for translanguaging within their existing format but can be supplemented by additional activities, resources, or scaffolds that create space for the use of students' full linguistic repertoires alongside the original task. Only a small fraction of tasks (5%), where adding other languages risked confusing the focus or offered no clear benefit, were coded as not meaningfully adaptable to translanguaging practices. It should also be noted that, although the adaptability rate in this sample is exceptionally high, this does not imply that a teacher would, or should, adapt every single task for translanguaging in real classroom practice. Rather, the value of this finding lies in the range of options it offers: teachers can selectively choose which tasks to adapt in order to strike an appropriate balance between maximizing learners' exposure to English and making effective use of their full linguistic repertoires.

Nonetheless, this high adaptability rate is significant for two reasons. First, it confirms that the series' monolingual design does not inherently prevent the incorporation of translanguaging practices. Rather, it leaves a considerable amount of room for teachers to integrate multilingual scaffolds and activities tailored to the specific needs of their classroom, without compromising

target language use. Second, the data suggests that the opportunity for adaptation is not limited to one particular skill area but is distributed across task types, ranging from vocabulary and grammar exercises to speaking, pronunciation, reading, listening, and writing tasks. This finding supports the argument that translanguaging can be implemented systematically and at scale, rather than as an occasional add-on, provided that teachers are equipped with a clear set of principles and strategies for doing so.

6.2.2 Core Principles and Prerequisites for Translanguaging Adaptation

Before engaging with concrete adaptation strategies for the *More!* coursebooks, it is essential to outline several foundational principles that must underpin any translanguaging practice in the classroom. These principles not only determine the effectiveness of adaptations but also safeguard against potential pitfalls, such as reinforcing language hierarchies or placing undue pressure on students. The most crucial factor in successful translanguaging is the teacher's attitude towards languages. As García & Kleyn (2016: 20) argue, translanguaging cannot just be reduced to a set of classroom techniques but requires a distinct philosophical *stance*. It is fundamentally an orientation that values the students' *full* linguistic repertoires and positions all languages as legitimate and equally worthy of use in academic contexts (García & Kleyn 2016: 21–22). Students are highly perceptive of whether their languages are genuinely valued or merely tolerated (Rabbidge 2019: 184). Therefore, an atmosphere of openness, fairness, and equal respect for all classroom languages, regardless of their perceived prestige or global status, must be actively cultivated. This includes explicitly recognizing and affirming the linguistic and cultural resources that each student brings with them, and consistently framing these resources as assets rather than deficits (García & Wei 2014: 125).

An informed approach to translanguaging requires teachers to develop a clear understanding of the languages present in the classroom. This process should ideally begin during the initial stage of the school year. One particularly effective method is the use of *language portraits*, in which students draw an outline of a human body and assign their languages to different body parts, symbolizing the role and significance of each language in their lives (Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum 2012b: 16). However, it is important to recognize that this initial activity may not yield a complete picture. As Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 272) caution, students

may choose to withhold information about certain languages, especially those that are stigmatized or associated with minority communities, out of fear of discrimination. For this reason, the process of mapping students' repertoires should be ongoing, with teachers remaining attentive and responsive to linguistic disclosures that may occur later in the year. Over time, as students witness consistent, genuine respect for all languages in classroom practice, they may feel more comfortable sharing additional parts of their repertoires.

Finally, when encouraging students to draw on their linguistic repertoires or to engage with cultural issues, it is imperative that this is done *without pressure* and *without making assumptions* about their linguistic backgrounds or identities. Teachers must avoid automatically assigning particular languages or cultures to students, as cultural and linguistic affiliation and proficiency cannot be presumed based on heritage alone, an observation also made by Brizić & Lo Hufnagl (2011: 271). Many students may not identify with a specific culture, may not speak the dominant language of their country of origin, or may have only passive competence in it. Furthermore, they may prefer to work with German rather than their home language if it is their stronger academic language. While teachers can provide scaffolding materials in various languages, the choice of which language(s) to use should remain entirely with the student. This autonomy helps prevent discomfort or embarrassment, especially in cases where students have had little or no formal education in their home languages and thus cannot be expected to have explicit knowledge of grammar or spelling. Sensitivity to these nuances is crucial (García & Kleyn 2016: 23–24) to ensuring that translanguaging serves as an empowering practice rather than a source of anxiety or exclusion.

In light of these principles, the coursebook analysis shows that the *More!* series, while designed as a predominantly English-only course, offers numerous points of entry for translanguaging-oriented adaptation. By examining tasks systematically by skill, recurring adaptation patterns emerge that can be generalized, alongside specific examples that illustrate how these strategies might be applied in practice.

6.2.3 Adapting Vocabulary Tasks

Vocabulary tasks are particularly abundant and adaptable, often lending themselves to strategies such as multilingual annotation, explicit work with cognates and false friends, and cross-

linguistic semantic comparison. The following section presents selected examples from the sample of adapted tasks in which vocabulary development is the primary focus:

Task 4, a visually cued straightforward matching exercise about emotions could be expanded by co-creating, guided by the teacher, multilingual “emotion cards” for classroom display, each card showing the English word, a visual cue, and translations in any language learners speak. While the students are creating the cards in groups, the teacher could draw attention to cognates (for example *nerveux*, *nervos*, *nervozan*, *nervózní*, *nervioso*, etc. for “nervous”) and use AI tools to quickly check or help with unfamiliar translations. This type of cross-linguistic comparison not only supports comprehension, retention and metalinguistic awareness (Griessler 2001: 50; BMBWF 2023b: 12) but also makes linguistic diversity visible in the classroom, validating all L1s as valuable academic resources that students can be proud of (Ballinger et al. 2017: 49).

Task 75, a gap-fill about different jobs, could begin with the teacher drawing students’ attention to cognates of the job words present in the task across the classroom languages, such as: *Koch* (German), *kuhar* (Bosnian/Croatian), *cocinero* (Spanish) for “cook”; *doktor* (Bosnian, Turkish, German, Romanian) for “doctor”; *dentista* (Spanish), *dentistă* (Romanian), *dişçi* (Turkish) for “dentist”; or *receptionistă* (Romanian), *resepsiyonist* (Turkish), *recepcionista* (Spanish) and many more for “receptionist”. This explicit focus on shared forms strengthens recognition and connects English vocabulary learning to learners’ existing linguistic resources, while simultaneously validating students’ L1s as useful academic resources.

Even collocations offer opportunities for meaningful cross-linguistic comparison, as in Task 60, where learners first explore examples like “make a reservation” or “take a photo” in other languages, noticing differences and similarities in verb-noun combinations across different languages in their repertoire before completing the English grid.

Other adaptations focus on cultural or conceptual differences: For Task 8, a matching and labeling exercise on telling the time, a pre-phase allowing for a brief comparison of how different languages express the same times, can spark metalinguistic reflection and prevent confusion. For instance, while *half past eight* in English is conceptually *eight and a half* in Romanian or Kurdish/Farsi, many Central and Eastern European languages (e.g., German, Polish, Czech, Slovak) use *half to nine* for the same time. Highlighting such contrasts, and, if relevant, clarifying examples like the German *dreiviertel zehn* for 9:45, anticipates potential negative transfer and

connects English time expressions to learners' existing conceptual knowledge (Cummins 2009: 319).

Task 19, focusing on the months of the year, appears straightforward for learners with German as a first language due to the high similarity between German and English month names. However, this assumption does not hold for all students. For example, Czech *únor* (February) might be mistaken for January, and as in Czech, month names in Turkish, Kurdish, or Pashto bear no resemblance to their English equivalents. To address this, the proposed adaptation involves preparing language-specific reference sheets, each visually pairing English month names with their equivalents and seasonal imagery. These sheets are not distributed automatically but made available optionally, allowing learners who need extra support to access it in their strongest language without singling them out. Anticipating and planning for such differences instead of assuming automatic transfer from German to English is part of what characterizes a translanguaging-sensitive approach, ensuring that learners who do not yet have perfect command of German are not left behind.

Finally, Task 36 extends the vocabulary work beyond the coursebook by involving home preparation and collaboration. Before the lesson, learners prepare their own family tree at home with parental support, using a teacher-provided model (e.g. a “Simpsons” family tree) as a guide. In class, they complete the coursebook task, labeling the basic family members on a sample family tree in English, then work in shared-L1 groups to find English terms for additional relatives from their personal trees using online dictionaries, with the teacher offering clarifications in English where needed (e.g. “That's my brother's wife.” –“Oh, so that's your sister-in-law?”). The activity concludes with learners pairing with someone from a different L1 background to present their family trees using the English kinship terms. This sequence connects school learning with home knowledge, expands learners' lexical range with personally relevant items, and provides repeated, meaningful opportunities for English output.

Taken together, these adaptations illustrate how vocabulary tasks can be leveraged not only for lexical expansion but also for developing metalinguistic awareness and validating learners' full linguistic repertoires. In particular, the systematic integration of cognate work can facilitate comprehension across related languages and strengthen form-meaning connections, while encouraging learners to actively draw on prior linguistic knowledge as a resource for acquiring

new vocabulary (Cummins 2007: 230–231; Ballinger et al. 2017: 48). Embedded consistently, such strategies turn vocabulary learning into a space where translanguaging supports both retention and deeper understanding.

6.2.4 Adapting Grammar and Language-in-Context Tasks

Adaptations for grammar-focused tasks in the sample generally follow a pattern of brief, targeted multilingual interventions designed to clarify form-meaning relationships, build metalinguistic awareness, facilitate comprehension, and encourage positive transfer while preventing negative transfer where necessary. This approach is consistent with the Austrian curriculum’s emphasis on “incorporat[ing] strategies that promote linguistic awareness, enabling students to consciously reflect on linguistic structures and enhance their communicative abilities” (BMBWF 2023b: 12). The curriculum also stresses that “contrasting and comparing different linguistic structures enhances metalinguistic awareness and promotes deeper comprehension of language principles” (BMBWF 2023b: 31), a view supported in research highlighting the lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic benefits of such activities (Griessler 2001: 50).

For example, in Task 12, before writing, the teacher draws attention to how learners might transfer structures like *es gibt* from German, resulting in incorrect forms such as *it gives*. Students then reflect on how existence is expressed in other languages they know, before being explicitly reminded to learn *there is/there are* as fixed English structures. This comparison helps reduce inaccurate word-for-word translation and supports accurate retrieval.

Task 18 targets countability with singular and plural nouns. Learners briefly compare items such as *jeans* and *scissors*, which are plural in English but often singular in other languages, reducing the risk of negative transfer and increasing structural awareness.

In Task 27, after listening to a chant featuring the “going to” future, the teacher may connect the structure to parallels in languages like French (*je vais...*) or Spanish (*voy a...*) if these are relevant and part of the students’ repertoires. For languages with a single future form (e.g., German, Turkish, Czech), students translate a line of the chant into their strongest language. This contrastive step makes explicit how English differentiates between *going to* and *will*, helping learners notice and internalize a distinction that their L1 may not encode, thereby reducing overgeneralization and promoting accurate use. At the same time, it reflects Ballinger et al.’s

(2017: 49) point that contrastive analysis exercises, where learners examine how sentence structures differ across languages, can deepen awareness of syntactic and morphological patterns, supporting more accurate target-language use.

Task 37 focuses on “Who” questions, guiding learners to notice that these take the third person singular verb form in English even when referring to multiple people. This usage is also common in many languages, which can be highlighted as a positive transfer point. Students compare this pattern to their other languages, noting both similarities and differences, then create two original “Who...?” questions in English, optionally drawing on well-known cultural or historical figures from their L1 backgrounds, which links the activity to the original task’s format of matching “Who” questions with answers like “Christopher Columbus”.

Language-in-context tasks can also benefit from targeted multilingual framing. In Task 56, before completing a dialogue on expressing sympathy, students reflect on how such sentiments are conveyed in their home languages or cultures, considering common phrases, body language, tone, and gestures. They share examples in their L1s, and the teacher records English paraphrases on the board (e.g., “Poor you!”, “That’s awful!”, “I hope you feel better soon!”). This creates a multilingual frame of reference for understanding sympathy as a communicative act. Students then complete the English exercises and read a short dialogue aloud, focusing on intonation and emotional expression.

Across these adaptations, the common thread is the integration of short, purposeful multilingual comparisons that promote metalinguistic awareness without adding excessive cognitive load. This enables learners to apply English grammar more confidently and anchors the newly acquired English structures more deeply within their existing linguistic repertoires by creating multiple access points to their already established cognitive schemata (García 2009a: 673; Baker & Wright 2021: 556).

6.2.5 Adapting Reading Tasks

Reading tasks across the *More!* series can be adapted to leverage multilingual scaffolding that activates background knowledge, supports comprehension, and connects texts to learners’ existing linguistic and cultural knowledge. Suggested pre-reading phases often involve prediction or brainstorming in shared languages, allowing all students to engage with the topic without

being constrained by English proficiency, while proposed post-reading activities clarify comprehension of English texts and integrate L1-supported reflection and purposeful English output. These strategies align with CUNY-NYSIEB’s recommendation that building background knowledge in students’ home languages, and drawing on them for synthesis and reflection, strengthens their conceptual grasp of new content, following a so-called “Preview-View-Review” approach (Celic & Seltzer 2013: 100–103).

For instance, Task 47, which features a reading about Sylvester Stallone, could be followed by an extension activity in which students search for newspaper articles about other famous people from across the world in any language they know (except English) and bring these to class. They would then retell the most interesting stories in English, compare cultural perspectives on the figure, and reflect on shared traits of famous individuals across cultures, an approach also recommended by Cummins (2008: 73). Allowing students to first process the content in another language and then retell it in English activates a wide range of skills, including mediation, cross-linguistic transfer, and deeper cognitive processing, while strengthening both comprehension and production. At the same time, it aligns with the curriculum’s call for students to “engage with diverse [cultural] perspectives” (BMBWF 2023b: 12). In doing so, the adaptation extends the reading into real-world research, builds on multilingual literacy skills, and positions English as the medium for sharing diverse content, echoing Baker & Wright’s (2021: 630) view of literature and texts as vehicles for transcultural learning.

Task 74, which involves reading and answering comprehension questions about a New York City tour brochure featuring a table with departure times, prices and other details, could exemplify real-world multilingual literacy strategies. Before working with the English version, the teacher could present parallel versions of a similar tour grid in other classroom languages during a plenary session, guiding students through initial observations and encouraging collaborative inference. Using contextual clues like dates, currency symbols, and cognates, they would collaboratively infer column headings and entries. This pre-reading stage is intended to develop *intercomprehension* skills (Boeckmann 2016c: 5) and highlights transferable reading strategies, encouraging learners to see partial understanding across languages as both legitimate and valuable (Otwińska & Angelis 2014: xiv) and as an element of plurilingual competence (Council of Europe 2001: 168). After completing the English comprehension task, students

could work in language-based groups to translate a non-English grid of their choice into English, applying both their L1 expertise and newly acquired task-specific vocabulary.

Other suggested adaptations include:

- **Task 22:** Students brainstorm online safety tips in shared-language pairs before reading a text on online dos and don'ts. This serves as schema activation in a low-barrier language, priming key concepts, lowering cognitive load, and improving subsequent comprehension of the English text.
- **Task 45:** Students are assigned to ask a family member about a common superstition and prepare a short English summary for class discussion, before comparing it with the superstitions presented in the text.
- **Task 51:** Students summarize the plot of a reading task in a shared L1 to clarify understanding before producing an English diary entry based on the original text.
- **Task 67:** The teacher invites students to share gestures or hand signs they have seen or heard from different countries, first discussing them in small groups using a shared L1 before reporting back in English, then completing the coursebook task in English. This sequence activates background knowledge, sparks curiosity, and fosters intercultural awareness while valuing multilingual contributions.

In each case, the proposed integration of learners' full linguistic repertoires aims to increase engagement, deepen comprehension, and build bridges between multilingual resources and English reading skills, while creating authentic opportunities for meaningful English discussion.

6.2.6 Adapting Listening Tasks

Listening tasks present recurring opportunities for adaptation, often beginning with pre-listening activities that draw on learners' full linguistic repertoires to lower cognitive load and prime them for deeper comprehension. During or after the listening, students engage in collaborative meaning-making, which may involve same-L1 discussions to clarify details, followed by mixed-L1 or whole-class English retelling. This fosters both comprehension and communicative competence, reflecting Lewis, Jones & Baker's (2012b: 644) concept of *dual language processing*, where information is received in one language and summarized in another, requiring learners

to reorganize and synthesize content rather than simply reproducing it without full comprehension.

A core example is Task 30, where students first complete the sequencing task in English based on an audio recording, then retell the events in same-L1 groups, to ensure understanding and fill gaps. They then work with peers from different L1 backgrounds to co-construct an English retelling. This staged approach leverages the precision and fluency of L1 processing to support accuracy in the final English output, while also building skills in negotiation of meaning.

Some adaptations focus on intercultural awareness and the validation of multilingual identities. Task 70 invites students to explore the performance of Jamaican British poet Benjamin Zephaniah, reflecting on the diversity of Englishes worldwide. The activity connects the listening content to learners' lived experiences with different accents and varieties of English, affirming non-standard accents and fostering openness to linguistic diversity. This aligns with the curriculum's aim for foreign language instruction to help students "navigate cultural diversity, reflect on their own cultural identity, and develop sensitivity towards different linguistic communities" (BMBWF 2023b: 55), as it emphasizes meaningful engagement with speakers of different cultural backgrounds (Beacco et al. 2016: 10).

Task 71 uses humor as a vehicle for crosslinguistic and cultural comparison. After listening to and discussing an Irish joke, students gather a joke from a family member in their home language, attempt an English translation, and share it in class. The group reflects on why some jokes translate well and others do not, touching on cultural references and wordplay. This validates home languages and strengthens home-school collaboration, an essential component of translanguaging pedagogy (García & Kleyn 2016: 74), while sharpening awareness of language-specific humor mechanisms.

6.2.7 Adapting Speaking Tasks

The proposed adaptations for speaking tasks emphasize a multilingual planning phase in which learners can brainstorm, take notes, and organize ideas in any language(s) they know before producing their final output in English. This reduces cognitive load, fosters richer idea

generation, and enables students to draw on culturally relevant examples without being restricted by their English proficiency – benefits also highlighted in the CUNY-NYSIEB guide (Celic & Seltzer 2013: 66–67).

Task 23, a fictional Halloween story⁷ with an open ending invites students to imagine and present what happens next. In the adaptation, learners first develop the ending in any language(s) they feel comfortable with, using L1 keywords, bilingual dictionaries, or translation tools to shape their ideas. The final oral story is delivered entirely in English. However, as a stylistic choice, the girl’s last words before she disappears can be rendered in another language from the students’ repertoires. This purposeful inclusion of an L1 element can heighten suspense, intrigue, or mystery, while meaningfully integrating another part of the learners’ linguistic identity into the narrative – an approach inspired by the “codemeshing” strategies described by Canagarajah (2011a: 401–417). It demonstrates how English can remain central while other languages are used creatively to enrich the communicative act.

Task 35 involves a role play based on a listening text in which two characters meet a time traveler. In the adaptation, learners imagine their own time-travel scenario, choosing a destination, historical period, purpose for the trip, and a meaningful object or gift to bring back. They first brainstorm these elements in any language, drawing on their cultural knowledge and creativity without linguistic restrictions. The dialogue is then prepared in English, with the option to integrate a single culturally important L1 term accompanied by an English explanation, which both honors linguistic heritage and enriches the narrative.

In Task 24, a school mascot plenary discussion, students could prepare arguments in any language, translate key phrases into English, and then conduct the discussion entirely in English. A multilingual support sheet with common argument starters in multiple classroom languages alongside their English equivalents could scaffold future discussions.

⁷ In the story, a girl from the 19th century appears in front of a boy while he is trick-or-treating, joins him for the evening, and then disappears in a haunted house.

Across these examples, the underlying strategy is to validate and strategically use all linguistic resources during the planning stage. This not only enriches the substance, coherence, and creativity of English speaking performances but also fosters learner confidence, intercultural awareness, and ownership of the communicative process.

6.2.8 Adapting Writing Tasks

Writing tasks in the sample consistently benefit from a similar pattern: learners first engage in a multilingual preparation phase to generate ideas, gather information, and explore language options before producing their final written output in English. Allowing students to brainstorm in their L1 before writing enables them to focus on content development without being hindered by linguistic limitations, providing a strong conceptual foundation for the English draft (Velasco & García 2014: 12, 15). This sequencing lowers cognitive barriers, enriches content through culturally and linguistically diverse input, and ensures that the English product benefits from well-developed ideas.

Task 73, which asks students to write a short story with a real surprise, could begin with exposure to several very short stories in different classroom languages, each containing a twist or element of intrigue. Depending on available time and the teacher's familiarity with the classroom languages, these texts could either be collected in advance by students and parents as a pre-task homework assignment or provided directly by the teacher (e.g. through online research or collaboration with colleagues and friends who speak the classroom languages). Students may then engage with these stories in the language they feel most comfortable with or compare multiple versions across familiar languages. This guided multilingual input allows them to observe how suspense and surprise are created – through techniques such as delaying key information, setting up false expectations, or using an unexpected reversal – and apply these techniques in their own English stories. By analyzing and planning in any language, learners can focus their creative energy on narrative structure and effect, making the English output more compelling.

Task 77, a biography writing assignment, could involve interviewing the chosen subject, a family member or close friend, in a shared home language. This enables learners to gather authentic, detailed, and often emotionally rich material that might be inaccessible in English alone.

They then translate and adapt the content into English, focusing on both accuracy and linguistic form. This approach ensures that the English biography remains the final product, but one that is enriched by the depth of information and nuance accessed through the learners' full linguistic repertoires.

Actively involving family members, as illustrated in this and other task adaptations so far, aligns with calls to integrate parents and their languages into school activities to strengthen students' confidence in using both their L1s and the language of instruction (Brizić 2006: 356–358; García & Kleyn 2016: 74). Encouraging home-language interviews allows all parents to play an active role in their children's learning even if they have limited proficiency in the school language (Cummins 2007: 226; Baker & Wright 2021: 557–558), fostering stronger home-school connections that are linked to academic success (Herzog-Punzenberger & Schnell 2012: 241; Baker & Wright 2021: 596).

Other adaptations of writing tasks include activities where students first brainstorm key party-related vocabulary (Task 10) in their L1 and match it with English equivalents, then co-construct English sentences in multilingual pairs or groups, supported by a multilingual class word bank; orally plan a story in their home language to clarify structure before writing (Task 16); or research a topic in another language before using English to compose the final text (Task 65). In each case, English remains the target language for output, but multilingual scaffolding in the planning stage enhances idea generation, fosters creativity, and supports more structured and confident writing.

6.2.9 Adapting Pronunciation Tasks

Pronunciation work can be enriched through targeted, purposeful connections to learners' other languages to anchor English sounds in familiar phonological territory. This cross-linguistic awareness can sharpen perception, improve production accuracy, and make pronunciation practice more memorable. At the same time, a translanguaging-sensitive approach also involves knowing when to avoid cross-linguistic comparison if it risks causing confusion.

Task 7, focusing on the /tʃ/ sound, can begin by introducing familiar words from learners' other languages that start with this sound, such as *çay*, *čaj*, *chá*, *chai* (etc.) or *Tschüss*. Many students recognize these words from Turkish, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Czech, Slovak, Romanian,

Kurdish, Pashto, and Arabic dialects. This instantly validates their linguistic repertoires and provides a meaningful anchor for perceiving and producing the English /tʃ/ sound.

Task 48, contrasting /p/ and /b/, could incorporate minimal pairs from learners' own languages alongside the English examples (e.g., German: *Grube* vs. *Gruppe*; Bosnian: *biti* vs. *piti*; Romanian: *bani* vs. *pani*; Turkish: *bal* vs. *pal*; Arabic dialects: *banka* vs. *panka*). Discussing how these sounds work in different languages, and noting that /p/ is absent in some language varieties (e.g. Modern Standard Arabic), can heighten learners' awareness of potential transfer issues and improve sensitivity to phonological distinctions. Practicing both the L1 and English pairs can strengthen discrimination skills more effectively.

Task 44, focusing on word stress, can extend beyond the coursebook examples by highlighting familiar cognates such as *ambulance* and *fantastic* in learners' other languages. Comparing where the stress falls can build awareness of differences between English and other languages, supporting more accurate stress placement.

Task 62, on the *schwa* /ə/, can involve briefly comparing how cognates like *secretary* are pronounced in other languages versus English, drawing attention to English vowel reduction and differing stress patterns. This can heighten learners' awareness of the vowel reduction that is so characteristic of English.

Finally, Task 28 demonstrates that a translanguaging-sensitive approach also means recognizing when not to rely on L1 transfer. For complex or uniquely English distinctions like /t/, /d/, and /ɪd/ endings, avoiding cross-linguistic comparisons and focusing on clear, English-only modelling may be the most effective way to build accurate pronunciation.

Across these examples, the guiding principle is to use learners' broader linguistic repertoires strategically: connect where it supports accuracy, retention, and engagement, but avoid it where it might overload or confuse. This aligns with CUNY-NYSIEB's recommendation to use audio resources in both English and students' home languages to link sound and meaning, fostering cross-linguistic phonological awareness (Celic & Seltzer 2013: 166), and with research emphasizing that conscious comparison of linguistic structures can sharpen metalinguistic skills (Griessler 2001: 50).

6.2.10 Integrating Translanguaging Ideology into Tasks

Bridging from these skill-specific proposals, it is important to note that some adaptations were designed not simply to allow for specific translanguaging strategies but to reflect the broader ideology of translanguaging as a socially just and equity-oriented pedagogy. This orientation creates space for voices and perspectives that might otherwise be marginalized and encourages learners to connect classroom work with their lived experiences and identities. Such an approach reflects the concept of *critical language awareness*, which links linguistic choices to issues of identity, social hierarchy, and cultural representation, and encourages learners to challenge monolingual bias (Ballinger et al. 2017: 49).

Task 46 offers a clear example. The original activity on evaluating whether various money-making activities are ethical is expanded with the scenario of Ahmed, a recently arrived young refugee in Austria who is underpaid and reluctant to speak out due to language barriers and job insecurity. This scenario brings issues of exploitation and inequality into focus, inviting learners to grapple with them from an empathetic and socially aware perspective. Crucially, students first reflect in their strongest language(s), which lowers cognitive barriers and enables more nuanced moral reasoning. Translating these reflections into English ensures that richer, more fully formed perspectives enter the classroom discourse. Here, translanguaging is not simply a means to scaffold comprehension but a deliberate choice to democratize participation and deepen critical engagement, in line with calls for language education to prepare learners to engage responsibly with societal issues (Delanoy 2017: 163–176; Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019: 215).

Task 64 likewise illustrates the ideological dimension of translanguaging through its focus on representation in literature. Following the reading on the *#1000blackgirlbooks* campaign, learners engage in an inclusive discussion about identification in books and films, moving from personal connections to wider issues of cultural visibility. Allowing the use of the L1 for initial idea generation ensures that all students, regardless of English proficiency, can contribute thoughtfully to the discussion. This approach affirms diverse identities, validates linguistic repertoires (Ballinger et al. 2017: 49), and positions the English classroom as a site for critical dialogue on equity and diversity.

In both tasks, translanguaging is integrated not as an incidental strategy, but as an intentional enactment of a pedagogical ideology. It is used to create equitable conditions for participation, foreground marginalized perspectives, and cultivate the critical consciousness that underpins socially just language education.

6.2.11 Introducing Project-Based Tasks

Projects were absent from the sample analyzed, despite an explicit search for them. It should be noted, however, that project ideas may be included in the Teacher's Books of the *More!* series, whose analysis was beyond the scope of this thesis. This absence nonetheless represents a missed opportunity, as project-based work is particularly well-suited to translanguaging. Possible additions include multilingual exhibitions on cross-cultural topics, group podcasts incorporating interviews in various languages with English summaries, multilingual creative writing portfolios, or collaborative research projects with multilingual visual displays. In each case, learners could use any language for research and drafting, while the final product, whether a presentation, poster, video, or written piece, would be in English, integrating all repertoires in a purposeful way. This approach resonates with the numerous creative project models proposed in the CUNY-NYSIEB guide, encouraging teachers to design projects where students research in home languages and then synthesize findings in English, fostering both content mastery and language development (Celic & Seltzer 2013: 99, 109, 110)

6.3 Synthesis of Findings and Adaptation Principles

The adaptations presented across Section 6.2 demonstrate that translanguaging can be systematically and purposefully embedded in the *More!* series without displacing English as the primary medium of output. Out of the 80 tasks analyzed, 76 were found to be adaptable to translanguaging pedagogies, with 32 categorized as internally adaptable and 44 as externally adaptable. Only four tasks (5%) were classified as *Not meaningfully adaptable*. This confirms that the monolingual design of the series does not preclude multilingual pedagogy but rather provides a flexible framework within which teachers can integrate learners' full linguistic repertoires.

Across skills and task types, the suggested adaptations and additions reveal recurring patterns:

- short but intentional multilingual comparisons to support form-meaning mapping in grammar,
- multilingual scaffolds to activate schemata and deepen comprehension in reading and listening,
- planning phases in which students draw on any language(s) they know to enrich speaking and writing,
- cross-linguistic anchoring to support accurate pronunciation,
- and project-based formats that allow sustained use of multiple languages in research and creation before producing a final English product.

In each case, English remains central for communicative output, while other languages are positioned as valuable tools for accessing meaning, generating ideas, and strengthening form-function connections.

Equally important, several adaptations illustrate how translanguaging is not only a methodological choice but an enactment of a broader pedagogical ideology. As seen in the adaptations for Tasks 46 and 64, translanguaging can be harnessed to advance equity, validate marginalized voices, and create spaces for critical engagement with social issues such as exploitation, representation, and cultural visibility.

Taken together, these strategies affirm that translanguaging, when underpinned by clear principles and sensitive implementation, can transform a conventionally monolingual coursebook into a resource that supports both language learning and the development of critical, socially aware learners. The challenge and opportunity for teachers lie in selecting and adapting tasks in ways that maximize learning, respect learner autonomy, and maintain a principled balance between English immersion and the strategic activation of students' full linguistic resources.

7 Conclusion

7.1 Summary of Key Findings

This thesis set out to explore how translanguaging can be practically and effectively implemented in Austrian lower-secondary EFL classrooms through the adaptation of existing course-book materials. Four research questions guided the investigation:

RQ1: *Why should translanguaging be integrated into EFL instruction in Austria, given the present sociolinguistic context?*

Findings from Chapter 2 established that Austria's superdiverse linguistic landscape, shaped by decades of migration, renders the "monolingual German-speaking student" a fictitious construct. Policies and teacher surveys indicate that, while multilingualism is acknowledged, classroom practices often still default to German and English, sidelining other linguistic resources. This thesis argues that such sidelining is pedagogically wasteful: translanguaging offers a way to harness learners' full repertoires, fostering equity, cognitive engagement, and identity affirmation. Chapter 2 further demonstrates that, while other multilingual approaches may be effective in certain contexts, they do not adequately address the realities of Austrian superdiverse classrooms, leaving translanguaging as the most suitable option.

RQ2: *To what extent do Austrian curricular guidelines support or constrain translanguaging in EFL instruction?*

Section 2.6 demonstrated that, although the national curriculum emphasizes target-language immersion, it also explicitly recognizes learners' prior linguistic knowledge as a resource, identifies metalinguistic awareness as a teaching goal, and promotes cross-linguistic comparison as a useful classroom strategy. These provisions create space for translanguaging. The main obstacles are not policy restrictions but entrenched teaching norms and insufficient material support.

RQ3: *Which pedagogical strategies for the practical implementation of translanguaging are particularly viable in Austrian EFL classrooms?*

Chapter 4 identified strategies designed for superdiverse contexts where teachers and students may not share the same home languages. These include multilingual pre-task planning in

which students can brainstorm and organize ideas using any languages they know, peer-to-peer scaffolding in mixed-language groups, use of digital translation and reference tools, and multilingual annotation or comparison tasks where learners draw on their own knowledge and available resources rather than teacher expertise in the languages. Such approaches place agency with learners, making translanguaging feasible even when the teacher has no proficiency in the languages spoken in the class. Furthermore, the strategy overview in Appendix A provides a structured list of practical approaches that address this research question.

RQ4: *How can the More! Student's Books and Workbooks 1-4 be adapted to effectively incorporate translanguaging practices in lower secondary Austrian EFL classrooms?*

The coursebook analysis in Chapter 6 provides the thesis' central empirical focus. By systematically examining 80 tasks across four volumes using a purpose-built analysis grid, it has demonstrated that while the *More!* series is rooted in a predominantly monolingual, target-language immersion paradigm, its task structure offers significant scope for adaptation. When guided by clear pedagogical principles, these adaptations can create space for learners' full linguistic repertoires, thereby supporting comprehension, fostering metalinguistic awareness, and affirming students' multilingual identities.

The findings underline the importance of balance: English should remain the primary medium for communicative output, yet students' other languages can be strategically deployed to facilitate understanding, generate ideas, and strengthen connections between form and meaning. This approach addresses one of the core tensions in Austrian EFL policy and practice: the perceived opposition between maximum target-language exposure and the active use of prior linguistic knowledge. Rather than undermining language acquisition, structured translanguaging practices can deepen engagement with English, making learning both more effective and more inclusive.

From an ideological perspective, the greater challenge lies not in the technical feasibility of such adaptations but in the attitudinal shift required from educators and institutions. Translanguaging is not a lowering of standards; it is a reframing of resources. As this thesis has shown, most tasks in the *More!* series (95% in the sample) are either internally or externally adaptable, meaning that the practical barriers are low, provided that teachers are willing to

embrace the pedagogical value of plurilingualism. However, this exceptionally high adaptability rate does not suggest that every single task should be adapted for translanguageing in practice. Rather, its significance lies in the breadth of options it affords: teachers can selectively adapt tasks to strike a balance between maximizing exposure to English and strategically drawing on learners' other languages.

These findings extend Boeckmann's (2016a: 197) call for plurilingualism in materials development, while showing that mainstream, widely used textbooks can be adapted without sacrificing curricular alignment. Furthermore, the results contribute to the translanguageing-in-EFL literature, which has historically been dominated by bilingual settings, by offering practical material adaptation strategies for superdiverse classrooms where teachers do not share students' L1s.

7.2 Implications for Practice

For Austrian EFL classrooms, this means rethinking how tasks are introduced, scaffolded, and reflected upon. Incorporating multilingual pre-task activities, encouraging collaborative meaning-making in shared L1s, leveraging cognates, and building cross-linguistic reflection into lessons are all viable strategies. Crucially, final outputs can remain fully in English, preserving curricular alignment and target-language development, while the process leading to them draws on students' complete linguistic resources. This dual-focus approach allows for both high language proficiency and learner empowerment.

Teacher training and professional development will play a decisive role in making such practices sustainable. As the analysis of teacher perspectives in Chapter 2 revealed, there is currently a gap between the realities of linguistic diversity in classrooms and the preparedness of many teachers to address it. Embedding translanguageing strategies in teacher education could help bridge this gap, ensuring that multilingualism is recognized not as a challenge to be managed, but as an asset to be cultivated.

For publishers and policymakers, the findings from the *More!* coursebook analysis underscore that high adaptability for translanguageing can be achieved without compromising curricular requirements or target-language exposure. Publishers can play a pivotal role by integrating optional multilingual scaffolds, reflection prompts, and adaptation suggestions directly into

teacher editions, thus normalizing translanguaging as a mainstream pedagogical option. Policymakers can foster these developments by framing curricular guidelines that explicitly affirm the use of translanguaging strategies as resource, supporting material development grants for inclusive textbook design, and ensuring that teacher training standards reflect the realities of linguistic diversity in Austrian classrooms. Together, these measures can align instructional materials, teacher preparation, and policy with the multilingual realities of education.

7.3 Limitations

Although this thesis offers a systematic approach to adapting EFL coursebook materials for translanguaging, several limitations must be acknowledged. The analysis focused solely on the *More!* series, which, while widely used in Austrian lower-secondary education, represents only one publisher's approach to task design. As a result, the high proportion of adaptable tasks identified may not be representative of other textbooks, especially those with more rigid formats or a stronger emphasis on exclusive target-language use.

The categorization of tasks as internally or externally adaptable (complete dataset see Appendix D) was based on my own definition of the analysis criteria, discussed in detail in section 5.2. Although the framework was applied consistently, no inter-rater coding was carried out, meaning that classifications of the categories *Openness to learners' linguistic repertoires* and *Translanguaging adaptability* might differ slightly if evaluated by another researcher. This is particularly relevant in cases where adaptability depends heavily on the teacher's willingness, creativity, and stance toward multilingual pedagogy.

Furthermore, the study was limited to the level of materials analysis and did not extend to classroom implementation of the proposed adaptations. Without direct teacher and student feedback, or evidence of impact on learner engagement and language development, the effectiveness of these adaptations remains theoretical.

Finally, the findings are shaped by the Austrian curricular and sociolinguistic context. Even within this context, differences between school types, student demographics, and institutional cultures may influence how easily the proposed adaptations can be implemented. While the framework may serve as a useful reference point for comparable settings, its application should always be preceded by careful consideration of the specific conditions in which it is to be used.

7.4 Potential for Further Research

As Hall & Cook (2012: 292–293) note, the search for “optimal” own-language use remains unresolved. While structured, principled use of learners’ L1s can enhance target-language acquisition, the precise ratio, timing, and functions of own-language use in EFL settings require further investigation. In Austrian superdiverse classrooms, where multiple L1s coexist and may not be shared by the teacher, future studies should examine how translanguaging affects not only language proficiency but also learner identity, motivation, and long-term engagement with English.

In addition, much of the existing empirical research on translanguaging originates from bilingual contexts (e.g. Spanish-English classrooms in the U.S.), where teacher and learner languages often overlap. Far less is known about how translanguaging functions in more heterogeneous, superdiverse environments where numerous home languages co-exist and no single L1 dominates. Further studies could investigate how the long-term application of translanguaging strategies interacts with such linguistic diversity and how it shapes classroom management, the negotiation of roles and relationships, identity building, ideological perspectives on language and the development of a sense of classroom community. Understanding these dynamics would help determine how translanguaging can be adapted to foster both language learning and social cohesion in contexts that resemble Austrian classroom settings.

7.5 Outlook

Technological innovation is likely to play an increasingly important role in making translanguaging more accessible and easier to implement. AI-based tools can assist teachers in generating target-language-rich yet translanguaging-friendly materials, provide multilingual reference resources, and even facilitate communication across languages in real time. Such tools could lower the entry barrier for teachers who might otherwise hesitate to implement translanguaging strategies, potentially transforming classroom practice on a large scale – provided educators approach these technologies critically and creatively.

Finally, translanguaging is not only a pedagogical tool. It is already a lived linguistic reality for many students. In informal settings, I have observed learners seamlessly weaving English

phrases into German – often alongside elements from other languages — not merely to fill lexical gaps, but as a deliberate stylistic choice. Phrases such as “I dunno” in the middle of a German conversation, “Ja, aber WHY?” or “At this point ist es lowkey anstrengend.” or the simple act of a student giving a peer a German-Turkish summary of an English Netflix series they recently watched reflect creativity, identity, and a sense of belonging to a global youth culture. These practices show that English is not confined to the classroom but is actively integrated into students’ everyday communicative repertoires. Far from impeding English acquisition, translanguaging can inspire learners to engage with the language in authentic, personally meaningful ways.

In this sense, one of the most valuable outcomes of EFL instruction may be to enable students to make English their own. That is, to use it confidently, flexibly, and in dialogue with their other languages, both in school and beyond. Translanguaging, as this thesis has argued, offers a powerful pathway toward that goal.

8 References

- Austrian Federal Chancellery. 2011. *3rd report of the republic of Austria: pursuant to Article 15 (1) of the European charter for regional or minority languages*. <https://www.bundeskanzleramt.gv.at/dam/jcr:ff7ca8f3-477f-4a6b-88e3-bf4c436490e1/LanguagesCharter.pdf> (14 Aug. 2023).
- Baker, Colin. 2011. *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th edition) (Bilingual Education & Bilingualism). Bristol: Channel View Publications. <https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/kxp/detail.action?docID=5330444>.
- Baker, Colin; Wright, Wayne E. 2011. *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th edition). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, Colin; Wright, Wayne E. 2021. *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (7th edition). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Bakhtin, Mikhail. 1981. *The dialogic imagination: Four essays*. Austin: University of Texas. http://www.euophd.net/sites/euophd/files/images/onda_2/07/27th_lab/scientific_materials/jesuino/bakhtin_1981.pdf (8 Mar. 2025).
- Ballinger, Susan; Lyster, Roy; Sterzuk, Andrea; Genesee, Fred. 2017. "Context-appropriate crosslinguistic pedagogy: considering the role of language status in immersion education". *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education* 5, 30–57.
- Beacco, Jean-Claude; Byram, Michael; Cavalli, Marisa; Coste, Daniel; Cuenat, Mirjam E.; Goullier, Francis; Panthier, Johanna. 2016. *Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/CoERMPublicCommonSearchServices/DisplayDCTMContent?documentId=09000016806ae621> (5 Aug. 2023).
- Becker, Rolf. 2011. "Integration von Migranten durch Bildung und Ausbildung – theoretische Erklärungen und empirische Befunde". In Becker, Rolf (ed.). *Integration durch Bildung: Bildungserwerb von jungen Migranten in Deutschland*. Wiesbaden: Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 11–36.
- Benson, Carol. 2009. "Designing effective schooling in multilingual contexts: going beyond bilingual models". In Skutnabb-Kangas, Tove; Phillipson, Robert; Mohanty, Ajit K.; Panda, Minati (eds.). *Social justice through multilingual education*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 63–81.
- Bialystok, Ellen. 1987. "Influences of bilingualism on metalinguistic development". *Interlanguage studies bulletin* 32, 154–166.
- Bialystok, Ellen. 2001. *Bilingualism in development: Language, literacy, and cognition*. Toronto: Cambridge UP. <https://www.cambridge-org.uaccess.univie.ac.at/core/books/bilingualism-in-development/F4B33562B852B2DAF6A4F7BBE7E7DD2E>.
- Block, David. 2014. "Moving beyond 'lingualism': Multilingual embodiment and multimodality in SLA". In May, Stephen (ed.). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. New York: Routledge, 54–77.
- BMBWF. 2017. *Interkulturelle Bildung - Grundsatzpapier 2017: Rundschreiben Nr. 29/2017*. <https://www.schulpartner.info/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/Interkulturelle-Bildung-Grundsatzpapier.pdf> (13 Mar. 2025).
- BMBWF. 2023a. *Verordnung der Bundesministerin für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur über die Lehrpläne der Mittelschulen; Bekanntmachung der Lehrpläne für den Religionsunterricht* (original version BGBl. II Nr. 185/2012, last addition BGBl. II Nr. 1/2023).

- <https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=20007850> (18 Aug. 2023).
- BMBWF. 2023b. *Verordnung des Bundesministers für Unterricht und Kunst vom 14. November 1984 über die Lehrpläne der allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen; Bekanntmachung der Lehrpläne für den Religionsunterricht an diesen Schulen* (original version BGBl. Nr. 88/1985, last addition BGBl. II Nr. 1/2023). <https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10008568> (18 Aug. 2023).
- BMUK. 2021. *Verordnung des Bundesministers für Unterricht und Kunst vom 24. Juni 1974 über die Leistungsbeurteilung in Pflichtschulen sowie mittleren und höheren Schulen (Leistungsbeurteilungsverordnung)* (original version BGBl. Nr. 371/1974, last addition BGBl. II Nr. 215/2021). <https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10009375> (12 Mar. 2025).
- Boeckmann, Klaus-Börge. 2016a. "MARILLE – ein Projekt zur Mehrsprachigkeit im Mehrheits-sprachenunterricht". In Drumbl, Hans; Carvalho, Geraldo de; Kliner, Jörg (eds.). *IDT 2013: Sprachenpolitik und Sprachenvielfalt* (Band 8). Bozen: Bozen-Bolzano UP, 187–200.
- Boeckmann, Klaus-Börge. 2016b. "Zur Situation der europäischen Mehrsprachigkeit am Beispiel Österreichs". *Forschungsberichte zur Germanistik*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/316438537_Zur_Situation_der_europaischen_Mehrsprachigkeit_am_Beispiel_Osterreichs (2 Aug. 2023).
- Boeckmann, Klaus-Börge. 2016c. "Zwei- und mehrsprachiger Unterricht: Modelle, Strategien und Instrumente". *Erziehung und Unterricht* 9/10, 1–9.
- Boeckmann, Klaus-Börge. 2012. "Promoting plurilingualism in the majority language classroom". *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching* 6, 259–274.
- Brizić, Katharina. 2006. "The secret life of languages: origin-specific differences in L1/L2 acquisition by immigrant children". *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 16(3), 339–362.
- Brizić, Katharina; Lo Hufnagl, Claudia. 2011. *Multilingual cities Wien: Bericht zur Sprachenerhebung in den 3. und 4. Volksschulklassen*. Wien: Österreichische Akademie der Wissenschaft. https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/sites/default/files/2011-12/doc1_24583_440720303.pdf (5 Aug. 2023).
- Butzkamm, Wolfgang. 2003. "We only learn language once: the role of the mother tongue in FL classrooms: death of a dogma". *Language Learning Journal* 28, 29–39.
- Canagarajah, Suresh. 2011a. "Codemeshing in academic writing: identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging". *The Modern Language Journal* 95(3), 401–417.
- Canagarajah, Suresh. 2011b. "Translanguaging in the classroom: emerging issues for research and pedagogy". *Applied Linguistics Review* 2, 1–28.
- Carnevale, Carla; Wojnesitz, Alexandra. 2014. *Sprachsensibler Fachunterricht in der Sekundarstufe: Grundlagen - Methoden - Praxisbeispiele* (ÖSZ Praxisreihe Heft 23). Graz: ÖSZ. <https://www.oesz.at/material/praxisheft23.pdf>.
- Cavalli, Marisa; Coste, Daniel; Crisan, Alexandru; van Ven, Piet-Hein de. 2009. *Plurilingual and intercultural education as a project*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/plurilingual-and-intercultural-education-as-a-project-this-text-has-be/16805a219f> (3 Aug. 2023).
- Celic, Christina; Seltzer, Kate. 2013. *Translanguaging: a CUNY-NYSIEB guide for educators*. New York: CUNY-NYSIEB. <https://www.cuny-nysieb.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Translanguaging-Guide-March-2013.pdf> (5 Aug. 2023).

- Cenoz, Jasone; Gorter, Durk (eds.). 2015. *Multilingual Education: Between language learning and translanguaging* (The Cambridge applied linguistics series). Cambridge, United Kingdom, New York, NY, USA, Port Melbourne, VIC, Australia, New Delhi, India, Singapore: Cambridge UP.
- Cenoz, Jasone; Gorter, Durk. 2020. "Pedagogical translanguaging: an introduction". *System* 92(102269), 1–7.
- Clément, Richard; Dörnyei, Zoltán; Noels, Kimberly A. 1994. "Motivation, self-confidence, and group Cohesion in the foreign Language Classroom". *Language Learning* 443, 417–448.
- Conteh, Jean. 2018. "Translanguaging". *ELT Journal* 72(4), 445–447.
- Conteh, Jean; Meier, Gabriela. (eds.) 2014. *The multilingual turn in languages education*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Council of Europe. 2001. *Common European framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment*. Strasbourg: Cambridge UP. <https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97> (20 Feb. 2025).
- Council of Europe. 2007. *From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education: Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/16806a892c>.
- Council of Europe. 2022. *Recommendation CM/Rec(2022)1 of the committee of ministers to member states on the importance of plurilingual and intercultural education for democratic culture*. [https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/documents/about-us/CM_Rec\(2022\)1E.pdf](https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/documents/about-us/CM_Rec(2022)1E.pdf) (17 Jul. 2024).
- Council of Europe; BMUKK; BMWF. 2008. *Language education policy profile: Austria*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. https://www.oesz.at/fileadmin/external_import/oeszatdb36/spol/lepp_engl_1.pdf (16 Jul. 2024).
- Creese, Angela; Blackledge, Adrian. 2010. "Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: a pedagogy for learning and teaching?". *The Modern Language Journal* 94(1), 103–115.
- Cummins, James. 1979. "Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children". *Review of Educational Research* 492, 222.
- Cummins, Jim. 2000. *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire* (Bilingual Education et Bilingualism). Blue Ridge Summit, PA: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, Jim. 2007. "Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms". *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics* 10(2), 221–240.
- Cummins, Jim. 2008. "Teaching for transfer: challenging the two solitudes assumption in bilingual education". In Hornberger, Nancy H. (ed.). *Encyclopedia of language and education*. Boston: Springer, 65–75.
- Cummins, Jim. 2009. "Multilingualism in the English-language classroom: pedagogical considerations". *TESOL Quarterly* 43(2), 317–321.
- Cummins, Jim. 2017. "BICS and CALP: Empirical and theoretical status of the distinction". In Street, Brian V.; May, Stephen (eds.). *Literacies and Language Education*, 3rd edn. Cham: Springer, 59–71.
- Dalton-Puffer, Christiane; Boeckmann, Klaus-Börge; Hinger, Barbara. 2019. "Research in language teaching and learning in Austria (2011–2017)". *Language Teaching* 52, 201–230.
- Delanoy, Werner. 2017. "Building bridges: Towards a timely concept for culture-and-language learning". In Onysko, Alexander; Graf, Eva-Maria; Delanoy, Werner; Sigott, Guenther; Dobric, Nikola (eds.). *The polyphony of English studies*. Tübingen: Narr, 163–176.

- European Parliament. 2008. *Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment*. Brussels. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52008DC0566&from=LV> (17 Jul. 2024).
- Faulstich Orellana, Marjorie; García, Ofelia. 2014. "Language brokering and translanguaging in school". *Language Arts* 91(5), 386–392.
- Friebs, Barbara. 2005. "Immigrant children in Austrian schools: Educational challenges and structural barriers". *Dve domovini / Two Homelands*. http://twohomelands.zrc-sazu.si/uploads/articles/1605704390_Children%20in%20Austrian%20Schools_%20Friebs.pdf (15 Mar. 2025).
- García, Ofelia. 2009a. *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Malden, MA, Hoboken: Blackwell; John Wiley & Sons. http://sub-hh.ciando.com/book/?bok_id=860905.
- García, Ofelia. 2009b. "Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century". In Skutnabb-Kangas, Tove; Phillipson, Robert; Mohanty, Ajit K.; Panda, Minati (eds.). *Social justice through multilingual education*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, 140–158.
- García, Ofelia; Kleifgen, Jo A. 2010. *Educating emergent bilinguals: Policies, programs, and practices for English language learners* (Language and literacy series). New York: Teachers College Press.
- García, Ofelia; Kleyn, Tatyana. 2016. *Translanguaging with multilingual students: learning from classroom moments*. New York: Routledge.
- García, Ofelia; Sylvan, Claire. 2011. "Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: singularities in pluralities". *The Modern Language Journal* 95(3), 385–400.
- García, Ofelia; Wei, Li. 2014. *Translanguaging: language, bilingualism and education*. London: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Gardner, Robert C.; MacIntyre, Peter D. 1993. "A student's contributions to second-language learning. Part II: Affective variables". *Language Teaching* 261, 1–11.
- Gerngross, Günter; Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Stranks, Jeff. 2018a. *MORE! 4 Student's Book: General course*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Gerngross, Günter; Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Stranks, Jeff. 2018b. *MORE! 4 Workbook: General course*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Gogolin, Ingrid; Hansen, Antje; McMonagle, Sarah; Rauch, Dominique (eds.). 2020. *Handbuch Mehrsprachigkeit und Bildung*. Wiesbaden: Springer.
- Gogolin, Ingrid; Lange, Imke. 2011. "Bildungssprache und durchgängige Sprachbildung". In Fürstenau, Sara; Gomolla, Mechthild (eds.). *Migration und schulischer Wandel: Mehrsprachigkeit*. Wiesbaden: Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 107–127.
- Griessler, Marion. 2001. "The effects of third language learning on second language proficiency: an Austrian example". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 4(1), 50–60.
- Hall, Graham; Cook, Guy. 2012. "Own-language use in language teaching and learning". *Language Teaching* 45(3), 271–308.
- Herzog-Punzenberger, Barbara; Schnell, Philipp. 2012. "Die Situation mehrsprachiger SchülerInnen im österreichischen Schulsystem: Problemlagen, Rahmenbedingungen und internationaler Vergleich". In Herzog-Punzenberger, Barbara (ed.). *Nationaler Bildungsbericht Österreich: fokussierte Analysen bildungspolitischer Schwerpunktthemen*. Graz: Leykam, 229–268.

- Hornberger, Nancy H. 2003. *Continua of biliteracy: An ecological framework for educational policy, research, and practice in multilingual settings* (Bilingual Education & Bilingualism). Blue Ridge Summit, PA: Multilingual Matters.
- Hoshino, Noriko; Thierry, Guillaume. 2011. "Language selection in bilingual word production: Electrophysiological evidence for cross-language competition". *Brain research* 1371, 100–109.
- Jensen, Ben. 2010. "The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) and teacher education for diversity". In Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (ed.). *Educating teachers for diversity: Meeting the challenge*. Paris: OECD, 63–92.
- Jessner-Schmid, Ulrike. 2015. "Multilingualism". In Wright, James D. (ed.). *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*, 2nd edn. Elsevier, 65–71.
- Kecskés, István; Papp, Tünde. 2000. *Foreign language and mother tongue*. Mahwah, N.J: Erlbaum. <http://site.ebrary.com/lib/alltitles/docDetail.action?docID=10346763>.
- Kilpi-Jakonen, Elina; Alisaari, Jenni. 2022. "Language choices at home and their relationship with educational outcomes, with a special focus on children with origins in former Yugoslavia and Turkey in six European countries". *Frontiers in Sociology* 7 (841847), 1–20.
- Krashen, Stephen. 1982. *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krumm, Hans-Jürgen; Reich, Hans. 2011. *Curriculum Mehrsprachigkeit*. Vienna: OESZ. <https://bimm.at/wp-content/uploads/2024/05/curriculummehrsprachigkeit2011.pdf> (23 Aug. 2024).
- Lambert, Wallace E. 1973. *Culture and language as factors in learning and education*. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED096820> (1 Mar. 2025).
- Lankiewicz, Hadrian. 2014. "From the concept of languaging to L2 pedagogy". In Waśkiewicz-Firlej, Emilia; Lankiewicz, Hadrian (eds.). *Languaging experiences: learning and teaching revisited*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars, 1–32.
- Lenneberg, Eric. 1967. *Biological foundations of language*. New York: Wiley.
- Lewis, Gwyn; Jones, Bryn; Baker, Colin. 2012a. "Translanguaging: developing its conceptualisation and contextualization". *Educational Research and Evaluation* 18(7), 655–670.
- Lewis, Gwyn; Jones, Bryn; Baker, Colin. 2012b. "Translanguaging: origins and development from school to street and beyond". *Educational Research and Evaluation* 18(7), 641–654.
- Li, Wei. 2018. "Translanguaging as a practical theory of language". *Applied Linguistics* 39(1), 9–30.
- MacSwan, Jeff; Faltis, Christian J. 2020. *Codeswitching in the classroom: Critical perspectives on teaching, learning, policy, and ideology*. New York: Routledge.
- MacSwan, Jeff; Rolstad, Kellie. 2024. "(Un)grounded language ideologies: A brief history of translanguaging theory". *International Journal of Bilingualism* 28(4), 719–743.
- Montrul, Silvina. 2012. "Bilingualism and the heritage language speaker". In Bhatia, Tej K.; Ritchie, William C. (eds.). *The Handbook of Bilingualism and Multilingualism*, 2nd edn. (Blackwell handbooks in linguistics). Chichester, UK, Malden, MA: Wiley, 168–189.
- Münz, Rainer. 2011. "Austria and its migrants". In Bischof, Günter; Plasser, Fritz (eds.). *Global Austria: Austria's place in Europe and the world*. New Orleans, LA: University of New Orleans Press, 184–199.
- Neumann, Ursula. 2011. "Schulischer Wandel durch bilinguale Klassen". In Fürstenau, Sara; Gomolla, Mechthild (eds.). *Migration und schulischer Wandel: Mehrsprachigkeit*. Wiesbaden: Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 181–190.

- Der Standard. 2023. "Niederösterreich: Direktorinnen und Lehrer halten Deutsch als Pausensprache für nicht umsetzbar". 21. Mar. <https://www.derstandard.at/story/2000144732944/niederoesterreich-direktorinnenlehrer-und-halten-deutsch-als-pausensprache-fuer-nicht-umsetzbar> (2 Aug. 2023).
- Niedrig, Heike. 2011. "Unterrichtsmodelle für Schülerinnen und Schüler aus sprachlichen Minderheiten". In Fürstenau, Sara; Gomolla, Mechthild (eds.). *Migration und schulischer Wandel: Mehrsprachigkeit*. Wiesbaden: Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, 89–106.
- OECD. 2019. *TALIS 2018 results (Volume I): Teachers and school leaders as lifelong learners*. Paris: OECD.
- ÖIF. 2018. *Migration und Schule* (Fact-sheet 30). https://www.integrationsfonds.at/fileadmin/content/AT/Fotos/Publikationen/FactSheet/Fact_Sheet_30_Migration_und_Schule.pdf (2 Aug. 2023).
- ÖIF. 2021. *Schule und Integration* (Fact-Sheet 37). https://www.integrationsfonds.at/fileadmin/user_upload/OeIF-FS-37-SchuleIntegration-V5.pdf.
- Ortega, Lourdes. 2014. "Ways forward for a bi/multilingual turn in SLA". In May, Stephen (ed.). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. New York: Routledge, 32–53.
- Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum. 2012b. *Handreichung zum guten Umgang mit schulischer Mehrsprachigkeit: KIESEL neu, Heft 2*. Graz. https://www.oesz.at/download/publikationen/Kiesel_2_web.pdf (6 Aug. 2023).
- Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum. 2025. "Sprachsensibler Unterricht". www.sprachsensiblerunterricht.at (10 Aug. 2025).
- Otheguy, Ricardo; García, Ofelia; Reid, Wallis. 2015. "Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: a perspective from linguistics". *Applied Linguistics Review* 6(3), 281–307.
- Otwinowska, Agnieszka; Angelis, Gessica de. 2014. "Introduction: towards education for multilingualism". In Otwinowska, Agnieszka; Angelis, Gessica de (eds.). *Teaching and learning in multilingual contexts: sociolinguistic and educational perspectives*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters, xi–xxi.
- Pennycook, Alastair. 2006. "Postmodernism in language policy". In Ricento, Thomas (ed.). *An introduction to language policy: theory and method*. Malden, MA: Blackwell, 60–76.
- Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Biggs, Gavin; Jory, Chris. 2023a. *MORE! 1 Student's Book*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Biggs, Gavin; Jory, Chris. 2023b. *MORE! 1 Workbook*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Jory, Chris. 2024a. *MORE! 2 Student's Book*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Jory, Chris. 2024b. *MORE! 2 Workbook*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Jory, Chris. 2024c. *MORE! 3 Student's Book*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Puchta, Herbert; Holzmann, Christian; Lewis-Jones, Peter; Jory, Chris. 2024d. *MORE! 3 Workbook*. Innsbruck: Helbling Languages.
- Rabbidge, Michael. 2019. *Translanguaging in EFL contexts: a call for change*. New York: Routledge.

- Republic of Austria. 2024b. *Deutschförderklassen und Deutschförderkurse*.
<https://www.bmbwf.gv.at/Themen/schule/schulpraxis/ba/sprabi/dfk.html> (15 Sep. 2024).
- Republic of Austria. 2024a. *Mehrsprachigkeit – Erstsprachenunterricht – Interkulturelle Bildung*.
<https://www.bmbwf.gv.at/Themen/schule/schulpraxis/ba/sprabi/msmuib.html> (13 Sep. 2024).
- Republic of Austria. 1930. *Federal Constitutional Act: B-VG*. https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/Dokumente/ErV/ERV_1930_1/ERV_1930_1.html (18 Jul. 2024).
- Republic of Austria. 2008. *Regierungsprogramm 2008-2013*. Vienna. http://www.konvent.gv.at/K/DE/INST-K/INST-K_00179/imfname_164994.pdf.
- Republic of Austria. 2020. *Regierungsprogramm 2020-2024*. Vienna. <https://www.bundeskanzleramt.gv.at/dam/jcr:7b9e6755-2115-440c-b2ec-cbf64a931aa8/RegProgramm-lang.pdf> (15 Jul. 2024).
- Republic of Austria. 2025. *Regierungsprogramm 2025-2029*. Vienna. https://www.dievolkspartei.at/Download/Regierungsprogramm_2025.pdf (12 Mar. 2025).
- Richards, Jack; Rodgers, Theodore. 2014. *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (3rd edition). Cambridge, United Kingdom, New York, NY, USA, Port Melbourne, VIC, Australia, New Delhi, India, Singapore: Cambridge University Press.
- Roth, Hans-Joachim; Neumann, Ursula; Gogolin, Ingrid. 2007. *Abschlussbericht über die italienisch-deutschen, portugiesisch-deutschen und spanisch-deutschen Modellklassen*. Hamburg: Universität Hamburg. <https://www.ew.uni-hamburg.de/ueber-die-fakultaet/personen/gogolin/pdf-dokumente/bericht2007.pdf> (3 Sep. 2024).
- Schmich, Juliane; Itzlinger-Bruneforth, Ursula. 2019. *TALIS 2018 (Band 1): Rahmenbedingungen des schulischen Lehrens und Lernens aus Sicht von Lehrkräften und Schulleitungen im internationalen Vergleich*. Graz: Leykam. https://iqs.gv.at/_Resources/Persistent/d3b0c71d9d54f150311e8267eb3916782560fc2e/TALIS-2018_Gesamt_final_Web.pdf (24 Jul. 2024).
- Schmich, Juliane; Schreiner, Claudia. 2010. *BIFIE-Report 4/2010: TALIS 2008: Schule als Lernumfeld und Arbeitsplatz. Vertiefende Analysen aus österreichischer Perspektive*. Graz: Leykam. https://iqs.gv.at/_Resources/Persistent/ec3399e846dc3325c36cbbddf29d40707695eaf4/2010-05-17_br-2010-4.pdf (19 Jul. 2024).
- Seidlhofer, Barbara. 2011. *Understanding English as a lingua franca* (Oxford applied linguistics). Oxford: Oxford UP.
- Statistik Austria. 2023a. *Schüler:innen im Schuljahr 2021/22 nach Staatsangehörigkeit bzw. Alltagssprache*. Wien. https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/pages/443/5_-_Schueler21_Sprachen_Staaten.ods (14 Aug. 2023).
- Statistik Austria. 2023b. *Zensus Volkszählung 2021: Ergebnisse zur Bevölkerung aus der Registerzählung*. Wien. https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/user_upload/Zensus-VZ-2021.pdf (9 Aug. 2023).
- Statistik Austria. 2007. *Volkszählung 2001: Die demographische, soziale und wirtschaftliche Struktur der österreichischen Bevölkerung*. Wien. https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/publications/Volkszaehlung_2001__Textband_-_Die_demographische__soziale_und_wirtschaftliche_Struktur_der_oesterreichischen_Bevoelkerung.pdf.
- Statistik Austria. 2021. *Statistisches Jahrbuch: Migration & Integration*. Wien. https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/publications/Migration_und_Integration_2021.pdf (9 Aug. 2023).

- Statistik Austria. 2022. "Bildung in Zahlen". https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/pages/1865/BiZ_2020_21.pdf (2 Aug. 2023).
- Swain, Merrill. 2000. "The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue". In Lantolf, James (ed.). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (Oxford applied linguistics). Oxford: Oxford University Press, 97–114.
- Tatsioka, Zoi; Seidlhofer, Barbara; Sifakis, Nicos; Ferguson, Gibson (eds.). 2018. *Using English as a lingua franca in education in Europe* (English in Europe: Volume 4). Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter.
- Tegunimataka, Anna. 2021. "Does first-language training matter for immigrant children's school achievements?: Evidence from a Danish school reform". *Nordic Journal of Migration Research* 11. <https://journal-njmr.org/articles/10.33134/njmr.418> (21 Feb. 2025).
- Teltemann, Janna; Windzio, Michael. 2011. "Die 'kognitive Exklusion' junger Migranten im Ländervergleich". *Berliner Journal für Soziologie* 21(3), 335–361.
- Thierry, Guillaume; Wu, Yan J. 2007. "Brain potentials reveal unconscious translation during foreign-language comprehension". *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 10430, 12530–12535.
- Thomas, Wayne; Collier, Virginia. 2002. *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement*. UC Berkeley: Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence. <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/65j213pt> (21 Feb. 2025).
- Velasco, Patricia; García, Ofelia. 2014. "Translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners". *Bilingual Research Journal* 37(1), 6–23.
- Wei, Li; Martin, Peter. 2009. "Conflicts and tensions in classroom codeswitching: an introduction". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 122, 117–122.
- Weiss, Hilde (ed.). 2007. *Leben in zwei Welten: Zur sozialen Integration ausländischer Jugendlicher der zweiten Generation*. Wiesbaden: Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Williams, Cen. 2002. *Ennill iaith: Astudiaeth o sefyllfa drochi yn 11–16 oed [A language gained: A study of language immersion at 11–16 years of age]*. Bangor, UK: School of Education.

Appendix

Appendix A: Overview of Translanguaging Strategies Discussed in Section 4.3

STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION	PURPOSE / BENEFITS	KEY SOURCES
Valuing full linguistic repertoires	Recognize and legitimize all languages students bring, including minority, non-standard, and migrant languages.	Creates an inclusive environment, enhances student identity and self-esteem.	Boeckmann 2012 Rabbidge 2019
Parental involvement	Encourage students to discuss schoolwork in their home language with parents.	Strengthens home-school connections, allows minority-language parents to participate.	Cummins 2007 Baker & Wright 2021
Strategic use of translation	Integrate L1–L2 translation as a learning tool, especially in superdiverse classes.	Facilitates comprehension without requiring teacher's L1 proficiency.	Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012a
Training in translation tool use	Teach students to evaluate and compare online translation outputs (e.g., idioms, minority vs. prestige languages).	Develops critical language awareness, highlights linguistic hierarchies.	Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012a
Introducing varied translation resources	Use bilingual dictionaries for single words, AI tools (e.g., DeepL, ChatGPT) for sentences/idioms.	Promotes accuracy, builds transferable skills for other languages.	—
Structured bilingual scaffolding	Use L1 as a bridge to English with gradual reduction of L1 reliance.	Supports content development, transitions to full English engagement.	García & Kleifgen 2010 Velasco & García 2014
Pre-task L1 brainstorming	Students plan ideas in L1 before producing English output.	Improves idea clarity, reduces linguistic barriers in writing and speaking.	Velasco & García 2014
Collaborative L1 peer work	Pair/group students with shared L1s for discussion or reading.	Enhances comprehension, builds confidence, reduces anxiety.	García & Sylvan 2011 Creese & Blackledge 2010
Multilingual reading circles	Students read texts in various languages, then synthesize in English.	Encourages information synthesis, deepens content understanding.	García & Kleyn 2016 García 2009a
Multilingual research projects	Use L1 sources to gather info, present findings in English.	Promotes critical thinking, develops academic language skills.	Cummins 2008
Metalinguistic reflection	Compare grammatical structures, reflect on language use across contexts.	Improves syntactic/morphological awareness, supports transfer.	Ballinger et al. 2017

Cognate exploration	Identify vocabulary similarities across L1, other learned languages, and English.	Boosts vocabulary acquisition, makes learning inclusive.	Cummins 2007
Cross-language connections with other FLs	Draw on foreign languages as well (e.g. Latin, French, Spanish, etc.) to support English learning.	Reinforces multiple languages, aids retention.	—
Use of diverse literature	Incorporate texts from various cultural contexts.	Promotes critical cultural reflection, identity exploration, transcultural competence.	Baker & Wright 2021 Dalton-Puffer, Boeckmann & Hinger 2019
Translanguaging in assessment	Use multilingual strategies (e.g., L1 planning for English presentations) in assessment.	Captures full competence, aligns with LBVO guidelines.	Otheguy, García & Reid 2015 BMUK 2021
Matura-aligned translanguaging	Ensure assessed output meets English proficiency expectations while using translanguaging as scaffolding.	Balances inclusivity with formal assessment requirements.	—

Appendix B: Coursebook Analysis Grid

CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION
Skill Focus	
<i>Vocabulary</i>	Focused on word recognition, recall, meaning, or form (e.g. matching, translation, labeling, semantic fields).
<i>Grammar</i>	Explicit or implicit grammar focus, usually with controlled output (e.g. gap-fill, transformations).
<i>Language in Context</i>	Situational language use and functional expressions (e.g. completing or ordering dialogues); differs from vocabulary or grammar by emphasizing appropriate use in context, not form or meaning in isolation.
<i>Listening</i>	Comprehension of spoken input, with tasks like picture selection, answering questions, or sequencing.
<i>Reading</i>	Interpretation of written texts followed by comprehension or analysis questions.
<i>Writing</i>	Production of written output, ranging from guided exercises to open compositions.
<i>Speaking</i>	Oral interaction or production tasks, including dialogues, role plays, interviews, or discussions.
<i>Pronunciation</i>	Phonological awareness or production.
<i>Project</i>	Open-ended tasks that integrate skills and promote learner agency (e.g. creating presentations or posters).
Instructional Format	
<i>Closed</i>	e.g. gap-fill, multiple choice, matching
<i>Semi-open</i>	e.g. guided writing, short answers
<i>Open</i>	e.g. free writing, project work
Task Type	e.g. gap-fill, matching, sequencing,...
Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	
<i>English only</i>	The task is framed monolingually. Only English is legitimized; other languages are neither mentioned nor supported.
<i>English-German</i>	German is present as a support language (e.g. instructions, glossaries), but no other repertoires are considered.
<i>Visually cued</i>	The task includes non-verbal cues (pictures, icons, numbers, maps, cognates) that allow learners to draw on any language to access meaning, but other languages are not named, invited, or explicitly scaffolded. L1 use is possible and student-initiated, not designed or required.
<i>Partially open</i>	Other languages beyond German appear only in a limited, token way (e.g., isolated greetings, names, or cognates), but the task remains framed in English and does not explicitly invite or scaffold L1 use.
<i>Full repertoire</i>	The task invites or enables the use of learners' broader linguistic repertoires beyond English and German.
Translanguaging Adaptability	
<i>Task-internal</i>	Translanguaging strategies are built into the task; no extra activity/materials. Multilingual moves directly support doing the task at hand (e.g., quick L1 planning/retell, in-task cognates or look-ups).
<i>Task-external</i>	Needs an added pre/post activity or new materials beyond the original task (e.g., separate phoneme mini-task with L1 examples, multilingual cards, home prep). (note: Allowing the use of a dictionary during the task does not qualify as external adaptation.)
<i>Not meaningfully adaptable</i>	L1 activation would likely confuse/undermine the target (e.g., tightly controlled pronunciation or form drills). Keep EN-only with clear modeling/visuals.
Adaptation Strategy	Proposes a concrete modification to exploit translanguaging potential.

Appendix C: Analysis Sample (80 Tasks)

<i>More! 1 Student's Book (2023)</i>				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
1	1 Time for school	14	Listening, Vocabulary	Listen to key classroom phrases and match them with pictures; then read the same phrases and check.
2	2 At the zoo	19	Grammar	Gap-fill task: Pictures show a parrot in different places; complete sentences using prepositions.
3	3 Pirates	23	Speaking, Grammar	Simple role-play dialogue drilling "have(n't) got."
4	4 Emotions	30	Vocabulary	Vocabulary drill introducing emotions: Read sentences like "John's happy." or "Linda's nervous." aloud.
5	5 This is our band	38	Listening	Gap-fill activity about a band: Read speech bubbles and listen simultaneously, completing gaps with names mentioned in the recording.
6	6 The world's best detective	46f	Vocabulary, Reading	Pre-reading vocabulary matching task introducing/revising key words. Read a detective story about a lost bird and answer comprehension questions (true/false, multiple choice, open gap)
7	7 I love noodles	52	Pronunciation	Chant focusing on the /tʃ/ sound through repetition of the words "chicken" and "cheese."
8	11 What's the time?	82	Vocabulary	Match sentences describing the time (e.g., "It's ten past three.") with pictures of clocks and watches.
9	14 It's my favourite	111	Speaking	Scaffolded group speaking prompt about screen time, with sentence starters and various sentence endings provided.
10	15 What are you going to do?	121	Writing	Highly scaffolded writing task: Write an email reply to a party invitation. Sentence parts are provided; arrange them in the correct order to build useful sentences and respond to three bullet points.

<i>More! 1 Workbook (2023)</i>				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
11	1 Time for school	6	Grammar, Vocabulary	Write English numbers from 1 to 30 and form regular and irregular plurals of nouns.
12	2 At the zoo	19	Writing, Grammar	Write as many sentences as possible about one's own room using "there is" and "there are."
13	3 Pirates	27	Reading, Writing	Read three short texts describing people and match them to pictures; then write a similar text about a friend using sentence starters as support.
14	5 This is our band	41	Vocabulary, Spelling	Complete a short text about music by adding the missing letters; each underline represents one letter.
15	5 This is our band	46	Listening	Listen to descriptions of five people and tick true or false based on what they can and cannot do.
16	6 The world's best detective	50	Writing	Write a short story called <i>Sherlock Groans and the Lost Drum</i> , using verbs from a box and a picture for guidance.
17	8 Clothes	67	Vocabulary	Match clothing vocabulary (e.g. "shoes," "tights") to pictures and practice spelling by copying words from a box.
18	10 In a shop	87	Grammar	Complete sentences beginning with "How much" and ending with singular or plural nouns, using "is" or "are" as appropriate.
19	12 The birthday cake	102	Vocabulary	Find the 12 months of the year hidden in a word snake and write them down in chronological order.
20	13 Help!	113	Writing, Grammar	Write a picture story by putting given sentences in the correct order and converting them into the past tense.

<i>More! 2 Student's Book (2024)</i>				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
21	1 First day back at school	13	Listening, Speaking	Complete a timetable based on audio; use own timetable to talk with a partner using sentence starters.
22	2 How embarrassing!	18	Reading, Grammar	Reading comprehension task: Match "Why" questions to "Because" answers after reading a text about online behaviour.
23	3 Halloween	27	Speaking, Storytelling	Invent an ending to a Halloween story in pairs.
24	4 What an animal!	36	Speaking, Group Work	Discuss and choose a school mascot; discussion phrases categorized by function provided in English.
25	5 Where's the supermarket?	40	Vocabulary, Listening	Listen and match building names (e.g. church, police station) to pictures by writing numbers.
26	6 Time for adventure	52	Writing	Analyze the structure of an email; write a personal email based on prompts about a youth camp.
27	7 Plans for the weekend	55	Grammar (Chant)	Chant drill practicing "I'm going to..." and "I'm not going to..." constructions.
28	8 Out of this world	64	Pronunciation	Identify the odd one out in three word sets by listening to regular past tense verb endings pronounced as /ɪd/, /d/, or /t/.
29	9 Eating out	68	Vocabulary, Listening	Match food words to pictures and sort into categories: fruit, vegetables, meat, desserts.
30	12 Feeling bad and feeling better	94	Listening	Number pictures showing minor accidents and injuries in the order heard in short dialogues (e.g. someone falling, cutting themselves, etc.).

<i>More! 2 Workbook (2024)</i>				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
31	1 First day back at school	7	Grammar	Find base verbs in a word snake and write them in the past simple
32	2 How embarrassing!	16	Grammar	Choose the correct question word (Where / Why / Who) in five short A/B dialogues
33	3 Halloween	26	Writing	Write a Halloween party invitation and a short story based on pictures and a word box; sentence starters provided.
34	4 What an animal!	33	Listening	Listen to a story about a pet, identify names in a picture, then answer true/false comprehension questions.
35	8 Out of this world	66	Speaking, Role Play	After listening to a time traveler dialogue, create a partner role-play imagining a trip, destination, purpose, and return gift.
36	10 Who's in your family?	79	Vocabulary	Label family members in a family tree using words from a box (e.g., grandpa, cousin, aunt).
37	11 Homes	91	Grammar	Match correct answers to "Who...?" questions in a general knowledge quiz (e.g., historical figures, inventors, celebrities).
38	13 Rain and sun	112	Reading	Read a story about weather, choose the best title from three options, then answer true/false comprehension questions.
39	14 Move and keep fit!	119	Grammar, Dialogue	Match "Have you ever...?" questions with correct yes/no answers using contextual clues.
40	15 Caring for animals	131	Listening	Listen to an interview with Dr. Laura Bushnell about how dogs find their way home; answer open comprehension questions.

More! 3 Student's Book (2024)				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
41	1 Music makes the world go round	11	Listening, Speaking	Pair work: Learners act as talent show judges and give opinions on three performers using sentence prompts.
42	2 Would you believe it?	16	Listening, Viewing, Speaking	Learners watch a video about coincidences and complete a true/false quiz, followed by a pair discussion.
43	3 What an adventure!	29	Reading	Learners read a holiday recount and complete sentences using information from the text.
44	4 Wild and dangerous?	39	Pronunciation	Learners sort words into two columns based on word stress: Ooo (e.g., <i>crocodile</i>) vs oOo (e.g., <i>expensive</i>), then listen, check, and repeat.
45	5 Superstitions	45	Reading, Speaking	Learners read short texts about superstitions in different countries and discuss which ones they believe are true.
46	Extra unit: Ruby's money-making ideas	57	Speaking	Learners evaluate whether various money-making activities are ethical or not, justifying their opinions.
47	7 Friends forever	61	Reading, Vocabulary	Learners read a newspaper-style article about Sylvester Stallone and his dog, then match italicized words to definitions.
48	10 Know your rights!	87	Pronunciation	Learners practice the /p/ sound by repeating an alliterative sentence after listening.
49	11 The Golden State	95	Vocabulary	Learners match eight geographical/travel-related terms (e.g., rucksack, canyon) with definitions.
50	13 Difficult decisions	111	Listening	Learners listen to a dialogue about moral dilemmas and choose the correct answers to six multiple-choice questions.

More! 3 Workbook (2024)				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
51	1 Music makes the world go round	7–8	Reading	Charity concert: T/F, MCQs, and open questions
52	2 Would you believe it?	14	Grammar	Sentence writing from pictures (past continuous vs. past simple)
53	3 What an adventure!	27	Writing	Write an email recommending a book (guided with model)
54	4 Wild and dangerous?	34	Language in Context	Dialogue (about dogs) completion with sentence matching
55	5 Superstitions	38	Vocabulary	Fill-in-the-gap story about luck (collocations & expressions)
56	7 Friends forever	62	Language in Context	Talking about health / Showing sympathy (matching + writing mini-dialogues)
57	8 Inventors and inventions	67	Grammar	Fill in words in correct tense (narrative about a movie/time machines)
58	9 My world	75	Writing	Draw and explain signs for your door (multimodal, expressive writing)
59	12 Natural disasters	105	Listening	Reorder a story about an earthquake (sequence of events)
60	14 Into the wild	118	Vocabulary	Tick matching verb + phrase collocations (travel-related expressions)

More! 4 Student's Book (2018)				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
61	1 Welcome to Ireland	8	Vocabulary	Translate country-related terms (e.g., official language, EU member) from English to German.
62	4 A working life	41	Pronunciation	Identify and listen for the schwa /ə/ sound in job-related phrases.
63	5 Hungry?	51	Speaking	Talk about own food habits and food preferences in the family using guided sentence starters.
64	6 Kids make a difference	63f	Reading, Vocabulary	Read about the campaign #1000blackgirlbooks started by an American school girl; find the italicized words in the text corresponding to definitions like "main character in a book"; Answer global comprehension questions.
65	7 Travelling Down Under	76	Writing	Write a short factual text about an Australian animal (guided portfolio task with 3 bullet points).
66	8 Obsessed!	81	Listening	Listen to a story about a man and his extreme love of books and choose the correct ending (pictures); complete sentences about the story.
67	9 Body talk	92	Reading	Match cultural gestures in different countries to photos; Complete gaps in the text with expressions from a box.
68	10 A fair world	104	Writing	Write a personal statement about racism (guided reflective portfolio task).
69	12 A school mag	126	Pronunciation	Listen and mark word stress in adjectives and verbs with prefixes or suffixes.
70	13 Talking turkeys	132	Viewing, Listening	Watch a performance poem by Benjamin Zephaniah; tick the correct interpretation of the message. (Extra information on Jamaican English and its pronunciation provided in a box.)

More! 4 Workbook (2018)				
#	Unit	p.	Task Type	Task Description
71	1 Welcome to Ireland	5	Listening	Answer open comprehension questions after listening to an Irish joke.
72	2 Whodunit	14	Grammar	Write past perfect forms of given verbs.
73	2 Whodunit	17	Writing	Write a short text with a real surprise, creating intrigue (40–70 words). Think about: what the story could be about, who the characters are, what the surprise could be about, and where in the story you'll write about the surprise (middle/end).
74	3 New York, New York	20	Reading	Read a NYC tour brochure and decide if statements are true/false.
75	4 A working life	32	Vocabulary, Spelling	Complete job names like "shop assistant" or "bank clerk" by filling in missing letters.
76	5 Hungry?	38	Listening	Tick the best title after listening to a story and match quotes to four different speakers.
77	6 Kids make a difference	51	Writing	Write a text about yourself, saying when and where you were born, what your childhood was like, what the most important events in your life were and what you are doing now in life. Then read a biography about a girl. Based on that biography, write your own text about a person of your choice.
78	9 Body talk	70	Listening	Match countries to speakers while listening to a radio programme about different cultures and answer open comprehension questions.
79	11 Ready for reading	86	Grammar	Identify reflexive pronouns in different book titles like "The Man Who Spoke to Himself"
80	12 A school mag	97	Vocabulary	Complete a poem about the weekend with appropriate words from a box.

Appendix D: Coursebook Analysis & Adaptation (Completed Analysis Grid)

More! 1 Student's Book (2023)						
#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
1	Listening, Vocabulary	Closed	Sequencing, Matching	English only	Task-internal	Before or while completing the task, learners can look up the phrases or specific words from the speech bubbles in an online dictionary in a language of their choice.
2	Grammar	Closed	Gap-fill with visual cue	Visually cued	Task-internal	Before or while doing the task, students may use an online dictionary to look up the prepositions provided (e.g., <i>in, on, under, behind, next to</i>) in a language of their choice. This supports comprehension and allows learners to match the visual cues more easily while building cross-linguistic associations.
3	Speaking, Grammar	Closed	Speaking prompt (dialogue with visual support)	English only	Task-external	Before the activity, the teacher briefly explains the sentence structure <i>I have got / I haven't got</i> and gives examples in other classroom languages to support comprehension and reduce confusion (e.g., German <i>Ich habe / Ich habe nicht</i> , Turkish <i>var / yok</i> , Bosnian <i>imam / nemam</i> etc.). Learners can then take a moment to write down the two structures along with their preferred translations down for reference. This supports early oral production by strengthening their conceptual understanding of possession structures across languages.
4	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	Visually cued	Task-external	Students first do the task in which emotions are introduced with the help of pictures, which is already more accessible and inclusive than German-only translations. After the task, the teacher can draw attention to cognates like “nervous” (<i>nerveux, nervos, nervozan, nervózni, nervioso</i> etc.). The class then creates multilingual classroom emotion cards: Each emotion word is paired with a drawing or emoji and translated into learners' known languages. Students can provide translations in any language they speak, and the teacher can check/help with the help of AI tools. The cards remain visible for future reference and support vocabulary retention. At the same time, they increase the visibility and appreciation of different languages in the classroom, which can be particularly beneficial for learners' confidence and sets a visible sign that all languages are welcome and valued in this learning space.
5	Listening	Closed	Gap-fill	English only	Task-internal	Due to the high similarity of instrument names across languages (e.g. guitar, saxophone, trumpet and others sound very similar in German, Turkish, Czech, Hungarian, Bosnian, Romanian, Kurdish, etc.), the teacher briefly draws attention to these cognates in the task. This encourages students to confidently activate their background knowledge while listening, without second-guessing whether such cross-linguistic transfer is valid, which is especially helpful for learners still new to foreign language learning.
6	Vocabulary, Reading	Closed	Matching, Mixed comprehension task (T/F, MC, short answer)	English only	Task-internal	Before reading, students briefly translate key action verbs from the task (e.g. “jump,” “smile,” “climb”) into their strongest languages to support vocabulary access. After the first reading, pairs quickly retell the main events in their shared L1 to ensure understanding, then complete the comprehension tasks. Key action verbs can be added to a class word wall with translations in several L1s.
7	Pronunciation	Closed	Listen-and-repeat	English only	Task-external	Before the pronunciation chant, the teacher draws attention to the /tʃ/ sound by introducing the translation for “tea” (=çay, çaj, ...) across multiple learner languages as most of them (Turk-

						ish, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Czech, Slovak, Romanian, Kurdish, Pashto, many Arabic dialects etc.) start with this sound. For German, <i>Tschüss</i> can be used as an example. This cross-linguistic comparison reinforces the phoneme's familiarity, validates learners' linguistic repertoires, and creates a meaningful anchor for practicing the English /tʃ/ sound.
8	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	Visually cued	Task-external	Permit learners to label time expressions in any known language before matching them to the clocks and repeating the phrases in English. To support metalinguistic reflection, the teacher briefly contrasts how time is structured across languages. While <i>half past eight</i> in English corresponds conceptually to " <i>eight and a half</i> " (as used in Romanian or Kurdish/Farsi), many Central and Eastern European languages (e.g. German, Polish, Czech, Slovak) express this same time as " <i>half to nine</i> ." Making these differences explicit can prevent confusion and encourage learners to draw on their existing linguistic knowledge with greater awareness. If relevant, the German "dreiviertel zehn" for 9:45 (same in Czech/Slovak) could also be explicitly clarified and quickly compared to English and other languages (most languages follow the same pattern as English in this case).
9	Speaking	Semi-open	Speaking prompt (dialogue)	English only	Task-internal	Allow personal planning in any language (notes, mind maps); sentence starters can include multilingual support. Sharing is in English, but learners can draw on diverse linguistic resources in prep phase.
10	Writing	Semi-open	Sentence reordering, Writing prompt (guided)	English only	Task-internal	To scaffold the email writing process, learners first brainstorm useful words or phrases in their L1 (e.g. "party," "thank you," "music," "cupcake") and match them with English equivalents. Students may also draft initial ideas or phrases in their strongest language, then co-construct English sentences in multilingual pairs or groups. A class word bank with common party-related expressions (in English + L1s) could support the final writing task.

More! 1 Workbook (2023)

#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
11	Grammar, Vocabulary	Closed	Gap-fill	English-German (instructions)	Task-external	Before writing the English plural forms, students briefly compare how plural formation works in their strongest languages (e.g. -s in German or Spanish, but very different rules in most other languages, e.g. internal vowel changes in Arabic, different suffixes in Turkish, Kurdish, Czech etc.). They can give one or two examples from their L1s and identify whether plurals are formed with suffixes, changes inside the word, or not marked at all (e.g. Chinese, Thai). This quick reflection helps consolidate their understanding of plural patterns in English by contrasting them with familiar systems.
12	Writing, Grammar	Open	Sentence writing prompt	English-German (instructions)	Task-external	Before writing, the teacher highlights how learners may transfer structures like <i>es gibt</i> from German, leading to incorrect phrases like <i>it gives</i> instead of <i>there is / there are</i> . Students are then invited to reflect on how existence is expressed in other languages they know. The teacher explicitly repeats and clarifies that <i>there is / there are</i> must be learned and used as fixed English structures. The cross-linguistic comparison serves mainly to prevent inaccurate word-for-word translation and aid in memorization and retrieval.
13	Reading, Writing	Semi-open	Matching,	English-German (instructions)	Task-internal	Students first complete Task A by matching and coloring the portraits using the correct colors. For Task B, they are allowed to use an online dictionary in any of their strongest languages to

			Sentence writing prompt			support the creation of an accurate English description of a friend. This encourages independent strategy use and draws on their full linguistic repertoires while keeping English as the output.
14	Vocabulary, Spelling	Closed	Gap-fill	English only	Task-external	Before starting, students can brainstorm instrument names they already know in any language and share them with a partner. The idea is not to translate but to activate prior knowledge. This primes them for recognizing partial words (e.g., saxop__) due to the similarity of instrument names across languages.
15	Listening	Closed	Comprehension task (T/F)	English only	Task-internal	Allow pre-listening prediction and clarification questions in L1 (peer-supported, if shared) to prepare for listening. After the task, learners can retell the key information from the recording in their L1 before it is summarized in English in the plenary.
16	Writing	Open	Writing prompt (guided)	English only	Task-internal	Before writing, students first reflect on the meaning of the verbs provided in the word bank. If they share a language, they may discuss the meanings and brainstorm together in that language. If not, they can individually sketch the story orally in their L1 and think about how to use the verbs in context. This prewriting step helps them generate ideas fluently and structure their story logically. The final written product is composed in English, but this approach lowers the language barrier and encourages creative output and optimal structure.
17	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	Visually cued	Task-internal	The use of pictures naturally prompts learners to recall the clothing items in their strongest language(s), activating prior knowledge. If needed, students can be encouraged to briefly note down translations in any language next to the pictures before or while completing the English vocabulary task.
18	Grammar	Closed, Semi-open	Gap-fill	English only	Task-external	Students are likely to struggle with items like <i>jeans</i> and <i>scissors</i> , which are grammatically plural in English but conceptually singular. A short comparison with students' strongest languages can clarify that such nouns are not always plural elsewhere. This helps prevent incorrect transfer and supports structural awareness without extra workload.
19	Vocabulary	Closed	Word recognition, Sequencing	English-German (implicit assumption)	Task-external	Assuming a German L1, this task may be completed intuitively and without much explanation, as German and English month names are nearly identical. However, it is crucial for the teacher to remain sensitive to learners from other linguistic backgrounds, for whom this task may be less accessible. For instance, Czech uses <i>únor</i> for February, a potential false friend that might be mistaken for January, and other Czech, Turkish, Kurdish, or Pashto month names show little resemblance to English. To support these learners, the teacher prepares language-specific reference sheets (e.g., English–Czech, English–Turkish), each visually pairing English month names with equivalents in the respective language and seasonal imagery. These are not handed out by default but made available upon request, giving learners the option to access targeted support in their strongest language (particularly valuable for those who may not yet have a strong command of German).
20	Writing, Grammar	Semi-open	Sequencing	Visually cued	Task-internal	Students complete the story in English using past tense verbs. As pre-task scaffolding, allow them to sequence the story using L1 as meta-language or discuss the pictures with a partner using their full linguistic repertoires.

More! 2 Student's Book (2024)

#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
21	Listening, Speaking	Closed	Gap-fill, Speaking prompt (dialogue)	English only	Task-external	Before the pair work, students are encouraged to briefly compare how school subjects are named in their home languages. This can be done informally by jotting down subject names (e.g. maths, science, history) in a column next to their equivalents in Turkish, Arabic, Hungarian, Bosnian, etc. Many subject names are cognates or show strong similarities (e.g. matematik, matematika, matematik – similar with geography, biology, history etc.), which can support understanding and retention. This short comparison reinforces confidence in using known words and may help clarify pronunciation or meaning where words differ. Learners can then proceed with the English-speaking activity with a stronger lexical base. The use of shared L1s is encouraged during preparation but the task is completed in English.
22	Reading, Grammar	Closed	Matching	English only	Task-external	Before reading the text, students are invited to brainstorm online safety tips they already know. They may briefly discuss this in shared language pairs. This allows all learners to activate prior knowledge without language barriers and creates a meaningful connection between their existing understanding and the upcoming English text.
23	Speaking	Open	Speaking prompt (dialogue)	English only	Task-internal	After reading a fictional Halloween story with an open end (in which a girl from the 19th century appears, goes trick-or-treating, and disappears in a haunted house), students work in pairs to invent and tell an ending. They may first discuss and plan their version in any language(s) they feel comfortable with. Students can jot down keywords in their L1, use a bilingual dictionary or translation app to bridge gaps, and incorporate a few words or phrases in other languages into their spoken English version (e.g., the girl's final words in Spanish, Arabic, etc.). English is used for the final storytelling output.
24	Speaking, Group Work	Semi-open	Speaking prompt (group discussion)	English only	Task-internal	Students conduct the group discussion in English using the provided phrases. They may first prepare by noting down reasons or arguments in their preferred language(s). Pairs can pre-discuss ideas in their L1 before sharing them in English. Phrases from the language box can be quickly translated with a peer or using digital tools. A multilingual support sheet with common argument starters in several classroom languages along with the English pendants can be optionally made available to scaffold discussion and to serve as a reference sheet for future discussions.
25	Vocabulary, Listening	Closed	Matching	Visually cued	Task-internal Task-external	Invite students to label the pictures in other known languages before/while/after completing the English matching. They can create a multilingual display or glossary to reinforce vocabulary across languages.
26	Writing	Open	Matching, Guided writing prompt	English only	Task-internal	Allow planning and drafting in students' other known languages, especially in brainstorming ideas for youth camps. Optionally, let students annotate or comment on a peer's draft using L1 as metalanguage to offer feedback before the final version is written in English.
27	Grammar	Closed	Listen-and-repeat	English only	Task-external	After listening to the chant, the teacher briefly explains the grammatical structure and function of the "going to" future. If there are students with a French or Spanish L1 in the classroom, the parallel to <i>je vais...</i> and <i>voy a...</i> can be drawn. Most other classroom languages (e.g., German, Turkish, Czech, Kurdish, Bosnian, Arabic) use one general future form for all future meanings, which can be highlighted by students translating a line from the chant into another

						known language. This crosslinguistic insight helps learners become more aware of the distinction between “going to” and “will” in English, and may prevent incorrect transfer/overgeneralization from their L1.
28	Pronunciation	Closed	Multiple choice	English only	Not meaningfully adaptable	Due to the complexity and uniqueness of the /t/, /d/, /ɪd/ distinction, integrating other languages may risk adding confusion. Instead, the teacher focuses on English-only pronunciation input, keeping the task simple and consistent. A translanguaging-sensitive approach here means recognizing when not to activate multilingual strategies and instead supporting learners through clear examples, gestures, or visual cues. Students can use their shared L1s as metalanguage during the activity to clarify, compare solutions or explain the distinction to each other.
29	Vocabulary, Listening	Semi-open	Matching	Visually cued	Task-internal	Learners begin by matching words to images, which provides visual scaffolding and naturally activates prior knowledge, often accessed through their strongest language. After completing the task, they are encouraged to identify cognates or crosslinguistic similarities between English and their L1 (e.g., <i>banana</i> / <i>banane</i> / <i>banán</i> , <i>potato</i> / <i>patate</i> / <i>patatesi</i>). On request, the teacher can offer multilingual food glossaries to support vocabulary retention. The semantic categorization into <i>fruit</i> , <i>vegetables</i> , <i>meat</i> , and <i>desserts</i> automatically activates pre-existing conceptual knowledge and further reinforces connections between known and new items, integrating English words into learners' broader linguistic repertoires.
30	Listening	Closed	Sequencing	Visually cued	Task-internal	Students begin by completing the listening task, using visual cues to number the pictures in order. To reinforce and deepen comprehension, learners are first grouped according to shared L1s (where possible) and briefly retell what happened in the pictures using their strongest languages (including mixed use of English, German, or other L1s = natural translanguaging that allows for maximum flexibility and meaning-making). They are then repaired with peers who do not share their L1 and collaboratively construct an English retelling of each scene.

More! 2 Workbook (2024)

#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
31	Grammar	Closed	Word recognition, Grammar transformation	English only	Task-internal	Draw attention to the fact that the past simple in English, like in nearly all classroom languages, is typically a single, inflected verb form (e.g. “sit / sat,” “take / took”). As students hunt for base verbs in the word-snake and write their past forms, invite them to select 2–3 of those verbs and compare present vs. past forms in both English and their L1 with a shared-L1 peer if possible (e.g. German “gehen / ging,” Turkish “oturmak / oturdu”). This in-task comparison highlights the one-word past-simple pattern in English, reinforces cross-linguistic awareness, and anchors the new form and its function in learners' existing repertoires.
32	Grammar	Closed	Multiple Choice	English only	Task-internal	Students can quickly translate the question words where, why and who into their preferred language if necessary. Drawing attention to false friends such as “where – Wer” or “who – Wo” may be helpful.
33	Writing	Open	Guided writing prompt	English only	Task-internal	Allow students to plan both the invitation and the picture story in their home languages first. For the invitation, encourage brainstorming about traditional party customs or dress-up ideas

						from their own cultures, possibly even incorporating multilingual phrases (e.g. greetings or costumes) into the draft. For the story, students can retell the comic in their L1 to organize narrative flow before translating it into English. Invite them to compare Halloween to similar or contrasting festivals in their own cultures through peer discussion. Final output should be in English, but translanguaging supports idea development and narrative structure.
34	Listening	Closed	Matching, Comprehension task (T/F)	English only	Task-internal	Before listening, allow students to predict the story content in an L1 using the visual prompts. Afterwards, they complete the T/F questions and summarize the story in English in the plenary.
35	Speaking	Semi-open	Speaking prompt (dialogue, role play)	English only	Task-internal	Let students plan their time travel dialogue collaboratively in mixed-language pairs or groups. They may brainstorm ideas in their home languages first (e.g., destinations, objects to bring back, historical figures). Encourage use of bilingual planning tools. Before performing, students must prepare their full dialogue in English. Optionally, they can incorporate one culturally significant word or concept from their L1 (e.g., a proverb, dish, or historical object) with an English explanation. This honors linguistic identity while ensuring that the final product remains fully in English.
36	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	Visually cued	Task-external	Before beginning the coursebook task, students create their own family tree at home—using a teacher-provided example (e.g., a well-known cartoon family) as a model and with parental assistance. In class, they label the basic kinship terms in English on the coursebook diagram. Next, learners work in shared-L1 groups to translate additional relatives from their personal trees (e.g., sister-in-law, great-grandparent) using an online dictionary. During this phase, the teacher circulates to provide English explanations as needed (e.g., “That’s the wife of my brother”). Finally, students pair with someone who does not share their L1 and present their family trees using the newly acquired English vocabulary.
37	Grammar	Closed	Matching	English only	Task-external	After matching the questions and answers in English, students explore how “Who” is used grammatically in their other known languages. Guide a short discussion or comparison (written or oral) on how “Who” questions take the third person singular verb form in English, even when referring to multiple people. Students compare this rule to their home languages, noticing similarities. Then, they create two “Who ...?” questions in English, optionally based on figures from their L1 cultures. Final output remains in English, but metalinguistic reflection strengthens both form and awareness.
38	Reading	Closed	Mixed comprehension task (MC, T/F)	English only	Not meaningfully adaptable	While reading, students may optionally use L1 as meta-language with a peer to clarify meaning. As the text is short, simple and includes a helpful visual, further adaptation is not necessary.
39	Language in Context	Closed	Matching	English only	Task-external	After completing the matching task in English, guide students in comparing how the present perfect is formed and used in their home languages. In shared L1 pairs or small groups, they analyze one or two of the “Have you ever...?” questions and translate them into their L1s, noting whether the same tense exists and how time is expressed. They then return to English to write two original “Have you ever...?” questions and answers, using correct structure and vocabulary. This strengthens metalinguistic awareness while keeping output in English.
40	Listening	Closed	Comprehension task (short answers)	English only	Task-external	After answering the comprehension questions in English, students work individually or in small groups to orally summarize the key takeaways from the interview in their home languages. The key points are then summarized in the plenary in English.

More! 3 Student's Book (2024)

#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
41	Listening, Speaking	Semi-open	Speaking prompt (dialogue with audio impulse)	English only	Task-internal, Task-external (optionally)	After listening, students briefly note one or two opinion words or phrases in their home language that describe each performer (privately or with a peer). Then they choose appropriate English sentence stems from the task box to express the same opinion. This builds a quick bridge between emotional response in the L1 and English output, without requiring extended home language discussion. Optionally, create a multilingual wall chart with equivalents of common evaluative phrases (e.g., “great voice,” “not confident”) to support future speaking tasks.
42	Listening, Viewing, Speaking	Semi-open	Comprehension task (T/F, oral summary) with video input	English only	Task-external	After watching the video and completing the T/F task in English, students can jot down a few keywords or short notes in their home languages to help recall the stories. This supports memory and narrative sequencing. Then, in pairs, they retell the stories in English, using those notes only as a cognitive scaffold. Encourage them to include one or two culturally relevant coincidences from their own lives if time allows, but they present them in English. As a homework extension, students ask a parent or caregiver (in their home language) about a real-life coincidence they've experienced. In the next lesson, students retell the story in English, comparing it to those in the video. This honors home experiences and linguistic resources while reinforcing narrative skills in English.
43	Reading	Semi-open	Comprehension task (short answers)	English only	Task-external	After completing the gap-fill task in English, students retell the trip briefly in their home languages to consolidate the narrative (this can be done as a quick oral summary). Then, they write a short paragraph in English about their own best trip ever, using 2-3 sentence starters or expressions from the original text. Optionally, they may brainstorm ideas for their own text in their L1, especially if they're describing culturally specific experiences.
44	Pronunciation	Closed	Matching, Listen-and-repeat	English only	Task-external	After sorting and repeating the words in English, highlight two cross-linguistically familiar words: <i>ambulance</i> and <i>fantastic</i> . Ask in the plenary if students know how these words are said in their other known languages, focusing on which syllable sounds strongest. Then, model the English pronunciation and compare the stress pattern to make students aware of differing stress pattern in cognates across languages.
45	Reading, Speaking	Semi-open	Speaking prompt (discussion with cultural input)	English only	Task-external	As pre-task homework, students ask their parents or caregivers about a common superstition they grew up with (in their L1). They prepare a short summary of the superstition in English to bring to class. In the lesson, after reading the English superstitions, students share what they learned at home and compare similarities or differences. Then they continue with the True/False guessing task and discussion, using the speech bubble prompts in English. This sequence encourages multilingual knowledge activation while keeping all classroom interaction in English.
46	Speaking	Semi-open	Speaking prompt (discussion)	English only	Task-external	After discussing whether the different ways of earning money presented in the task are ethical, the teacher can introduce the following scenario: <i>“Imagine a young refugee named Ahmed. He came to Austria with his family and got a job in a restaurant. The owner promised to pay him fairly, but when Ahmed gets his paycheck, he finds that he's been paid much less than promised. Ahmed is afraid to say anything because he's new to the country, doesn't speak German well,</i>

						and doesn't want to lose his job. The restaurant owner is taking advantage of Ahmed's situation because he knows Ahmed doesn't have many options." Given the sensitivity and complexity of this issue, students reflect in their home languages: "How might Ahmed feel about his job? Is it fair for him to be paid less than promised?" Reflecting in their L1 first helps reduce cognitive overload and enables students to process complex ethical concepts more effectively. Once they've developed their ideas, students translate their reflections into English, ensuring deeper perspectives in the final English discussion. Finally, in the whole-class discussion, students express their thoughts in English about whether Ahmed's situation is exploitative, and whether it mirrors any of the money-making scenarios from the task. This type of task allows for multilingual reflection and ties in well with the ideological dimension of translanguageing that should foster critical thinking, openness and social justice.
47	Reading, Vocabulary	Closed	Multiple Choice, Matching	English only	Task-external	After completing the task, students search for newspaper articles about other famous people (from their home countries or any language they know) online and bring them to class. They then retell interesting stories about famous people in English. They can compare cultural aspects (e.g., how the person is viewed in different countries) and reflect on what famous people might have in common across cultures.
48	Pronunciation	Closed	Listen-and-repeat	English only	Task-external	After listening to the /p/ sound in the task, the teacher presents minimal pairs of /p/ vs. /b/ sounds, such as "big/pig", "buy/pie", "bay/pay". Along with these English pairs, the teacher provides similar minimal pairs in languages spoken by students in the class (e.g., German: "Grube" vs. "Gruppe", Bosnian: "biti" (to be) vs. "piti" (to drink), Romanian: "bani" (money) vs. "pani" (bread), Turkish: "bal" (honey) vs. "pal" (coat), Arabic (Lebanese & Egyptian dialects): "banka" (bank) vs. "panka" (pancake)). Students are asked if they recognize these words, what language they are from (aiming at language awareness and intercomprehension skills), and if anyone knows how they are pronounced in those languages. The issue of the /p/ sound not existing in certain Arabic dialects can be discussed, if relevant, based on the specific group's linguistic background. Students can practice pronouncing the minimal pairs first in their other known languages and then in English, focusing on the difference between the /p/ and /b/ sounds. Finally, they practice the /p/ sound in isolation by doing the original task in the book.
49	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	English only	Task-internal	Either before or after completing the vocabulary matching task, students are asked if they recognize any vocabulary similar to words from other known languages (e.g. "rucksack" = German "Rucksack" and Romanian "rucsac"; "canyon" = Spanish "cañón", Bosnian "kanjon", Turkish "kanyon"; "office" = Romanian "oficiu", Turkish "ofis" etc. They reflect on and share the cognates they recognize, helping to reinforce understanding of the vocabulary and connecting multilingual knowledge to English.
50	Listening	Closed	Multiple Choice	English only	Task-internal	After listening to Carla and Derek's conversation, students are asked to summarize the dilemmas mentioned in the discussion. They first use their L1 to ensure understanding and clarify any misunderstandings with their partner. This allows them to process the content in their home language, which helps reduce cognitive overload and ensures that they fully grasp the ethical issues. Then, students transition to English for a final plenary summary where they share their understanding of the dilemmas and their opinions in English.

More! 3 Workbook (2024)

#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
51	Reading	Closed	Mixed comprehension task (T/F, MC, short answer)	English only	Task-external	After completing the task in English, students work together and summarize the story in a shared L1, focusing on the dilemma and solution. They can collaboratively retell the story's conflict and resolution in that language. Afterwards, each group constructs a short "band diary" entry in English, reflecting the key points of the story from one band member's perspective. This reflection could begin with an L1 brainstorming phase to clarify roles, feelings, and sequence of events, followed by written output in English. This approach deepens comprehension through L1-supported processing while reinforcing English narrative skills.
52	Grammar	Closed	Sentence writing prompt (with visual support)	English only	Task-external	In same-L1 pairs, students translate one or two sample sentences from the task into their strongest language and verify accuracy using an AI tool. Next, they compare how the present continuous is formed and used in English versus their L1, summarizing key differences either orally or with a quick visual chart. The teacher, having prepared by researching the formation of the present continuous across different classroom languages (e.g., German uses context or constructions like „war gerade dabei ... zu tun“, Turkish uses the -yor suffix), circulates to confirm students' observations and guide them toward conclusions about the English tense's function. This cross-linguistic analysis deepens learners' grasp of the present continuous by showing its equivalents across their repertoires.
53	Writing	Semi-open	Guided writing prompt	English only	Task-internal	Before writing the email in English, students discuss a book they enjoyed in pairs or small groups, using any language(s) they prefer. They can talk about where they found the book, why they liked it, and whether it's available in their home language. If they share an L1, they can briefly retell the story or key themes in that language to help each other express their ideas and pre-structure their later written English output. Afterwards, students individually draft their email in English, using the model and useful language provided. This allows them to draw on their linguistic and cultural resources during the planning phase, while keeping the written output in English.
54	Language in Context	Closed	Matching	English only	Not meaningfully adaptable	While working on the dialogue gap-fill, students may briefly discuss unfamiliar words or contextual cues in their L1 with a peer if needed (e.g. to clarify meaning before listening or selecting answers).
55	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	English only	Task-external	After completing the vocabulary matching task, the teacher introduces the concept of superstitions related to good and bad luck across cultures. Examples (in English) may include: knocking on wood, black cats, breaking mirrors, or wearing lucky charms. Students are invited to briefly share (if necessary, in any language and translate into English with peer support for the teacher to understand) what brings good or bad luck in different culture(s). These contributions can be shared orally and, where applicable, the teacher can show visuals through a quick online image search, while helping with translation or paraphrasing into English. This activates background knowledge and cultural connection, deepening the understanding of "luck" vocabulary and creating opportunities for meaningful English input & output.

56	Language in Context	Closed	Matching Gap-fill	English only	Task-external	Before completing the dialogue task, students reflect on how sympathy is expressed in their home languages or cultures, e.g., what do people say when someone is sick, tired, or in pain? Are there typical phrases, tone differences, or gestures? Students may briefly share examples in their L1s (spoken or written), and the teacher collects English paraphrases on the board (e.g. “Poor you!”, “That’s awful!”, “I hope you feel better soon!”). This creates a multilingual frame of reference for understanding sympathy as a communicative act. Afterwards, students complete both exercises entirely in English and practice reading one short dialogue aloud, focusing on intonation and emotional expression.
57	Grammar	Closed	Matching Grammar transformation	English only	Task-external	Before completing the grammar gap-fill, the teacher introduces the present perfect by asking students what they already know about it, both in English and in their other known languages. In small shared L1 groups, students discuss (in any language), “Does this language have something like have/has + past participle?” (make sure students understand what the grammatical terms mean using simple language and examples) and “How would this language express something that just happened or still matters now?” This helps clarify the function of the tense beyond its label. Students often confuse tense names (e.g. present perfect, past simple) or mix up their functions, so connecting the tense’s meaning to other known languages can create a clearer mental map. This contrastive moment supports retrieval and long-term understanding, often leading to an “Aha!” effect. Students then complete the English task, applying their insight through target-language output.
58	Writing	Semi-open	Sentence writing prompt	English only	Task-external	Before students draw or write, the teacher asks them to think of rules or prohibitions they’ve seen on signs in their home languages or cultures (e.g. <i>No shoes inside</i> , <i>Don’t slam the door</i> , <i>Do not pray here</i> , <i>No boys allowed!</i>). Students may briefly share these examples in their L1, and the teacher helps paraphrase them in English. Then students complete the task in English by drawing two “no” signs and writing a sentence under each one. Alternatively, they could translate or adapt the signs they have seen in different languages into English.
59	Listening	Closed	Sequencing	English only	Task-internal	After the first listening, students are encouraged to discuss what they understood with a partner, using their L1 if needed, to clarify key events or unfamiliar vocabulary. This processing phase helps build a coherent mental timeline of the story. After discussing, students sequence the events in English and listen again to check.
60	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	English only	Task-external	Before completing the grid, the teacher introduces the idea of collocations and gives a few examples, such as <i>make a reservation</i> or <i>take a photo</i> . Students are asked, “How would you say this in other languages? Do you also ‘make’ a reservation, ‘take’ a photo, or do you use a different verb?” Students briefly compare examples in their other known languages in pairs or small groups, noticing that common word combinations in English often differ from other languages, but that there are also similarities. This primes them to complete the grid in English with greater attention to form. If needed, they can note down the translation of the verbs in the left column in any language they wish (online dictionary) to help them identify the correct word combinations.

More! 4 Student's Book (2018)

#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners' Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
61	Vocabulary	Closed	Translation	English-German	Task-internal	Instead of asking only for the German translations, students are invited to translate or explain each vocabulary item (e.g. capital, official language, member of the EU) in any language(s) they know. This can be done individually, in pairs, or small groups. If helpful, the class can create a word list with translations into more than one language (e.g. German, Arabic, Turkish, Romanian). All further use of the words (e.g. in writing or speaking tasks) remains in English, but students can use the L1-annotated task or the multilingual word list for future reference.
62	Pronunciation	Closed	Listen-and-repeat	English only	Task-external	After the first listening, the teacher introduces the schwa /ə/ as the most common vowel sound in English: a weak, unstressed sound often heard in words like <i>a</i> , <i>the</i> etc.. To build awareness, students are asked, "How would you say the word <i>secretary</i> in other languages you know?" They briefly share or think about how this word (or a similar one) is pronounced in their other known languages. The teacher models the English version (/ˈsek.rətri/) and contrasts it with more fully pronounced versions of the cognate in other languages to draw students' attention to typical English stress and vowel weakening and increase awareness of this phonological phenomenon. All further practice of the schwa sound is focused on English only listen-and-repeat examples.
63	Speaking	Semi-open	Speaking prompt (dialogue)	English only	Task-internal	Before the speaking task, the teacher invites students to think about common foods eaten in their family, including culturally specific dishes, breakfast routines, or dietary habits. Students may jot down key food items in their L1s first, and the teacher helps them find the English equivalents if needed. This ensures that learners can meaningfully talk about their lived experiences in English. During the speaking phase, all output remains in English, but the multilingual planning phase supports expression, builds vocabulary, and validates cultural diversity.
64	Reading, Vocabulary	Semi-open	Matching Comprehension task (open)	English only	Task-external	Before reading, the teacher introduces the key vocabulary (e.g. relate to, donation, community, hero/heroine) and invites students to discuss their meaning in any language(s) they know, either in small groups or using dictionaries. Students are encouraged to think about whether these words exist in their L1 and how they are used. After reading the text and completing the vocabulary and comprehension tasks in English, the teacher opens a short reflective discussion about representation. Students may be asked, "Have you ever read a book or seen a film where someone looked like you, spoke like you, or had a background similar to yours? How did it feel?" – This question should remain neutral and not single out students as being 'different' or 'special' due to their cultural background because it is about identification in general and 'background' in this question can refer to many aspects of life. The teacher could also ask, "What kind of books would you like to see more of in English class?" The discussion can be extended from personal identification to broader representation of culturally marginalized groups. If needed, students can discuss ideas in L1 first, then share their thoughts in English. This adds a powerful translanguaging dimension while reinforcing both language development and critical engagement with diversity.
65	Writing	Semi-open	Writing prompt (guided)	English only	Task-external	As a pre-task, the teacher asks students to research an animal of their choice using any language except English and to bring a short summary or printout in that language to class. In

						the lesson, students are provided with a visual vocabulary map showing pictures or drawings of relevant animal-related terms (e.g. fur, claws, insects, shy, dangerous). This supports learners in transferring ideas into English and scaffolds lexical choices during the writing phase. Visual aids are especially helpful for students who struggle with the typical German–English vocabulary lists found in the More! books, as they offer a more inclusive and accessible alternative. Students then write a short descriptive text in English (50–70 words), drawing from both their research and the visual support. Final output remains fully in English, while the multilingual and multimodal pre-task enhances understanding and engagement.
66	Listening	Closed	Mixed comprehension task (image selection, gap-fill)	English only	Task-internal	After the first listening, students are given a short moment to retell the story to a partner using any language they share. This helps them clarify what they understood, fill in missing parts, and reinforce narrative sequencing. The teacher then plays the audio a second time, and students complete the English tasks (gap-fill and picture selection). This brief multilingual retelling phase strengthens comprehension without reducing English exposure.
67	Reading	Closed	Matching	English only	Task-external	Before reading, the teacher invites students to share gestures or hand signs they have seen or heard of from different cultures. Students talk in their shared L1s in small groups, then report back in English (with support if needed). This helps them activate background knowledge and become curious about the input. After this short discussion, students complete the matching and gap-fill tasks fully in English. The teacher may also prompt a post-task reflection: “Did anything surprise you? Does this remind you of something in another country?” This task supports intercultural competence while encouraging learners to draw on their multilingual and multicultural experiences. It is essential to make it clear that students are not expected to “represent” a certain culture and not to use expressions like “in <i>your</i> culture” etc.)
68	Writing	Open	Writing prompt (guided)	English only	Task-internal	Before writing, students are invited to discuss the topic in pairs or small groups, using any language(s) they wish, including their home languages. They may reflect on what racism means to them, what kinds of unfair treatment they’ve seen or heard about, and what they think people should do. If students prefer, they can jot down ideas or plan in their L1 first. This multilingual reflection phase allows learners to express deeper thoughts and emotions that they may not yet be able to formulate in English first. When writing, students produce their final texts in English, with support from the teacher as needed. Because the topic is emotionally charged and socially complex, scaffolding needs to be safe, optional, and supportive, avoiding pressure to disclose personal experiences.
69	Pronunciation	Closed	Listen and identify stressed syllable	English only	Task-external	After students complete the listening task and mark the stress in English adjectives like <i>impossible</i> , <i>incredible</i> , and <i>disagreeable</i> , the teacher briefly explains that in English, stress is usually not placed at the beginning of longer words. To help learners notice this, the teacher models a few crosslinguistic examples: for instance, <i>imPOSSible</i> in English vs. UN möglich in German. The teacher may also invite students to contribute if they know how to pronounce <i>lehetetlen</i> in Hungarian (which generally follows a similar stress pattern to German) or <i>inanılmaz</i> in Turkish (where the stress typically falls on the final syllable). This short contrastive input raises awareness of how English word stress differs from other languages, without requiring detailed linguistic analysis.
70	Viewing, Listening	Closed	Multiple Choice	English only	Task-external	Before watching the video, the teacher introduces Benjamin Zephaniah as a Jamaican British poet who speaks Jamaican English, and invites students to think about the idea that there

						are many “Englishes” in the world. After viewing, students discuss the poem’s message and the sound of Zephaniah’s voice: Was anything difficult to understand? Did it sound familiar or different? The teacher then connects this to students’ own experiences of speaking or hearing different varieties of English or other languages. No L1 use is required, but multilingual identities are validated, and the diversity of English is affirmed, validating non-standard accents and identities in general.
--	--	--	--	--	--	--

More! 4 Workbook (2018)						
#	Skill Focus	Instructional Format	Task Type	Openness to Learners’ Linguistic Repertoires	Translanguaging Adaptability	Adaptation Strategy
71	Listening	Semi-open	Comprehension task (gap-fill)	English only	Task-external	After completing the listening task and discussing the punchline of the English joke, students are invited to reflect on how humor works in other languages. They are asked to go home and ask a parent or family member to tell them a joke in their home language. They try to translate it into English and bring it to class. In small groups, students share their jokes (in English), then reflect on whether the joke is still funny in translation. Led by the teacher, the class discusses why some jokes work well across languages and others don’t, touching on features like wordplay, irony, and cultural references. This strengthens students’ understanding of humor genres through crosslinguistic comparison while validating their home languages and keeping all classroom interaction in English.
72	Grammar	Closed	Grammar transformation	English only	Task-external	Before completing the task, the teacher briefly explains the function of the past perfect: it’s used to show that one action happened before another past event (e.g. She had left before I arrived). Students are then asked to think about how this idea is expressed in their other known language(s), e.g. do they use a similar tense, a time expression, a different structure? Pairs can compare briefly in L1, then share their insights in English. This helps clarify tense function across languages and makes the structure more memorable. Then, students complete the grammar forms in English.
73	Writing	Semi-open	Writing prompt (guided)	English only	Task-external	Before beginning the writing task, the teacher provides several very short story examples in different classroom languages (e.g., German, Turkish, Bosnian, etc.), each of which includes a surprise element or builds narrative intrigue. Students may choose to engage with the story in the language they feel most comfortable with or compare multiple versions across languages (e.g., German, English, Turkish). Through this guided multilingual exposure, they explore how suspense is created and how narrative expectations are subverted (e.g. by delaying key information, setting up expectations, or reversing what the reader believes). These insights support their story planning and ultimately help them write their own story in English, with a clearer understanding of how to structure surprise and intrigue.
74	Reading	Closed	Comprehension task (T/F)	English only	Task-external	Before the reading task, the teacher provides versions of the same tour grid in several different languages (e.g., French, Spanish, Romanian, German, Turkish), making sure the layout is similar to the English version. In the plenary, students work together to guess what each column and entry means, using contextual cues such as numbers, days of the week, currency

						symbols, and shared cognates. This introduces real-world multilingual literacy strategies, such as intercomprehension and inference based on prior knowledge. After this discussion, students complete the reading comprehension task from the book in English. As a follow-up, students choose one of the multilingual tour grids (in a language they feel confident navigating) and are grouped accordingly to collaboratively translate it into English, applying both their L1 skills and the vocabulary they encountered in the original task. This promotes both crosslinguistic metalinguistic awareness and purposeful English production.
75	Vocabulary, Spelling	Closed	Gap-fill	English only	Task-internal	Before completing the gap-fill task, the teacher draws students' attention to cognates of the words in the task in the classroom languages. To help students remember and spell the job words more easily, the teacher gives a few multilingual examples, such as: <i>cook</i> → <i>Koch</i> (German), <i>kuhar</i> (Bosnian/Croatian), <i>cocinero</i> (Spanish); <i>doctor</i> → <i>doktor</i> (Bosnian, Turkish, German, Romanian); <i>dentist</i> → <i>dentista</i> (Spanish), <i>dentistă</i> (Romanian), <i>dişçi</i> (Turkish); <i>soldier</i> → <i>soldat</i> (German, Romanian, French); <i>farmer</i> → <i>farmer</i> (Romanian), <i>receptionist</i> → <i>receptionistă</i> (Romanian), <i>resepsiyonist</i> (Turkish), <i>repcionista</i> (Spanish).
76	Listening	Closed	Mixed comprehension task (MC, Matching)	English only	Task-internal	After the listening task, students are asked to briefly retell the storyline in pairs using their L1 if helpful, especially for sorting out who said what and why. This collaborative L1 use supports comprehension and helps clarify relationships between characters. In the plenary, the teacher then rephrases the plot summary in English, inviting students to provide key details in English as well. This reinforces narrative comprehension and allows a gradual shift back into the target language while valuing multilingual processing strategies.
77	Writing	Semi-open	Writing prompt (guided)	English only	Task-external	Students are invited to choose a family member or close friend as the subject of their biography. For preparation, they conduct an interview with that person in a home language (or any language they share). Based on this interview, they write the biography in English. This allows learners to access rich content through their full linguistic repertoire while maintaining English as the language of output.
78	Listening	Closed	Mixed comprehension task (Matching, Open)	Partially open (describing specific one-word-greetings from other languages)	Task-external	After the listening task, students are encouraged to share how greetings work in other languages they speak. The teacher collects and compares examples on the board (e.g., <i>selam</i> , <i>namaste</i> , <i>salaam</i> , <i>dobar dan</i> , <i>merhaba</i> , <i>bonjour</i> , etc.), discussing how tone, gesture, and age/context affect usage. This highlights inter-/transcultural awareness and crosslinguistic variation. A brief plenary discussion supports English vocabulary building through comparison and reinforces the value of students' existing language knowledge. Final reflection remains in English.
79	Grammar	Closed	Grammar recognition	English only	Task-external	After completing the task, students select one or two of the titles and translate them into a language they know. In small groups or as a class, they compare whether reflexive structures are preserved (e.g., <i>myself</i> , <i>themselves</i>) or expressed differently in other languages. This builds grammatical awareness and helps learners better understand how reflexives function in English compared to other languages.
80	Vocabulary	Closed	Matching	English only	Not meaningfully adaptable	Before completing the gap-fill poem, students may look up the words from the word box in an online dictionary (in any language they prefer) if needed. This may help them clarify meaning beforehand. However, at this stage, students should already be familiar with the simple words in the box ("time", "nothing", "sport" etc.), so translanguageing-adaptation is not necessary here.

Appendix E: English Abstract

This thesis investigates how translanguaging can be effectively implemented in Austrian lower-secondary English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms through the adaptation of existing coursebook materials. Drawing on Austria's sociolinguistic reality, characterized by increasing superdiversity and the presence of multiple home languages in many classrooms, and grounded in an extensive review of multilingual pedagogies and translanguaging theory, the study positions translanguaging as a pedagogical approach that can bridge the gap between policy acknowledgement of multilingualism and prevailing mono- and diglossic classroom practices. Four research questions guided the inquiry, addressing (1) the sociolinguistic rationale for integrating translanguaging in Austrian EFL education, (2) the extent to which national curricular guidelines enable such practices, (3) viable classroom strategies for superdiverse contexts, and (4) the concrete adaptation of the *More!* coursebook series (Student's Books and Workbooks 1-4).

Methodologically, the study conducted a detailed qualitative analysis of 80 sampled tasks from the *More!* coursebooks, applying a purpose-built analysis grid to evaluate their openness to learners' linguistic repertoires and their adaptability for translanguaging. Findings reveal that while the *More!* series predominantly adheres to a monolingual, target-language immersion paradigm, the majority of sampled tasks (95%) can be internally or externally adapted to support translanguaging without compromising curricular alignment. Adaptation strategies include multilingual pre-task planning, peer-to-peer scaffolding, cross-linguistic comparison, and the use of digital reference tools, all of which are feasible even when teachers and learners do not share the same L1.

The study concludes that strategically integrating learners' full linguistic repertoires can enhance comprehension, foster metalinguistic awareness, and affirm multilingual identities while maintaining high target-language expectations. It emphasizes the need for sustained teacher training to bridge the gap between multilingual classroom realities and instructional practice. Limitations include the focus on a single textbook series and the absence of empirical classroom trials of the proposed adaptations. Future research should investigate translanguaging in superdiverse contexts beyond the frequently studied bilingual settings, examining its long-term effects on language learning, identity construction, and classroom community building.

Appendix F: German Abstract

Diese Masterarbeit befasst sich mit der Frage, wie Translanguaging durch die gezielte Anpassung bestehender Lehrwerke wirksam im Englischunterricht der Sekundarstufe I in Österreich umgesetzt werden kann. Ausgangspunkt ist die zunehmend superdiverse Sprachlandschaft Österreichs, in dessen Klassenräumen zahlreiche Erstsprachen vertreten sind. Auf Grundlage einer umfassenden theoretischen Auseinandersetzung mit mehrsprachigkeitsdidaktischen Ansätzen und der Translanguaging-Theorie wird Translanguaging als pädagogischer Ansatz verstanden, der die Kluft zwischen der bildungspolitischen Anerkennung von Mehrsprachigkeit und den vorherrschenden mono- bzw. diglossischen Unterrichtspraktiken überbrücken kann. Vier Forschungsfragen stehen im Mittelpunkt: (1) die soziolinguistische Begründung für den Einsatz von Translanguaging im österreichischen EFL-Unterricht, (2) der Handlungsspielraum, den der österreichische Lehrplan dafür bietet, (3) geeignete Unterrichtsstrategien für superdiverse Kontexte und (4) die konkrete Anpassung der Lehrwerksreihe *More!* (Student's Books und Workbooks 1–4).

Methodisch basiert die Arbeit auf einer detaillierten qualitativen Analyse von 80 ausgewählten Aufgaben aus den *More!* Schulbüchern. Ein eigens entwickeltes Analyseraster diente dazu, die Offenheit der Aufgaben gegenüber den sprachlichen Ressourcen der Lernenden sowie ihr Potenzial für Translanguaging zu bewerten. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass die Reihe zwar überwiegend auf ein einsprachiges Immersionsmodell setzt, sich jedoch 95 % der analysierten Aufgaben mit überschaubarem Aufwand so anpassen lassen, dass sie die Mehrsprachigkeit der Lernenden nutzen, ohne die Lehrplankonformität zu gefährden. Mögliche Strategien sind mehrsprachige Vorentlastungsphasen, kooperative Aufgabenbearbeitung in verschiedenen Erstsprachen, kontrastive Sprachvergleiche und der Einsatz digitaler Hilfsmittel, die auch dann umsetzbar sind, wenn Lehrkräfte die Erstsprachen der Lernenden nicht beherrschen.

Die Arbeit kommt zu dem Schluss, dass der gezielte Einbezug aller Sprachen der Lernenden das Verständnis fördern, metalinguistisches Bewusstsein stärken und mehrsprachige Identitäten unterstützen kann, ohne das Ziel eines hohen Niveaus in der Zielsprache zu gefährden. Um die Umsetzung nachhaltig zu verankern, ist gezielte Lehrer:innenbildung unerlässlich. Eingeschränkt wird die Aussagekraft der Ergebnisse durch den Fokus auf ein einzelnes Lehrwerk und das Fehlen unterrichtspraktischer Erprobungen. Künftige Studien sollten daher untersuchen, wie Translanguaging in superdiversen Kontexten jenseits der häufig erforschten bilingualen Settings wirkt und welche langfristigen Effekte es auf Sprachlernen, Identitätsentwicklung und Klassengemeinschaft hat.