GLOTTODIDACTICA

GLOTTODIDACTICA

VOLUME L/1

CONTENTS

II. BOOK REVIEWS

III. REPORTS

EDITORIAL

Institutional and family support
for multilingual development

Issue under the auspices of the MaMLiSE project (Majority and Minority Languages in School Environment: Helping teachers, pupils and parents) https://mamlise.amu.edu.pl/

As transnational migration has increased over the course of the 20th century and even more so in the early 21st century, linguistic, religious and cultural diversity has become an important issue of linguistic, cultural and religious discourses in Europe. This can be considered a major change in countries that since the formation of the European nation states in the 19th century have an understanding of identity and unity to a large degree as being distinguished by a national language. While more extensive migration movements and increasing diversity have reached different parts of Europe at different times in the past century, migration has in more recent times become an urgent, and often emergency, issue for many European countries. Meanwhile, EU policies have broadened their scope and not only focus on foreign language learning but include forms of multilingualism connected to migration, such as the maintenance of home and heritage languages (also see Szczepaniak-Kozak et al. 2023).

This development is grounded in an understanding that languages are not only a means of communication and social interaction but also a crucial element in a person's identity (Daase 2017; Masterson 2017). With increasing linguistic diversity and extensive research in the area of multilingualism, there is a recognisable move towards an understanding of languages not as separate units but as fluid and flexible constructs that are interrelated and active in a multilingual speaker's linguistic repertoire (Green 1998; Grosjean 1989, 2001; for an overview also see Ballweg & Havkic 2022). This also includes an understanding of language acquisition not as a process with so-called native-like competencies as a final point but rather as an ongoing process which includes elements of language acquisition, language attrition or loss and domain-specific competencies.

This understanding challenges many education systems which usually have a strong focus on a societal dominant language and are based on a monolingual habitus (Gogolin 1994). In order to increase equity and prepare all pupils for social participation, schools in multilingual societies are required to embrace diversity, include all multilingual speakers with their full linguistic repertoires and move away from puristic and monolingual norms and ideals of so-called native speakers. This process has already started in many European countries, where multilingual approaches to teaching and translanguaging practices are appreciated and tentatively introduced into teaching. Thinking about and attempting to share good evidence based practice may help educators to think creatively about new possibilities, more inclusive approaches, and effective strategies, to move away from mindsets and pedagogies that fail to recognise multilingualism as contributing to transformative and effective teaching and learning for all pupils.

In general, while there have been significant advances in the field of education broadly, there has not been enough attention given to catering for pupils from minority language backgrounds in schools, especially in an era of increased migration of learners in Europe. This special issue of *Glottodidactica* (2023/1) focuses on institutional and family support for the development of multilingual children, adolescents and young adults in school and family environments. As multilingualism in our society and school systems becomes more ubiquitous, educational providers and stakeholders are seeking knowledge and support to manage increasingly diverse learning environments more than ever before. Multilingualism is part of a school's community as well as of our societies as they reflect the social conditions in our countries. Inclusive approaches aim to provide for the well-being and best possible linguistic (or multilingual) and cognitive development of children.

There is a clear message: it is necessary to bring about change in how educators cater for the needs of multilingual pupils and an enhanced understanding of what multilingualism can offer teachers and other educational stakeholders. We want to encourage multilingualism in our schools and communities and, to do this successfully, teachers, pupils and their families need guidance and opportunities to collaborate and work in organic and innovative ways. As the articles in this issue reinforce, although multilingualism is the common thread, there is nonetheless not a singular or universal model for implementing multilingualism.

In this special issue of *Glottodidactica*, some contributions focus on the teachers' beliefs and practices in the context of facilitating the acquisition of the societal dominant language or discuss challenges in doing so and introduce possibilities of language-sensitive teaching.

Angela Farrell, Mary Masterson, and Michelle Daly of the University of Limerick in Ireland report on a qualitative study that was conducted with teachers and school managers in several post-primary state schools in Ireland to explore the current position regarding language-sensitive teaching as an emergent response to the growing reality of linguistic diversity in schools. Their study shows that language-sensitive teaching remains in its infancy in the Irish post-primary educational context with an urgent need for teacher awareness-raising and upskilling in relation to this approach and its implementation in different subject classrooms. The researchers recommend that language support teachers have a central role in developing language-sensitive teaching at the whole school level, but findings from their study demonstrate that this potential remains largely under-exploited in the Irish post-primary educational context.

Joanna Rokita-Jaśkow of the Pedagogical University of Kraków in Poland draws on a larger qualitative study (Rokita-Jaśkow et al. 2022), investigating the factors that impact EFL teachers' agency in the socialisation of multilinguals into new primary school environments in Poland. She reports that teachers' agency appears to stem from their plurilingual competence and prior teaching experience. Surprisingly, teachers' personal experiences of intercultural encounters (e.g. time spent living abroad) or verbalised empathy, had little impact on their agency. This finding implies that even language teachers find it difficult to put themselves in the position of the multilingual learner and need specialist training in order to work with multilingual learners, which may convey an important message for educational decision-makers in reference to the formulation of future teacher education guidelines and curricula.

In their contribution, Aspasia Papasoulioti and Maria Fountana of the Computer Technology Institute & Press "Diophantus" in Greece together with Anna Szczepaniak-Kozak and Sylwia Adamczak-Krysztofowicz of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań discuss the issue of increasing linguistic diversity in Greek and Polish schools and approaches to teaching. The authors discuss education policies and the availability and production of teaching materials in both countries to show that despite vast differences in contextual factors, both countries face many similar challenges. To address these, they give recommendations for teachers to support pupils from migration backgrounds and sources of useful additional materials.

Another group of papers investigates possibilities of introducing multilingualism and more specifically home languages into teaching and learning. These approaches aim to recognise pupils' full linguistic repertoire and their linguistic identity in schools (as, for example, suggested by Gogolin & Lange 2010; Kirsch et al. 2020; Mary & Young 2020).

Martina Irsara of the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano in Italy asks whether and how languages should be treated together in school programmes to cater to a multilingual environment. Findings from her case study conducted in several primary schools in the Italian province of South Tyrol show how multilingualism has become more embedded in language teaching pedagogy. Her study advocates for instructional designs that enhance and support multilingualism and plurilingualism. She observed that incorporating more than one language in lessons could be viable and legitimate at specific points in the curriculum, where multilingual practices complement monolingual strategies in a well-informed and balanced way.

Hadrian Lankiewicz of the University of Gdańsk in Poland in his paper analyses the attitudes of foreign language teachers towards young migrant pupils' mother tongues or heritage languages. This quantitative study explores language teacher beliefs (both of Polish and other foreign languages) regarding the coexistence and the use of other languages in mainstream education settings in foreign language classrooms. The study attempts to compile good practices reported by the sample teachers surveyed. Findings convey teachers' awareness that their teaching reality and recent social changes require a more flexible approach in the language learning classroom. However, only a few of them are going beyond their own educational experience and adapting to the new situation.

The learners are the focus of two further contributions. These show us that a holistic, sociocultural view on multilingualism also includes aspects of identity, culture, including national culture, and social interaction.

Kübra Aksak of Bursa Technical University and Feryal Çubukçu of Dokuz Eylul University in Turkey in their paper explore the cultural intelligence levels of bilinguals and multilinguals in order to investigate the relationship between cultural intelligence on language learning. In this qualitative study, bilingual and multilingual primary school students were selected and administered the cultural intelligence questionnaire to detect whether there is a relationship between these two or not. The results of this case study showed that the multilingual participants in the study had higher scores in cultural intelligence, revealing that those who are open to other cultures and can easily adapt themselves to new patterns of thinking are likely to learn languages with ease.

A qualitative research study on newcomers to the school system is presented in the paper by Andrea Daase of the University of Bremen and Nastassia Rozum and Viktoriia Rubinets of Bielefeld University, both in Germany, argue that learner-oriented approaches to teaching require deep insights into the pupils' perspective. Therefore, they use the case study of a young adult who reflects on her experiences as a migrant coming to Germany in her pre-teen years to explore how reconstructive approaches in research can be used for an in-depth reorientation of the interviewee's perspective. They conclude that all stakeholders in the school system should de-

velop contingency competence, including participation and involvement in different environments, ambiguity tolerance, the ability to create a picture of a coherent self and the acceptance of subjective and consequently varying normalities.

A holistic, learner-centred perspective does not only mean to integrate a learner's languages into the classroom but also to consider linguistic practices and language acquisition in the family. Research in the area of family language policy and also education has shown how interdependent home and school environments are and how the collaboration of families and schools can support children and adolescents (Ballweg 2022; Bezcioglu-Göktolga & Yağmur 2018a, 2018b; Carvalho 2001).

Emilia Wąsikiewicz-Firlej of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań and Michelle Daly of the University of Limerick focus on family language policy in a Polish family in the context of return migration. In their case study, they inquire into the subjective perspectives on language use and language acquisition of a mother and her two daughters. The authors show how the family, who lived in Germany for seven years, took multiple measures to maintain the children's proficiency in their L1 Polish while leaving the responsibility for the majority language German to the education system and the children's peers. Upon their return to Poland, one of the daughters tried to maintain her skills in German while the younger daughter accepted the loss of German and embraced a Polish-only language policy in the family. This in-depth study shows how the parents' lay theories on language acquisition constitute the language policy and indicate the important role of the education system in supporting multilingual children and adolescents and their families in their language policies.

The final two contributions tackle the issue of multilingualism in Higher Education, which for a long time tended to promote the majority language or English as the international language of science. Only slowly is the realisation gaining ground that existing multilingualism should be supported and developed not only in general education but also in tertiary education, as it is of crucial relevance for society, education and the labour market.

Mateusz Furman and Magdalena Aleksandrzak of the Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań (Poland) designed a qualitative study to explore questions about the relationship between English as an academic language education (EAP) in higher education among foreign students in Poland and its influence on shaping or reshaping identities among students who have decided to continue their education outside their native language environment in a multilingual context of a university language department. Findings revealed that their individual identities were impacted greatly by the level of EAP proficiency and are also connected with the students' self-concepts, especially in regard to how they imagine their public selves or, more specifically, their future "career-selves".

Fabienne Baider and Sviatlana Karpava's (both from the University of Cyprus) paper delves into the social and linguistic inclusion of refugee and international students at universities that are members of the network of the YUFE (Young Universities for the Future of Europe). Findings from a survey with administrators, staff members and students at these universities show that international students can draw on many resources and a strong infrastructure, especially based on EU programmes such as Erasmus+, whereas students from a refugee background face more challenges and receive less information and support. Baider and Karpava demand more focused support for the group of students from a refugee background.

We hope that this publication will appear insightful for those who work towards creating better educational opportunities for multilingual children at schools and in the home environment. Fulfilling this wish is the main goal of the MaMLiSE project, which rests on two main positions:

> [f]irstly an acknowledgement of usefulness and centrality of language skills for inclusive education, and secondly, the recognition of the right to use (a) first language(s) as a means of communication and learning and as an expression of linguistic and cultural identity. From this comes a shared appreciation and belief that schools can and should play a vital role in the development of individuals, communities and societies, and in enhancing appreciation and respect in relation to difference, through the implementation of inclusive education" (Szczepaniak-Kozak et al. 2023: 19).

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I. ARTICLES

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Exploring the cultural intelligence levels of bilinguals and multilinguals

Abstract. There have been numerous studies conducted on the importance of multiple intelligence levels of learners and the significance of language learning. By contrast, this study dwells on exploring cultural intelligence, its components and the relationship between cultural intelligence and language learning. To achieve this aim, bilingual and multilingual primary school students were selected and administered a cultural intelligence questionnaire to detect whether or not there is a relationship between these two aspects. The results yield the fact that multilinguals have higher scores in cultural intelligence, showcasing that those who are open to other cultures and can easily adapt to new patterns of thinking are likely to learn languages with ease.

Keywords: Cultural intelligence, primary school students, bilinguals, multilinguals.

1. INTRODUCTION

Cultural Intelligence is seen as a form of intelligence, just like social or emotional intelligence (Brislin, Worthley & Macnab 2006; Crowne 2009; Earley & Ang 2003; Gooden, Creque & Chin-Loy 2017; Kumar, Rose & Subramaniam 2008). Cultural Intelligence is related to people's capabilities across cultures (Ng & Earley 2006; Thomas 2006). Other types of intelligence tend to be involved in a particular aspect in a single cultural context. Cultural intelligence entails the ability to interact effectively with people who are culturally different hence, it is seen as "a specific form of intelligence focused on the ability to grasp, reason, and behave effectively in situations" (Bücker, Furrer & Lin 2015: 5).

Cultural intelligence has four components as stated by Bücker et al. (2015: 6) drawing on the notions by Ang, van Dyne and Koh (2006) and Ang et al. (2007) encompassing "a multidimensional construct with four dimensions: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral". Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence is defined as "the person's cultural consciousness and awareness of cultural cues during interactions with people from other cultural backgrounds and it is the process individuals utilize to understand the cultural knowledge of the local or the target cultures" (Bücker et al. 2015: 6). People with "metacognitive cultural intelligence consciously question their own cultural assumptions, reflect on these assumptions, and then move on to building up skills while interacting with people from other cultures" (Ang & van Dyne 2008: 3).

The second one, Cognitive Cultural Intelligence is regarded as a competence based on "the knowledge of norms, practices, and conventions used in different cultural settings, acquired through education and personal experience" and individuals make use of "the knowledge of the economic, legal, and social systems of different cultures along with the value systems" (Ang & van Dyne 2008: 3).

The third one, Motivational Cultural Intelligence embodies a capability to orient "attention and energy toward acquiring and functioning in situations where cultural differences" materialise and individuals encapsulating high motivational cultural intelligence have "an intrinsic interest in cross-cultural situations" and are successful in forming cross-cultural effectiveness (Ang & van Dyne 2008: 4). A high score on the motivational cultural intelligence dimension also reflects a high level of self-efficacy on behalf of the speakers (Ng & Earley 2006).

Finally, Behavioral Cultural Intelligence refers to the capability to showcase "appropriate verbal and nonverbal behavior" in interactions with people coming from different cultures and individuals embodying high behavioural cultural intelligence have the suitable behavioural pattern in "cross-cultural settings as they demonstrate good verbal and nonverbal communication characteristics" and capabilities (Ang & van Dyne 2008: 4). They also have the capacity to use culturally appropriate words, tones, gestures, and facial expressions at the right time in the right place (Ang et al. 2007).

The relationship between cultural intelligence and language learning seems to be a field drawing the attention of researchers for a long time (Barac & Bialystok 2012; Bialystok 2009, 2010; Goh 2012; Gross & Dewaele 2018; Petrossian 2020; Oxford & Cuellar 2014). The studies yield the result that language learners are likely to be more successful learners if they have high cultural intelligence levels. Hence, this research is designed with the aim to find out whether bilingual or multilingual primary pupils have higher cultural intelligence levels or not.

Bilingualism is defined as the ability to operate on two different languages whereas multilingualism is the use of more than two languages, which are be-

lieved to be connected to cognitive operations (Bialystok, Barac, Blaye & Poulin--Dubois 2010). The effects of bilingualism on cognitivist characteristics and questioning skills have only recently become a topic of research (Bialystok & Martin 2004; Bialystok et al. 2010; Costa, Hernández & Sebastián-Gallés 2008; Mezzacappa 2004). From the beginning, bilingual research has been concerned with the domains of linguistic and metalinguistic performance. This notion highlights an understanding that bilingualism must have an impact on linguistic performance. One of the earliest studies showed that bilingual kids might experience mental confusion compared to monolingual kids (Saer 1923). The later studies maintain that monolingual and bilingual children do not show differences in non-verbal intelligence (Bialystok 1986, 1993, 2001, 2010; Peal & Lambert 1962) which set the stage for finding cognitive benefits of bilingualism or at least for refuting the old hypothesis of the disadvantages of bilingualism. Some studies have showcased that the experience of speaking two languages on a daily basis has consequences for how higher cognitive processes operate and result in more precocious development of attentional abilities. Therefore, multilingualism is taken into account in this study to verify whether individuals knowing more than two languages have higher cultural intelligence levels by addressing the following question: "What are the cultural intelligence levels of bilinguals and multilinguals?".

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Setting and participants

Turkey has been the country holding the largest number of immigrants worldwide since 2010. It is believed that there are more than 10 million refugees mostly from Syria, Iran and Afghanistan living in Turkey. The National Bureau of Immigration of Turkey states that in 2021, 3,688,238 Syrian refugees were offered citizenship status (Turkey Immigration Office Website) with millions waiting for being accepted as citizens. Most of them represent young demographics: the number of those aged between 15–24 is 743,005 and those under 10 years of age total 1,068,293 constituting 28.5% of the Syrians. Since these children were born in Turkey, they could speak and communicate with their counterparts successfully.

30 primary school pupils who are fourth graders aged between nine and ten studying in the south-east of the country participated in the present study voluntarily as the consent forms were obtained from their parents. Especially those cities near the Syrian border have large populations of primary school pupils with a minimum one third or fourth of the class being Syrian children born and raised in Turkey. This study was conducted with 19 bilingual and 11

multilingual learners of English. Bilingual students know Turkish and are in the process of learning English. On the other hand, multilingual students who know Turkish have already acquired either Arabic or Kurdish language as their mother tongues and they are learners of English as the third one. Out of 11 multilingual learners, 8 were Syrian (speaking Syrian as their mother tongue, Turkish with the B2 level and English with the A level proficiency) and 3 were Kurdish (speaking Kurdish as their mother tongue, Turkish with a high level of communicative competence and without accent and English with the A level proficiency).

2.2. Instrument

The main aim of this study was to investigate the correlation between cultural intelligence levels of bilingual and multilingual primary school students, so the data were obtained through "Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)" by Ang et al. (2006: 51) including 4 sub-dimensions which are metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence. When it comes to the reliability coefficient of this scale, it was reported that the reliability scores exceeded 0.70 (metacognitive CQ=0.77, cognitive CQ=0.84, motivational CQ=0.77, behavioural CQ=0.84).

2.3. Procedure

As a first step, all 30 primary school pupils, fourth graders, and their parents were informed about the aim of this study. It was guaranteed that there would be no risk of harm to participants since children are vulnerable to exploitation. It was also ensured that data confidentiality would be maintained. When the consent forms were obtained from the participants, parents and the Ethics Committee approved of the researchers' study on primary school pupils, the cultural intelligence scale was administered to the students during their English class. By creating a comfortable classroom atmosphere, it was aimed that students would answer the items on the scale without any pressure. Each item was explained in detail to the pupils. Furthermore, they were asked to write the languages they know to reveal whether bilingual or multilingual students have a higher level of cultural intelligence.

2.4. Data analysis

The data collected from primary schoolers via the cultural intelligence scale were analysed through Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) pro-

gramme. In this programme, the descriptive statistics showing mean scores and standard deviations of cultural intelligence including cognitive, metacognitive, motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence components were run to discover the cultural intelligence levels of bilingual and multilingual participants. Moreover, bilingual and multilingual participants' cultural intelligence levels were compared through independent samples t-tests to find out whether there is a significant difference between them or not.

3. RESULTS

The descriptive statistics displayed in Table 1 shows that the statement "I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me" is the most popular item marked by bilingual participants with the highest mean score (2.47) representing their motivational cultural intelligence. "I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures" (1.15) falls into the least popular statement marked by bilinguals showing their cognitive cultural intelligence.

On the other hand, "I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it" (2.81) is the most frequently chosen item by multilingual primary school pupils referring to their behavioural cultural intelligence. However, "I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures" (1.45) was found to be the least popular item marked by multilingual learners as seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for cultural intelligence of bilingual and multilingual primary school students

Vocabulary Learning Strategies	Bilingual	Students	Multilingual	Students
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds.	1.42	0.60	2.27	0.64
I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	1.78	0.63	2.36	0.80
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	2.26	0.73	2.36	0.67
I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.	1.78	0.78	2.27	0.78
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	1.15	0.37	1.45	0.68

Vocabulary Learning Strategies	Bilingual	Students	Multilingual	Students
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
I know the rules (e.g. vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	1.21	0.41	1.72	0.46
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	1.42	0.50	1.63	0.50
I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	1.68	0.58	2.00	0.63
I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	1.63	0.76	2.00	0.44
I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.	1.47	0.61	1.90	0.83
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	2.10	0.80	2.72	0.64
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	1.52	0.61	2.18	0.75
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	1.57	0.76	2.36	0.80
I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	2.47	0.69	2.27	0.78
I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.	1.84	0.76	2.27	0.78
I change my verbal behavior (e.g. accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	2.21	0.91	2.63	0.67
I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	2.15	0.68	2.63	0.67
I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	2.26	0.87	2.18	0.75
I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	2.26	0.93	2.63	0.67
I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	1.94	0.84	2.81	0.40

Source: This research drawing on "Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)" by Ang et al. (2006: 51).

After providing the descriptive statistics, the researchers tried to investigate whether bilingual or multilingual primary school students differ in their level of cultural intelligence. In this respect, the mean of overall cultural intelligence levels for bilingual students was found to be 1.81, whereas the mean of overall cultural intelligence levels for multilingual students was found to be 2.23. Hence, multilinguals' cultural intelligence level is higher than that of bilinguals which implies that there is a statistically significant difference between their cultural intelligence levels ($t = 4.11$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) as seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of independent samples *t*-test for cultural intelligence levels of participants

Group	N	X	S	DF	T	P
Bilingual Students	19	1.81	.29	28	4.11	.00
Multilingual Students	11	2.23	.22	0	0	0

*p < .0.05

Source: current study.

As the third inquiry, bilingual and multilingual primary schoolers were compared in terms of their metacognitive cultural intelligence levels and it was detected that there is a statistically significant difference pointing out that multilinguals have a higher level of metacognitive cultural intelligence (t=3.69, $p = 0.01 < 0.05$) as seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Results of independent samples *t*-test for metacognitive cultural intelligence levels of participants

Group	N	X	S	DF	T	P
Bilingual Students	19	1.8	.34	28	3.69	.01
Multilingual Students	11	2.31	.38	0	0	0

*p < .0.05

Source: current study.

Similarly, the comparison between cognitive cultural intelligence levels of bilingual and multilingual students indicated that there is a statistically significant difference between their scores ($t = 3.11$, $p = 0.04 < 0.05$) as seen in Table 4 below. It can be interpreted that multilingual learners have a higher cognitive cultural intelligence level than bilingual participants.

Table 4. Results of independent samples *t*-test for cognitive cultural intelligence levels of participants

Group	N	X	S	DF	T	P
Bilingual Students	19	1.42	.28	28	3.11	.04
Multilingual Students	11	1.78	.33	0	0	0

*p < .0.05

Source: current study.

Nevertheless, it is noteworthy to stress that there was no statistically significant difference between bilingual and multilingual students' levels of motivational cultural intelligence ($t = 2.80$, $p = 0.09 > 0.05$) as shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Results of independent samples *t*-test for motivational cultural intelligence levels of participants

Group	N	X	S	DF	T	P
Bilingual Students	19	1.90	.46	28	2.80	.09
Multilingual Students	11	2.36	.36	0	0	0

*$p < .0.05$

Source: current study.

The findings revealed that bilingual participants' behavioural cultural intelligence level is low when it is compared to that of multilingual participants, implying a statistically significant difference between bilingual and multilingual primary schoolers in relation to behavioural cultural intelligence ($t = 2.21$, $p = 0.03 < 0.05$) as stated in Table 6.

Table 6. Results of independent samples *t*-test for behavioural cultural intelligence levels of participants

Group	N	X	S	DF	T	P
Bilingual Students	19	2.16	.52	28	2.21	.03
Multilingual Students	11	2.58	.42	0	0	0

*$p < .0.05$

Source: current study.

4. DISCUSSION

To compare bilingual and multilingual primary school pupils' cultural intelligence levels, the fourth graders were given a cultural intelligence scale designed to discover any differences in terms of their cognitive, metacognitive, motivational and behavioural cultural intelligence levels. The findings obtained from the scale were discussed in detail to gain a deeper insight into bilingual and multilingual primary school students' cultural intelligence levels in relation to four components one by one.

The findings point to the statement "I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me" (2.47) as the most popular item among bilingual primary school students showing their empathy for being a part of different cultural contexts.

This is in line with the study of Oxford and Cuéllar (2014) who investigate the psychology of five Mexican language learners of Chinese crossing cultural and linguistic borders in terms of PERMA model which is a modern view of well-being and state that Mexican students enrich positive attitudes towards a new culture and become more open-minded to discover values and histories of target language community during their learning process of Chinese as a second language. In a similar vein, "I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it" (2.26), "I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it" (2.26) and "I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions" (2.26) are the items chosen frequently by bilingual participants of the present study. In this respect, Peal and Lambert (1962) show that the impactful intellectual functioning of bilingual children is higher than that of monolinguals and highlight the connections among bilingualism, class performance and positive attitudes of children. Their findings stress that bilinguals have better performance in both verbal and nonverbal intelligence, implying their high level of mental flexibility and awareness of the second language community.

When it comes to the multilingual students, the item stating "I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it" (2.81) comes to the forefront, which is considerably in line with the study of Bernardo and Presbitero (2018) who emphasise that speaking a second language and living in its culture offer multilinguals insights into the communication styles of people from a great variety of cultures. Furthermore, the items stating "I change my verbal behavior (e.g. accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it" (2.63), "I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations" (2.63), "I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it" (2.63) and "I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures" (2.72) take place at the top among all the items marked by multilingual primary school pupils to represent their cultural intelligence. This suggests that multilinguals have already developed a high level of cross-cultural awareness allowing them to speak and behave appropriately in different cultural settings as signalled in other studies (Contini & Maturo 2010; Goh 2012; Julianto & Subroto 2019). Accordingly, multilinguals are better equipped with the necessary skills for adaptation to cultures that are unfamiliar to them.

In the present study, the mean score of overall cultural intelligence level for multilingual students is found to be higher than that of bilingual students, suggesting that there is a statistically significant difference in their cultural intelligence levels, which complies with the studies carried out in this research area (Ang & van Dyne 2008; Daddino 2019; Dewaele, Heredia & Cieślicka 2020; Petrossian 2020). The reasons for this difference can be attributed to both the

number of languages participants know and the amount of language learning experience they have, which increases their cultural flexibility enabling them to sympathize with people who have different values and mindsets. The bidirectional relationship between culture and language implies that learning a new language brings along the knowledge of a new culture (Peal & Lambert 1962). Correspondingly, multilingual participants have an advantage over their bilingual peers in terms of appreciation of other cultures.

The detailed comparison of bilingual and multilingual primary school pupils' cultural intelligence levels pointed out that there is a statistically significant difference between their metacognitive, cognitive and behavioural cultural intelligence levels, which corroborates the previous studies conducted in this field (Canbay 2020; Chibaka 2018; Hofer & Jessner 2019). First of all, a higher level of metacognitive cultural intelligence in favour of multilingual primary schoolers was emphasised. This may be due to the fact that multilingual participants whose mother tongue is Kurdish or Arabic come into contact with Turkish culture while speaking that language proficiently, which paves the way for multilinguals to develop cultural consciousness. In their study, Hofer and Jessner (2019) compared the metalinguistic awareness of multilingual young learners at the primary level with their bilingual peers and laid stress on the superiority of multilinguals over bilinguals. Namely, multilinguals analyse their own language and culture, then they reflect on their analysis to apprehend their communication process with people from other cultures, which ends up with a higher level of metacognitive cultural intelligence.

With reference to the cognitive cultural intelligence representing the knowledge of economic, legal and social systems of a given culture, multilinguals score higher than bilinguals. At that point, Hofer (2021) states in her study of primary school pupils in different multilingual contexts that childrens' experience with various cultures enables them to expand their horizons in comparing and understanding cultural concepts. On the ground that multilinguals are rich in experience with another culture, multilingualism leads to both a creative thinking ability and an awareness of the social environment, which comes up with cognitive advantages on behalf of multilingual children.

At the level of behavioral cultural intelligence, multilingual primary schoolers are more successful than their bilingual peers, which yields similar results to the study of Barac and Bialystok (2012), which focused on six-year-old children and showed that speaking additional languages enables young learners to perform higher on both verbal and nonverbal tasks. The ability of multilingual participants to utilize culturally appropriate words and gestures is, in fact, an expected result as they grasp linguistic and social cues to maintain their com-

munication effectively by taking into consideration cross-cultural differences and similarities (Ang & van Dyne 2008).

However, regarding the motivational cultural intelligence levels, there is not a statistically significant difference between bilingual and multilingual primary school children. In this vein, Gross and Dewaele (2018) aimed to reveal the differences between bilingual and multilingual primary school pupils in relation to their attitudes towards social and cultural values. Although this study shows that bilinguals are not advantaged in this respect, Gross and Dewaele (2018) highlighted the conclusion that contrary to expectations, bilinguals have an inner drive to change in compliance with new cultural values. Put differently, they are more willing to learn about cultural differences and internalise them, giving rise to their high level of self-efficacy to anticipate and manage the challenges arising from different perspectives and insights in intercultural situations.

5. CONCLUSION

The present study has attempted to probe whether bilingual and multilingual primary school pupils differ from each other in their cultural intelligence levels including cognitive, metacognitive, behavioural and motivational cultural intelligence. Exploration of the correlation between cultural intelligence levels of bilinguals and multilinguals carried out through the cultural intelligence scale shows an overall superiority of multilingual participants.

The results of the study also showed statistically significant differences in the levels of cognitive cultural intelligence, metacognitive cultural intelligence and behavioural cultural intelligence in favour of multilingual primary school students. The fact that multilingual participants outperform bilinguals in the ability to rebuild their mindsets with the intention of meeting the requirements of cross-cultural situations takes its source from their increased interactions with another culture and its people. Nevertheless, it is important to emphasise the absence of a statistically significant difference between multilinguals and bilinguals in the level of motivational cultural intelligence, which can be ascribed to the assumption that both bilingual and multilingual primary school pupils are motivated to adapt to unfamiliar cultures and socialise within new cultures.

In light of these findings, the present study provides implications that further research should be carried out to see the underlying factors affecting their cultural intelligence. Based on these predictors of their cultural intelligence, it is essential to bring educational programs forefront for primary school pupils to gain control over challenging cross-cultural situations.

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Badanie poziomu inteligencji kulturowej u osób dwujęzycznych i wielojęzycznych

ABSTRAKT. Przeprowadzono wiele badań na temat znaczenia poziomu inteligencji wielorakich u uczących się oraz ich znaczenia dla uczenia się języków obcych. Natomiast niniejsze studium koncentruje się na badaniu inteligencji kulturowej, jej składników oraz związku pomiędzy inteligencją kulturową a nauką języków obcych. Aby osiągnąć ten cel, wybrano dwujęzycznych i wielojęzycznych uczniów szkoły podstawowej, którzy zostali poddani badaniu kwestionariuszem inteligencji kulturowej w celu ustalenia, czy istnieje związek między tymi dwoma aspektami. Wyniki pokazują, że osoby wielojęzyczne mają wyższe wyniki w zakresie inteligencji kulturowej, co może świadczyć o tym, że ci, którzy są otwarci na inne kultury i potrafią łatwo przystosować się do nowych schematów myślenia, prawdopodobnie z większą łatwością uczą się języków.

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From family to university: Best practices for inclusive tertiary education

ABSTRACT. This article investigates practices and integration strategies implemented by a European network of universities with regard to refugees[1] and international students, in particular, integration practices at two levels: governance and policies, regarding the institutional initiatives used and their relative success; second, the experience of such policies by international students. Our study revealed that in relation to refugee integration there is an overall lack of organisation, with too little, scattered information with respect to a bottom-up policy. In contrast, with regard to international students the system works fairly well, due to the top-down policy promoted by the EU. We propose that the EU put in place a specific program for refugee integration, such as ERASMUS+, focused on strengthening links with refugee families and schools with a high proportion of refugees.

KEYWORDS: refugee integration, governance and policies, YUFE, international students' integration.

1. INTRODUCTION

The widespread political instability in Africa and the Middle East, the effects of climate change and market globalization, and economic difficulties in eastern and southeastern Europe have led to a significant increase in global migration, with most immigrants looking for opportunities in the European Union. The EU has worked for many years to create a language policy framework to facilitate the integration of minorities and newcomers into the future of Europe, rightly identifying education as one important means of such integration (Arar 2021). However, it was observed that each EU state differs in its social, cultural and linguistic integration of newcomers pursuing tertiary education, especially young refugees and international students via Erasmus (Abamosa 2021; Dryden-

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[1] The term refugees in this paper also applies to asylum seekers whose files have not been assessed yet (or have lapsed) and who are enrolled in universities.

-Peterson 2011). In fact, the Dakar Framework for Action and the Millennium Development Goals put the emphasis on primary and secondary education, as well as adult literacy, with no mention of higher education (Dryden-Paterson 2011: 11). Against this contextual backdrop, the YUFE European network of higher education institutions[2] seeks to play an important role with regard to practices, standards and methods of cultural and linguistic integration, and in fostering a vision of inclusivity in the society at large. Indeed, one of the work packages of the YUFE project focuses specifically on promoting inclusive systems, structures, policies and procedures in order to reflect the diversity in society (WP7).

There are some higher-level education institutions within the network that have almost no immigrant students, e.g., the University of Cyprus with only two students with asylum seeker status from Africa (Gambia and Guinea), and more recently, two from Ukraine. There are also some universities with no explicit policies for the integration of refugee students. It is important to note that for the years 2021 and 2022, Cyprus recorded the highest number of asylum seekers per capita (cf. Asylum information database) among the EU member states.[3] The fact that there are only two to four students classified as asylum seekers enrolled at the University of Cyprus speaks poorly for the island's primary state university. Indeed, as far as we can observe, there are few measures aimed at fostering the cultural and linguistic integration of refugee youth in the UCY community. However, at the same time, there are many international students enrolled at the University of Cyprus as exchange students, and they benefit from numerous opportunities via Erasmus, YUFE and other European exchange programs.

This article presents and discusses university policies that we identify as best practices for the integration and promotion of diversity within the YUFE network, with the aim to advise stakeholders. The methodology follows a sociolinguistic protocol (Abamosa 2021; Unangst & Crea 2020): i.e., we first sent out questionnaires to staff and students in the different universities in the network, followed up with online semi-structured interviews with the same. The results of the questionnaires provided the interview frames for discussion of governance (with the staff) and integration (with the students). These interviews enabled us to investigate the individual's experiences and beliefs related to inclusiveness and diversity.

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[2] https://yufe.eu/ or Young Universities for the Future of Europe. We thank YUFE for giving us the opportunity to work on the initiatives described in this paper. We use the word *refugees* to refer to both asylum seekers and refugees; while the term *foreigner* refers to any non-nationals, including Erasmus students/international-study abroad students, and refugees.

[3] For that matter the Republic has been reprimanded for its management of refugee integration.

2. CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

In this section, we first describe the YUFE network and WP7, as well as the extant research on the integration of refugees and international students within tertiary education, and our theoretical frameworks.

2.1. The YUFE network and the UCY Diversity and Inclusivity project

An important goal of YUFE is to promote and enhance diversity and inclusivity (henceforward D&I); these concepts include aspects of religion, gender, sexual orientation, and ethnicity. YUFE is one of the first of 17 alliances selected by the European Commission as part of the European Universities Initiative.[4] It is made up of 14 partner organisations, 10 of which are universities, and it is representative of all European regions, i.e., northern Europe (Finland), western Europe (Belgium, the Netherlands, the UK, France), central and eastern Europe (Croatia, Poland) and southern Europe (Cyprus, Italy, Spain).

The YUFE stated mission is:

> To bring a radical change by becoming the leading model of a young, student-centred, non-elitist, open and inclusive European University based on the cooperation between higher education institutions, public and private sector, and citizens (University+ ecosystem).[5]

YUFE awards a number of small grants to encourage innovative activities promoting the above aim, especially when they are focused on inclusivity, diversity and equity. Most important, these small grants provide funding for *interdisciplinary student-staff teams* to translate ideas into activities, tools, and research related to diversity and inclusion that could produce a sustainable impact on the YUFE community. Projects developed under the umbrella of the WP7 have as their main aim (in compliance with the YUFE project) to put inclusion at the core of all activities by embedding equity and diversity in all organisational structures, policies, processes and procedures and to attract, retain, develop, and support a diverse staff and student population.

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[4] Co-developed by higher education institutions, student organisations, member states and the Commission, the European Universities initiative is now an integral part of the Erasmus+ 2021–2027 programme. https://education.ec.europa.eu/education-levels/higher-education/european-universities-initiative.

[5] https://yufe.eu/who-we-are/.

The University of Cyprus (UCY) was awarded one of these grants to investigate needs and practices related to the integration of refugee and international students since UCY has very few refugee students (specifically, only two in the same department). Our project therefore aimed to investigate the best practices for integrating and fostering diversity on campus, which we achieved by gathering information from both staff and students within the YUFE network, including UCY. The study was divided into two phases: the first phase focused on best practices for inclusiveness within the YUFE, and investigated refugee integration on the level of governance and policies; the second phase focused on the international/Erasmus experience of 30 Cypriot and 30 international students in UCY's Department of English Studies, investigating the challenges and opportunities related to their study abroad (i.e., at both UCY and foreign universities). As mentioned earlier, very few refugees have successfully entered the University of Cyprus and their exact number (4) is not known by most administrative staff involved with international students or with the integration of refugees on campus.

Multilingualism and linguistic and cultural diversity are closely related to globalisation, increased transnational mobility and study abroad (SA) programs. The aim of our research project is to foster diversity and inclusivity within YUFE. It is important that YUFE becomes a driver for positive change in society and our project team will work together with other members of the YUFE in this direction.

Our research questions are the following:
- What cultural and linguistic practices have been put in place to integrate refugee and international students in the YUFE, i.e., in tertiary education?
- How do students experience these practices?
- What practices should be put in place to foster adaptation and integration, especially with regard to culture and language?

2.2. Definition of integration

A successful integration could be defined by the two concepts, Inclusion and Equity, which are core to the YUFE –WP7. However, very aptly, Kappler et al. (2014: 1) observed that "despite its increasingly common usage, there is no standard definition of integration in the international education context"; their research group and project, therefore, suggested the following definition, which we will also adopt:

> Integration is an intentional process to create community, by encouraging domestic and international students to engage with each other in ongoing interaction, characterized by mutual respect, responsibility, action, and commitment.

More precisely, Kappler et al. (2014: 2) define *successful* integration in the higher education context as characterized by the following six criteria:

– active facilitation, support, and modeling by faculty, staff, and administration in the curricular and co-curricular contexts;
– an academic climate that recognizes and reflects the goals and values of inclusion;
– assessment, evaluation, and mindful reflection of intercultural and global competence at all levels of the institution (individual, classroom, school, institution-wide);
– movement from 'contact with' and 'celebration of' cultures to deeper layers of engagement and enrichment, leading to the creation of common ground;
– commitment to and recognition of the mutual benefits of such engagement; and
– a sense of belonging, contributing, and being valued.

Interestingly, the linguistic aspects are not specified in the above list; however, language proficiency has been described as key to the integration of refugees (Morrice, Topp, Collyer & Brown 2021).

In most reports and research related to educational integration in general, what is stressed is the commitment of the institutions and stakeholders: therefore, intentionality, planned strategies, committed leadership, necessary resources and infrastructure are the main components identified to ensure such success (Kappler et al. 2014: 2). In fact, Morrice et al. (2021: 696), building on previous research (Phillimore & Goodson 2008; Strang & Ager 2010), remind us of the dialectics involved in a successful integration, which "is generally understood as a two-way process requiring adaptation and change on the part of institutions, policies and practices of the receiving society as well as refugees themselves". Although research in the field of educational integration of refugees and international students has underlined different issues, especially practical issues such as health, legal, financial and housing problems (Friedrich, Bruna Ruano & Melo-Pfeifer 2021), sociolinguistic issues are also prominent. Logically, in order to achieve an academic degree, knowing the language is fundamental (Friedrich et al. 2021; Hirano 2015): indeed "learning the language of the country of resettlement is at the heart of refugee-integration strategies and is an expectation of both refugees and the receiving society" (Morrice et al. 2021: 696).

Therefore, the first part of our investigation, questions and interviews with the university administrative staff will focus on the points listed above, with the aim of making concrete recommendations. The second aim of our project is to evaluate the degree to which the infrastructures put in place meet the students' needs and to see to what degree the administrative vision of integration matches the students' experience.

2.3. Theoretical framework

For the last 15 years, many researchers have focused their attention on the integration of refugees and international students at the level of tertiary education (Arar 2021; Kapler et al. 2014; Dryden-Peterson 2011). Among the approaches most commonly adopted to investigate refugee integration, three main frameworks have been identified (Arar 2021: 10–11):

1. A humanitarian approach, focused on the right of displaced populations to access higher education, in adherence to United Nations resolutions concerning this right;
2. A social justice approach, focused on recognition, accessibility, as well as the practical side of integration such as financial support programs; an approach that works towards accreditation methods that, according to Friedrich et al. (2021: 107), "respect students' sociocultural and socio-linguistic identities";
3. A social identity approach, which works with concepts such as integration, acculturation, and multiculturalism, and a greater focus on support programs to help foreign/refugee students cope with their different challenges.

To examine the administrative side of integration, which involved assessing policies and governance, we used the social justice framework (number two above). For the student survey, we used the social identity approach (number three above), as the concepts of integration, acculturation, and multiculturalism seem best suited to both elicit student narratives and to subsequently analyze them. These concepts convey the main goals of a successful integration on the human level and seem to us a better fit for the description of the students' journey. Within these frameworks, we decided to implement a mixed-method approach to data collection and analysis and used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews (Rolland 2019). Interviews allowed us to investigate an individual's experiences, beliefs and/or constructions related to our research questions (Braun & Clarke 2013; Rolland, Dewaele & Costa 2020), and we consider them both a tool to gather facts and a means to a "social construction of knowledge" (Kvale 2007: 22). We then analyzed the data both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Depending on the pandemic situation, we conducted either face-to-face or virtual interviews (O'Connor, Madge, Shaw & Wellens 2008; Hay-Gibson 2009), in line with ethical considerations (Dewaele 2013; Phipps 2013; Smith 2013; Gibson & Zhu Hua 2016). The interviews were transcribed, coded and analysed (Liddicoat 2007).

Qualitative content analysis (QCA) was used to analyse the data obtained via questionnaires and interviews. This methodology enabled researchers to elicit

in-depth and detailed information and to make sophisticated interpretations (Rosenthal 2018; Selvi 2020). The data-driven or inductive approach was the most suitable for our study, as there is limited research on the topics of inclusive education in Cyprus, study abroad and mobility programs; thus, topics and themes emerged from the data (Elo & Kyngas 2008). It was important to develop valid and reliable inferences and interpretations based on a continuous, reiterative and flexible process of content analysis (Selvi 2020). This was achieved in three stages: preparation, organization and reporting of results (Elo et al. 2014: 1–2).

With these criteria in mind, we investigated how the ten universities in the network strive to reach these goals and how the students themselves experience being international students/newcomers on campus.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Project structure and methodology

The investigation of governance and policies related to *inclusiveness on campus* was organized in four research stages[6]:

First, we carried out *desktop research* within the network, to identify the information that is visible, widely accessible and especially accessible to asylum seekers, international students and refugees. For this step, we examined the relevant information from each university's website, which resulted in a 70-page report. We briefly analysed the data to prepare the questionnaire, i.e., we identified the specific mechanisms and policies that have been put in place to help newcomers find the information they required.[7] For instance, some universities, such as the University of Maastricht, since 2002 have been developing a policy focused on an inclusive and diverse culture that is student-centred,[8] while there is now a UM Holland Euregion Refugee Scholarship that offers five scholarships per academic year for talented refugee students This investigation informed us of the issues that should be tested and the questions that should make up the two questionnaires, one for students and one for staff.

Second, based on the information obtained through the desktop research, we investigated *governance* within the YUFE network using a 30-item questionnaire focused on social inclusion and intercultural communication on

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[6] The team consisted of two staff members, Prof. F. Baider and Dr. S. Karpava, and three graduate students, Vasiliea Anaxagorou, Myrianthi Karantona and Stella Sotiriou.

[7] We could then offer recommendations to improve the visibility and accessibility of such crucial information during the interviews.

[8] https://www.maastrichtuniversity.nl/um-world/truly-european-university.

campus. Our aims were: to identify the specific practices that have been put in place and were not explained on the website; to assess the extent to which they are effective in terms of linguistic and cultural integration; to ascertain the stances among the administrative staff. To this end, we adopted a methodology following a sociolinguistic protocol, using questionnaires first. These questionnaires were anonymous and were sent to the YUFE representative of each university; nevertheless, the name of the university was stated on the questionnaire. The questionnaire was piloted and subsequently modified; data collection among the staff of 10 universities took place over one month. All universities participated in the research project and provided responses to the online questionnaires. The data were collected and entered into an EXCEL database. We noted that many universities had to gather information from various departments and coordinate the answers to the questionnaire; these efforts were very much appreciated.

Third, the questionnaire was followed by online semi-structured interviews with the university staff member who had been appointed by their university to partake in the interview, generally each university's YUFE representative. We tailored the interviews to each university in accordance with their questionnaire responses. The interviews were collated in another database,[9] as all participants agreed to be audio-recorded. The interviews were semi-structured and targeted each individual's experiences, beliefs and/or constructions related to study abroad programs, language practices, multilingualism, multiliteracy, diversity and inclusion. We conducted face-to-face or virtual interviews in line with ethical considerations.

Fourth, we investigated the students' perceptions of their YUFE, Erasmus and study abroad and in-Cyprus experiences through questionnaires and on-line and face-to-face interviews. The questions were focused on multilingualism, linguistic and cultural diversity in relation to globalisation, increased transnational mobility and SA programs.

The fifth and final stage involved our data analyses, which were both quantitative, i.e., with a focus on graphs obtained with the questionnaires, and qualitative with a focus on interviews. The interviews were transcribed, coded and analyzed. We implemented an iterative content analysis to identify and refine the categories and themes related to the research questions and to interpret them.

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[9] Although all ten universities agreed to fill in the questionnaire, only six universities responded favourably to our request for an interview: University of Madrid, University Nicolaus Copernicus, University of Bremen, University of Eastern Finland, University of Essex, and University of Cyprus.

4. RESULTS

In this section, we present our results, in two separate categories. We first report our findings on governance and policies; we then relate the opinions of staff in the YUFE network and those of international students at the University of Cyprus, regarding their experience of representation and inclusion.

4.1. Results for governance and policies

Here we examine the responses of YUFE staff to the following question:

What practices have been put in place to integrate refugees in the YUFE alliance, i.e., in tertiary education?

To answer the above question, we must look at and compare the responses of two different groups: the stakeholders' policies, and the specific initiatives of the students, the staff and the universities.

4.1.1. Stakeholders' initiatives

In half of the universities, it is the office of the Rector that advises on the educational policies for refugees; 40% have a specific committee. Sixty per cent (60%) of the universities have state-approved texts and guidelines for the integration of refugee students, and although other universities have strategies related to inclusion, over 30% admitted to having no official guidelines. However, when we asked for the guidelines we discovered that only three universities actually had official guidelines for refugee students. At the University of Eastern Finland, an Equal Opportunities Committee comprising representatives of the administrative staff and the Student Union regulates the policies. The institution also has dedicated webpages, which include several support channels for students. All other universities offered mobility guidelines aimed primarily at Erasmus students or other student exchange programs.

In most universities, the refugees and the staff are left to their own devices in the integration process, and some representatives deplored the lack of political will in regard to the integration of refugees in tertiary education institutions. For instance, given the war in Ukraine, most of the universities – for example, the University of Essex and the University of Bremen – have been reaching out to Ukrainian students and students from neighboring countries that have been affected by the war. The University of Eastern Finland even has a staff member

employed specifically to welcome and integrate Ukrainian refugees. However, the Nicolaus Copernicus University representative mentioned the lack of a pro-refugee stance in Poland; this means that the university cannot supersede state regulations concerning refugees. Specifically, it was noted that although Poland is helping Ukrainian refugees, those arriving from Syria and other countries are less accepted. According to the same representative, the main obstacle to refugee integration is the lack of relevant policies.

We found that eight of the 10 universities in this study have specific policies for full and effective inclusion of all students, as well as non-discriminatory policies to protect non-nationals, e.g., antidiscrimination laws, an equality and anti-discrimination policy, and one university even has a 2019–2025 plan focused on equality, diversity and inclusion. The Universidad Carlos III de Madrid has been yearly awarded the Bequal certificate, a Spanish document verifying that the university promotes social inclusion and equality. Social inclusion policies are included in many university documents (such as Ordinance on Studying, internal QA systems, complaints and appeals systems, etc.), while non-discrimination provisions are included in the disciplinary ordinances and Code of Ethics.

Most universities have adopted policies that focus on the essentials a refugee would require, e.g., free accommodation, meals, language lessons and counselling, as well as integration into student organisations and the student council.

4.1.2. Specific initiatives

Apart from tuition waivers and specific bursaries, we noted a number of diverse measures adopted by the universities that aim to foster academic inclusion, notably: adapting examination papers to non-nationals, assessing newcomers' potential through reduction of linguistic cultural, gender and ethnic bias (Friedrich et al. 2021: 107) without affecting the test's validity or reliability (Shohamy & Menken 2015: 260). The free language lessons included the local language as well as English language courses, while the courses also targeted cultural topics and intercultural communication.

The University of Essex can boast of its accreditation as a University of Sanctuary, and it is in the process of introducing a University of Sanctuary Scholarship[10] for new Master's degree students who will study in 2023, who have UK asylum status or discretionary/limited leave to remain as a result of

[10] The Universities of Sanctuary are a network of higher education institutions that have a radical tradition of supporting refugees and people in the asylum system. 'This network has been developed through a partnership of City of Sanctuary, Article 26, Student Action for Refugees, and others. Their aim is to develop a culture and a practice of welcome within institutions,

an asylum application. This is crucial for asylum seekers who live in fear of seeing their application for asylum rejected in the midst of their studies; in fact, many of our interviewees claimed this as one of their major concerns. It is to be noted as well that some universities have created student-run societies,[11] which focus on refugee education and welfare and host discussions, campaigns and awareness-raising events, including informing asylum seekers and refugees of opportunities to study at the university.

The University of Eastern Finland, like many other universities, has benefited from governmental initiatives to foster inclusion on campus.[12] The university organizes welcome and pre-arrival webinars for all students, as well as peer-to--peer tutoring and subject-specific coordinators as necessary. Indeed, a foreign student's first months at university are the most challenging: they must familiarize themselves with a new academic context, a new city, and a culture and traditions different from their own. A "buddy system" has been initiated at the University of Rome Tor Vergata; this is a mentoring program, where the mentor – who may be a national or a non-national – helps the foreign student learn the local language. The buddy program sets up a system of welcome and support from enrolled students to the new students, and the student mentor becomes a guide and information source during the initial adaptation period. The buddy/mentor helps the new student find the appropriate offices for specific issues, become familiar with the campus, and especially facilitates his/her understanding of the general academic structure: schedule of the academic year, lectures, exams, etc. One important aspect of this linguistic and cultural integration, which is the responsibility of the "buddy", is to help newcomers learn about the city and its opportunities, and to introduce them to cultural activities and events.

Finally, some universities promote integration by working with local organizations, for example, supporting NGOs that deal with young refugees, or cooperating closely with the state integration services. At UCY we cooperate with the NGOs, Hope for Children and Caritas.[13] Through such cooperative efforts, universities often provide extra facilities or personnel for bodies that aim to provide language classes but often lack sufficient resources.

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the wider community, and across the higher education sector in the UK.' https://universities.cityofsanctuary.org/.

[11] To note that within the UK alone, 50 such associations operate within universities, making the UK a more welcoming place for refugees.

[12] The BRIDGES project is a special grant offered by the Ministry of Education and Culture (2021–2022) to promote the well-being of students and prevent exclusion. https://www.isyy.fi/en/bridges-2.html.

[13] Hope for Children website: https://uncrcpc.org.cy/en/; Caritas website: https://caritas-cyprus.org/.

4.1.3. Effectiveness of integration measures

Now we will examine how effective these programs and initiatives have been. Although all the universities in this study stated that they welcome students who are refugees, they also acknowledged a lack of training in this area. We conclude, therefore, that staff responsible for supporting students are in need of training/awareness-raising programs, which could be state-mandated and implemented nationwide, or alternatively, the university might join the YUFE network project. International students and refugees have particular needs and face particular challenges, and programs such as personal mentors, a buddy system and student societies that provide peer support are some of the ways to help integration. We identified a number of areas where university policies were lacking or weak:

1. All staff agreed with the conclusion drawn from several research studies focused on refugee integration: investing in the national language is a priority, which Morrice et al. (2021: 697) concluded, "might be a more effective strategy for securing integration outcomes across a range of domains," including the areas of university education and employment. Most YUFE universities offer free classes to foreign students, including refugees. However, sometimes the courses are also open to the public (and in that case, they are not free), which is the case for the University of Cyprus. This means that the language course content does not prepare the students for either academic language or academic coursework. For example, at UCY Greek for academic purposes should be taught, with the subject of intercultural communication part of the syllabus. Moreover, like in some other universities where the national language is not broadly spoken, English language courses should also be offered, which would enhance inclusion and availability for employment during their study.

2. Policies need to be more sensitive and acknowledge different needs and create measures according to the particular student's status (e.g., foreign student/newcomer/refugee).

3. Universities should encourage refugee students to engage in participatory workshops where they can suggest/create policies and actions.

4. Institutions should also create/secure additional "crisis funds" that students might benefit from in emergency cases.

We found that the majority of universities in our study have been working to put into place specific policies and activities to welcome refugee students since 2015. The war in Ukraine, which is ongoing at the time of writing this article, has challenged the existing infrastructure and, more importantly, the lack of such infrastructure. Therefore, 90% of the universities have created specific

bursaries for displaced Ukrainian students and appointed staff to accommodate and integrate Ukrainian refugees, especially those in the neighbouring countries, such as the University of Eastern Finland and Nicolaus Copernicus University.

4.2. Student experiences (inclusion/exclusion)

In this section, we investigate the views of local and international students at UCY related to: diversity and inclusivity, their study abroad experience, multilingualism and multiculturalism. Overall, 60 participants (students aged 19–42, mean age 21.5) completed questionnaires and 30 participants were interviewed. Among these were 30 local Cypriot students with Erasmus experience, and 30 UCY Erasmus students who represented various countries of Europe such as Ireland, Spain, Italy, Poland, France, Germany and Lithuania. The research was conducted at the Department of English Studies as it attracts the highest number of Erasmus students every academic year because all the courses are taught in English; in most other departments Greek is the language of instruction. Among the interviewed students, there were 15 local and 15 international students.

Data analysis of both questionnaires and interviews indicated that students believe that D&I is an important issue in the higher education sector; they see it as related to the teaching and learning process, as well as to university policies, which they believe should promote equal opportunities for all, regardless of gender, social class, linguistic and cultural identity, sexual orientation and physical ability. These results are in line with those of a recent study by Siri, Leone and Bencivenga (2022).

The following interview excerpt reveals how aware the student is of inclusive education:

Excerpt 1
Inclusive education, as far as I understand it, has to do with including all students without any borders, without any issues or rejections…I mean, genders and sexes, which include all people of every color, every nationality, religion. I mean, those things they seem granted for us, especially in recent years there has been lot of work and focus on this, which is of course positive, so they seem very natural to us, and they should be natural. I am of course informed of inclusive education. I think it has to do with the outlook of the university to include people from different universities to enrich the kind of the knowledge provided by the university (UCY Cypriot student with Erasmus experience).

However, some students found questions about inclusive education to be difficult and were not able to explain or elaborate. They acknowledged that they

need more guidance and activities in this respect, this guidance should also be part of the Erasmus's program objectives:

> **Excerpt 2**
> I have never heard of the term before I think, but the first thing that comes to mind is an education system that includes all (UCY Erasmus student from Spain).

With regard to inclusion, all participants agreed that all students should have an equal right to education; classrooms should be made up of students with mixed abilities; no student should be separated from the main group because of discrimination related to age, ethnicity, race, gender, etc. i.e., study-abroad programs should be available to all students. They also expect the host university to help in getting to discover the people, language and culture in the host country:

> **Excerpt 3**
> For me, inclusive education means that people have the opportunity to study in a different environment which offers them cooperation and helps them get to know people and places and cultures (UCY Erasmus student from Ireland).

These student responses provide further evidence to support the EDI policies of the EU, initiated at the Ministerial Meeting of the Bologna Process in 2015; the renewed agenda for higher education reiterated by the European Commission in 2017; a Gender Equality Plan, which Horizon Europe requests of all those applying for funding; establishment of best practices and approaches for more inclusive academia, progress and innovation, diversity and inclusion in Europe (Bergan & Harkavy 2018; Weimer & Nokkala 2020).

Further, according to the participants, to encourage inclusion appropriate activities should be planned, and each student's individual needs should be taken into consideration. Inclusive education should offer equal opportunities to all students. It is a new way of expanding knowledge, and it connects people and cultures from all around the world.

The students identified a number of factors that inform inclusive education: the educational environment; the social and educational conditions; the different approaches and methods used to include students with special educational needs; students with limited financial means and refugees; the quality of professional training of specialists. These findings agree with previous research by Alger (2018), Van Hees and Montagnese (2020), López-Duarte, Maley and Vidal-Suárez (2021). Overall, the students support high-quality education for all and believe that inclusive education is better than elite education. They feel that inclusive education must take into account social, cultural, political, psychological, organizational and pedagogical factors (see Table 1).

Table 1. Students' opinions: Factors affecting inclusive education

Inclusive education depends on [in %]:	
Educational environment	57.14
Social conditions	61.90
Educational conditions	66.66
Different approaches to include students with special educational needs/migrants	66.66
Quality of professional training of specialists	45.23
Do you support (study abroad programs) [in %]:	
Elite education	11.90
High-quality education for all	78.57
Inclusive education	52.38
Inclusive education (study abroad programs) depends on [in %]:	
Political factors	50.00
Practical factors	47.61
Historical factors	21.42
Scientific factors	14.28
Cultural factors	59.52
Psychological factors	52.38
Organizational factors	54.76
Social factors	66.66
Pedagogical/teaching factors	66.66

Source: current study.

Participants offered specific suggestions on how to discourage discrimination against students with special needs, minority, immigrant and refugee students: education, university-funded programs, organization of cultural events and activities, and projects both inside and outside the academic environment. The students commented that it is important to widen horizons, raise awareness, learn more languages, enhance their language proficiency in English and local language(s) of the host country, improve their opportunities for continuous development in terms of education and future profession, provide financial support to students with disabilities, minority, refugee and immigrant groups, as noted in the following interview excerpts:

Excerpt 4
I think the focus has to be put on the educational factor, rather than the social-status one. All people have the right to be educated in any way they want and people should accept that and set aside all the social parameters (UCY Cypriot student with Erasmus experience).

Excerpt 5
By teaching why racism is not good and show that by doing actions and not only teaching in theory. Also, learning more languages and learning more about other countries' histories (UCY Erasmus student from Italy).

Excerpt 6
I think that by bringing minority groups, immigrants and special needs students all in the same environment they won't feel excluded, they'll feel like their 'differences' are not a valid excuse for exclusion and their mental health will overall improve. I think that this would be a great start (UCY Cypriot student with Erasmus experience).

It should be noted that similar issues were raised in earlier research studies investigating higher education and international student mobility (e.g., Teichler 2017; Shields 2019; Rumbley 2020; de Wit & Altbach 2021). In addition, participants made a number of suggestions on ways to improve their experience abroad: adequate planning, informative meetings, sharing positive experiences, personal stories, paying attention to the well-being and mental health of students and teachers. Students believe that universities should treat foreign students with extra care, educate the staff and all students on discrimination, create a friendly, welcoming campus climate and offer equal opportunities. They suggest that universities should try to be more inclusive, accepting, patient, and understanding, and perhaps adapt the course/offer extra help for students who are having difficulties. As they stated:

Excerpt 7
There must be clear rules in the university community about behavior inside and outside the university; university members, administration and professors, as well as students, should be respected and not excluded (UCY Cypriot student with Erasmus experience).

Excerpt 8
By providing these students with extra care, educating the staff and all students properly about discrimination, by creation of a friendly, welcoming campus climate and opportunities for minority students and non-minority students to get to know each other, for example through on campus events (UCY Erasmus student from Spain).

Excerpt 9
By trying to be more inclusive, being patient, nice and understanding with everybody, and maybe adapting the course for people who are facing difficulties or offering them extra help (UCY Erasmus student from Ireland).

According to the participants, there are many benefits to studying abroad, including social, linguistic, cultural, personal, financial, educational:

Excerpt 10
There are lots of them [benefits]. First of all, people get to know a whole new country which could be far away from what they are used to. Secondly, people meet and interact and share ideas, thoughts and develop new social relationships (UCY Cypriot student with Erasmus experience).

Excerpt 11
Studying abroad can have countless benefits. It gives students the opportunity to see and discover how other countries' educational systems work and brings them closer to other cultures. It is also a great opportunity for travelling and gaining unique experiences and friendships. Lastly, it can motivate students to do even better in their academic achievement, as they might get the opportunity to attend very interesting and different classes that are absent in their program they are part of in their home country (UCY Erasmus student from Poland).

Participants also spoke of the many challenges that arise while studying and living abroad, especially cultural and linguistic adaptation, stress, anxiety and psychological issues (see Table 2).

Table 2. Challenges while studying and living abroad

What were your challenges while studying and living abroad [in %]?	
Context of a specific country	16.66
Cultural and linguistic adaptation	42.85
Discrimination	19.04
Cultural and linguistic integration	23.80
Cross-cultural misunderstanding	28.57
Stress	45.23
Emotional state and reactions	35.71
Verbal communication	23.80
Frustration	16.66
Anxiety	40.47
Non-verbal communication	2.38
Misconceptions/Miscommunication	19.04
Hybrid identity	4.76
Intelligibility issues due to low language proficiency	19.04
Social networks	21.42
Living environment	23.80
Accommodation	26.19
Well-being	16.66

What were your challenges while studying and living abroad [in %]?	
Psychological issues	40.47
Time management	7.14
Communication with parents, family in L1 country	9.52
Homesickness	28.57
Translating	11.90
Code-switching	19.04
Translanguaging	4.76

Source: current study.

The analysis of student responses showed that they considered knowledge of the local language highly important for their social and cultural life:

Excerpt 12
One of my major concerns when studying was language proficiency for my partici-pation in social and cultural life, daily and life experiences. I think that I am a little bit shy as well (UCY Erasmus student from Germany).

It is interesting to note that most students chose to have English as a me-dium of instruction for their studies abroad since English is considered as the international *lingua franca*:

Excerpt 13
I have chosen my Erasmus program and university as I can study in English. I am French, I want to improve my knowledge of English, to be immersed in English--speaking environment as much as possible (UCY Erasmus student from France).

At the same time, they are motivated to learn a new language, especially the language of the host country. In that regard they have a positive attitude towards multilingualism and multiculturalism, understanding that multilingualism ben-efits them in their education as well as any future career:

Excerpt 14
Well, the reason was, uh, simple because I wanted to get, um, get to know the culture, the Greek culture and also the language, but with the language it is a bit difficult because I need like a bigger vocabulary. I need to put more effort for the learning process. I believe it's a good experience for my life in general. I like to live in another country and to be able to communicate in another language, doesn't matter if it's English or Greek. And, uh, I really hope that one day I will learn Greek language and somehow I will find a job with this language (UCY Erasmus student from Lithuania).

The findings of this study provide further evidence in support of the recent research conducted by Gan and Kang (2022: 227), who revealed nine areas of concern regarding SA programs: pre-trip preparation, flying on an airplane, unfamiliar food, expenditure while abroad, non-traditional class structure, anxiety with respect to unfamiliar setting, travelling with "strangers", feeling homesick, language barriers, living arrangement, learning how to get around on public transportation.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. General statements

This project is one of a series of studies aimed at observing and comparing educational policies in tertiary education institutions that purport to foster the integration of refugees and international students (Friedrich et al. 2021). A study focused on the Universidade Federal do Paraná (UFPR) in Brazil noted a bottom-up initiative: professors who wanted to help foreign and refugee students started by giving them language lessons. This seems to be the case for universities in the YUFE network, where it is the individual professors and/or the administrative staff who make the most effort to welcome refugees; there is no policy put in place at the national or international level. Nevertheless, in the UK there is a program related to the Universities of Sanctuary, which helps tertiary institutions accommodate refugees who are in need of safety, especially asylum seekers and those who had their applications rejected during their study years. We also note the policy at the University of Cyprus, which uses both a bottom-up and top-down approach. However, in this case, only two refugee students have so far successfully enrolled, and this may have been entirely by chance or through outside help (someone who investigated their refugee options). Yet, in Cyprus, the options open to refugees are basically unknown to the general public – and there is also a lack of information so widespread that the very people who could take advantage of such possibilities are not properly informed.

For international students, such as Erasmus students, the top-down approach (that of the European Union and the participating universities) resulted in a very successful exchange program. Our project recommends that the European Union launch a European refugee program that would facilitate refugee access to information, harmonize the different policies, and finance the structures needed to assist this specific category of students. This can be achieved by raising awareness of the authorities by preparing reports based on the findings of our study

and other relevant studies of the YUFE project. We also plan to publish both our reports in the UCY magazine and to have them posted on the YUFE main page.

5.2. Specific linguistic and social needs to be addressed

At the governance level (for the administrative initiatives of the 10 universities), we identified five needs.

The first is linguistic, i.e., the need to develop language skills in the host country as a priority once basic needs have been secured (housing, health, finance). Language skills in the student's native/home language can also offer other opportunities; for example, in our study, Felicien from Congo (name changed) is French-speaking, as are many African asylum seekers in the Republic of Cyprus (apart from the Somali); he knows that acquisition of a recognized level in this international language would open more doors for him in the Cypriot job market, as there are French companies operating in Cyprus.[14] However, he chose to learn English, which would offer more employment opportunities and enable him to communicate with the locals, most of whom speak English. Moreover, since his Dublin procedure[15] was still ongoing at the time of the writing of this article, he felt that investing time in a difficult language (Greek) would not be useful to him if the Dublin procedure is successful. Most of his compatriots adopt the same attitude, finding Greek difficult to learn and not as useful as English.

The second area where we identified a need for improvement, and which actually exists in some YUFE universities, is a mentorship program. Such a program would pair local students as mentors with refugees/foreign students, and would likely benefit both parties. For the local student, it is acquiring first-hand knowledge of a refugee experience and the satisfaction of facilitating integration; for the refugee, it could mean a unique opportunity to bond with a local student. Monitoring such a program is crucial (Friedrich et al. 2021: 115), and should be overseen by a specific integration committee.

Third, it would be helpful to centralize all resources relevant to newcomers, as in our survey we noted a wide dispersion of the relevant offices, the resulting confusion and, ultimately, the inaccessibility of services. This is especially important considering the foreign students' limited linguistic skills as well as their unfamiliarity with the new surroundings.

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[14] https://www.goldnews.com.cy/en/companies/french-corporate-giants-in-cyprus.

[15] Under the Dublin procedure, unaccompanied minors or adults can apply for international protection and ask to be reunited with family members living elsewhere in Europe (the European Union Asylum Agency or EUAA, https://euaa.europa.eu/asylum-knowledge/dublin-procedure.

Fourth, it appears important to reach out and work more closely with NGOs and high schools that take in young refugees. For example, one of the authors works closely with an NGO that welcomes young undocumented migrants. One of these young boys managed to register in the Architecture Department at UCY thanks to the teamwork of the NGO personnel officer and the UCY student welfare bureau. We note two initiatives that could be implemented: (1) to give ECTs to students who work with NGOs in an effort to create links between local students and refugees; (2) to disseminate refugee success stories in schools with a high population of refugees, which might encourage high school students to pursue higher education.

Finally, we recommend a wide dissemination and advertising of refugee success stories to break their quasi invisibility. This can be achieved with articles in the local press and articles on the university website. Such initiatives would show that refugees can access and succeed in the tertiary education system, which is important both for the refugee population (instilling a sense of pride) and the host population (to break stereotypes such as refugees are illiterate, uneducated and cannot integrate).

5.3. Proposal at the student level

Education should be inclusive of, and also accessible to, students from all linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Leon & Williams 2016; Özturgut 2017), and both students and teachers need special training to understand how important this concept is. Among other things, inclusion can lead to: improved social cohesion and social justice without discrimination; increased sensitivity and resource-orientation towards multilingualism and multiculturalism; a better understanding and enhanced awareness of the needs and challenges related to education in multilingual classrooms, particularly the geographical and social contexts that affect the educational, personal and social well-being of the students (Brown 2021; Conrad, Hartig & Santelmann 2021). In fact, there is a great need to continue and expand the research on the topics examined here, i.e., study-abroad programs in higher education, issues of equity, equality and diversity, challenges, needs and opportunities (Siri et al. 2022).

The aim of the present study was to partially fill this gap in the research and to offer students an active voice in making suggestions for improvement in this area. Based on questionnaires and interviews, we learned that students advocate greater diversity and inclusivity in education, and support social inclusion and intercultural communication. We recognize that they need training and preparation for the challenges they will encounter in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms and mobility programs.

6. CONCLUSION

In this research study, we investigated the practices and their results related to the sociolinguistic inclusion of refugees and international students within a specific European network of young universities, YUFE. We examined, therefore, the issues of inclusive education, multilingualism and multiculturalism in Cyprus and other YUFE countries with a focus on refugee and international students, integration strategies and practices implemented at the university level. We also investigated personal experiences of local and international students regarding mobility/Erasmus programs. More precisely, our research focused on two general questions: What practices have been put in place to integrate refugees into tertiary education? What do students understand by social inclusion? These questions led to several more specific queries: how effective, in terms of linguistic integration and culture, are these universities? What stances can we observe among staff and students in terms of diversity?

Our findings revealed that there are different policies for refugee versus international students. With respect to the first group, there is usually a bottom-up policy applied, with often ad-hoc solutions found, and revealing that more work on refugee students' integration is required, which concurs with earlier studies by Arar (2021) and Abamosa (2021). With regard to international students, most often implemented is a top-down policy, with clear structure and procedures centralized by the Erasmus program. The analysis of students' questionnaires and interviews regarding their international mobility revealed that overall students feel this is a positive experience with many benefits, although there are certain challenges. Among the challenges, they identified a lack of awareness regarding diversity and inclusivity in educational settings. At the institution level, they found it difficult to voice their concerns, which could result in a more welcoming campus climate and were expecting the host university to be supportive, which was not often the case. At a more personal level and as expected, they reported stress, anxiety and psychological issues due to cultural and linguistic adaptation.

The opportunities offered by their study abroad stay were primarily the learning of a new language, since Erasmus students are usually offered free lessons in the language of the country where they are placed. Our findings suggest a need for improvement in terms of refugees' social, cultural and linguistic integration in higher education and in terms of welcoming Erasmus students. If the short-term outcomes include the results of this research, we also aim to disseminate the identified best practices within the YUFE network, to push for the creation of policies to improve integration of refugees and international students on campus and to foster awareness about the importance of inclusivity (Yasin, Torbjørnsen & Westrheim 2019; Salehyan 2019), especially in including our findings in our

seminars and courses focusing on intercultural communication and migration discourses and policies within the EU.

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Od rodziny do uczelni: najlepsze praktyki w zakresie włączającego szkolnictwa wyższego

ABSTRAKT. Niniejszy artykuł koncentruje się na praktykach i strategiach integracyjnych wdrożonych przez europejską sieć uniwersytetów w odniesieniu do uchodźców i studentów międzynarodowych, w szczególności na praktykach włączających na dwóch poziomach: po pierwsze, zarządzania i polityki, w odniesieniu do stosowanych inicjatyw instytucjonalnych i skali ich sukcesu; po drugie, doświadczenia studentów międzynarodowych odnośnie do takiej polityki. Nasze badanie

ujawniło ogólny brak organizacji, zbyt małą ilość, często rozproszonych informacji w odniesieniu do integracji uchodźców opartej na inicjatywach oddolnych (*bottom-up*). Natomiast w odniesieniu do studentów międzynarodowych system działa dość dobrze ze względu na odgórnie wdrożoną politykę UE. Proponujemy, aby UE wprowadziła specjalny program na rzecz integracji uchodźców skoncentrowany na wzmocnieniu powiązań z rodzinami uchodźców i szkołami o wysokim odsetku dzieci o doświadczeniu uchodźczym.

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More than linguistic needs and more than one perspective: Reconstructing perspectives of pupils with linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biographies and drawing implications for all school stakeholders

ABSTRACT. In the article we argue for a reconstructive and subject-oriented approach to data collection and analysis in order to reconstruct perspectives of pupils with linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biographies as a basis for needs analysis. The paper takes an in-depth look at a narrative interview with such a pupil using the Documentary Method. Based on the analysed interview passage and with recourse to the praxeologically extended sociocultural theories of SLA, we derive initial implications for schools with pupils with migratory experiences. One crucial assumption is that, in order to create better educational opportunities for children with migratory experiences, school staff need to systematically develop contingency competence. By contingency competence we mean the sensitivity and awareness of the principal openness of human life forms and their diverse possibilities for linguistic, material, and practical expression. Conclusions are drawn on what the required competencies contain and how an inclusive school can be created.

KEYWORDS: (Newly) immigrated pupils, linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biography, social practice, needs analysis, subject-oriented approach, narrative interview, Documentary Method.

1. INTRODUCTION

Migration and the education of pupils with linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biographies[1] is a matter of social and public concern in Europe. Due to current global political and climatic developments as well as the merging of Europe, the topic is also coming into focus across national borders. The schooling of pupils with migratory experiences varies greatly, both from one country to another as well as within individual countries. Education models for newly arrived pupils with any or with little knowledge of the target language range from submersion or immersion programs, two- or one-year preparatory courses to completely separated education (Massumi et al. 2015; Ahrenholz, Fuchs & Birnbaum 2016; Reich 2017: 81–84).

An important didactic principle of schooling and teaching, especially for linguistic development, is the orientation toward learners' needs. Despite this principle, the subjective needs of this special group of pupils play a subordinate role or are even disregarded. Not uncommonly, when surveyed or interviewed, pupils are only addressed as *pupils*, with no holistic orientation to their historical-biographical subjectivity. In most guideline interviews, pupils cannot establish their own subjective relevance. Nevertheless, academic writings about such data collection and analysis often give the more or less inappropriate impression that pupils have been consulted and their views have been adequately captured.

In contrast to this, we argue for a genuinely subject-oriented approach to data collection and analysis (section 2). After drawing on the research context (3.1), the data collection method (3.2) and the interpretation method (3.3), the paper first takes an in-depth look at a narrative interview with a pupil with migratory experience about her school experiences in Germany (3.4). On the basis of the reconstructed experiences and orientations (Bohnsack 2017) and with recourse to praxeological extended sociocultural theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Daase 2021), we derive initial implications for the design of school enrolment, preparatory language courses, and mainstream teaching. Our crucial assumption is that in order to create better educational opportunities for immigrated pupils, the school staff requires systematic development of contingency competence. Recognising that every human way of life is different and thus capturing the fundamental shapeability of everything possible in human life (Makropoulos 2012), contingency competence goes far beyond the notion of intercultural competence, which has been recently criticised (Auernheimer 2002; Mecheril 2008) but remains in use in most education and teacher training

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[1] The expression "pupils with linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biography" originates from Massumi (2019).

contexts. Finally, conclusions are drawn on how the required competences can be built and how an inclusive multilingual classroom can be created.

2. IMMIGRATED PUPILS AND THE IMPORTANCE OF SERIOUS NEEDS ANALYSES

Contrary to media portrayals, some areas of politics and perhaps the subjective perception, violent migration – i.e., migration resulting from war, threats of violence, state collapse etc. – is not a new phenomenon, not even in Europe. "Violent migration can be described as a signature of the 20th century in a global context simply because of the scale of such movements" (Oltmer 2017: 24, transl. by the authors). While it is to be welcomed that the aspect of refugee migration is now also – albeit with considerable delay – being discussed with regard to its effects on the education system and its stakeholders, narrowing the focus to flight and trauma, as is currently the case, is, in turn, a problem because other types of migration are thereby overlooked. Regardless of the type of migration (labour or refugee migration, to name just two aspects), for children and young people, any migration is more or less involuntary and forced, as they are usually not involved in the parents' or other family members' decision to migrate or flee.

The focus of school practice as well as educational policy is addressing the linguistic challenges of pupils with migration experience and thus their linguistic adaptation to a homogenised German-speaking pupil's body.[2] This approach points to a monolingual habitus of the multilingual school (Gogolin 1994) as well as a needs analysis that focuses exclusively on the objective and product-oriented linguistic needs in the education of immigrated pupils. A multi-perspective linguistic and communicative analysis of needs, on the other hand, must include both the objective requirements of schooling and the subjective needs of pupils and thus inevitably go beyond a purely linguistic needs assessment. Following this requirement, the research questions differ, considering, for example, also pupils' unconscious and contradictory needs and wishes as well as power relations underlying language acquisition and integration processes. Furthermore, giving the pupils the possibility to establish their own subjective relevance during data collection, other research methods than guideline interviews are required.

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[2] In this text, we will not discuss the fact that a considerable proportion of pupils in Germany have a migration background, some of whom have acquired German as an additional language at different times in their biography – which does not necessarily lead to difficulties as often assumed – and that the pupil body has therefore long since ceased to be linguistically homogeneous (or never was, if one includes the diverse dialectal variation in German).

3. RECONSTRUCTING PERSPECTIVES

3.1. Research overview

To illustrate the need for a subjective approach in this area, we use in the following an extract from a narrative interview of a pupil with a linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biography in Bremen (Germany), which we analysed with the Documentary Method. The interview is part of the research project "Language Acquisition in the Context of Spatially and Linguistically Discontinuous School Biographies. Process- and subject-oriented perspectives on preparatory classes in Bremen", financed by the Bremen Senatorial Authority for Science and Ports, in which pupils who had attended a preparatory class some time ago talked about their experiences on the basis of a narrative prompt.

In our research project, we were interested in experiences of pupils with spatially discontinuous school biographies with schooling in Germany and their atheoretical, implicit and incorporated knowledge about these experiences, the so-called orientation frames (see Section 3.3). Thus, we wanted to know which orientation frames shape the schooling and linguistic experiences of pupils with migration backgrounds. Based on this subjective approach the underlying epistemic interest is to draw implications for teacher professionalisation. The starting point of the research project was, on the one hand, the fact that there is a gap in research on the pupil perspective so far (except Massumi 2019; Falkenstern & Ohm 2023). On the other hand – since we are involved in teacher training – our research interest was also didactically driven. Adopting the pupils' perspective provides a strong impulse for research-based learning for the students (future teachers) and for an intensive engagement of the needs of pupils with migratory experiences (Zörner 2020).

Before starting with the study, we give a brief insight into the schooling context in which the research has been undertaken, as the framework conditions for newly arrived pupils in European countries are very different. Based on the fact that education policy in Germany is not part of federal policy, but is a matter for the federal states, the following description of the context in Section 3.1 is also not uniform in Germany. The integration of newly arrived pupils into regular classes varies from state to state and even from school to school due to the fact that legal regulations of the respective federal state are rather recommendations and the concrete implementation depends on the resources of the school (Ahrenholz et al. 2016: 14). Since criteria for the transition to mainstream classes are not only different but also partly obligatory and partly optional, in practice, there is a juxtaposition of individual solutions, which are often decided

by the respective teachers (Gamper & Steinbock 2020: 87). This also affects the content and didactic implementation in the preparatory courses. In the following, we will therefore briefly present the situation in Bremen, Germany's smallest federal state.

3.2. Research context: Schooling of newly arrived pupils in Bremen

Coming to Bremen between 12 and 16 years of age, newly arrived pupils attend cross-age preparatory classes, where they are equipped with basic German language skills for mainstream schooling. A curriculum for these classes has been proposed (Gill, Marx, Reichert & Rick 2019) but has not yet been implemented by the Bremen school board and, accordingly, is not in use in all schools across the federal state. Content, used materials, and didactic approaches thus differ from school to school and possibly even from class to class. The target of the preparatory class is to achieve B1 German language competence in listening and reading comprehension and A2 for writing skills according to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), even though these targets are not related to the teaching of subject content or methods and are chosen independently of subject requirements. The diagnostic instrument used to determine German language level B1 is the German Language Diploma I (Deutsches Sprachdiplom I, DSD I), which was originally designed for schools outside of Germany. Although it is used in many federal states to decide on the transition of newly immigrated pupils, an empirical validation of the instrument for the assessment of linguistic competences for mainstream education, especially with regard to this target group, has not yet been carried out (Gamper & Steinbock 2020: 89).

Gamper and Steinbock (2020) show that the required competence in DSD I in written communication is higher than in comparable certificate examinations and thus possibly overtaxes pupils of preparatory classes. Regardless of the fact that, in contrast to some other federal states, passing the examination is not mandatory in Bremen in order to transfer to the mainstream classes, this may nevertheless place unnecessary pressure on such classes, which can exacerbate pupils' existing impairments due to trauma. On the other hand, the linguistic targets of DSD I help the teachers by designing preparatory class lessons to see clearly the goal of preparing newly arrived pupils for regular classes with their academic linguistic requirements. Teaching the subject language and content itself is not the main task of pre-course instruction.

After attending preparatory classes and having reached German language competencies between A2 and B1, the pupils continue their learning in main-

stream classes with other pupils of their age according to the general school curriculum. The focus of subject teaching in mainstream classes is still primarily on subject content: A comprehensive implementation of language-sensitive subject teaching is not yet given, since not all teachers have been trained in language-sensitive subject teaching and materials are still lacking. Often there is also a lack of awareness and responsibility on the part of subject teachers that they also have to introduce pupils to the subject or academic language (in addition to their subject content). In recent years, however, there has been an increased awareness that it is important for a better transition into the mainstream classes to already teach academic language and subject content in the preparatory classes (Wulff & Nesser 2019). Nonetheless, the decision to include these crucial contents for pupils' smooth transfer into mainstream classes again lies in the hands of the individual teacher. Additionally, in Bremen, there is no training offered for teachers on German as a second language; the majority of teachers in the preliminary classes are thus not trained for teaching in these settings.

The peculiarity of schooling of newly arrived children and teenagers in Bremen is early integration in regular classes from the very beginning and attending so-called less language-based subjects like Mathematics or Physical Education with their respective mainstream classes. The proportion of mainstream subject lessons to preparatory class lessons is being gradually increased; at the latest, the newly arrived pupils should be integrated after one year of schooling. In the beginning, newly arrived pupils have at least 20 lessons per week in the pre-course, with successive reductions of hours of separate learning. This successive participation schooling model enables at least partial integration of pre-course pupils in the mainstream classes and in that way reduces somehow a dilemma, which every special class for newcomers faces, between targeted support and (long-term) separation (Reich 2017). Nevertheless, the implementation of the partially integrative model[3] recommended by the school authority in Bremen has its problems and fully depends on the resources of the specific school so that this model is sometimes described as exclusion through inclusion (Vogel 2018; Karakaşoğlu, Kovacheva & Vogel 2021).

More than one of ten pupils in Bremen have already attended a pre-course (Senatorin für Kinder und Bildung 2022); studies that provide an in-depth analysis of pupils' perspectives are therefore crucial for developing a basic picture of pupils' needs and challenges and reacting to these needs in creating inclusive classrooms as well as multilingual and multimodal teacher training programs.

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[3] For other models of newcomer's schooling see Massumi et al. (2015) and Ahrenholz et al. (2016).

3.3. Data collection method: Narrative interviews as a way to take a holistic view on the pupils with migratory experience and their historical-biographical background

The theoretical foundation of the narrative interview lies in, among other things, symbolic interactionism, which assumes that human social action is based on individual attributions of meaning, which themselves arise and are changed in social processes of interaction and interpretation (Blumer 1973: 81). Language-biographical narrative interviews do not focus on the product of language acquisition, but rather take a look at the processual, life-historical development in its embedded context (Ohm 2012: 261). In contrast to interviews probing into learners' subjective language needs and content-related meanings, the elicitation of language biographies does not seek to formulate some representations of the learner's inner truth or an objective perspective of their reality. Rather, interview subjects are to narrate about their individual and subjective individual language acquisition experience, the narrating subjects represent and position themselves within their narrated experiences. For this purpose, the interviewer uses a narrative prompt to stimulate the production of a narrative, in which the research subject has the monological right to speak until he or she returns it to the researcher – usually by means of a coda (e.g. "That was my story"). This "dynamic of the impromptu narrative" (Schütze 1987: 237f.) makes it possible to liquefy the inner layering of experience (Schütze 1987: 238), whereby the subject presents or hints at even unconscious, repressed, or theoretically hidden experiences. After the impromptu narrative, the interviewer asks questions that tie in with themes already addressed or hinted at by the narrator and provide detail where possible. Towards the end of the survey, descriptive and argumentative accounts are also elicited in order to "make use of the explanatory and abstracting capacity" of the narrator as an expert and theorist of herself (Schütze 1983: 285).

When piloting the interview in our study, it proved challenging for the pupil to deliver a monologue impromptu narrative due to her age, so that the methodological procedure was changed. First, the pupils were presented with the following chart (see Figure 1) to complete along with the task: "Recall important moments in your life and record them on this line. Evaluate whether these moments were experienced as positive or negative. Joyful moments are entered above the line and less good ones below. Important life events can be, for example, the first day at school, moving to Germany, the first contact with the German language, an achieved goal, the beginning or end of important friendships, the first day in Germany."

Figure 1. Chart to complete by the pupil before the interviewer presents the narrative prompt

Afterwards, a narrative prompt relying on the written events in the chart was used to elicit a ridge free narrative.

3.4. Interpretation method: Documentary Method

The Documentary Method conceptualises two different sorts or levels of knowledge: on one side, the explicit or communicative knowledge and, on the other side, implicit or practical knowledge[4] (Bohnsack 2010 and Figure 2): *The communicative knowledge* is learned on a communicative level (through words) and therefore can be easily communicated but it "does not, however, necessarily play the guiding role in forming an individual's real actions" (Philipps & Mrowczynski 2021: 62–63). Opposite to this, *the practical knowledge*[5], is learned on a performative level (through direct body experience) and consequently "gives orientation to action" (Bohnsack 2010: 100). This knowledge is mostly implicit, so it cannot be elicited by guideline interviews, it has to be reconstructed by the researcher.

This concept of a double structure of knowledge finds its expression in the stepwise approach to data analysis (see the right side in Figure 2): the first step of data interpretation – formulating interpretation – aims at articulating the *explicit (communicative) knowledge* of participants by topically summarising their narration (see Chapter 3.4.1); the second step of interpretation – reflecting interpretation – reconstructs the interviewee's *implicit (practical) knowledge* by reflecting on the performative level of the interview or on how a person describes his or her personal experience (see Chapter 3.4.2). Thus, the reflecting interpretation focuses on how a topic is elaborated on the formal and semantic levels of language through reconstructing the speech organisation: Is this passage a narrative, a description, an argumentation, or an evaluation (see different colours in Table 1)? Which words, intonation, sentence structures, grammatical structures,

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[4] The tension between explicit and implicit knowledge is complex and cannot be shown in the present article, but see Chapter 4 in Bohnsack (2017) for more.

[5] The practical or implicit knowledge is also called tacit, incorporated, or experiential knowledge (cf. Bohnsack 2010).

etc. does the interviewee use in the data (see, e.g., the use of pronouns, direct or indirect speech in the interpretation below in Sectionr 3.4.2)? By following the steps, the interpreter reconstructs the participant's frames of orientation. Thereby, an orientation frame is "the way a text or action is constructed or the limits within which its topic is dealt with" and the "implicit regularity" of patterns and perspectives in developing a certain topic (Nohl 2010: 201–202).
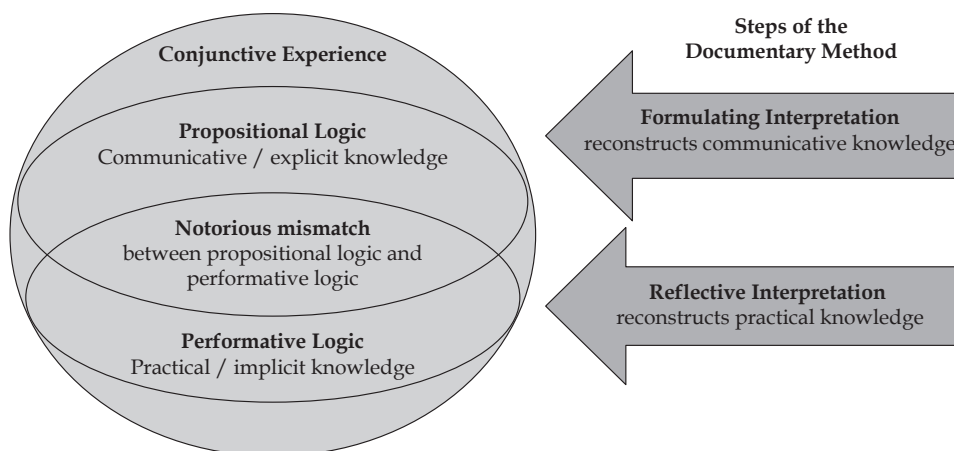
Figure 2. Double Structure of Knowledge (following Bohnsack 2017: 103) and Steps of the Documentary Method

Bohnsack (i.e. 2010) originally developed the Documentary Method to analyse group discussions, and Nohl (2010: 205) adapted the method for analysing narrative interviews. Nohl (2010) suggests identifying text genres[6], i.e., narration, description, evaluation, argumentation (different colours in Table 1) at the beginning of reflective interpretation. After that, the focus lies on words, intonation, sentences, and grammatical structures etc. While evaluations and argumentations mainly give access to *communicative knowledge*, descriptions and narrations usually give the researcher access to the interviewee's *practical knowledge*. Genre structure is often complex: An interview passage in one genre can interrupt another passage in a different genre or include background constructions in the mode of another one or more genres (for examples see Table 1).

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[6] "Narrative […] gives an account of actions and events that have a beginning and an end as well as a chronological sequence. Description […] gives an account of recurring courses of action or established facts. Argumentations are summaries of the motives, reasons and conditions behind one's own or someone else's actions […]. Evaluations […] are statements about the interviewee's own or someone else's actions" (Nohl 2010: 205).

3.5. Exemplary analysis and findings: Reconstructed experiences and orientation frames of a pupil with migratory experiences

The following paragraphs focus on one excerpt from a 74-minute interview. The excerpt is shown in Table 1. The objective of the interview was to elicit the second-language biography of a pupil as a subjective account. The girl for whom we chose the pseudonym Anna completed her elementary school in her country of origin and then moved to Bremen, Germany with her family approximately at the age of 12. She started visiting a preparatory class and gradually changed to a mainstream one at a comprehensive school there. At the time of the interview, the young woman had just graduated from the school in Bremen at the age of 17 and was planning to start her training as an early education teacher.

Table 1. Data segment in German and translation in English (for Transcription Convention Key see Appendix)

Translation in English	Original Interview Transcript in German
Description	
1 it is I think also (here:0.36)↑	1 es ist glaube ich auch (hier:0.36)↑
2 so w(as:0.4) in ((country of origin)) in the (s)	2 so w(ie:0.4) in ((Herkunftsland)) in die (sch)
3 PRIMARY school because (1.073) there↑	3 GRUNDschule weil (1.073) da↑
4 we ha(ve0.493) (1.893) (um:1.207)	4 wir habe(n:0.493) (1.893) (ähm:1.207)
5 made very much by ourselves so↓ (1.28)	5 sehr viele selber gemacht so↓ (1.28)
6 we were drawing↑ a lot (wich)	6 wir haben viel gemAlt↑ (wich)
7 (uh:0.58) there were (so:0.6) extra lessons	7 (äh:0.58) es gab (so:0.6) extra stUNden
8 where (we:0.5) (1.58) made presents↑	8 wo (wir:0.5) (1.58) geSCHENke↑ gemacht haben
9 for our PArents↑ and so↓	9 für unsere ELtern↑ und so↓
10 I think that also exists HERE↑	10 ich glaube das gibt es auch hIER↑
11 in (PRIMARY schools not only) there↓	11 in (GRUNDschulen nicht nur) da
12 ↓‹‹p› yep↓›	12 ↓‹‹p› ja↓›
Evaluation	
13 SO it is in ((country of origin)) (0.613)	13 ALso es ist in ((Herkunftsland)) (0.613)
14 a little↑ different	14 ein bIsschen↑ anders
15 we HAve more respect for (THE:0.48)	15 wir HAben mehr respekt an (die:0.48)
16 (0.387) TEACHERS than HERE↑	16 (0.387) LEHRER als HIER↑
Description with background construction in Mode of Argumentation and Evaluation	
17 because THERE↑ it is compLETely NORmal	17 weil DA↑ es ist GANZ norMAl
18 when you go to school °hh	18 wenn man in die schule °hh GEHT↑
19 and then jus(t:0.393) (0.82) ‹‹all›	19 und dann einfa(ch:0.393) (0.82) ‹‹all›
20 (because)› so I live in a VILLAGE↑ and	20 (weil)› also ich wohne in ein DORF↑ und
21 we ha(ve0. 387) FLOwers everywhere↑	21 wir habe(n:0.387) überall BLUmen↑
22 and so↓°hh	22 und so↓°hh
23 and THAT (s) normAL↑	23 und DAS (s) norMAL↑

Translation in English	Original Interview Transcript in German
24 if you take a flower↑	24 wenn man ein BLUme↑ nimmt
25 and give it to the teachers↑	25 und ihn die LEHrer↑ gibt
26 but HERE↑ is NOT so	26 aber HIER↑ ist das NICH so
Narrative 27 my TEAcher said (0.4) **Argumentation** 28 because I like↑ (so:0.467) (0.493) to be 29 FRIENDLY↑ to the others (0. 713) 30 I LIKE↑ making others HAPpy 31 (I) want NOTHING in re(TURN:38)↑ 32 but I LIKE making others HAPPY 33 and give SOMEthing ‹‹all› °hhh	27 meine LEHrerin hat gesagt (0.4) 28 weil ich mag↑ (so:0.467) (0.493) 29 FREUNDlich↑ zu die andere sein (0.713) 30 ich MAG↑ andere GLÜCKlich zu MAchen 31 (Ich) will NICHTS zurü(CK:38)↑ 32 aber ich MAG andere GLÜCKlich zu ma- chen 33 und ETwas ‹‹all› zu geben› °hhh
Narrative with background construction in Mode of Argumentation 34 and if I for example h(ERE:0.293)↑ 35 give a FLOwer as a gift 36 then my TEACHER said 37 you do it on purpose↑ 38 so you get a better GRAde ‹‹dim› 39 and then I was like› (0. 9) (what:0.42) ‹‹f› 40 ‹‹laughing› NO› I like 41 I ‹‹dim› do this just so› ‹‹f› 42 because I like this TEAcher↑ 43 NOT because I› (0.52) want 44 to have a BETter↑ GRAde (1.253) ‹‹dim› 45 was NOT↑ in my HEAD› at all	 34 und wenn ich zum beispiel h(IER:0.293)↑ 35 eine BLUme schenke 36 dann meine LEHRERin hat gesagt 37 du machst da(x) extra↑ 38 damit du ein bessere NOte bekommst ‹‹dim› 39 und dann war ich so› (0.9) (hä:0.42) ‹‹f› 40 ‹‹lachend› NEIN› ich mag 41 ich ‹‹dim› MACH das nur so› ‹‹f› 42 weil Ich diese lehRERin MAG↑ 43 NICH weil ICH› (0.52) 44 ein BESsere↑ NOte haben will (1.253) ‹‹dim› 45 war GAR NICH↑ so in mein KOPF›
Evaluation 46 but yes↑ ‹‹dim› 47 it's a LIttle different› (0.713) 48 and HERE↑ I see↑ ‹‹dim› NOT so respect 49 as in ((country of origin))› 50 so the pupils↑ behave 51 VERY badly (0.56) to the teachers ‹‹dim› 52 in my opinion› °hh 53 NOT↑ EVERYBODY of course °hh 54 ((drops her pencil on the table)) 55 like↑ (0.86) our HAND↑ 56 there are (0.42) different FINgers 57 so are the PEOple different 58 one can NOT because of one (all) 59 judge everyone else (0.707) 60 but (1.22) (so:0.427) (0.92) yeah↓ (0.5) 61 I don't know 62 they are (is a↑ little bit different)	46 aber ja↑ ‹‹dim› 47 es ist BISSchen anders› (0.713) 48 und HIER↑ seh↑ ich› ‹‹dim› NICH so respekt 49 wie in ((Herkunftsland))› 50 also die SCHÜler↑ benehmen sich 51 SEHR schlecht (0.56) zu die LEHrer ‹‹dim› 52 meiner meinung nach› °hh 53 NICH↑ JEDER natürlich °hh 54 ((lässt ihren Stift auf den Tisch fallen)) 55 so wie↑ (0.86) unsere HAND↑ 56 es sind (0.42) verschiedene FINger 57 so sind auch die MENschen anders 58 man kann NICH wegen einer (allen) 59 alle ANdere (0.707) beURTEILen 60 aber (1.22) (also:0.427) (0.92) ja↓ (0.5) 61 ich weiß NICH 62 sie sind (ist (n) ↑BISSchen anders)

Source: current study.

In the following, we first present our formulating interpretation and then the reflective interpretation of the above interview passage; it means we will first focus on *what* Anna is saying in the interview excerpt and then on *how* specifically she is saying this. Our goal is to reconstruct orientation frames in which the experiences of the pupil with a linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biography unfold.

3.5.1. Formulating interpretation (focus on what is said)

When asked about her time in elementary school in her country of origin, Anna assumes that many activities she did at her elementary school in her country of origin were also typical for elementary school in Germany (Line 1–12). Anna then remembers something that was different in her country of origin, which is that pupils there had more respect for their teachers (Line 13–16). She cites the common practice of giving flowers as an example of expressing respect for teachers in her country of origin while emphasising the normality of the practice (Line 17–25). In contrast, she shows how this practice is interpreted differently in the context of the German school (Line 26–45): While Anna sees flower-giving as an expression of her personal affection and a way of pleasing the teacher (Line 28–33), the teacher views it as a way to get a better grade (Line 27, 34–45). After that, Anna emphasises one more time that the behavior of the German pupils is not as respectful as that of pupils in her country of origin (Line 46–52). Then Anna limits her evaluation of the German pupils as not respectful by emphasising the fundamental difference of all people (based on the metaphor of people having different fingers) and the impossibility to cover all people with one judgment (Line 53–59). However, she concludes that the German pupils are nevertheless different (Line 60–62).

3.5.2. Reflective interpretation (focus on how it is said)

Homologous[7] to the previous sequence structure, Anna is in a comparison mode (comparing her experiential spaces in her country of origin and Germany) when describing her elementary school years. First, she notes a similarity: activities that she assumes are common to elementary school in both contexts. In doing so, she reports the activities using an inclusive mode: "we […] made

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[7] In the Documentary Method "homologous" is defined as having a similar topic or structure pattern throughout the narrative, namely "continuit[y] across a series of action sequences or narrative sequences about such actions". Homologous structures help to identify the frames of orientations of a narrator (Nohl 2010: 208–209).

very much by ourselves so↓ (1.28) we were drawing↑ a lot […] (we:0.5) (1.58) made presents↑ for our PArents↑" Line 4–9 (see also "we HAve more respect" Line 15, "we ha(ve0. 387) FLOwers everywhere" Line 21). By using "we", the interviewee includes herself in the group of pupils suggesting a positive identification with pupils in her country of origin. This use of "we" contrasts with the use of "they" in the line 64 – "they are (is a↑ little bit different)" –, by which Anna refers to pupils in her German school, not including herself in this group (exclusive mode). Among the typical activities in primary school, she names making presents for the parents, stressing her belief that it is universal practice for young pupils in Germany and her country of origin. Here she frames 'giving presents to important people you look up to as a child' as something ordinary in both contexts known to her.

After describing the assumed similarity between primary school in Germany and her country of origin, Anna mentions a difference in the two spaces of experience she is familiar with, namely (dis)respect toward teachers. The interviewee evaluates pupils in her country of origin counting herself to this group as more respectful when she formulates: "we HAve more respect for (THE:0.48) (0.387) TEACHERS than HERE" (Line 15–16). She justifies this evaluation by describing a specific practice of giving flowers which the pupils in her country of origin use as an expression of respect towards the teachers. With recourse to praxeological extended sociocultural theories of SLA (Daase 2021) we understand practices as "the smallest unit of the social" (Reckwitz 2003: 290) and a "nexus of doings and sayings" that goes beyond that of speech acts (Schatzki 1996: 89). Practices are "typified, historically and socially formatted and thus distinguishable bundles of verbal and non-verbal activities" (Alkemeyer & Buschmann 2015: 171, transl. by the authors). The performance of practice represents a "contingent sequence of all possible life activities" (Alkemeyer & Buschmann 2015: 271, transl. by the authors) and is constituted through a concatenation of practices.

Anna evaluates the practice of giving flowers as something normal for the experiential space in her country of origin. This documents her idea of normality of the practice: "THERE↑ it is compLETely NORmal" Line 17, "THAT (s) normAL if you take a flower and give it to the teachers" (Lines 24–26). Thus, giving flowers to her teachers was natural for her. She describes her environment, which is characterised by the fact that they "have FLOwers everywhere" (the materiality of the practice) and living under such circumstances invites giving flowers as a gift, which also shows the interconnectedness of the material environment and practices. The following utterance "you take a flower and give it to the teachers" (Line 24–25) discloses the naturality of her experience on the material and bodily level as physically performed (the embodiment of the practice). This is something she lived and accordingly materially experienced

and bodily performed (implicit/practical knowledge, see Figure 2) and not just heard about (explicit/communicative knowledge, see Figure 2).

Finishing the description with the comment "and here it is not so" (Line 26), Anna shows her realisation of the different materiality of her other experiential space (that includes different material environment and different bodily performed actions) and also her understanding of different symbolic meanings of actions depending on specific environment what we termed with contingency. After this negative turn, Anna begins a narration about one case in her German school, when her gift to the teacher provoked an unfavourable interpretation. Anna starts to narrate about the comment of her teacher to her making gifts (Line 27), but interrupts her narration with argumentation (Line 28–33), in order to first provide her explanation of this behaviour so that she is in control of how people should perceive her actions. In such a way she emancipates herself from the interpretation of others, learning from experience with her teacher she later talks about how important this explanation is for the preservation of her self-image. Then she portrays in an emotional way her moment of getting to know that the practice she perceived to be normal for a long time in her life is seen differently. The materiality, embodiment, and normalcy of the practice of giving flowers to the teacher contrasts with the communicated judgment of this practice in the other context of the German school given by the teacher: "you do it on purpose so you get a better grade" (Line 37–38). Thus, the interviewee learns this interpretation initially as explicit/communicative knowledge from the teacher.

The narrative interview passage (Line 34–45) makes clear that this confrontation with the teacher is experienced as a highly irritating moment, which is caused primarily by an unexpected judgment of the teacher but also by a notorious discrepancy between the pupils' experienced knowledge and communicated knowledge (see Figure 1). This narrative is the climax of this passage (focusing metaphor[8]), as can be heard in the intensity of her speech. She is therefore processing this moment of irritation during the interview, causing this irritation to manifest itself on a performative level in the interview. Thus, the interviewee uses direct speech ("you do it on purpose so you get a better grade" Line 37–38) to describe the situation; in the reproduction of her own thought in that situation she uses the strongly emphasised and emotionally coloured "NO" (Line 40), making clear her emotional involvement.

The teacher's misinterpretation of the intention behind Anna's gifting of flowers shattered Anna's self-image. This negative perception of presenting gifts[9]

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[8] Focusing metaphor is a culminating point in speech, which is characterised by detailed description and high emotionality of narration. It is especially fruitful for identification of central orientation frames (Bohnsack 2010: 104–105).

[9] Also compared to showing affection in other contexts of human life, e.g. giving presents for birthdays to friends and family has no negative connotation.

to people who have a special significance for the pupils is surprising to Anna as she knows that making and then giving presents to parents is common in both of the schools (in Germany and in her country of origin) she attended (see Line 8–9). The roles of parents and teachers are similar to Anna. She also prioritises relationships above all (Line 30, 32 and passim in the whole interview). That is why Anna feels a contradiction between showing affection to people she relates to in her school environment in Germany vs. her country of origin. The teacher's comment is so unexpected and inappropriate to Anna's self-image that it hurts her. Anna perceives that she is not just told that the practice of flower-giving is not typical for German schools, but she herself is evaluated by a person she looks up to and is attached to. The teacher's interpretation of her action is completely negative; the words of her teacher shake her self-image. Anna furthermore receives feedback that is incompatible with her own experienced subjectivity (Line 28–33). She is struggling to restore her self-image, so she emphasises in this context that it is only about generosity and that she does not expect anything in return (Line 41–45). She thus positions herself as a person who is kind, defining kindness as "making others HAPPY" (Line 32, 30). This positioning documents her desire to distance herself from her teacher's evaluation of her actions while also not allowing it on the part of the interviewers.

To conclude this interview passage, the interviewee returns to her evaluation of German pupils as less respectful than in her country of origin (Line 46–52, see Line 13–16). To compare the pupils in Germany to those in her country of origin, she uses a hand metaphor that people are as different as fingers on a hand, making it impossible to evaluate a group based on one person (Line 53–59). Despite the hand metaphor, she concludes the sequence in an exclusionary mode by still referring to her class as "a little different" and using the pronoun "they" (Line 60–62).

To summarise our analysis of the whole interview passage, we can say that after the description (Line 1–12) of her typical primary school activities, the interviewee starts with an evaluation (Line 13–16) of pupils in her country of origin as more respectful towards teachers. Then she provides an exemplification for that while describing (Line 17–25) a specific practice of flower-giving as an expression of respect and narrating (Line 27, 34–45) about how one teacher in her German school perceived this practice; in this narrative, the interviewee inserts an argumentation (Line 28–33) in order to first provide her interpretation of her actions and to save her self-image in such a way towards the interviewers. At the end of the passage, the interviewee turns back to the evaluation (Line 46–62) of how disrespectful German pupils are, with which she started. A frame construction, therefore, manifests itself: the interviewee comes full circle by ending with an evaluation that connects to the evaluation at the beginning. On the surface, it appears that Anna is narrating this experience to evaluate German pupils as

different (i.e. less respectful) than those in her country of origin and give evidence for this evaluation. But a closer look at the culminating point (Line 27–45) reveals her deep emotional aspiration to restore and preserve her subjectivity.

3.5.3. Reconstructed orientation frames

This data segment illustrates the clash of orientation frames (see 3.3): Anna orients to establishing social contacts and maintaining relationships, while she also describes the interpretation frame of the teacher as centred around school performance and assessment through her institutional role. Because of this collision of orientation frames, the pupil experiences the negative comment of her teacher as a threat to her established relationship with her teacher, as well as a total mismatch to the way she sees herself. In sociocultural and most of all poststructural oriented research in Second Language Acquisition (Pavlenko & Lantolf 2000), the self of a person is not regarded as something static and stable but as dynamic, contradictional, and co-constructed by discourses and interactions with significant others, for which the term subjectivity is used instead of identity. As there is a complex connection between language, human consciousness, and experience, language acquisition always means a transformation of the person. In situations like the one presented in the analysed interview passage, the safety of the ontogenetic security of the subjectivity is shattered. "To be ontologically secure is to possess, on the level of the unconscious and practical consciousness, answers to fundamental existential questions which all human life in some way addresses" (Giddens 1991: 47). The pupil, therefore, has to invest in the reconstruction of the ontogenetic safety of her subjectivity (Daase 2018).

Typical for Anna's narration is also the comparison orientation, which we could identify through the opposition of "here" and "there" or "we" and "they". Through this comparison, she realises that concepts of *normality* may differ in various contexts. What is mainly happening in this data segment is that the pupil analyses what she did and what the teacher's reaction was, and she tries to understand the meaning of that reaction. The interpreted passage illustrates the process of how a pupil with migratory experience can be challenged to see her own actions from someone else's perspectives while facing the alternative interpretation of her own action that contradicts her practical, bodily-experienced knowledge. In other words, such experiences as Anna described in the analysed interview passage confront a pupil with the contingency of human life. It means that contingency as a frame of orientation could occur through circumstances pupils with migratory experiences are confronted with and could challenge them to build the contingency competence**,** that is, to understand and accept the fact

that there are several ways a material environment can look like and also several ways to perform and to interpret the same action within a given environment. What is important to stress is that this competence cannot be automatically built with migratory experiences, but needs opportunities for reflection, which Anna possibly had through her participation in interviews (including ours and also for some local newspaper before) about her life. Getting the possibility to tell her story, to unfold her experiences and being heard, she is able to reflect on the experience, to get aware of this contingence of human life.

4. CONCLUSION: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SCHOOLING OF PUPILS WITH MIGRATORY EXPERIENCES

Coming back to our underlying epistemic interest of drawing implications for teacher professionalisation based on this undertaken subjective approach to orientation frames of pupils with a linguistically and spatially discontinuous school biography we can conclude that contingency competence plays a crucial role not only for newcomers in any community of practice, for example, in school or respective classes, but for the whole school and all its stakeholders. Using this data excerpt as an example, it is possible to show what constitutes this contingency or arbitrariness competence and how it can be learned. The understanding of competence which underlies this text is not individualistic, but social – it is not only migrated pupils who have to learn German or get to know how to be a pupil in a German school, but the whole school, the whole educational system has to develop interactively a certain competence to enable these pupils to participate fully in the practices of the school (Daase 2021). Ultimately, this means that *all* stakeholders must train themselves in contingency skills together, mutually, and consistently, and that educational institutions must provide or establish the reflexive places and times to do so. Components of the contingency competence include:
  – Active participation and involvement in different experience spaces (in the case of the interviewed pupil: her experience spaces in the home country's school and her German school);
  – Ambiguity: allowing multiple interpretations of one's own or others' actions;
  – Ability as well as the possibility and the support despite the ambiguity of one's own experiences to revive and establish a coherent subjectivity;
  – Allowing multiple concepts of normality.
The term contingency thus turns our attention less to what is the case and what actually happens and rather emphasises the non-necessity or the principal

openness of human forms of life – which is constituted by language and social practices. By contingency competence we refer to the sensitivity and awareness of this principle of openness of human life forms and their diverse possibilities of material and linguistic expression, which is crucial for multilingual schools. Mecheril (2008) created the term *Kompetenzlosigkeitskompetenz* (lit.: competence-lessness competence) against a technologically oriented concept of intercultural competence in the course of an abbreviated and one-sided understanding of culture and as a critique of the fact that the cultural-ethnic *others* do not usually appear as addressees of so-called intercultural competence (Mecheril 2008: 16). With the concept of contingency competence, we want to expand beyond Mecheril's concept, which refers to migration and people who are read as ethnically different, to *all* pupils and a society that is fundamentally diverse in many areas.

The other implication that can be drawn from the analysed interview passage is that teachers should not rely only on communicative or verbally transmitted knowledge by interacting with their pupils but to take their practical or bodily experienced knowledge into account (see Figure 2): When repeated experiences of pupils outside of formal institutions or their experienced knowledge contradict the desired practices at school, trying to establish the rules or behaviours relying on singular language comment cannot be effective. On the other hand, it is important to make institutional rules transparent to newcomers through explicit explanation without judgement and allegations towards the actions and motives of pupils stressing teachers' institutional obligations. For the problem described in the passage is that the pupil perceives the teacher's comment as putting a certain intention into her action that the pupil did not have; thereby, the interpretive authority clearly belongs to the teacher. The contingency competence means thus, among other things, entrusting interpretive authority to the counterpart and distancing oneself from evaluative judgements.

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APPENDIX

GAT2 Transcription Conventions

(0.5) / (2.0) measured pause of appr. 0.5 / 2.0 sec. duration (to tenth of a second)
<<laughing >> laughter particles accompanying speech with indication of scope
(may i) assumed wording
: lengthening
SYLlable focus accent
↑ smaller pitch upstep
↓ smaller pitch downstep
<<all>> forte, loud
<<dim>> diminuendo, increasingly softer
<<p>> piano, soft
<<f>> forte, loud
° hh inbreath of approximately 0.5-0.8 sec. duration
° hhh audible inbreath of approximately 0.8-1.0 sec duration
((Herkunftsland)) changes in transcription for anonymisation or characterization of a non-linguistic event
See also: Selting, M. / Auer, P. / Barth-Weingarten, D. / Bergmann, J. / Bergmann, P. et al. (2011). A system for transcribing talk-in-interaction: GAT 2: Gesprächsforschung. *Online-Zeitschrift zur verbalen Interaktion*, *12*, 1–51. http://www.gespraechsforschung-ozs.de/heft2011/px-gat2-englisch.pdf

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Więcej niż potrzeby językowe i więcej niż jedna perspektywa: rekonstrukcja perspektyw uczniów o nieciągłych językowo i przestrzennie biografiach szkolnych oraz implikacje dla wszystkich interesariuszy szkoły

ABSTRAKT. W artykule opowiadamy się za rekonstrukcyjnym i zorientowanym na osobę biorącą udział w badaniu podejściem do gromadzenia i analizy danych w celu zrekonstruowania perspektyw uczniów o nieciągłych językowo i przestrzennie biografiach szkolnych jako podstawy do analizy potrzeb. Przyjrzano się dogłębnie wywiadowi narracyjnemu z takim uczniem przy użyciu metody dokumentarnej. Opierając się na analizowanym fragmencie wywiadu i odwołując się do prakseologicznie rozszerzonych socjokulturowych teorii SLA, wyprowadzamy wstępne implikacje dla szkół z uczniami o doświadczeniach migracyjnych. Jednym z kluczowych założeń jest to, że aby stworzyć lepsze możliwości edukacyjne dla dzieci z doświadczeniami migracyjnymi, pracownicy szkoły powinni systematycznie rozwijać kompetencje na wypadek sytuacji awaryjnych. Przez takie kompetencje rozumiemy wrażliwość i świadomość zasadniczej otwartości form życia ludzkiego oraz ich różnorodnych możliwości ekspresji językowej, materialnej i praktycznej. Na takiej podbudowie autorki wyciągają wnioski, jakie komponenty obejmują kompetencje na wypadek sytuacji awaryjnych i jak można tworzyć szkołę integrującą opartą na nich.

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Language-sensitive teaching as an emergent response to increasing linguistic diversity in Irish post-primary schools: Challenges, opportunities and implications for teacher education

ABSTRACT. The 21st century has been characterised by an unprecedented growth in transnational migration with education systems in many countries challenged to address the implications of this ongoing global phenomenon. This paper reports on a recent study that was undertaken amongst teachers and school managers in post-primary state schools in Ireland to explore the current position regarding language-sensitive teaching as an emergent response to the growing reality of linguistic diversity in schools. Bottom-up research of this kind is vital as it can shed light on the perceptions and experiences of the key stakeholders involved in order to determine their related professional needs and shape future directions in teacher education in this area. The key findings show that language-sensitive teaching remains in its infancy in the Irish post-primary educational context with an urgent need for teacher awareness-raising and upskilling in relation to this approach and its implementation in different subject classrooms. The research has also indicated that language support teachers can play a central role in developing language-sensitive teaching at the whole school level but this potential remains largely under-exploited in the Irish post-primary educational context.

KEYWORDS: Diversity, inclusion, multilingualism, language-sensitive teaching, teacher professional needs, teacher education, language support teachers, whole-school approach.

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past quarter century or so, there has been a dramatic transformation in the demographic landscape of Ireland, as is the case in many other EU member states (Gallagher 2021; OECD 2020; Little & Kirwan 2019; Parker-Jenkins & Masterson 2013). This transformation has seen the country move towards becoming a more ethnically diverse society with a richer and more complex linguistic and cultural tapestry (CSO 2022b). This has come about in large part as a result of Ireland's growing economic prosperity over the past fifty years or so, which has made it an increasingly attractive destination for economic migrants, with these upward trends expected to continue, especially in the light of Brexit. The country is also now home to a growing number of displaced persons including, more recently, from the Ukraine. As a testament to Ireland's growing linguistic and cultural diversity, the most recent national survey carried out in Ireland (CSO 2022b) has revealed that there are now around two hundred languages spoken in the country with Polish, Lithuanian, Romanian, Brazilian Portuguese and Ukrainian currently the most widely used alongside English and Irish which are the country's two official languages (CSO 2022a).

This ongoing demographic transformation, which is impacting on Irish society at all levels, is also challenging the Irish education system in terms of the development of educational approaches that can take better address the ever more diverse and complex needs of pupils in Irish schools. Teachers in Ireland now routinely teach pupils whose first language is other than English which is the language of instruction in most schools except for a small number of schools where Irish is used for this purpose (known as *Gailscoil*). Moreover, an increasing number of pupils from migrant and displaced person backgrounds are entering Irish state schools with varying levels of English language proficiency depending on the amount of time they have lived in the country and their prior educational provision. The most recent national census (CSO 2022b) has indicated that there are now circa 30,000 pupils enrolled on the post-primary online database who have reported a first language other than English or Irish, which represents about thirteen percent of the overall school population. These numbers were spread over approximately seven hundred schools with a greater concentration in Dublin, Cork, Limerick and Galway which are the country's four biggest cities.

In Ireland, as elsewhere, the educational challenges faced by newly arrived pupils from a migrant or displaced person background are greatest in the post-primary school context when they are at an age when the development of academic language skills and knowledge of subject matter is crucial for their future success (Butler & Goschler 2019). This situation has led to recommendations by the Teaching Council of Ireland, which is the statutory body that regulates

schools in the country, for the development of language-sensitive teaching. This is envisaged as a broad, educational approach that incorporates an explicit focus on language awareness-raising across the curriculum and draws on the entire linguistic repertoire of pupils to support the learning process (Teaching Council 2020: 3–4), in line with broader European Commission educational policy.

At this initial stage, it is pertiant to highlight that while language-sensitive teaching shares some elements of a range of educational approaches such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and bilingual education and immersion, which have been in operation in some countries and contexts for a number of years, it can be differentiated from these approaches in a number of ways. For instance, CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which an *additional* language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010), as for example, the teaching of geography or mathematics through English in schools in countries such as Brazil or Latvia where English it is not the native language (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010). By contrast, language-sensitive teaching involves the use of the *majority* language of the country in subject teaching, so for example, the use of English in schools in Ireland to teach geography and history, or the use of German in schools in Germany to teach biology and business studies, with subject teachers also encouraged to make reference to minority and heritage languages where this is considered relevant and useful. This approach is supported by a growing body of international research which has investigated the links between language-sensitive teaching, language awareness, educational attainment and integration efforts in different migrant contexts within a variety of theoretical frameworks (e.g. García 2009; Finkbeiner, Knierim, Smasal & Ludwig 2012; van Dijk, Hajer, Kuiper & Eijkelhof 2020; Viesca et al. 2022). It is also an approach that is now increasingly advocated for on the basis that it can better promote inclusive education more widely, and that in so doing, it can help to address wider issues around inequality in society (Boisvert & Thiede 2020).

However, despite the growing consensus in support of this approach, progress in this area has been slow at the "chalk face" in many EU countries and this includes in the Irish post-primary educational context (Farrell & Baumgart 2019; Baumgart 2021). This has been attributed to three main factors: the first is a lack of appreciation on the part of school managers and subject teachers of the linguistic challenges that are associated with different subject areas; the second is the limited competences in schools for teaching subject content in a language-sensitive manner, which includes a lack of awareness on the part of subject teachers of subject-specific language; and the third is a general failure on the part of educators to understand that linguistic diversity in schools cre-

ates new opportunities for enhanced learning experiences and outcomes for all pupils (Farrell & Baumgart 2019).

Education has a fundamental role to play in the promotion of inclusion in schools (Eurydice 2019) with educational policy makers and theorists alike increasingly stressing the need for the development and implementation of educational approaches that can take better account of the needs and abilities of all pupils in schools (Little & Kirwan 2021). Inclusive education is now viewed as a fundamental social right and priority area by the European Union Commission (2020) and the United Nations (2015). In Ireland, the Education Act of 1998 marked a watershed moment with its recognition of the statutory requirement of the government to ensure the provision of education that is appropriate to meeting the needs and abilities of each individual pupil, including a pupil with a disability, or who has other special educational needs (OECD 2009: 20). Since 2013, European Commission policy aims to support Member States to integrate learners from a migrant background in their education and training systems, from early childhood education to higher education.

In response to the need to address the additional, educational needs of newly arrived pupils from migrant and refugee backgrounds, a model for the provision of English as an additional language (EAL), and for the development of inter-cultural skills in schools more broadly, was introduced into Irish state schools in 2007 by the Department of Education and Science (renamed the Department of Education and Skills [DES] in 2012). However, while some progress has been made in promoting inter-cultural education in Irish schools (DES & The Office of the Minister for Integration 2010), there has been criticism that the model of EAL provision introduced fails to provide EAL pupils with an adequate level of language support for their needs (Rodriguez-Izquierdo & Darmody 2019). Moreover, it has led to a situation whereby the responsibility for integration at the linguistic and cultural levels is often seen as the sole responsibility of language support teachers rather than subject teachers. This situation has thwarted the development of whole-school approaches based around consultation and cooperation between these two key stakeholders (Farrell & Baumgart 2019).

The cultivation of multilingualism in schools has been a key European Commission educational goal since 2008 and in the Irish context, this has been reaffirmed by the recently launched National Languages Strategy (*Languages Connect*) (DES 2017). This recognises the importance of actively promoting multilingual educational practices for the country's future economic development and it has explicitly identified the "new Irish" and the languages they bring as a strength that must be cultivated. From this, a number of initiatives have been introduced to increase the range of foreign languages taught in post-primary schools, and to support the teaching of heritage languages from an early age. This includes a new

primary language curriculum which acknowledges that developing skills in one language will help children to develop similar skills in another language (DES 2019). Against this backdrop, significant progress has been made in Irish primary schools in recent years in developing innovative, multilingual educational practices at the whole-school level (Little & Kirwan 2019) with this progress at the bottom-up level commended by the European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice (2019).

Of significance also, is the fact that the National Languages Strategy highlights the crucial role that all teachers can play in encouraging children of different languages and cultures to embrace and share their heritage (DES 2019), and it further stresses the need for parents to become more involved in their child's language development. However, despite the greater recognition of the role and importance of language development across the school curriculum, no specific reference is made in the policy documents as to the kind of specialised knowledge and skills that will be required of subject teachers if they are to play a central role in driving this approach. This brings us to the present study which was undertaken to provide a snapshot of the current state of play concerning the development and implementation of language-sensitive teaching in Irish post-primary schools viewed from the perspective of the perceptions and experiences of subject teachers, language support teachers and school managers, from which to determine what this might mean for teacher education in this area.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Research aims and approach

The research being reported on had four key aims:
1) To determine the awareness of subject teachers, language support teachers and school managers in relation to growing linguistic and cultural diversity in schools.
2) To explore their perceptions as to what this phenomenon might hold for their own subject classroom practices, and for schools more broadly.
3) To gauge their understanding and skills in relation to language-sensitive teaching as an educational approach and their related concerns and practices in this area.
4) To determine their related professional needs and how these might be addressed by teacher education, to enable them to respond more effectively to the changing linguistic landscape in Irish schools.

The context of the research and the methods used to address these research aims are outlined in the following section.

2.2. Research context and participants

The research was carried out over the course of the academic year 2021/2022 in six, post-primary schools in Limerick, a city in the mid, south-west of Ireland with a population of circa 120,000 (CSO 2022b) including migrant and displaced person communities. Convenience sampling (Creswell 2009) was used to ensure the recruitment of a representative sample of teachers across age, gender and career stage/teaching and the schools involved were selected based on their varying geographic location and pupil socio-economic background. As Figure 1 shows, the participants were 12 subject teachers (females, n = 6; males, n = 6), 12 language support teachers (females, n = 3; males, n = 3) and 12 school managers (females, n = 6; males, n = 6), with one subject teacher, one language support teacher and one school manager recruited from each of the six participating schools.

6 post-primary schools in Limerick

Varying locations

Different multicultural profiles

12 subject teachers
– 6 male
– 6 female
– Varying ages
– Different career stages
– 10 subject specialisms

12 language support teachers
– 6 male
– 6 female
– Different career stages

12 school managers
– 6 male
– 6 female
– Different career stages
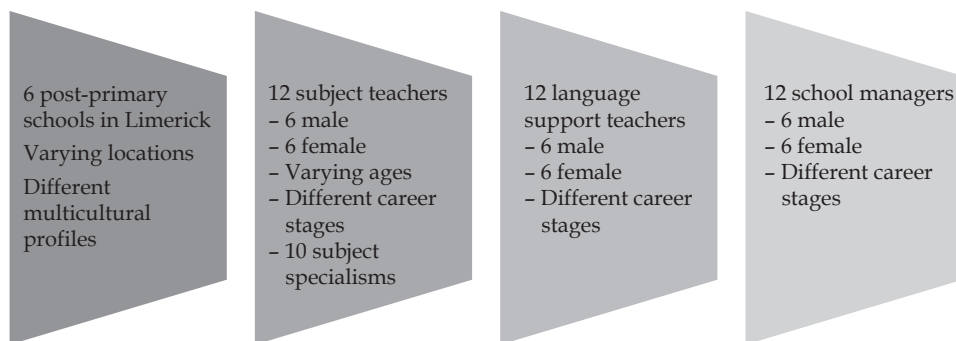
Figure 1. School and participant profile

Source: current study.

Participant teaching/management experience varied in length from two to twenty-eight years. Each of the subject teachers was involved in the teaching of two subject areas with an overall range of ten subject specialisms: these were: Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics, Business, French, Spanish, English, History and Geography. The teachers all taught at both junior and senior school cycles which meant that they had experience of preparing pupils for state examinations.

The language support teachers were all involved in the provision of EAL classes to newly arrived pupils from migrant and displaced person backgrounds with classes typically taking place outside the main classroom context. In three of the participating schools, a subject teacher also taught EAL as a second area

of subject specialism. In these instances, the subject areas taught were either French or Spanish.

As far as their teaching qualifications and prior teacher education were concerned, post-primary subject teachers in Ireland are required to hold an initial subject degree and a post-graduate teacher education qualification with teacher education programmes providing core content in relation to general and subject specific pedagogical theory and there is also a teaching practicum which involves two extensive placements in schools under the supervision of a cooperating teacher and university tutors.

Post-primary teachers make pedagogical decisions and undertake student assessments within the framework of a national curriculum. They may also take part in developing the local school curriculum. The language support teachers all held a teaching qualification in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) but only one of the three subject teachers who were involved in the teaching of EAL held a similar teaching qualification.

2.3. Primary data and research methods

The study gathered qualitative data, which was sourced from individual online, dyadic interviews between the present researchers and the participants. As Figure 2 shows, these were structured around the four main themes of awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity in their own classrooms, and in their school and Ireland more widely, their perceptions of the educational challenges and opportunities this brings, their experiences of language sensitivity teaching as an approach, if any; and their related professional and teacher education needs.

Awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity in the schools

Perceptions of related educational challenges and opportunities and their implications

Experiences of language sensitive teaching

Professional needs and teacher education
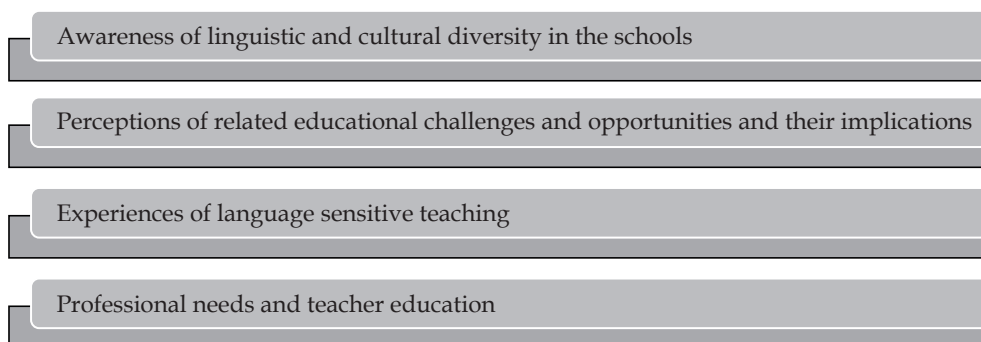
Figure 2. Main thematic areas of focus for qualitative analysis

Source: current study.

3. DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

As shown in Table 1, the analysis involved identifying and coding sub-categories around the four main analytical themes.

Table 1. Main themes, sub-themes and key related findings

Themes	Sub-themes
1. Awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity and its implications	a) In schools generally b) In their classrooms
2. Perceptions of the educational challenges and opportunities in linguistically diverse subject classrooms	a) Challenges b) Opportunities
3. Experiences of language-sensitive teaching	a) Factors promoting b) Factors impeding c) Evidence of emergent practices
4. Professional needs and teacher education	a) Language-related knowledge b) Strategic pedagogical skills c) Key role of language support teachers

Source: current study.

Following this, the interview data were explored in greater depth to gain a more finely nuanced understanding of the teachers' awareness, perceptions, teaching experiences and professional needs in the specified areas. The findings are discussed in the following section drawing on extracts from the individual dyadic interviews for illustrative purposes. In all instances, the identities of the teachers have been protected using pseudonyms.

3.1. Theme 1: Awareness of growing linguistic and cultural diversity and its implications

A common recurring theme observed was that while the teachers and school managers were aware of the changing ethnic and cultural landscape in their own schools and in the wider community, they showed only a limited critical understanding as to the implications of this change for their own teaching practices, as Extract 1 exemplifies:

Extract 1. Teacher of Business and Geography (Louise)
I've been a teacher for more than twenty years and in the past, I would have taught only Irish pupils, and then we started to see increasing number of children from

a Polish background coming into schools, and a few other nationalities too so I suppose there has been quite a change, but it hasn't really influenced the way I teach.

Interestingly, subject teachers who were more recently qualified were found to have a stronger sense of the cultural backgrounds of pupils they taught, which they attributed to their prior teacher education, as is evident in the following extract:

Extract 2. Teacher of Biology and Physics (Conor)
I'm from Limerick and I've seen the population of the city change a lot over the years with different groups of immigrants coming to live and work here. We studied the ways in which schools are changing as a result of migration on my teacher education programme, so this made me more aware of what to expect when I started teaching and helped me to notice pupils from other cultures.

As might be expected, amongst the subject teachers, it was only those who taught a foreign language and EAL who demonstrated an awareness of both the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of their pupils. They attributed this to the fact that they were language teachers which made them more sensitive to these aspects, as Extract 3 exemplifies:

Extract 3. Teacher of French and EAL (language support) (Libby)
There are about twenty different nationalities in the school where I teach including pupils from the Ukraine and this says a lot about how Limerick and Ireland have become more multicultural especially in the last decade. I know more about the pupils from non-Irish backgrounds than other teachers would because by nature, foreign language teachers have the antenna up when it comes to noticing different languages and cultures and I also teach EAL, so I get to meet pupils from non-English backgrounds when they arrive, and I test their English language proficiency.

This was also the case for the other language support teachers who participated in the study who were also better informed about multicultural profiles of the schools and the linguistic and cultural identities of those they taught.

3.2. Theme 2: Perceptions of challenges and opportunities in linguistically diverse classrooms

When we explore perceptions relating to the implications of teaching in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms, the most common view expressed by the subject teachers and school managers was that it created difficulties due

to the additional workload it brought as well as problems in classroom com-
munication and integration, as Extract 4 and 5 exemplify:

Extract 4. School Manager (Patrick)
Trying to integrate pupils with a limited understanding of English can place a great
deal of strain on teachers and for schools as communication issues arise and teachers
end up having to give them a lot of attention, so it adds to our workload.

Extract 5. Teacher of History and English (James)
I have a few pupils from the Ukraine who only have a few words of English, but
I don't have any extra time to devote to them and they end up just sitting there look-
ing into space which I know is not good, but this is the problem we are faced with.

Here, we note again that only the foreign language and language support
teachers showed insights into the new opportunities that linguistically and
culturally diverse classrooms offer, as in Extracts 6 and 7, where the potential
to advance multiculturalism and multilingualism in Ireland are mentioned as
key benefits:

Extract 6. Teacher of Spanish and EAL (Marie)
I love the new diversity we are seeing because it makes for a much richer cultural
experience for everyone and its lovely to hear different languages used in the school.
I have two pupils from Poland, and they love talking about how things are done
there compared to in Ireland which makes the whole class more aware of another
culture which has to be good for the future.

Extract 7. Teacher of EAL (Claire)
With so many languages now spoken in Ireland it's a great opportunity to teach
more foreign languages in schools so that all pupils can become multilingual as this
would really benefit the Irish economy in the long term.

3.3. Theme 3: Experiences of language-sensitive teaching

As for the participants' experiences of language-sensitive teaching as an ap-
proach, the analysis indicates that very few subject teachers were familiar with
this term and that there was a general lack of understanding of what it might
entail in practice, with some also questioning its feasibility, as in Extracts 8 to 14:

Extract 8. Teacher of Mathematics and Biology (Sean)
I have never actually heard of this and I'm not a linguist so I don't really know what
I would be expected to do differently to what I do ordinarily as a teacher.

Extract 9. School Manager (Rose)
I have heard of this, of course, it's in the Teaching Council recommendations, but it's unclear to many of us what it actually means.

Extract 10. Teacher of Geography and History (Martin)
How can teachers of non-language subjects be expected to do this? It would mean changing our courses so I can't see how it can work.

These comments suggest that in the Irish post-primary school context, language-sensitive teaching remains an aspirational goal of policymakers and theorists rather than an approach that schools have embraced or are actively implementing. Notwithstanding this limited overall understanding and engagement, there was evidence that a small number of subject teachers were making a conscious and concerted effort to embed language-related strategies to ensure that all pupils could access the lesson content. These strategies included modifying the pace of their speech, using targeted repetition, highlighting the linguistic aspects of the lesson, and allowing the use of assistive language learning technologies to support the learning process and to foster independent learning, as in Extracts 11, 12, 13 and 14:

Extract 11. Teacher of English and Biology (Sophie)
I am conscious that there are now more pupils who aren't from Ireland and who have come into the school with different levels of fluency in English, so I make a mental note to look out for this and I try to slow down my speech because the Irish tend to speak very quickly, and I repeat key concepts several times to give them a better chance of understanding.

Extract 12. Teacher of Business and Geography (Matthew)
I wouldn't say I really know what language-sensitive teaching is, but I do make sure that I go over the key concepts and definitions really well and keep revising them because everyone has to understand these or they would be lost and there's lots of specialised terms in both of my subjects and I know it can be harder for pupils who don't have English as their first language to understand what the meanings are.

Extract 13. Teacher of Chemistry and Physics (Lorraine)
I learned a lot about different learning technologies in my teacher education programme, so I always try to embed them into my lessons as it helps pupils to become more independent learners and it's a way of adding an extra layer of support which is especially important for pupils with low levels of English.

Interestingly, in the previously highlighted cases, there was a clear sense that the subject teachers were aware of the linguistic difficulties that the specialised language associated with their subjects posed for pupils whose first language was

other than English, and that they were actively seeking strategies to address these challenges. However, it was only the foreign language, and language support teachers who showed an awareness that all teachers can also draw on the multilingual abilities of pupils as a strength and resource, as Extract 14 exemplifies:

> **Extract 14. Teacher of Spanish and French (Libby)**
> I have pupils from lots of different backgrounds including Africa, the Middle East, Afghanistan and South America and many of them are multilingual. For example, some speak Arabic and French or Spanish and Portuguese depending on their country of origin. So, I find they are generally very good foreign language learners because they are used to communicating in different languages and they make connections between them. So, I always get them to do some comparative language analysis work when we meet new words and expressions. Does this word exist in any other language you know? Is it the same or different in English? We have really good classroom discussions about this, and I think the rest of the class benefit from this as well as they can see multilingualism in action, and it is motivating for them. It also helps raise the language awareness of all pupils. This is something that I really want to make other teachers aware of too and it is so important that we acknowledge the multilingual skills of pupils from migrant and displaced person backgrounds because it can help them to develop a more positive self-image instead of feeling they are deficient because they are not native speakers of English which can be the case.

3.4. Theme 4: Teacher professional needs and teacher education

The final aim of the present study was to identify the professional needs of teachers and schools, and to suggest some ways in which these might be addressed, to help advance language-sensitive teaching across the school curriculum in the future. The data indicates that subject teachers often feel challenged and undermined professionally because they are not equipped to address the more complex learning needs that linguistically diverse classrooms bring, as Extracts 15 and 16 exemplify:

> **Extract 15. Teacher of Mathematics and Biology (Chris)**
> I find it stressful to know that we are supposed to implementing new teaching methods to support migrant pupils and that I don't know what this involves and lack the skills to be able to do this.

> **Extract 16. Teacher of Business and English (Frances)**
> I know that we need to be making more of an effort to improve our teaching to ensure that all pupils are included but I don't feel we are being guided enough.

Meanwhile, extract 17 underscores the perceived growing need for school-wide teacher education in this area which school managers believe is becoming increasingly more urgent in the light of the large numbers of newly arrived pupils from the Ukraine now entering Irish post-primary schools.

Extract 17. School Manager (William)
The reality is that most teachers lack the pedagogical knowledge and skills to teach learners who do not have adequate competency in the language of instruction in the classroom, so this is a school-wide problem that needs to be addressed and the war in the Ukraine and the ongoing refugee crisis has brought this to a head.

One key area where school managers feel that specialised training is now vital is in in trauma informed teaching, as is highlighted in Extract 18:

Extract 18. School Manager (Pat)
The war in the Ukraine has brought to a head the need for specialised training for teachers and support staff so that we can integrate these children as quickly as possible. In particular we need training in trauma informed teaching as we are meeting children who have experienced terrible suffering with the loss of family members and their homes, and we need guidance on this urgently.

In the final four extracts, we highlight the key role that language teachers can play in the development of language-sensitive teaching at the whole school level by working alongside subject teachers to improve their language awareness and from this, their planning and teaching skills. As Extracts 19–21 exemplify, this is understood to be the crucial first step for any real advancement in this area to occur, with many of the language teachers pointing out that their language knowledge and skills need to be more valued and better exploited.

Extract 19. Language support teacher (Lucy)
It's becoming increasing obvious that the expertise and work of language support teachers needs to be better appreciated. We know that we can play a key role in the upskilling of other teachers, but the problem is that they don't really understand this. For instance, we can provide language awareness workshops and work in partnership with subject teachers around planning and lesson delivery. It is possible to introduce this but is has to be done systematically and we need subject teacher buy-in which isn't really there at the moment because many just don't see the purpose of this or how it relates to their own professional development.

Extract 20. Language support teacher (Mary)
I am excited to see that schools are finally starting to understand my role and how I can help support the introduction of language sensitive teaching practices into the

school as a whole because language matters. It lies at the heart of everything that we do so we need to give it the attention it deserves.

Extract 21. Language support teacher (Joan)
Instead of seeing my role as separate and apart from the subject teachers, which many still do, we need to know how we can all work together more effectively. In my language classes I make an effort to prepare pupils for the various school subjects and for some subjects I liaise closely with the subject teacher, so I know the themes the pupils are working on and their related tasks and assignments. However, not all teachers appreciate the supporting role I can play so my role is undervalued in the school as a whole.

This comment underscores the largely untapped potential of language teachers to play a more central role going forward in the advancement of language sensitive teaching at the whole school level and to raise appreciation and knowledge about language in schools for the wider and obvious benefits this can bring.

However, there was also a sense from the comments made by several of the language support teachers that any planned continuous professional development initiatives for subject teacher upskilling would need to consider sensitivities around subject teacher lack of language awareness and knowledge. In this regard, it was felt that while guided mentorship by language support teachers drawing on examples of classroom data in subject-specific classrooms could be the best approach to adopt, for this to work, school managers would need to incentivise teachers and create the kind of supportive environment that would encourage subject teachers to engage in mentorship initiatives of this kind, as in Extract 22:

Extract 22. (Jack)
I would be happy to collaborate with and mentor subject teachers more, but it would have to done in the right way so as to avoid them feeling undermined professionally. So, they need to see this as beneficial for them and feel that it is being done across the board to support them rather than to make them feel they are deficient in some way.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The present study has indicated that while there is a growing awareness in Irish, post-primary schools of the ways in which classrooms are becoming more linguistically and culturally diverse, there is a limited understanding

on the part of subject teachers and school managers of the implications this holds for their own classroom teaching. Moreover, there remains an overall perception in schools that this ongoing phenomenon is creating additional pressures and challenges and is therefore problematic rather than offering new learning opportunities, which suggests a need for critical awareness raising in relation to the benefits that this approach offers for all pupils irrespective of their backgrounds. The study has also highlighted that subject teachers feel ill-equipped to address the perceived additional challenges that a more linguistically diverse school population brings and that they are in obvious need of professional guidance and training in this area, with language-awareness raising a crucial first step.

By contrast, there was a strong sense that foreign language teachers and language support teachers had developed a critical understanding of both the challenges and the benefits that this situation brings, and as a result, were better equipped to implement language-sensitive strategies into their everyday teaching. In this regard, the study further found some evidence of good emergent practices in this area amongst subject teachers, mainly in the form of teacher speech modifications and the use of assistive technologies to scaffold newly arrived pupils from a non-English first language background. However, it was only the foreign language teachers and the language support teachers who recognised the potentials around drawing on the full linguistic resources of pupils and embedding an explicit language awareness-raising focus into their lessons, which was indicative both of their support for language-sensitive teaching as an approach, and of their critical understanding of what it means in practice (e.g., Cummins 2019; Gogolin 2013).

A further key finding was that language support teachers were well-informed and welcoming of the potential key role that they could play in upskilling subject teachers in areas including the development of subject-specific language awareness and the implementation of transformative pedagogies which place language at the heart of every lesson, across the school curriculum. These findings support earlier research in the Irish educational context (Gallagher & Leahy 2014; Farrell & Baumgart 2019) which has underscored the central role that language support teachers can and should play in the development and implementation of whole school approaches to language-sensitive teaching across the academic curriculum to enable this approach to be more widely advanced.

However, the overall findings of the research reported on are that language-sensitive teaching is still only very partially understood in Irish post-primary schools and that there is an obvious need for teacher education in this area for teaching professionals at all career stages. It has further underscored the key

role that language support teachers can play in subject teacher awareness raising and skills development as part of a whole school development approach, and that school managers have a vital role to play in supporting collaborations and mentoring initiatives involving language teachers and subject teaching for such purposes to help advance this approach more widely, which supports the earlier conclusions reached by Calafato (2021). In this regard, the study has also highlighted the need for school managers to provide teaching professionals with structures for mentoring and guidance, and for data-informed analysis of practice to be included, to encourage uptake and ensure an evidence-based approach to language-sensitive teaching (Castro, Kelly & Shih 2010; Chubbuck, Clift, Allard & Quinlan 2001).

As far as future directions in teacher education are concerned more widely, the findings support the arguments made for pre-service teachers to be provided with subject specific language-awareness training and pedagogical upskilling in relation to language-sensitive strategies that they can embed into their routine classroom practices (European Commission 2021; Teaching Council 2020). The results of this study, and the exemplars provided, can help to inform the development of training and professional development initiatives of this kind for teachers, teacher educators and school leaders working in increasing linguistic diverse in Irish post-primary schools. The findings can also be drawn on for comparative purposes in relation to other international school contexts, to gain a wider sense of how language-sensitive teaching is developing more widely within the EU and other global educational spaces, and to help drive language-teaching approaches. This is with the overall aim of enhancing the educational experience and learning outcomes of all pupils, and to promote more inclusive schools and societies more widely.

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Nauczanie uwrażliwione na język jako wyłaniająca się odpowiedź na rosnącą różnorodność językową w irlandzkich szkołach ponadpodstawowych: wyzwania, możliwości i implikacje w kształceniu nauczycieli

ABSTRAKT. XXI wiek charakteryzuje się bezprecedensowym wzrostem migracji transnarodowej, a systemy edukacyjne w wielu krajach muszą zmierzyć się z implikacjami tego globalnego zjawiska. Niniejszy artykuł przedstawia wyniki badania przeprowadzonego wśród nauczycieli i dyrektorów szkół w Irlandii, którego celem było zbadanie aktualnej sytuacji w zakresie nauczania uwrażliwionego na język jako odpowiedzi na rosnącą rzeczywistość różnorodności językowej w szkołach. Tego rodzaju oddolne badania są niezwykle istotne, ponieważ mogą rzucić światło na postrzeganie i doświadczenia kluczowych grup zawodowych, aby określić ich potrzeby szkoleniowe i kształtować przyszłe kierunki kształcenia nauczycieli w tym obszarze. Nasze główne ustalenia dowodzą, że nauczanie uwrażliwione na język nadal pozostaje w powijakach w kontekście irlandzkiej edukacji ponadpodstawowej i istnieje pilna potrzeba podnoszenia świadomości i umiejętności nauczycieli w odniesieniu do tego podejścia i jego wdrażania na zajęciach z różnych przedmiotów. Badania wykazały również, że nauczyciele wspomagający naukę języka mogą odgrywać główną rolę w rozwijaniu nauczania uwrażliwionego na język na poziomie całej szkoły, ale ten potencjał pozostaje w dużej mierze niewykorzystany w kontekście irlandzkiej edukacji ponadpodstawowej.

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The reception and representation of English as an academic language among foreign students in Poland and its influence on (re)shaping individual identities

Abstract. The article discusses selected problems of learning and using English as an academic language from the perspective of foreign students in Poland. The theoretical part of the paper concentrates on the issues related to the concept of identity and the status of English as an academic lingua franca, especially in the light of the growing role of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in university education. Such theoretical background is intended to serve as a kind of introduction to the discussion which centres around the influence of this specific social variation of the English language on the process of shaping or reshaping identities among students who have decided to continue their education outside their native language environment in the multilingual context of a university language department. Seen from such a perspective, university courses in EAP may be treated as a form of practical implementation of multilingual pedagogy and, more specifically, the idea of inclusive "classrooms" with a particular goal-oriented curriculum. The empirical part of the article presents the research project which aimed to examine the above-mentioned phenomena as experienced by a group of language students of different ethnic and national background who have been studying (and living) in Poland for at least a year. The main research technique used in this qualitative study was the semi-structured interview, selected with a view to obtaining an in-depth picture and highly personalised account of the process of (re)constructing individual identities in a specific social context and educational setting.

Keywords: Identity, self-concept, English for Academic Purposes, genre analysis.

1. IDENTITY

The term ego identity was introduced to social sciences in 1950s by psychologist Erik Erikson. He defined it as "the awareness of the fact that there is a self-sameness and continuity to the ego's synthesising methods and a continuity of

one's meaning for others" (Erikson 1963: 142). Ego identity was thought to enable each person to have a sense of individuality and give them an integrated and consistent sense of self. Erikson (1963) claimed that it was created and developed through constant social interaction. He also argued that since individuals are exposed to new experiences, challenges and information throughout their lifetime, ego identity is in the constant process of changing and reshaping.

The sociolinguistic approach to identity can be most accurately described by referring to Eckert (2012) and her theory of three waves in social variation studies. The first wave focused on quantitative methods that were used for examining the connection between linguistic variability and such social factors as ethnicity, age, sex and social class. The second wave was marked by the application of ethnographic methods in which the categories of description were suggested by participants. And finally, the third wave research concerns the variation within a single speaker and the different identity constructions of that speaker in a clearly defined social context.

Since its introduction, the notion of identity has been present or explored in several branches of science, including philosophy, anthropology, psychology, pedagogy, and sociology. These differing perspectives and various levels of interest in the concept of identity contribute to a considerable terminological diversity which, in turn, enhances the role of context (both social and academic) while interpreting and investigating all identity-related issues.

1.1. Social identity and self-concept

As regards the social aspects of identity, Tajfel and Turner (1986) proposed the so-called social identity theory. In their view, the term identity refers to individual's self-categorisations based on the feeling of being a member of a certain group and related affective experience. In other words, social identity is seen here as part of one's self-concept that is based on a person's perceived membership in a social group (or multiple social groups), and the value and emotional significance attached to this group membership (Tajfel 1981: 225). Typical examples of such groups include: nation, social class, gender, sexual orientation, occupation, religion, school or profession. One of the basic assumptions of the social identity theory is that being a member of a group constitutes one's self-esteem, in particular the feeling of self-worth. Therefore, affiliation with a group helps sustain social identity. Importantly, social identities are most influential when individuals consider membership in a particular group to be central to their self-concept and they feel strong emotional ties to the group (Leaper 2011).

Another interesting contribution to the debate on social and personal identity was made by Joseph (2004) who distinguished two basic aspects of identity: one's name, which allows for isolating a person from a wider group of people, and "that deeper, intangible something that constitutes who one really is, and for which we do not have a precise word" (Joseph 2004: 1). He also declared that terms such as soul, ego, self or inner self should be avoided as they bring vague connotations which deepen the terminological gap. Moreover, Joseph (2004) pointed out that the distinction between individual and group identity is very complex and rather unclear. The discrepancy results from the fact that individual identity is established in relation to various group identities, whereas group identity is often manifested in a single individual. In other words, a person finds their own self by belonging to certain groups and rejecting or distancing themselves from the other ones. In fact, individuals tend to construct meaningful and quite multi-dimensional identities as members of their social, cultural, national and/or local communities.

Last but not least, self-categorisation theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher & Wetherell 1987) must be mentioned here as another influential approach which tries to combine personal and social identity. In this perspective, people's self-concepts (or, in other words, self-categorisations) contain both types of identity, and the social context determines which of them becomes more salient.

In view of the above discussion, it can be claimed that self-concept is a notion which seems particularly relevant to individual social identity (as identity is an aspect or part of it). Self-concept can be generally defined as an "idea people have about themselves; (…) a complex and dynamic system of learned beliefs and attitudes that one believes to be true about one's own personal existence" (Jackson & Hogg 2010: 674). It consists of three main components:
– ideal self (what someone would like to become in future),
– public self (predictions of an individual regarding other people's opinions),
– real self (all of the thoughts and ideas that one has about himself or herself).
These three components should coexist in harmonious cooperation which is essential for proper mental health, emotional balance and consistent personality (Jackson & Hogg 2010).

According to Rubio (2014), the notion of self-concept refers to "the entity evaluated, according to the particular vision or view of that entity" (Rubio 2014: 43). In other words, self-concept is a complex idea constituted by a variety of dimensions or selves (for instance social, personal, familiar, academic and/or other situational ones). It defines a person's individuality, can predict one's behaviour and it is also composed by certain beliefs that individuals have about themselves.

It is worth underlining that any individual self-concept "is learned, it is organized and it is dynamic" (Jackson & Hogg 2010: 677). Thus, it is not an inborn trait

or predisposition, but it is something that people tend to modify or reconstruct throughout their lives. Yet, the quality of being organized indicates a relative stability and consistency of basic people's perceptions concerning themselves (although an individual may have several images of himself which are mutually synchronised). Additionally, this particular characteristic "gives consistency to the personality" (Jackson & Hogg 2010: 677). The quality of being dynamic refers to self-actualisation which may be understood as "the complete realization of that of which one is capable, involving maximum development of abilities and full involvement in and appreciation for life, particularly as manifest in peak experiences" (APA Dictionary of Psychology). Thus, individual self-concept is not a fixed construct, but it evolves during a person's lifetime in the constant process of acquiring new experiences or ideas and the removal of the old ones (Jackson & Hogg 2010).

1.2. Ethnic, racial and cultural identity

As mentioned above, there are many groups that can constitute an individual's social identity – among them one's ethnic, racial, national and cultural groups. One type of group membership which seems essential for individual identity is ethnicity (Phinney 1990). It can be explained as one's objective status as a member of an ethnic group resulting from their parents' heritage. It is characterised by common ancestry, history, and cultural traits, including language, beliefs, values, music, fashion, cuisine, and place of origin (Cokley 2007). Ethnicity provides individuals with an ethnic identity, which requires both subjective awareness and recognition of one's ethnicity. Thus, ethnic identity can be defined as the feeling of being member of a certain ethnic group which comprises self-labelling, a feeling of belonging, positive evaluation, knowledge, and involvement in one's ethnic group's activity (Cokley 2007). Another closely related concept is racial identity – yet, ethnic and racial identities are quite similar as they both rely on the sense of belonging to a group and the process of learning about one's group. Both identities are manifested in cultural behaviours, values and attitudes toward one's own group; however, while research on ethnic identity focuses on positive affects rooted in the sense of belonging to one's own ethnic group, research on racial identity concentrates on the (often disadvantaged) social position of the ethnic minority group to which an individual belongs and the consequences of this disadvantage (Cokley 2007).

Another aspect of social identity is cultural identity which involves "the integration of the complex configuration that is culture into the individual's personality" (Hamers & Blanc 1998: 116). Cultural identity refers to the extent

to which members of an ethnic minority feel they belong to the minority group or the culture of their own ethnic group (ethnic identity) and the majority group, that is the people who represent the host context or the host culture (national identity). Naturally, people who belong to the majority culture can also identify with their ethnic group and thus possess an ethnic identity (which is, at the same time, their national identity). Most often the concept of cultural identity is applied to people who belong to an ethnic minority – it is often explored in regard to people with an immigrant background, indigenous people or people who feel they belong to a particular ethnic group.

1.3. Components of cultural identity

Although identity is generally perceived as a multidimensional construct (Phinney & Ong 2007), there is no consensus on which dimensions constitute cultural identity. These components may include:
- self-categorising and labelling (identifying oneself as a member of a certain group),
- commitment and attachment (a sense of belonging and personal investment in a group),
- exploration (seeking information and experiences related to one's ethnicity),
- ethnic behaviours (participating in activities typical of one's ethnicity),
- evaluation and in-group attitudes (demonstrating positive attitude toward one's group),
- values and beliefs (sharing specific values and beliefs),
- salience of group membership (importance attributed to one's group identity).

Makarova (2008: 54) enumerates the factors that are particularly important in an individual's perception of their own cultural identity, namely the subjective cultural belonging (one's self identification) and the objective cultural belonging (one's ethnicity). The construct of identity is also influenced by the interaction of specific internal and external components (Isajiw 1990; Phinney 1990). External components of cultural identity are expressed in observable social and cultural behaviour reflected in the areas of language, social relationships, typical activities of the ethnic group or cultural traditions. Internal components of cultural identity have three dimensions: cognitive, moral and affective. The cognitive dimension includes the attitude towards oneself as a member of an ethnic group, the image of this group combined with knowledge about its traditions, values and norms. The moral dimension concerns the feeling of solidarity towards

members of one's own ethnic group. Finally, the affective dimension refers to the feeling of belonging to a given ethnic group, a kind of preference for members of one's own ethnic group as well as the feeling of security experienced among its members (Makarova 2008).

Last but not least, it has to be underlined that language is frequently considered to be the most significant factor in the construct of cultural identity. As an important component of culture and a core value in a given cultural group, it often functions as a determining aspect of an individual's cultural identity, but also as a sociocultural marker of group membership. In the same way, ethnic language is often considered to be the key aspect of one's ethnic identity. At the same time, since most interpersonal social interactions occur by means of language, it acts as a most impactful factor in one's self-expression and self-representation as well as in forming judgements about other people and their social identification. As Miller (2000) concludes, the interaction between language and identity is "tied to social practice and interaction as a flexible and contextually contingent resource, and tied to processes of differentiation from other identified groups" (Miller 2000: 72).

2. ENGLISH AS AN ACADEMIC *LINGUA FRANCA*

The global expansion of English is undoubtedly one of the reasons for the rapid development and the subsequent breakup of English as a Foreign Language (ELF) into multiple varying subdomains, each evolving to suit a particular purpose. Following a major split between literary languages and academic languages in the 1950s and 1960s, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) underwent critical development as a subdomain and became an interest of both genre-oriented and educational research (Askehave & Swales 2001). As English became the de facto *lingua franca* of academic discourse and research, the need for the standardization of this domain in terms of teaching and use quickly became an area of importance to the academic world.

As a subdomain of standard literary English, EAP is concerned with researching and teaching a language that can be used to perform academic tasks (Carkin 2005; Charles 2013). The scope of EAP is broad – it refers to the students' need to read sophisticated or demanding literature or textbooks and write essays or dissertations, but it also comprises the oratory and literary skills necessary for scholars to make the language used in conference presentations and research papers universally understandable (Carkin 2005; Charles 2013). Yet, it should be remembered that EAP is not solely influenced by literary advancement, but it is also rooted in communicative praxis. As pointed out by O'Neil (2019), increased academic communication has been an impactful variable in the evolu-

tion of EAP. This process can be visualised as a linguistic *Jenga Tower* with first instances of standardised EAP giving rise to global academic communication which laid the foundation for further development of the subdomain, and the newly enriched standardised language opening new possibilities for communication (Mauranen 2013; Luzon & Perez-Llantada 2019). Thus, EAP evolved into a domain which provides its learners and users with an increasingly complex and descriptive means of expression (Charles 2013).

Due to the extensive nature of EAP as a subdomain of English, two major approaches to EAP research should be taken into consideration, namely Genre Analysis of EAP and Investigation of the Social Context of EAP. This distinction is also relevant to the research on EAP and language identity.

2.1. Genre analysis of EAP

Genre analysis focuses on the dynamic nature of contextually produced discourse in both speech and writing (Charles 2013). In the context of this approach, Swales (1990: 58) defines genre as a "class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes". By perceiving genre as such, one can view it as a concept worth researching in regard to its social and linguistic features (Charles 2013). In addition, Swales (2001) views genre analysis as a form of multimodality which takes into account the relationship between the situation and the context. He emphasises that such a multi-modal approach incorporates the elements of cultural, discursive and sociological analysis (Swales 2001). Such an interpretation can be also observed in Bhatia's research (2002, 2004), in which genre-analysis ventures into the field of ethnographic studies, as well as in Bruce's (2008) inclusion of cognitive dimension. In turn, the multimodal and interdisciplinary approach of genre-analysis allows for a more complex investigation of the wider usage of EAP and the impact it may have on the genre user (Carkin 2005; Charles 2013). The primary application of the multimodal approach is to effectively assess the influence of blending academic genres with ordinary ones across domains and languages. Loi (2010) conducted a comparative study of introductions to research articles across academic genres in English and Chinese. His findings suggest that the Chinese genre of academic language benefits from the influence of EAP. He claims that Chinese academic writing lacked a traditional way of opening an article. As a result, the impact of global EAP usage prompted Chinese academics to adopt an aspect of a foreign genre into their own. In a different study, Hyland (2011b) uses genre-based analysis of academic authors' biographical statements, thesis acknowledgements and prize applications to study a cloaked process of developing self-presentation

skills and identity. He argues that academic identity and the ability to present oneself develop through rhetorical competence in a given genre. His argument is based around a shared ability among scholars of different faculties to express themselves in a uniquely standardised way (Hyland 2011b). In conclusion, the genre-based analysis of EAP, through the usage of interdisciplinary and multi-modal approaches, manages to cover a variety of research fields. It should also be noted that the nature of this approach is usable beyond studies of EAP and contributes to other fields such as sociology or psychology.

2.2. Investigation of EAP in a social context

This approach aims to study EAP in practical and social environments, yet the socially oriented studies of EAP vary in focus. On one hand, researchers such as Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) frame academic discourse as a rite of linguistic initiation and treat the mastery of the academic language as a step to further students' socialisation into a disciplinary community. On the other hand, later studies aim to investigate the discursive power dynamic of EAP usage in the academic community. For example, Hasrati and Street (2009) base their assumption about the unequal nature of EAP usage on their examination of student-supervisor interviews, whereas Lillis (2002, 2008) examines differences in students' social background and how it correlates to their understanding and stance towards EAP. In both cases, students who efficiently operate within the academic discourse proved to be more assertive and knowledgeable when talking to their superiors. The power dynamic of EAP proficiency allowed supervisors to possess a tighter grasp on the decision-making process of their students, due to the psycholinguistic perception of EAP as professional, serious and verbose (Hasrati & Street 2009; Charles 2013). There is also some evidence that an underlying effect of the discrepancy in EAP proficiency further affects students' engagement and motivation (Pecoraro 2008; Hyland 2009).

2.3. EAP in language identity studies

Alternatively, the investigation of EAP in social context may be also used in research of communities and cultures with a history of independent academia who have just recently switched into English as a result of globalisation. The result of the dominating status of English in the academic environment goes further than the creation of a system facilitating categorisation and spread of knowledge. In many cases, the hegemony of English resulted in marginalisation

of academic writers based on EAP proficiency (Swales 1997). Another impact of English dominance can be seen in a general preference of sources and references written in English (Charles 2013). Interestingly, research conducted on this particular phenomenon is not solely concerned with the linguistic issue, but it rather ventures into the topic of possible circumstances and outcomes. The outcome-oriented aspect of this situation is well described by Flowerdew and Li (2009a, 2009b) as well as by Lillis and Curry (2010). In both studies it is claimed that the pressure to publish in English is likely to lead to a drop in diversity and quality of papers written by L2 EAP users. The key element here is understanding the significance of integrating EAP into the language identity of academics worldwide. A similar aspect can be observed in the previously mentioned areas of EAP researched by means of the contextual approach. The ability for non-native English-speaking academics to get successfully published is not just tied to their overall proficiency in EAP. Belcher (2009) observed a seeming lack of diversity in papers written by foreign academics in English and attributed it to the rhetorical and stylistic structure of the texts. Papers structured and styled in a manner reminiscent of the Anglo-Saxon standard tend to get better reviews, whereas culturally and linguistically grounded changes in style are met with criticism and are labelled as evidence of incompetence (Belcher 2009; Charles 2013).

The research findings mentioned above certainly lead to some questions about the relation between EAP education and the development of individual language and academic identities. A plethora of research has been conducted in an effort to investigate the process of constructing academic identities and the shaping of personal identities through extended academic education. As the above examples of EAP research outcomes indicate, the process of creating academic identities can be traced to the structure of academic life. Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) declare that academic language proficiency serves as a form of assessment which determines students' engagement in disciplinary lives, thus allowing their teachers to decide whether a particular student is ready to advance to the next stages of their education or academic careers. Similarly, Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) consider academic identity to be crucial in terms of developing academic writing skills. In their view, the ability to frame and project findings and results is not only influenced by general academic knowledge of a writer. Alternatively, it is the academic engagement and atonement that drive these abilities. Flowerdew and Wang (2015: 82) refer to this process as "identity transformation" and "academic acculturation". The idea of an academic influence on identity development of students and academics is based on the notion of transformability of discourse practices in a given community. Students and academics take specific discursive roles in an academic community. Besides there being certain rules of conduct, their roles impose

some specific and concrete linguistic requirements. The overall presence of EAP in academic education and science further cements its role as a core element in the functioning of the academic community and the development of academic identities (Flowerdew & Wang 2015).

One interesting aspect of EAP's influence on shaping individual identity can be observed while investigating online activities of academic writers and lecturers. Hyland (2011a, 2012) took a particular interest in homepages, blogs and online profiles of several active academic workers worldwide. In his studies, he discovers that for many academics and graduates the embracement of their academic identity correlates with their sense of credibility and belonging. Additionally, homepages are described as a discursively constructive factor in the development and growth as members of an institution or a community (Hyland 2011a, 2012). Furthermore, academic homepages provide a schematic template for academic identities to develop. Certain universal elements of these pages, such as their structure, language and focus on accomplishments and scientific interests provide a general understanding of academic identity for both beginners and seasoned academics. On the contrary, personal homepages and blogs reflect solely the individual traits of a person without a common factor or a shared image of identity. People with different homepages may share hobbies or traits, but structural elements such as linguistic or graphic frameworks of their pages make it difficult to create a potential schema to develop. Thus, the structural and communicative usage of EAP in academic homepages might be considered as both a building block for a shared academic identity and as a differentiating factor which allows academics to keep their personal and professional aspects of life intact and harmonic (Hyland 2011a, 2012). In addition, the standard created by the academic homepages prompts individuals outside of the academia to mimic this standard by using a schema similar in terms of structure and language. Finally, it may also be connected to the advancement of other identity-grounded homepages connected by a different domain of English for Specific Purposes.

To conclude, research into EAP goes further than investigating and categorising an ever-developing subdomain of English. The situation created by a global hegemony of English in the academia encompasses phenomena far removed from corpora studies. Genre-based research of EAP allows for a multimodal and contrastive study of EAP as a genre. On the other hand, the contextual research on EAP opens new opportunities to discuss the power dynamic related to the usage of EAP in university classrooms and in scientific publishing. Furthermore, both of these approaches and the qualitative overview of academic activity on the Internet point to the underlying relation between EAP proficiency and the development of language and social identity. As can be seen, the topic of EAP is truly multifaceted and abundant in terms of approaches, variables and areas to research.

3. METHODOLOGY

The present qualitative research can be divided into two parts. First, it investigates particular experiences and perspectives of foreign students in Poland and their learning of EAP as part of their academic curriculum. Second, the possible influence of these experiences on the process of shaping individual identities was also taken into consideration. The process of data analysis follows Grounded Theory as its primary methodological framework. Following the foundations given by Hadley (2017), it was decided that an approach based on an organic emergence of new concepts from the data could benefit the study due to the very complexity of the general topic. Both points of interest signalled above are equally represented in the research questions formulated in the project:

1. How influential is Academic English in shaping the identities of foreign students?
2. What factors affect the reception of Academic English among foreign students?
3. To what extent is Academic English part of foreign students' linguistic self-concept?
4. What role does Academic English play in the future careers of foreign students?

3.1. Instrumentation

The research technique employed in the study was an interview. According to Kvale (1996), an interview is an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest. Such an interpretation emphasises the centrality of human interaction for knowledge production and the social context (situatedness) of research data. Additionally, as Walford (2001: 90) declares, "interviewers and interviewees co-construct the interview", which points to the fact that it is not a naturally occurring event (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007). Moreover, as a social encounter, it is essentially different from a typical everyday conversation due to a number of features (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007), including the fact that it has a specific purpose, the questions are asked by one person mainly (interviewer) and detailed responses and explicitness of answers are expected.

In the present research project, the interviews were semi-structured which means that the researcher relied on a pre-prepared list of questions, however they were occasionally modified, according to the specific requirements and changing circumstances of a particular interview. All three interviews took place online

in February 2022. The structured part of the recorded conversation contained 12 questions regarding participants' views and opinions on learning EAP, their future career prospects and their obtained academic proficiency in both their working and academic lives. Moreover, some of the questions were designed with the intention of prompting the participants to discuss the concept of identity and how learning different variations of English abroad impacted their very own self-concepts. Due to the semi-structured character of the interviews conducted within the study, each of them contained some non-planned questions which were meant to uphold both the conversation and the curiosity of the participants as well as to add some extra depth to their responses.

3.2. Participants

One important factor of the present study is the focus on the diversity of respondents taking part in the research process. Thanks to the Erasmus+ programme, similar institutions active at Adam Mickiewicz University and varied study options for international students, it has become possible to incorporate into investigation the ideas of internationalism and multilingualism as important aspects of identity and EAP research. In the present project, the research group consisted of three foreign students of applied linguistics at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań who had chosen the full time MA programme in empirical linguistics and language documentation. Yet, it is worth underlining that they represented different cultural, ethnic and linguistic backgrounds, and their future career plans or professional experience differed considerably. In each case, pseudonyms have been used in the research report in order to protect the privacy of the participants.

Participant 1
Haqiqi is a 29-year-old student of empirical linguistics and language documentation at the Institute of Applied Linguistics at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. She comes from Azerbaijan and currently works as an online English teacher. She is proficient in a variety of different languages. Besides speaking Azeri as her native language, she is also an advanced speaker of English, Russian and Turkish. Russian and English play an important role in her work and education, respectively.

Participant 2
The second participant is a 28-year-old student of applied linguistics at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. Amaji is originally from Palestine. Besides her

current background in empirical linguistics, she also studied *the English Language and Literature* as her bachelor course. As she is a freelance translator, English plays a crucial role in her daily life. However, it is also worth mentioning that Amaji's educational background in Europe helped her study other languages such as Romanian and Polish. Palestinian Arabic is her native language, but as she completed her rudimentary education in Palestine, she also speaks Modern Standard Arabic, which greatly influenced her views on literary standards, variants and domains in other languages.

Participant 3
The final participant, Aristocles, is a 23-yeard-old student of applied linguistics at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. He first came to Poland as a participant in the ERASMUS+ programme. Aristocles studied Greek philology in Greece where he developed his interest in linguistics, especially lexicology. Since then, Aristocles has travelled around Europe and has taken part in different programmes and courses. He speaks English at an advanced level as it is his primary language of education and work. Currently, he is also learning Polish.

4. RESULTS

For the purpose of data analysis, a schema consisting of four distinct categories related to the subject of the study was created. The first category relates to the influence of Academic English on the process of reshaping or shaping new identities among foreign students. In the second section of the schema, possible factors affecting the students' reception of Academic English were collected and examined. The topic of Academic English as part of students' self-concept (the notion that in a way combines personal and social identity) was investigated as the third category within the schema. Last but not least, the role of Academic English in the future career prospects of the students makes up the final point of data analysis. In order to properly analyse individual interpretations or ideas found in the responses, each participant's answer was analysed separately.

4.1. EAP's influence on shaping identity

The overall perspective of the respondents on identity is that it is a notion largely related to the cultural, personal and linguistic development of a person. It could be observed that the students raised in a multilingual setting see the possibility of developing multiple identities quite clearly. On the other hand, the

students whose development was affected by one foreign language, primarily English, view their identity as one entity that is influenced by outside factors, rather than developing and differentiating between several identities.

Furthermore, the impact of learning EAP is more noticeable among students whose linguistic background is more diverse. The first two participants were able to clearly define the boundary between the influence of learning English in general and learning a specific domain of English. The influence of Academic English on the respondents' identities can be observed in two areas:

1) The process of developing a personality built to communicate in a complex and sophisticated context (for example, discussing literature, language or politics).
2) The context of creating a professional *persona* suited to their future field of work as teachers, translators or academic employees.

The specific opinions of the interviewees are presented in the table below:

Table 1. The influence of EAP on the process of shaping identity

Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
Identity is related to language, culture and values such as politeness, honesty or being direct	Identity is explained as *a person you are, both actively and passively*	Identity is described as a set of personal, cultural and societal characteristics that each person develops over time
Learning new languages creates opportunities for new identities to develop or old identities to alter, according to the saying *"You are as many persons as the languages you speak"*	She sees identity as both a type of behaviour or a state of mind consisting of culture, habits and linguistic traits	He believes people can have multiple identities based on a language they speak but stresses that it does not always occur
Speaking English or Russian makes her feel more expressive and liberal	The participant claims that learning English has allowed her to be more extraverted and active during conversations	While speaking English, the participant feels less extraverted and active, because he is unable to convey several aspects of his Greek identity, ex. humour.
EAP plays a significant role in her professional development, but in terms of her identity, overall culture of English is more influential	Learning EAP improved the quality and diversity of her language and invoked her willingness to discuss new topics	He believes that higher proficiency in English may resolve the issue of conveying humour and other aspects of identity
		Academic English is not seen as an influential factor in the process of shaping identity

Source: current study.

4.2. The reception of EAP among the students

The status of the academic language is quite consistent for all the respondents. EAP is viewed as a high-brow domain and mastering it confirms a high proficiency in English. The students appreciate the way in which learning EAP improved their vocabulary and helped them develop the specific style and skills needed to finish their degrees.

Table 2. The reception of EAP among students

Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
The participant views EAP as a standard academic practice. Academic English is an important domain in terms of developing high-level proficiency. According to the participant, EAP is considered a staple domain for teachers and researchers.	Academic English is viewed as a mean to improve one's writing skills, especially in relation to essays and dissertations. The participant also claims that learning Academic English allows for a clearer understanding of statistical data, charts and graphs.	Proficiency in EAP is viewed as a crucial element of linguistic studies and future academic work. The participant recalls that learning and using Academic English can enrich one's vocabulary and the quality of writing.

Source: current study.

4.3. Academic English as an aspect of the students' self-concept

The collected data referring to the participants' self-concepts suggest that the students often exclude EAP from their ordinary usage of English and treat it more as an aspect of their public selves. As demonstrated in the previous section, the practical and professional aspects of EAP are appreciated by the students, yet in casual communication this type of language knowledge is discarded in favour of a general domain. One exception to this is using academic vernacular during serious discussions on complex topics which seems natural in certain situations.

Table 3. Academic English as an element of students' self-concept

Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
The participant acknowledges EAP as an element of her professional self-concept.	The participant views Academic English as a possible part of one's self-concept.	The participant does not see Academic English as a part of his own self-concept, but does not deny that it may influence self-concepts of others.

Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
As a part-time teacher, she notices the EAP's positive influence on her choices in grammar and word use. In terms of developing skills and her teacher identity, Academic English played a significant role by improving her grammar, use of words and the ability to explain certain topics. EAP does not influence the day-to-day self-concept of the participant.	In her view, Academic English can be used outside of the academia. She emphasised that EAP is used by her and her friends in complex discussions. A similar approach about using EAP in written posts on social media was also expressed by the informant. EAP influenced the self-concept of the participant by improving her language skills, consciousness and attention to detail in casual and professional situations.	Learning EAP has certainly helped the informant to learn new vocabulary and improve his writing, yet he does not think that EAP constitutes a part of his self-concept.

Source: current study.

4.4. Academic English in the students' future careers

The knowledge of the academic domain of English as well as practical skills acquired during EAP courses are greatly appreciated by the students. All the respondents claim that their future careers would at some point require them to use Academic English in order to further develop professionally or as part of their work.

Table 4. EAP's role in the students' future careers

Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
The informant sees EAP as an important element of her future career. As an aspiring teacher, she views learning Academic English as a mean to explain complex topics to her students. She would also like to teach Academic English alongside other domains to her future students. She claims that learning Academic English will help her improve her writing in terms of vocabulary choice and dealing with statistical data.	Academic English is viewed as an important factor in the future career of the respondent as a translator/interpreter specialising in many domains of English. One major benefit related to her future career is expanding her vocabulary. The participant is also adamant that with practice, she will be able to translate academic texts and literature	The participant acknowledges the importance of Academic English as a necessary part of an academic career. He remains sceptical of EAP's applicability in professions other than teaching and research. As an ambitious student who plans on conducting his own research projects, he is sure that proper use of Academic English will impact the quality and reception of his future work.

Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3
The participant does not acknowledge the usefulness of EAP in other professions.		

Source: current study.

5. DISCUSSION

After a thorough analysis of the responses provided by the informants, the data collected in the present project can be summarised in the following way:

1. EAP is partly influential in the process of shaping identities and the students consider EAP to be vital in terms of developing their professional and academic personas. This result remains consistent with Flowerdew and Wang's (2015) findings. Academic atonement and engagement into the academic community drives students into adapting EAP into their identities and making it an important aspect of their social identity. In the case of academically oriented students (participant 3) it may help in establishing a specific academic identity. Interestingly, this process seems fully conscious and deliberate.

2. The way the students associate EAP with particular competencies remains consistent with the results provided by Hyland (1997) and Evans and Green (2007). The respondents highlight the importance of learning EAP as a natural step in attaining a high proficiency in English. Moreover, the students believe that EAP can be particularly effective in improving their vocabulary and syntax, as well as writing and statistical competencies.

3. Self-concept might be viewed as difficult to interpret by the students. While they acknowledge the possibility of EAP influencing their self-categorisation, they do not see EAP as a concrete aspect of their image. Proficiency in EAP and other domains is viewed mostly as a practical skill. However, it is also seen as helpful in pursuing academic achievements which is consistent with Marsh and Martin's (2011) findings. Furthermore, the respondents' attitude towards EAP is reflected in their reliance on this variety of language in achieving their individual goals which also implies that it as an impactful aspect of their self-concept. In one case, EAP is thought to contribute to improving the participant's teaching skills and in the case of another participant his abilities as a researcher. Thus, in both situations it influences the student's professional identity.

4. As observed by Hyland (2018), EAP plays a significant role in the education of career-oriented students, regardless of their chosen profession. At first sight it may seem that EAP is used mainly in academic writing. However, the study participants agree that EAP courses helped them develop core skills related not only to writing, but also to analysing statistical data and teaching. While the present study focused on the students whose future careers involve extensive language use and teaching, it can be assumed that their views would be similar if their chosen professions were not so strongly connected with the practical use of English.

6. FINAL CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Due to the significant position of English in the Academia worldwide, EAP has become the definite domain of international academic discourse and this domination is clearly noticeable in the context of EAP-related research. Thus, the empirical part of the present study aimed to investigate an area of particular interest in times of an ever-growing presence of EAP in the academic lives of students. After conducting three interviews with foreign students, whose status as multilinguals in a Polish-speaking environment already proved to be challenging and confusing, it became apparent that exposure to Academic English can be viewed as a difficult, yet vital and edifying factor of their education. Interestingly, the students consider EAP as a detached domain of English spanning its own culture and range. Moreover, it has been noted that proficiency in EAP is seen as a measurement of one's overall competence in the English language. The respondents agreed that this variation of English has to some extent influenced the (re)shaping of their individual identities. However, learning EAP proved to be a minimal factor in the whole process. The most influential factor that relates to the level of proficiency in Academic English is connected with the students' self-concepts, especially in regard to how they imagine their public selves or, more specifically, their future "career-selves". According to the interviewees, the most prevalent function of EAP in their academic lives was helping them develop and improve core skills related to both academic and overall writing competence, analysing data, as well as discussing and explaining complex or abstract topics.

There are two main limitations to this study worth addressing. Firstly, it has to be acknowledged that the number and diversity of the respondents may seem inadequate. Due to time restrains, among other miscellaneous problems, only a small group of students participated in the research, yet it had been originally planned as a pilot study potentially helpful in designing a similar

but larger-scale research project. In the case of a follow-up or proper study, the participatory body would be considerably extended and an effort to interview foreign students from other faculties around Poland would be made. Secondly, the study would certainly benefit from a secondary research tool that would allow for exploring students' English-speaking identities in a predominantly Polish-speaking environment. It is believed that such a solution would increase the quality of the empirical part of the study by providing triangulation, more depth and detailed focus to the data collected.

One interesting observation made during the process of data analysis is that students' attitude towards learning English for Academic Purposes and other domains of English is strongly related to their future career prospects. Certainly, it should be the aim of future research to further investigate this relation from a psycholinguistic perspective. Another topic worth further examination is related to the practical side of learning EAP and other domains of English. The respondents declared that EAP courses allowed them to master skills that may be potentially useful both in their academic work as well as in other professions. Thus, from a strictly educational perspective, the topic of utilising domain specific courses to teach students holistic skills needed in various careers seems at least worth exploring.

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Odbiór i reprezentacja języka angielskiego jako języka akademickiego wśród studentów zagranicznych w Polsce i jego wpływ na kształtowanie/reformułowanie tożsamości indywidualnych

ABSTRAKT. W artykule omówiono wybrane problemy uczenia się i używania języka angielskiego jako języka akademickiego z perspektywy studentów zagranicznych w Polsce. Część teoretyczna artykułu koncentruje się na zagadnieniach związanych z koncepcją tożsamości i statusem języka angielskiego jako akademickiego *lingua franca*, zwłaszcza w świetle rosnącej roli English for Academic Purposes (EAP) w edukacji uniwersyteckiej. Takie tło teoretyczne ma służyć jako swoiste wprowadzenie do dyskusji, która koncentruje się wokół wpływu tej specyficznej, społecznej odmiany języka angielskiego na proces kształtowania lub ponownego kształtowania tożsamości studentów, którzy zdecydowali się kontynuować naukę poza naturalnym środowiskiem swojego języka pierwszego w wielojęzycznym kontekście uniwersyteckiego kształcenia językowego. Widziane z takiej perspektywy uniwersyteckie kursy EAP mogą być traktowane jako forma praktycznej realizacji pedagogiki wielojęzycznej, a dokładniej idei inkluzywnych „klas" z programem nauczania zorientowanym na konkretne cele. W części empirycznej artykułu przedstawiono projekt badawczy, którego celem było zbadanie wyżej wymienionych zjawisk jako doświadczanych przez grupę studentów językowych o różnym pochodzeniu etnicznym i narodowym, którzy studiują (i mieszkają) w Polsce od co najmniej roku. Główną techniką badawczą zastosowaną w tym badaniu jakościowym był wywiad półformalny, wybrany z myślą o uzyskaniu pogłębionego obrazu i wysoce spersonalizowanej relacji z procesu (re)konstruowania indywidualnych tożsamości w określonym kontekście społecznym i otoczeniu edukacyjnym.

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English and other languages in a plurilingual pedagogical approach: A case study from northern Italy

Abstract. Language teaching constantly needs to be adapted to changing societal realities, such as the spread of English as an international language or the growing linguistic complexity in Europe. A key question is whether and how languages could be treated together in school programmes to cater to a multilingual milieu. This article analyses a plurilingual pedagogical approach that is adopted in a few primary schools in the Italian province of South Tyrol. The research is a qualitative case study and draws on various theoretical perspectives, including the method model developed by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 2001, 2014). The dataset comprises analogue and digital data gathered through participant observation, field notes, personal communications, audio recordings, and school documents. Results show how a multilingual turn has taken root in the context examined, while reinforcing English acquisition.

Keywords: Language teaching approaches, English language learning as an L3, Ladin, multilingualism, plurilingualism, integrated linguistic education, crosslinguistic awareness.

1. INTRODUCTION

Significant advances have been made in understanding language teaching approaches and methods, which have undergone continuous changes due to better knowledge about the nature of language, language acquisition processes, and the kind of proficiency that learners need. Two primary sources of change have shaped recent language teaching, one of which is internal to the profession, and the other comes from outside. On the one hand, the English language teaching profession reflects a growing "understanding of its own essential knowledge base and associated instructional practices" (Richards & Rodgers 2014: 83). On the other hand, it reflects the status of English as an international language, whose knowledge is required in many sectors of contemporary life and industry. At the same time, citizens of minority-language areas and border regions often need to speak their local languages along with a number of larger languages

besides English. Furthermore, European communities and nations are becoming linguistically more and more diverse because of migration.

Therefore, language teaching scholars have started exploring instructional designs that best support and enhance *multilingualism* and *plurilingualism*. They distinguish between the coexistence of various languages in society and an individual's evolving communicative competence in two or more interacting languages (Council of Europe 2001; Taylor 2021). A point at issue is whether it is feasible and beneficial to integrate different languages in single lesson plans. The latter is advocated by proponents of *Integrated Linguistic Education* (henceforth abbreviated as ILE), which aims to create synergistic links across languages and is the focus of this article (Cathomas 2015; Irsara 2017; Le Pape Racine 2007)[1]. The ILE approach to teaching languages can be embedded within the broad discussion on multilingualism in education, which includes debates on translanguaging (Baker 2011; Conteh 2018; García & Wei 2013; Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012). The term *translanguaging* defines "the planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson" (Lewis et al. 2012: 3). It has been emphasised that "in a translanguaging classroom, learners and teachers draw on all their linguistic resources: all languages are valued and are regarded as making different but equal contributions to language learning and meaning making" (Copland & Ni 2018: 145). Similarly, the term *classroom code-switching* indicates "the alternating use of more than one linguistic code in the classroom by any of the classroom participants" (Lin 2017: 487). May (2013) and Conteh and Meier (2014) argue that language education witnesses a multilingual turn in different regions of the globe, where monolingual instructional strategies are being reconsidered in favour of multilingual approaches.

This article aims to contribute to language teaching research in multilingual contexts by examining the ILE approach in South Tyrol (Italy), adding to an understanding of the multilingual turn mentioned above. The plurilingual pedagogical approach ILE has been implemented in the South-Tyrolean Ladin schools for several decades, whereas it is more recent in the South-Tyrolean German school that is the focus of this article. Focusing on a particular case study, this article intends to provide more accurate insights into how English and other languages are combined in a specific school subject called *languages*, which remains largely unexplored. The article also seeks to determine whether the methods model proposed by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 2001, 2014) provides a valuable framework for the examination of teaching practices, more specifically for an analysis of the ILE approach.

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[1] The ILE concept and framework presented in this article are not to be confused with Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which combines subject and language learning.

Section 2 of this article describes the ILE concept and approach, also providing information on the plurilingual Ladin context, which offers the greatest source of inspiration for the German school under analysis. Section 3 presents the case study that was conducted, illustrating the geopolitical and learning context of the participants in Section 3.1. Section 3.2 subsequently outlines the model proposed by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 2001, 2014), which acts as a reference point in the analysis in Section 3.3.

2. INTEGRATED LINGUISTIC EDUCATION

Proponents of multilingual approaches to language teaching argue that time slots should be made available in school curricula to enable learners to approach language diversity systematically from an early age. Well-informed multilingual strategies are not intended to replace monolingual programmes but to complement them in a balanced way. This was highlighted by the ten-year developmental project *Steps towards multilingualism*, conducted in South-Tyrolean Ladin kindergartens and primary schools (Cathomas 2015).

Within the Ladin context, sustained efforts to integrate multilingualism as an important educational goal into preschool and school curricula gradually shaped the concept of *Integrated Linguistic Education*. This concept has been expressed over the last decades with different terminology. Practitioners in the German--speaking territories of South Tyrol have contemplated the possibility of partially eliminating the rigorous separation existing between languages at school, using the expressions *integrierte Sprachdidaktik* (Flügel & Sitta 1992), *integrale Sprachen-didaktik* (Cathomas 2003), *integrative Sprachdidaktik* (Gelmi 2005), and *integrierende Mehrsprachendidaktik* (Cathomas 2015). Although there is still no complete terminological consensus on the above concept, the pre-modifying adjectives are etymologically related, tracing back to the Latin *integrare* "make whole", from *intĕger* "whole, complete". Something is included, restored, supplemented, or renewed. Cathomas (2015) favours the participial adjective *integrierend* "integrating", arguing that it emphasises an active and constructive process in which learners and teachers use prior linguistic knowledge to build new knowledge consciously and systematically. Moreover, there was a move from the singular form *Sprach-* "language" to the plural *(Mehr)sprachen-* "(more) languages" to emphasise the use of multiple languages. However, the German terms are generally used side by side and are not distinguishable. Considering the various German forms and their semantic nuances, different translation solutions were contemplated for English, before finally opting for *Integrated Linguistic Education* (Irsara 2017). An *integrated* approach to languages is advocated by the Council

of Europe (2007: 42), whereby "learners' experience of one language – whether acquired in formal education or informally in the community – is consciously drawn upon in the acquisition of others".

Based on the idea that effective language teaching has all the attributes of good teaching in general, the ILE framework applies pedagogical principles of general didactics, such as awakening and sustaining motivation in class, or moving from known to unknown, or taking a learning-centred perspective, whereby teachers have a longer view in sight and support learners to move towards increasingly challenging targets.

Specifically, ILE envisages a harmonious combination of multiple languages in certain phases of language teaching and learning, intending to make teaching and learning more efficient. The framework aims at a well-informed and systematic comparative multilingual teaching that enables learners' development of language skills and learning strategies, including elements of intra- and intercultural pedagogy. ILE encompasses various teaching and learning approaches that focus on finding and exploiting commonalities between languages. In line with the widely accepted communicative language teaching approach, there is a strong focus on functional aspects of language, meaning, interaction, the authenticity of input, and learning by doing. However, ILE intends to develop both communication skills and metalinguistic and crosslinguistic awareness in learners, who are led to systematically reflect on similarities and differences between the languages in their repertoire.

A resolution adopted by the north-Italian Autonomous Province of Bozen-Bolzano (2009), South Tyrol, promotes the systematic implementation and documentation of multilingual classroom activities in the Ladin valleys in the province, namely *Val Badia* and *Val Gardena*[2]. Ladin is a Rhaeto-Romance minority language that counts approximately 31,000 speakers in the Dolomites. Two thirds of the Ladin speakers (20,548) reside in South Tyrol, which recognises three official languages, namely German (majority of the population), Italian, and Ladin. South Tyrol was annexed to Italy after the First World War, before which it belonged to the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The province has secondary legislative competences in the primary education sector, which means that South-Tyrolean schools can develop their own profile within the national framework. In the Ladin schools of South Tyrol, pupils learn Ladin, Italian, German, and English. Plurilingual teaching strategies are implemented across the curriculum throughout pre-primary and primary school, as well as in the curricular subject *Educaziun Linguistica Integrada* 'Integrated Linguistic Education', which is underpinned by the ILE concept.

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[2] "Aktivitäten integrierender Sprachendidaktik werden regelmäßig in allen Klassen durchgeführt und dokumentiert" 'ILE activities are regularly conducted and documented in all classes' (Autonomous Province of Bozen-Bolzano 2009: 59).

Training in multilingual teaching is offered to teachers in education at the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano, where most South-Tyrolean pre-primary and primary school teachers gain their teaching qualification. The continuous 5-year Master's Degree Course in Primary Education comprises a German, an Italian, and a Ladin section. Language plays a significant role in this course since students are prepared to teach English as a foreign language at the primary level and must master the local languages (German, Italian, and English in the German and Italian sections; Ladin, Italian, German, and English in the Ladin section). Ladin speakers attend modules in 4 languages, while students in the German and Italian sections take modules in 3 languages. Graduates have a C1 level in the local languages (including Ladin in the Ladin section) and a B2 or higher level in English. Therefore, South-Tyrolean primary teachers are plurilingual and can be viewed as positive role models of successful plurilingualism.

The project *Steps towards multilingualism* implemented and analysed ILE in the Ladin territory, concluding that it was a successful attempt to develop its theoretical foundations and to bridge the gap between theory and practice (Cathomas 2015). While the above-mentioned project started in 2004, in 2010, a further ILE initiative began to take shape in a South-Tyrolean German school, which is the focus of this study, presented in Section 3 (Brugger & Primucci 2017).

3. THE CASE STUDY

3.1. Context and participants

The case study was conducted in the north-Italian province of South Tyrol (see Section 2), a multilingual territory due to historical socio-political circumstances and recent migration to the area[3]. More precisely, the study was carried out in the municipality of Bruneck, which had 17,050 inhabitants at the end of 2020 (ASTAT 2021). The latest population census of 2011, which counted the speakers of German, Italian, and Ladin as a first language (L1), revealed the following percentages for the municipality of Bruneck: 82.47% (German), 15.24% (Italian), and 2.29% (Ladin) (ASTAT 2021)[4]. German is to be understood as an umbrella term encompassing various local variants of Southern Bavarian. At the end of 2019, 9.5% of the inhabitants were residents with a migration background (ASTAT 2020).

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[3] Migration increases the linguistic and cultural diversity of South Tyrolean society. In 2019, people from 138 different countries lived in South Tyrol (ASTAT 2020).

[4] Respondents in 2011 were invited to select one group of speakers, whereas multiple language declarations were not possible.

The system of compulsory schools in South Tyrol comprises three distinct, parallel school systems with different linguistic foci. German-speaking schools focus on German and teach Italian as a second language (L2), while Italian-speaking schools focus on Italian and teach German as an L2. In contrast, schools in the Ladin valleys have a dual focus on Italian and German and adopt a balanced language approach. In these three school systems, English is taught as a third (L3) or fourth language (L4), starting from grade four (at 9–10 years old) in the Ladin and most German schools.

This article presents an analysis undertaken in a German school that has implemented an ILE project for over a decade. In this school, English is taught as a subject from grade four, as in the other German schools (see Table 1), but the language also finds a place within the ILE subject, which is offered from grade one in the classes with a specific language focus (see *languages* in Table 2). While ILE strongly emphasises German, Italian, and Ladin in the Ladin schools, it balances German, Italian, and English in the German school under analysis. Tables 1 and 2 show the number of language instruction hours per week in most South-Tyrolean German schools (Table 1) and in the German school with a language focus in Bruneck (Table 2). One school hour lasts 55 minutes, and a school year comprises at least 34 weeks (Autonomous Province of Bozen-Bolzano 2021).

Table 1. Number of language instruction hours in South-Tyrolean German schools

Subject	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5
German	8	7	7	5	5
Italian	2	4	4	5	5
English	–	–	–	2	2

Source: Autonomous Province of Bozen-Bolzano (2021).

Table 2. Number of language instruction hours in the South-Tyrolean German school under analysis

Subject	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5
German	8	7	7	6	6
Italian	2	4	4	5	5
English	–	–	–	2	2
Languages	4	4	4	4	4

Source: Primary School District Bruneck (2022).

More specifically, the study presented in Section 3.3 is focused on the subject *languages* (see Table 2 above), which adopts the ILE approach illustrated in Section 2. The research was conducted during several months of spring 2022,

informally observing several lessons. For reasons of clarity, this article focuses on the detailed analysis of one lesson given to 7–8-year-olds approaching the end of grade 2. In the lesson observed, there were 18 children (14 girls and 4 boys), who spoke various languages at home (L1s), as Table 3 illustrates. While the level of German and Italian varied considerably among the children, none of them spoke English at home, and they learnt it mainly as a foreign language.

Table 3. Languages that are spoken at home by the study participants

Number of children	Languages spoken at home
6	German dialect
2	Albanian
2	Urdu
1	Spanish
1	Italian
1	German dialect, Italian
1	Standard German, Italian
1	German dialect, standard German, Ladin
1	German dialect, Ladin
1	Polish, Slovak, German dialect
1	Polish, German dialect, Italian

Source: current study.

The lesson under analysis in this article was co-taught by three plurilingual language teachers, who shared responsibility for the overall lesson planning and outcomes, but who were mostly in charge of one language: German, Italian, or English. While the German and Italian teachers were L1 speakers of the languages, the English teacher was a local speaker of German.

3.2. Methodology and data

The case study research was selected as the most appropriate way to approach the area of investigation, considering, in particular, the close attention this methodology pays to context. As explained by van Lier (2005: 195), "a case study zeroes in on a particular case (an individual, a group, or a situation) in great detail, within its natural context of situation, and tries to probe into its characteristics, dynamics, and purposes". Van Lier (2005: 196) further specifies that a case can be "a group of individuals with a common context, set of goals, or some kind of institutional boundedness". The case study reported in this

article concentrates on a group of pupils learning languages through a specific multilingual programme at a primary school. The study is qualitative, interpretive, and takes a non-intervention approach. Therefore, it falls into the upper right quadrant of van Lier's (2005) coordinate system in Figure 1.

	no intervention
observation	observation
individual	**collective**
pedagogical treatment, elicitation	action research
	intervention
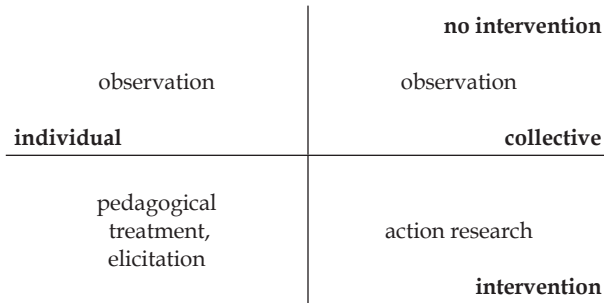
**Figure 1.** Approaches to case study research

Source: van Lier 2005: 197.

The case study is intrinsic, and "the case itself is the focus of attention" (van Lier 2005: 205). As Stake (1995: 77) emphasised, "with intrinsic case studies, our primary task is to come to understand the case".

Linguistic education can be defined as teaching aimed at developing learners' first and further languages. It is a branch of education in which "the purpose (language) and the teaching instrument (language) coincide" (Balboni 2010: 9). Language teaching research is a science that studies linguistic education, one aim of which is to understand teaching mechanisms and processes. Various logical constructions and propositions have been put forward to provide a reference for scholars working in this field. However, language teaching research is hardly compatible with formula definitions that can be verified by formal or mathematical logic and privileges verbal definitions (Balboni 2010).

In describing language teaching methods, "the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language is central" (Richards & Rodgers 2014: 21). Anthony (1963) attempted to account for this with a tripartite scheme that recognised three levels of organisation, which he called *approach*, *method*, and *technique*. Anthony (1963: 63) saw a hierarchical arrangement between these three levels, arguing that "*techniques* carry out a *method* which is consistent with an *approach*". This proposal was appreciated for linking theoretical bases and practices simply and comprehensively. However, the model should have paid more attention to the inherent characteristics of a method, according to Richards and Rodgers

(1982), who wished to develop a framework that would help describe and compare language teaching methods systematically. With this in mind, Richards and Rodgers (1982) adopted Anthony's (1963) terminology and modified it. Figure 2 shows that they turned the expression *method* into an umbrella term encompassing *approach*, *design*, and *procedure*, which were considered interdependent.
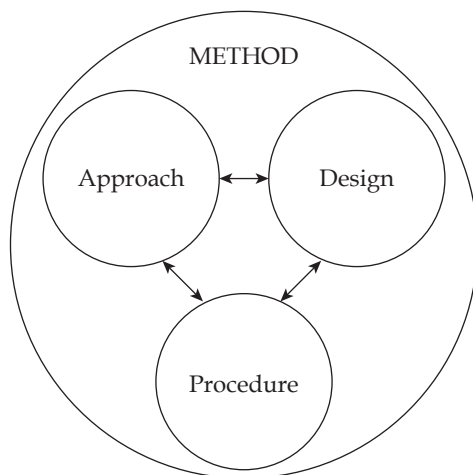
Figure 2. Approach, design, procedure

Source: Richards & Rodgers 1982: 155.

Richards and Rodgers (2014: 22) specify that "a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organisationally determined by a design, and is practically realised in procedure". More precisely, the conceptualisation and organisation levels termed *approach*, *design*, and *procedure* refer to the elements listed in Table 4, which constitute a method, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001, 2014).

Table 4. Elements and sub-elements that form a method

Method		
Approach(es)	**Design**	**Procedure**
A theory of the nature of: – language – language learning	– The objectives of the method – A syllabus model – Types of learning and teaching activities – Learner roles – Teacher roles – The role of instructional materials	Classroom techniques, practices, and behaviours

Source: Richards & Rodgers 2001: 33.

The analysis conducted in Section 3.3 is based on the model that is outlined in Table 4, confirming that also ILE, like other language teaching methods, can be examined in terms of the issues identified by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 2001, 2014) in the levels of approach, design, and procedure.

The analysis draws on different types of data that were collected in the first half of 2022. The data contains field notes taken during observation, audio recordings, personal communications by children and teachers, pupils' notebooks, school documents, and previously published reports and research in related areas. Although various lessons were observed, one in particular is the focus in the article. The study brings an emic (insider's) and etic (outsider's) perspective to the data since the author-analyst collected the data herself and participated in various projects at the same school.

3.3. Findings and discussion

3.3.1. Approach(es)

Richards and Rodgers (2014: 22) emphasise that the "*approach* refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching". Various language models and theoretical views on the nature of language inform ILE. These are cognitive, structural, functional, interactional, sociocultural, and lexical models. Similarly, ILE assumes various theories of language learning.

ILE interprets language as the reflection of a mind that does not compartmentalise languages but integrates them into an overall system. This consideration is cautiously suggested by proponents of the dynamic model of multilingualism (De Bot & Jaensch 2012). The latter see multilingual proficiency as "composed of the individual language systems, the crosslinguistic interaction between the language systems, and other components such as an enhanced multilingual monitor" (Jessner & Cenoz 2019: 160). Metalinguistic and crosslinguistic awareness help develop multilingual proficiency. Metacognitive language learning skills also develop such proficiency that ILE supports.

ILE exploits and values learners' prior linguistic knowledge, 'picking them up from where they are', as expressed metaphorically by Cathomas (2015). In relation to Krashen's (1982) input hypothesis, acquisition occurs if the input is slightly beyond the learner's current level of competence ($i + 1$), whereby i "represents the level of language already acquired, and the '+1' is a metaphor for language (words, grammatical forms, aspects of pronunciation) that is just a step beyond that level" (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 37). Krashen's i could be

taken to encompass other languages and dialects that learners speak, that is their entire linguistic repertoire and plurilingual competence.

Regarding learners' prior linguistic knowledge, ILE draws in particular on Cummins' (1981) underlying proficiency model, which recognises that "the languages of bi- and multilinguals interact in complex ways that can enhance aspects of overall language and literacy development" (Cummins 2007: 234). Cummins (1981: 25) uses the visual metaphor of a dual iceberg to provide a general sense of the interdependence between languages in an individual. He argues that "common cross-lingual proficiencies underlie the obviously different surface manifestations of each language". Cummins' (1981, 2005) dual-iceberg representation is shown in Figure 3.
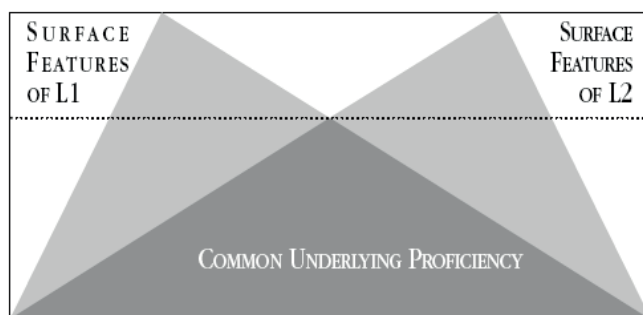
Figure 3. The dual-iceberg representation of bilingual proficiency

Source: Cummins 2005.

While ILE practitioners also adopt structural, interactional, sociocultural, and lexical views of language, they prioritise the functional dimension, that is, "the view that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meanings and for performing real-world activities" (Richards & Rodgers 2014: 23). In particular, ILE emphasises the importance of appropriate and effective use of different languages in different domains, which is termed *functional multilingualism*, as discussed in Section 3.3.2 below.

3.3.2. Design

A general objective of ILE is functional multilingualism, as stated above. At the same time, native-speaker-like competence in every language is considered a myth that can lead to an obsession with perfection and inhibit learning. The ideal of faultless competence creates an unattainable goal, which is doomed to

failure and has a demotivating effect on learners and teachers. It might be argued in line with Byram (2021: 17) that learners of several languages in ILE should develop the following:

> the ability to see and manage the relationship between themselves and their own beliefs, values, behaviours and meanings, as expressed in a foreign language, and those of their interlocutors, expressed in the same language – or even a combination of languages – which may be the interlocutors' native language, or not.

The more specific objectives of the ILE-based subject *languages* in the school under analysis are provided in Table 5. The objectives encompass performance, knowledge, and metacognition. The programme includes developing children's abilities to switch between languages (performance). It also includes engaging children in crosslinguistic and metalinguistic reflections (knowledge and metacognition). 'Learning to think' and 'learning to learn' are integral parts of the programme. Table 5 also serves as an assessment form, in which children are graded on a band scale ranging from 'fully achieved' to 'not achieved'. Assessment is largely informal and formative. Data about pupils' performance is mainly obtained through observation under normal classroom conditions, and assessment "feeds back into learning and gives the learner information on his/her progress (…) thus helping him/her to be a more efficient learner" (Harris & McCann 1994: 90).

Table 5. Objectives in the subject *languages*

Area	Objectives
Knowledge of multilingualism	Recognise and exploit commonalities and differences between languages and cultures
Dealing with multilingualism	Be able to switch from one language to another
Language learning	Consciously use one's language skills when learning other languages
Language reflection and transfer	Establish links between language systems through observation and analysis

Source: current study.

Although functional multilingualism is a stated aim of the ILE framework, no explicit syllabus type is specified. However, various syllabus assumptions can be inferred from the data collected in the current study, which points to a blend of types with a focus on child-relevant communication and child-friendly reflection. The ILE programme examined follows what Pinter (2006) calls a multi-layered syllabus, which includes various language components, themes or topics, and

learning-to-learn skills. In particular, the study data shows that syllabuses of the ILE-based subject *languages* are planned using picture books in English, German, and Italian. For example, the storybook in the lesson under analysis in this article was *You're a Hero, Daley B* (Blake & Scheffler 1992), around which various work hours were planned. Regarding the framework for a story-based methodology by Ellis and Brewster (2014), illustrated in Figure 4, the lesson described in this article was at stage 3 of the model. The story had already been read in English, German, and Italian in previous classes and acted now as a springboard to further reflection and post-storytelling activities.
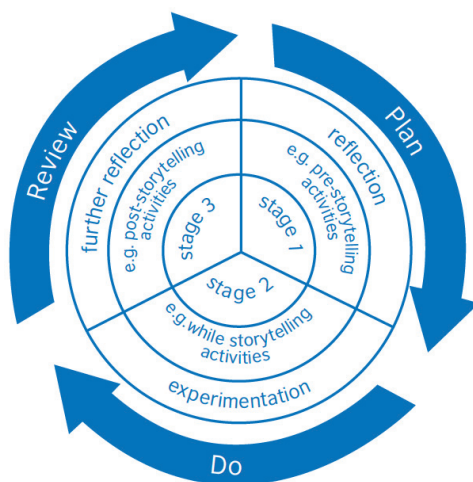
Figure 4. A story-based methodology

Source: Ellis & Brewster 2014: 24.

Activities in the subject *languages* include various age-appropriate activities that target the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, but also activities that are designed to activate language acquisition processes in multilingual settings, such as comparing and noticing exercises. At the beginning of each ILE session, activities are teacher-led and carried out in the whole group. At this stage, pupils sit in a circle with all the three language teachers, who lead the discussion in German, Italian, and English. Subsequently, pupils move into subgroups with one of the three teachers, working in three different rooms in this second stage. After some time in one room, pupils rotate to the next one, switching to another language. After working with the three teachers separately, the entire group is reassembled in the main multilingual room. As illustrated in Table 2 above, the subject *languages* is taught four hours per week, corresponding

to two 55-minute sessions. The length of the whole-group and sub-group stages within the 55-minute sessions is not strictly regulated but flexible to meet needs at different phases in the learning programme.

Besides objectives, syllabus models, and activity types, the level of design finally includes the role of learners, teachers, and instructional materials, as shown in Table 4 above. In the ILE-based subject examined, learners are viewed as members of a group that learn from three teachers and one another. Co-operative learning, peer-tutoring, and peer-monitoring are encouraged in all three languages in the plurilingual subject *languages*, where pupils are seen as active agents. All learners observed learnt English as a foreign language, but their levels varied, partly because of different literary experiences within their families. However, pupils' proficiency varied particularly in German and Italian, spoken by various pupils as their L1(s), as Table 3 above shows. Hence, children in multilingual classrooms can be linguistic resources and assume both expert and novice roles, alternating between the two in various lesson phases.

Similarly, children can regard plurilingual teachers as models. It is widely acknowledged that primary teachers are an influential source of motivation for children (Pinter 2006). Teachers of the observed subject *languages* can be described as facilitators of learning and involvement. They facilitate crosslinguistic comparisons and involve the pupils actively, putting "a great deal of effort into finding appropriate and interesting activities that will do this, while still retaining clear control over the classroom and what happens in it" (Scrivener 2011: 18).

Due to a need for more specific commercial resources for ILE, teachers need to adapt to the method and create their own materials. While no specific course-book is used in the subject *languages* under analysis, picture books play a crucial role, as mentioned above. Teachers in ILE "mediate the read-aloud", whereby mediation is defined as "the support or assistance, often referred to as 'scaffolding', given by the teacher when sharing a picturebook with a group of children" (Ellis & Mourão 2021: 23). Teachers do not translate stories and activities word by word but adopt various mediating strategies, among which is multilingual classroom talk.

3.3.3. Procedure

Following *approach(es)* and *design*, the *procedure* is the third and last level of conceptualisation and organisation in the method model delineated by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 2001, 2014). It "encompasses the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular approach or method" (Richards & Rodgers 2014: 35). The main

procedures and techniques observed during the ILE-based subject *languages* in the South-Tyrolean second grade under analysis are discussed in this section.

The lesson starts at 7.40 and is the first of the day. Children are in their seats while the German teacher (GT) ensures they have their materials and homework ready, praising some of them for their diligence. In the meantime, the English teacher (ET) invites the present author and lesson observer to choose a place that suits her. She suggests that she could sit near the teacher's desk off-centre, remarking that teachers hardly ever sit there but walk around among the children's single desks, which are spread out in the classroom.

ET and GT then address the whole class to capture each child's (C) attention. As extract (1) shows, this is done in two languages, in line with ILE principles.

> (1) ET: *Okay, let's see who is ready. Who is ready?* (Eng)
>   C: *P.!*
>   ET: *P. is ready. That's great!* (Eng)
>   (ET calls on various children, who keep talking in German and Italian).
>   GT: *Mal schauen, wer am schnellsten ist.* (Ger)
>   'Let's see who is the fastest.'
>   ET: *Let's wait another minute.* (Eng)
>   GT: *C. ist beim Arzt.* (Ger)
>   'C. is at the doctor's.'

When the children are ready, ET introduces the lesson observer, at which stage a cognate is identified, to which pupils' attention is drawn by GT. Cognate awareness is promoted, as suggested by ILE proponents, who emphasise the value of highlighting similarities between languages. Extract (2) illustrates how GT notices and responds to an opportunity to engage children in a crosslinguistic reflection. The term that GT uses is the German *Sprachenalarm* 'language alarm', a signal teachers in the multilingual programme regularly give in order to bring attention to interlinguistic similarities. The Italian teacher (IT) also participates in the interaction in (2).

> (2) ET: *Okay, […], today we have a guest in our class. A guest.* (Eng)
>   GT: *Sprachenalarm!* (Ger)
>   'Language alarm'
>   C1: *Der Gast!* (Ger)
>   'the guest'
>   IT: *In italiano, C.?* (It)
>   C2: *Un ospite.* (It)
>   IT: *Esatto.* (It)
>   'Exactly'
>   ET: *Welcome!* (Eng)

After the observer briefly introduces herself, three children stand in front of the class and say what day and season it is. Extract (3) shows that they quickly do so in German and Italian but need support for the English version. ET elicits the name of the month by providing the initial sound. At the same time, GT successfully reminds the pupil of an interlinguistic similarity, using the term *Sprachenalarm* 'language alarm', as in extract (2). When the pupil has difficulties remembering the season in English, ET provides a gestural cue, which is initially misinterpreted but then understood by the pupil.

(3)   C1:   *Heute ist Donnerstag, der 12. Mai 2022, Frühling.* (Ger)
                   'Today is Thursday the 12th of May 2022, spring.'
        C2:   *Oggi è giovedì, il 12 maggio 2022, è primavera.* (It)
                   'Today is Thursday the 12th of May 2022, it is spring.'
        ET: *English?*
        C3:   *Today is Thursday 12…* (Eng)
        ET: *12 M…*
        GT: *Sprachenalarm!* (Ger)
                   'Language alarm'
        C3:   *May 2022.* (Eng)
        ET: *And it is… 'Frühling'?*
                   (ET makes a quick sudden jump forwards, i.e. a spring)
        C3:   *Jump!* (Teachers laugh quietly)… *Spring!* (Eng)
        ET: *Yes, it is spring!* (Eng)

Well-acquainted with classroom routines, a child goes to the blackboard and outlines the timetable for the day, indicating flashcards lined up on the board, which provide visual cues and remind children of the sequence of subjects and breaks throughout the day.

Eventually, children sit in their seats, with their heads on their arms, while ET taps one pupil after the other on their shoulders. On being given this signal, children quietly push their chairs into a circle at the back of the room. When all children are in the circle, they sing a greeting song in various languages and greet their teachers in chorus in English, German, and Italian.

ET subsequently asks children to give their reasons for attending the language-focused programme and requires them to explain why learning languages is essential. Children eagerly raise their hands to take the floor and are allowed to speak once they are passed a short stick they call a 'magic wand', which moves around, allocating speaking turns. ET asks the questions in English, while the children reply in German and Italian. They speak about their plurilingual experiences, their families, their interest in languages, the advantages of being plurilingual, and activities they knew they would enjoy in class, such as creating

multilingual lapbooks. Finally, making mistakes as a natural part of language learning is also mentioned, in line with ILE's emphasis on metacognitive language learning skills and dispositions. Selected extracts are provided in (4).

(4) C1: *Mi interessano l'inglese, l'italiano, Deutsch, e sapevo che facevano molti lapbooks.* (It)
          'I'm interested in English, Italian, German, and I knew they made many lapbooks.'
          […]
      C2: *Italienisch habe ich schon im Kindergarten gelernt.* (Ger)
          'I already learnt Italian in kindergarten.'
      C3: *Anche io!* (Various children say they did as well.) (It)
          'Me too!'
      C4: *Weil ich die Unterstützung meiner Schwester kriege.* (Ger)
          'Because I get my sister's support.'
          […]
      C5: *Ich wollte in die Sprachenklasse, dann kommt auch mein Bruder und dann kann er auch Sprachen lernen.* (Ger)
          'I wanted to come to the language class, then also my brother comes, and he can learn languages as well.'
      IT: *Quanti anni ha?* (It)
          'How old is he?'
      C5: *Uno.* (It)
          'One.'
      IT: *Ah, è piccolino!* (It)
      ET: *A baby brother!* (Eng)
          […]
      GT: *Die Gäste… Woher kommen die Gäste?* (Ger)
          'Tourists… Where do tourists come from?'
      C6: *Österreich, Deutschland. Gestern war eine Ukrainerin in der Bibliothek. Sie hat ein bisschen Deutsch geredet, aber mit Englisch kann man in der ganzen Welt…* (Ger)
          'Austria, Germany. Yesterday there was a Ukrainian woman in the library. She spoke a bit of German, but with English you can get around the world.'
          […]
      C7: *Ich kann in viele Länder gehen, reisen, andere Sachen erforschen. Mein Vater muss Deutsch können, obwohl er Italiener ist. Er arbeitet in einem Geschäft, das seinem Bruder gehört. Ein Gast war Franzose […] Französisch […] und das kann er. Mein Opa ist Franzose. Meine Mama hat Italienisch geredet und viele Fehler gemacht* (children laugh), *aber dann hat sie gelernt.* (Ger)
          'I can go to many countries, travel, explore other things. My father must know how to speak German, although he is Italian. He works in a shop that belongs to his brother. One guest was French […] French […] and

my father can speak that. My grandpa is French. My mum spoke Italian
and made a lot of mistakes (children laugh), but then she learned.'
GT: *Aber Fehler kann man ja machen, oder?* (Ger)
'But mistakes can be made, right?'
(Many children nod and shout out *yes*!)

The next lesson stage places a focus on lexical forms and syntactic structures. Learners are not presented with grammar rules but with language data from the picture book *You're a hero, Daley B* (Blake & Scheffler 1992). Sitting around the coloured circles shown in Figure 5, children play the language analyst role. They read and assemble the cards with pictures, nouns, and affirmative sentences. The cards are in English, German, and Italian and need to be placed on the colours that officially represent the three languages in ILE: blue for English, red for German, and yellow for Italian (while Ladin would be green)[5]. The colour system helps recognise and visualise the various languages and is a methodological tool that has been used consistently in ILE since kindergarten. In the lesson under analysis, children place cognates on the rim of the overlapping circles, as should be noted in Figure 5. The activity involves reading and noticing but also speaking since children utter a question while picking up and putting down the nouns. The questions are formulated as a follow-up to the picture book they read, e.g. *Am I a monkey?*
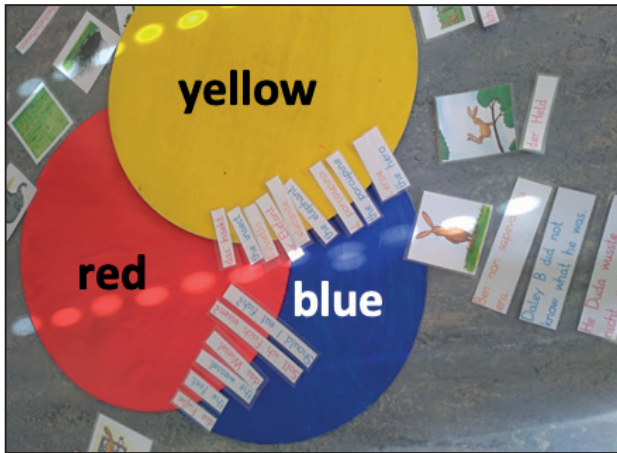

Figure 5. The coloured language circles

Source: current study.

_____

[5] Hence, a green circle would also be found in a Ladin school (teaching not only three but four languages).

The language reflection and production activity is followed by a multilingual *Total Physical Response* (TPR) sequence, which includes commands that recycle and extend language from the picture book *You're a hero, Daley B* (Blake & Scheffler 1992) and its German and Italian translations. After this physical movement activity, pupils are given a short break to eat a small snack, during which teachers and children talk informally in the three school languages. Finally, ET explains and illustrates (bilingually) a pen-and-paper exercise that pupils will do later. At this point, work in three subgroups begins: one group remains in the main room with GT, while the other two move to the Italian and German rooms with their respective teachers. After some time, children switch rooms, before finally gathering in the main room for mathematics.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Language teaching approaches and methods have constantly been questioned and reconsidered in light of recent linguistic findings, significant advances in language acquisition, more excellent pedagogic knowledge, and changing societal realities. Considering that English is being taught in increasingly multilingual classrooms, incorporating more than one language in single lessons could be viable and legitimate at specific points in the curriculum, in which multilingual practices complement monolingual strategies in a well-informed and balanced way, as is observed in the present study.

This article provides a theoretical and empirical description of a multilingual approach to teaching languages that is called *Integrated Linguistic Education*, which treats languages in functional interrelationship with one another, supporting the thesis that multiple languages can efficiently coexist in single lessons. The analysis demonstrates that a multilingual turn has taken root in the South-Tyrolean German school under discussion, as in the Ladin schools of South Tyrol, which adopt multilingual and translanguaging pedagogies. In particular, the German primary school examined in this article adopts the multilingual pedagogical approach ILE in the curricular subject called *languages*. The subject is co-taught by three language teachers, who follow various multilingual procedures to increase pupils' crosslinguistic awareness, activate metacognitive language learning strategies, and facilitate language switching. The emphasis is not on identifying contrastive linguistic features that might cause problems for learners but on finding crosslinguistic similarities based on a critical principle of the ILE concept.

The model for describing methods proposed by Richards and Rodgers (1982, 2001, 2014) has allowed for a more systematic study of ILE. The model provides a valuable framework for systematically analysing specific teaching approaches,

designs, and procedures. Based on these three levels of conceptualisation and organisation, the qualitative study in this article shows that ILE is eclectic and has various characteristic features that are difficult to pin down to a set of specific components. However, the data analysis reveals that ILE is mainly story-based in the school examined, and that lessons follow clear procedures with which learners are familiar, such as the use of the language-representing colours, the search for cognates, and the processes of crosslinguistic and metalinguistic reflection.

Although the context-bounded nature of the investigation suggests that the identified practices may not be generalised, particularisation is arguably as important as a generalisation. The insights gained "can inform, be adapted to, and provide comparative information to a wide variety of other cases, so long as one is careful to take contextual differences into account" (van Lier 2005: 198). Overall, implementing a comprehensive approach to teaching languages mirrors children's milieu and contributes to the development of a multilingual mindset from an early age. In the context examined in this article, English plays a major role in that it builds a bridge between various other languages.

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Język angielski w wielojęzycznym podejściu pedagogicznym: studium przypadku z północnych Włoch

ABSTRAKT. Nauczanie języków obcych musi być stale dostosowywane do zmieniających się realiów społecznych, takich jak upowszechnianie się języka angielskiego jako języka międzynarodowego lub rosnąca złożoność językowa w Europie. Kluczowym pytaniem jest, czy i jak języki mogą być traktowane łącznie w programach szkolnych, aby zaspokoić potrzeby wielojęzycznego środowiska. W niniejszym artykule przeanalizowano podejście pedagogiczne do wielojęzyczności, które przyjęto w kilku szkołach podstawowych we włoskiej prowincji Południowy Tyrol. Badania mają charakter jakościowego studium przypadku i czerpią z różnych perspektyw teoretycznych, w tym z modelu metody opracowanego przez Richardsa i Rodgersa (1982, 2001, 2014). Zbiór danych obejmuje dane analogowe i cyfrowe zebrane poprzez obserwację uczestniczącą, notatki z wizyt w szkołach, komunikację osobistą, nagrania audio i dokumenty szkolne. Wyniki pokazują, jak w badanym kontekście zakorzenił się zwrot wielojęzyczny, wzmacniając jednocześnie akwizycję języka angielskiego.

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The language teacher as a supporter of the linguistic ecosystem among young immigrant learners: Beliefs and practices

ABSTRACT. The objective of the article is to analyze the attitudes of foreign language teachers towards students' mother tongues or heritage languages, as migrant students to the city of Gdańsk, Poland, use them as a compensation strategy in formal language learning. On the basis of a survey methodology, the author will try to explore language teacher beliefs regarding the perception of the coexistence and the use of other languages (including Polish) in mainstream FL education and attempt to compile good practices in this regard, reported by the teachers surveyed. Referring to his earlier research (Lankiewicz 2013, 2015, 2019, 2020, 2021), the author hypothesizes that language teachers manifesting higher levels of critical language awareness will be more prone to draw upon students' linguistic repertoires in the education processes, while others will suppress any form of intercomprehension, code-switching or language meshing.

KEYWORDS: language learning, plurilingualism, multilingualism, translingualism, ecolinguistics, heritage language, minority language, critical language awareness.

1. INTRODUCTION

Applied linguistics research has recently drifted away from viewing language in terms of Saussure's dyadic relation between the *signifier* and *signified*, a basically structuralist vision of language, in which semiotic activities are inscribed in the constitutive elements of language. This view additionally assumed that via language people can construct and objectively communicate knowledge. Contemporary, practice-driven theories considering language-mediated communication perceive language as a resource rather than "the exclusive target of research" (Infante 2021: 125). Therefore, applied linguists posit the need for language theories which "capture the dialectic between social structure and human agency and how social beings, with their diverse motives and their diverse intentions, make and transform the world" (Li Wei 2018: 10), and Li Wei (2018) similarly puts forward the concept of translanguaging (to be explained below)

as a candidate for a more practical theory of language in contemporary contexts and linguistic communities. In the 21st century, the myth of a pure language as a self-contained system needs to be dispelled, since language users, as agents, not only change linguistic resources, but also mesh (Canagajarah 2013) apparently separate language systems. Li Wei (2018: 26) further underscores the fact that translanguaging is not merely a descriptive label for certain practices typical of the 21st century, since it rather "offers a practical theory of language that sees the latter as a multilingual, multisemiotic, multisensory, and multimodal resource that human beings use for thinking and for communicating thought".

This perception of language, dictated by observed practices of language users, necessitates a more flexible approach to language use (both L1 and L2) in educational contexts as a means of instruction and ultimately within its teaching practice in order to match the evolution of natural communication processes. This is of particular importance in an era of human mobility and growing multilingualism. On the other hand, it entails a greater level of language awareness of, among others, foreign language teachers who should adjust their teaching methodology to the current times, which may not correspond with their thought processes as shaped by their previous educational experience. One of the essential issues to re-evaluate is the use of students' mother tongues (L1s) or other linguistic repertoires in the foreign language (FL) classroom, or, in the case of immigrants, their heritage languages. Therefore, the objective of this article is to explore possible attitudes of foreign language teachers towards the use of students' mother tongues or heritage languages in the language learning classroom, and their use as a valid compensation strategy in formal language learning contexts among migrants in an educational setting.

The research context of the study presented here is the city of Gdańsk, Poland. By using a survey-based methodology, I will attempt to explore language teacher beliefs (both of Polish and other foreign languages) regarding the coexistence and the use of other languages in mainstream education settings of foreign language classrooms and compile, if possible, proposed good practices reported by the sample teachers surveyed in this study. Referring to my earlier research (Lankiewicz 2013, 2015, 2019, 2020, 2021), I shall hypothesize that language teachers manifesting higher levels of critical language awareness will be more prone to draw upon students' own linguistic repertoires in the education processes, while others will suppress any form of translingual practice, such as intercomprehension, code-switching or language meshing.

The theoretical underpinnings are based on the tenets of ecolinguistics in language education and the notion of educational linguistics as suggested by van Lier (2004), a sociocultural theory which aims to explain the relationship between cognition and the milieu in which it takes place (Lantolf 2000; Wertch, Del Rio

& Alvarez 1995), as well as the foundations of critical language awareness, and the vision of the language teacher as a transformative intellectual (Kumaravadivelu 2012; Lankiewicz 2015). Due consideration will be given to plurilingual/multilingual competences and their use as learning strategies (Mazak & Carroll 2017). Ultimately, bi- and plurilingualism and the maintenance of the heritage language will similarly be interpreted as a means of targeting social justice (García & Leiva 2014).

2. LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE ERA OF PLURILINGUALISM

School-based educational practices have long been criticized for failing to match real life social or future professional needs. Therefore, schooling has frequently been the subject of ongoing reforms with the objective of making it more in line with academic thought or educational realities. Language teaching policy is generally shaped by state governments. However, the member countries of the European Union are also guided by a Language Policy Programme coordinated by the Council of Europe, with the basic document regulating language teaching practice within Europe, corresponding to *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Council of Europe 2001), describing language proficiency standards and recommended teaching practices. Its updated version from 2018 allows for incorporating students' linguistic repertoires into the language learning process (cf. Lankiewicz 2020).

One of the basic constituents of students' linguistic repertoires is, without doubt, the use of their mother tongues (L1s) in unfamiliar linguistic contexts, which the Linguistic Reform of the 19th century, or later 20th century methods promoting oral interaction in foreign language learning contexts – such as the so-called "Communicative Approach", alternatively referred to as "Communicative Language Teaching" (CLT), or simply the "Communicative Method" – limited to an absolute minimum during foreign language classes. It would not be considered an exaggeration to claim that the strong version of this method recommended abstaining totally from the use of the mother tongue in FL classes. This stance was fostered by the assumption that maximized exposure to comprehensible input will do its job naturally as a learning aid, a conviction based on the observation of natural L1 acquisition processes (cf. Richards & Rodgers 2001). In consequence, classroom practices relegated any form of translation as an unwelcome activity, hindering students' development of communication strategies in the target language and interfering with linguistic authenticity and the so-called accent of the target language. Recent reflection in Applied Linguistics, fostered by the concept of multicompetence (Cook 1991, 2016), however repo-

sitioned students' L1s in the process of foreign or L2 learning (cf. Rodríguez & Oxbrow 2008; Cook 2010; Lankiewicz & Wąsikiewicz-Firlej 2019). This, in turn, triggered the criticism of the Communicative Approach (Komorowska 2017: 166), which is echoed in the updated version of the CEFR (Council of Europe 2018).

Keeping abreast with a plurilingual Europe, or as some suggest the post--multilingualism era, marked by the death of pure linguistic systems (Li Wei 2018: 15), the new edition of the CEFR (Council of Europe 2018) breaks with monolingual approaches to plurilingual minds and promotes translingual practices (cf. Lankiewicz 2020). Even if the document refrains from a recommended pedagogy, it recommends real-life tasks and, with reference to what is most essential to this paper, it abolishes the four skills paradigm of language teaching, typical of the monolingual vision of language learning. The concepts of plurilingual and pluricultural competences, moved to the forefront in this document, in fact transgress the previously dominant skill paradigm consisting of listening, reading, writing and speaking. The mode of communication defined as mediation among people speaking many languages, as evidenced by psychological and neurological research, accounts for the fact that plurilinguals[1], guided by their translingual instinct (Li Wei 2011), activate all their linguistic resources, which constantly influence each other. This is a space in which translations and interpretation come into play with a whole array of other activities, and where a participant may:

  – switch from one language or dialect (or variety) to another;
  – express oneself in one language (or dialect, or variety) and understand a person speaking another;
  – call upon the knowledge of a number of languages (or dialects, or varieties) to make sense of a text;
  – recognise words from a common international store in a new guise;
  – mediate between individuals with no common language (or dialect, or variety), even with only a slight knowledge of oneself;
  – bring the whole of one's linguistic equipment into play, experimenting with alternative forms of expression;
  – exploit paralinguistics (mime, gesture, facial expression, etc.) (Council of Europe 2018: 28).

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[1] In professional literature, there is a general overlap in the use of the terms of plurilingualism and multilingualism. However, even if the former is more of a psycholinguistic nature, pertaining to the existence of more than one language in a person's mind, and the latter belongs more to sociolinguistics, accentuating the coexistence of languages in a certain society, the two notions are used interchangeably to denote the ability to speak many languages. This terminological inconsistency may occasionally appear in this paper, while citing scholarly theories or opinions.

All these activities are ultimately evocative of the fact that plurilingual competence entails activation of all semiotic repertoires by individuals knowing more languages, which I have previously construed elsewhere as accounting for the need to recognize translingual practices (to be explained below) in the educational context as natural linguistic behaviour, a derivative of mediation (Lankiewicz 2020), which "emphasises the two key notions of co-construction of meaning in interaction and constant movement between the individual and social level in language learning, mainly through its vision of the user/learner as a holistic social agent" (Council of Europe 2018: 33).

Therefore, modern L2 or foreign language teaching cannot be sterile and resort to compartmentalized teaching of separate languages without regarding the native language and other languages which the student has in mind (typical of the monolingual approach exemplified by CLT). This is not to say that we should stop teaching German, English or Italian as discrete courses; rather, it implies that the process of learning new languages may be made more successful by activating other linguistic repertoires, or allowing students to translanguage as a means to communicate personal meanings in a more effective way, or simply recognizing linguistic hybridity as a sign of their identity (Lankiewicz 2021).

3. FROM LANGUAGING TO TRANSLANGUAGING IN THE EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

One of the key notions which the updated version of the CEFR redefines is that of "language", which is substituted with "languaging". The document informs that plurilingual and pluricultural competences "were developed as a form of dynamic, creative process of 'languaging' across the boundaries of language varieties, as a methodology and as language policy aims" (Council of Europe 2018: 28). In the same context, the notion of 'translanguaging' also appears, defined as "an action undertaken by plurilingual persons, where more than one language may be involved" (Council of Europe 2018: 28). Since the teacher questionnaire administered in the study reported here alludes indirectly to the two notions, it may be necessary to elucidate them further.

Nowadays, both terms are considered fundamental for the theories of multilingualism/plurilingualism. The notion of languaging is used in different contexts, from philosophy, or linguistics, to psychotherapy and language teaching (cf. Lankiewicz 2014). Putting it succinctly, it stands for a natural continuum of human linguistic activity reaching beyond the traditional, political perception of pure discrete languages cementing nations. It also underscores the fact that people use linguistic resources in a very personal way in the process of exchang-

ing meaning by either conforming to, or flouting, conventions. In this way, if we want to study human meaning-making activities, we should consider the active process of languaging rather than the concept of language. By extension, García (2009: 45 cited in Mazak 2017: 2) argues for "translanguaging to the constant, active invention of new realities through language". In other words, plurilinguals create hybrid forms, by meshing language codes in the processes of meaning making, according to their interlanguages, thus drawing on multicompetence.

Historically speaking, translanguaging originally appeared in the context of describing bilingual education in Wales (English/Welsh) and related to intercomprehension, offering the provision of input in one language and output in another (cf. Mazak 2017: 1). At present, intercomprehension is only one of many communication modalities applied by plurilinguals. In short, translanguaging pertains to the hybrid linguistic repertoires of plurilinguals, which include "the full range of linguistic performances of multilingual language users" (Li Wei 2011: 1223) "across all modalities of language, from code-switching and mixing to translation and transliteration" (Androutsopoulos 2013).

Apart from being presented as a language ideology or theory of bilingualism, translanguaging offers pedagogical implications as a stance "that teachers and students take on that allows them to draw on all their linguistic and semiotic resources as they teach and learn both language and content material in the classroom" (Mazak 2017: 5). In this article, I shall restrict my focus to the necessity of making use of translingual practices within foreign language classes, which occur naturally in the communication habits of plurilinguals (cf. Lankiewicz 2021). Consequently, allowing them in class may enhance the L2 acquisition process and foster students' identities as legitimate users of a foreign language. Code-switching between a mother tongue or a heritage language and a foreign language may be important in this regard. Ultimately, allowing translanguaging in foreign language classes may be transformational. As Mazak (2017: 6) posits, "[t]he acceptance of these practices – of the creative, adaptable, resourceful inventions of bilinguals – transforms not only our traditional notions of 'languages' but also the lives of bilinguals themselves as they remake the world through language".

4. LANGUAGE TEACHER BELIEFS
AND TEACHING PRACTICES

Within the broad concept of teacher cognition, teachers' beliefs are only seen as a small portion of the pie, but, as it turns out, they seem to be significant factors in shaping teaching practices. Research on teacher knowledge, in general, is extensive and somewhat overwhelming, and so is that pertaining

to language teacher cognition (cf. Borg 2003a, 2003b, 2006). However, we might divide up the different types of teacher knowledge, since research shows the existence of a strong overlap between teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices. Kumaravadievelu (2012: 32–34) classifies them within the category of personal knowledge – "an offshoot of teachers' reflection and reaction, insights and intuition", manifesting "identities, beliefs and values" (Kumaravadievelu 2012: 32). It is agreed that this type of knowledge dictates everyday classroom behaviour. Nonetheless, language teacher beliefs may be indicative of an uncritical application of personal educational experiences, or high critical language awareness, as is in the case of well-informed reflective language teachers who intuitively know how to facilitate natural language acquisition processes.

Essential in this regard are language teacher beliefs referring to the theory of language and theories of language teaching. Thereby, language teachers who exhibit a higher level of critical language awareness (those going beyond the monolingual paradigm) will be more prone to appreciate the value of the use of the mother tongue (L1) in the process of L2 acquisition, or accept translingual practices in a foreign language class, while those conforming to the myth of language fixity (Harris 1981), typical of the monolingual paradigm, will most probably try to exclude any "tones alien to the target language". The latter stance will stifle students' personal voices and identities in the illusory hope of producing native-like bilinguals.

The era of plurilingualism and globalization requires more open attitudes from the foreign language teacher community. In the context of the inquiry presented in this article, it would be expected that the teacher should be eager to draw on and support the micro-linguistic ecosystem (multicompetence) of immigrant language learners and ultimately contribute to the sustainment of the macro-ecosystem (social multilingualism). Kumaravadievelu (2012), alluding to critical pedagogy, in this regard, presents a vision of the language teacher as a transformative intellectual, who understands that language teaching involves more than purely language training, and "who strives not only for academic advancement but also for personal transformation, both for themselves and for the learners," (Kumaravadievelu 2012: 9) as well as one who targets social justice through linguistic means (see also Lankiewicz 2015: 183–193). Therefore, personal teacher knowledge in the form of beliefs and values is certainly indicative of their own critical language awareness and how ready they are to educate legitimate L2 language users, ready to mediate their identities via genuine voices belonging to plurilinguals who make perfect use of their full semiotic resources, rather than parrots devoid of agency in the process of meaning making.

5. RESEARCH

5.1. Research context

The Polish city of Gdańsk forms part of the metropolitan area of the Tricity, three adjacent cities stretching along the coast of the Baltic with Sopot, and Gdynia, along with several other smaller ones. Altogether, the area is populated by more than a million people. It has always been a multilingual and multicultural region, due to its historical past, geographical location, and economic potential. It is undoubtedly the site of the natural coexistence of the Polish, Kashubian and German languages. The vicinity of Russia and Scandinavia increases the linguistic diversity of the region. The shipyard industry, the port, and international business activities have attracted representatives from many nations to spend short- and long-term stays in the region.

It is also worth mentioning the fact that it is one of the biggest educational centers in Poland, with several well-respected and highly ranked educational institutions. In recent years, increased European mobility, and the influx of refugees from Ukraine and other eastern European countries, has diversified the linguistic landscape even more. One, for example, might also be surprised by the number of Italian professionals living in the region, who not long ago were considered a rare novelty. Accordingly, finding an Italian native speaker teacher used to be a problem, while these days it is common to go to a restaurant and be served by native Italians. The multilingual chatter, typical of the tourist attractions of the main street in the old town in Gdańsk, nowadays extends to constructions sites, offices, business units, and schools, since many of the migrants come with their families, or start bilingual families in their new country of residence.

Since, in the current article, I intend to concentrate on the educational milieu, it is worth illustrating the linguistic range of students attending both primary and secondary schools.[2] The data was obtained from the Office of Social Development (Wydział Rozwoju Społecznego) of the City Hall of Gdańsk,[3] the entity which coordinates the financial and organizational activities of state schools within the boundaries of Gdańsk. The figures reveal the number of young people who are not Polish citizens and who most probably need additional language assistance to be fully able to participate in mainstream education carried out in Polish. As we can see in Table 1 below, there is a significant number of foreign pupils, most of whom are recent migrants from Ukraine and other Eastern countries.

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[2] To avoid terminological ambiguity, the school types mentioned pertain to *szkoły podstawowe* and *ponadpodstawowe* (Polish classification).

[3] The data presents the state of affairs for November, 10th, 2022.

Table 1 does not include children of bilingual families with Polish citizenship. It is also noticeable that the majority of foreign pupils attend primary state schools, yet their number is proportional to the number of schools at a particular level (there are more state primary schools than private primary schools). But it is worth mentioning that private schools have a more diverse clientele regarding nationalities, not only from Eastern Europe. Altogether, there are 6,825 foreign pupils in primary and secondary schools in the city of Gdańsk, which constitutes 10.2% of all pupils (66,553)[4].

Table 1. Distribution of foreign pupils in the City of Gdańsk

| Nationality | Number of pupils in each school type | | | |
| | Primary schools | | Secondary schools | |
	State schools	Private schools	State schools	Private schools
Afghan	1	0	2	0
Algerian	2	0	94	0
American (USA)	3	8	1	2
Armenian	4	1	0	0
Australian	1	2	0	0
Azerbaijani	2	0	0	0
Belarussian	769	149	0	29
Belgian	0	4	0	0
Brazilian	7	3	1	1
British	4	21	0	1
Canadian	2	0	0	0
Chinese	1	2	1	1
Croatian	2	2	0	0
Czech	3	6	2	0
Danish	0	1	0	0
Dutch	0	2	0	0
Ecuadorian	1	0	0	0
Emirati	0	1	0	0
Estonian	0	1	0	0
Filipino	3	0	0	0
French	3	4	1	0
Georgian	5	0	0	2

[4] Data from Educational Information System of November 14, 2022 (System Informacji Oświatowej).

Nationality	Number of pupils in each school type			
	Primary schools		Secondary schools	
	State schools	Private schools	State schools	Private schools
German	3	8	1	1
Greek	0	2	0	0
Hungarian	0	3	0	0
Icelandic	0	0	1	0
Indian	11	34	0	3
Indonesian	2	1	0	0
Iranian	0	0	0	1
Iraqi	3	0	0	0
Irish	1	2	0	1
Italian	0	3	0	2
Kazakh	2	2	3	0
Kenyan	0	1	0	0
Kirghiz	0	0	1	0
Latvian	1	2	0	0
Lithuanian	3	5	1	1
Mexican	1	0	1	0
Moldavian	5	0	0	0
Montenegrin	0	1	0	0
Nigerian	3	0	1	0
Norwegian	2	2	1	0
Pakistani	0	1	0	1
Romanian	25	1	0	0
Russian	74	37	24	4
Rwandan	1	0	0	0
Slovak	0	3	0	0
Slovenian	0	1	0	0
South African	0	1	0	0
South Korean	1	2	1	0
Spanish	0	0	0	1
Swedish	0	2	0	0
Swiss	0	0	0	2
Turkish	2	1	0	0
Ugandan	0	0	0	1
Ukrainian	3889	445	766	248

Nationality	Number of pupils in each school type			
	Primary schools		Secondary schools	
	State schools	Private schools	State schools	Private schools
Uruguayan	1	0	0	0
Uzbek	2	0	1	0
Vietnamese	1	1	1	0
Zimbabwean	0	5	0	1
Total for school type	4844	773	905	303
Total for Gdańsk	6825			

Source: current study.

5.2. Research objectives

Informed by ecolinguistic considerations upon language and multilingualism (e.g. van Lier 2004; García 2009; Lankiewicz 2019, 2021) and new reflections regarding the use of native languages (L1) in foreign language classes (e.g. Cook 2010), as well as critical ecological language awareness (e.g. Lankiewicz 2015) and teacher cognition and teacher attitudes (e.g. Borg 2003a, 2003b, 2006), I intend to determine whether foreign language teachers in our local context are adapting their teaching practice to the needs of the era of multilingualism or (post-multilingualism, as suggested by Li Wei 2018) or if their teaching practice is more evocative of the traditional Communicative Approach methodology, exemplifying the enduring monolingual paradigm in language teaching. In particular, the following research questions will come under scrutiny:
1. What is the general level of FL teachers' critical language awareness?
2. Do FL teachers include practices incorporating students' native language use in foreign language classes?
3. Do FL teachers make use of students' linguistic repertoires by allowing translanguaging practices (e.g. code-switching) to enhance their teaching?

5.3. Respondents

Taking into account the main objective of the study, the research respondents were teachers of foreign languages from primary schools and secondary schools in the city of Gdańsk. Details regarding their profile are considered in the analytical section below.

For further clarity in the present study, it needs to be highlighted here that Polish children start learning a compulsory foreign language in grade one of a primary school. This decision was introduced by the educational reform of the Core Programme on 23rd December 2008,[5] which took effect in the new school year 2009/2010. The main idea behind this was to enable the early start of foreign language learning. Both the ministerial recommendations of successive governments as well as parental choice resulted in the predominance of English as the main foreign language to be taught to children. Presently, according to the Ministerial Ordinance regarding the Core Programme in state schools dated 3rd April 2019,[6] the compulsory minimum of foreign language education looks as follows. At primary schools, in grades 1–3, compulsory foreign language education is 2 hours a week, which increases to 3 hours a week in grades 4 to 8. An additional foreign language is introduced in grade 7 and continues in grade 8 with two hours a week. At secondary schools, the minimal language exposure is 3 hours a week of a continuing language (the one students had previously been learning at primary schools) and 2 hours a week of a second foreign language, which does not have to be the same one as that started in primary school. The situation in the schools surveyed here has only minor fluctuations depending on the type of school (cf. the Programme 2019). The predominant first choice language is English with the second being German, Spanish, French, Russian, Italian, or Chinese (the latter only in some private schools).

5.4. Methodology

The research part of this article is based on a specifically-designed survey for practicing foreign language teachers. The preparation process of the questionnaire as a research tool was informed by recommendations suggested by Dörnyei (2003) and Brown (2001).

The uneven concentration of foreign students in schools (not depicted in Table 1, but in the Microsoft Excel file delivered by the City Hall) dictated my research endeavors by requiring me to visit those with the largest number of foreign youngsters (four primary and four secondary schools), taking along

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[5] Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 23 grudnia 2008 r. w sprawie podstawy programowej wychowania przedszkolnego oraz kształcenia ogólnego w poszczególnych typach szkół, https://isap.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=wdu20090040017.

[6] Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 3 kwietnia 2019 r. w sprawie ramowych planów nauczania dla publicznych szkół, https://sip.lex.pl/akty-prawne/dzu-dziennik-ustaw/ramowe-plany-nauczania-dla-publicznych-szkol-18837121.

a paper version of the questionnaire as a means to secure a higher rate of return. One of the assumptions in the research is that teacher cognition and classroom behavior is more influenced by the majority situation than by particular cases, if only because of lesson dynamics and lesson management.

To guarantee the representativeness of the research data, the questionnaire was prepared with the use of the online application *Google Forms* and the link to it with a covering letter was distributed to various schools, whose addresses were included in the document supplied by the City Hall of Gdańsk. In the course of research, due to the low rate of return of the online questionnaire, I also decided to send the link to other personal contacts, counting on a snowball effect. If some of them reached beyond the City of Gdansk, the data should not distort the general findings since, in my opinion, teacher cognition is very much universal in any one country. As mentioned before, the rate of return of the online questionnaire was rather low in comparison to conducting the survey in person in 8 schools. The ratio is 48 personally administered questionnaires to 37 responses obtained via Google Forms (85 in total).

5.5. Data analysis

The data obtained in the study will be analyzed based on the research questions. However, I will start by presenting the profile of the sample teachers surveyed, since the initial items on the questionnaire were aimed to elicit information regarding the respondents' personal and professional profiles (items 1–8).

The respondents were mostly teachers of English as a second language (45%). The rest of the respondents taught German (19%), Russian (10%), Spanish (10%), French (8%), Italian (6%) and Chinese (2%). Some of them indicated that they were teaching two foreign languages (19%). In accordance with the research target group, they confirmed they were teaching at primary schools (48%) and secondary schools (52%) with some teaching at other levels, including the tertiary one (19%). The duration of their teaching careers ranges from 3 to 26 years, for which the statistical dominant is 15 and 20. Thereby, most of the respondents are experienced professionals. For my further considerations, the data on the maximum number of foreign students in a single classroom is similarly of interest. The amounts are between 1 and 15, with the statistical dominant being 6 students per class, who are mainly Ukrainian and Belarusian. The majority of them cannot communicate fluently in Polish (79.2 %).

I shall now address the three research questions which have guided the research reported here.

1. *What is the level of teachers' critical language awareness?*

By teachers' critical language awareness (CLA), I understand such an approach to refer to the target foreign language and its learning that takes into account reflections derived from the ecolinguistic coexistence of languages and a heteroglossic approach to multilingualism, along with the activation of the translanguaging instinct (cf. Lankiewicz 2015, 2019, 2021), and the Dynamic Model of Multilingualism offered by Herdina and Jessner (2002) as well as empirical and theoretical reflection pertaining to the role of a native language in language learning with reference to translation or mediation. This is the driving concept that has driven the formulation of the survey questions.

Table 2. CLA as measured by the valuing statements related to the process of foreign language teaching

Statements	Cronbach Alpha	Distribution of answers (percentage)				
		1	2	3	4	5
a)	.72	5.3	15.8	10.5	36.8	31.6
b)	.47	7.1	4.7	25	47.4	15.8
c)	.58	14.8	16.8	15.8	21.1	31.6
d)	.21	44.4	25.3	5.3	19.1	5.9
e)	.04	57.9	21.1	11.7	5.3	4.1
f)	.54	10.5	5.3	15.8	52.6	15.8
g)	.44	15.8	10.5	0	15.8	63.2
h)	.67	10.5	5.3	15.8	31.6	36.8
i)	.63	10.5	15.8	5.9	31.6	36.2
j)	.35	15.8	15.8	21.1	15.8	31.6
Total	.46	19.3	13.6	12.7	27.7	27.3

Source: current study.

Answers to Question 9 may be indicative of the teachers' CLA level. The statements were created in such a way that the lower the rating figure, the higher the CLA (see Table 2). However, I did not take into account the fact that teachers' personal beliefs may be in conflict with the classroom reality and hence the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of internal consistency within the 'test' for some statements is rather low.

The table above (Table 2) shows rather low or moderate CLA in my respondents, a fact highlighted by the high frequency of 4 and 5 ratings for some statements, which would not be recommended by contemporary reflections on multilingualism. Even if the conclusions need to be drawn with caution, since

teachers may be guided by classroom practicalities and educational feasibility against their own beliefs (see items 9d and 9e in Table 2), the general hypothesis that teachers will be informed by their own educational experience in language teaching seems to be confirmed. The vast majority of their ratings corroborates the dominance of the communicative monolingual paradigm. Teachers disclose a rather low level of CLA, which is comparable with my other studies (Lankiewicz 2013).

2. *Do FL teachers include practices incorporating students' native language use in foreign language classes?*

As to the use of students' mother tongues (L1) in the classroom, it is most frequently Polish, which is occasionally allowed in the foreign language classroom. Teachers' open-ended answers suggest that they prefer to keep the class going in the target language. The situations in which Polish students use or are allowed to use their native language (items 10 and 11) are not perceived as linguistic capital to draw upon. For example, only a small number of teachers mention the use of translation activities. In the majority of cases, the use of Polish is perceived as a compensation strategy during conversation breakdowns or a conversational short-cut to communicate important organizational issues. Unfortunately, this may have a backwash effect that important information is communicated in the native language, while the foreign language is used for trivial things. One instance of the use of Polish is grammar-related clarifications. Teachers themselves claim to switch codes when explaining grammar (question 13) to explain or facilitate rules.

3. *Do teachers make use of students' linguistic repertoires by allowing translanguaging practices (e.g. code-switching) to enhance their teaching?*

Teachers do seem to recognize that some foreign students have problems coping in foreign language (FL) classes (question 14). Neither their foreign language skills nor their Polish, is good enough to understand the teacher's instructions. Yet, the way of dealing with this problem (question 15 and 16) is very much traditionally monolingual in nature, such as paraphrasing, reformulation or eventually code-switching to Polish. Not many teachers mention the technique of looking for parallel constructions across languages, cross-linguistic mediation during speaking activities, or occasional use of students' native languages in presenting cultural differences and students' fields of interest. Some teachers state plainly that they do not know how they could use foreign students' linguistic repertoires in the foreign language classroom. Others, simply, try to see through the intention of the questionnaire and, assuming that must not be a good practice not to make use of them, they excuse themselves by not having

enough time for these practices, despite the fact that quite a large number of students are multilingual, and able to understand messages in a range of European languages (see item 2).

In the teachers' responses, there is no mention of the use of students' natural translingual practices for language learning purposes, although they admit that students use strange grammar forms, calques from native languages, and apply intercomprehension or frequent code-switching. They perceive all these instances as disturbing and unwelcome. Quenching natural linguistic processes, foreign language teachers assume the vision of their profession as skill-developers rather than transformative intellectuals (Kumaravadivelu 2012; Lankiewicz 2015), targeting social justice and meeting the needs and expectations of the multilingual era.

5.6. Findings

Even if the respondents in the present study seem to exhibit a rather monolingual mindset in foreign language teaching, typical of the Communicative Approach from the late 80s. (allowing for the fact it became popular in Poland with a delay), they are aware of the fact that their teaching reality and recent social changes require a more flexible approach to the language learning classroom. Yet, only few of them are going beyond their own educational experience and adapting to the new situation. There are those, for example, who appear to see a place for students' native languages in a foreign language class, which can be used, e.g. while establishing the classroom code of conduct, or when making sure that students understand texts or apply grammatical items in a conscious way. Significantly, some teachers have highlighted their return to including translation activities in the language classroom. Yet, they are not very forthcoming about their actual use. Some respondents associate them only with online machine translation or the use of personal translator devices.

Promisingly, some respondents report the use of parallel information in three or four languages in student projects. It is easy to see the benefits of such an approach. This is to guarantee better understanding, and enhance language learning opportunities in many languages simultaneously by making lexical and grammatical comparisons. By presenting their interests to others in their native language, parallel to the foreign language, students are able to accentuate their own cultural identity. The text in a native language also guards against the effect of being taken for intellectually incapacitated learners due to their linguistic inefficiency.

6. CONCLUSION

Being aware of the limitations of my study and the need for careful generalizations, I am sure that at least one implication seems to be grounded in the data obtained in the study. Namely, this is the need to raise teachers' CLA regarding the heteroglossic perception of multilingualism. Teachers' beliefs are either shaped by their own educational experience, informed by the previously domonant Communicative Approach or dictated by classroom practicalities. It is easier to be guided by a monolingual vision of language as a separate entity than open up to the relative world of linguistic hybridity, even if this is where all multilinguals belong.

This, in turn, may suggest the need for teacher training sessions which would offer practical methodological solutions to how to cross language borders in foreign language teaching and make use of the linguistic repertoires of students to enhance language learning processes and educate them for the reality of the 21st century.

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APPENDIX

The questionnaire (originally delivered in Polish)

The following questionnaire is anonymous and pertains to your beliefs as a foreign language teacher regarding the use of the students' mother tongues during foreign language classes. Remember, there are no good or bad answers to this questionnaire, so be honest and provide information according to your personal beliefs and your classroom practices. The data obtained will be analyzed in an academic publication.

1. Which language(s) do you teach? _____
2. How long have you been teaching foreign languages? _____
3. In which languages do you understand basic information? _____
4. What is your mother tongue?   _____
5. At which level do you teach:
   a) primary school   b) secondary school   c) university   d) other schools
   (**You can mark more than one answer!)**
6. What is the highest number of foreign students in one classroom? _____
7. Does it happen that foreign students do not speak fluent Polish? YES/ NO
8. What are your foreign students' nationalities? _____
9. How much do you agree with the following statements
   (1 meaning *I absolutely disagree*, 5 meaning *I absolutely agree):* **Circle!**
   a. The teacher should avoid the use of students' mother tongues in foreign language classes.
      1 2 3 4 5
   b. Students **should not** be allowed to respond occasionally in their mother tongue.
      1 2 3 4 5
   c. Homework should also be given in a foreign language since it makes students more attentive and increases communication opportunities in that foreign language.
      1 2 3 4 5
   d. If the teacher occasionally uses the students' mother tongues, they are not consistent as a teacher.
      1 2 3 4 5
   e. If the student does not respond in the target language (the language of the lesson), the teacher should pretend not to understand.
      1 2 3 4 5
   f. The job of the teacher is to discourage foreign accents as far as possible.
      1 2 3 4 5
   g. Creating neologisms in a foreign language or playing with language is a waste of time.
      1 2 3 4 5
   h. The teacher should discourage students from making language calques in their native language or other languages they know at all costs.
      1 2 3 4 5

    i. Teachers should not make the use of students' linguistic diversity while teaching a foreign language.
       1 2 3 4 5

    j. Keeping to a foreign language in the classroom should be the target of the teacher
       1 2 3 4 5

10. If your Polish students use their native language during classes, what are the situations and the reasons for this?

    ....

11. Are there any situations in which Polish students can use their native language in foreign language classes?

    ....

12. Are your foreign students allowed to use their native language during foreign language classes? If yes, in which circumstances? If no, why not?

    ....

13. Do you yourself consistently use a foreign language in the classroom? Why yes? Why not?

    ....

14. What are the most frequent problems your migrant learners face during foreign language classes?

    ....

15. How do you deal with the moments when your foreign students do not understand what you are saying or they cannot express themselves in a foreign language?

    ....

16. Do you use students' linguistic repertoires while teaching a foreign language? If yes, how? If no, why not?

    ....

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Nauczyciel języka jako osoba wspierająca ekosystem językowy wśród uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji: przekonania i praktyki

ABSTRAKT. Celem artykułu jest analiza postaw nauczycieli języków obcych wobec języków ojczystych lub języków odziedziczonych uczniów, kiedy uczniowie migrujący do Gdańska w Polsce wykorzystują je jako strategię kompensacyjną w formalnej nauce języka. Przeprowadzając badanie sondażowe, autor podejmie próbę zgłębienia przekonań nauczycieli języków obcych dotyczących postrzegania współistnienia i używania innych języków (w tym polskiego) w głównym nurcie edukacji FL oraz próbę zestawienia dobrych praktyk w tym zakresie zgłaszanych przez nauczycieli biorących udział w badaniu. Odwołując się do swoich wcześniejszych badań (Lankiewicz 2013, 2015, 2019, 2020, 2021), autor stawia hipotezę, że nauczyciele języków obcych przejawiający wyższy poziom krytycznej świadomości językowej będą bardziej skłonni do czerpania z repertuaru językowego uczniów w procesach edukacyjnych, podczas gdy inni będą tłumić wszelkie formy interkompetencji, *code-switching* czy *language meshing*.

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Approaches to the increasing linguistic diversity in Greek and Polish classrooms: Different contexts with similar problems

ABSTRACT. The paper discusses key educational issues related to the processes of decision-making and continuous teacher development at the level of the national (educational) authorities in Greece and Poland, regarding the urgency of the needs arising from the intensifying migration in the EU over the last two decades, and in view of the research conducted within the MaMLiSE project. The paper begins by reporting the official decisions and policies which laid the grounds for tackling the considerable linguistic variety that now characterises the school populations in each country, caused by the phenomenon of migration, and with refugee flows included. In addition, country-specific methods and resources used to produce educational materials for pupils from a migration background are presented. Finally, the available educational materials and their suitability to the specificity of each country's current educational conditions are discussed. The concluding remarks are that a strong need is currently emerging for 1) nominating key-points in the pre- and in-service training of teachers with regard to multilingual classroom management, intercultural awareness and language sensitive subject teaching, 2) extrapolating common features necessary for the production of educational material (e.g. adaptability to new conditions, ease and flexibility of use in class, allowing translanguaging practices), and 3) negotiating shared educational principles (e.g. assessment framework, constructive use of language heritages at schools).

KEYWORDS: multilingual learners in Poland, multilingual learners in Greece, Greek as a second language, Polish as a second language, language of schooling, supplementary materials for multilingual learners.

1. INTRODUCTION

Migration flows to European countries are neither a new, nor a temporary phenomenon. In fact, they have intensified in recent years, due to increased refugee movements, as a result of which almost the whole of Europe is affected at a political, socio-economic, cultural and linguistic level. Focusing on the field of education, more and more pupils and students with migrant and/or refugee backgrounds are enrolling in EU schools, causing an increase in the number of classes which are linguistically and culturally heterogeneous (Koehler & Schneider 2019). Consequently, more often now, teachers find one or more learners who constitute a linguistic minority in their classrooms, often with less proficiency in the language of schooling, which may result in their lower than expected performance at school (EU Commission 2016; Hippe & Jakubowski 2018).

In this multicultural and multilinguistic landscape, each EU member, due to its unique historical, geographical and socio-economic conditions, is affected in a different way by the timing, intensity, frequency and profile of the new population flows. To illustrate, Greece, which has hosted economic migrants and repatriates from the Greek diaspora since the 1980s, has gradually developed a legislative, administrative, organizational and educational framework for enabling non- or less-proficient Greek speaking pupils and students to function successfully at school. However, the sudden arrival of over a million refugees and asylum seekers predominantly from Asia (e.g. Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq) in 2015–2016 resulted in an urgent need to expand the existing framework, to establish additional entities and structures and to redefine the whole educational process. In comparison, Poland, being a monolingual country for decades, has faced the challenges of multilingual societies, especially in the area of education, only very recently and under particularly stressful circumstances. The number of economic migrants settling in Poland has been steadily increasing for the last seven years, and some relevant legislative, administrative, and educational solutions have been developed and implemented, e.g. laws, ministerial ordinances, formal/informal educational policies. However, it was only when the Russian invasion in Ukraine started, with the subsequent influx of 3.37 million Ukrainian refugees into the country, that the scope of necessary adjustments became instantly and vividly visible. The share of non-Polish pupils and students in many classrooms changed practically overnight, and by September 2022 around 400,000 Ukrainian students were enrolled in Polish schools.

In this context, and motivated by the research conducted within the MaMLiSE Project (Majority and Minority Languages in School Environment, webpage: https://mamlise.home.amu.edu.pl), this article discusses the preparedness of the educational authorities and educational systems in Greece and Poland to

deal with the needs arising from intensifying migration and multilingualism in schools. In what follows, we present approaches to the increasing linguistic diversity in Greek and Polish classrooms, focusing, in particular, on selected contexts and problems in both countries. Firstly, the official decisions and policies which laid the grounds for Greek and Polish education system to tackle multilingual changes in the school environment are briefly discussed. Then the authors turn to the methods and resources used to produce educational material for pupils and students with a migration background in both countries. Finally, the authors list educational materials and their suitability to the specificity of each country's current educational conditions. The paper finishes with recommendations on producing educational materials for these learners.

2. APPROACHES TO THE INCREASING LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY IN GREEK SCHOOLS

Greece has a population of about 10 million people and, although it has always hosted refugees and migrants from Asia, Europe, and Africa, since the 1980s it has experienced gradually increasing migration flows. It is particularly exposed to international migration flows, mainly due to its geographical location and its strong connection with the Greek Diaspora.

Already at the end of the 1980s, there were significant quantitative and qualitative changes in the Greek student population. Initially, repatriated Greek families arrived from the EU and the USA, then flows of economic migrants from the Balkans and the former Soviet Union took place, and finally, over the last ten years or so, diverse movements of economic migrants, refugees, and asylum seekers from Afghanistan, Syria, Iraq, Somalia, Pakistan, Algeria, and other countries came. To illustrate the most recent changes, in 2011, permanently and legally settled economic migrants constituted approximately 8.34% of the total population in the country (Karanikola & Pitsou 2015: 130; National Statistics Office 2011a: 11). In addition, 12% of the population in primary education were pupils for whom Greek was not a family language (National Statistics Office 2011b: Table 01 and 02). However, during the humanitarian crisis of 2015 and 2016, the arrival of over a million refugees and asylum seekers, alongside economic migrants from Asia and Africa, increased the official percentage of the foreign population in the country to 11.34% (World Bank 2022; Edwards 2016). Consequently, by 2018, 83,567 refugee children between five and nine years old were living in Greece (UNHCR 2019). Despite the gradual de-escalation of the refugee flows in later years (UNHCR 2020: 2), for the school years 2018–2019 and 2021–2022, the Greek Ministry of Education reported 29,284 enrolments

of refugee children into the structures of formal education without, however, providing sufficient data on their family's history of migration.

Over the past three decades, the country's education system has been called upon to manage – through legislation, administrative acts, and redefining policies in the overall educational process – the linguistic, religious, and cultural diversity that gradually became a distinct feature of the student population in Greek schools, as discussed in more detail in the following sections.

2.1. Official documents which laid the grounds for the Greek education system to tackle linguistic changes characteristic of the school population caused by migration and refugee flows

Given that the country's migration policy primarily aims at maintaining social cohesion and is in line with the EU requirements (Ministry of the Internal Affairs 2013), the Greek state implemented policies and administrative measures for the inclusion of student groups with a multilingual, and often multicultural, background at schools. Additionally, it has gradually formed a legal framework for intercultural education and established appropriate educational bodies and structures (e.g. Refugee Education Coordination and Monitoring Department at the Ministry of Education, Migration Policy Institute [I.ME.PO.], Center for Intercultural Education at the University of Athens [Ke.Da.]).

The key political directive has it that all pupils, including children from vulnerable social groups (aged 6–18), should be able to enroll in educational structures, regardless of their family migration status (i.e. migrant/refugee/asylum seeker) or the status of their respective credentials for registration. The starting point for intercultural education in Greece was law 2413/1996, which recommended treating multilingualism and diversity in Greece not as a "matter of lack or disadvantage" but rather as a "matter of distinctness" (Damanakis 2005: 81; Tsaliki 2016). This law and its subsequent amendments (e.g. N. 4415/2016) improved the organizational framework for supporting learners with migrant backgrounds.

The implemented educational policies materialized as 26 Intercultural Schools (ICSs), located across the entire country. ICs are subject to an operating framework (Law 2413/1996) aiming at creating an equal balance in terms of the number of Greek pupils and students from different national, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds. While they follow the curricula of formal public education, they also allow flexibility in meeting the diverse educational needs of their students. Furthermore, ICSs are staffed by teachers qualified in intercultural or bilingual education.

Reception Classes (RCs, Gazette 1105/B /4.11.1980) constitute another educational institution for the social and learning inclusion of students from socially vulnerable groups. RCs are morning classes with fast-track Greek language programs and flexible curricula operating in parallel with the regular school program as supportive measures, and aim to improve the learning performance mainly of pupils from migration backgrounds. Until 2010, an RC could operate if the school was located in a geographical Educational Priority Zone (EPZ). Starting in 2016, every primary education school could operate an RC–EPZ, due to the arrival of a large number of refugee students with a first language other than Greek. The RC– EPZ program is organized in two cycles (RC I and RC II). Students with minimal or no knowledge of the Greek language study for one or two years at RC I. The program includes intensive learning of Greek and students attend Art, Physical Education, Music, and modern language lessons with students in the mainstream education, i.e. those whose first tongue is Greek. Students with a moderate level of Greek, study at RC II, and are supported in all other subjects at the same time.

The refugee crisis in 2015–2016 led to the establishment of Refugee Education Reception Structures (DYEPs) (Law 4415/2016, §38), as the first point of entry to the Greek education system for children with a refugee/asylum seeker status. These are afternoon classes in mainstream schools or weekly training programs of 20 hours, which involve an intensive course in Greek alongside English, Mathematics, IT, Physical Education, and Arts. After attending a DYEP for a maximum of two years, the pupils can enroll in an RC, after taking a language assessment test. The government intends DYEPs to be staffed with teachers certified in intercultural education, as well as in teaching Greek as a second/foreign language. Knowledge of first languages of the refugee population was also set as a priority qualification. However, since it was often the case that teachers in DYEPs would change yearly, these qualifications were rarely fully met.

The general supervision and monitoring of the educational work in DYEPs is undertaken by the Refugee Education Coordinators (REC). In the 2021–2022 school year, 87 teachers were appointed as RECs. Each year, the list of DYEPs is established by the Ministry of Education depending on the geographical distribution of refugees and the needs of the pupils enrolled. There is also provision for the operation of kindergarten DYEPs in Refugee Reception Facilities. In the school year of 2020–2021, 159 school units operated with afternoon classes within DYEPs (Gazette 3605/B/ 29-8-2020).

Regarding the language of schooling, the Greek educational system is officially monolingual. However, it is common for public school classrooms to be characterized by linguistic and cultural diversity, a phenomenon that is intensifying as the relocation of Refugee and Migrant Reception Centers – from the Aegean islands

to inland areas – continues. There are also a few schools that offer bilingual programs. They belong to the private sector and are located mostly in Athens. They operate with the relevant national curricula, e.g. the Polish School, the Armenian School. (Triandafyllidou & Gropas 2006; Nicolaou 2010). The schools of the Muslim minority in Thrace, which are public, constitute an exception to the above.

Furthermore, educational strategies for the support of learners from migrant backgrounds have attracted EU funds[1] enabling the implementation of relevant acts in nationwide school networks. Their beneficiaries were children from the Greek Diaspora or of a non-Greek origin (2003–2014), pupils from the Muslim and Roma communities (1997 until present), refugees and vulnerable social groups in primary education (2016 until present). The aforementioned acts facilitated, among others, the development of curricula with an interdisciplinary approach to knowledge, as well as the implementation of support actions for teachers in multicultural classes along with the production of relevant teaching materials.

With regard to policies regulating the maintenance of non-Greek learners' first languages, there exist some institutionalized practices, but their potential has been weakened due to the laxity of the local administrative authorities. An isolated case is the collaboration of three Greek universities that developed educational interventions aiming at reinforcing the first language of students from different origins (Aristotle University of Thessaloniki 2013).

Despite the policy initiatives reported above, challenges that teachers and students face remain the same. One of them is how to successfully enable not only the intensive development of Greek as the language of everyday linguistic interactions (BICS) in DYEPs and RCs but also how to stimulate the acquisition of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) for subject learning in mainstream classes.

The following section discusses the political and educational conditions for designing and developing educational material to support multilingual practices among school population in Greece.

2.2. Methods and resources used to produce educational materials for learners with migration backgrounds

The methods selected and resources invested in the production of educational and teaching materials have been directly dependent upon the profile and the extent of the migration flows in Greece. In the early 1990s, children with migration

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[1] There are also some isolated measures implemented by NGOs, which lie outside the thematic scope of this paper.

backgrounds and from repatriated Greek families, mainly from the Balkans and the former USSR, added to the linguistic and cultural diversity present in schools. Initially, the educational materials that had been produced for the Greek Diaspora classes were utilized for the teaching of Greek as a second language. Subsequently, since educational policies began to incorporate aspects of intercultural education, scientific bodies, research institutes, and administrative structures were established to carry out research and support the newly arrived student population, for example, by means of intervention plans and didactic materials. A substantial share of the materials produced at that time were bilingual, including student textbooks, supplementary student books, exercise guides for non-language subjects (e.g. biology, chemistry, geography), dictionaries (Greek-Albanian, Greek--Russian). Additionally, the syllabus for teaching Greek as a second language was adapted in order to address the needs of pupils and students with little or no knowledge of Greek, instead of those characteristic of Greek children living abroad.

At the same time, accredited bodies and councils extended their support to teachers, offering supervisory and training materials. For example, the Center for Intercultural Education (Ke.Da.) at the University of Athens, within the framework of a nationwide program co-financed by the Ministry of Education and the EU, produced didactic materials and conducted advisory meetings and seminars to assist teachers who did not know Russian or Albanian, despite the fact that they taught in classes comprising students for whom one of these was the first language. Relying on the premise that comprehension and learning strategies from the first language do not work effectively in the acquisition of a second language (Ke.Da. 2003), the materials from Ke.Da. refer to the basic grammar features of the Albanian and Russian languages. They also list tasks which may cause difficulties for learners and teachers. For example, the definite article in the Greek language is a separate word, while in Albanian it is integrated into the noun form, and does not exist in Russian. Furthermore, some words of Greek origin appear in the other two languages with the same or different meaning, e.g. *syntagma* (the word in Greek for Eng. constitution) in Russian is used as a synonym of *Конституция* (Rus. *konstitutsiya*, Eng. constitution) but in Albanian *sintagmë* is a descriptive grammar term for a wide combination of words.

Regarding the effort to increase content availability and language integrated learning in the RCs, picture dictionaries (Ke.Da. 2007) were updated, and a diagnostic tool for certifying learners' proficiency in the Greek language was released by the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, thus enabling students to be adequately assigned to RC levels. The multilingual characteristic of schools also enforced the update of higher education syllabi and curricula. Consequently, mainly in the pedagogical faculties of universities, courses on the teaching of multilingual classes and other related activities were included.

Starting in 2015, the large influx of refugees/asylum seekers increased the need for appropriate educational strategies and teaching methodologies, and supporting materials oriented to the new school conditions: with almost 30 first languages represented by the learner population and a significant number of children without any school experience. The newly implemented measures intend to modernise the content and language integrated learning and apply principles of language sensitive teaching. For example, in 2017 the Institute of Educational Policy (IEP), in collaboration with the EU, designed new open curricula both for DYEPs and for the teaching of the Greek language in RCs in Primary and Secondary Education. In connection with these efforts, the Accelerated Learning Program (University of Thessaly 2020) was set up as a learning framework, compatible with existing curricula, accompanied by corresponding educational materials for students, guides for teachers, and diagnostic tests to evaluate/assess knowledge and skills in Biology, History, Social Science, Mathematics, Physics, and Chemistry. During the same period, the IEP produced training materials and implemented in-service training schemes for teachers in classes containing refugee pupils/students. *The Guide* (IEP 2019) with "Suggestions for teaching language and science to refugee students" highlights the differences in teaching methodology between refugees/asylum seekers and students with a migrant background.

The principles and guidelines for the production and use of didactic materials, produced by the aforementioned bodies, seem to address several aspects of teaching in multilingual classrooms relevant for Greece, as indicated in the following table (Table 1).

Table 1. Principles of teaching in multilingual classrooms in Greece

Methods	Open and flexible curriculum combined with an interdisciplinary approach may be more effective in linguistically diverse classrooms. In counseling courses, teachers of classes comprising refugee and migrant children are trained to prepare adequate teaching materials, taking into account the official curriculum of the subject taught, available supporting materials and pupils' needs. For language sensitive teaching and learning in classes including refugee and migrant students, teachers are encouraged to: – ask students to formulate full sentences (e.g. in Mathematics they should answer not only with the final result of an arithmetic operation) and then provide feedback both on the linguistic formulation of the answer and on its content, – use Total Physical Response Storytelling (TPRS), i.e. language and body coordination with movements that accompany the vocabulary and act as memory aids, – rephrase the instructions or rubrics for exercises in simpler words, prepare summaries and provide a list of vocabulary used in a specific lesson, repeat the glossary of the subject taught in each lesson, and avoid the use of unnecessary formal/teaching jargon.

Time	Students are likely to need considerable accommodation time: – in mathematics, physics or chemistry. These subjects feature numbers and symbols which can be unfamiliar to some students. For example, the full stop is not used as a mathematical symbol by learners from Arabic countries. – in writing, because, e.g. Arabic-speaking learners are not used to writing from right to left, – to be able to copy from the blackboard quickly, – to adapt to the learning process, which could be facilitated by the redistribution of teaching time (reduction of teacher talk, increase in interaction time among classmates).
Supplementary material	It is appropriate for teachers to: – use multimedia and multilingual texts, maps, colours, underlining, realia, etc. – accept non-verbal communication or the presence of a parent in the classroom if necessary.

Source: Materials by IEP, Ke.Da., ALP.

2.3. Available educational materials and their suitability to the specificity of the current educational conditions in Greece

This section presents selected didactic and supplementary materials that have been gradually produced over the last 20 years to support the work of teachers in classes including learners with migrant backgrounds. As shown in the following table (Table 2), there is a plethora of material available for teaching Greek as a second language, accompanied by guidelines and methodological suggestions. However, this material is limited and insufficient, and does not always follow the principles of language sensitive (subject) teaching.

Table 2. Selected educational materials available for preparatory and mainstream classes in Greek schools

Acts/Projects/Bodies	Selected available materials
Institute of Educational Policy (IEP, a body supervised by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs) http://iep.edu.gr/el/component/k2/content/50-ekpaidefsi-prosfygon	The IEP website offers open and free access to material for the training of refugee students in DYEP (2017–2019). It contains: – curricula for Language, Physical Education, Art, Mathematics, and IT; – e-books for students, multilingual dictionaries (in five different languages), supplementary material for managing multilingual classrooms; – teachers' guide titled *Suggestions for language teaching and science in the education of refugee children* (2019). – http://iep.edu.gr/images/IEP/EPISTIMONIKI_YPIRESIA/Epist_Monades/A_Kyklos/Diapolitismiki/2019/04_10_2019/odigos_protaseis_glossa_fe.pdf IEP also set up the "Intercultural education" Platform. It enables looking for available titles or material archives from 2007 onwards, with filters such as the school subject, the education level and students' background falling into one of the following categories: Roma, Muslim, foreigners and repatriates. http://iep.edu.gr/diapolitismiki/

Acts/Projects/Bodies	Selected available materials
Intercultural Education Center (Ke. Da._National and Kapodistrian University of Athens) https://www.keda.uoa.gr/epam/ed_material.html	The available material, created within the framework of the National Operational Act: "Education of foreigners and returning students" (2003–2008), falls into the following two main categories: A. Books for RCs I and II and mainstream classes in: – Greek as a second/foreign language, with texts of graded difficulty and comprehension activities for different levels of linguistic proficiency, glossaries in three languages, and supplementary material for primary education; – Greek grammar, with visual explanations and illustrated exercises; – Natural Sciences and Languages: Electricity, Nutrition, Plants. The books are designed following the principles of CLIL teaching; – Biology as a supplementary material for Albanian and Russian-speaking secondary school students, with a bilingual glossary (without language exercises); – Guide for teachers on problems of Albanian/Russian speakers who learn Greek (2003). https://www.keda.uoa.gr/epam/el_material_presentation.html https://www.keda.uoa.gr/epam/high_material_presentation.html B. Materials for kindergarten teachers: books, texts about teaching methodology, designs, and posters on intercultural topics (e.g. refugee status, technology, theater, Olympic games). https://www.keda.uoa.gr/epam/kinder_material_presentation.html
Program "Diapolis": Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, National Operational Act: "Education of foreigners and repatriate students" (2010–2014) http://www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php/epimorfotiko-yliko	It is a platform supporting the whole school community. It contains: – an extensive collection of educational, pedagogical, training and supplementary materials (developed 2003–2009) for primary and secondary education *Εκπαιδευτικό υλικό (auth.gr)*, suitable for RCs and mainstream classes http://www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php/2013-10-17-09-00-34; – research findings/reports from 2009 onwards, ebooks and interactive material for teaching languages to selected non-Greek speakers (Albanian, Russian) http://www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php/2013-10-17-09-02-51. – theoretical papers about intercultural education, teaching methodologies, and applications (cross-curriculum activities, good practices, guidelines for teaching sciences, articles, conference proceedings, etc.) http://www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php/ekpaideutiko-yliko
Accelerated Learning Program (ALP) **(**2020) (University of Thessaly, UNICEF, IEP) https://alp.teach4integration.gr/	ALP is a learning framework, compatible with existing curricula, translated into corresponding educational materials for learners. It also offers guides for teachers, glossaries in eight languages and diagnostic tests to assess knowledge and skills in Biology, History, Social Sciences, Mathematics, Physics, and Chemistry; https://alp.teach4integration.gr/en/home_en/; The educational materials present the basic knowledge taught in the first three years of secondary education, in a form suitable to be taught during just one school year. This material supports students in keeping up with other students of their age.
Program "Keys and anti-keys" National Operational Act: "Education of Muslim Children" (2002–2004) www.kleidiakaiantikleidia.net	It is a repository of texts in open and free access. It can be used to raise awareness and inform teachers through theoretical/scientific approaches regarding teaching methodologies, the socio-cultural context of education and the issue of "Identities and otherness". These texts have been authored by teachers of all educational levels.

Acts/Projects/Bodies	Selected available materials
Action "Bridges" (2016) Education Policy Development Center (KANEP-GSEE_General Confederation of Greek Workers) https://www.kanep-gsee.gr/sitefiles/files/GEFYRES.pdf	It is a bilingual guide to support Arabic-speaking refugees who do not speak Greek. It contains materials on everyday topics (e.g. common expressions, instructions, thematic areas such as: travel, food, education, work and accommodation, understanding simple texts, completing a simple declaration/form, everyday expressions, and illustrated vocabulary with simple practice activities).
Centre of Intercultural and Migration Studies (E.DIA.M.ME., University of Crete) Operational Act "Greek Education Abroad" (1997–2014) http://www.edi-amme.edc.uoc.gr/diaspora/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=82&Itemid=485&lang=en	It offers learning materials for the Greek language, culture, and history, addressing primary and secondary non-Greek speaking students of Greek origin (migrants of 2nd/3rd generation) who live abroad. E.DIA.M.ME also created corresponding materials for in-service training of teachers. In the early 2000s, Greek teachers also used them to deal with the gradually increasing number of non-Greek learners but its suitability was limited. http://www.ediamme.edc.uoc.gr/diaspora/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=226:programmata-spoudon&catid=84:educational-material&lang=en#%CE%BC%CE%AD%CF%81%CE%BF%CF%82-%CE%B1
Solidarity Now (NGO) Project, supported by UNICEF, "Comprehensive Service Provision for the Integration and Well-Being of Refugee Children and Families" Dictionary of mathematics (2019) https://www.solidaritynow.org/en/math_dict/ https://www.solidaritynow.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Mathematical-Dictionary-FINAL.pdf	This dictionary is an open and free access source which contains general mathematics terminology and specialized vocabulary for Algebra and Geometry in Greek, English, Farsi, Urdu, and Turkish. The terminology, symbols, and mathematical types are defined and clarified through images and drawings. The dictionary – as a good practice – also attempts to include all possible contexts in which a particular term may appear in a Greek school environment.

Source: current study.

3. APPROACHES TO THE INCREASING LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY IN POLISH SCHOOLS

Having been essentially a monolingual country for decades, Poland has changed its profile in this respect in the last few years. In previous decades, emigration exceeded immigration (Eurostat 2018), but in the last six years (2016–2022), the number of economic migrants settling in Poland has been increasing. On top of that, between February and September 2022, due to the war in Ukraine, Poland admitted 3.37 million refugees from conflict zones, on top of the 850,000 Ukrainian economic migrants already living on its territory. Most of the refugees were mothers with children, the majority of whom started schooling in Poland. To show the scale of the increase in linguistic diversity, in 2009, 9,610 non-Polish students were registered in Polish schools whereas in 2019, the figure was 51,363. However, only between February and May 2022, the number of Ukrainian pupils and students rose in the largest cities by 106% (Unia Metropolii Polskich 2022). According to the Polish Ministry of Education and Science, towards the end of the school year, in June 2022, 200,000 Ukrainian pupils were being schooled in Poland. Furthermore, according to the most recent forecasts, around 400,000 Ukrainian learners are expected to continue their education in Poland throughout the school year 2022/2023, including those who were enrolled in online education provided from Ukraine (portal dla edukacji 2022).

3.1. Official documents which laid the grounds for the Polish education system to tackle linguistic changes characteristic of the school population caused by migration and refugee flows

The most comprehensive document regulating the admission and functioning of non-Polish children in Polish state schools is the Ordinance of the Minister of National Education of 23.08.2017. It establishes free access to education for all learners. As mentioned above, the outbreak of the war in Ukraine and the ensuing influx of Ukrainian refugees into Poland caused a significant increase in the number of non-Polish learners in Polish schools. To alleviate the administrative burden which it placed on schools across the country, additional legislative solutions were introduced by a series of ministerial decrees:

a) Ordinance of the Minister of Education and Science of 21.03.2022 on the organization of education, upbringing and care of children and youths who are citizens of Ukraine,

   b) amended by Ordinance of the Minister of Education and Science of 08.04.2022,
   c) and Law of 08.06.2022 amending the Law on Assistance to citizens of Ukraine in connection with the armed conflict on the territory of Ukraine and certain other laws.

The above regulations (see a consolidated text: ODN 2022) enable all learners arriving from abroad to qualify for schooling considering their age, and taking into account the opinion of their parent(s) or of an adult student expressed orally or in writing. If a learner does not speak Polish to the extent necessary to benefit from schooling and to fulfil the official curriculum requirements for a particular subject, they receive a minimum of two lessons of Polish as a second language and one additional lesson per week in the subject in which the child needs support. Subject lessons are restricted to the first year of entry to the school. In total, there is a limit of five hours per week for such additional classes. The decision to grant a particular form of assistance is made by the school principal in consultation with the school's overseeing authority. Non-Polish pupils can also get psychological and educational counselling to tackle their migration experience and to recognize their psychophysical capabilities and environmental factors affecting their everyday functioning.

In order to support teachers of linguistically diverse classes, schools have the right to employ a cultural assistant who is familiar with the first language of the non-Polish speaking pupil (Ordinance of the Minister of National Education of 23.08.2017). However, it should be noted that this position is not accorded any professional recognition. Furthermore, schools are reluctant to employ cultural assistants due to the financial costs involved for the local government. This means that cultural assistants are employed mainly by non-governmental organisations working in the field of migrant support (e.g. UNICEF) and seconded to schools. In 2020, a total of 31 cultural assistants were employed in Polish schools together with a further 53 whose role was to support the integration of children from the Roma community. The newest ordinances also introduce the possibility of employing a person who is not a state-nominated teacher, but one who has a background deemed suitable by a school principle to carry out specific (educational) tasks. There is lack of official data on the exact number of additional staff members of these types currently working in Polish schools (as of 2022). Experts in multiculturalism and multilingualism, who could support teachers in working with students with migration experience, are permanently employed in only a few organizations in Poland. In the majority of cases, such experts work for or cooperate with projects implemented by NGOs.

There are also legal provisions for preparatory classes for pupils with migration backgrounds, but such classes were not available everywhere, at least not before the war in Ukraine. In such classes, the core national curriculum is implemented alongside the learning of the Polish language (for a minimum of six hours a week). Depending on organizational factors and available personnel, the ministry recommends that the minimum weekly class time should range from 20 hours in the youngest grades (1–3), through to 23 hours in grades 4–8, and 26 hours in secondary school. Pupils can stay in preparatory classes for up to 24 months. Due to a lack of related statistics or research, we do not know how many pupils avail of this opportunity and how many preparatory classes were organized in 2021 or in 2022 when a large group of Ukrainian students joined Polish schools.

One more option available for students who are not Polish citizens is a possibility of maintaining a minority's language and culture. The embassy or consulate representing their country of origin operating on the territory of Poland or a cultural/educational association can organize the study of their native language and culture (provided at least seven students are enrolled to participate in such a form of education) on school premises. The total amount of such educational provision may not exceed five lessons per week. Unfortunately, there is no official data on the scale and success of such classes.

As in the case of many other countries, one of the key challenges that children from a migration background face is the typically examination-oriented nature of the education system. In Poland, in the last grade of primary school (i.e. 8th grade) and of high school (i.e. 12th grade), learners are required to take a nationwide leaving certificate exam which is administered by the Central Examination Board. In 2022, the eighth-grade exam was taken by 6,150 Ukrainian students and the matriculation exam by 34 students (Gazeta Wyborcza 2022). Non-Polish students can apply for permission to take the exams with specially adapted examination sheets and/or on preferential terms. For example, they can be offered extended time to write the exam, the exam papers can feature translation of the task instructions into their first language. In some modules of the exams, they can provide answers in, for example, Ukrainian and use a bilingual dictionary. However, for reasons which are unknown, not many pupils and students avail themselves of these possibilities. Equally importantly, there is a lack of any evaluation of the related examination results which could help to inform future recommendations in this area.

Directors of district examination boards can implement administrative and organizational solutions to help non-Polish exam-takers. For instance, with the approval of the Director of the Central Examination Commission, they may appoint as members of the local examination teams persons who are not formally-

nominated examiners to, among other things, assess examination papers of Ukrainian pupils and students.

The policies briefly accounted for in this section were implemented predominantly starting in 2017, with the majority of them starting in 2022. This is why it is difficult to assess their suitability to the current situation in Poland.

3.2. Methods and resources used to produce educational materials for learners with migration backgrounds

There are a few solutions which have been implemented in some schools and regions in Poland which seem to facilitate the integration process of migrant and refugee children and enable them to learn successfully. First of all, in 2019, the first curriculum for teaching Polish as a second language was developed (written with teachers in preparatory classes in mind). Furthermore, the Teacher Training Centre in Poznań (Pl. Ośrodek Doskonalenia Nauczycieli w Poznaniu/ODN) offers teachers an opportunity to be supported by a specialist in migrant learners and a methodological consultant for teachers of Polish as a second/foreign language. There is also an online cooperation network and site called "Pupils with migration experience", where teachers post their original didactic materials and where they can familiarize with resources uploaded by others (see, for example, a presentation on creating school welcome portfolios: Czerniejewska 2022). The Centre encourages schools to set up dedicated teams of teachers to react to problems which learners with migration backgrounds face. Thanks to this, schools can take a more systematic approach to supporting these pupils. For example, such teams can prepare welcome portfolios, develop internal school regulations/rules of cooperation with students and parents, or principles of assessment.

There has also been an attempt to offer training in language sensitive teaching for pre-service teachers. The Institute of Applied Linguistics at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, in cooperation with the ODN, ran an optional course titled "Language sensitive education taking into account needs of children from migration backgrounds". The course was offered in the years 2019–2021 and addressed the fact that future teachers lack preparation for delivering appropriate instruction in multilingual classes. It also enabled university students to prepare for the specificity of preparing didactic materials for linguistically heterogeneous classes. During the module, consisting of 15 meetings (30 hours), the participants familiarised with the specificity of teaching Polish as a second language in subject-oriented classes, the methodological principles of teaching selected school subjects (esp. history and biology) in general and in prepara-

tory classes, together with a workshop on drawing for teaching purposes. In the practical phase, students developed their own materials for teaching biology or history in grades 5–8 of Polish primary school on the basis of officially licensed manuals. These materials were made available to in-service teachers for pilot testing.

3.3. Available educational materials and their suitability to the specificity of the current educational conditions in Poland

In this section, we list selected materials which are available for Polish teachers who deliver instruction in classes comprising multilingual pupils and students (see Table 3).

Table 3. Selected educational materials available for preparatory and mainstream classes in Polish schools

Educational materials for preparatory and subject classes	Short descriptions of the materials
Jędryka, B.K. (2022). *Zbiór zadań z języka polskiego jako języka edukacji szkolnej dla uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji.* https://www.ore.edu.pl/2022/06/zbior-zadan-z-jezyka-polskiego-jako-jezyka-edukacji-szkolnej-dla-uczniow-z-doswiadczeniem-migracji/	A set of 16 exercises for primary schools in: Polish as a second language, History, Sciences, Geography and Biology. All tasks are accompanied by methodological comments defining the aims of the task and including suggestions for various additional activities.
Website with materials for teaching Polish as a foreign language and culture https://cupofpolish.org/darmowe-materialy-do-nauki-jezyka-polskiego-jako-obcego/?lang=pl	The materials are suitable both for non-Polish learners and teachers.
Website with materials for the development of text comprehension (output of a project: "Supporting Educational Initiatives in a Multicultural School Environment", 2021, no. MEiN/2021/DPI/1303) https://www.polija.org.pl/2022/02/02/projekty/	It offers selected literary works for lessons of Polish accompanied by graphic materials and exercises designed for better understanding of the texts' meaning.
Website with materials for teaching Polish as a foreign language: https://zpe.gov.pl/a/oddzialy-przygotowawcze/D1EzffxI8	It offers materials and links to free textbooks designed for teaching Polish as a foreign language suitable for children and teenagers, together with supplementary materials for teachers who work with preparatory classes.

Educational materials for preparatory and subject classes	Short descriptions of the materials
Website with supplementary materials for teaching Polish as a second language: http://fundacjareja.eu/polak-potrafi/	On the basis of biographical notes of 25 famous Poles, the source offers exercises, divided into all CEFR levels, devoted to developing reading (and partly listening) comprehension, simultaneously expanding learners' knowledge of the Polish language and culture.
Website hosting Integrated Education Platform: https://zpe.gov.pl/ Zintegrowana Platforma Edukacyjna (ZPE) or: https://www.gov.pl/web/edukacja-i-nauka/materialy-edukacyjne-do-wykorzystania-w-pracy-z-uczniami-z-ukrainy Example: https://ua.etutor.pl/	It offers numerous and diverse educational materials. Primary school teachers and pupils can find here more than 11,000 e-materials for teaching and learning in all subjects. Students who are proficient in Polish and study in secondary schools can access more than 15,000 e-materials for all school subjects. One of the most recent examples from this source is a course in Polish: eTutor. It focuses on developing communication skills in everyday Polish, including to help migrants find their way around on the first days in Poland and later develop a more advanced knowledge of Polish.
Website *Welcome to Poznan*: https://pcd.poznan.pl/article/118	It includes a set of 20 worksheets which can serve as supplementary materials in lessons of Polish as a second language (with focus on cultural context). They are adjusted to the needs of two age groups: pupils of grades 1–3 and 4–8.
Website *Brama Poznania* https://bramapoznania.pl/poznaniacy-i-poznanianki-poznaj-ich Karczewska, J. (2021). *Poznaniacy i poznanianki, poznaj ich! – Materiały edukacyjne do nauki języka polskiego jako drugiego*. Poznań: Poznańskie Centrum Dziedzictwa.	The package consists of seven parts, each devoted to one of seven prominent historical figures associated with Poznań, e.g. Hipolit Cegielski, Magdalena Abakanowicz, Stanisław Barańczak. The exercises proposed in each set include activities to develop listening (with audio recordings), writing as well as reading skills. The materials are designed for pupils from a migration background, interested in Polish history and planning to stay longer in Poland, attending primary schools (Grades 6–8, aged 13–14) and students of secondary schools/adults (A2+/B1 level).
Website with materials for teaching Polish as a second/foreign language: https://migrant.poznan.pl/pl/publikacje/materialy-do-nauki-jezyka-polskiego-jako-obcego/	It offers texts and exercises developing both Polish as a foreign/second language and covering topics relevant for everyday life with focus on Poznań, Topics related to human rights and anti-discrimination regulations as well as education, environment, health and living in Poznań and Poland are prepared at two proficiency levels (A1/A2 and B1/B2). Although their target groups are teenagers and adults who are new residents of Poznań and the surrounding area, they can also be useful for residents of other Polish cities.

Educational materials for preparatory and subject classes	Short descriptions of the materials
Website of the Museum of Warsaw, section *The legends of the Old Town in Warsaw*: https://muzeumwarszawy.pl/legendy-starego-miasta-warszawie-cwiczeniami-nauki-jezyka-polskiego/	It is a collection of texts and exercises (accompanied by illustrations) related to Warsaw's Old Town. The publication is primarily dedicated to foreigners learning Polish as a foreign language and their teachers. It contains a glossary in Polish, English, Russian and Chinese and a key to the exercises. It is suitable for group and individual studying.
Website with sources for Poles living abroad (Polish as a heritage language and History): https://www.orpeg.pl/bezplatne-materialy-dydaktyczne/ Bezpłatne materiały dydaktyczne – Ośrodek Rozwoju Polskiej Edukacji za Granicą (orpeg.pl)	A collection of teaching materials designed for each educational stage to help Poles living abroad learn Polish. The resources are available in the form of textbooks, e.g. *Emi i Maks w polskiej szkole. Podręcznik do nauki czytania dzieci polonijnych z Irlandii*; *Emi i Maks w podróży po Polsce. Podręcznik do nauki czytania dzieci polonijnych z Irlandii*; *Polskie Niezapominajki 1. Podręcznik do nauki języka polskiego jako odziedziczonego dla klas 1–3*; *Polskie Niezapominajki 2. Podręcznik do nauki języka polskiego jako odziedziczonego dla klas 1–3*; *Dawniej to było – Krótki przewodnik po historii Polski*. The webpage also offers films and games on two platforms: www.wlaczpolske.pl and www.zpe.gov.pl (under the tab: "Polish Education").
Website with materials for teaching Polish as a language of schooling commissioned by the Polish Ministry of National Education: http://metodajes.pl/materialy/	A collection of simplified texts, illustrations and tasks constructed on the basis of the so-called *JES-PL-method* (abbreviation in Polish for Polish as a language of schooling). It comprises materials for primary school pupils (Grades 1 to 3). Their authors declare that they can also be used to teach pupils from migration backgrounds, studying in mainstream classes and preparatory classes in the younger grades of primary school.
Website with materials for teachers of German and Polish as neighbouring languages: https://polnischliegtnahe.de/didaktische-materialien-publikationen https://www.niemieckizbliza.pl/assets//img/EBOOK_PL-DE.pdf	It is a collection of materials for continuous teaching of German and Polish in pre-primary, primary and secondary education in the federal states of Mecklenburg-Vorpommern and Brandenburg and regions in Western Poland (or other cross-border regions). There are songs, games, short stories, a language portfolio with self-assessment materials, modules for tandem work on different topics, e.g. hobbies, food, traditions, dream trips, circus, first aid, sciences. The website also offers tools for language level assessment (see Putzier et al. 2022).

Educational materials for preparatory and subject classes	Short descriptions of the materials
Materials for learning Polish as a foreign language funded by the University of Szczecin and Santander: http://e-bialek.pl/apsl/ua/jezyk-polski-jako-obcy/	It is a dossier of different educational materials, mostly for teaching Polish to Ukrainians, including full courses of Polish led in Russian or Ukrainian.

Source: current study.

4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR TEACHERS WORKING WITH LEARNERS WITH MIGRATION BACKGROUNDS

When teachers prepare educational material for learners with migration backgrounds, they need to take into account the national curriculum of their subject taught from officially licensed manuals and decide which material is absolutely necessary for such children. Secondly, and more importantly, teachers need to distinguish between the linguistic requirements which pupils and students need to meet in preparatory classes and those set for subject classes. A fact which they often neglect to take into consideration is that learning a particular subject's content encompasses mastering the formal and written style typical of a given subject domain. Therefore, learners require assistance with understanding its de-contextualised content, often featuring specialist information and vocabulary, formulated by means of complex syntax and linking adverbials.

To help learners cope effectively with language-based challenges in particular subjects (e.g. specific forms, functions and connections between them), a variety of notions and hints with regard to lesson preparation and lesson conduct can be useful for teachers both in Greece and Poland. In particular, teachers need to become aware that planning lessons for these pupils should take into account strategies enabling them learning more effectively. Teachers need to also learn how to deliver instruction in a language-sensitive manner. Language-sensitive teaching is based on the principles of inclusive and language-aware classroom, learner-centeredness, dialogic learning, emotionally-safe classroom environment, and reflective teaching (Cummins 2009; Gibbons 2009, 2015; see Baginski 2020; Szczepaniak-Kozak et al. 2023). In particular, teachers need to be aware how to tap into learners' learning potential, rather than relying on their current linguistic abilities. This can be done by means of the pedagogic strategy of scaffolding. Scaffolding is a tool offering temporary assistance to pupils, bridging the distance between what they have already learned and what they still need

to master. As Table 4 details, this teacher assistance can be of two types: 1) supporting the learner in lesson planning (called macro scaffolding[2]), and 2) supporting the learner during a partly spontaneous classroom interaction (called micro scaffolding[3]) (Gibbons 2002, 2009; Hammon & Gibbons 2005; Kniffka 2012).

Table 4. Aspects of macro and micro scaffolding relevant for teaching in multilingual classes

Macro-scaffolding: principles of lesson planning	Micro-scaffolding: principles of classroom interaction
– Clarification and inclusion of prior knowledge and learners' current language skills (e.g. relevant knowledge coming from texts read both in their first and other languages they know, attention to key words and participant structures in a language-based science problem); – Use of "rich input", i.e. linguistic input; – Adequate sequencing of tasks by dividing them into more manageable and transparent steps, e.g. designing activities that are sequenced from the most situation-embedded, or most oral-like, to the least situation-dependent, or most written-like; – Use of additional semiotic systems for "message abundancy" to support pupils' understandings of concepts or tasks and to aid their understanding of the lesson content. Provide similar information from a variety of sources and in varied modalities: prompts and cues as leading questions, hints, combination of visual, audio and tactile support by means of videos, films and the Internet, demonstration and hands-on activities, and the use of TPR (physical) movement; – Encouraging literate talk: building the bridge to written language by offering learners opportunities to use the kind of spoken language that is closer to written language and "providing them with a chance to 'rehearse' this more complete and explicit language to talk with others" (Gibbons 2009: 141);	– Slowing down the interaction between learners and teachers, thus adapting the speed of communication to learners' abilities, allowing them sufficient time to process the input they receive; – More time offered to learners for planning their spoken expressions and thinking, e.g. allowing extra time for a response can lead to more extended, more complete and better formed answers; – Variation in classroom interaction patterns; avoiding the typical interaction pattern: teacher question → learner answer → teacher feedback, and planning for more natural and authentic teacher-learners exchanges by allowing learners opportunities to respond and share content in pairs and small groups (peer feedback included); – Active listening by the teacher (e.g. prompting the student to the right answer with a clue, using "why questions" to encourage learners to reason and reflect, reacting appropriately to the spoken content produced by learners; – Recasting/rewording learners' utterances by the teacher in a more explicit way. Teachers should allow more time and turns before reformulating what a particular learner said; – Embedding a learner's utterances in larger conceptual contexts, i.e. new learning content has to be nested in out-of-school, home and in-school experiences; prior experiences should also be linked with the broader goals and concepts of the curriculum;

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[2] Pre-planned support (before any teaching processes take place) (see Gibbons 2009: 153f.).

[3] Not planned, arising in a spontaneous, ongoing talk between the teacher and learners or among learners (see Gibbons 2009: 154).

Macro-scaffolding: principles of lesson planning	Micro-scaffolding: principles of classroom interaction
– Using mediating texts (bridge texts) and artefacts structuring or facilitating the learning process and becoming an important point of reference across a unit of work (e.g. a worksheet accompanying the design of an experimental process, a reflection sheet for talking about solving a word-based science problem, a reflection sheet providing a linguistic and conceptual support for the individual reporting by students, experiments in the science unit). It is important not only to offer such supplementary materials but also to engage learners in interaction with various semiotic resources to challenge them and stimulate long-term learning by teaching them how to use such aids (e.g. Compare Paragraph 1 of the text with the first picture); – Planning activities raising learners' metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness. (e.g. drawing their attention to whole-text features of genres they write, subject-based vocabulary and sentence-level grammatical patterns relevant to a particular curriculum content, the differences between speaking and writing, key signalling words/discourse markers, complex nominal groups in the texts they read) (see Hammon & Gibbons 2005; Gibbons 2009: 154ff.; Kniffka 2012: 215ff.; Szczepaniak--Kozak et al. in press/2023).	– Making cognitive processes explicit and visible, by making learners explain the way they solved a science problem or how they think. This provides teachers with opportunities to introduce a model of new academic language by recasting what students said (Gibbons 2002: 34ff, 2009: 136ff.; Kniffka 2012: 218f.).

To provide multilingual learners with adequate support, teachers often design their own lesson plans and prepare their own/adapted teaching materials. While doing this, it is worth paying attention to the criteria for well-designed tasks. First of all, consider which functional language learners need to acquire in a given subject, e.g. in Biology, they often need to describe bodily functions/systems/organisms, whereas in History they need to describe the link between cause, event and consequence. It is also useful to include tasks which allow learners to develop language resources useful for expressing such functions. Secondly, to avoid monotony, tasks should be varied, engaging and relevant to the students, and sequenced from the easiest to most difficult, so that each task serves as a "building block" for the subsequent task. This means that teachers need to thoroughly reflect on the difficulty and length of exercises and their instructions.

This includes, for example, checking if the instructions are clear enough. It may happen that understanding a task instruction can be more challenging than doing the task itself. Where possible, it is advised to include language exercises into the general pool of exercises. For example, learners can fill in gaps with the correct form of the verbs on the basis of an inflectional pattern demonstrated in the material presented. Additionally, Gibbons (2009: 149) informs us that tasks should be cognitively demanding, containing an "information gap", requiring participation by all members and having a clear outcome. Further recommendations which are relatively universal are:

- avoid unnecessary jargon or formal style, but if some subject terminology is necessary, and usually is, stick to the core list and provide a glossary of useful terms and expressions. When selecting them, it is recommended to consider their frequency of use in the subject area and everyday language. Once the terms are introduced, it is important to revise them later on;
- develop learners' metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness by focusing, in particular, on the notions of register and genre (e.g. investigating a curriculum topic by browsing the Internet but, at the same time, analysing the language choices made by the writers of these Internet texts), drawing students' attention to the use of emotive vocabulary, rhetorical questions and the choice of visual images in the texts, as well as offering texts and exercises to compare languages;
- to make a particular word's meaning clear, use colorful illustrations, own drawings, short definitions or sentences exemplifying a word's meaning in context. Online sources available on the interactive whiteboard or on the phone can be very helpful in this regard;
- encourage regular use of newly learnt words and stage frequent revisions of the most important content;
- encourage students who still are learning a given alphabet, e.g. Ukrainian students who are used to Cyrillic script, to re-write/copy a word on the basis of a pattern provided and, at a more advanced stage, to write the word without the pattern presented on their own;
- exploit, where possible and useful, the similarity to other words, e.g. in Polish *młoteczek* (Eng. malleus) comes from *młot* (Eng. a hammer); *mostek* (Eng. breast bone) derives from *most* (Eng. bridge);
- point to homonyms or polysemous words, e.g.
  Pl.: *torebka stawowa* (Eng. a joint capsule) = *torebka* (Eng. a purse); *staw* (Eng. a joint) = *staw* (Eng. a pond);
  Gr.: βαριά (Eng. noun: big hammer) = βαριά (Eng. adj.: heavy) = βαριά (Eng. adv. loudly, heavily); τόνος (*tónos* = weight measure = mark for phonetic emphasis on syllable);

- use internationalisms, e.g.

  Pl.: *układ szkieletowy* = *szkielet* (Eng. skeleton); *stanowić* or *tworzyć* = *konstytuować* (Eng. to constitute); *wytwarzać* = *produkować* (Eng. to produce); *czynnik* = *faktor* (Eng. factor),

  Gr.: Οργανικό σύστημα = όργανα (Eng. organs, Albanian *organet*, Rus. *органы*); Καπηλειό = ταβέρνα (Eng. tavern, Rus. *Таверна*, Pl. *tawerna*, Albanian *tavernë*); Σχεδιάζω = σκιτσάρω (Eng. *to sketch*, Albanian *skica*, Rus. *эскиз*).

- draw learners' attention to the fact that challenging words are not necessarily scientific terms. They can be used both in everyday language and as scientific terms, with slight variations in their meaning. To make their meaning clear, display visual materials and/or allow cross-linguistic associations to be created. Words which can appear difficult in Polish are: *środowisko* (Eng. environment), *ciało* (Eng. body*)*, *długość* (Eng. length), *szerokość* (Eng. width), *grubość* (Eng. thickness), *wzór* (Eng. pattern), *rodzeństwo* (Eng. siblings). With reference to pronunciation, non-Polish learners have problems saying, e.g. *szwy* (Eng. sutures); *chrząstkozrost* (Eng. cartilage); *kość* (Eng. a bone); *dźwigać* (Eng. to carry). In Greek, such words can be: *αντίδραση* (Eng. reaction), *βάρος* (Eng. weight), *δύναμη* (Eng. strength, power or force), *ταχύτητα* (Eng. speed, velocity, rapidity), *πυρήνας* (Eng. core*,* centre, nucleus, kernel). Non-Greek learners often find it difficult to pronounce words derived from two independent words, such as *εκστρατεία* (*ekstratia* = Eng. campain), *εύστροφος* (*efstrofos* = Eng. nimble), or words borrowed from other languages, such as *κονστρουκτιβισμός* (*konstouktivismos* = Eng. constructivism). Additionally, because the Russian language does not contain the phonetic sound δ (Eng. th), so often δ is replaced by *d*. This may lead to misunderstandings because, for example, δίνω (⌈δ⌋ino, Eng. to give) is not equivalent to ντύνω (dino, Eng. to dress);

- draw learners' attention to false friends by providing equivalents and making a list for a given subject, e.g. the Russian word *отдыхать* is not equivalent of the similarly-sounding Polish word *oddychać* (Eng. to breathe); *отдыхать* means *odpoczywać* (Eng. *to rest*). The Greek word ντόπιο (*dópio*) means *domestic*, while the Albanian word *dopio* means *double*. The Greek word δώμα (⌈d⌋óma) means little room and it is not equivalent of the Russian word *дома* (*dóma*) which means *houses*;

- use one term/formula/quotation across all materials you create;

- help learners understand a term by means of its equivalent in everyday language. To illustrate, the term for the noun "gender" (describing classes of nouns: masculine, feminine, neutral) is in Polish *rodzaj*, and *γένος*

(*genus*) in Greek. The Polish synonym to this word in everyday Polish is *typ* (Eng. kind), whereas in everyday Greek it can mean καταγωγή (Eng. origin), *έθνος* (Eng. origin), *ταξινομική* κατάταξη (Eng. taxonomic rank) or της μητέρας το πατρικό επώνυμο (Eng. mother's paternal surname). However, despite the fact there is a value in explaining its meaning by a simpler equivalent, it is important to always put the specialist term in the main text and simpler version in brackets or in a footnote, because students need to learn appropriate terminology. In a similar vein, if chemical, mathematical or other formulas are involved, they should be used across all materials consistently and written correctly, e.g.: O_2 (Pl. *tlen*, Gr. *οξυγόνο*, Eng. oxygen), CO_2 (Pl. *dwutlenek węgla*, Gr. Διοξείδιο του *άνθρακα*, Eng. *carbon dioxide*), 19th century (Gr. XIX αιώνας, Pl. *XIX wiek*);

 – draw learners' attention to grammatical forms which are less frequent in other languages. To illustrate, in Polish, there are relatively many diminutives, which are common in language specific of subjects, e.g. *most* (Eng. bridge) – *mostek* (a bone in human skeleton, Eng. little bridge); *młot* (Eng. a hammer) – *młotek* (Eng. little hammer) – *młoteczek* (a part of the ear; Eng. a tiny little hammer). In the case of Greek, a demanding grammatical category are those adjectives that have three different genders (masculine, feminine and neuter) but use two modes of inflection, one common for the masculine and feminine, and one separate for the neuter, e.g. an adjective can take the following endings for both masculine and feminine adjectives -ης (-ής) for singular and -εις (-είς) for plural and for the neuter gender in the singular form -ες (-ές) and -η (-ή) for the plural form;

 – show a pattern of inflection for difficult words, e.g. Pl.: the noun *kręg* (Eng. vertebra) is in Polish inflected in seven cases (e.g. *kręgu, kręgowi, kręgiem*). In Greek, nouns can maintain the same number of syllables both in their singular and plural mode or increase the number of syllables when in their plural formation, which is difficult for non-Greek learners to master, e.g. *λεμόνι* – *λεμόνια* (Eng. lemon – lemons), but ψαράς – ψαράδες (Eng. fisherman – fishermen).

The above list is by no means exhaustive, and further investigation of educational approaches and strategies which could be applied to tackle multilingual diversity characteristic of (not only) Greek and Polish classrooms is clearly warranted.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The experience gained in recent decades has shown that linguistic diversity is not a temporary "problem" that requires solving; it is the new reality, which, due to its ongoing quantitative or qualitative changes, requires educational systems to implement adequate policies and measures. In support of this, the EU has recently recognized that investment in the skills, energy, and talents of learners with migration backgrounds can effectively promote social cohesion and facilitate societal development (EU Commission 2020).

Despite the differences in history, profile and context of present-day multilingualism in Greece and Poland, the core of the current challenges that their educational systems are called upon to manage is the same. Both face an increasing level of multilingualism in schools due to intensifying migration, and both have applied country-specific methods and resources to produce relevant educational materials. Furthermore, from the review of the official policies which laid the grounds for Greece's and Poland's responses to the situation, it is clear that, apart from a lack of systematic and comprehensive educational materials which could offer Greek or Polish teachers a steady support in delivering adequate instruction, there also exists a strong need to:

– nominate country-specific key-points in the pre and in-service training of teachers (esp. with regard to multilingual classroom management, language sensitive subject teaching and learner/teacher emotional wellbeing);
– extrapolate common recommendations for the production of educational materials. Such recommendations need to allow for flexible approaches as the migrant and refugee landscape will be constantly changing. They need to be adaptable, easy to use, allowing translanguaging and other supporting practices;
– negotiate educational principles (e.g. framework for the assessment of language comprehension, connection between formal and non-formal education which students with migration backgrounds receive, constructive use of home languages at schools).

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Podejścia do rosnącej różnorodności językowej w greckich i polskich szkołach: różne konteksty z podobnymi problemami

ABSTRAKT. Artykuł omawia kluczowe kwestie edukacyjne związane z procesami decyzyjnymi i doskonaleniem zawodowym nauczycieli, dotyczące krajowych organów (oświatowych) w Grecji i Polsce, w związku z pilnymi potrzebami wynikającymi z nasilającej się w ostatnich dwóch dekadach migracji w UE oraz w świetle badań prowadzonych w ramach projektu MaMLiSE. Artykuł rozpoczyna się od przedstawienia oficjalnych decyzji i polityki, tworzących podwaliny działań mających wyjść naprzeciw znacznemu zróżnicowaniu językowemu, które obecnie charakteryzuje populacje szkolne w każdym z krajów, z powodu nasilenia się migracji i uchodźctwa. Ponadto przedstawiono specyficzne dla danego kraju metody i zasoby wykorzystywane przy tworzeniu materiałów dydaktycznych dla uczniów z doświadczeniem migracji. Na koniec omówiono dostępne materiały edukacyjne i ich dostosowanie do specyfiki obecnych warunków edukacyjnych. W podsumowaniu stwierdzono, że istnieje silna potrzeba 1) wyznaczenia treści niezbędnych w kształceniu przyszłych nauczycieli i doskonaleniu tych czynnych zawodowo w odniesieniu do prowadzenia klas wielojęzycznych, świadomości międzykulturowej i nauczania przedmiotów szkolnych, biorąc pod uwagę specyfikę ich języka, 2) wyszczególnienia wspólnych cech koniecznych do produkcji materiałów edukacyjnych (np. możliwości adaptacji do nowych warunków, łatwości i elastyczności użycia w klasie, umożliwienia praktyk transjęzycznych) oraz 3) wypracowania wspólnych zasad dydaktycznych (np. ram oceniania, konstruktywnego wykorzystania języków domowych i odziedziczonych w szkołach).

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EFL teacher agency in mediating the socialisation of multilingual learners

ABSTRACT. English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers are seemingly ideally placed to mediate the successful socialisation of multilingual learners into the new school environment for two major reasons. Firstly, as they have effective command of both L1 and L2 and often have experience of living abroad, they tend to exhibit higher levels of openness to new situations, empathy and understanding of the difficulties faced by multilingual learners. Secondly, the English class can itself be a platform for mutual understanding where learners are able to develop both English communication skills and intercultural competence (cf. Hopp, Jakisch, Sturm, Becker & Thoma 2020; Krulatz, Neokleous & Dahl 2022). As English is the language of instruction, it also has the potential to maintain levels of multilingual competence among those learners who already speak English as their heritage language (Banasiak & Olpińska-Szkiełko 2021), e.g. migrant children returning from the UK/Ireland. Drawing on data from a larger project (Rokita-Jaśkow, Wolanin, Król-Gierat & Nosidlak 2022), which consisted of interviewing 23 primary school EFL teachers in various contexts, this paper analyses the possible factors that impact teacher agency in the socialisation of multilinguals. It has been found that teacher agency in that respect appears to stem from teachers' plurilingual competence and prior teaching experience. Surprisingly, personal experiences of intercultural encounters (e.g. time spent living abroad) or verbalised empathy, had little impact on teacher agency. This finding implies that even language teachers find it difficult to put themselves in the position of the multilingual learner and need specialist training in order to work with multilingual learners, which may convey an important message for educational decision-makers with reference to the formulation of future teacher education guidelines and curricula.

KEYWORDS: EFL teachers, multilingual learners, socialisation, teacher agency.

1. INTRODUCTION

For over a decade, there has been a steady increase in multilingual and migrant learners in the Polish school environment. Multilingual learners comprise children of mixed-heritage couples, of return migrant families and migrant learners, particularly from behind the eastern border, mainly Ukraine, whose number has increased dramatically since the outbreak of war in the spring of 2022. The migration processes have changed the linguistic environment of Polish schools consider-

ably, from being purely monolingual to becoming much more linguistically and culturally diverse. Since migrant learners hardly ever speak Polish, the language of school instruction and communication, EFL teachers seem to be at the forefront of migrants' integration and socialisation processes, at least in the initial stages, for two major reasons. Firstly, since EFL teachers have effective command of both L1 and L2 and often have experience of living abroad, they tend to exhibit higher levels of openness to new situations, empathy and understanding of the difficulties faced by multilingual learners. Secondly, the English class can itself be a platform for mutual understanding where all learners are able to develop both English communication skills and intercultural competence. Additionally, as English is the language of instruction, it also has the potential to maintain levels of multilingual competence among those learners who already speak English as their heritage language (Banasiak & Olpińska-Szkiełko 2021), e.g. return migrant children from the UK/Ireland. Yet, it must be recognised that these opportunities can only be developed if teachers adapt their mindset and do not look at their learners purely through the monolingual lens, i.e. not only teaching EFL to a monolithic group of Polish native speakers, but to learners of varied cultural linguistic backgrounds, for whom English may be a foreign, additional (third, fourth etc.) or even a first language (in the case of return migrants). This shift in perspective calls for new teaching approaches and the reevaluation of teaching/learning goals, which is already being pursued in many Western European language classrooms (cf. Hopp, Jakisch, Sturm, Becker & Thoma 2020; Krulatz, Neokleous & Dahl 2022). Obviously, not all teachers are prepared for this shift, as firstly, the presence of multilingual/ multicultural learners in an EFL class is still a relatively new phenomenon, and secondly, EFL teachers, just like other subject teachers, have not received any explicit guidelines, nor training, in how to work with such learners. The reason for this is the lack of an explicit migration and educational policy. Existing regulations concerning the education of migrants only concern support in mastering the language of school instruction, i.e., Polish. EFL teachers are therefore left to their own devices, in the hope that by drawing on their own plurilingualism, teaching and learning experience, they will manage to cope with the challenge of socializing multilingual learners. The goal of this paper is to identify those personal characteristics that may be conducive to fostering teacher agency in this respect.

2. TEACHER AGENCY IN SOCIALISING MULTILINGUAL LEARNERS

Teacher agency is a key factor in describing teacher identity, defined as a "teacher's competence to plan and enact educational change, direct, and regulate their actions in educational contexts" (Sang 2020: 1). This concept has been

particularly publicised in recent times as a factor empowering teachers to break free from the constraints of educational policies and to act independently, which in consequence can bring about educational change at local and macro-levels. Thus, it is also seen as related to autonomy, i.e. teachers who are reflective and capable of their own decision-making are also more likely to put their decisions into action (Cummins 2014). There is a slightly different understanding of the term in socio-cognitive and ecological approaches. In the former, agency is the "dynamic competence of individuals to act independently and to make their own actions and decisions" (Sang 2020: 1). This denotes an individual's engagement with the environment which can take place in three ways: "(1) individual, when influence is exercised directly with the aim of affecting one's circumstances or environment, (2) proxy, when, lacking direct control over one's life conditions, influence is exercised through intermediaries in possession of more power, and (3) collective agency, where 'multiagent mode' is employed and people 'achieve unity of effort for common cause within diverse self-interests and coordination of distributed subfunctions across a variety of individuals" (Bandura 2008: 92–93). In ecological approaches, agency should not be perceived as a trait or character-istic of individual teachers but as "a 'quality' of the engagement of actors with temporal-relational contexts-for-action, not a quality of the actors themselves" (Priestley, Biesta & Robinson 2015b: 3). This means that agency is manifested by individuals' interaction with the environment and their willingness to initi-ate and implement change. This perspective indicates "how humans are able to be reflexive and creative, acting counter to societal constraints" (Priestley et al. 2015b: 3), as well as how they are limited and empowered by various social constraints in their environment.

Teachers' agency implies that teachers are expected to act as "agents of change", which denotes its iterational and projective aspects (Priestley et al. 2015a). The first aspect emerges out of an interaction of individual propensities, such as skills and knowledge about teaching, beliefs in relation to goals and ef-fectiveness of teaching, values (e.g. commitment), as well as societal conditions, such as role expectations, school culture, social change, support networks etc. Clearly, iterational aspects are rooted in the past experiences of the individual as well as current engagement with various agents of the environment. The projective dimension of agency signifies that "it is interlinked to the intention to bring about a future that is different from the present and the past" (Priestley et al. 2015b: 5). Thus it signifies motivation and aspiration to reach certain short-term and long-term goals.

Clearly, in response to a novel phenomenon, such as the presence of multi-lingual/migrant learners, and in view of the lack of explicit educational policy, teacher agency in transforming educational practices to accommodate the needs

of such learners seems to be of vital importance. It seems to be shaped by teachers' beliefs in respect of multilingualism, their past experiences of working with such learners (or lack thereof), their experiences of living in multicultural/multilingual societies, their attitudes, as well as their sense of competency in working with multilinguals. In western societies, which have a long tradition of integrating learners from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, ample research evidence has been collected that shows correlations between positive teacher beliefs and attitudes towards multilinguals and their willingness to promote their well-being in class, by e.g., implementing elements of multilingual pedagogy. These in turn have been found to be related to such factors as teachers' knowledge of heritage language(s) of the learners or having a joint language (Haukås 2016), teachers' own plurilingual competence and plurilingual awareness (Gilham & Fürstenau 2020; Otwinowska 2017), experience in teaching migrants, a teaching area (subject), prior training in linguistically responsive teaching (Alisaari, Heikkola, Commins & Acquah 2019), prior training in multilingual pedagogy (Gorter & Arocena 2020). Apart from training and experience, certain personality characteristics seem also to play a role, such as empathising with the learner (Dewaele & Wei 2012) and being able to position oneself in the situation of the learner in order to understand his/her needs and difficulties (Calafato 2021). Furthermore, intercultural competence and intercultural sensitivity (Benett 1993) have been identified as competences that allow teachers to place themselves better in the position of the multilingual learner, and these have often been developed through living abroad (Wolff & Borzikowsky 2018).

Translanguaging in the EFL classroom
    The presence of multilingual learners in an EFL class raises the question of which languages to allow in the classroom. Should only English be allowed, so as not to create confusion among different language users and in order to adhere to one (target) language policy, or should learners' languages be allowed and translanguaging be used as a strategy to promote participation and the involvement of all learners in the class? The answers to these questions are not simple as monolingual ideologies fostering target language use seem to prevail even in western European classrooms despite the advocacy for translanguaging (Alisaari et al. 2019). Whereas acknowledging the presence of various first languages in an EFL class would result in greater inclusivity of learners and a shift in the perception of multilingual learners, i.e. from the deficient EFL learner to an emergent multilingual.
    In recent years, a proposal to abandon such monolingual bias, that is teaching solely in the target language to the same-language speakers has been advocated (e.g. Rabbidge 2019; Otwinowska 2017). Gallagher (2020), in an Irish context, ob-

served different teacher attitudes to code-switching depending on whether they taught EFL in multilingual or in shared-L1 contexts, i.e. when all learners spoke the same mother tongue. She recognised that "the particular learning environment, group dynamics, linguistic resources and teaching challenges are very different in each context and call for different approaches to the use of the L1 in the classroom" (Gallagher 2020: 9). The teachers were more likely to code-switch to L1 in the same L1 class, while in the multilingual class the results were varied. Some teachers confessed to not taking into account the multilingualism of their students, and became aware of this fact only during the interview study while others tried to conform to speaking only the target language, i.e. English, so as not to confuse the learners. Avoidance of code-switching signifies adherence to the monolingual ideology. Gallagher (2020: 10) concludes that "the prevailing monolingual orientation in foreign language teacher education, which continues to see codeswitching and other bilingual practices as a hindrance and a distraction from effective language learning needs to be revisited". In this respect, Calafato (2021) argues that teachers who know other (or more) languages than English are more likely to implement plurilingualism as a resource in their teaching and allow for translanguaging. Similarly, Mieszkowska and Otwinowska (2015) posit that "more experienced multilinguals tend to notice and use crosslinguistic similarity that aids comprehension and production of the new language. Thus, the cumulative language learning experience and metalinguistic awareness may be said to trigger affordances available to the learner" (Mieszkowska and Otwinowska 2015: 218). In their study of inferencing strategies used when handling a text in an unknown language (Danish), the speakers who knew more languages were better at the task than those students who knew only one foreign language which was typologically related (German). This finding led the authors to conclude that "combined L3-Ln proficiency and typological relatedness of the language might constitute a set of affordances available to the learner" (Mieszkowska and Otwinowska 2015: 233). In other words, teachers who know more languages than just the subject of their teaching, develop strategies that allow them to initiate and maintain communication even with interlocutors with whom they do not share a common language. Thus, the plurilingual competence of the teachers themselves seems to be a prerequisite for multilingual awareness and adopting a plurilingual approach to teaching in a foreign language class. This viewpoint has been further corroborated in another study by Otwinowska (2017), in which she surveyed pre-service and in-service teachers of EFL and their plurilingual awareness. Bearing these findings in mind, it may be questioned whether EFL teachers are significantly better equipped for encounters with migrant and multilingual learners than other subject teachers. Knowing a second language and the theory of how it is acquired may not be sufficient. Perhaps some other fac-

tors and skills may also play a role in the socialisation of multilinguals. The goal of this study is to shed more light on the possible factors that may play a role in fostering teacher agency to meet the needs of multilingual learners. Little is known as to why some EFL teachers are more willing and able to exert their agency in this respect while others are not. The findings of the study may constitute an important message to educational decision makers in reference to the formulation of future teacher education guidelines and curricula.

In order to meet these goals, the following questions have been posed:

1) How did EFL teachers' agency manifest in the socialisation of multilingual learners?
2) What individual propensities relate to EFL teachers' agency in the process of socialising multilingual learners into Polish schools and classrooms?

3. METHOD

The research design of the study was qualitative as its major goal was to gather an in-depth knowledge of the new phenomenon i.e. how the EFL teachers dealt with the presence of multilingual learners in Polish schools and in the EFL class.

3.1. Participants and context

The participants of the study were 23 teachers of EFL in primary schools in Poland. The teachers were recruited for the study by means of convenience and snowball sampling methods. The individuals contacted were either graduates of MA or Postgraduate programmes of the Pedagogical University of Cracow and/or their acquaintances. A few individuals were contacted via social-media sites and online groups dedicated to teachers. Whilst non-probabilistic sampling methods were used, care was taken that the teachers were selected from different teaching environments (i.e. city, town and village) and of varied characteristics (female/male) so as to obtain a diversity of voices from varied teaching environments. There were 23 teachers in total, 20 females and three males. They worked both in state (n=19) and in private primary schools (n=4), in the city (n=9), a small town (n=6) as well as a village (n=7). Their age range was between 27 and 50 years (Mean=35.4), and correspondingly their teaching experience was between six months and 25 years (Mean=10.8). They all evaluated their language competence at B2+/C1 or even C2 levels. All but one had an MA level of education. Nine of them had enhanced their teaching skills through various postgraduate studies (a form of in-service teacher education), one of which was

a course in *Teaching English to learners with Special Education Needs* offered by the university. As regards their knowledge of other foreign languages, 16 of them knew languages other than English, yet only seven had a command of those additional languages to at least B1/B2 level. These languages comprised Russian (T1), German (T4, T10, T16), Italian (T3, T21), Slovakian (T12). A few other teachers knew other languages at lower levels. In this respect, T22 distinguished herself from the others in that she claimed to know four other languages, one of them being rather rare, i.e, Georgian. Among these, 17 teachers claimed to have spent significant periods of time abroad (over one month), which could have contributed to their intercultural experience and competence. These were mostly in English-speaking countries (USA, UK, Ireland), in one case it was Germany. The sample studied is described in greater detail in another paper (Rokita-Jaśkow, Wolanin, Król-Gierat & Nosidlak 2022), but the impact of teacher characteristics on teacher agency is not considered.

The study was conducted online during the pandemic in December 2021 and January 2022, but the respondents were asked to talk about their experiences of working with multilinguals in retrospect. The teachers studied reported their experiences of working with multilingual learners in retrospect (prior to the outbreak of war in Ukraine in 2022). They described working with immigrant children from countries behind the eastern border (Ukraine, Belarus, Russia) as well as return migrant children, mainly from English-speaking countries. Only single cases of children came from other countries, such as Romania, Italy, Brazil, Norway, Spain, India.

3.2. Data collection tools and analysis

The data in the project was solicited by means of interviews held online. Each interview lasted ca. 40–60 minutes. In order to ensure interviewer reliability, each interview followed a prepared script (cf. Rokita-Jaśkow et al. 2022) and solicited data on teacher demographics, teacher beliefs about multilingualism as well as their experience and applied practices when working with multilingual learners both in an EFL class and in the larger school environment. The initial part of the interview asking about the teacher's demographics and teaching experience was aimed at establishing a rapport between the interviewer and interviewee and allowed the latter to present as a professional, which are the conditions to be met if valid answers are to be obtained (cf. McDougall 2000). Additionally, the interviewers made every effort not to interrupt the interwiewees, nor react or complement their responses, so as to acknowledge teacher professionalism and guarantee the study's validity (cf. McDougall 2000; Tomoda et al. 1997).

The interviews were recorded and transcribed for subsequent analysis within the framework of content analysis (Saldana 2009) by means of the NVivo software. In order to ensure accuracy, the transcripts were read three times, firstly for general orientation of the content and distinguishing key codes, secondly, in order to assign key codes to words, phrases and fragments of text depicting certain phenomena, and thirdly to ensure check on inter-rater consistency, as well as to distinguish key superordinate themes. Each time the data was coded by two persons in order to ensure inter-rater coding consistency (Krippendorf 2003). Although altogether 27 different codes were distinguished in the study the data was coded under the headings *teaching practices*, *emotions* and selected demographic variables (foreign language knowledge, length of teaching experience) were applied.

4. RESULTS

Key findings are presented with reference to the research questions posited.

4.1. Manifestation of EFL teacher agency in class and in the school environment

Bearing in mind the fact that Poland is undergoing a transition from a monolingual to a multilingual society and that there is no official policy on how to integrate multilingual learners into Polish schools, teacher agency in that respect comes to the fore. It depends solely on teachers if and how they engage in helping newly arrived multilinguals in that respect. Manifestations of teacher agency were identified in activities the teachers undertook in order to make the multilinguals feel welcome both in class and at school. Yet, not all teachers were willing and/or prepared to undertake this task and presented different attitudes: from expectations of student adjustment, through expressed compassion to proactive attempts at socialising young learners.

In relation to the latter, different activities were undertaken in reference to migrant multilinguals, who knew neither Polish, nor English and could be described as emergent multilinguals, which would facilitate mutual communication, and in reference to English-speaking return migrants, who usually spoke some Polish and possessed native-like competence in English, much above the level of the classroom instruction. In reference to the former, the following instances of agentic behavior were noticed (The number in brackets denotes the number of teachers who referred to a solution):

- Asking foreign learners about English word equivalents in their native languages, which could signify an implicit use of translanguaging pedagogy (4)
- Allowing and encouraging students to use mobile dictionaries for translation into the learners' mother tongues (2)
- Intercultural mediation: comparing aspects of three cultures, i.e. Polish, English and that of the learner (1)
- Adjusting selected teaching tasks to the level/ability of the learner (1)
- Seating the learner with a Polish student (2)
- Engaging with the learner in conversation after class, during the breaks etc. (2)
- Help in doing homework (2)
- In reference to English-speaking return migrants, who caused a different challenge to the EFL teacher due to higher language proficiency than the class, the following solutions were used:
- Preparing additional (challenging) lexical tasks (5)
- Individualised homework (usually written essays) (1)
- Using the students as a resource on English language and culture (3)
- Assigning the role of teaching assistant, to perform certain tasks instead of the teacher, e.g. reading texts aloud (3)
- Nominating the student to participate in language contests (6)

It must be noted, however, that this is a cumulative list of solutions and actions taken by individual teachers in the sample studied and not by all of them. The majority of the teachers did not pursue any particular actions and simply treated the newly arrived learners in the same way as Polish learners, not taking into account their previous educational and cultural backgrounds, nor knowledge of language(s).

One other solution that was mentioned by teachers (7) was granting the return migrant child access to the Individual Teaching Programme, upon certified recommendation from the Pedagogical-Psychological Centre on the grounds of giftedness, which led to individual tuition but thereby excluded the learner from class and thus prevented integration. For this reason, such an act was recognised as a lack of teacher agency and delegating the problem to other agents.

4.2. Individual propensities marking EFL teacher agency in the socialization process of multilinguals

This section will focus on those teachers, who particularly enacted agency in their work while working with multilinguals with a view to identifying factors that may have impacted socialization. On the basis of a review of relevant

texts, the following features have been focused on: the teacher's plurilingualism, time spent abroad/possessing intercultural experience, teaching experience, emotional engagement (empathy, enthusiasm etc.)

Teacher's plurilingualism

In the sample only six teachers indicated English as the only foreign language known. The majority of the teachers seemed to show interest in foreign language learning more generally and had much more varied language learning experience. These were T03, who knew Italian (B2), T04, T10, T16 who knew German (B2-C2). A few teachers claimed to have a truly plurilingual competence with more than 2 languages. These were: T1, who also knew Russian at the B1 level and French at the A2 level, and actually used to be a Russian language teacher; T12 who knew Slovakian (B2) and German (A1); T19 knew Japanese (A2) and German (A1); T21, who knew French (A2) and Italian (C1); T22, who had learnt a few different languages, although only at the elementary level, i.e. Georgian (A2), Russian (A1), Italian (A1), Spanish (A1). As can be seen, the constellation of languages was varied. Apart from knowing English, the teachers studied also showed interest in rarer languages, which might signify a plurilingual competence and pluricultural interest, which may, in turn, result in cross-linguistic awareness (Jessner 2006), i.e. observing similarities and differences between languages. This competency may facilitate the teachers' comprehension of the challenges faced by multilingual learners if any of the learners' languages is at least partly similar (i.e. belongs to the same family) to the languages known by the teacher. Furthermore, it may also stimulate the teacher's creativity in inventing tasks and activities to develop the metalinguistic awareness of Polish learners while utilizing the presence of multilingual learners in the English class.

However, when looking for signs of teacher agency in respect of plurilingualism, only a few teachers tried to prepare activities that would both enhance the growth of metalinguistic awareness in Polish learners and help integrate multilingual learners at the same time. T1 used an English version of the well-known cartoon series titled *Masha and the bear* as a basis for her lesson. She recognised that "these Russian-speaking children were so happy that this was their story", and added that she even sometimes played video material in Russian, just to please them.

Other plurilingual teachers mentioned the following solutions:

We have a Ukrainian, we also have a boy from Romania and when we learnt the word "train" recently, the learners asked: "And how will it be in Belarusian?", "And in Russian how will it be?", "And in Romanian, how would you say it?". And they're

learning these words… from each other, and they're already curious about how it sounds in another language, because they're developing that English as well [N04].

Sometimes I even specifically ask them how to say a particular word in Italian, in Spanish. Maybe it is similar sometimes. When I know it's similar, I even ask them on purpose, just so they can see that the languages have something in common. And just sometimes Sofia and Leo compare Italian with Spanish, which I think is very cute [T22].

Additionally, T4 sensitised Polish children to the melody of the Romanian language by asking them to overhear what the Romanian child was saying to his mother in an online class. T3 recommended using mobile dictionaries in class which would allow foreign children to check the equivalents of new English words in their native language. T4 teacher created a picture book, where key Polish terms were illustrated. The book was later used by the teacher in order to teach a multilingual child a few basic words, so that he could communicate his basic needs, e.g. going to the toilet.

The aforementioned instances of teacher agency were the only ones manifested. As can be seen, among 16 teachers who knew more than one foreign language (English), only three teachers (T1, T4, T22) seemed to recognise opportunities for using their plurilingualism as an asset in the English class.

Time spent abroad/possessing intercultural experience

By looking at this variable, it was hypothesised that teachers who had the experience of living abroad may have more opportunities for intercultural encounters. This, in turn, could contribute to their own level of intercultural sensitivity and intercultural competence (cf. Piechurska-Kuciel & Rusieshvili 2020; Wolff & Borzikowsky 2018) which subsequently could be utilised when interacting with multilingual learners in the language class. The teacher's own intercultural competence and sensitivity may manifest themselves in an ability to adopt and take into account a different cultural perspective in lesson planning and delivery. In this respect, one teacher (T4) manifested intercultural sensitivity when recalling the example of a Hindi child, who had a different religion and celebrated different holidays. The teacher used the presence of the children to explain to Polish learners why Hindi children do not celebrate Christmas or take part in the school Nativity.

They live in Poland at the moment, but we require them to become Polish. They have their own culture. And another thing – we, as teachers, should also help them to experience their culture. We cannot overlook the fact that they come from a different country, that they have different traditions or even their own national holidays, and so on. I had a situation like this – Indian children were coming to our school

and their parents excused them, saying that it was a big holiday there now, so they wouldn't be at school that day, and we talked about it with the children, that they were just celebrating. Likewise why they don't perform in the nativity play… Although afterwards dad was so open-minded that he said why not in principle [T04].

The same teacher raised doubts about the necessity for foreign children to take part in a school entrance ceremony that involved taking an oath to be a good Pole. This teacher had not lived abroad for a significant period of time, which could aid the development of intercultural sensitivity, but did know another foreign language (German) at an advanced level.

In the sample studied, only one teacher (T20) noticed an opportunity to develop intercultural competence in an EFL class.

[i]t often happens to these cultural realities, if we talk about something, that for example we compare, let's say the lifestyle in Great Britain or some different things, and she refers to her experiences in Germany, so we are no longer comparing only Poland and English-speaking countries, but we are also comparing some other countries [T20].

The teacher concluded that in class she always asked students not only to compare aspects of Polish and English culture but also those of some other countries. This solution probably did not show the teacher's plurilingual/pluricultural awareness as much as her didactic skills. Since she catered for the developing intercultural competence of the Polish learners on a regular basis, she found it relatively easy to include a foreign child in the task as well. This teacher had not only made short visits abroad but also knew two other foreign languages (French and Italian) apart from English, which may have influenced her ability to place herself in the position of the multilingual learner.

Time spent abroad does not necessarily contribute to the growth of intercultural competence, greater openness, or the development of pedagogical and didactic skills that would accommodate the needs of multilinguals. T15, who had spent 3 years in the UK, found an English-speaking return migrant learner to be particularly problematic:

She absolutely refused to let any child say a word. There was her hand up all the time and I already knew we had to do something about it. It got sorted out very quickly because from the middle of fourth grade she already had this individual tuition. And she is my biggest failure [T15].

This instance showed that the teacher lacked pedagogical and didactic competences to work with heterogeneous classes, as she found individual teaching

of the child to be the only solution to the problems encountered. It also shows that even if time spent abroad impacts the teacher's own intercultural sensitivity and competence, it may not necessarily impact the teacher's ability to develop the same competencies among her learners.

Teaching experience

In view of the findings of Alisaari et al. (2019), it was assumed that more experienced teachers would focus more on meeting the needs of individual students rather than on merely delivering the course curriculum, and therefore they should manifest didactic skills in lesson planning to accommodate the needs of multilingual learners. This means the students should neither get bored, which was the case with English-speaking return migrant children, nor feel excluded from class participation if English is an unknown additional language for them.

The most experienced teachers in terms of the cumulative number of years were T1 (aged 50, 25 years of teaching experience which included working with Special Educational Needs (SEN) children), T6 (aged 45, who had been working as a teacher for 23 years), T7 (aged 40, with 18 years of experience), T11 (aged 39, with 15 years of teaching experience), T17 (aged 40, with 15 years of experience), T18 (aged 44, with 25 years of experience). The majority of the other teachers (T3, T4, T5, T8, T13, T14, T15, T17, T21) were moderately experienced, having been working between ten and 12 years in the profession.

When analysing whether teacher experience reflected teacher agency in mediating the socialisation of multilingual learners in either an EFL class or school in general, T1 was found to be the most experienced and the most enthusiastic about having English-speaking children in her class (Grade 2). The following citation marks a shift in the teacher's attitude in respect of her teaching experience.

> When I learnt this new student would be coming to class I was very happy. But let me be honest, I can say that today… I was happy because I already had this experience behind me. But I remember my first experience when I found out that I was going to have an English-speaking child in class. That scared me at first. I was really scared. Somehow I was frightened that he would be better than me and so on… because that I think accompanies every one of us. I talked to other teachers, even Russian teachers who had Russian-speaking children – children who are Ukrainian – they experience the same thing at the beginning.
> But this turned out not to be the slightest obstacle at all. On the other hand, they are wonderful material for dialogue and for setting an example for other children. When I found out that I was going to have two boys in the second grade, I already knew what to do with them to get them interested too, because everything we did

in English was very simple for them in the second grade, because it was the beginning of learning for Polish children and for them it was funny. I used them to read aloud [T1].

This shows that the teacher realised the children were, in fact, native speakers of the English language, and tried to use their competence in class so that they were not without a role and did not get bored. She emphasized a few times that she did not want the children to be bored, so she did not insist on them doing homework if this involved doing repetitive coursebook tasks. This also shows the teacher was capable of making independent decisions and took individual children's interests and abilities into account when planning her lessons.

Other examples of facing the challenge of English-speaking multilinguals were given by younger teachers. T16, with six years of experience, set up tasks which were more difficult and complex, as described in the following extract:

But I don't want the boy to go backwards, so I make the case as follows…. When we go, for example, to a new chapter with the kids, I check what range of knowledge we have in that topic. And I present the chapter to David in the same way as I did to the kids, only with expanded material, expanded vocabulary, expanded grammar. If we had Past Simple with the kids, then I still throw in Past Continuous, right away in sentences where we have both tenses, etc. So David is challenged in this chapter. That is, David has such a challenge with me that he has to do a bit more than the class, because if I get vocabulary to learn from a chapter, we always learn the vocabulary at the beginning of the chapter so that the chapter goes easier for us [T16].

This solution shows the teacher tried hard to motivate all learners in her class and took into account the needs and abilities of all learners. T12 mentioned always having a spare worksheet to accommodate the needs of English-speaking children, who finished their tasks first, in order to occupy them with new work. These attempted solutions show that classroom level heterogeneity seemed to be one of the most difficult problems that English teachers faced. They also indicate that teacher awareness of students' varied abilities and teachers' agency in accommodating the needs of multilingual learners did not depend solely on age/length of teaching experience.

In reference to speakers of other languages, T1 observed the inappropriacy of using translation into Polish in the multilingual class. Although she did ask students to translate some dialogues from English into Polish, she never asked multilingual children to do so, realising the difficulty of the task, as Polish was also a new language to them. Furthermore, she took the opportunity to explain

to the Polish children why she excused the multilinguals from doing the translation task, and explained that they could do it in their native language. This was also justified as teaching tolerance to Polish children. The following citation illustrates this point as well as showing the teacher's confidence in her didactic (including assessment) skills,

> It seems to us that the child does not know this or that, but he simply does not know how to say that in Polish because he still does not know this third language yet. The students also learn tolerance, because I cannot demand as much, and lower the grade for the fact he does not know Polish. I know he knows English as I know how to check this [T1].

As regards the other experienced teachers, T6, T7 and T18 did not report any activities specifically directed at multilingual learners. Among the less experienced teachers, T11 recognized that she had to adjust the pace of working in class to the level of comprehension of migrant learners and noticed possible problems in understanding instructions for tasks, She reported allowing the students to use translation apps on student mobiles as a solution.

> I asked him to bring a phone with internet access and translate what I wanted from him, for example. He translated from his language into Polish so that I could know what he was having trouble with, especially as the instructions in our English textbook are in Polish. So he didn't know that at all either [T11].

As regards English-speaking children, for whom English was often the first/dominant language, an experienced teacher (T17) emphasised that it was necessary to challenge their abilities. However, this teacher, like five others in the sample (T3, T5, T16, T7), did not look for pedagogical solutions to cope with class level heterogeneity but opted to grant these learners access to the Individual Teaching Programme and/or enrol them in English-language contests. It is notable that this solution was chosen by teachers (except for T3) who did not speak any other foreign language, which could signify teachers' insecurity and/or inability to put themselves in the learner's position. At this point, it must be highlighted that opting for individual teaching programmes and contests does not indicate the teacher's agency but rather denotes delegating the responsibility for the teaching of multilingual learners to other parties.

Emotional engagement (teacher's empathy, enthusiasm etc.)
Teacher emotional engagement was noted in how the teachers talked about and what they attempted to do in order to help migrant learners integrate into

the class. The themes that emerged from the narratives were coded as *support, emotions, and attitudes*. Few teachers openly empathised with the migrant learners' difficult situation. In this respect we distinguished only three teachers as showing an empathetic stance: T6 who had spent three years in the USA when he was a child (aged 7–10), T10, who was one of the youngest teachers and had only 2.5 years of teaching experience, and T1, who had the experience of working with SEN children.

In the case of Teacher 6, it seems his own bilingual experience made him particularly empathetic towards the newcomers. As he recollected, he always tried to approach multilingual students who seemed to be isolated from the rest of a group, e.g. in the playground, or in the corridor during the break and tried to strike up a conversation, drawing on their common bilingual experience, and hoping this exchange would make the student feel at ease. However, when it came to his teaching practice, the only activity tailored to the needs of multilingual learners was allowing them in an English vocabulary quiz to draw picture answers rather than require an equivalent in Polish.

Teacher 10 expressed her pity over the difficulties one of her Ukrainian learners had experienced before joining the private school where s/he was teaching. The boy suffered from isolation and lack of progress in the state school, mainly due to problems with learning Polish and a lack of support in learning it from either his parents or from the school. These difficulties led the family to move the child into private education, where in smaller groups and with support the boy slowly started to open up, speak Polish and make progress. The teacher recalled that progress was possible thanks to working with the learner on an individual basis and a friendly teacher approach.

> I don't think we can cross anyone out prematurely because he is proof that the right intentions intensified work and also his stamina, because without that it's impossible, and this is a child who, despite these enormous difficulties, because, I think, we also liked each other, and that's also an important factor, I think the contact with the teacher, and I was also the form tutor, it also went on in such a way, this atmosphere, this relationship of ours, also somehow positively influenced here, I think [T10].

T1 is already referred to above as the teacher with the most experience and who appeared to introduce elements of plurilingual and intercultural competence the most. In her case, empathy and emotional engagement manifested in deliberate lesson planning and tailoring the teaching contents to the needs of other learners. This example also shows that empathy alone is not sufficient to realise the didactic and pedagogical abilities needed to engage multilingual learners in the learning process.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

We investigated how EFL teachers cope with multilingual learners in the hope that they would be the most skillful in facilitating the socialization process due to their own bilingual learning and teaching as well as intercultural experience, which hypothetically could enable them to put themselves in the position of migrant multilingual learners, who face difficulties in socialisation to the new learning environment.

In that respect, the first research question inquired about manifestations of EFL teachers' agency in relation to working with multilingual learners. In answer to this question, it has to be acknowledged that it manifested only in a few teachers and amounted to 32 instances of acting in total. Surprisingly, the majority of the teachers, despite generally verbalising positive attitudes towards multilinguals, did not try to adjust their teaching to their level of English, nor did they try to deliberately integrate newcomer students with the Polish group. This could have been achieved by either using communicative and intercultural activities for which lingua franca English can be a key or by means of introducing elements of multilingual pedagogies (Garcia & Flores 2012), which would foster cross-linguistic awareness in all learners. This finding is contrary to that of Banasiak and Olpińska-Szkiełko (2021), who believed that languages present in education are more likely to be developed. This study shows that the potential of using the English class as "a communication bridge" between Polish and foreign learners was not effectively developed or applied. One possible explanation for this fact is that for all EFL teachers, the presence of multilingual learners in an EFL class is a new situation, unlike in western societies where multilingualism is a common phenomenon and teachers are prepared to have such learners in their classes. Nevertheless, it has to be acknowledged that even in western societies, EFL teachers find it difficult to abandon their monolingual bias (Alisaari et al. 2019; Calafato 2021). Therefore, it comes as no surprise that in a transitioning society such as Poland, the change of teacher outlook on working with multilinguals is only germinating and will take time to develop. Secondly, it is surprising that the teachers did not show agency in seeking/developing their own solutions to meet the needs of the multilingual learners, as "teacher agency may not always be about instigating change, but rather, a responsive behaviour embedded in daily practice" (Pantić et al. 2021: 170), i.e. supporting learners and catering for their well-being as they progress through their new school reality. Clearly, this responsive behaviour is lacking in many teachers which may signify a serious predicament. Their inability to (re)act may be caused by two aspects: the novelty of the phenomenon for which teachers have not been prepared by e.g. in-service teacher training courses (cf. Gorter & Arocena 2020), as well as a lack of support

from social networks at school, an unsupportive school environment, constraints of their expected role, which may counteract what Prestley et al. (2015a) consider to be prerequisites of boosting teacher agency. Despite these unfavourable conditions a few teachers manged to mobilise their resources to act, which seems to be a result of an interaction of both personal and situational factors.

Following this, the second research question aimed to identify individual propensities that may have impacted teacher agency. Among the individual propensities studied, it seems that plurilingual competence of the teachers comes to the fore, as it prompted teacher preparedness to foster intercultural competence in their learners. Using multilingual learners' languages as affordances was particularly practised by teachers who knew languages in addition to English at an advanced level, which seems to corroborate the findings of Wernicke (2018) who observed the link between teacher plurilingualism and teacher agency as well as Otwinowska's (2017) statement that "the degrees of multilingualism have an impact on the teachers' noticing of cross-linguistic similarities and their readiness to use cross-linguistic comparisons when teaching. It does not suffice for the teacher to know only L2 or even several languages but weakly (Otwinowska 2017: 318)". It seems therefore that teacher plurilingual and intercultural competences coincided with teacher didactic skills, which materialised in lesson planning that took into account the presence of multilingual learners in the EFL class. This finding corroborates those of other researchers (Calafato 2021; Gallagher 2020; Gilham & Fürstenau 2020; Otwinowska 2017; Mieszkowska & Otwinowska 2015) who unanimously point to teacher plurilingual competence as a prerequisite for using learners' varied languages in an EFL class and allowing translanguaging.

Little connection in that respect was observed in relation to the length of teaching experience, i.e. teacher experience alone did not seem to matter but did play a role in connection with plurilingual competence. In that respect, T1 instantiated a combination of desirable factors, such as plurilingual competence and long teaching experience, and exhibited the highest level of agency, but should be regarded as unique rather than the norm. What was unintentionally observed was the relevancy of the teacher's experience of working with SEN learners (multilingual learners could be considered as such) as possibly the most important factor as it prepared the teacher to adjust to the learners' abilities.

Contrary to predictions, time spent living abroad, even if it did contribute to the teacher's own intercultural competence, did not transfer to the ability to develop it in the learners. This finding is consistent with those of Dewaele and Li Wei (2012) who observed that time spent living abroad was not related to the development of cognitive empathy, but that advanced knowledge of a few languages was. One possible explanation for that fact may be that time spent

abroad interrupted the teaching career. Due to the passage of time since gradu-ation from a teacher education institution, certain facts, theories, pedagogical approaches learnt in higher education could have been forgotten, and an interval away from teaching could cause a setback in professional development.

Empathy, or the ability to put oneself in the position of the multilingual learner, did not impact teaching solutions. This observation contradicts the find-ings of Calafato (2021) who observed that teachers who were able to position themselves as learners and also had knowledge of two foreign languages were more likely to implement multilingual pedagogies. This means that empathy alone does not mean that the teacher will know how to work with multilingual learners. Similarly, Dewaele and Li Wei (2012) argue that what contributes to the growth of empathy is frequent use of multiple languages, i.e., multicompetence, which again points to the connection between plurilingualism and possible enactment of agency.

To summarise, the findings show that neither length of teaching experience, nor time spent abroad/intercultural sensitivity, nor empathy will suffice to work efficiently with multilingual learners. The teacher needs to know how to do it, not only to empathise with the learners. Only in combination with teacher pluri-lingual competence and growing cross-linguistic awareness do these features become significant in the context of language teaching didactics.

Certainly, the limitation of the study is its small sample and qualitative nature, which does not allow extrapolation of the results onto the entire population of EFL teachers in Poland. The study should be treated as a preliminary analysis of how teachers cope with the challenge of working with multilingual learners. Any hypotheses about the factors impacting teacher agency in that respect should be verified in a larger cross-sectional study.

To conclude, agentic behaviour of some EFL teachers could be observed, which was probably the outcome of their own personal predispositions, such as length and type of teaching experience, plurilingual competence, enthusiasm, and intercultural sensitivity. Yet, even though a significant number of teach-ers showed these characteristics, not all of them could transfer them into their teaching practices in a multilingual EFL class. For this to happen, both the skills and preparedness and willingness to do it are needed. Whilst the former can be developed through additional training, teacher agency, which is a dynamic factor (Sang 2020) in that respect can be boosted if teachers obtain support to imple-ment change from educational decision-makers, from ministerial to local school level. As Priestley et al. (2015b: 8) highlight, "teacher agency offers considerable potential in enabling those who frame policies to more fully understand the implications of those policies for those who enact practice." Therefore the find-ings of this study bear practical implications for both pre-service and in-service

teacher education programmes, which should revise their curricula and prepare language teachers to work with learners of diverse language repertoires as well as teach them how to utilize the phenomenon of multilingualism.

It seems that where society is in a state of transition, i.e. changing from a dominantly monolingual environment to become more multilingual, teachers, and language teachers in particular, have an important role to play. By accommodating the needs of both multilingual and Polish learners they will not only aid integration, but also implicitly encourage in their learners attitudes of openness and tolerance, as well as plurilingual and pluricultural interest, which should later lead to greater social cohesion. However, they will not be able to enact their agency with this new challenge, if they are left without support.

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Sprawstwo nauczyciela języka angielskiego jako obcego w procesie socjalizacji uczniów wielojęzycznych

ABSTRAKT. Nauczyciele języka angielskiego jako obcego (EFL) wydają się idealnie przygotowani do pośredniczenia w udanej socjalizacji wielojęzycznych uczniów w nowym środowisku szkolnym z dwóch głównych powodów. Po pierwsze, jako że skutecznie posługują się zarówno J1, jak i J2 oraz często mają doświadczenie dłuższych pobytów za granicą, wykazują wyższy poziom otwartości na nowe sytuacje, empatii i zrozumienia trudności, z jakimi borykają się uczniowie wielojęzyczni. Po drugie, zajęcia z języka angielskiego mogą same w sobie stanowić platformę wzajemnego zrozumienia, gdzie uczący się są w stanie rozwijać zarówno umiejętności komunikacyjne w języku angielskim, jak i kompetencje międzykulturowe (por. Hopp i in. 2020; Krulatz i in. 2022). Ponieważ angielski jest językiem, w którym prowadzona jest lekcja, możliwe też jest utrzymanie poziomu kompetencji wielojęzycznej wśród tych uczniów, którzy już posługują się angielskim jako językiem odziedziczonym (Banasiak & Olpińska-Szkiełko 2021), np. dzieci migrantów powracających z Wielkiej Brytanii/ Irlandii. Opierając się na danych pochodzących z większego projektu (Rokita-Jaśkow et al. 2022), który polegał na przeprowadzeniu wywiadów z 23 nauczycielami EFL ze szkół podstawowych w różnych kontekstach, niniejszy artykuł analizuje możliwe czynniki wpływające na postawę sprawczą nauczyciela w procesie socjalizacji osób wielojęzycznych. Stwierdzono, że sprawstwo nauczyciela w tym zakresie wydaje się wynikać z kompetencji różnojęzycznych nauczycieli i ich wcześniejszego doświadczenia w nauczaniu. Co zaskakujące, osobiste doświadczenia związane ze spotkaniami międzykulturowymi (np. czas spędzony za granicą) lub deklarowana empatia miały niewielki wpływ na sprawczość nauczyciela. Wyniki te sugerują, że nawet nauczyciele języków obcych mają trudności z postawieniem się w sytuacji ucznia wielojęzycznego i potrzebują specjalistycznego szkolenia, aby móc pracować z uczniami wielojęzycznymi, co może stanowić ważne przesłanie dla decydentów oświatowych w odniesieniu do formułowania przyszłych wytycznych dotyczących kształcenia nauczycieli i programów nauczania.

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Family language policy in the context of return migration: A case study

Abstract. Return migration has probably been granted the lowest attention in the field of family language policy (FLP). The current paper seeks to address this gap in the research and explores the dynamics of FLP of a Polish family in the context of their temporary migration to Germany and return migration to Poland. The authors investigate how mobility affects FLP, especially towards L1 (Polish) and L2 (German) in the context of migration and return migration. The study takes a qualitative, interview-based study design, supported by the language portrait technique. An analysis of the interview data has evidenced the parents' strong support for the maintenance and development of L1 throughout the whole process of migration and return migration and the lack of it in the case of L2 after the return to Poland. The results have also evidenced that individuals in a family, including children, have significant autonomy and agency and can shape their independent FLPs, which are aligned neither with their parents nor siblings.

Keywords: FLP, return migration, heritage language maintenance, L2 loss, child agency.

1. INTRODUCTION

Migration understood as spatial movements of either a group of people or individuals to settle temporarily or permanently have always been part of human history. Such changes in location are rarely spontaneous and provoked by a variety of factors, e.g. political or socio-economic ones, that include displacements caused by war or natural disaster or a pursuit of a better standard of living. Following Stavans and Hoffman (2015: 29), in this paper, the term "migration" is used as an umbrella term for emigration (out of a country), immigration (into a host country) and remigration (a return to the country of origin).

Throughout history, migration has played a huge role in language contact and spread. Nowadays, in the era of mobility and intense contact with other cultures and languages, multilingualism has become a norm in many parts of the world. In this context, a vast majority of research is focused on the pace and effectiveness of learning the language of the destination country and its relation to the social and economic integration of migrants. As Goitom (2019: 394) observes, scholars primarily study "(a) the ease with which the transfer of human capital from the source country to the receiving country can take place, and (b) the ways in which this can augment immigrants' rate of success in the labour market of the receiving country". Little attention, however, is paid to the temporality of a given settlement and the idea of returning "home" that often accompanies migrants. Having this possibility in mind, migrants frequently maintain strong ties with their country of origin that also affect the way of constructing their spaces and relationships in the new environment. Functioning in these transnational spaces is facilitated by language that offers a sense of identity and belonging. The construction of such spaces by migrants in the host country illustrates the connection between time and space with a language whose positioning is manifested by its use in interactions (Stevenson & Carl 2010). Language as an element of identity (e.g. Kramsch 2002), also acts as a marker of group belonging, both in a local and transnational sense, and is related to one's sense of citizenship and place of origin (Kramsch 2002: 9–11). Thus, language might be considered a crucial factor "in reconstructing identity during both migration and the settlement and reintegration process (return-thinking)" (Goitom 2019: 396).

The current study discusses a linguistic identity of a Polish family in the process of migration to Germany and return migration to Poland, as an example of a larger trend. Indeed, in the last two decades, the Polish accession to the European Union in 2004 offered the Poles the greatest impulse for temporary migration which raised from 1,000,000 in 2004 to 2,239,000 in total in 2020. Germany and the UK have traditionally been the most popular destinations for temporary migration for Poles. A significant drop in the number of migrants from Poland to the UK, however, was noted after Brexit (from 678,000 in 2019 to 514,000 in 2020). In 2020, Germany (31.5%) topped the ranking of the most popular destinations for temporary migration from Poland, followed by the UK (22.9%), the Netherlands (6%), Ireland (5%), Italy 3.8%, France 2.8% and Belgium 2.3% (Central Statistics Office 2021). Temporary migration of Poles is typically motivated by higher earnings (78.8%) and a higher standard of living (58.9%), travel opportunities (44%), better social benefits (37.7%) and professional development perspectives (35.7%). Over one-third of the respondents pointed to the lack of jobs in Poland (Central Statistics Office 2021).

Our study aims to investigate and foster an understanding of how Polish migrant families adapt their FLP in response to the changing life trajectories in the context of migration and return migration. It addresses the following research question (RQ):

RQ1: How is FLP shaped in the context of migration and return migration?

A qualitative, interview-based study design has been employed to investigate the dynamics of FLP in the under-researched area of return migration. In its opening, theoretical part, the paper draws on the recent developments in the area of FLP. The next sections discuss the methodology and research results.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: FAMILY LANGUAGE POLICY

Language learning never takes place in isolation. It is embedded in the social worlds in which a child functions, including the most crucial one – the family. Family is "the nucleus of the community interactions that are vital for language socialisation" (Guardado 2020: 39). Family language policy (FLP) as a new research area integrating language acquisition and language emerged in the first decade of the twenty-first century (King & Fogle 2006; King, Fogle & Logan-Terry 2008; Schwartz 2008, 2010). In contrast to psycholinguistic research on bilingualism that investigates how the child acquires language, FLP studies focus on how language is used and managed in the family. In this approach, the emphasis is placed on the parents' linguistic ideologies and language learning decisions and strategies, as well as the larger sociocultural context a given family is embedded in as key factors affecting the child's language acquisition and use (Fogle & King 2013).

First and foremost, FLP research centres on the role played by parents in heritage language maintenance by "modifying children's language development" (Spolsky 2012: 7). As Stavans and Hoffman (2015: 215) put it, "[o]ne of the strongest driving forces of FLPs is the urge to maintain the heritage language while learning the new one(s) as a means of to make the transition from 'the previous' life into the 'new life'". FLP research is guided by the question of why only some young children exposed to two languages become bilingual which was posed by De Houwer (1999) over twenty years ago. Thus, FLP investigates how parents' language ideologies and actual language practices might either foster or restrain the child's use of a particular language (Curdt-Christiansen 2013; Wąsikiewicz-Firlej & Lankiewicz 2019; Romanowski 2021; Stępkowska 2022).

The language policy model developed by Spolsky (2004: 5) is often used in FLP research. This model embraces three elements of a speech community's language policy, including language practices (language behaviours), beliefs

and ideologies about language, as well as language management, construed as actions that influence language practices (Spolsky 2004: 5). These three components are interrelated and influence one another – ideology informs practices and management, while practices and management have an impact on ideology (Spolsky 2004: 14).

Language practices are defined by Spolsky (2007: 3) as actual "behaviours and choices" made by individuals about language, including its variety and specific linguistic features, such as grammar, vocabulary or phonetics. As evidenced in several studies, the quality and quantity of parental input play an essential role in developing children's bilingualism (e.g. Döpke 1992; De Houwer 2007). Thus, low exposure to a given language (e.g. a minority language) translates into a less frequent use of this language by the child (De Houwer 2007).

Language ideology embraces specific values, beliefs and attitudes attributed to language as well as its use, which are shared within a certain community (Spolsky 2004; Spolsky 2007; Wolfram & Schilling-Estes 2006; Volk & Angelova 2007). They have an impact on the perception of prestige and values ascribed to "various aspects of the language varieties" (Spolsky 2004: 14) and are defined by Laihonen (2008: 669) as "discourse about language". Developed both at the macro (e.g. global, national or institutional) or micro (e.g. family) levels (King, Fogle & Logan-Terry 2008), language ideologies do not only concern language but also personal and social identity (Lanza 2007). In the family context, language ideology might be interpreted as parents' discourse about the planned and expected outcomes of their children's multilingual development (cf. Moin, Schwartz & Leikin 2013; Wąsikiewicz-Firlej 2016: 156). De Houwer (1999) argues that language ideologies held by parents might be reflected in the specific language practices shared in a given family. For instance, parents' belief that code-mixing has a negative impact on language acquisition may discourage both parents and children from using this practice. Beliefs regarding the perceived prestige of a particular language in society also translate into actual language use in a family: parents who value their first language(s) have a higher chance of passing it/them on to their offspring (Harding & Riley 1986).

Finally, to clarify the concept of language management, Spolsky (2004: 14) quotes the questions originally posed by Cooper (1989: 31): "Who plans what for whom and how". In this context, language management entails an explicit attempt to change or manipulate the language ideologies or practices of others (Curdt-Christiansen 2009; Spolsky 2004). For this reason, in some cases it may contradict the ideology and transgress the rules concerning language use shared by a particular language community. Simultaneously, language management is based on language ideologies, which can be considered as the impetus for tangible efforts to modify language practices (Curdt-Christiansen 2009, 2013). In the

family context, language management translates into the attempts of parents/carers to promote the children's language acquisition, which includes, e.g. using their first language(s) to communicate with their offspring, maintaining contact with their relatives and a larger community speaking the target language, visiting their home country(ies), providing formal language instruction (Spolsky 2004: 8). Language management involves the use of some language practices, e.g. corrections or specific language choices (King, Fogle & Logan-Terry 2008: 911), and engagement with the minority language that fosters its acquisition. As advanced by Yamamoto (2001: 128), "the more engagement the child has with the minority language, the greater her or his likelihood of using it". Additionally, De Houwer (2011: 227) suggested that the use of a minority language by the child is particularly strongly fostered by the parents communicating in this language with each other.

2.1. Child agency

A particular FLP originates in a specific linguistic constellation of the person involved in the internal family (i.e. parents, siblings, grandparents, close friends), but it soon becomes modified by the external linguistic environment in which a particular family is embedded (i.e. extended family and friends, communities, country, etc.) that might ultimately modify the initial decisions concerning the use of particular language(s). Parents basically need to address the question of whose languages should be acquired and for what reason. Recently, a large body of studies posits the family as a dynamic system and emphasises the child's agency[1] in shaping FLP and the formation of their linguistic competence and identity (e.g. Hirsch & Lee 2018; Hunt & Davis 2022; Wilson 2020). Luykx (2005: 1409) deems children "family language brokers" who affect "adults' linguistic development". Lanza (2007: 47) does not only point to the child agency in language socialisation but also views children as fully-fledged members of society that contribute to its development rather than are merely shaped by it. This theme strongly reverberates throughout Schwartz and Verschick's (2013) edited collection, especially in the chapter written by Palviainen and Boyd (2013). The authors (Palviainen & Boyd 2013) argue that even very young – three-year-old – children can be involved in the formation and negotiation of FLP, for example, by determining the language they or their parents speak or changing the rules concerning the family language use set by parents. Tuominen (1999) highlights the child's contribution to ensuring the dominant position of English as the ma-

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[1] Child agency has been also discussed, e.g. by Caldas and Caron-Caldas (2000, 2002), Okita (2002), Luykx (2005), Lanza (2007), Gafaranga (2010), Palviainen and Boyd (2013), Fogle (2012), Fogle and King (2013).

jority language at the expense of the minority language (cf. Wąsikiewicz-Firlej & Lankiewicz 2019: 173). It must be emphasised that children are not always in agreement with their parents when it comes to FLP and children do not always share parents' identities which might lead to tensions between them (Little 2017; Wilson 2020). Numerous studies point to the fact that FLP-related conflicts often arise from different perceptions of the roles heritage language(s) play for first- and second-generation speakers. The majority of second-generation immigrants do not acquire their heritage language(s) in their parent's country of origin and are not always emotionally attached to their parents' first languages or country/cultural roots and might object to imposed language policies (e.g. Sevinç & Dewaele 2018; Sevinç & Backus 2019). Manifestation of children's/adolescents' negative emotions in heritage language maintenance takes place in response to parents' strict FLP as well as their "fixed monolingual mindsets" and anxiety (Sevinç 2022: 884). By contrast, multilingualism is understood by individuals with "growth multilingual mindset" as "a full repertoire of multilingual practices and a beneficial tool for interaction" that can be adapted and developed during a lifetime (Sevinç 2022: 886). Parents with a "fixed monolingual mindset" hold that "successful multilingualism" involves native-like competence in all languages in a multilingual person's repertoire. They also share a belief that the use of a heritage language might hinder the "majority language development, or vice versa, assuming that their language learning capacity is limited" (Sevinç 2022: 886). Anxiety and pressure accompanying monolingual mindsets have a detrimental effect on family relations and communication as well as social interaction.

2.2. Peers

As noted by De Houwer (2007: 22), societal influences might either foster or hinder parents' efforts in raising bilingual children (also see Hammer, Miccio & Rodriguez 2004; Portes & Hao 1998). For example, Caldas and Caron-Caldas (2000, 2002) underscored that the choice of a majority language by children from multilingual backgrounds is often influenced by social factors. As evidenced in a case study of a bilingual French- and English-speaking family, while parents play a significant role in shaping young children's language choices, after puberty these preferences tend to be influenced by peers (Caldas & Caron-Caldas 2000). These findings go in line with the theory of group socialisation advanced by Harris (1995), which prioritises peer group influences. Accordingly, as illustrated by research carried out by Harris (1995), in ethnic minority families, adolescents tend to switch from their family minority language towards the majority language and acquire their peers' rather than parents' pronunciation.

Similar differences in the use and maintenance of the minority language between children and parents have been reported by Tannebaum (2003) who surveyed 307 migrant children (aged 8–11) in Australia (cf. Wąsikiewicz-Firlej & Lankiewicz 2019: 173). Thus, taking into account the peer pressure that might act against parents' efforts to maintain the minority language, some form of support from minority-language-speaking relatives and childcare providers would be an asset (Bayley, Schecter & Torres-Ayala 1996).

2.3. Siblings

As noted by Unsworth (2016: 140), "there is to date very little systematic research addressing the influence of siblings on bilingual children's language development". What emerges from subsequent studies is some evidence that (e.g. Miller 1983) while interacting bilingual siblings tend to opt for L1, the dominant language of their country of residence, instead of L2 (minority language). In her study of bicultural Japanese children in Japan, Yamamoto (1987) implied that the use of English (L2) in the interaction between siblings fostered the children's bilingual development. On the other hand, children who used Japanese (L1) to communicate with each other were also less likely to interact with their parents, even minority language parents, in English (L2).

Further studies point to the role of schooling and the majority language of instruction (Szczepaniak-Kozak et al. 2023). For example, Yamamoto (2001: 103) put forward a hypothesis that "the medium of instruction in school and the presence of siblings" have the most significant impact on the children's language decisions. Yet, research up to date has not conclusively established whether the presence of older siblings enhances or impairs language development (Kavanagh 2017: 221).

On the one hand, as illustrated in research (e.g. Kamada 1998; Bridges & Hoff 2014), older children attending school tend to communicate with their siblings and parents in the majority language even if one or both parents use the minority language. For this reason, Unsworth (2016: 140) objects to positioning siblings only as input providers and views them as "potential agents of change in the language use of other family members". On the other hand, older children can foster the process of minority language acquisition in the younger siblings by playing the role of teachers or role models (Gregory 1996; Gregory & Williams 2000). The results of Obied's (2009: 705) study of Portuguese-English bilingual families also demonstrated that older siblings might take the role of mediators of both languages in the family home and foster the bilingual development of younger children. In some cases, though, the birth of younger siblings provoked

a language change and a turn towards Portuguese. Thus, Kavanagh (2017: 211) holds the view that children should not be treated as input providers to younger siblings without prior encouragement or learning. This reflection also strongly reverberates in the conclusions of Kavanagh's (2017: 211) small-scale study. In general, older siblings who communicate only in the majority language with their brother or sister may impede their younger siblings' multilingual development and should not be treated as the main minority language providers. Following Kavanagh (2017: 211), it might be concluded that parents, not siblings, should be deemed responsible for providing the minority language input and engaging children in learning it by exposing them to media texts and enabling interaction with other speakers of the language.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research design

In order to address the research question posed (RQ1), a qualitative study was designed (Creswell 2014) and the semi-structured interview was employed as a research tool (Cross & Galletta 2013) to obtain "a thick description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural context" (Dörnyei 2007: 155). This kind of interview is "organized around a set of predetermined open-ended questions, with other questions emerging from the dialogue between interviewer and interviewee/s'" (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree 2006: 315). The interview draws on the fixed protocol that is supplemented with follow-up questions, probes or comments that enable the interviewee to clarify certain issues or provide a more detailed responses (Dörnyei 2007: 155; Wąsikiewicz-Firlej 2020). Semi-structured interviews are frequently applied in qualitative research to gather open-ended data offering insight into participants' personal experiences, attitudes, perceptions, emotions and beliefs concerning the topic under study in order to "understand the world from the subjects' point of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples' experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations" (Kvale 1996: 1). As this method typically resembles a dialogue between the interviewer and interviewee (e.g. Hatch 2002: 91), researchers often emphasise its relational character and see it as "a shared product of what two people – one the interviewer, the other the interviewee – talk about and how they talk together" (Josselson 2013: 1). Additionally, the case study design enables the researcher to investigate a rather unexplored, complex phenomena over a longer period of time, which would be highy challenging or simply not feasible to be explored by means of other methods (van Lier 2005: 195). Additionally, interviews with

children were supported by the visual portrait that in this study mostly played a role of a stimulus for eliciting verbal data (Busch 2018).

This study provides evidence from interviews with three individuals from one family (mother Aneta and two daughters, Lena and Kamila) with the experience of migration to Germany and return migration to Poland (see section 5.4 for more detailed profiles of the participants).

3.2. Data collection and analysis

The data were gathered by a trained research assistant in May 2021 who conducted interviews with volunteer participants. Due to the COVID-19 restrictions, all interviews were conducted online synchronously via a video communicator Skype. Having certain limitations of online interviewing in mind, in recent years it has become a widely applied and legitimate method of data collection (Hewson 2016; O'Connor & Claire 2016). The participants were informed about the aims of the study and expressed their consent to be audio-recorded but the parents made a restriction that only the transcription of the interview can be used for further analysis, quotes and data publication. Before the interview, the participants (children) were instructed by the research assistant to prepare their language portraits, by colouring in the A–4 template of body silhouette (Busch 2018), widely used in research on multilingual repertoires (see Wąsikiewicz-Firlej 2023 for a thorough discussion of the use of projective techniques). The participants were interviewed in Polish – their L1 and the children were assisted by their mother throughout the interview. The interview, which lasted 45 minutes, was audio-recorded, transcribed verbatim using Boje's (1991) simplified transcription conventions and translated into English. Afterwards, the whole corpus of data, including the portraits and interview audio transcription, underwent close reading and listening. Finally, the verbal data were divided into themes for a more detailed qualitative analysis. The interviews were conducted in Polish – all interview excerpts in this study have been translated from Polish to English.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Family profile

The family under study consists of four people: mother (Aneta, aged 36), father (Dawid, aged 39), and two daughters (Lena, aged 12 and Kamila, aged 7).

Driven mainly by economic reasons, the father migrated to Germany in 2012. After a year, his family joined him and spent there the next 7 years until August 2020 when they decided to return to Poland. All family members speak Polish as their first language (L1) and German as a second language (L2). Lena and Kamila also learn English at school which is their third language (L3). During his stay abroad, Dawid managed to learn German at the communicative level and used it at his workplace. Nevertheless, he frequently interacted with the Polish community and spoke Polish daily. According to the family members' declarations, Polish has always been the family's exclusive home language. The father, however, could not take part in the interview so any accounts concerning his language competence or attitude have been provided by his wife, Aneta. Accordingly, the discussion of the research results will be limited to the three respondents taking part in the study, i.e. Aneta (mother), Lena (older daughter) and Kamila (younger daughter). The descriptive data analysis will be followed by a discussion in the next section.

4.2. Descriptive data analysis: Interviewee 1 (Aneta)

Aneta (36), Kamila and Lena's mother, holds a master's degree in pedagogy and she currently works at school as a teacher responsible for taking care of children in the school common room. During her 7-year long stay in Germany, she managed to attain a B1-level of proficiency in German, which she considers "communicative". At the beginning of her stay abroad, the woman mostly spoke Polish in daily interactions with other members of the local Polish community and relied heavily on her compatriots' help in communication with German people. Later on, she became a communicative speaker of the German language and could function abroad in everyday contexts quite independently. Nevertheless, occasionally, her German neighbours helped her in situations when she failed to communicate on her own. Since most of her friends were Polish, her use of German was only limited to workplace settings or conversations with neighbours. Nowadays, after her return to Poland, she communicates exclusively in Polish.

Polish (L1) in Germany
Although initially the family did not plan to return to Poland and the migration seemed permanent, from the beginning of the family's settlement in Germany, Aneta took considerable effort to develop the children's proficiency in Polish and safeguard the position of Polish as the family's home language.

Excerpt 1
Aneta: [we spoke] Polish because it's our mother tongue and at home, we only spoke Polish at the beginning. So, I put a lot of emphasis on them [children] being able to speak and read in Polish. And write, of course.

Indeed, the family home offered a monolingual linguistic environment as Polish was always been used in all possible family interactions, i.e. between parents, parents and children and between siblings. Except for school where the children were exposed to and used German in interaction with teachers and peers, outside the family, they were also socialised mainly in Polish, both with extended family members and friends. Additionally, contacts with their relatives in Poland, as well as summer stays there, were rather frequent.

Except for developing language skills, Aneta also added that she made some efforts to strengthen the children's cultural identity defined by "Polish traditional values"[2], epitomising, in her view, family, Catholicism and patriotism. This process was fostered by common book reading and constant contact with Polish relatives.

Excerpt 2
Aneta: We celebrated all the national holidays either church holidays or patriotic ones, we inculcated this in the children. We read books in Polish and there was constant contact with the Polish family because they had to learn the Polish language… because the only family we have is in Poland and I can't imagine a situation where they didn't… I can imagine a situation where we all sit around the table, grandmas, grandpas, erm and girls can't talk to their grandmother or grandfather because they only speak German.

What also emerges from Excerpt 2 is Aneta's unsubstantiated anxiety concerning a possible L1 loss that seems rather unlikely given its exclusive use in family interactions.

In the interview, Aneta expresses her positive attitude to multilingualism on several occasions, e.g. "I believe if offers good prospects for the children's

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[2] According to sociological research, Polish core values have traditionally focused on the family, religiousness (identified with Catholicism), traditionalism, hospitability and home (cf. Jachnis & Terelak 1998). Other values highly appreciated in the past embraced patriotism and national themes present in Polish culture, especially evident in literature. At he same time, some researchers (e.g. Gach 1993; Krawczyk 1990) signal that the significance of these values is steadily diminishing. In a similar vein, nowadays religiousness, typically identified in Poland with Catholicism, cannot be automatically ascribed to all individuals. First, it would not be considered representative for the whole society or render the existing diversity. Contrary to the mainstream narrative, a 2018 survey by Pew Research Center (2018) showed that Poles under 45 were among the fastest secularising group among 106 nations under study.

future"; "I am all for children learning languages". As evidenced in the data, Aneta also shares a common myth concerning "effortless multilingualism" (cf. Grosjean 1997, 2021): "[…] the smaller the child, the quicker he or she acquires a language effortlessly, simply through play, and pictures and she doesn't even know that she is learning" (see Excerpt 5). Despite the declared appreciation of multilingualism as an asset, at the onset of their daughters' education in Germany, the parents shared certain concerns related to the girls', adaptation at school and relations with peers and their possible L1 loss. Over time, it turned out that the mother's concerns were unfounded. Although both the girls were schooled in Germany, they managed to settle in quickly in a different educational environment in Poland and build rapport with their new colleagues, which was certainly facilitated by the involvement of a Polish teacher who was always there to help with linguistic or socialising issues.

Their older daughter (Lena) was four when she arrived in Germany and it was not until she started a nursery school that she was first exposed to German.

Excerpt 3
Aneta: Uh, that was a big concern for me, because my daughter was four years old when she left Poland and started kindergarten there. But she adapted very well and was slowly introduced. Fortunately, there was also a Polish woman […], a Polish teacher, who offered her help and so it went on somehow.

Although the younger daughter (Kamila) was born in Germany, it was not until she turned three that she started her formal education and began learning German. As emphasised by the mother, the nursery school played a crucial role in the process of acquiring German by her daughters.

The children were also exposed to L1 thanks to attending a Polish Saturday School, offering classes in Polish and Catholic religious education. As declared by their mother, the children enthusiastically participated in these classes. Due to the lack of relevant data, it is now impossible to verify whether the children share this opinion.

Excerpt 4
Aneta: Yes, there was a school. It was located next to the Polish church uhm once a week we used to take them to religion and Polish classes. Ehm, they were very happy there… there were various games organised by this Polish school, for example, a carnival party or a children's day, and some different Polish festivals. [laughter]

Due to the parent's engagement in developing their children's proficiency in Polish, the return to Poland was smooth. After several years of education in the German system, i.e. two years of nursery school and five years of primary

school in the case of the older daughter and two years of nursery school and one year of primary school in the case of the younger one, the girls transitioned to the Polish system of education rather effortlessly.

German (L2) in Poland

Although Aneta believes that living in multilingual settings can provide children with a better future, especially when new languages are acquired at a young age, the family does not seem to take the advantage of the girls' early exposure to German and their competence in this language. A year after their return to Poland (2021), Aneta observes, with regret, that her younger daughter (Kamila) has almost lost her German (although this has not been formally verified in any way) and is only using Polish, contrary to the older daughter (Lena) who is still competent in her L2. Aneta believes that her older daughter, Lena, owes her competence in German to a longer period of formal schooling in Germany compared to her younger sister. Currently, Aneta's daughters, especially the younger Kamila, are practically deprived of any possibility of being exposed to German or learning it formally, which gradually becomes a foreign language to them. This appears hard to understand from a linguist's perspective, since finding some free materials for learning German or simply accessing German media in Poland seems relatively easy. The girls, however, are not encouraged or instructed on how to use them. For the time being, Aneta does not take any measures to support L2 maintenance shifting the whole responsibility for this process to the school and her children's informal contacts. The only activity fostering L2 is a possible short visit to Germany in the near future:

Excerpt 5
Interviewer: Uhm, and do you support your children's language learning in any way?
Aneta: Well, at the moment they only learn English here at school. They don't learn German yet in primary school, only from the 7th grade. Which I think is a pity, because **the smaller the child, the quicker he or she acquires a language effortlessly, simply through play, and pictures and she doesn't even know that she is learning**. [emphasis added]
[…] **Well, unfortunately, I don't have enough time for that** [emphasis added], but I often hear how my older daughter has contact with German friends from her old class and school and they often write and talk. We are still planning to go back to Germany for a week to visit these friends.

In Poland, children typically learn English as their first foreign language from the onset of their primary education. Learning a second foreign language (e.g. German, Spanish, French, Russian or any other modern language, depending on the school's resources), begins in the seventh grade of primary school (at the

age of 13/14). For this reason, the older daughter, who is still in the sixth grade, will have German classes at school in a year. It must be emphasised, however, that these classes are for complete beginners and it is very unlikely that Lena will benefit much. Despite these apparent limitations, Aneta emphasises that she has always been an advocate of teaching children foreign languages and expresses her enthusiasm about her daughter learning two foreign languages in the future. In reality, however, she fails to find the time and resources to support this process in any way (see Excerpt 5). Ultimately, she hopes that the education her daughters receive in school will suffice to maintain German. When asked about strategies for L2 maintenance in the future, Aneta again relies solely on school education.

Although the formal provision of German has not begun yet, the school takes certain initiatives to promote this language. Aneta reveals that her daughter has already participated in a German language competition at school targeting older pupils.

> **Excerpt 6**
> Interviewer: Uhm, and does the school help your children in any way to develop their linguistic skills? Does it support them knowing that they have studied German before? […]
> Aneta: I think so because the older daughter has had the opportunity to participate in uhm competitions in German, for example, the Zdolny Ślązak competition, while she is currently in the sixth grade, and children enter this competition uh rather yes only from the seventh grade, because this German language is only in the seventh grade at our school and I think it was also such a new experience for her there so the school made it possible to her as well as the teachers.

In sum, as evidenced in the data, contrary to the declared appreciation of multilingualism, the parents have primarily focused on the development of L1. Irrespective of their place of residence, either Poland or Germany, Polish has always played a central role in family communication. As far as the maintenance of L2 is concerned, parents seem to have taken a "let it go attitude", probably guided by their lay belief that becoming multilingual does not take much effort and does not require any support.

4.3. Descriptive data analysis: Interviewee 2 (Lena)

Lena is twelve years old and attends the sixth grade of primary school. She considers Polish her L1 and evaluates her knowledge of German (L2) as "good". Additionally, she has been learning English at school for four years. Lena seems rather confident about her competence both in Polish and German.

Excerpt 7
Interviewer: Lena, how well do you know Polish and how well do you know German?
Lena: I know the Polish language very well. I can read, write and read with under-standing. I can also speak Polish well. I also speak German very well and can read, write and speak German.

In her language portrait (Figure 1), Lena represented Polish with red "veins" throughout the whole-body silhouette to symbolise the crucial role her L1 plays in her life, especially in communicating with her friends and family.

Excerpt 8
Interviewer: Okay. And here I see red lines like in Kamila's picture.
Lena: Yes, red lines, because I have red blood flowing in me um it means that I will always be Polish (4.0)
Interviewer: And they are all over your body?
Lena: Yes. […] Yes, Polish is my uhm (5.0) my uhm mother tongue (…) and it is an important language for me because without it I wouldn't get along with my family and my friends.

The symbolism of blood, shared by both sisters, might come as a surprise yet neither of the girls (also see the next section) elaborates on the choice of this imagery so it is unclear how they have internalised this ideology. Along with her strong identification with Polish, Lena also expressed her attachment to the German language. Her positive attitude towards L2, represented in the language portrait as green, is also evidenced in the girl's narration about Germany presented as a country worth visiting with beautiful nature associated with pleasant outdoor activities. The German language is placed in the respondent's legs to render her association with the language and sight-seeing beautiful sites that requires walking. Despite her young age (12), Lena already sees a practical value in mastering German as a language that might be useful in the future.

Excerpt 9
Lena: I speak two languages, German and Polish. Ehm… Polish is very important to me because without it I wouldn't be able to get on with my family and friends, and in the shops and so on. German is also important to me, but a little less so, because I dont use it daily, only when I go to Germany or something like that, but I think it will be useful for me in the future (3.0).

Lena sets clear contextual boundaries between her use of L1 and L2. In Po-land, she uses almost only Polish as her use of German is limited to occasional interactions with her old classmates and colleagues from Germany. On the other

hand, while in Germany she mostly used German in interactions outside her family, except for one colleague she communicated with in Polish.

Excerpt 10
Lena: Uhm, now I use Polish at home and in Germany I also used Polish. […] Now I only use Polish because I have no friends or […] anyone who speaks German and with whom I can get along.
Interviewer: But you still have contact with your German friends with whom you talk?
Lena: Yes, I talk to them often and text them.
Interviewer: And what language did you use when you lived in Germany and left home?
Lena: I mostly used German because um I had a lot of German friends, um who couldn't speak Polish and mostly that German, but I also had, for example, I think one friend who also spoke Polish, so with her I sometimes used German, sometimes Polish.

Lena recalls that after her return to Poland she occasionally mixed the codes and was short of some words in Polish. In such situations, which were rather infrequent, she used a German equivalent. Currently, however, code-mixing is a thing of the past and while in Poland, Lena communicates exclusively in Polish with confidence.

Excerpt 11
Interviewer: (3.0) And did you often face this situation when you changed language? You would say something in Polish and add some words in German or vice versa?
Lena: Yes, it happened. Mostly when I was already living in Poland I still mixed this German language with Polish. For example, when I forgot the name of a flower in Polish, for example, I had no other option and I had to somehow weave this German into a sentence erm (2.0).
Interviewer: So you just lacked a word sometimes?
Lena: Yes.
Interviewer: And that often happened?
Lena: Erm, no. (2.0) I mean well it happened. (3.0) No. I mean [laughter] well not often.
Interviewer: Erm, and now it still happens?
Lena: No, not anymore. Uhm, now I use Polish at home, and in Germany, I also used Polish.

Lena seems motivated to learn languages and she is convinced that her command of German is very good and she will benefit from it in the future. On the other hand, after a while of reflection, she expressed certain criticism when it comes to the real support of L2 maintenance by her parents. Despite her enthusiasm and internal drive for L2 learning, she feels that her progress

is slowed down by a lack of learning materials, especially handbooks. The girl also drops a critical comment that her parents fail to motivate her to work on her L2 development or invest in it.

> **Excerpt 12**
> Interviewer: Uhm, ok, and do you care about learning languages as much as your parents do?
> Lena: I think yes because it's an important language though and I know it well and I don't want to erm want to forget it because I think it will be useful for me in the future.
> Interviewer: And do your parents encourage you to learn German?
> Lena: Well, no, because […] I want to do it out of my own will and I rarely learn this German because I didn't have German books or something to learn from, well but I am not encouraged by my parents.

When it comes to the use of language at home, Lena appears to be satisfied with communicating with her parents exclusively in Polish and would not like to change it. Her only suggestion concerns the language used to communicate with her sister. The girl believes they both would benefit if they started to speak German in their interactions, at least occasionally.

> **Excerpt 13**
> Interviewer: And would you like to change something in terms of using the language at home, for example, or outside the home and learning languages?
> Lena: Erm… I could, on the other hand, change […] the language I speak at home, in the sense with my sister… I could change it. I could speak German to her because she has forgotten the language a bit. I would like to teach her a bit that way, but the way it is with my mum and dad, I think I would like to keep it that way, in Polish.

What appears striking in the above excerpt, is the concern for Kamila's L2 loss and the responsibility Lena wishes to take for its maintenance. Despite her young age, Lena manifests a certain level of agency and independence in shaping FLP.

Another important theme in Lena's narrative is the support offered by the school for her L2 maintenance and development. As she recalls, one teacher from her school noticed that she had a pretty good command of German and felt that such an asset could not be wasted. For this reason, he encouraged the girl to participate in a German language competition, originally targeting older pupils.

> **Excerpt 14**
> Interviewer: […] your mum also mentioned the German competition you took part in.
> Lena: Yes, I took part in a German competition. And there erm I got to the final and then, unfortunately, I didn't make it any further.

Interviewer: But you were chosen by your teachers?

Lena: Yes, […] one of our teachers at our school sort of sent me there because he said I couldn't forget the language because I could speak German well and he just didn't want me to forget it, that's why he sent me there. And it was good for me because erm I also learned new things and I also revised some things that here in Poland at home I couldn't revise because I didn't have books.

As evidenced in the above excerpt, taking part in the competition meant a lot to Lena and the teacher's encouragement inspired her to work harder on her L2. Lena believes that thanks to this competition she has learned some new things and had the opportunity to polish her German.

In general, Lena exhibits a highly positive attitude to learning languages and is likely to become a plurilingual person in the future. At school, the girl also learns English but she is not proficient in using it. Nevertheless, she is determined to improve it and enthusiastically acquires it through listening to songs and watching videos on YouTube as well as attending English classes at school. In her language portrait, Lena also features the French language, coded as pink to symbolise fashion, and Croatian coloured yellow to render sunny beaches and pleasant holiday memories related to Croatia (see Figure 1). The girl, however, does not have any competence in these languages – she only mentioned them incidentally to share some positive associations that they evoke.

4.4. Descriptive data analysis: Interviewee 3 (Kamila)

Kamila, Lena's younger seven-year-old sister, is fluent in Polish but has almost lost her German. Although the girl was exposed to German since her birth in Germany and used to speak it fluently, now Kamila claims to find it challenging even to understand the language. It must be noted, however, that Kamila's actual competence in German has not been verified – its evaluation is based on the declarative accounts of the interview participants.

Excerpt 15

Kamila: I speak Polish very well, but German… I don't understand anything.

Interviewer: But you understood it before?

Kamila: Yes, I understood it before.

Interviewer: But you do not remember it now, right?

Kamila: No, I don't remember anything anymore.

Interviewer: And how long have you leant German?

Kamila: Seven years.

Interviewer: [laughter] so since you were born?

Kamila: Yes. [laughter]

In contrast to her sister, Kamila features only two languages in her language portrait (Figure 2), i.e. Polish and German. Both sisters, however, use similar imagery to represent Polish, pictured as red lines ("veins") across the whole silhouette, to render it as blood symbolising origin and ancestry. The girl, however, does not provide any further explanations concerning this ideology epitomising language with nation and blood. Importantly, Kamila makes it clear that her birth in Germany does not automatically define her national identity.

Excerpt 16
Interviewer: Kamila, please tell me about your drawing.
Kamila: Erm, I painted the red blood here because even though I lived in Germany this does not mean that I am German. (191–200)

As expressed further in the interview, the girl has rather positive memories of her stay in Germany, especially those related to her school where she used to go to with pleasure. Although she prefers her current school in Poland, in her language portrait Kamila used the colour of her school building in Germany – orange – to represent German. The placement of German in the legs in the language portrait reflects Kamila's association with going to school in Germany.

As far the German language acquisition is concerned, it seemed a challenge compared to the effortless acquisition of Polish. While in Germany, Kamila was able to communicate in German as "it was the only way to communicate with other people". It was also a must to attend school and interact with classmates and friends. She also remembers occasional code-switching between her L1 and L2. In Poland, she communicates in Polish exclusively.

Excerpt 17
Interviewer: And is Polish difficult for you?
Kamila: No, it isn't.
Interviewer: So, is German easier or more difficult?
Kamila: More difficult.
Interviewer: And what language do you use at home when you do your homework, for example, playing with your sister, cleaning?
Kamila: Uhm no, I use Polish all the time, I don't use German.
Interviewer: Uhm… and what language did you use when you lived in Germany outside your home? For example, at school, on the playground, at the shop?
Kamila: On the playground with my friend, it was erm I used to talk in Polish because he is also Polish.
Interviewer: Uhm. And at school?
Kamila: And at school, I was already speaking in German, because I had to do it there, because nobody would […] understand me.

Kamila sees much less value in learning German than her sister. Similarly to Lena, she also observes that her parents are not really engaged in her L2 maintenance and do not really encourage her to use or learn German. Yet, in contrast to her sister, she accepts the status quo and appears satisfied with the exclusive use of Polish in all domains. In her case, learning German is not fostered by the school as at her age this is not part of the curriculum. The girl is not even sure whether she will learn it in the future. Currently, she is learning English at school.

Excerpt 18
Interviewer: (5.0) And do you care about learning German as much as your parents do?
Kamila: No.
Interviewer: And do your parents urge you to learn German?
Kamila: No.
Interviewer: And would you like to change something in terms of using languages at home or outside the home and learning languages? For example, would you like to learn more German?
Kamila: No, I wouldn't like that.
Interviewer: Does it suit you that you use Polish at home or would you prefer it to be it be German?
Kamila: Polish.
Interviewer: (2.0) And do you still get the chance to learn German at school?
Kamila: Yes.
Interviewer: And are you studying now?
Kamila: Not yet, but I don't know if I will study.

Although Kamila notices her parents' lack of involvement in L2 maintenance, she does not question it and seems to share her parents' FLP. After her return to Poland, the girl immediately adapted to the new circumstances and treats Germany as a thing of the past. She has accepted the rapidly progressing process of L2 loss and does express any regrets.

5. CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, IMPLICATIONS

The data gathered in the study have illustrated the fluid and pragmatic character of FLP modified by changing life trajectories of the family under scrutiny as evidenced by different language management of L1 (Polish) and L2 (German) in the context of migration and return migration. As far as the FLP towards L1 is concerned, it has been consistent at the level of ideology, practices and management. The parents, especially the mother, were determined to develop L1 and took certain efforts to ensure it. First of all, they communicated exclu-

sively in Polish at home and maintained bonds with their relatives and friends in Poland with whom they interacted regularly. In Germany, they also mostly socialised with members of a Polish community. Additionally, the mother took some measures to develop her daughters' literacy skills in Polish. The girls also attended a Polish Saturday School in Germany which offered rich linguistic and cultural support. As a result, after the return migration to Poland, both children integrated with the Polish school system smoothly and did not encounter any significant language barrier. The FLP towards L2 was, however, quite different. When in Germany, the parents understood the need for L2 acquisition and managed to achieve a communicative level in German. Their daughters were exposed to German mostly in educational institutions (kindergarten, school) since the age of three and throughout their stay in Germany (7 years) became rather proficient users of this language. The parents, however, did not interfere in this process and let schools, teachers and their daughters' peers "do the job". Despite declarative support for multilingualism, after returning to Poland, the parents took little, not to say no effort, to foster their daughters' L2. In time, they passively accepted the gradual L2 loss, which was particularly rapid (at least at the declarative level) in the case of Kamila, who within less than a year almost "forgot the whole German". Again, the parents were convinced that the school was entirely responsible for their daughters' linguistic development and practically did not engage in active language management.

The results of the study have also shown the agency of children in shaping FLP, often in opposition to their parents and/or siblings as evidenced, e.g. in Hunt and Davis's study (2022). Lena remains critical of her parents' lack of engagement in supporting L2 maintenance and demonstrated certain reflection and agency in setting her own FLP. The girl is determined to maintain her L2 and takes her independent initiative to do so, such as keeping in touch with her friends in Germany to communicate with them in German. Although her mother has expressed pride in her daughter's success in a German language competition, a certain theme of regret for progressing L2 loss emerged from the girl's narrative. Lena has complained that she is not even provided with the proper educational materials to study German, not to mention any additional classes. She is aware that after her family's return to Poland, her incidental interactions with friends in Germany are not sufficient to maintain L2 and more systematic actions should be taken. The only person who encourages Lena to work on her L2 and takes any initiative has been her school teacher, which confirms the importance of family-school cooperation in the child's multilingual development (Szczepaniak-Kozak et al. 2023). Additionally, Lena has voiced her concern about her younger sister's L2 loss. Seeing her parent's inertia, the girl intends to take responsibility for developing Kamila's competence in German, which is not in

line with Stevenson and Carl's (2010) or Stavans and Hoffman's (2015) recommendations allocating responsibility for the linguistic development of children to parents, not siblings. Kamila, on the other hand, does not seem as motivated as her sister to continue maintaining L2 and has accepted her declared fast progressing L2 loss, even having expressed her satisfaction with the current FLP and the exclusive use of Polish.

Similarly to previous research (e.g. Wąsikiewicz-Firlej 2016; Hirsch & Lee 2018; Wąsikiewicz-Firlej & Lankiewicz 2019), the current study has shown a discrepancy between the parents' ideologies and the actual practices and management of the family language use. When it comes to L2, the parents' actions were underpinned by the common myth (cf. Grosjean 1997; 2021) that children acquire language effortlessly and do not require much support in this respect. Consequently, after returning to Poland their investment in L2 maintenance was minimal – the children were not even actively encouraged to access German-speaking media or free educational resources. As a result, L2 has become more like a foreign language taught formally at school along with English, irrespective of the possible educational and professional benefits it could offer in the future. On the other hand, in the case of L1 the parents were determined to maintain L1 seeing it as a part of their identity and without any linguistic training, they took a range of activities (e.g. attending a Polish Saturday School, literacy, contact with family, friends, the importance of socialisation and being part of a Polish-speaking community). These measures turned effective for L1 proficiency development but were never applied to foster L2 acquisition and maintenance. Thus, despite the declared support for multilingualism, the parents in the family under study showcased a particular attachment to their L1 as a strong marker of identity and prioritised its maintenance in the context of migration. Throughout their stay in Germany, the family maintained strong bonds with their country of origin and Polish relatives and friends and socialised mainly with members of a Polish-speaking community. At the same time, they took no initiative to manage L2 maintenance after their return to Poland.

As far as pedagogical implications are concerned, the study has pointed to the need for family-school cooperation. First and foremost, parents should be fully aware that multilingual repertoires are an asset but the responsibility for developing their children's linguistic capital should not be delegated solely to schools. Contrary to the parents' lay beliefs reflecting a common myth of children's effortless multilingual development, the maintenance of L2 does indeed require active engagement and support of caregivers (Curdt-Christiansen & Lanza 2018: 123). Our study has also emphasised the role of family-school coop-

eration in fostering children's multilingual development (also see Ballweg 2022; Szczepaniak-Kozak et al. 2023; Rokita-Jaśkow in this issue). The main limitation of the research undertaken is the case-study design which renders it impossible to generalise the results of the study. Yet this exploratory study can serve as a springboard for large-scale studies.

Overall, having in mind methodological limitations, it might be concluded that the data in the current study provided some evidence that the maintenance and acquisition of L2 after return migration requires considerable determination, resources and, most preferably, institutional support.

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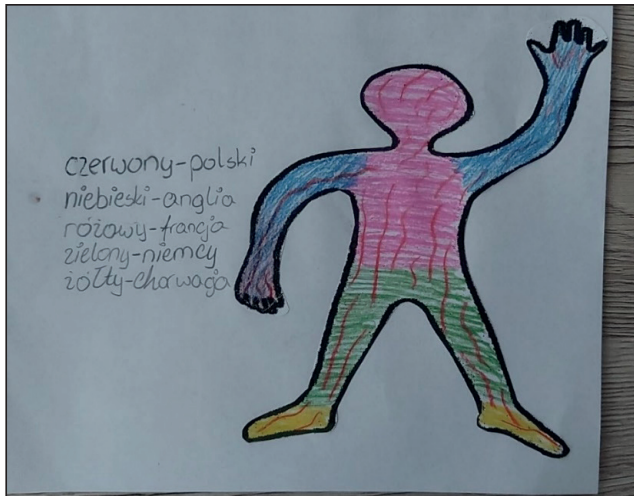
APPENDIX

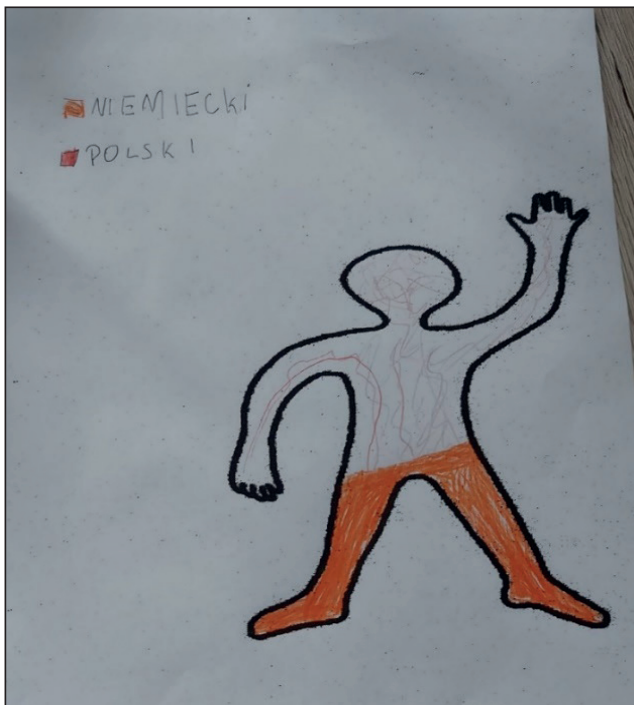**Figure 1.** Lena's language portrait

Figure 2. Kamila's language portrait

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Rodzinna polityka językowa w kontekście migracji powrotnych: studium przypadku

ABSTRAKT. Migracji powrotnej poświęcono prawdopodobnie najmniej uwagi w obszarze rodzinnej polityki językowej (RPL). Niniejszy artykuł stara się wypełnić tę lukę i skupia się na dynamice RPL polskiej rodziny w kontekście jej tymczasowej migracji do Niemiec i migracji powrotnej do Polski. Autorki zgłębiają, jak mobilność wpływa na RPL, zwłaszcza w stosunku do L1 (polski) i L2 (niemiecki) w kontekście migracji i migracji powrotnej. W badaniu zastosowano jakościowe podejście badawcze oparte na wywiadach wspomaganych techniką portretu językowego. Analiza danych z wywiadów wykazała silne wsparcie rodziców dla utrzymania i rozwoju L1 w trakcie całego procesu migracji i migracji powrotnej oraz jego brak w przypadku L2 po powrocie do Polski. Wyniki pokazały również, że członkowie rodziny, w tym dzieci, mają znaczną autonomię i sprawczość oraz mogą kształtować swoją niezależną RPL, która nie jest zbieżna ani z polityką rodziców, ani rodzeństwa.

II. BOOK REVIEWS

Joanna Targońska. *Die Entwicklung der Kollokationskompetenz im DaF-Unterricht am Beispiel des Erwerbs von Substantiv-Verb-Kollokationen*. Berlin u.a.: Peter Lang. 2021. S. 512

Die Kollokationskompetenz, die eine breite Palette von Wissen über die kombinatorische Verwendung von lexikalischen Einheiten beinhaltet, ist ein wichtiger, jedoch oft vernachlässigter Bestandteil der expliziten Wortschatzarbeit im institutionellen Fremdsprachenunterricht. Lehrkräfte schenken den Kollokationen in der Regel keine oder zu wenig Aufmerksamkeit. Sie sind sich oft nicht bewusst, dass die Lernenden durch die gezielte Förderung der Kollokationskompetenz ihre sprachliche Fertigkeit verbessern können und in die Lage versetzt werden, sich effizient und fließend in der Fremdsprache auszudrücken (vgl. Šnjarić 2009: 277; Targońska 2014: 128, 2015: 125, 2019: 184, Stojić & Košuta 2020: 8–9). Obwohl Kollokationen als konventionelle feste Wortverbindungen schon seit einigen Jahrzehnten als Forschungsgegenstand der Sprachwissenschaft und der Fremdsprachendidaktik immer mehr ins Zentrum des Interesses rücken, stellen empirische Forschungen zur Entwicklung der Kollokationskompetenz, insbesondere im DaF-Unterricht bzw. DaF-Lernprozess, immer noch ein Desiderat dar. Mit der neuesten Monografie von Joanna Targońska, die 2021 im Verlag Peter Lang erschienen ist, wird diese Forschungslücke geschlossen. Das Buch, das den Erwerb der Kollokationskompetenz in einem authentischen universitären DaF-Unterricht thematisiert, besteht aus der Einleitung, fünf Kapiteln, dem Schlusswort und dem Ausblick, dem Anhang sowie dem Abbildungs-, Diagramm-, Tabellen- und Literaturverzeichnis.

Im ersten Kapitel präsentiert die Autorin unterschiedliche Auffassungen des Kollokationsbegriffs, indem sie an die sprachwissenschaftlichen und fremdsprachendidaktischen Konzeptionen anknüpft, die sich auf das Französische, das Englische, das Spanische, das Deutsche und das Italienische beziehen. Da die Grenzen zwischen Kollokationen und anderen benachbarten Sprachphänomenen wie Idiomen, (idiomatischen) Redewendungen bzw. Halbidiomen und freien Wortverbindungen ziemlich fließend sind, werden Ähnlichkeiten und Unterschiede an konkreten Beispielen verdeutlicht. Besondere Hervorhebung verdienen die Funktionsverbgefüge (FVG), die von einigen Kollokationsforschern aus der Gruppe der Kollokationen ausgeschlossen werden. Die Autorin führt überzeugende Argumente für die Aufnahme von FVG in die Gruppe der Kollokationen an. Bedeutsam für die weiteren Ausführungen ist die detaillierte Behandlung der grundlegenden Eigenschaften von Kollokationen aus semantischer und syntaktischer Sicht. Im nächsten Schritt wird auf die Charakteristik und Klassifizierung der Substantiv-Verb-Kollokationen (auch verbonominale Kollokationen genannt) näher eingegangen, die den eigentlichen Forschungsgegenstand der Autorin dar-

stellen. Zu betonen ist die Definition des Kollokationsbegriffs, die Targońska für die Zwecke ihrer Studie vorschlägt: „Kollokationen werden […] als konventionelle, assoziativ gerichtete Wortverbindungen mit einer normbedingten Kookkurrenz der Glieder und einer semantisch binären Struktur aufgefasst, die zum Ausdruck verschiedener Sachverhalte dienen und das lexikalische Bild einer Sprachgemeinschaft widerspiegeln" (S. 107). Im Anschluss daran werden charakteristische Eigenschaften der Kollokationen behandelt, die für den Erwerbs-prozess des fremdsprachlichen Wortschatzes und somit für die Fremdsprachendidaktik ausschlaggebend sind.

Das zweite Kapitel verschafft einen bis dato nicht vorhandenen, detaillierten Überblick über den Forschungsstand zu Kollokationen. Die Aufmerksamkeit der Autorin richtet sich vor allem auf die fremdsprachenerwerbsorientierten Kollokationsuntersuchungen, die sich auf den Erwerb und das Lernen von Kollokationen im unterrichtsgesteuerten Lernprozess einer Fremdsprache beziehen und in deren Zentrum der Fremdsprachenlernende steht. Fo-kussiert werden empirische Studien zur Behandlung von Kollokationen in Lehrwerken und in anderen Lehr- und Lernmaterialien. Außerdem liefert Targońska interessante Erkenntnisse zum Erwerb von Kollokationen durch Lesen sowie zu deren Gebrauch durch Fremdsprachen-lernende in der schriftlichen und mündlichen Sprachverwendung. Hervorhebung verdienen auch Untersuchungen zur Erfassung des Kollokationsbewusstseins der Fremdsprachenler-nenden beim Gebrauch von Wörterbüchern und Korpora bzw. bei Übersetzungsprozessen. Von hohem Wert sind aus didaktischer Sicht ebenfalls die Ergebnisse der von Targońska genannten Studien zum Einfluss der Führung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts (z. B. der Form- und Bedeutungsorientierung bzw. der expliziten und impliziten Präsentationstechniken) auf die Entwicklung der Kollokationskompetenz. Abschließend wird noch der Zusammenhang zwischen der Kollokationskenntnis und anderen Sprachfertigkeiten erläutert.

Im dritten Kapitel wird die Stellung der Kollokationskompetenz innerhalb der Wort-schatzkompetenz beschrieben. Erläutert wird der Zusammenhang zwischen der Kenntnis von Kollokationen als Komponenten der lexikalischen Einheiten und der Wortschatz- bzw. der lexikalischen Kompetenz. Die Autorin geht von Begriffen wie *Kompetenz* und *Wortkenntnis* aus, die in den letzten 50 Jahren mehrmals modifiziert wurden. Dann stellt sie die Stellung der lexikalischen Kompetenz und verschiedene Auffassungen des Konzepts in unterschiedlichen Kompetenzmodellen dar, in denen sie explizit oder implizit genannt wird. Als eine wichtige Subkompetenz der lexikalischen Kompetenz betrachtet Targońska die Kollokationskompetenz, die folgendermaßen definiert wird:

> die Fähigkeit eines Menschen […], dem Input feste, konventionalisierte und reproduzier-bare Elemente des Sprachgebrauchs entnehmen zu können (reflexive Kollokationskompe-tenz, Kollokationsbewusstheit), deren Bedeutung und Funktion zu erschließen (rezeptive Kollokationskompetenz), Kollokationen in das Netzwerk der lexikalischen Einheiten im mentalen Lexikon einzugliedern und mental vernetzt zu speichern (Kollokationsbewusst-sein, Kollokationslernbewusstheit), die bekannten Vokabeln um kollokationale Partner zu erweitern (reflexive Kollokationskompetenz und Wortschatzerweiterungsstrategien) sowie die Fähigkeit, auf kollokationale Wortverbindungen im mentalen Lexikon bei der Sprachproduktion zugreifen zu können (produktive Kollokationskompetenz) (S. 200–201)

Zu betonen ist hier die Mehrdimensionalität der vorgeschlagenen Definition von Kollokationskompetenz, die in den bisherigen Untersuchungen noch nicht so genau herausgearbeitet wurde.

Im vierten Kapitel konzentriert sich die Autorin auf die mentalen Prozesse, die die Kollokationskompetenz im Fremdsprachenunterricht fördern können. Im Mittelpunkt ihrer Ausführungen steht das Konzept *Language Awareness*, das eine wichtige Rolle in der fremdsprachigen Wortschatzarbeit und beim Wortschatzlernen spielt. Von hohem Erkenntniswert ist die ausführliche Differenzierung zweier Begriffe, die mit *Language Awareness* verbunden sind und den Erwerb bzw. die Entwicklung der Kollokationskompetenz beeinflussen können: *Sprachbewusstsein* und *Sprach(lern)bewusstheit*. Außerdem wird der enge Zusammenhang zwischen der Reflexion über die Sprache, der Sprachbewusstheit und der Kollokationskompetenz verdeutlicht. Innovativ ist der Vorschlag der Autorin zur Einbeziehung der Kollokations(lern)-bewusstheit und des Kollokationsbewusstseins in verschiedene Arten der Sprachbewusstheit.

Das fünfte, empirisch ausgerichtete Kapitel widmet sich der Präsentation der Ergebnisse einer explorativ-interpretativen Longitudinalstudie, die in der Kollokationsforschung nur selten Anwendung findet. Die Autorin hat sich zum Ziel gesetzt zu untersuchen, wie sich die Kollokationskompetenz bei polnischen Germanistikstudierenden im Laufe von zwei Jahren entwickelt und wie diese durch implizite didaktische Maßnahmen (Aufmerksamkeitssteuerung) in einem authentischen universitären DaF-Unterricht gefördert werden kann. Die qualitative und quantitative Auswertung der umfangreichen empirischen Daten erlaubt es festzustellen, welche der elizitierten Kollokationen, mit denen die Probandinnen und Probanden früher konfrontiert worden waren, produktiv abgerufen und somit beherrscht werden. Das Augenmerk wurde auch insbesondere auf solche Kollokationen gerichtet, die von den Studierenden in schriftlichen Texten verwendet wurden. Relevant war dabei auch die Ermittlung der Fehler und ihrer Ursachen beim Erwerb und Gebrauch von Kollokationen. Von großem Vorteil ist zudem die hier eingesetzte Triangulation der Forschungsmethoden und Forschungsinstrumente, wodurch es möglich war, die Untersuchungsteilnehmenden aus unterschiedlichen Perspektiven zu beobachten und „neben ihren Kollokationskenntnissen auch ihre subjektiven Theorien, d. h. ihre Meinungen, Überzeugungen, Einschätzungen und Einstellungen sowie Änderungen in ihrem lexikalischen Lernen" (S. 458–459) zu bestimmen. Als unkonventionelles Forschungsinstrument zur Erfassung der Kollokationskompetenz gilt das Assoziogramm, das ein Novum der Kollokationsforschung darstellt.

Im Schlusswort formuliert die Autorin wichtige Richtlinien für die Erforschung der Kollokationskompetenz im Fremdsprachenunterricht und verweist auch auf noch offene Fragen in der Kollokationsforschung, die neue Anregungen für weitere Forschungsarbeiten geben können. Zu untersuchen ist u. a. der Einfluss der Satzgliedart der Kollokationsbasis auf die Effizienz des Erwerbs von Kollokationen bzw. der Einfluss des kommunikativen Wertes der Kollokationen auf deren Beherrschungsgrad.

Resümierend lässt sich feststellen, dass die besprochene Monografie viele interessante Erkenntnisse liefert, die neue Einblicke in die Wortschatzlernprozesse und den Erwerb der Kollokationskompetenz der DaF-Lernenden gewähren können. Die Studie kann den Fremdsprachenlehrenden und -lernenden bewusst machen, dass der Aufbau einer fremdsprachigen Kollokationskompetenz einen kleinschrittigen und langwierigen Prozess darstellt, der eine

explizite Arbeit an Kollokationen erfordert. Die Fremdsprachenlernenden sollten im Unterricht möglichst früh für Kollokationen als konventionelle feste Wortverbindungen und ihre Relevanz beim Wortschatzlernen sensibilisiert werden. Denn ohne die Aneignung von Kollokationskompetenz beim Fremdsprachenlernen ist der Erwerb der Wortschatzkompetenz nicht möglich bzw. bleibt unvollständig.

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Carmen King Ramírez / **Barbara A. Lafford** / **James E. Wermers**. *Online world language instruction training and assessment: An ecological approach*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press. 2021. Pp. 298

Providing teachers and instructors with training programs focusing on the appropriate use of technology has been always a concern for all stakeholders involved in language teaching and learning. Scholars from all around the world suggested various models and frameworks regarding Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and/or Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL) teacher education (e.g. Hubbard & Levy 2006; Mishra & Koehler 2006; Thai 2015). However, during the Covid-19 pandemic (Radić, Atabekova & Schmied 2021), competencies and abilities in using technology for learning and teaching practices received increased attention, and post-pandemic research will surely investigate teacher education in CALL, training challenges, and opportunities in various perspectives.

Designing and delivering online and blended courses requires several principles and standards to be determined and maintained (Russell & Murphy-Judy 2021). However, a number of challenges and opportunities have resulted from pandemic-related developments in online language teaching and learning. These include (a) providing appropriate training programs, (b) determining the content of these programs, (c) assessing the skills and training of online language teachers and instructors, (d) regarding online language teaching, the main concerns appear to be finding solutions to determining how to provide training programs, determining the content of these programs, and assessing the skills and training of online language teachers and instructors. These concerns also require integration of new technologies (Godwin-Jones 2021), and (e) the use of instruments and new rubrics in training programs that will reconsider learning and teaching situations and established approaches and methods in language education (Psoinos 2021).

The book written by Carmen King Ramírez, Barbara A. Lafford, and James E. Wermers includes 10 chapters in addition to the authors' introduction and three appendices. The book mainly aims to present CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) and CET (Computer Teacher Education) to discuss how online language instructors can be assessed.

After the authors' succinct introduction to the importance of CALL technologies and language teacher training programs, the first chapter 'The challenges of moving online', shows the main differences between face-to-face (F2F) classrooms and the online teaching classroom. Due to these differences, such as the screen as the space for teaching and learning, interaction, and assessment, and since, after the pandemic, online teaching and learning practices will have an important role in education, the authors call for special attention to training and assessing teachers and lecturers. Therefore, it can be stated that the experiences of teaching and learning during the pandemic will not only impact future teaching design but also how this design will be combined into content.

In Chapter 2, 'CALL teacher education for online environments', CALL Teacher Education programs are reviewed considering previous research conducted on the content and format of these training programs. As most of the teacher training programs focus on F2F training programs or blended learning environments, this chapter focuses on how to teach and train teachers in completely online environments. It also considers informal training alternatives, which I believe will play a crucial role in self-directed learning (Godwin-Jones, 2021). The chapter proposes nine essential elements for training: (a) Considering the audience for CTE training, (b) Conducting a needs analysis, (c) Taking a breadth-first versus depth-first approach, (d) Including situated learning, (e) Using technology to teach technology, (f) Developing project-based learning, (g) Including reflective learning, (h) Implementing collaborative learning and communities of practice, and (i) Integrating teacher technology standards into CTE. I find the 'Conducting a needs analysis' section particularly relevant, as this is the stage where the instructors' knowledge and pedagogical skills are determined, and how often they use and/or will need to use certain technological devices and applications.

Chapter 3, 'Online language instructor training challenges and strategies', investigates the challenges in CTE online training. The major challenges are shown to be the resistance and the lack of readiness for the use of technology and its integration into teaching materials and practices. In order to overcome these challenges, the authors use the investment model by Muhammad and Cruz (2019) to propose cognitive (i.e. why technology integration is

necessary), emotional (i.e. the feeling of being valued), and functional investment (i.e. the ability to teach fully online) strategies to use in CTE training. A detailed checklist has also been provided in Appendix A-2, focusing on training challenges, training investment strategies, and the strategies needed for this training.

Chapter 4, 'Core competencies for online language instructors', reviews the major studies that investigate CTE and the skills and competencies necessary for teachers to integrate technology into their online classrooms. Among these are the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) model by Mishra and Koehler (2006), Hubbard and Levy's (2006) CALL teacher education model focusing on language teachers' technical and pedagogical knowledge and skills, and Tai's (2015) TPACK-in-Action model. The chapter further discusses in detail language teachers' techno-pedagogical skills under three themes: technological skills, pedagogical skills (course design, student-centered learning, interaction and socialization), assessment skills, and professional development. Appendix A-3 includes the authors' checklist for online language faculty's core competencies and skills, which were based on the research discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5, 'Online language instructor assessment', draws on assessment models and frameworks to determine efficient ways for assessing online instructors' technological and pedagogical skills and knowledge, in addition to their use of technology for feedback, and their evaluative skills. Moreover, the authors discuss the (in)adequacies of these models and frameworks, such as the TESOL Technology Standards and the self-assessment checklist based on these standards. This chapter also proposes several suggestions regarding the assessment of online language instructors such as the ability to conduct needs analyses so that they can determine learners' challenges while they are trying to complete their assignments.

In Chapter 6 entitled 'Instruments for the assessment of online language instructors', aims to propose new rubrics that can be utilized to assess online instructors' performance during and after the training program and mentoring provided to these instructors. The authors first discuss the crucial aspects of assessment, focusing on the need for teacher and faculty assessment, formative and summative assessment, and the benefits and challenges of formal assessment. In order to triangulate the responses collected about the performance of instructors' teaching online, this chapter proposes the use of the OLIMR (Online Language Instructor Modular Rubric), which includes six modules: course design, online world language teaching, feedback and assessment, technology in online language teaching, professional development, and self-reflection.

Chapter 7 'Self-evaluation practices in formative assessment', provides readers with a review of relevant studies conducted on self-assessment, and investigates how instructors can use self-evaluation as an evaluation of their online teaching performance. This chapter also presents details about the case study conducted on determining language instructors' experiences during the OLIMR evaluation process and shares the instructors' responses to the open-ended reflection questions and the interviews conducted with the supervisors.

Chapter 8 'The mentoring relationship in formative assessment processes', investigates the role of peer mentors and supervisors in helping new instructors during online teaching and formal teaching assessment practices. Similarly to the previous chapter, a case study

provides insights into the implementation of a peer mentorship program to support online instructors. It is stressed that when teaching staff are provided with cognitive and emotional investments, as discussed in Chapter 3, their sense of agency and participation increase in the mentoring program and spread the success of the training program.

Chapter 9 'Debriefing and goal setting in instructor assessment', focuses on the debriefing sessions held between the supervisors and instructors, and dwells on cultural differences and how these differences affect the feedback provided and goal-setting activities. This chapter also reports the findings of a case study investigating how the goal-setting process is carried out between instructors and supervisors, and specifies the challenges and opportunities faced by the nine new online instructors and their supervisors.

Chapters 7, 8, and 9 focus on exploring the professional development of online language instructors in various ways, such as peer mentoring and self-assessment. Chapter 10, the last chapter, titled 'An ecological approach to the normalization of a critical CTE', suggests an action plan to create a critical CTE approach based on what has been discussed and investigated in the nine previous chapters of the book. The chapter also indicates future issues and trends regarding online instructor training and assessment.

The main strength of the book, Online World Language Instruction Training and Assessment: An Ecological Approach, is the organization of the topics of the chapters, moving from the important discussion of the differences between the F2F and online classrooms to the frameworks and models of CALL teacher training programs, and the suggested rubrics and instruments to help assess the performance of online teaching performance of staff. The authors have strengthened and enriched the content by discussing important findings of the case studies based on these rubrics and instruments, such as OLIMR. In this way, the authors have achieved a good balance between the theoretical knowledge of the training programs and models, and practice through the case studies.

The book also provides, in the Appendix, several checklists and rubrics (Checklists for Online Language Instructor Training and Assessment, Rubrics for Evaluation of Online Language Instructor Training and Assessment, Online Language Instructor Performance Rubrics), which will help teachers and researchers interested in how to assess online teaching performance. It also includes an index which guides readers to find the related chapters and topics easily, and a glossary of important terms together with their basic definitions. The accompanying website provides a list of resources for CALL and CTE[1].

Regarding the suggestions on the improvement of the content of the book, it might be stated that digital literacy skills could have been discussed in more detail, rather than leaving this topic to future research in critical CTE Training and assessment at the end of the book. Chapter 6 focuses on various perspectives on the assessment of instructors. This discussion could have also included the challenges of online assessment and testing, and investigated several concerns, such as assessment security. Considering all these, I find the book engaging, well-sourced, and non-technical, and believe that it will be of great interest to language teachers and teacher educators interested in online language teaching and learning, and training programs, and the assessment of these programs, in addition to their own technological and pedagogical skills and knowledge.

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[1] https://press.georgetown.edu/files/materials/9781647121051_CTE-CALLresources.pdf.

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III. REPORTS

Bericht über die XVII. Internationale Tagung der Deutschlehrerinnen und Deutschlehrer „mit.sprache.teil.haben". Wien, 15.–20. August 2022

Es sind inzwischen schon unterschiedliche Berichte über die Internationale Tagung der Deutschlehrerinnen und Deutschlehrer veröffentlicht worden, die vom 15. bis zum 20. August 2022 in Wien stattgefunden hat und unter dem Motto »mit.sprache.teil.haben« stand. Hiermit möchte ich meine persönlichen Eindrücke von der IDT–2022 vermitteln, was gewissermaßen unter einem doppelten Blickwinkel geschieht: als früherer Deutschlehrer an Schulen der Sekundarstufe II und jetziger Dozent für deutsche Sprachwissenschaft an einer größeren Universität in Mittelitalien.

Bei der IDT handelt es sich um die weltweit größte Tagung für die deutsche Sprache und ihre Vermittlung. Bereits das große Tagungsplakat an der Fassade des Hauptgebäudes der Universität Wien, das schon aus der Ferne zu sehen war, war beeindruckend und ließ die Wichtigkeit dieser Veranstaltung in ihrer ganzen Bandbreite und Vielfalt erahnen. Durch Mitteilungen in unterschiedlichen Medien wurde Wien eine Woche lang zum internationalen Bezugspunkt für Lehrende und Forschende des Faches Deutsch als Fremd- und Zweitsprache. Fast 3000 Teilnehmende aus über 100 verschiedenen Ländern waren der IDT-Einladung nach Wien gefolgt und sie wurden dort mit unnachahmlicher Herzlichkeit aufgenommen und mit österreichischem Charme verwöhnt – vom ersten Moment des feierlichen Auftakts der Tagung bis zu ihrem Abschlusstag, an dem der Höhepunkt des Tagungsmottos durch den von Hans-Jürgen Krumm gehaltenen Vortrag zur Sprachengerechtigkeit erreicht wurde.

Die IDT im Jahr 2022 war von einer noch größeren Bedeutung geprägt, weil sie (nach einer pandemiebedingten Verschiebung um ein Jahr) die allererste internationale Tagung war, die seit 2020 wieder in Präsenz stattfinden konnte. Diese erneute IDT in Präsenz wurde gleichzeitig durch ein umfangreiches Programm für die Online-Teilnahme bereichert. Die XVII. IDT wurde vom Österreichischen Verband für Deutsch als Fremdsprache/Zweitsprache (ÖDaF) als Mitgliedsverband des IDV beantragt. Der ÖDaF als Verband fungierte gleichzeitig auch als Tagungspräsident.

Die Plenarvorträge, die die Tagung umrahmten und Brücken zu den Schwerpunktbereichen des vielfältigen Fachprogramms der Tagung schlugen, gaben Anlass zu einer tiefergehenden Reflexion über aktuelle Fragen des Lehrens und Lernens von Deutsch in einer mehrsprachigen, vielfältigen und globalisierten Gesellschaft. Dasselbe gilt für die zahlreichen Sektionsbeiträge, die auf den Erfahrungsaustausch zum Fach Deutsch als Fremd- und Zweitsprache und auf das Lernen von- und miteinander näher eingingen. Lehrende stellen

sich leider immer noch sehr selten die Frage, aus welchen methodisch-didaktischen Gründen sie sich für eine bestimmte Vorgehensweise zur Einführung bzw. zur Verarbeitung eines bestimmten Lernstoffs entschieden haben und welche methodischen Alternativen denkbar wären. In der Sektionsarbeit wurde ferner Raum für Teilhabe und Interaktion geschaffen, indem längere offene Interaktionsphasen zur Verarbeitung der Inputs geplant waren und verschiedene Präsentationsformen für die eingereichten Fachbeiträge vorgesehen waren. Die Themenschwerpunkte der insgesamt 53 Sektionen bildeten den Kern des Fachprogramms und spiegelten in sieben Themenfeldern den weltweiten Ist-Stand von Forschung und Entwicklung sowie deren Umsetzung in die Unterrichtspraxis des Faches Deutsch als Fremd- und Zweitsprache wider.

Vor allem in der Sektionsarbeit wurde der Begegnung zwischen Theorie und Praxis Raum gegeben. Die Sektionsarbeit diente insbesondere der Teilhabe und Interaktion mit Kolleg:innen zu unterschiedlichen Themenfeldern, die mit ihrer Forschung, Lehre und Umsetzung in die Unterrichtspraxis des Faches Deutsch als Fremd- und Zweitsprache verbunden waren.

In der Sektion F3 „Grammatiktheorien und Konzepte der Grammatikvermittlung", geleitet von Gabriella Perge (Ungarn) und Plamen Tsvetkov (Bulgarien), an der ich teilnahm, wurden insgesamt 22 Vorträge à 20 Minuten Redezeit gehalten, die den aktuellen Diskussionsstand in zentralen Themenbereichen der Grammatik in den Vordergrund rückten. Die meisten Vorträge drehten sich um spezifische grammatische Themen mit besonderem Fokus auf ihre Vermittlung in der DaF-/DaZ-Didaktik, etwa *Die Wortstellung im deutschen Hauptsatz* (Julia Kittelmann), *Der Konjunktiv I* (My Huyen Le), *Die Anordnung der Satzglieder im Mittelfeld nach dem Tekamolo-Modell* (Chiara Cernicchiaro), *die Adjektivdeklination* (Saskia Braun), *Relativsatzbildung* (Kaveh Bahrami Sobhani), *die Funktionsverbgefüge* (Loreta Adamyan). Weitere Vorträge stellten Konzepte und Methoden zur Grammatikvermittlung im DaF-/DaZ-Unterricht in den Mittelpunkt, etwa *Die Anwendung des „umgedrehten Unterrichts"* (Thiep Nguyen / Thi Thanh Tuyen Tran), *Die Förderung autonomen Lernens mittels selbstentdeckender Grammatik* (Muna Jabbour), *Grammatikvermittlung im Gedicht* (Katja Guerra), *Vermittlung der Präpositionen aus funktionaler Perspektive im DaF-/DaZ-Unterricht* (Patrizio Malloggi). Auf die einzelnen Vorträge folgten stets anregende Plenardiskussionen, in denen der offene und zugleich respektvolle Erfahrungs- und Meinungsaustausch gepflegt wurde. Während der Plenardiskussionen wurden aus internationaler Perspektive Konzepte und praxisbezogene Umsetzungsideen für das Lehren und Lernen der Grammatik des Deutschen als Tertiärsprache (Deutsch nach Englisch) und in einem mehrsprachigen Kontext diskutiert bzw. erarbeitet – auch mit Einbezug der von den Lernenden in dem jeweiligen Land gelernten Fremdsprachen. Grammatikvermittlung in einem mehrsprachigen Kontext soll auch dazu führen, die Kenntnisse der eigenen Sprache sowie der anderen gelernten Sprachen durch die Förderung der sprachvergleichenden Reflexion mit einzubeziehen bzw. auszubauen. Dies gibt den Lernenden und Lehrenden Anlass zur Reflexion über die Bedeutung von Sprachengerechtigkeit, „die eine Voraussetzung dafür ist, dass Menschen in einer vielsprachigen Welt ohne Diskriminierung zusammenleben können. Fehlende Sprachengerechtigkeit bedeutet immer auch, dass Menschen wegen ihrer Sprachen diskriminiert werden" (aus Hans-Jürgen Krumms abschließendem Fachvortrag zur Sprachengerechtigkeit, gehalten am Samstag, den 20. August). DaF-/DaZ-Lehrende und -Forschende in ihrer Funktion als Sprachvermittler:innen sind dazu aufgefordert, stets auch

sprachenpolitisch zu denken und zu handeln, und sich für Sprachengerechtigkeit international einzusetzen.

Die IDT-2022 bot den ca. 3000 Teilnehmenden aus über 100 verschiedenen Ländern einen gelungenen Wechsel aus Fachvorträgen, Landeskundeveranstaltungen, Besichtigungen, Kultur und Ausflügen. Das umfangreiche Kultur- und Rahmenprogramm gab den Teilnehmenden die Gelegenheit, die Stadt Wien hautnah zu erleben und in ihr außergewöhnliches Kulturerbe einzutauchen.

Einer der modernen Höhepunkte des Kulturprogramms war der Auftritt der Band „ok.danke.tschüss" im Arkadenhof der Universität Wien. Unterstützt von Expert:innen des Goethe-Instituts und der Deutschen Welle hat die Band Songs und Musikvideos für Deutschlernende entwickelt.

Für den Berichterstatter ist es ein Bedürfnis, der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft, dem Deutschen Akademischen Austauschdienst (DAAD) und dem Zukunftsfonds der Republik Österreich für die finanzielle Unterstützung zu danken. Ein weiterer großer Dank gilt den Veranstaltern der IDT Wien, verbunden mit der Gratulation für ihre herausragende Leistung.

Abschließend kann ich nur hinzufügen, dass meine Teilnahme an der IDT-2022 sich zweifelsohne als eine persönliche sowie professionelle Bereicherung in vielerlei Hinsicht erwiesen hat und meine Erwartungen, die schon recht hoch waren, noch weit übertroffen wurden.

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Wydano na podstawie maszynopisu gwarantowanego