Bravo Granström, Monica

Teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. Case studies in German, Swedish and Chilean grade 4 classrooms

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Kontakt / Contact:

Monica Bravo Granström

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λογος

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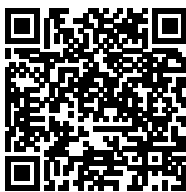
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Teachers' Beliefs and Strategies when Teaching Reading in Multilingual Settings

Case Studies in German, Swedish and Chilean Grade 4 Classrooms

Dissertation

zur Erlangung des akademischen Grads eines
Doktors der Philosophie (Dr. phil.)

an der Pädagogischen Hochschule Weingarten, Deutschland

Autorin:	Monica Bravo Granström
	Hans-Wagenitz-Str. 3
	88677 Markdorf
	Deutschland/Germany
	bravo@ph-weingarten.de
Erstgutachter:	Prof. Dr. Gregor Lang-Wojtasik
	Pädagogische Hochschule
	Weingarten
	Deutschland/Germany
Zweitgutachter:	Associate Prof. Dr. Ulf Fredriksson
	Stockholms universitet
	Sverige/Sweden
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List of abbreviations

AP	Analysis procedure
B	*Befragter* (Interviewee)
BW	Baden-Württemberg (Region in Germany)
CL	*Chileno* (Chilean)
DaF	*Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (German as a Foreign Language)
DE	*Deutsch* (German)
I	*Interviewer* (Interviewer)
EU	European Union
FL	Foreign Language
KMK	*Kultusministerkonferenz* (Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany)
L1, L2, L3	First language, second language, third language
LWMUL	Life-world multilingualism
MUL	Multilingualism
MULR	Multilingual resources
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
QCA	Qualitative content analysis
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (in German IGLU: *Internationale Grundschul-Lese-Untersuchung*)
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PSU	*Prueba Selección Universitaria* (university-entrance examination), Chile
SLA	Second language acquisition
SCB	*Statistiska centralbyrån* (Sweden statistics)
SV	*Svenska* (Swedish)
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ZfA	*Zentralstelle für das Auslandsschulwesen* (Central Agency for German Schools Abroad)

Abstract – English

Globalization has not only changed our society, it has also had a profound effect on education. Many schools deal with student populations which, due to migration, are increasingly multilingual. Politically, few argue against the importance of multilingualism; rather, it is promoted. However, in practical terms the challenges associated with teaching and educational policies have increased as a result of linguistic diversity among student bodies. Moreover, reading is certainly regarded as a key learning skill, but how is the students' life-world multilingualism (LWMUL) taken into consideration?

Previous research suggests that there are significant links between teachers' beliefs and practices, making this a compelling issue. The overall aim of this study was thus to gain a deeper understanding on teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. Using a cross-disciplinary, qualitative research methodology approach, the empirical inquiry consists of case studies with different, linguistically diverse settings. The case studies include classroom observations as well as teacher interviews in German, Swedish and Chilean grade 4 classrooms.

After a qualitative content analysis in three analysis procedures, the results suggest dualistic beliefs being exhibited by the teachers. The separation of languages is believed to be of major importance, thus providing space almost exclusively for the academic language of instruction. This is reflected in the teachers' strategies, leading to a static implementation, in which the students' life-world multilingual resources (MULR) are generally not included. A lack of professional competence could be observed in issues regarding multilingualism, allowing beliefs rather than evidence-based knowledge to be the deciding factor in the practice. Four types of strategies for teaching reading in multilingual settings were identified, and an inattentive type of strategy, including a blindness to difference, seems to dominate.

Keywords: teachers' beliefs, teaching strategies, teaching implementation, linguistic diversity, multilingualism, Germany, Sweden, Chile, Grade 4

Abstract – Deutsch

Globalisierung hat nicht nur unsere Gesellschaft verändert, sie hat auch eine tiefgehende Wirkung auf Bildung. Viele Schulen erleben Schülerschaften, die aufgrund der Migration zunehmend mehrsprachig sind. Auf einer politischen Ebene bestreitet keiner die Bedeutung der Mehrsprachigkeit, vielmehr wird sie gefördert. Auf einer praktischen Ebene haben die Herausforderungen in bildungspolitischem Sinne allerdings zugenommen als Ergebnis der linguistischen Diversität der Schüler. Darüber hinaus wird Lesen als eine der wichtigsten Fähigkeiten der Schüler angesehen, aber wie wird die lebensweltliche Mehrsprachigkeit der Schüler dabei berücksichtigt?

Bisherige Forschung deutet darauf hin, dass signifikante Verbindungen zwischen Überzeugungen (*beliefs*) der Lehrkräfte und deren Praxis bestehen, was diese als besonders forschungsbedürftig darstellt. Das übergeordnete Ziel dieser Thesis war es daher, ein tieferes Verständnis bezüglich der Überzeugungen und der benutzten Strategien im Leseunterricht in mehrsprachigen Settings zu gewinnen. Das empirische Material dieser qualitativen Studie besteht aus Fallstudien in einem interdisziplinären Ansatz. Die Fallstudien umfassen Beobachtungen des Unterrichtes und Interviews mit den Lehrkräften in deutschen, schwedischen und chilenischen vierten Klassen.

Die Ergebnisse einer qualitativen Inhaltsanalyse, gegliedert in drei analytische Prozeduren, weisen auf dualistische Überzeugungen der Lehrkräfte hin. Die Sprachen auseinander zu halten ist von großer Bedeutung und fast ausschließlich der Unterrichtssprache wird Raum im Klassenzimmer angeboten. Dies reflektiert sich in den Strategien der Lehrkräfte und führt zu einer statischen Implementierung, in der die lebensweltlichen Sprachen der Schüler normalerweise nicht einbezogen werden. Bezüglich der Mehrsprachigkeit stellt sich eine geringe Kompetenz der Lehrkräfte dar, so dass nicht evidenzbasierten Kompetenzen, sondern Überzeugungen ausschlaggebend in der Praxis sind. Vier Strategietypen konnten im Leseunterricht in mehrsprachigen Settings identifiziert werden, davon scheint eine Strategie zu dominieren, die keine größere Aufmerksamkeit auf Unterschiede der Schüler schenkt.

Keywords: Lehrerüberzeugungen, Unterrichtsstrategien, Implementierung, linguistische Diversität, Mehrsprachigkeit, Deutschland, Schweden, Chile, Klasse 4

Abstract – svenska

Globalisering har inte bara förändrat vårt samhälle, utan även haft stor påverkan på utbildningssektorn. Genom migration har antalet flerspråkiga elever i många skolor ökat. På ett politiskt plan är det få som argumenterar mot flerspråkigheten, snarare framförs initiativ för att främja den. På ett praktiskt plan har emellertid utmaningarna inom undervisning och utbildningspolitik ökat som resultat av den språkliga mångfalden hos eleverna. Läsning anses vara väldigt viktig för inlärning överhuvudtaget, men hur tas elevernas flerspråkighet ur deras egen livsvärld i beaktande i undervisningen?

Tidigare forskning visar på starka kopplingar mellan lärares uppfattningar (*beliefs*) och deras praxis vilket gör detta till ett intrigerande ämne. Det övergripande syftet med denna studie var därför att få en bättre förståelse för lärares uppfattningar och strategier vid läsundervisning i flerspråkiga miljöer. Materialet utgörs av fallstudier genomförda i olika miljöer av språklig mångfald som undersökts med en tvärvetenskaplig, kvalitativ ansats. Fallstudierna inkluderar klassrumsobervationer samt intervjuer med lärare i tyska, svenska och chilenska skolklasser i årskurs 4.

En kvalitativ innehållsanalys, uppdelad i tre analysprocedurer, genomfördes och resultaten tyder på dualistiska uppfattningar hos lärarna. Att skilja på språken verkar vara av betydelse, vilket nästan endast ger utrymme till språket som används i undervisningen. Detta återspeglas i lärarnas stategier och leder till en statisk implementering där elevernas språk från hemmet normalt sett inte inkluderas. Även en viss brist på professionell kompetens kring flerspråkighet kunde observeras. Detta gör att uppfattningar, snarare än evidensbaserad kunskap, är en avgörande faktor bakom pedagogiska val. Fyra olika typer av strategier för undervisning i flerspråkiga miljöer kunde identifieras och en typ av strategi som inte skänker den språkliga mångfalden någon större uppmärksamhet, utan snarare uppvisar en blindhet inför mångfalden, verkar dominera.

Keywords: lärares uppfattningar, undervisningsstrategier, implementering undervisning, språklig mångfald, flerspråkighet, Tyskland, Sverige, Chile, årskurs 4

Abstract – español

La globalización no solo ha cambiado nuestra sociedad, sino que también tiene un efecto profundo sobre la educación. Debido a la migración, muchos colegios se encuentran con poblaciones escolares cada vez más multilingües. A nivel político, el multilingüismo se ve más bien promocionado que cuestionado. Sin embargo, en términos prácticos, los desafíos que afrontan las políticas educativas se han incrementado como resultado de la diversidad lingüística en las poblaciones escolares. Así mismo, aunque la lectura está considerada una de las partes más vitales del aprendizaje, ¿cómo se está teniendo en cuenta el multilingüismo en la vida propia (*Lebenswelt*) de los escolares?

Investigaciones realizadas indican que existen vínculos significativos entre las creencias (*beliefs*) de los profesores y las prácticas, justificando la revelancia de este estudio. El objectivo principal de esta tesis es aportar una comprensión más profunda sobre las creencias de los profesores y sus estratégicas durante la enseñanza de la lectura en entornos multilingües. Los datos empíricos consisten de estudios de casos en entornos lingüísticamente diversos, desde un enfoque de carácter interdisciplinario. Los casos incluyen observaciones en aulas y entrevistas a profesores de cuarto curso en Alemania, Suecia y Chile.

Después de un análisis cualitativo realizado mediante tres procedimientos analíticos, los resultados indican que los profesores sostienen creencias dualistas. Esto implica que la separación de diferentes idiomas es de mayor relevancia, dando espacio casi únicamente al lenguaje de instrucción. Se refleja en las estrategias de los profesores, produciendo una implementación estática, en la cual los recursos multilingües de la propia vida de los escolares generalmente no están incluidos. Se notó una auscencia de conocimientos en cuestiones relativas al multilingüismo, dando paso a que las creencias, y no los conocimientos basados en la evidencia empírica, sean el factor decisivo en la práctica. Se identificaron cuatro tipos de estrategias en la enseñanza de la lectura en entornos multilingües, de los que parece prevalecer un tipo de estrategia de desatención, sin tener en cuenta la diversidad.

Keywords: creencias, estrategías, implementación en clase, diversidad lingüística, multilingüismo, Alemania, Suecia, Chile, cuarto grado

Acknowledgments

Standing before the final phase of an almost four-year roller coaster ride, which this study has been, I look back at the beginnings of the ride and feel gratitude towards so many people. Firstly, it has to be stated, that I have never been a fan of roller coaster rides. I have actually only ridden one once and that was by mistake, wanting to accompany my children in what I thought would be a slow ride through a Legoland castle. I was about to throw up during the whole ride, while – even though it only took a couple of minutes – for me it seemed like an eternity. The ride of a PhD thesis is similar. Lows in the darkness when an imposter syndrome voice within whispers, "Can you really do this? You don't understand anything", are mixed up with tummy-tickling highs when the fog of previously ununderstood literature is dispersed and you can actually distinguish a pattern.

I have thus words of gratefulness for many people. First of all, I am indebted to my two supervisors. My main supervisor at the Pädagogische Hochschule Weingarten, Gregor Lang-Wojtasik has, besides his vast, combined knowledge and experience, shown incredible patience. He has always listened to me and supported me, even in the beginning, when I tried to hide my insecurity of not fitting in, in this, for me, new German pedagogical context, through providing simplified arguments for a complex life-world; for setting me on-course, believing in my plans to do research in three countries in a cross-disciplinary approach, and for careful eyes and insightful feedback: *herzlichen Dank! Das Blatt hat einfach nicht genügend Platz für alle "Danke", die ich dir sagen möchte. Ohne dich bin ich mir nicht sicher, ob ich die Arbeit zu Ende hätte bringen können*.

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Janssen is another colleague, who took the time to dwell upon different issues with me during the years of this doctoral ride. My colleagues Sabrina Gerland-Mallon and Gabriella von Lieres provided me with priceless support in the thorny jungle of academic writing in English – thank you for your patience!! Many other people contributed in an extensive process of discussions and/or proof-reading. I will not be able to mention you all, but you should know that I am very grateful. Therefore, especially to Karin Bäckman O'Hara, Iris Egger, Kamilla György, Charlotte Jakobsson Muñiz, Yvonne Krug, Rita Rosenback, Linda Ström and Antje Wilton: *tack, kiitos, Danke, köszönöm, gracias*, thank you!

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Thank you all for being there! You helped me survive the ride!

Markdorf, Germany, June 2018

Monica Bravo Granström

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PART ONE

Points of departure, contexts and theory

Part One of this thesis begins with an introductory chapter on the background and aim of the study, and also presents the research questions. This is followed by an account of the contextual background of the investigated topics, in Chapter 2. In Chapter 3, the theoretical framework will be described, offering lenses for examining and understanding the data gathered for this thesis.

1   Introduction

Koľko jazykov vieš, toľkokrát si človekom.

(The more languages you know, the more of a person you are.)

This Slovak proverb is quoted in the introduction of the Communication of the European Commission (European Commission, 2005) which explores the policy area of multilingualism. This reaffirms the commitment to multilingualism in the European Union (EU) and sets a framework strategy for it.[1] Three main themes are stated, one of them being the "long-term objective to increase the individual multilingualism until every [EU] citizen has practical skills in at least two languages in addition to his or her mother tongue" (European Commission, 2005, p. 4).[2] The ability to communicate in one's mother tongue as well as in a foreign language is part of the eight key competences established for lifelong learning by the European Parliament and the Council of the EU (2006).

Moreover, UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) recognizes multilingualism as a resource and emphasizes its importance on both a global and national level: "the requirements of global and national participation, and the specific needs of particular, culturally and linguistically distinct communities can only be addressed by multilingual education" (UNESCO, 2003).

At an international political level, there is thus no questioning the importance and benefits of multilingualism. The above statements reaffirm this and highlight linguistic diversity and its benefits. Numerous examples similar to these could be mentioned, on both international as well as national levels.

However, in practical terms new challenges in teaching and educational policies have arisen due to today's cultural and linguistic diversity in society caused by social changes resulting from migration movements (OECD, 2006). The process of globalization, in which national states are losing their sovereignty through transnational actors (Beck, 1997), has changed our society and had an immense effect on education. It is one of the most powerful forces shaping the present and future world, in which today's children and youth may use their language skills to create a sustainable and just world society (Darji and Lang-Wojtasik, 2014; Lang-Wojtasik and Klemm, 2017). A new kind of social

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[1]   The document is translated into 22 languages and can be found online for download: eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex:52005DC0596

[2]   The word EU is added in order to give the context.

spaces are created which "reaches beyond the social context of national societies" (Pries, 1997)[3], providing a context of new life-world realities beyond the previous acknowledged ones, which are reflected in the education systems as well.

At a classroom practice level, multilingualism is experienced in many different dimensions. Many teachers feel insecure about how to deal with the multilingual (or potentially multilingual) children and their life-world linguistic diversity. In a survey carried out in Germany by the Mercator Institute (Becker-Mrotzek *et al.*, 2012), 83% of the teachers state that they teach students with a migration background.[4] Of the teachers participating in that study, 66% feel that they do not have enough training for the teaching of those students.

Furthermore, even if the growing importance of multilingualism is recognized in today's society, and language knowledge is highly valued, not all multilingual abilities seem to be equally valued (Gogolin *et al.*, 2014). The education systems in Europe often fail to step out of their monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2008), especially in respect to migration related multilingualism. European languages, such as English and French, and the multilingualism of social elites are mostly viewed positively. Moreover, transnational education, such as participation in exchange programs at universities in other countries, tends to be highly valued. However, non-elite or non-European migrant students and their "transnational linguistic capital" (Gerhards, 2014) are often perceived as disadvantaged and their mobility and multilingualism tend to be judged as a negative factor with regard to school success (Fürstenau, 2016).

For students with a migration background, the academic language required of them is mostly the country's majority language taught through a submersion teaching model[5] (Busch, 2012), as a second language (L2). This, together with the students' other languages, would constitute their "life-world (*lebensweltliche*) bilingualism" (Gogolin,

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[3]   Translation from the German original by Fürstenau (2016).

[4]   The term 'migration background' used in statistics and educational research is not consistent over different studies or countries, therefore, there is a need for a clarification on the term in the different contexts. In the aforementioned study, it is not clarified, what 'migration background' would indicate for the teachers. However, such terms often refer to the country of origin being another than where the person now resides, having another residency, or earlier generations having such (Kemper, 2010). The term also implies linguistic diversity, even though such must not necessarily be present. There will be more on this in Chapter 3.

[5]   Definitions of specialized terms regarding multilingualism are given in Chapter 2.

1988). There are, however, also students learning the academic language, in a minority language, as a foreign language, through an immersion teaching model.

Moreover, good reading comprehension is considered a key factor for academic success. This is unquestioned at any level, political as well as practical. Without good reading knowledge, educational aspirations can easily languish and with them future career possibilities; having extensive consequences on a person's health and quality of life. Reading is thus of utmost concern in order to be able to participate fully in today's society.

In recent decades, reading has gained increased attention within education, in part due to international assessment studies (Martens *et al.*, 2014), for example, the OECD's *Programme for International Student Assessment* (PISA) (OECD, 2018) and the IEA's *Progress in International Reading Literacy* (PIRLS[6]) (IEA, 2018). These studies often report a lower average score for students with a migration background (Fredriksson and Taube, 2001).[7]

Furthermore, the question of teachers' mental processes and perceptions (beliefs) has been on the agenda in several different academic fields. Previous research (Richards, 1994; Pajares, 1992) suggests that there are significant links between teachers' beliefs and practices, making this a compelling issue. The aforementioned aspects make it crucial to explore teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings, in more detail.

1.1   Aims and research questions

This study aims at gaining deeper understanding of teachers' beliefs and implementation strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings, in order to contribute to our knowledge of relevant educational approaches with multilingual students. Through studying entangled practices of education, theory and politics in an international comparative approach, this thesis presents knowledge on today's linguistic diversity in education and how reading is dealt with in such settings.

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[6]   In Germany, PIRLS is called *IGLU - Internationale Grundschule-Lese-Untersuchung.*

[7]   In Fredriksson and Taube, "migration background" indicates students with more than one language at home.

Hence, the overall research aim in this empirical educational research study is to describe and reconstruct the teachers' beliefs on multilingualism as well as the strategies used when teaching reading in a multilingual setting in German, Swedish and Chilean grade 4 classrooms. In the empirical process, which beliefs do teachers have about multilingualism and how is the student's life-world multilingualism (LWMUL) taken into consideration in the implemented strategies when teaching reading in these settings?

The study thus addresses four interlinked research questions:

1) What are the teachers' beliefs of multilingualism?
2) When teaching reading in a multilingual setting, how do teachers implement the students' life-world multilingualism?
3) How do the teachers' beliefs interrelate with the implementation of the students' life-world multilingualism within the classroom?
4) Do types of beliefs and implementation of teaching strategies vary between different teaching models (national education systems: Germany and Sweden resp. bilingual education: Chile)?

This study adds a strong educational focus to previous, mainly (socio-)linguistic, research on linguistic diversity in educational settings, highlighting the teachers' perspectives, instead of the often emphasized role of the students. Drawing on previous research in a cross-disciplinary approach, initial theoretical discussions aim at analyzing the beliefs regarding multilingualism followed by an empirical evaluation that aims at reconstructing which strategies are implemented when teaching reading in multilingual settings. Through the international comparative approach, national characteristics as well as global occurrences stand in focus, taking into account the globalized contexts (Crossley and Watson, 2003; Adick, 2008a). The beliefs and implementation that were observed will be compressed into a type construction of strategies visualizing how linguistic diversity is dealt with, which can further be used as an analytical and interpretative tool for multidimensional reflections, along the lines of this study's practical orientation.

1.2   Outline of the thesis

After this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 provides a conceptual and contextual backdrop to the study, including a discussion of concepts and an exploration of historical

backgrounds on multilingual settings. Focusing on the specific educational settings in the cases in Germany,[8] Sweden and Chile, multilayered contexts are visualized and structured for analysis purposes.

A review of research relevant to the contexts investigated is given in Chapter 3 and the theoretical framework of the thesis is presented. This includes overarching approaches on multilingualism, shedding light upon a continuum of dualistic and dynamic beliefs drawing on heteroglossia, as well as highlighting the monolingual habitus in the educational systems. Theoretical perspectives on teaching reading in linguistically diverse practices, where beliefs and knowledge interact in the professional practice, are introduced as well in this chapter, offering lenses for examining and understanding the data gathered for this thesis.

In Chapter 4 the methodological approaches taken for this study are presented, and the sampling and chosen data collection methods are described. This chapter also highlights research processes in linguistically diverse contexts, including discussions on the role of transcription and translation, as well as expounding reflections on ethical aspects and quality criteria in research. The findings of this study are analyzed in a three-step analysis process.

The description of this analysis process takes place in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, in which the first analysis procedure (1st AP) presents the field experience through classroom observations and interviews which are analyzed by categorical structuring coding. In Chapter 6, the second analysis procedure (2nd AP) reconstructs the beliefs and the implementation distinguished in the first, making use of evaluative coding. The discussion on the teaching in linguistically diverse contexts is intensified, bringing in both local as well as international contexts. In Chapter 7, drawing on the findings regarding beliefs and implementation in the first and second analysis procedures, the third one (3rd AP) establishes a type construction of the implemented strategies, further grasping the similarities and differences between the observed in the findings.

In Chapter 8, the results of the investigation, presented in relation to the research questions and the theoretical perspectives, conclude the thesis, offering a discussion of the results including contributions and future directions.

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8   Since Germany is divided in 16 *Bundesländer* (federal states) with supreme legislative and administrative power, including education systems, one region (federal state) had to be chosen. This study took part in Baden-Württemberg (BW). There will be more on this in Chapter 4.

2   Contextual background

In this chapter the research context is introduced. First, terminology and concepts used to talk about and classify the linguistic diversity of today's globalized society are reviewed. The contexts investigated in Germany, Sweden and Chile are complex, as a result of historical, political and ideological developments in each country. A broader perspective is thus firstly taken to situate the whole thesis in the research landscapes of each context it explores, and following this, the details of each national context are specified.

2.1   Comparative international education research

"Thinking without comparison is unthinkable" Charles Ragin states (1987, p. 1), and this is a truism in comparative research, but also in life in general. People compare things in everyday life: weather, prices and other relevant everyday objects and entities. Having lived in different parts of the world, I compare different elements of my life-world environment, and that, among other factors, initiated the interest in this study.

Comparative research has a long tradition, starting in the 19th century. Ever since then there has been a debate about methodology. The main roots of the field are commonly considered to lie in Western Europe. Marc-Antoine Jullien's proposal in 1817 that governments should provide statistical information concerning different facets of their education systems is considered as the origins of systematic comparative education (Crossley and Watson, 2003). From there, the field branched to the USA and later on it expanded globally. In the 21st century, international comparative research has experienced an exponential growth thanks to the ever-advancing spread of technology (Bray *et al.*, 2014).

The origin of international education can be traced back to a Frenchman, César Auguste Basset. In 1808, he called "for scholars who were free from national perceptions and who could observe education outside France, with the intention of making recommendations for the reform of the national French education system" (Crossley and Watson, 2003). More recently, according to Hornberg et al (2009, p. 12) international educational

research has turned its interest towards education in international spaces, the theoretical basics, differentiation and further developments. In addition, approaches that target the analysis of educational processes under the conditions of multiculturalism and multilingualism are being increasingly considered in Germany under the category of 'intercultural pedagogics' (Auernheimer, 2003).

In German-speaking areas there has been a gradual crumbling differentiation between two approaches: the 'comparatists' (*Komparatisten*) and the 'internationalists' (*Internationalisten*). The comparatists focus on comparative research and on gaining knowledge in different countries and cultures, whereas the internationalists focus on processing the international and intercultural relations in a practical orientation (Adick, 2008b). A debate is being held upon these approaches with pro and contra adherents (Hornberg *et al.*, 2009; Adick, 2008b), but it has to be highlighted, that a major differentiation would not be constitutive for the comparative education. Today, in other parts of the world, such as for instance in the United States, there is no difference between international education and comparative education, but this might reflect another meaning of the term 'education' than the German term *Bildung*.[1]

Further, German introductory text books to educational science (*Erziehungswissenschaft*) often use only the term *vergleichend* (comparative) in the title, e.g. *Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft* by Adick (2008b) or *Einführung in die vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft* by Allemann-Ghionda (2004), and international educational science is included implicitly. In English speaking regions/literature, however, the word 'international' is added to the concept, therefore comparative and international education (Phillips and Schweisfurth, 2011) is a commonly used term. This is a result of the different historical developments, while the content and approaches are similar.

It should also be highlighted that the focus in comparative research does not have to lay in comparing individuals or nations, but can also involve "taking into account multiple

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[1] The German term *Bildung* is often translated as 'education' in English, but has a deeper, more multi-faceted content and meaning, including several aspects and perspectives. Dictionary definitions often refer to 'self-cultivation', 'philosophy', 'personal and cultural maturation' and even 'existentialism' (Waters, 2015). For further discussions on the meaning of *Bildung* and its translation, see e.g. Adick (2008b).

elements through an understanding and comparative perspective, which makes it possible to draw conclusions in the sense of gaining a deeper insight into questions of education and *Bildung*"[2] (Waterkamp, 2006, p. 195).[3]

Different actors who undertake comparative studies of education can be identified. Bray et al (2014, p. 19) give five categories of people: parents, practitioners, policy makers, international agencies and academics. Each group has its own purposes and approaches, making it instructive to note similarities and differences.

2.1.1 Research in the light of globalization …

Globalization is a term that has become a popular buzzword and has found a versatile usage, being mentioned in newspapers, TV, internet pages, etc. to explain financial, social and cultural issues and problems (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004). In comparative educational research it has a special place, since it both triggers even more discussion, but at the same time complicates the research further (Dale, 2015). But what then really is globalization?

The concept of globalization indicates the blurring of borders: through technical progress, national and natural borders are rapidly losing importance, and spatial distance is thus set aside in many aspects (Hotz-Hart and Küchler, 1999). The term covers several aspects in the ongoing transnational intermeshing of trade, politics economy, culture, etc. McGrew (1992) presents a definition of globalization that takes all these aspects into consideration:

> Globalization refers to the multiplicity of linkages and interconnections that transcend the nation-states (and by implication the societies) which make up the modern world system. It defines a process through which events, decisions and activities in one part of the world can come to have significant consequences for individuals and communities in quite distant parts of the globe. Nowadays, goods, capital, people, knowledge, images, communications, crime, culture, pollutants, drugs, fashions, and beliefs all readily flow across territorial boundaries. Transnational networks, social movements and relationships are extensive in virtually all areas of human activity from the academic to the sexual. Moreover,

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[2] If not stated otherwise, all translations of quotations in other languages than English are done by the author.

[3] For a more extensive background on international comparative research, see e.g. Adick (2008b), Allemann-Ghionda (2004), Bray (2014), Hornberg *et al.* (2009), Parreira do Amaral (2015) or Phillips and Schweisfurth (2011).

the existence of global systems of trade, finance, and production binds together in very complicated ways the fate of households, communities, and nations across the globe. (pp. 65-66)

Moreover, Niederberger and Schink (2011) give a detailed overview regarding globalization and related concepts, discussing the different approaches of the prevalent definitions in different fields, such as that of Giddens (1990), who considers globalization to be a political, technological and cultural as well as economic phenomenon, in a "complex set of processes" (Giddens, 2002, p. 12). Giddens defines it as "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa" (1990, p. 64), thereby all aspects of our everyday life are changed.

The word globalization certainly invokes different connotations, which can be positive, although the tendency in recent years has been to attach a negative connotation, invoking fear and outrage (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004). In many West-European countries the debate over the "globalization shock" (Beck, 2015) has called for major attention, often seeing the phenomenon as a threat (Dürrschmidt, 2002) of what will come in the future to local employment, and convulsing the self-perception of the homogenous, closed national state space of so many nations. Sometimes, it seems like it is used to explain almost anything, which should call for caution (Ball, 2007):

In other words, we need to be wary of what Harvey (1996) called 'globaloney'. The 'globalization thesis' can be used to explain almost anything and everything and is ubiquitous in current policy documents and policy analysis. (p. 225)

We have to bear in mind that although globalization may be considered a buzzword in today's European society, it is nevertheless not a new phenomenon. Its history can be noted in literature dating back more than 500 years. Some authors even regard Columbus' first voyage to America in 1492 as the beginning of globalization (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004). The term itself is relatively young though; it first appeared in an English dictionary in the second half of the 20th century (Scholte, 2005) and entered into the common German vocabulary in the 1990s (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004).

In addition, it has to be noted that the debate on globalization focuses on different aspects. According to Lang-Wotjasik (2008, p. 33), on one level it describes an era, closely connected to the modern one and its premises (such as the enlightenment and industrialization); and on another level it indicates the "multilayered, partially contradictory or

opposing proceeding societal developments, that can be observed at the end of the 20th century and the 21th century" (ibid.). Dürrschmidt (2002) emphasizes three main debates within social research on this topic: periodization (the relation between the modern and globalization), impetus (the driving force) and homogenization versus heterogenization (in which the question is concerned with identity on different levels: from the national state to individual biography).

Taking these aspects into account, there is thus a significant need to add the context when referring to globalization and the research conducted, even though the vast debate on globalization is not within the scope of this thesis. Because of its international set-up, this study needs to acknowledge and consider the fact that the concept of globalization is culturally shaped in different ways, in never-ending processes. In this study, the societal changes and developments in the end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21th century, such as the free movement without limits over borders, in which production and competence take place on a worldwide basis, are emphasized. Geographical distance or political borders no longer constitute major obstacles, neither for goods nor for people. In this society, human dynamics, institutional change, political relations and the natural environment have successively become even more intertwined.[4]

2.1.2 … and migration

Closely attached to the concept of globalization are the aforementioned movements of people, bringing in the concept of migration. Two essential assumptions have been the basis in traditional migration research: "first, settlement is the norm, and second, modern societies live within stable national borders" (Küppers *et al.*, 2016, p. 7), giving the perception of migration as a one-time movement from one nation state to another. This perception is now considered to be outdated by researchers, as Küppers et al. (2016) state:

> Migration can therefore no longer be understood as the singular movement of person A leaving country X to go and live in country Y. Rather, continuous movement between countries X and Y, and sometimes a new route to country Z, has become one of many possible patterns of mobility. (p. 2)

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[4]   For further discourse on globalization, see e.g. Lang-Wojtasik (2008) and Allemann-Ghionda (2004).

Therefore, a new concept of transnational migration is emerging, questioning the long-held conceptualization of immigrants as people uprooting themselves once, leaving behind their home and country. Pries (2004) establishes four different groups of immigrants; emigrant/immigrant, return migrant, diaspora migrant and transmigrant, which all differ in their reason for migration, relations to the region of origin and region of settlement, as well as in time frames. Glick Schiller et al (1995, p. 48) further describe transmigrants as "immigrants whose daily lives depend on multiple and constant interconnections across international borders and whose public identities are configured to more than one-nation state". The transnational approach implies a process, in which migrants create new social spaces, where the country/region of origin and the new country/region are interconnecting with each other. "Transnational social spaces", new contexts for social intertwining are thus emerging (Fürstenau, 2016), which are:

> … multi-local, but constitute, at the same time, a social space which is not merely transitory, which offers an important reference structure for social positions and positioning whilst also controlling the everyday life practice of people. (p. 72)

These transnational social spaces are not simply set up by people frequently crossing borders but also by relatively non-mobile people who, for instance, use modern communication technologies to keep in contact with their families abroad (Faist, 2000).

In educational contexts, the concept of "transnational educational spaces" has been proposed by Adick (2005). Such a space comprises "the cross-border practices of migrants and non-migrants, individuals as well as groups and organizations, [who] link up in social spaces criss-crossing national states" (Faist *et al.*, 2013, p. 2). This concept also moves away from the classical idea of unidirectional migration, instead offering a broad approach on this arising phenomenon in educational settings. This gives a new transnational reality, adding new dimensions to globalization and migration in a more dynamic approach. Through this transnational reality further linguistic diversity is created.

2.1.3 A globalized research context colored by (trans-)migration

In the light of the aforementioned discourses of globalization and (trans-)migration, comparative research thus faces new challenges, but also new opportunities. This has been discussed widely during the last two decades in US-American comparative research, but in German comparative education, until now it has taken a marginal

position (Hornberg, 2009), only being discussed in a few studies (Lang-Wojtasik, 2008; Bargen, 2014)(Hornberg, 2010). It can even be said that comparative research in Germany has been decreasing rather than expanding and is definitely conducted with a more national and Eurocentric view than in other countries (Steiner-Khamsi, 2009).

Today, comparative research is, however, an indispensable part of educational research, although quantitative approaches such as large-scale international performance studies (for instance PISA or PIRLS) are often the first that come to mind for the mainstream population when thinking of international comparative research. The use of those international assessments is not unproblematic, though, and not to be used as a 'quick fix' inserting selected parts from higher ranked countries. Qualitative comparative research gives the chance to reach deeper into the thoughts of the different participating individuals and their perspectives, yet both approaches can complement each other well and are not to be seen as "polar opposites, or dichotomies" (Creswell, 2014).

Globalization does not only change our society and research, it has a profound effect on education as well. International institutions often shape the direction of education-policy decisions. The transnational migration brought about by globalization means that many schools are dealing with increasingly linguistic diversity in their student populations, being part of the continually ongoing globalized process.

In this study, globalization is considered as a multifaceted, continually ongoing process. Further, a transnational approach is taken, considering migration as a continuing process in today's globalized world, which creates social spaces of interactions drawing on individuals' previous experiences from different countries. The study follows a more Anglo-American stance in not establishing the aforementioned difference between comparative and international, but instead aiming at an inclusive approach. This study is further conducted by an academic transmigrant, undertaking a comparison, in order to deepen the understanding of the practice in multilingual settings.

2.2 Linguistic diversity: multilingualism and related concepts

The aforementioned aspects regarding globalization and (trans-)migration illustrate the fact that linguistic diversity is not a new phenomenon. It has actually always existed, even though it might be lived as particularly present in today's society with new technologies blurring time and space.

As stated above, the aim of this study is to describe the implementation strategies used when teaching reading in multilingual settings and thereby distinguish the teachers' beliefs regarding that multilingualism. Drawing on the research aim, it has to be pointed out that there are several dimensions of linguistic diversity that I refer to as multilingualism. Depending on the field, different aspects can be highlighted and I have chosen to focus on two main dimensions: individual and societal multilingualism, being of major importance in this study.

Individual multilingualism

Individual multilingualism is a dimension often focused upon when using the term multilingualism. Several researchers within diverse fields (Kemp, 2009; Videsott, 2006) have tried to find a definition in this dimension. The degree of proficiency has especially been highlighted, such as in Bloomfield's understanding of multilingualism (1933, p. 35) as "the native-like control of two languages". Later, Weinreich (1953) gives a less proficiency focused definition and states that "the practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism, and the person involved, bilingual".

Multilingual in this sense describes people that use two or more languages. But as we can observe from such definitions further questions arise, such as "What is usage?" Saying "hi" to someone, chatting with someone or writing academic papers? And what is language? This concerns two major issues: proficiency and frequency of usage.

Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) has classified the extensive number of definitions of individual bilingualism drawing on four different criteria: *origin* (which language is learned first), *competence* (which language does the person know best), *function* (which language does the person use the most) or *attitudes/identification* (which language does the person identify with). She observes a change in the setting of definitions, from competence towards function. The classification of Skutnabb-Kangas highlights that the definitions show an important variation, and the complexity of defining this concept is also distinguished (see Section 2.2.1 for further reflections of concepts regarding multilingualism).

Societal multilingualism

This is a broad term used to refer to multilingualism in a particular speech community of different sizes, beyond the individuals, which can include particular groupings, such as societies, regions or countries. This does not, however, imply that all the individuals in those groupings are multilingual (Sebba, 2010). As examples at state and community

levels, several countries can be mentioned: Belgium, Canada, Luxemburg and Switzerland. At a closer look, societal multilingualism is however not as homogenous as one would think. It can be spread across different regions or levels. This can be exemplified by Canada, which is officially bilingual, with English and French at a federal level, meaning that Canadians can expect to receive communications and services from the government in whatever language they prefer. Below the federal level, it can, however, be distinguished that some provinces are monolingual in practice with a major part of the population speaking only one language (Sebba, 2010).

Societal multilingualism today has to be described in relation to the existence of national states as well as the transnational movements through migration (Hyltenstam *et al.*, 2012) which has a major effect on those groupings. Within national states, national autochthone minorities can have their own language/s as well, in different levels of recognition, such as Sorbian in Germany and Finnish in Sweden.

It must be noted that there is no clear-cut separation between individual and societal multilingualism, rather they are closely related and affect each other. The European Commission (2007, p. 6) defines it as including both individuals and society and further groups: "Multilingualism is understood as the ability of societies, institutions, groups and individuals to engage, on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives". In this study, the focus is on students' individual multilingualism and how this is implemented in the classrooms.

Focus in research

Various research fields focus upon multilingual issues. Over the last three decades, research has included detailed analyses of multilingual interactional practices in schools and classrooms (Saxena and Martin-Jones, 2013). It has shifted from being based in linguistic anthropology in the 1980s, with the major focus on cultural minority groups in the first generation of research, to the second generation which emerged from the early 1990s onwards, which developed a critical, interpretative approach to the study of multilingual classroom interaction, highlighting issues regarding language-in-education policies. In the current third generation research, the emphasis is on the agency exercised by teachers and students and the ways in which interactional practices and classroom routines interact with wider language ideologies.

The basic question has often been whether multilingualism is an obstacle for learning or teaching, even though research in different fields has documented the advantages associated with it (especially to the individual) on different levels: cognitive, affective, psychological and social (Bialystok, 2001). Multilingualism is also recognized for the symbolic capital it offers to the individual, communities and nations. In a globalized society, language is a commodity that can have market value (Bourdieu, 1977), which is recognized on a political, macro level (see for instance UNESCO, 2003; European Commission, 2005).

2.2.1 Usage and perception of concepts

Concepts and terminology are often sources of on-going academic discussion and debate, changing depending on context or time. Considering the international set-up of this study, different key concepts and terms need to be contextualized. Especially regarding linguistic diversity itself, several concepts are distinguished. In English-speaking regions, the term 'bilingual' is mainly used, meaning knowing and using two autonomous languages, whereas the term 'multilingual' is often used to mean knowing and using more than two languages (García and Wei, 2015).

In Germany, there is a tradition of using the term *Zweisprachigkeit* (bilingualism), although more recently in the light of a paradigm change *Mehrsprachigkeit* (multilingualism) is becoming the umbrella term (Cillia, 2010), even though some people would still use it only when referring to the ability to speak more than two languages.

In Sweden, the term *flerspråkighet* (multilingualism) is finding a broader usage than the limiting term *tvåspråkighet* (bilingualism) (Otterup, 2005), which only includes two languages. However, in the actual Swedish context, *flerspråkiga elever* (multilingual students) is often used for students without major knowledge of Swedish. Instead of referring to the competence in several languages, the lacking Swedish knowledge is thus hightlighed (Håkansson, 2003).

In Spanish-speaking countries, including Chile, the term *bilingüe* (bilingual) is widespread (Riedemann Fuentes, 2008), even though *multilingüe* (multilingual) is gaining attention.

Mother tongue and native speaker

In today's monolingual oriented Europe, a sequential language learning process and the term 'mother tongue' has a strong position, indicating the first language (L1) that we learn when we are born and presumably the language that we speak best. This draws on the notion that there will be only one language from the beginning (birth) and that languages are separated, self-contained systems of structure (García and Wei, 2015). Languages learned later in life will sequentially be called L2 or third language (L3), setting up a hierarchy or order of languages (Hyltenstam *et al.*, 2012). 'Native speaker' is another term often used to refer to people who presumably speak their L1 from birth and on a very high level (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017). This has been problematized, in that it appears to conflate biology with proficiency, ignoring social factors in language learning (Rampton, 1990). Moreover, the terms L1, L2 and L3 and the presumed order break down quickly when people speak more than one language at home. Today's reality can be very linguistically diverse and students with more than one home language are a common feature in many classrooms (García, 2009).

Majority language

A language that is usually spoken by the majority of a country's or a region's population can be defined as the majority language. However, it is important to keep in mind that the "respective terms 'majority' and 'minority' for Languages A and B are not always accurate; speakers of Language B may be numerically greater but in a disadvantaged social or economic position which makes the use of the language of wider communication attractive" (Grenoble, 2009, p. 318). The majority language is generally considered the high-status language,[5] but this must not be the case. Dominant language can be another term for the language that is of major dominance in one society.

Minority language

A language that is mainly spoken by the minority of a country's or a region's population is often defined as a minority language. Such languages can be traditionally spoken in a limited area of one state or by migrant groups (Gorter *et al.*, 2014). It is usually a low-

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[5] Swaan (2001) describes the global language system as a pyramid-like organigram, with the vast majority of languages in the bottom of the pyramid and a few globally valued languages in the top. The status of a language however differs in different contexts depending on several factors: number of speakers, political or financial power, status as an official language or not, use on national or local level, etc. and there is no definite list of what a 'high-status language' is. The major European languages tend to be considered as valuable, therefore high status.

status language. Another term used for this phenomenon is non-dominant language. A minority language can further have a recognized legal status within a region or country, such as the Sami languages in Sweden.

Home language

The term 'home language'[6] is sometimes used to describe a language other than the majority language, used in the family by migrant communities. However, there is no consensus on one term and there are several other suggestions. Another one would be "heritage language" (Baker, 2006), which is frequently used in the United States. The fact that the latter term points rather to the past (parents' and ancestors' language) and not to the present situation of the person in question, thus lacking in contemporary relevance (García, 2009), has been one reason for not applying it in this study, since it is the students' present life-world multilingualism (LWMUL) that is relevant. Another reason for the preference of 'home language' in this study instead is that 'heritage language' might imply links with indigenous language and that is not the case of the languages in this study. Furthermore, Blackledge and Creese (2010) problematize the notion of 'heritage', arguing that it is more complex than simply a 'passing on' of language or cultural values, and instead link this notion to complex concepts of identity as well as language. In line with these arguments, this study considers it vital to consider a framework with an holistic view, including the contexts as well.

The norm

After the creation of nation states in Europe in the 19th century (Reich, 2000), the "one nation, one language" ideology became the ruling one, almost a truism.[7] The numbers tell another story though. *Ethnologue* (the most comprehensive catalog of the world's languages) lists 7,097 distinct living languages (Ethnologue), 2016-04-06). The calculation dividing the number of languages with the 193 nations of the United Nations' rec-

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6   In German contexts, the term *Herkunftssprache* (language of origin) is widespread. In Sweden, the term currently used would be *modersmål* (mother tongue). A shift from the word *hemspråk* (home language) was applied in 1997 (Hyltenstam *et al.*, 2012), since the term had been criticized by many researchers who saw it as limiting the domain of use to the home. However, the same researchers pointed out various difficulties with the term 'mother tongue' as well (Hyltenstam and Tuomela, 1996, p. 10).

7   The standardization of the languages functioned as a bonding agent in a creation of nation states. The rise of the printing technic at that time and the establishment of education systems also contributed to the standardization (Andresen and Carter, 2016).

ognized sovereign members, leads to the conclusion that there is no one-to-one correlation between nation and language. Drawing on these numbers, various researchers claim that multilingualism is relevant for all children and adolescents (Gogolin *et al.*, 2017) in today's complex societies, since they all have contact with at least one language besides the academic language, through school (in foreign language learning) or through family and friends.

In today's Europe, speaking one language (monolingualism) is, however, still considered to be the norm. Equating monolingualism with normality has a long tradition, perhaps starting with the curse of Babel as means of punishment to "confuse their language so they will not understand each other" (Genesis 11:6-8, Biblica, 2017) linguistic diversity is seen to be inflicted on humanity as a means of punishment. Therefore education within this framework can be seen to be categorized by a monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2002b), see more information in Section 3.1.4), in which linguistic diversity is made invisible.

The perception of multilingualism

The perception of multilingualism has long been seen as a balanced, linear and static product which described as dualistic (Matarese, 2012), from a polarizing and dichotomous categorization that colors that perspective. This is mirrored with terminology like _bilingualism, balanced multilingualism, additive_ or *subtractive bilingualism* (García, 2009). The perception is that the multilingual individual moves between two (or more) separate languages.

The perspective of balanced multilingualism draws on the idea of a very high level in all individuals' languages. The target, from this perspective, is to have native speaker proficiency in all the languages. Pedagogical and social implications of these beliefs include the reduction of multilingualism to "two [or more] monolingualisms" (García, 2009), in which students are expected to acquire and use languages as separate entities, mixing them as little as possible. Code-switching behavior, 'mixing languages', is often stigmatized and seen as 'bad language' (Garcia and Wei, 2014). Even if multilingualism has another position in education today, it is far from being seen as 'normal', on the contrary, monolingualism is still seen as the norm (Lengyel, 2017). Monolingual approaches are often used in education programs and this "assumes that legitimate practices are only those enacted by monolinguals" (García, 2009). These perceptions are further scrutinized in Section 3.1.3.

2.2.2 Linguistic diversity in this study

As seen above, the dimensions regarding multilingualism are multifaceted, distinguishing different characteristics and showing the complexity of this phenomenon. Today, there is still no overall definition, even though the tendency more recently has been not to highlight the proficiency, but instead the function and usage, where bilinguals would be those "who use two or more languages […] in their everyday lives" (Grosjean, 2010).[8]

Following a diverse stance, in this study the term 'multilingual' is used as an umbrella one for usage of more than one language,[9] but without considering either proficiency or frequency. The contact with the languages is highlighted instead of proficiency. This decision was taken due to the following reasons:

1. Many of the students in the participating classes have more than one home language in their communicative repertoire.

2. Multilingualism refers to the linguistic diversity (*Vielfalt, mångfald, diversidad*) and the complexity that is connected to the reason for communication, with different spoken and written languages in the repertoire of one group.

3. In any household or local group, linguistically and socially, there are multiple paths to the spoken and written language. People will have varying degrees of proficiency in their different languages on different levels (speaking, writing or knowledge in different fields).

4. Finally, the term 'multilingual' is more useful than the term 'bilingual' since it focuses on the multiple ways in which people use and combine the codes in their communicative repertoire when speaking and writing. The term 'bilingual' evokes a two-way distinction between codes, whereas in multilingual settings, people typically have access to several codes at the same time, moving in and

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8   In the approaches to individual multilingualism, the situational usage of languages is worth mentioning, research has highlighted how usage of the language depends on the situation and context (Grosjean, 2001), giving a more complex perspective of multilingualism.

9   The Council of Europe's term 'plurilingual' (2006) for an individual person's experience of language in a cultural context will not be considered. Firstly, it is not a term that is commonly used outside of Europe and secondly it is even more strongly associated to the thinking that languages are separated and countable.

out of them as they speak and write. The notion of bilingualism (_zweispra-chig/tvåspråkig/bilingüe)_ points in a direction of seeing languages as separate, countable systems and that is not the stance in this study.[10]

A multilingual setting in this study is thus defined as one in which individuals with knowledge of several languages are present, even if they are not making use of all of them. In this study, the students' entire linguistic repertoire is considered as _multilingual resources (MULR)_[11] which will be different for each individual, interacting in a complex manner.

2.3   Linguistic diversity in Germany, Sweden and Chile

Today, personal mobility is enabled though the latest technological advances, and transnational movements take place with much less effort than just some decades ago. The movements must not just take place once per person, the transmigration can be repeated in several steps, where individuals themselves choose to continue the migration process (Gogolin and Pries, 2004). These transnational movements, on a shorter or longer basis, engender linguistic diversity.

At a political level, the recognition of linguistic diversity is significant and the right to education in the mother tongue is acknowledged (see Chapter 1). The importance of language for personal development is often highlighted, such as in the Human Development Report (2004) of the United Nations:

> Language is often a key element of an individual's cultural identity. Limitations on people's ability to use their mother tongue — and limited facility in speaking the dominant or official national language — can exclude people from education, political life and access to justice. There is no more powerful means of "encouraging" individuals to assimilate to a dominant culture than having the economic, social and political returns stacked against their mother tongue. (p. 33)

Although the ability to use one's mother tongue is important, it does not make the use of multiple languages in different contexts, e.g. in education, easy or practical. Where

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[10] Even if a heteroglossic stance (see Section 3.1.3) is taken in this study, some terms mainly from a dualistic perception will be used, since they are key words in previous research to explain some of the existing occurrences.

[11] The multilingual resources will be abbreviated as MULR in figures and tables.

the diversity is the greatest (e.g. Sub-Saharan Africa with more than 2,500 languages), also the challenges are the greatest[12] and the ability of many people to use their language in education is particularly limited (United Nations, 2004).

In the following section, the linguistic diversity and the language situation in the three countries in this study will be described, drawing on statistics in order to offer an overview of contexts. It is important to highlight that statistics are gathered in different manners in different countries and that they do not always refer to the same data. This is, however, an important stance in itself and shows the different contextual perspectives.

2.3.1 Germany

Statistical information

There are several sources to statistical information in Germany, such as Destatis (*Statistisches Bundesamt*, the Federal Statistical Office[13]) with the mission "to provide and disseminate statistical information which has to be objective, independent and of high quality"; and Statista[14], aimed at business clients and academics. The 16 different *Bundesländer* (federal state) of Germany also have their statistical offices. In Baden-Württemberg (BW) the *Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg* (Baden-Württemberg Land Statistical Office)[15] is responsible for statistics.

The German territory (the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic) saw massive migrations as a consequence of World War II, including movements from East to West Germany. In the Western parts, the need for labor was increasing and foreign 'guest workers' (*Gastarbeiter*) were recruited, initially mainly through agreements with Italy in the 1950s, followed by ones in the 1960s with Spain, Greece, Turkey, Morocco, Portugal, Tunisia and the former Yugoslavia (Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung, 2012). In the 1980s, the number of 'guest workers' declined and

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[12] In these regions, only 13% of the children who receive primary education do so in their mother tongue. In high-income OECD countries, the percentage in 2004 was 87% according to the United Nations (2004).

[13] On www.destatis.de information is to be found in German and English. Some information can be used freely.

[14] On www.statista.com information is to be found in German, English and Spanish. Some information can be used freely.

[15] www.statistik-bw.de free information in German.

the numbers of asylum seekers increased, changing the influx as well as the total num-
bers of migrants, resulting in a slightly negative migration balance.[16] The immigration
numbers to Germany rose again in the beginning of the 1990s to once more decline in
the end of the decade (Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung, 2012). In general, it can
be stated that there has been a quite considerable amount of immigration, starting from
the post-war era. The official understanding until very recently, however, has been that
Germany is not a country of immigration, even though the numbers tell a different story
(Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, 2005). In 2015, the number of immigrants to
Germany reached a new high of 1,139,402 people (Statista, 2018b).

As stated above, the composition of the countries of origin has changed over time. Ger-
man statistics on migration predominantly concentrate on *Staatsangehörigkeit* (citizen-
ship). In the year of the study 2015, the majority of migrants came from Syria, then
Romania. In Fig. 1 (drawing on Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017b) an overview of the
origin of immigrants to Germany in 2015 is shown.
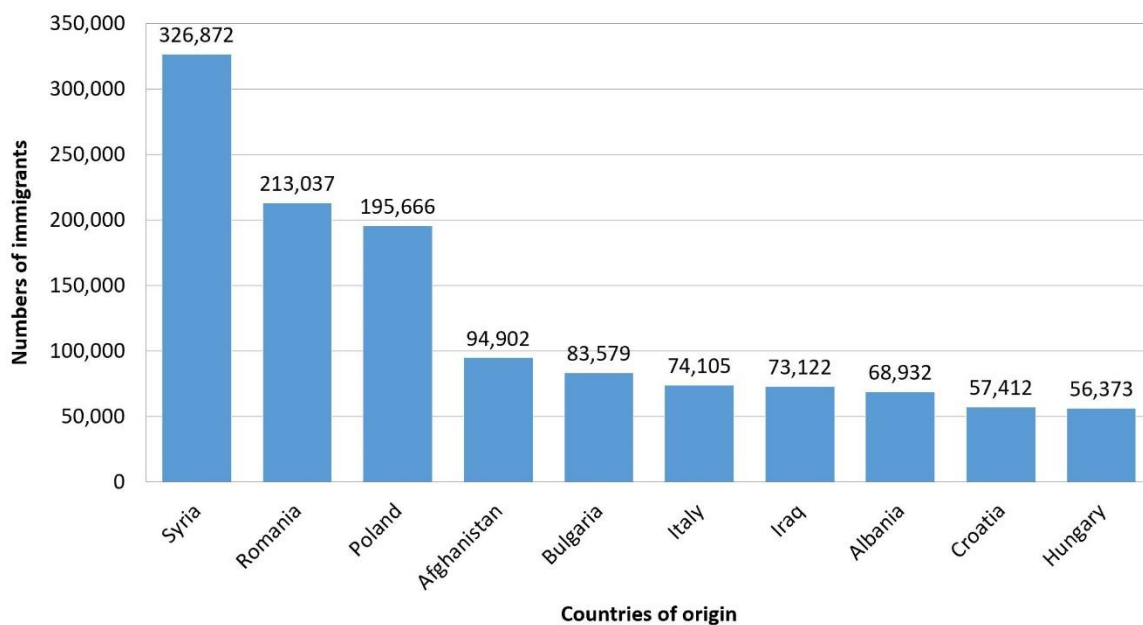
Fig. 1: Immigrants to Germany in 2015 by country of origin

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[16] The difference between immigration and emigration for a determined concrete region and a specific
period of time (Bundesinstitut für Bevölkerungsforschung, 2018). In this case it would mean that the
emigration was higher than the immigration.

Fig. 2 (drawing on Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017c) provides an overview of the most common countries of origin of immigrants in Germany over time (dated 31.12.2016). As can be seen, the origins of the largest groups of immigrants are Turkey then Poland.
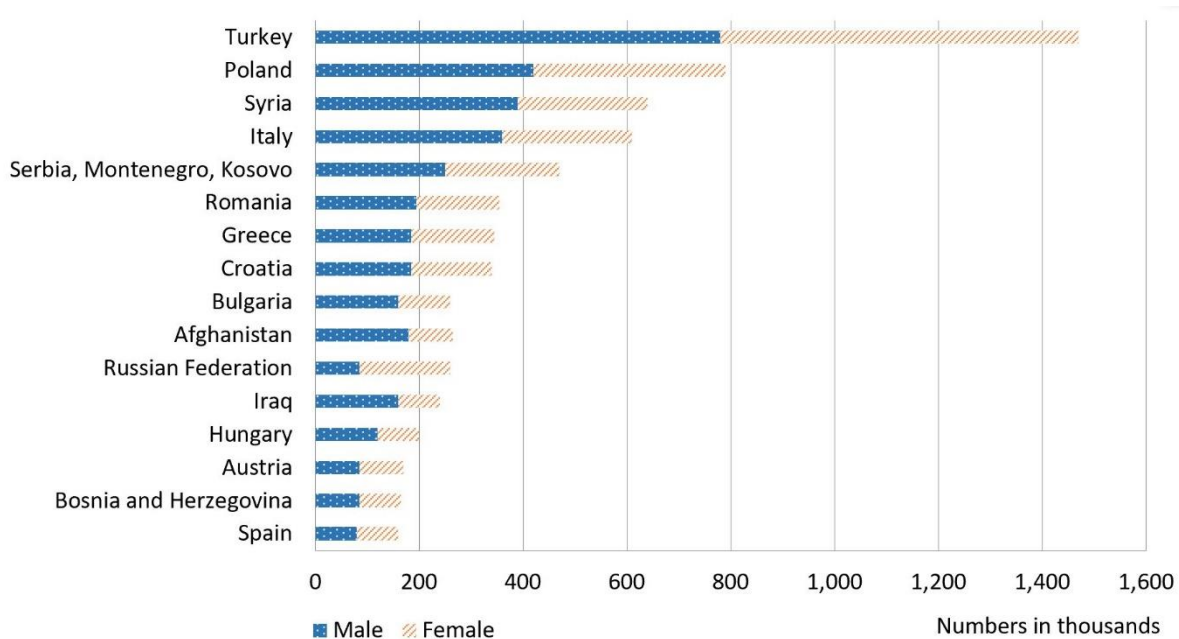
Fig. 2: Immigrants to Germany over time by country of origin[17]

In the statistics from the Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg (2017c), 21% of the population in Germany in 2015 was stated to have a migration background;[18] this includes all people without a German citizenship; naturalized, former foreigners, who immigrated to Germany after 1949; and people born in Germany with at least one parent who has migrated or who was born outside of Germany. In BW, 28% of the population had a migration background in 2015 (ibid.).

Information on students with a migration background is also provided by the Statistisches Landesamt (for this study, regarding BW) (see Section 2.4.1).

Language situation
The official language in Germany stipulated by law is Standard German (Eurydice, 2016), sometimes referred to as High German (*Hochdeutsch).* Standard German is the medium of spoken and written communication in virtually all public sectors of society,

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[17] Author's translation, drawing on Statistisches Bundesamt (2017c).

[18] The term migration background is used with different meanings, therefore urging on an explanation and/or context when used.

even if not regulated by law. Numerous people growing up with German speak a local German dialect at home and in the community, especially in the south (Lenz, 2008), and are first formally exposed to Standard German once they enter primary school and are taught to read and write.

There are four acknowledged national minorities[19]; the Danish minority, the Frisian community, the Sinti and Roma as well as the Sorbian (Bundesministerium des Innern, für Bau und Heimat, 2015). Alongside the protection and promotion of the identity of those autochthon minorities, also their languages, as well as the regional language Low German (*Niederdeutsch)*, should be protected and promoted. Moreover, in the German constitution (Bundesministerium der Justiz und für Verbraucherschutz, 2017) discrimination due to a person's language is prohibited.

The usage of English varies over the different *Bundesländer*, having a major dispersion in city areas and academic circles. English is a mandatory subject starting in grade 1. In 2017, 70.1% of the Germans claim to have knowledge of English, of those 9.43% estimate their knowledge as "very good" (*sehr gut*) (Statista, 2017). Germany ranks 9 out of 80 countries by English skills in a worldwide annual survey (EF, 2017).[20]

In addition to the official language, the minority languages and dialects, Germany is also home to people of numerous languages due to transnational movements.[21] As stated above, the German statistics concentrate on citizenship, not on language, and no comprehensive statistics can thus be found on languages spoken in Germany. The statistics regarding citizenship, however, show 195 countries of origin[22] for people living in Germany in 2016 (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017c; Statista, 2018a). In BW, there were 1,544,665 people without German citizenship in 2015,[23] originating from 189 different

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[19] The statistics regarding these groups are based on estimations: the Danish minority approx. 50,000 people, the Frisian community approx. 60,000 people, the Sinti and Roma approx. 70,000 people and the Sorbian, approx. 60,000 people (Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung, 2017).

[20] A certain bias in this survey has to be noted, since the survey was conducted by a company for language studies.

[21] Migration balance year in 2013 + 421,141 people (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, 2014).

[22] Some people are recorded as stateless or of unclear citizenship.

[23] Total number of citizens in Baden-Württemberg in 2015: 10,879,618 people (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2017d).

countries (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2017b).[24] These numbers indicate the presence of a significant linguistic diversity, since it can be assumed that a majority of those people speak another language alongside German.

2.3.2 Sweden

Statistical information

In Sweden, *Statistiska Centralbyrån* (Statistics Sweden, SCB)[25] develops, produces and disseminates the statistics, and coordinates the system for the official statistics in Sweden. The different governmental authorities, such as *folkbokföringen* (the population register by *Skatteverket*[26], the Swedish Tax Agency) and *Migrationsverket* (the Swedish Migration Agency) cooperate closely with each other.[27] Statistics on the migration process, such as the reasons for the migration as well as the language of origin can be found on both institutions' homepages.

Varying over time, Sweden has always experienced immigration as well as emigration. In the 19th century, emigration was greater than the immigration. However, after the World War II, Sweden became a net immigration country, starting with labor migrants in the 1950s before asylum seekers became in majority in the 1970 and 1980s, many of whom were Chilean (Migrationsverket, 2016).

This led to the fact that in 2015, 22.2% of the population was considered to have a foreign background (*utländsk bakgrund*)[28], 17% of which were 'foreign-born' (*utrikes född*) (over 1.6 million people of the total population of 9.851.017 people) (Statistiska centralbyrån, 2017). Besides the aforementioned categories, the number of people with non-Swedish citizenship (*utländsk medborgare*) is also given (8.9%).[29] In Fig. 3 the immigration and emigration numbers in Sweden over time are illustrated (drawing on Statistiska centralbyrån, 2018).

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[24] However, it has to be considered, that these are only the numbers of registered people.

[25] All statistics, tables as well as graphs and infographics can be copied freely, and reproduced (www.scb.se). Almost all material is published in both Swedish and English. Individualized search criteria can be inserted. A contact person is mostly added to the different statistics and graphics, for further information.

[26] www.skatteverket.se information in Swedish, English, Arabic as well as 17 further languages.

[27] www.migrationsverket.se information in Swedish, English, Arabic, Russian and 23 further languages.

[28] Used for people born abroad or in Sweden if both parents were born abroad.

[29] Not counting people with double citizenship.
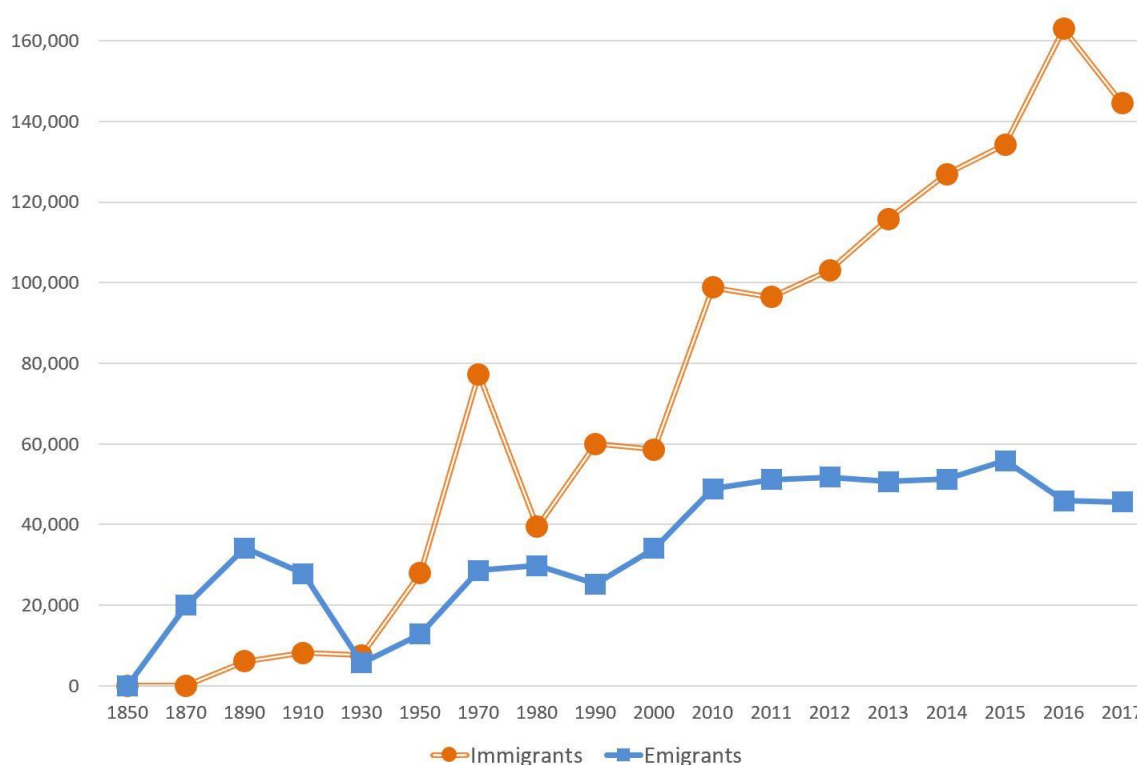
Fig. 3: Immigration and emigration in Sweden over time

Information regarding statistics in an educational context can also be found online. *Skolverket* (the Swedish National Agency for Education) has an online system, *SIRIS*[30]*,* providing information on education and childcare, as well as on results and quality. With this database, Skolverket aims "to make it easier for schools and municipalities to see what can be improved by examining their own performance and comparing themselves with others" (SIRIS, 2017b); and give the public a better understanding of how schools perform their key social functions, and to provide more balanced information about schools on the basis of their capacity.

Language situation

In Sweden, there is one majority language, Swedish, five officially recognized national autochthon minority languages[31] as well as almost 200 minority languages due to immigration, but without official status (Lindberg, 2007).

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[30] siris.skolverket.se, in operation since September 2001.

[31] The languages are: Finnish, Yiddish, Meänkieli (formerly known as Tornedal Finnish), Romani Chib and Sami. Parkvall (2015) estimates the number of speakers accordingly: Finnish, approx. 200,000 people, Yiddish approx. 3,000 people, Romani Chib approx. 11,000 people, and Sami approx. 6,000

Sami and Finnish-speaking minorities (including Meänkieli) have inhabited the territory that is now Sweden, for a long time, the Sami people being the indigenous people in the North. Even so, Sweden has been seen as homogeneous and monolingual, and the status of the Swedish language has never really been contested. Since the 16th century, it has had a strong position as the national language of the country, even though no legislation confirmed this status. In the 2000s, this changed with *språklagen* (The Language Act 2009:600, (Swedish Government, 2009), establishing Swedish as the principal language alongside the five minority languages. The Language Act also states that those with another mother tongue than the mentioned in the Act (Swedish and the five minority languages) should be given the possibility to develop and use that language.

There is a prevalent use of English as a global *lingua franca* in many domains, such as education, the business world, culture and entertainment. English is a mandatory subject in school starting in grade 1 (Skolverket, 2011b). Sweden ranks 2 out of 80 countries by English skills in the aforementioned worldwide annual survey by EF (2017). Some people fear that the increasing usage of English could result in a diglossic situation[32] with Swedish relegated to a low-status language (Lindberg, 2007; Norrby, 2015) and the concern over the position of English significantly led to the aforementioned Language Act. Lindberg (2007) even states:

> The position of English in the Swedish speech community has actually become comparable to that of a second language rather than a foreign language, since many people in Sweden today use English on a daily basis in different contexts. (p. 72)

Immigration[33] has contributed in expanding the linguistic diversity in Sweden. In Tab. 1[34], the 10 most spoken languages with estimated numbers of native speakers (not including Swedish) are shown. Finnish is found in the top, followed by Arabic, which has increased strongly recent years (Parkvall, 2015).[35]

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people. Parkvall includes the speakers of Meänkieli in Finnish, since the separation of the two is historically difficult.

[32] A situation in which two dialects or languages are used by a single language community (Fishman, 1967).

[33] Migration balance year 2015 + 103 662 (Statistiska centralbyrån, 2016).

[34] Author's translation, drawing on Parkvall (2015).

[35] In this study, it should be noted that language and nationality are not considered to correlate.

Language	Number
Finnish	200,000
Arabic	155,000
Bosnia, Croatian, Serbian, Montenegrin	130,000
Kurdish	84,000
Polish	76,000
Spanish	75,000
Persian	74,000
German	72,000
Danish	57,000

Tab. 1: The 10 most spoken languages in Sweden and estimated number of native speakers (not including Swedish)

2.3.3 Chile

Statistical information

In Chile, there are various ways to find statistical information. The Federal *Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas* (INE, National Institute for Statistics)[36] and the *Departamento de Estadísticas e Información de Salud* (DEIS)[37] are two recognized sources of statistical information.

Apart from several indigenous groups, the nation of Chile was built up by several groups of European immigrants, such as Germans, which have had a major influence on Chilean history (Deutsche Welle, 2011). From 1850-1910, Chilean policy to enhance the financial development, favorable conditions and the political situation encouraged Germans to move to Chile (Museo Histórico Nacional, 2016).

However, during the 20th century, Chile was predominantly a country where more people left than arrived. In the 1990s, this changed and the migration to Chile increased

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[36] www.ine.cl information in Spanish.

[37] www.deis.cl information in Spanish.

(Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional de Chile, 2015; Departamento de Extranjería y Migración del Ministerio del Interior, 2007), moderately increasing the net population rate (UNICEF, 2014). According to a survey in 2015, the number of migrants[38] in Chile was 465,319 (2.7% of the total population),[39] an increase of 1.7%, from 2006 when the number was 154,643 people. Today, about 70% of immigrants come from neighboring countries, Peru, Bolivia and Colombia (Gobierno de Chile, 2016). The overall term *migrante* (migrant) is used for people changing country[40], and *nueva inmigración* (new migration) refers to recent migrants from neighboring countries (Departamento de Extranjería y Migración del Ministerio del Interior, 2007).

In the 2012 national census, eight indigenous groups are named, the major ones being *mapuche* and *aymara[41]* (Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas - Chile, 2013).

Language situation

The main language in Chile is *castellano* (Spanish). There are several varieties of Spanish (dialects) alongside indigenous languages within the country. The *Ley indígena,* an Indigenous Peoples Act, (Act 19253), (OECD, 2013b; Ministerio de Planificación y Corrección, 1993), recognizes eight indigenous groups[42] and their right of usage and conservation of their culture and language. There are initiatives at the political level to highlight and include this in society, such as the statement of the president Michelle Bachelet when initiating her second term of office in May 2016 (Prensa Presidencia Chile, 2016): "Chile is a multicultural nation. We should recognize the indigenous communities, not only as individuals with personal needs, but as culture and organizations."

In practice, however, this is not implemented to any major extent, studies rather point to the opposite. According to a study from 2011, 8.7% of the Chilean population under 18 years old was indigenous and out of these people, 88% did not speak nor understand their heritage language (Silva, 2011).

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[38] Migrant would here imply people whose mother lived in another country when that person was born.

[39] The total population is not given in this publication, but a calculation of the given numbers would indicate 17,234,037 people. In the 2012 national census, the population was 16,634,603 people (Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas - Chile, 2013).

[40] *Migrante* would generally not be used to refer to Europeans or North Americans.

[41] *Mapuche* counted 1,508,722 people and *aymara* 114,523 people.

[42] *Alacalufe* (or *kawashkar*) , *atacameño*, *aymara*, *colla*, *mapuche*, *quechua*, *rapa nui* and *yámana*.

English is a mandatory subject in schools from grade 1 (Ministerio de Educación, 2013) but has no major spread for communication usage. Chile ranks 45 out of 80 countries in English skills in the aforementioned worldwide annual survey by EF (2017), in which Germany ranks 9 and Sweden 2.

2.3.4 Summary on the linguistic diversity in the three countries

In all the three countries, there is linguistic diversity from transnational movements, as well as from within. In Germany and Sweden, major similarities can be found, with a considerable variety of languages present besides the two main ones. Neither country could be said to be linguistically homogenous or monolingual. Especially in recent decades, transnational movements have added numerous languages to both countries. Today, over 20% of the population in these two European countries has a background, which includes another country and thus probably also another language. The situation in both Germany and Sweden shows a duplicated heterogeneity of origin and arrival contexts. The theoretical concept by Vertovec (2007) offers an understanding of such a context with the term "super diversity" as a condition which:

> … is distinguished by a dynamic of interplay of variables among an increased number of new, small and scattered, multiple-origin, transnationally connected, socio-economically differentiated and legally stratified immigrants. (Vertovec, 2007, p. 1024)

This concept is well suited to describe the contemporary situation in both Germany and Sweden.

In Chile, the linguistic diversity is minor, but nevertheless present. Spanish has a strong hold, both in usage and status, and the minority languages (even though officially recognized) have to settle with minor attention. Transnational movements are present here as well, but the linguistic diversity is not as great as in Germany and Sweden, since many migrants come from neighboring countries and thus speak Spanish, although often with another dialect (of different status).

The situation described above is confirmed by the *Ethnologue* list of linguistic diversity (Ethnologue, 2017). In that list, Germany ranks 132, with a linguistic diversity of 0.336, Sweden 158 with 0.226 and Chile 209 with 0.036.[43]

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[43] In the list the highest possible value is 1, which indicates total diversity (that is, no two people have the same mother tongue) while the lowest possible value, 0, indicates no diversity at all.

2.4 The three countries' education systems and the role of multilingualism and reading in those systems

This section describes the education systems in the three countries and how the multilingualism and reading are implemented at an institutional level. The conditions in the countries regarding multilingualism and reading as well as multilingual students are presented in detail. In order to give an overview of the education systems, first, the framework conditions of the education systems in the three countries are outlined below in Tab. 2, and described in detail.

Germany (BW)	Sweden	Chile
Federal structure	Decentralized school system	Decentralized school system
Compulsory school grades 1-9 (students aged 6-13). Largely tripartite school system (after four years of *Grundschule* – primary school[44])	Comprehensive school grades 1-9 (students aged 7-14)	Compulsory primary education grades 1-8 (students aged 6-13).
Predominant half-day school	All-day care	All-day care

Tab. 2: Frame conditions of the education systems in Germany (BW), Sweden and Chile

2.4.1 Germany

Germany is a federal republic, consisting of 16 *Bundesländer* (federal states). Each federal state (*Bundesland*) has supreme legislative and administrative power, including its education system. Due to this, one federal state had to be chosen for this thesis, which was BW.[45] The following description of the education system will thus focus on that state, providing an initial overall introduction of Germany.

In Germany, school attendance is compulsory for all children from the age of six and involves nine years of schooling in most federal states. Primary school is the first level of the compulsory education system and generally covers grades 1-4 (ages 6-10) (Bun-

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[44] With the exception for Berlin and Brandenburg, where it is six years (Eurydice, 2016).

[45] More information on the choice of *Bundesland* is given in Chapter 4.

deszentrale für politische Bildung, 2013). Traditionally in Germany, instruction in primary schools is organized for half-day attendance (Mullis, 2012). The schools are mainly public and free of charge.[46] Especially in the primary sector, the privately-maintained schools may only be established under very strict conditions. The *Staatliche Schulämter*[47] (State Education Authorities) in BW organize the distribution of the teachers to the schools, while the *Landesinstitut für Schulentwicklung*[48] (State Institute for Education) of BW supports the schools in self-evaluation and quality development.

After successful completion of the four years of primary school, the teachers give a recommendation (*Empfehlung*) for each student to different courses of education (*Bildungsgänge*) according to their ability level (based on the student's grades[49]) and predicted academic potential. Since 2012, in BW the final decision lies with the family, whereas prior to that the recommendation was mandatory (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2013). Students' performance in grade 4 is, however, still a decisive factor for the students' acceptance in the different courses of education starting with grade 5. Given the significance for the future of the student's later professional possibilities, the education systems after grade 4 will be described in detail as well, thus highlighting the importance of the students' grade[50] already after the first four school years.

Generally speaking, there are three courses of education (Mullis, 2012) after grade 4:

- **Basic general education** (*Hauptschulbildungsgang*): covers grades 5 (or 7) to 9 or 10, and its completion entitles students to proceed to vocational training or higher types of secondary school.

- **Extensive general education** (*Realschulbildungsgang*): covers grades 5 (or 7) to 10, and its completion entitles students to proceed to vocational training, upper secondary school, or a vocationally oriented upper secondary school (*Fachoberschule*) that may qualify students for universities of applied sciences.

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[46] In the school year 2014/2015, 9.1% of the students in Baden-Württemberg visited a private school, a tendency that is slightly raising (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2015b).

[47] www.schulaemter-bw.de, Information in German.

[48] www.ls-bw.de, Information in German.

[49] The grades consist of a grade point average of the subjects German and Maths. For *Gymnasium,* a grade point average superior of 2.6 is needed (grade 1 being the highest in Germany), (Schule in Deutschland, 2018).

[50] Here meaning the grades indicating a degree of accomplishment in school.

- Intensified general education (*Gymnasialer Bildungsgang*): covers grades 5 (or 7) to 12 or 13, and its successful completion leads to acquisition of the General Higher Education Entrance Qualification (*Allgemeine Hochschulreife, Abitur*).

The three aforementioned courses of education can be taught either at specific types of schools (*Hauptschule*, *Realschule* or *Gymnasium*) or at schools that offer two or three courses of education. These school types are the most common in secondary education, but several others are available in the various *Bundesländer* and this may vary considerably from the aforementioned structure.

The tendency in recent years, since the recommendation is no longer mandatory, shows a movement away from *Hauptschule*, resulting in a rise in *Gymnasium* attendance. In the 2015/16 academic year, in BW 7.2% of grade 5 students attended a *Hauptschule*, 33.7% attended a *Realschule*, and 43.8% attended a *Gymnasium* (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2017e)[51].[52]

In BW, there are schools bringing two or three types of education under one umbrella, such as the *Gesamtschule* (comprehensive school) in which the students are taught in different levels, or the *Gemeinschaftsschule* (community school) in which the students are taught together. In *Berufliche Schulen* (vocational schools), vocational training or a general secondary school-leaving certificate is offered. Additionally, there are special-needs schools for students with learning disabilities (*Förderschule*) (Amt für Schulen, Bildung und Wissenschaft, Koordinationsstelle Bildung und Integration, 2016). In the following figure (Fig. 4), the education system of BW is visualized.[53]

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[51] In the 2005/06 academic year, in Baden-Württemberg 28.9% of grade 5 students attended a *Hauptschule*, 31.9% attended a *Realschule*, and 37.8% attended a *Gymnasium* (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2017e).

[52] Due to the increased tendency to apply for *Gymnasium*, from the school year 2018/2019, parents have to present the recommendation when applying for the chosen course of education in grade 5 (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2018b).

[53] Author's translation, drawing on Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg (2018a). Major features are described in the text.
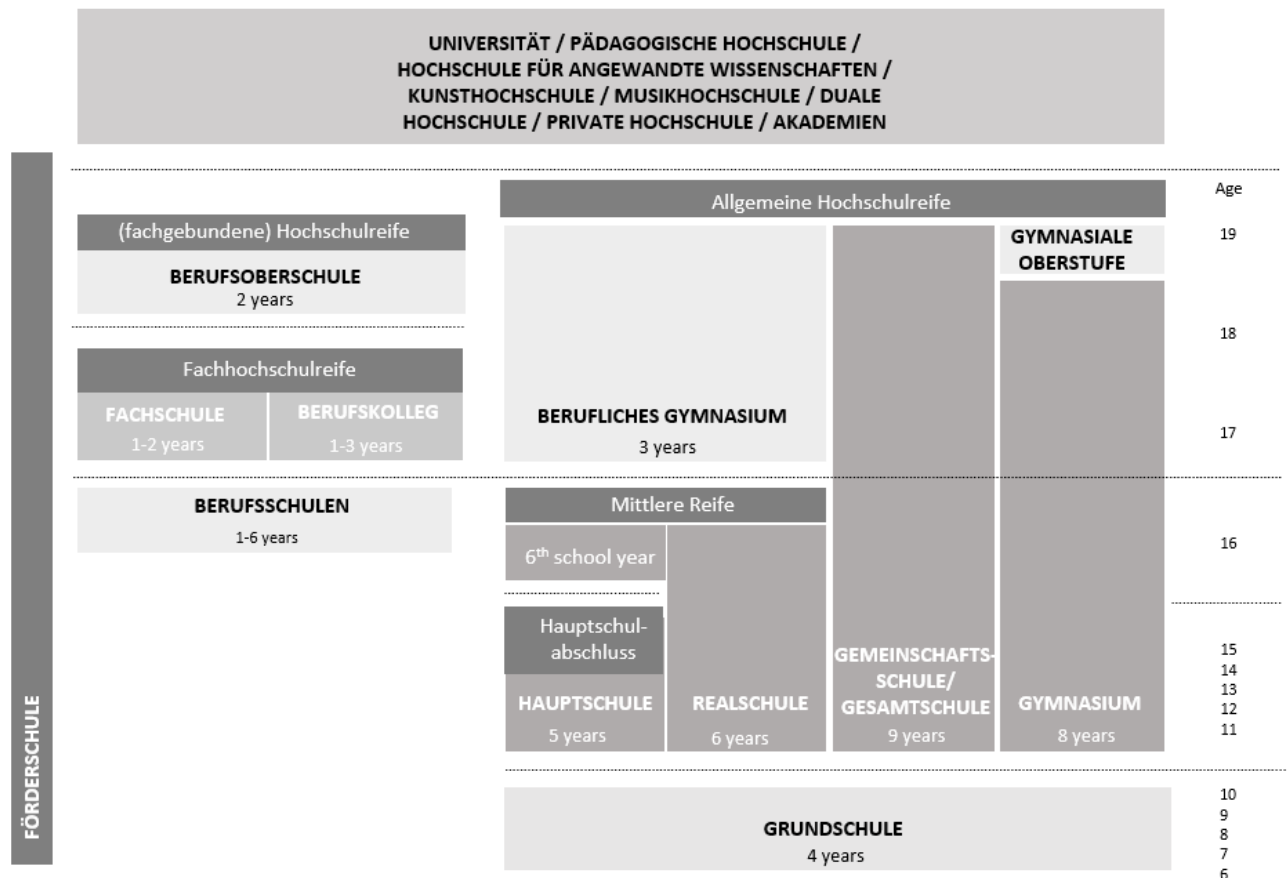
Fig. 4: Overview of the education system in Baden-Württemberg

Regarding the linguistic diversity in the different school forms, there are no abundant statistics. The figures highlight the students' origin rather than language. In primary school, 26.1% had another origin than German (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2017a). After grade 4, students with a migration background were highly represented in *Hauptschulen* (31%), with less representation in the other school forms: *Realschulen* 16.5%, *Gymnasium* 13.4%, *Gemeinschaftschule*, 25.1% and special schools, 29.1% (see Fig. 5). Drawing on these statistics, the conclusion can be drawn, that for a student with a migration background (which would likely include linguistic diversity and for newly arrived students, less knowledge of German) the probability of going to *Gymnasium* is lower.

	German students with migration background	Foreign students
Primary education (Grade 1-4)	15.6	10.5
Werkreal-/Hauptschulen	14.7	26.3
Realschulen	10.8	7.7
Gymnasium	6.6	4.8
Gemeinschaftsschulen, seconday level 1	12.3	12.9
Special education and consultation centers	13.9	15.2
General schools, totally	11.7	9.9

Numbers in %

■ German students with migration background ▨ Foreign students

Fig. 5: Students with a migration background in general education schools in Baden-Württemberg, school year 2015/2016[54]

2.4.1.1 Multilingualism and reading in the curricula

Almost every *Bundesland* has its own curricula for specific courses of education, subjects, and grade levels. At the time of this study, the *Bildungsplan 2004*[55] (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004) was the current one. The curriculum is competence-oriented (Helmke, 2009), describing what the students should know after taking a subject. The curricula are published as regulations by the respective Ministries of Education and Cultural Affairs (in BW *Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport*). They are binding for teachers, and head teachers are responsible for ensuring compliance. The curricula are divided in separated parts according to the subjects: Protestant Religious Education; Catholic Religious Education; German; Mathematics; English; French; Human, Nature and Culture; Movement, Games and Sport (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004).[56] They are formulated in

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[54] Statistisches Bundesamt (2017a), author's translation.

[55] Available online www.bildungsplaene-bw.de/,Lde/LS/BP2004-2015, in German only.

[56] In 2016, a new curriculum was introduced (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2015). Drawing on the demographic and sociopolitical changes since the 2004 curricula, several changes are introduced, such as heading towards a two-pillar system instead of the previous three. This reflects the increase of many students with a migration background and the acceptance of diversity is further highlighted. Three main guiding perspectives are introduced, one of them being *Bildung*

a general way, allowing teachers considerable freedom with regard to content, objectives, and teaching methods (Mullis, 2012). However, to reach a degree of consensus on methods and assessment criteria, teachers of a particular subject are encouraged to reach agreement on specified subject-specific or generalized school curricula.

Multilingualism in the curriculum

Multilingualism is mentioned explicitly six times in the *Bildungsplan 2004* (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004). One example is given in the section for modern languages (ibid.):

> Language learning at school must be compatible with the linguistic diversity in society. Multilingualism and the acquisition of intercultural competence are preconditions for the intercultural dialogue. They offer significant future potential in and for Europe as well as worldwide. In order to achieve multilingualism, it is therefore necessary to transmit basic and developable strategies for language learning from the very beginning and to enable the students to develop their own learning process increasingly on their own and conscientiously. (p. 64)

Students with other languages are also mentioned, under the subject section German (ibid.):

> Further, the school should also pay attention to the children who are not yet proficient in the German language, due to little previous experience or another mother tongue. Here, children could mutually support each other as language navigators.

> In addition, the various home languages in class and the thus particular competence of those children should be addressed and used as an enrichment in the German class as well for language observations. (p. 42)

Reading in the curriculum

Reading is not taught as a separate subject, but should be a part of all subjects. Reading instruction is usually divided into two stages. In grade 4, the students should reach the end of the second stage and be able to read age-appropriate texts fluently and accurately. They should know and apply some reading strategies (Mullis, 2012; Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004).

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für Toleranz und Akzeptanz von Vielfalt (BTV) (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2017) (author's translation: *Education for tolerance and acceptance of diversity*). Since the observations took place in 2015, the 2016 curricula have not been taken into account in this study.

In the guiding principles of German, many factors regarding reading are mentioned (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004):

> The most important task of the German langauge class is to foster and enhance enjoyment in the language usage, to motivate them for reading and writing as well as to ensure that they can experience themselves as competent and successful from the very beginning. (p. 43)

Reading comprehension is mentioned three times (*Lesekompetenz/Leseverstehen*) in the *Bildungsplan 2004* (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004) and should mean: "A consequent support in the language and reading competence is taking place for learning and working in the subject combination (MeNuK)[57]". (p. 43)

The reading ability is stated as the most important component for independent learning, both in German class as well in the other subjects (ibid.): "Reading ability is the most important competence for independent reading in German language class as well as in the other subjects." (p. 44)

2.4.1.2 Multilingual students

At the time of this study (2015), there was no general policy for dealing with linguistic diversity among the students in the federal state of BW. Newly arrived students are managed in different ways in different regions. Two main approaches could be distinguished (Regierungspräsidium Stuttgart, 2017):

1. **Preparation class** (*Vorbereitungsklasse*): the newly arrived students without German knowledge attend a separate class, which should provide a basis for transition to regular class.
2. **Regular class** *Regelklasse*): the newly arrived students attend already existing regular classes. Sometimes they might get extra classes of language support.

In addition, support measures are offered, such as preparatory language courses and mother tongue instruction (see the following section).

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[57] A combination of subjects taught in some German states incorporating social studies, nature and the arts.

Mother tongue instruction

In 1979, the *Kulturministerkonferenz*, KMK (Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany) billed a convention "*Unterricht für Kinder ausländischer Arbeitsnehmer*" (Mother tongue instruction for foreign employees) which was in force until 2000. Today, mother tongue instruction is not given within the curriculum in BW. Some countries, e.g. Spain, offer mother tongue instruction in BW through their consulates (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2009; Consejería de Educación en Alemania, 2017) or through state-subsidized schools (e.g. Sweden[58]).

2.4.2 Sweden

Sweden is constituted by 21 *län* (counties), which consist of a number of *kommuner* (municipalities), and nationally, there are a total of 290. The Swedish education system is highly decentralized, even though many central decisions, such as the national goals, curriculum, and syllabus, are defined by the parliament and government (Mullis, 2012). Central authorities, the municipalities, and various institutions ensure that educational activities are implemented in line with the legislative framework and that these activities address the national education goals. Furthermore, all municipalities are required to set general objectives for their schools in a school plan based on the National Education Act, curricula, and syllabi (Mullis, 2012). *Skolverket* (the Swedish National Agency for Education) monitors, evaluates, follows up on, and supports the local development of the quality of the different pre-school and compulsory school centers, while the *Skolinspektionen* (the Swedish Schools Inspectorate) inspects as well as provides supervision.

The fundamental principle in the Swedish education system is that all children should have equal access to education, irrespective of gender, geographic residence or financial circumstances. This is stated in the curriculum for compulsory school from 2011[59] (the actual one referred to during the study), in which the Swedish education system underwent a reform, mentioning the recent internationalization of the Swedish society (Skolverket, 2011a):

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[58] The Swedish complementary school abroad is offered through associations, predominantly by parental involvement.

[59] Available online in English www.skolverket.se/publikationer?id=2687

The internationalisation of Swedish society and increasing cross-border mobility place high demands on the ability of people to live with and appreciate the values inherent in cultural diversity. Awareness of one's own cultural origins and sharing in a common cultural heritage provides a secure identity which it is important to develop, together with the ability to understand and empathize with the values and conditions of others. The school is a social and cultural meeting place with both the opportunity and the responsibility to strengthen this ability among all who work there. (p. 9)

School attendance is compulsory for all children resident in the country from the age of 7. Compulsory schooling applies for the school years 1-9. Compulsory schools are mainly municipal but some are independent (both types free of charge). Nearly all students (99%) attend upper secondary school for three years (Mullis, 2012). This prepares students for university, university college, university of applied sciences or the labor market. Higher education is free of charge and admission is either based on performance (grades), a university admission test (*högskoleprov*), or a combination of interviews and tests.

Sweden is the only OECD country funding 100% of primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary institutions from public sources (OEDC average 90.6%) (OECD, 2015b). Before a change of law in 1992 (*Friskolereformen*, Independent school reform, (Riksdagsförvaltningen, 1992), municipal schools were almost the only alternative in Sweden. There were only a handful of tuition-based private schools as well. As the new law from 1992 is being implemented, publicly funded non-municipal charter schools (*friskolor*) have become a widespread competitive alternative to the municipal schools. In 2014, around 17% of compulsory schools were charter schools which attracted close to 14% of all compulsory school students (Svenska institutet, 2016). In the following figure (Fig. 6), the Swedish education system is visualized.[60]

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[60] Drawing on Skolverket (2016a).
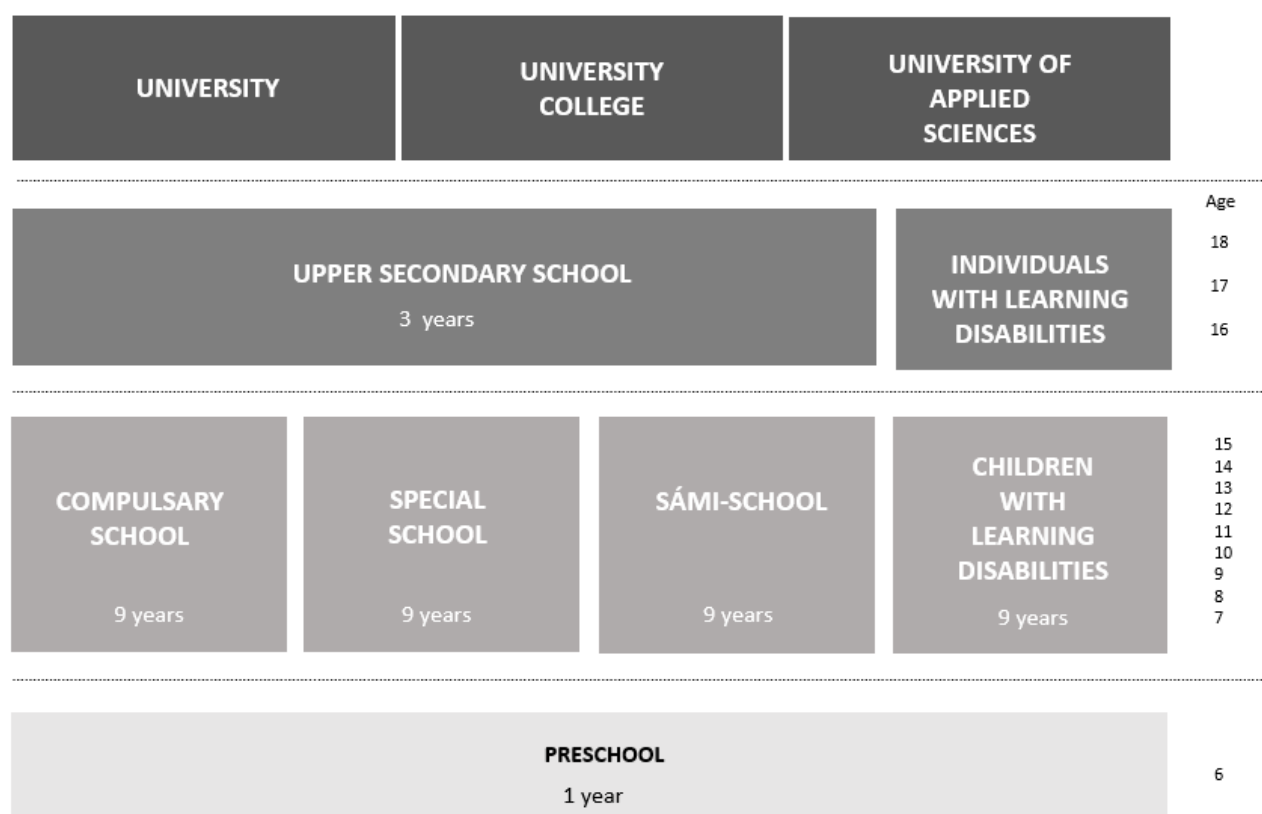
Fig. 6: Overview of the Swedish education system

2.4.2.1 Multilingualism and reading in the curricula

As stated above, the Swedish education system is highly decentralized but the curricula are defined by parliament and government and published as regulations by the Swedish National Agency for Education (*Skolverket*). Central authorities, municipalities and various institutions ensure the implementation of the educational activities.

The curriculum is competence-oriented, describing what the students should know after taking a subject. The same curriculum (*läroplan*) for the compulsory school is used in all regions of the country.[61] At the time of this study, the curriculum *Lgr11* (*Läroplan för grundskolan, förskoleklassen och fritidshemmet 2011*, also available in English as the: Curriculum for the compulsory school, preschool class and the recreation centre 2011) was the current one, replacing the one from 1992. It has gone through several changes and the parts concerning reading have been altered.

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[61] Available online in Swedish (Skolverket, 2011c) and English (Skolverket, 2011a). In this thesis, the English version is quoted.

The curriculum is divided in three parts: fundamental values and tasks of the school; overall goals and guidelines; and syllabi. As previously mentioned, a fundamental principle of the Swedish education system is that all children shall have equal access to education, irrespective of gender, geographic residence of financial circumstances (Skolverket, 2011a) and this is mentioned in the curriculum:

> It [education][62] should promote the development and learning of all pupils, and a lifelong desire to learn. Education should impart and establish respect for human rights and the fundamental democratic values on which Swedish society is based. (p. 9)

Multilingualism in the curriculum

There are five specific language subjects: Swedish, Swedish as a second language, English, modern languages (given from grade 6), mother tongue tuition and sign languages for the hearing. Under the section of "English, modern languages and sign languages for the hearing" the following is mentioned regarding language knowledge (ibid.):

> Language is the primary tool human beings use for thinking, communicating and learning. Having a knowledge of several languages can provide new perspectives on the surrounding world, enhanced opportunities to create contacts and greater understanding of different ways of living. (p. 32)

Multilingualism is mentioned once, under the section "Mother tongue tuition", a separate subject in the curriculum (Skolverket, 2011a):

> Teaching should give pupils the opportunities to develop their cultural identity and become multilingual. Through teaching the pupils, people should be given the opportunities to develop their knowledge of cultures and societies where the mother tongue is spoken. The teaching should also should also help pupils to develop a comparative perspective to cultures and languages. (p. 50)

Under the same section, the importance of students developing their home language (mother tongue) is described (Skolverket, 2011a) stating that:

> Rich and varied language is important in being able to understand and function in a society where different cultures, outlooks on life, generations and language all interact. Having access to their mother tongue also facilitates language development and learning in different areas. (p. 83)

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[62] Information from the English version of the curriculum. The word 'education' has been added to inform the reader about what "it" is referring to in this place.

Reading in the curriculum

As in Germany, reading is not taught as a separate subject, although it constitutes a major part of Swedish instruction in the early grades. In recent decades, research on reading and especially reading comprehension has gained major importance in Sweden. Several studies have been conducted along the lines of international assessment studies (e.g. Myrberg, 2003; Taube, 2007: Fredriksson *et al.*, 2010; Westlund, 2013). The aforementioned *läroplan, Lgr 11* (Skolverket, 2011a), has introduced reading comprehension (*läsförståelse*) as one of the main focuses, which indicated a significant change from the previous curriculum *Lpo 94*.

Reading comprehension is frequently mentioned as part of the specific goals given in the syllabus. The parts regarding reading were changed the most from the prior curriculum. Schools are responsible for ensuring that all students who complete compulsory school "can use the Swedish language, both in speech and writing, in a rich and varied way" (Skolverket, 2011a, p. 15).

2.4.2.2 Multilingual students

At the time of this study, there was no general policy for dealing with linguistic diversity among the students in Sweden. The newly arrived students[63] are dealt with using different approaches, depending on local resources. Their education is most commonly organized in in-school introductory classes, providing a basis for transition to the mainstream system (Nilsson and Axelsson, 2013). However, the direct entry into a regular class is seen as well.

Mother tongue instruction

Students with another home language/s than Swedish have a right to *modersmålsundervisning*[64] (mother tongue instruction) according the Swedish Code of Statutes by the blueprint Language Act (*språklagen*; SFS 2009:600) (Utbildningsdepartementet, 2009) as well as the stronger Swedish Education Act (*skollag*; SFS 2010:800) (Sveriges riksdag, 2010) and the Ordinance for the Compulsory School (*skolförordning*; SFS 2011:185) (Utbildningsdepartementet, 2014). Despite the comparatively strong legal

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[63] A student should only be regarded as newly arrived up to four years from arrival (Utbildningsdepartementet, 2013).

[64] In the English version of the curriculum (Skolverket, 2011a), this is called "mother tongue tuition".

support, mother tongue instruction has been associated with constant struggles of implementation and marginalization (Ganuza and Hedman, 2015), such as the instruction often being offered during difficult pragmatic rand hours (mostly late in the afternoon) as well as being restricted to less than a one-hour lesson per week. In the 2015/16 academic year, 154 languages were available for study through mother tongue instruction (Skolverket, 2017a) and 25.4% of the students (250,399 students) were eligible.[65] Of those, 56.3% students took the subject (Skolverket, 2017c), which is non-mandatory.

Finnish and Arabic have been the major mother tongues among students in recent decades, followed by Spanish (including many Latin American varieties, such as Chilean) and languages from the former Yugoslavia. Somali must also be mentioned as there has been a significant increase in the last decade. In Tab. 3 an overview of the 10 most common mother tongues among the students entitled to mother tongue instruction is given.[66]

2000	2010
1. Arabic (18.2)	Arabic (32.1)
2. Finnish (13.9)	Bosn./Croat./Serb. (14.6)
3. Spanish (9.9)	Spanish (10.5)
4. Albanian (7.3)	English (10.0)
5. Bosn./Croat./Serb. (6.9)	Somali (8.6)
6. Persian (6.9)	Finnish (8.5)
7. English (5.7)	Albanian (7.0)
8. Turkish (4.8)	Persian (6.7)
9. Polish (4.3)	Kurdish (6.0)
10. Kurdish (4.3)	Turkish (5.9)

Tab. 3: The 10 most common mother tongues among students in Sweden entitled to mother tongue instruction[67]

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[65] To be eligible for mother tongue instruction in Sweden, students must use the language they request to study on a daily basis with at least one caregiver. A group of at least five students must be able to be formed and a teacher must be available (SFS 2010:800). Speakers of Sweden's five official national minority languages are exempt from the first two criteria.

[66] Author's translation, drawing on Hyltenstam *et al.* (2012).

[67] In brackets of thousands.

Study guidance in the mother tongue

Another available resource is *studiehandledning på modersmål* (study guidance in the mother tongue[68]) (Skolverket, 2013), which has been available in Swedish schools since the 1960s. This is mainly provided for newly arrived students and:

> … aims to help multilingual students to reach the learning goals of subjects in the Swedish curriculum by giving them access to a tutor, often their mother tongue teacher, who works through the Swedish subject matter using languages the student understands. (Reath Warren, 2017, p. 19)

The study guidance is regulated through the Ordinance for the Compulsory School previously mentioned (SFS 2011:185). In October 2015, 2% of students in compulsory school (20,000 students) received this type of study guidance (Skolverket, 2016b).

2.4.3 Chile

Chile is a presidential republic comprising 13 regions, including one metropolitan region (Santiago de Chile). In Chile, the education is decentralized, and one Ministry, the *Ministerio de Educación* (MINEDUC, Ministry of Education)[69], is the body responsible for primary, secondary and higher education. The General Education Law (*Ley General de Educación, LGE*), established in 2009 and amended in 2010, provides the framework for education governance in Chile. The LGE regulates the rights and duties of the education community, establishing minimum requirements for completion of each of the education levels as well as organizing a process for the recognition of education providers (Goe *et al.*, 2013).

There are the following different types of school (Goe *et al.*, 2013):

1. **Municipal** (*municipal*): State-subsidized schools run by municipalities, which may also contribute monetarily to the schools.
2. **Private subsidized schools** (*particular subvencionado*): Private schools with a government subsidy.
3. **Private non-subsidized schools** (*particular pagado*): Private school, administrated by private non-profit or for-profit organizations.

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[68] This is the English term used in Swedish educational policy documents. However, Reath Warren (2017) proposes the term "multilingual study guidance", since not only the mother tongue can be used in this guidance, but also other languages that the student might know.

[69] www.mineduc.cl information in Spanish.

4. **Schools with delegated administrations** (*corporación de administración delegada*): Schools administrated by the Ministry of Education, mostly offering technical-professional education.

In 2015, 53% of the students attended private subsidized schools, 39% attended municipal schools, 7.5% went to private non-subsidized schools and less than 0.5% were in schools with delegated administrations (Ministerio de Educación, 2016).

At the time of this study (2015), enrollment and tuition fees were forbidden in public and subsidized private schools for pre-primary and primary levels of education. Some subsidized private schools were allowed to charge a mandatory monthly tuition, which cannot be higher than 48 USE (*Unidad de Subvención Educacional*), divided in 10 to 11 payments. In 2015, one USE was set at CLP $23,236,962[70] (Ministerio de Educación, 2017). Non-subsidized private schools were free to set the price.[71]

School attendance is mandatory from the age of 6 and involves 12 years of schooling; *educación básica* (primary school, 8 grade levels, from 6-13 years) and *educación secundaria* (secondary school, 4 grade levels, from 14-17 years). For university entrance, students must take a national exam in their last year of high school *Prueba Selección Universitaria* (PSU). In Fig. 7,[72] the Chilean education system is illustrated.

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[70] Circa 32 EUR in year 2017.

[71] In 2016, a new law came into force regarding the admission and fees leyinclusion.mineduc.cl, changing the terms for the private subsidized schools, no longer allowing those schools to reclaim a fee from the families.

[72] Author's model, drawing on Nuffic (2015) and UNESCO (2010).
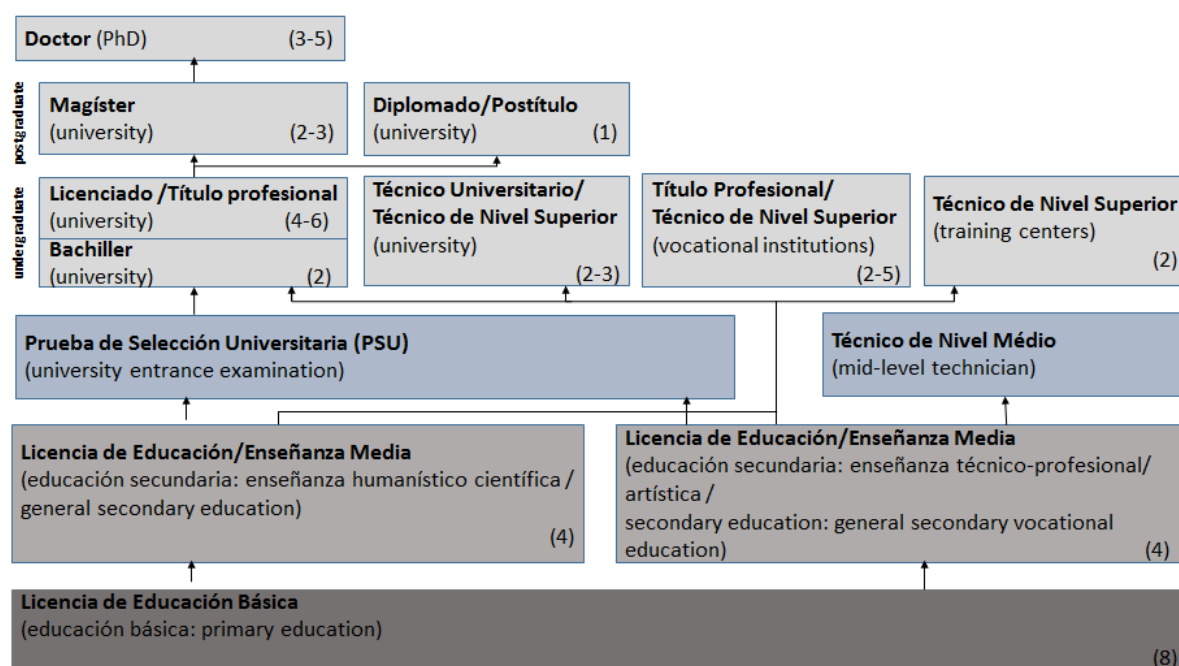
Fig. 7: Overview of the Chilean education system[73]

On the ranking for 2014 (Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, 2015), the first 19 schools were private (*particular pagado*), with the first public (*municipal*) school ranking 20th. From the top 50, two are public (*municipal*), one is partly subsidized (*particular subvencionado*) and the rest are private (*particular pagado*).

Chile has a high share of private expenditure in education. It is the only OECD country where public funding for primary and secondary educational institutions makes up less than 80% of the total (OECD average 91%). On tertiary education the share is 65%, more than double the OECD average of 30% (OECD, 2015a).

The impact of socio-economic status on students' mathematics performance is one of the largest among OECD countries (OECD, 2013a).

German schools abroad
This study included a *Deutsche Schule* (German school abroad) in Chile, which would belong to the third type of school, *particular pagado* (private non-subsidized schools) and therefore the description will concentrate on such schools, not Chilean schools in general.

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[73] In brackets, the number of years needed for each type of program.

At the time of the study, there were 27 schools in Chile participating in the German Federal Foreign Office's Schools initiative: Partners for the Future (PASCH), in which the German language is highlighted (Partners for the Future, 2017). These schools receive financial support and in some cases personnel from Germany. Many of them score highly in the school ranking compiled in connection with Chile's aforementioned annual nationwide university-entrance examination (PSU). There are currently more than 24,000 students learning German as a foreign language at schools in Chile (Auswärtiges Amt, 2017). One of the educational goals for starting a German school abroad should be bilingual education (Zentralstelle für das Auslandsschulwesen, 2014).

At a university level, the cooperation between Germany and Chile is close, and in 2016, more than 900 Chilean students were studying at German universities (Auswärtiges Amt, 2017). This means that, in relation to the size of its population, no other Latin American country sends as many students to Germany as Chile.

2.4.3.1 Multilingualism and reading in the curricula

For German class,[74] the *Deutsche Schulen* have to follow a *Rahmenlehrplan*[75] (framework curriculum) for *Deutsch als Fremdsprache, DaF,* (German as a Foreign Language) regulated by the Central Agency for German Schools Abroad (*Zentralstelle für das Auslandsschulwesen, ZfA*).[76] The schools can choose their own methods and material.

The curriculum is competence-oriented, describing what the students should know after taking the subject, and gives an orientation of the expected binding subject-content demands. It describes the expected learning outcomes as competences, drawing on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2000).[77] After a general introduction of the didactic-methodical educational design, more detailed specifications regarding the expected competences are given in four stages. The first block consists of three stages, corresponding to the intermediate secondary education stage (Mittlerere Schulabschluss/Mittlere Reife), and the expected language competences are A1, A2 and B1. The second block consists of one stage and

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[74] For other subjects, the Chilean curricula are followed www.curriculumenlineamineduc.cl/605/w3-channel.html

[75] Available online in German www.bva.bund.de/DE/Organisation/Abteilungen/Abteilung_ZfA/Auslandsschularbeit/DSD/RahmenplanDaF/node.html

[76] www.bva.bund.de/DE/Organisation/Abteilungen/Abteilung_ZfA/zfa_node.html

[77] www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/

builds on the knowledge from the first three stages, expecting a starting point from B1. The expected outcomes are B2 and C1, leading towards a German Language Diploma (Deutsches Sprachdiploma, DSD).

Multilingualism in the curriculum

Multilingualism is mentioned 16 times in the curriculum and is highlighted as one of the aims of the teaching (Zentralstelle für das Auslandsschulwesen, 2009), which "supports young people in building and further developing their individual multilingual profile".

Further, the curriculum states the need for learning languages:

> The need for building communication competences derives from the fact that our societies distinguish themselves through a complex interconnected multilingualism and therefore as well, e.g. interlinguistical transfer strategies and techniques characterize the general information exchange and thus the everyday encounters. (ibid., p. 9)

The teaching should include reflections on complex issues such as multilingualism as well:

> For the awareness and the reflection on complex issues, focus would be for instance on: reflections over individual, school and societal multilingualism as well as exploration and description of key features. (ibid., p. 12)

Reading in the curriculum

In the first block (stages 1-3), reading comprehension (*Leseverstehen*) is one of four competences[78] (about one page), where the expected learning outcomes are specified for the three different levels, starting at being capable of reading shorter texts, advancing towards being capable of meaningfully presenting longer texts. The second block, stage 4, specifies the expected outcomes - reading complex authentic and abstract texts, as well as stating that the students should learn:

> … using different reading and processing strategies (global, selective, detailed, analytical reading, as well as critical/evaluating/enjoyable/appreciative reading) (ibid., p. 40)

2.4.3.2 Multilingual students

There is no general policy for dealing with the linguistic diversity among the students in Chile. The debate does not focus on the implementation, it is rather concerned about

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[78] The four competences are *Leseverstehen* (reading), *Hörverstehen* (listening), *mündliche Kommunikation* (oral communication) and *schriftliche Kommunikation* (written communication).

enabling the access to school for migrants (Hernández Yulcerán, 2016; Gobierno de Chile, 2017). As previously mentioned in Section 2.3.3, an Indigenous Act, the *Ley indígena* (Act 19253, (Ministerio de Planificación y Corrección, 1993) recognizes eight indigenous groups and their right of usage and conservation of their culture and language. However, the recognition is mostly in theory and no major implementation can be distinguished.

In the *Deutsche Schulen*, the school fees are comparatively high and new students are often German-speaking and therefore already have knowledge of the language of instruction. In fact, one reason for them for choosing a *Deutsche Schule* is for the language.

The students with German as a home language receive mother tongue instruction at the *Deutsche Schule* when the other students take German as a Foreign Language. In some cases, they might also receive extra language classes for Spanish.

2.4.4 Summary on the education systems in the three countries

The approaches to multilingualism in the education systems in the three countries highlight the different ways chosen regarding the investigated topics. Overall, both commonalities and differences can be distinguished in the three education systems.

The implementation of the curricula is conducted on different levels (for instance, the German ones are more detailed), but even so, similarities can be distinguished in formal issues such as regarding compulsory years of education. Multilingualism and reading are mentioned in all the three systems' curricula. The situation in the *Deutsche Schulen* stands out since it is a combination of two education systems, the Chilean and the German. Being bilingual schools, the multilingualism is an explicit aim of the schools.

In Germany, the importance of both multilingualism and reading are highlighted, giving both issues significant space in the curriculum. However, the education system with the least focus on multilingualism in the curriculum, the Swedish education system, is the one giving the most practical support, with measures like mother tongue instruction and study guidance.

In the absence of a major standardization, newly arrived students find different ways of entry to the education systems, since often more emphasis is put on the local situation

than national ones. Commonly, two approaches can be distinguished: in-school introductory classes or a start in a regular class.

Multilingual students who are not newly arrived are not focused upon in any of the three education systems, even though linguistic diversity is highlighted in the German curricula (both for the regular classes in Germany and for German as Foreign language – *DaF* – in the *Deutsche Schule*) as being an enrichment.

The different degrees of transparency are also noticeable in the three curricula. The German curricula (both for regular classes in Germany and for *DaF* in Chile) are only offered in German, while the Swedish one is available in English as well, offering an understanding of the curriculum for people who do not speak Swedish.

Overall, it can, however, be stated that linguistic diversity is present in several different dimensions in all three education systems.

2.5 Concluding a multilayered context

In this chapter, the comparative international education research approach of this thesis was made visible. Relevant concepts regarding research on linguistic diversity were discussed to shed light on the complexities of terminology explored in the field work of this thesis, alongside an investigation of the implied social contexts (German, Swedish and Chilean multilingual settings). The research context of this study is highly globalized, bringing in the concept of transnational migration as a continuing process in which new social spaces of interactions are created.

The relationship between different levels of considering the multilingualism in educational settings and the explored contexts were distinguished. In doing this, it became clear that I needed to identify the situational references and offer an interpretation frame. This was done in a paradigmatic approach, drawing on the material, by reducing, systemizing and bundling the contexts into three levels: **macro**, **meso** and **micro**. Such a threefold leveled structure has been proposed for analyses in education contexts by (Schriewer, 1982), suggesting the levels macro, medium and micro. This structure has been further developed by other authors such as Schäfers (2000) and Fend (2008), who use the term 'meso' instead of 'medium'. Over time, 'meso' has taken over in usage.

In such an interpretation frame, each of the three levels displays a different role. For example, the role of the societal context is considered at the **macro** level, inserting issues such as language education policies, both national and international. The **meso** level includes the role of the organizational aspects and structures in the institutions (schools), such as different policy documents, curricula and syllabi or measures regarding the linguistic diversity on institutional level. At the **micro** level, the role of the interactions between individuals in the classroom and the teachers' beliefs and implementation in practice can be distinguished (Becker, 2017).

This qualitative study focuses on the implementation in the practice at a micro level in the classrooms and the beliefs behind the teachers' decisions. Nevertheless, as all levels in this study are regarded as interrelated (as illustrated in Fig. 8), the context of the respectively three multilingual settings is viewed from a holistic perspective, which means that in the course of my analyses (see Chapters 5, 6 and 7) all three levels need to considered.

Societal:
language education policy (national and international)

Institutional:
structures and organization (e.g. curricula and syllabus)

Individual:
classroom interactions
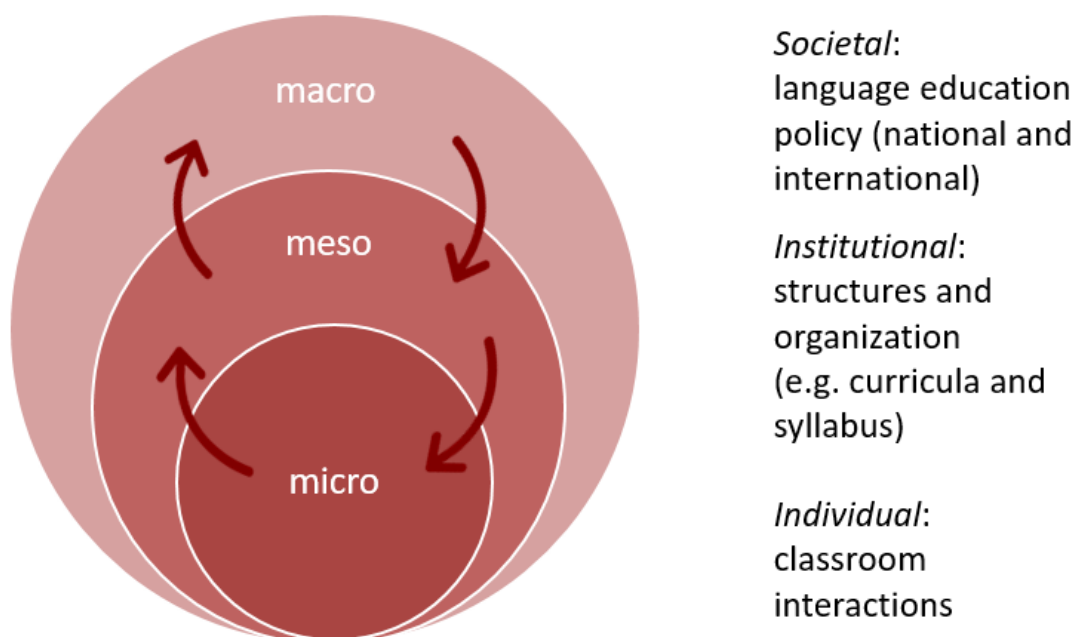
Fig. 8: The multilayered context of this study: macro, meso and micro levels

When scrutinizing the contexts of this study, both commonalities and differences were identified in the three countries' respective settings that were the focus of my research. These can be described as follows: the macro level regarding the linguistic diversity was presented in Sections 2.2 and 2.3, illustrating the societal contexts (including national

as well as international language education policies) of the study. All three countries have a multilingual history alongside a linguistically diverse presence of different degrees. At a political and/or societal macro level, the linguistic diversity is acknowledged and searched for in all the three settings. However, it was found to be less pronounced in Chile than in either Germany or Sweden.

In Section 2.4, the meso level of this study was introduced, providing an overview of the structures and organizational contexts in the institutions in each of the three countries. Their education systems acknowledge the linguistic diversity and have different organizational actions for its support, which is included in all the curricula of the three countries respectively. In particular, Sweden provides students with activities and opportunities, which promote multilingualism. For example, study guidance in the home language is offered for newly arrived students during class, as well as mother tongue instruction for all students with other home language/s than Swedish in after-school hours. However, there are constant struggles with the practical implementation.

In addition, in Sweden a major transparency regarding the treated issues could be found, providing official documents in several languages for public use online (such as information about the school system or the curricula). In Germany and Chile, such documentation was mainly provided in German and Spanish, respectively.

Drawing on the research questions, the individual beliefs and actions of the teachers at a micro level are highlighted in this study. The contexts and conditions framing those beliefs and actions are thus alluded to in Section 2.4 as well. The main description of this level follows in Section 5.1.

In the following chapter, previous research regarding the investigated issues in multilingual educational settings is presented. Furthermore, theoretical perspectives on beliefs and strategies in the implementation when teaching reading in multilingual settings will be advanced alongside aspects of professional competence involved, thus introducing the lenses used for examining and understanding the data gathered for this thesis.

3 Theoretical framework

In this chapter the theoretical framework of the study is introduced. In order to observe and describe the linguistic diversity in the educational settings mentioned in Chapter 2, I have assembled several guiding concepts which inform my study. As the research questions of Chapter 1 show, this study focuses on teachers' beliefs and their strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. Thus, prevailing relevant models of teachers' beliefs are reviewed, with a special focus on multilingualism. The different implementation approaches to linguistic diversity, which are germane to the present study, and the impact of beliefs on professional competence are further discussed. The position taken and terms chosen for use in this thesis are clarified.

3.1 Beliefs in multilingual settings

In light of the globalization mentioned in Chapter 2, increased transnational movements have changed and are still changing the classrooms. It is thus of utter importance to observe the teaching profession and its possible changes with the time. These changes have increased the interest in the role of teachers and their professional knowledge on the students' opportunities to learn. Previous research suggests that there are significant relations between teachers' beliefs and practices (Calderhead, 1996; Richards, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). In order to gain a deeper insight into the strategies used when teaching reading in multilingual settings, teachers' individual mental constructs, their perceptions and beliefs, regarded as a framework for their teaching, and subjectively true for each one of them, need to be examined.

3.1.1 Approximating concepts regarding beliefs

The question of teachers' mental processes and perceptions has been on the agenda in several different academic fields, such as the educational psychology, in motivation and personality research (Staub and Stern, 2002) (especially mathematics and science education), sociological studies, in the context of theories of society (Blömeke *et al.*, 2016; König and Volmer, 2008; Oevermann, 1973) or educational science research, in the context of professionalization, innovation and the role of the teacher (Blömeke *et*

al., 2003; Fussangel, 2008; Szukala, 2011). The theories and range of terms used for these mental constructs is broad, depending on research paradigms and national context, therefore they will be clarified below.

The methodological repertoire of research approaches on topics regarding beliefs (convictions, attitudes, perceptions and assumptions) ranges from reconstructive analyses of interviews of group discussion, documentary methods regarding different text types, to various standardized scales for major quantitative data collections, as well as mixed method approaches. The lack of a uniform definition means research results cannot be compared easily as well as difficulties assigning a major theoretical context. There are, however, plausible aspects pointing towards various concepts about beliefs.

German-speaking contexts

In the German-speaking contexts, the research discussion regarding mental constructs at an individual micro level is dominated by one prevalent concept: subjective theories (in German *Subjektive Theorien*). The Germans Scheele and Groeben developed this approach for studying everyday knowledge (1988), referring to the fact that every person has a complex stock of knowledge on different topics: "By subjective theories we understand complex cognition aggregates of the research object, in which their cognitions relating to the self and the world become manifest and which show an at least implicit argumentational structure" (Groeben and Scheele, 2000, p. 3). Thus, subjective theories can be seen as cognitive structures, which include knowledge, assumptions, convictions and perceptions, which are said to be changeable, even though they are stable and constant. They consist of mainly implicit knowledge as a product from an individual's own observations as well as from other people, but also including lived experiences and explicit assumptions. They can be used to understand the world as well as serve as a guideline for human actions.

This approach has been proven to offer a structure to interviews in qualitative research (Flick, 2014). During interviews, the interviewees should be supported by methodological aids, e.g. different types of questions: open, theory-driven, hypotheses-directed and/or confrontational questions. In later meetings with the same interviewees (preferably not later than one or two weeks after the first interview), a graphic representation technique called a 'structure laying technique' (SLT)[1] should be applied together with

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[1] In German: *Struktur-Lege-Verfahren (SLT)*

the interviewees. In those meetings, the essential statements should be presented as concepts on small cards. This is done firstly to assess the contents: the interviewees are asked to the recall the interview and check if the contents are correctly represented from their own perception. Secondly, it is done to structure the concepts in a form, similar to scientific theories. Questions of confrontational art may make the procedure irritating though and it is quite time-consuming as well.

Alongside the concept of 'subjective theories', the concept of 'beliefs' is sometimes used in German-speaking contexts (Fussangel, 2008; Szukala, 2011). The German translation *Überzeugungen* is also sometimes applied (Oser and Blömeke, 2012), even though, more recently the term in English has been used without translation.

These mental constructs are often used as an explanatory principle for practice in the German education (Fussangel, 2008), and professional beliefs are considered to have a major impact on professional competence (Baumert and Kunter, 2006) (see Section 3.3.1).

International contexts

In other research contexts, especially Anglo-American ones, the concept of 'beliefs' has a dominant position when referring to mental constructs. Beliefs became a key concern in American research mainly in the 1980s, even though research on the topic had been conducted long before, with Dewey (1933) as one of the first scientists asking how schooling may change knowledge beliefs and personal attitudes.

In the Anglo-American research contexts, the concept of beliefs is neither strongly attributed to theories nor to a narrow authorship, even though some names are more present than others (Calderhead, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Pajares, 1992). Beliefs are generally used as a concept that represents subjective world views, which do not need to be stable. The notion of beliefs is not easily defined, and at present there is no consensus on an explicit definition (Skott, 2015), even if several attempts have been made. Richardson defines beliefs as "psychologically-held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (Richardson, 1996, p. 104). However, beliefs differ from knowledge, in that they "do not require a truth condition" (Richardson, 1996). Nespor (1987) furthermore argues that beliefs are more influential and stronger predictors of behavior than knowledge.

Attitude is another term that has been used in Anglo-American research contexts to describe this group of constructs of mental states that are thought to drive a person's actions. In recent decades, a separation of the terms has evolved, in which attitudes are affective and beliefs cognitive (Richardson, 1996).

As well as in studies within German contexts, there are studies (for instance Grossman, Wilson and Shulman, 1989, and Borko and Putnam, 1996) in which teachers' beliefs are generally considered as an explanatory principle for practice. Richardson (1996) states that the study of beliefs is a crucial element in teacher education, since beliefs "drive classroom actions and influence the teacher change process" (p. 102). Furthermore, Schoenfeld (1992) claims a direct causality between teachers' subject-specific personal epistemology and classroom practice. Stressing his theory as a theory of teaching-in-context, not in general, he draws upon the idea that teaching processes are constructed and developed in interaction (like pieces of a puzzle), between teachers' epistemological beliefs; their subjective theories on teaching and learning; their aims; and their specific knowledge. Not all empirical findings, however, substantiate the congruity thesis (Calderhead, 1996). In recent work by Schoenfeld (2011), a more dynamic perspective on beliefs has arisen, acknowledging the significance of context.

Current status
There are common features in both the German and Anglo-American approaches. The concepts are generally viewed as including several elements (convictions, attitudes, perceptions and assumptions) and as action-guiding, at a micro level.

Recently, beliefs have regained attention, and Skott (2015) sums up a common core of the concept as being used to:

> … designate individual, subjectively true, value-laden mental constructs that are relatively stable results of substantial social experiences and that have significant impact on one's interpretation of and contributions to classroom practice. (p. 19)

Borg (2011) follows the same line defining beliefs as:

> ... propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change. (pp. 370-371)

Focusing on teachers, Skott (2015) further states that:

The field of teachers' belief is interested in teachers' thinking about metaissues, such as what knowledge in a certain domain, how students become proficient in that domain, and what teachers may do to facilitate the development of such proficiency. Also, it is concerned with how these lines of thinking develop and with their role for classroom practice. (p. 13)

Overall, a major diversity in the concepts regarding beliefs can be found, even though, in recent years, a more common understanding can be found, as shown above. In the following section, research concerning teachers' beliefs in relation to the topics investigated is highlighted.

3.1.2 Teachers' beliefs: perceptions of multilingualism in educational settings

As mentioned above, societal processes following globalization have affected research on multilingualism and reformulated the perspectives and beliefs. There has been research on numerous aspects of multilingualism, on an individual, societal, and institutional level. However, given the important role of the teacher in promoting students' learning, research focused on teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and multilingual pedagogical approaches is surprisingly scarce.

Previous research

Research has so far emphasized beliefs concerning domain-specific knowledge, such as content knowledge, and beliefs on the subject and how it should be taught, including teachers' beliefs on language learning itself (Lucas *et al.*, 2015; Haukås, 2015) or mathematics teachers' beliefs regarding different issues. The observed groups have mainly been pre-service teachers (Skott, 2015) or teachers in elementary education (Kratzmann *et al.*, 2017; Panagiotopoulou, 2017). In terms of language teaching, the main research has been conducted in approaches concerning second language acquisition (SLA), such as Haukås (2015), leaving undiscovered the teachers' beliefs in mainstream classrooms, whereas of today, teachers are certain to encounter increasing numbers of students with several languages.

Research shows a relation between beliefs and classroom practices (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996), but as mentioned, the literature on teachers' beliefs about multilingualism is startlingly rare. The existing research presents a broad spectrum of beliefs

regarding multilingualism.[2] The previous studies show that there are many misconceptions about issues concerning multilingualism which are not evidence-based, and such beliefs are likely to have an impact on the teaching strategies.

Beliefs about multilingualism in learning contexts

In a world characterised by globalization, migration and transnational spaces, the topic of multilingualism is increasingly becoming an important issue. It is thus vital to examine beliefs and assumptions regarding language learning and multilingualism. Mehmedbegovic and Bak (2017) identify three central closely connected assumptions related to language learning and multilingualism: (a) the "limited resources model", which assumes a competition for the resources, (b) the notion that the 'normal' state of human brain, mind and society is monolingualism, and (c) the belief that the aim of language learning is a 'native-like' proficiency. Such assumptions and beliefs are usually not stated explicitly, rather they shape thinking and reasoning, asking questions, interpreting research findings and formulating policy guidelines.

Within the scope of the limited resource model, studies such as the one by Walker (2004) show the beliefs that the use of a home language in the classroom interferes with the acquisition of the classroom language. The beliefs can reflect the assumption of the human brain as a limited storage place, which can only contain a finite amount of information. Learning another language would thus take away space that could be better used for other things (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017). Further beliefs could be that confusion can emerge due to learning too many languages (Cathomas and Carigiet, 2006). The limited resource model is based on dualistic beliefs[3] that "different units of knowledge pile up independently, like boxes in a storehouse" (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017). This fails to take the interaction between different components into account.

Closely connected to this model, the second central assumption identified by Mehmedbegovic and Bak assumes that the normal state of the human brain, mind and society is monolingualism. In teaching, such beliefs can lead to focusing on academic language and dismissing linguistic skills in other languages, such as not giving recognition to literacy in those languages (Blommaert *et al.*, 2006). The only affirmed and desirable profile is the one of the highly competent speaker in the respective academic

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[2] See Pettit (2011) for a review on studies on this topic.

[3] More information on dualistic beliefs will be scrutinized in Section 3.1.3.

language, which can lead to students 'hiding' their multilingualism (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017).

These first two central assumptions are accompanied by a third central assumption including the beliefs that the aim of language learning is to gain a 'native-like' proficiency. This draws on the dualistic idea of one dominant language, where the ultimate goal is becoming native-like in the language/s (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017), implying that that would be the only 'acceptable' multilingualism. In a learning context, such a stance can be inhibiting for learners who would like to explore their language skills.

Beliefs about culture in multilingual contexts

The approach to diversity and teachers' cultural beliefs is a further important factor in linguistically diverse classrooms, since those beliefs can manifest themselves in the way the teacher deals with professional situations. Mainly, two dominant opposing approaches can be identified (Hachfeld *et al.*, 2015): the *multicultural beliefs* and the *color (difference) blindness* approach. The first entails a liberal view of multiculturalism, which emphasizes common humanity and equality across racial, cultural, class, and gender differences. Drawing on this approach, group differences and cultural background are acknowledged and viewed as enriching (Hahn *et al.*, 2010). Regarding the practice, research (Wagner *et al.*, 2000) has shown that teachers with such multicultural beliefs displayed more pedagogically useful problem-solving strategies (e.g. discussion in class) than less adequate strategies (e.g. punishment).

This multicultural approach to diversity is often opposed by the concept of 'color blindness', which results from the American rights' movement's fight for equal rights for Black Americans. It implies that people should see beyond color when interacting with people from different backgrounds. This approach is supposed to lead to greater quality and inclusion (Apfelbaum *et al.*, 2010). In a school context, drawing on this, teachers seem to believe that the best approach to diversity is to treat everyone the same in the spirit of fairness, downplaying cultural differences (Hahn *et al.*, 2010), thus taking an assimilationist direction. Research (Johnson, 2002; van Tartwijk *et al.*, 2009) shows that most non-minority teachers tend to hold colorblind beliefs. However, several independent studies suggest that focusing on treating everyone equally might not always be the best solution for minority students (Park and Judd, 2005). Teachers with a colorblind approach might, for example, be hesitant to adapt their teaching materials and their teach-

ing practices to the diversity in the classroom (Richeson and Nussbaum, 2004). Multicultural beliefs can show more positive associations with the differences, which are not to be underestimated.

Further, the everyday stereotypical understanding of culture plays a special role in a diverse educational setting. It is characterized by complexity reduction and an expectation of uniformity, in which stereotypes are based on ethnicity or nationality (Rathje, 2009), such as for instance "Germans are always on time" and "Spaniards are always late". These so-called 'cultural standards' are often used to provide a consistent description of structured general principles, even though they are not supported by research.[4]

One common feature of previous studies on teachers' beliefs regarding cultural diversity is that the findings are highly consistent in showing that diversity is viewed as a problem rather than as a resource (Gay, 2015).

In this study, the term "difference blindness", will be used, in which not the color of the skin as such would be the issue that is ignored, but the differences in general, drawing on Kubota (2004) who states "educators often claim that in order to provide students and parents with equal access to services, it is best to avoid differential treatment of various groups" (p. 32). She contends that difference-blind institutionalism reinforces "power evasion […and] fails to recognize the social and economic inequalities" (p. 33).

Beliefs about ethnic composition in multilingual contexts
Some studies consider a link between students' and schools' ethnic composition and teachers' beliefs regarding language and linguistic diversity. Agirdag et al. (2013), for instance, found that teachers working in schools with a high proportion of ethnic minority

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[4] An in-depth examination of the concept of culture, especially the German concept of *Kulturbegriff* in pedagogical practice is beyond the scope of this study, but a shorter excursus must be added due to its importance. In Germany, the term *Kulturbegriff* (concept of culture) has developed over the years in close relation with issues in education, here highlighted in intercultural contexts. The starting point for the still ongoing debate was taken in an approach called retrospectively the *Ausländerpädagogik* ('foreigner education), in the 1950s (Niekrawitz, 1991) where culture was seen as a static, homogeneous system and where research was focused on the deficits in the language knowledge of the students coming from migration backgrounds. In opposition to this, the *Interkulturelle Pädagogik* ('intercultural education') approach in the beginning of the 1980s moved away from those narrow cultural perspectives, instead emphasizing the complexity and dynamic in the concept of culture (Auernheimer, 2003). A central problem of culturalisation in educational settings can be distinguished due to the circular connotation of the concept through the identification of 'cultural difference', this is at the same time established and reproduced (Gogolin and Krüger-Potratz, 2006). Therefore, the notion of cultural diversity as such should be recognized, but the cultural situatedness of a person should not be seen as something static, but as dynamic and context-dependent. For further information, see Holzbrecher (2013, 29-25); Hansen (2003), Diehm and Radtke (1999) or Stichweh (2010).

and low socioeconomic status (SES) students tend to problematize the linguistic diversity found in their classrooms. Moreover, Pulinx et al (2015) detect significant differences in the teachers' beliefs, which are related to the variations in ethnic composition of the schools' student populations. Teachers in schools with a balanced ethnic composition (40 to 60% ethnic minority students) showed the highest level of monolingual beliefs: they did not want to make use of different languages in their teaching practices. In schools with almost no ethnic minority students and schools with almost exclusively ethnic minority students, teachers expressed fewer monolingual beliefs.

Based on year-long ethnographic case studies, Harklau (2000) found that the teachers' beliefs were inconsistent towards students with a migration background. Mainly they appeared positive on the surface, but they could hold the potential to stereotype the immigrant, casting "students' bilingualism only as a deficit" (Harklau, 2000, p. 51) of the classroom language.

3.1.3 A continuum of dualistic and dynamic beliefs drawing on the concept of heteroglossia

As seen above, traditionally, beliefs regarding linguistic diversity with a simply dual view have been distinguished (see Section 3.1.2). Recent research has questioned this (Garcia and Wei, 2014; Herdina and Jessner, 2002) and the concept of multilingualism has been reshaped and instead a diversifying perspective of multilingualism has evolved. Thus, beliefs containing a notion which moves away from the dualistic perspective can be found.

In this context, the terms *monoglossic* and *heteroglossic* draw on Bakhtin's (1981) concept of *heteroglossia*; a concept that challenges Saussures's structuralist conception of language as a self-contained system and Chomsky's mentalist conception, which both remove language from context of use. Bahktin posits that language is inextricably bound to the context in which it exists and further that "language is not an abstract system of normative forms, but rather a concrete heteroglot conception of the world" (1981, p. 293).

The Bahktinian concept encompasses the dimensions of multidiscoursivity, linguistic diversity, and multivoicedness. Heteroglossia is described as a trinity: a diversity of discourse, from individual voices and linguistic practices, which results in a discourse.

From the heteroglossic perspective, instead of looking at multilingualism as two (or more) separate languages, the relationship between them is thus seen as more dynamic. Research has debunked the dualistic view, moving away from the conventional view of multilingualism as two (or more) autonomous linguistic systems and instead reorienting towards complex and interrelated processes and practice (García and Wei, 2015). This has led to renewed attempts to define bilingualism, for example, as:

> … sets of resources called into play by social actors, under social and historical conditions which both constrain and make possible the social reproduction of existing conventions and relations, as well as the production of new ones (Heller, 2007, p. 15).

Such a definition pays attention to ideologies surrounding language. The direction is moving away from the polarization of language categories to the use of key words, such as *complexity*, *dynamic* and *interaction*. The Bahktinian concept of heteroglossia serves as an umbrella term for the fluid, transformative language practices capturing the new linguistic reality.

A productive perspective, taking the whole linguistic repertoire of the students into account, has been enhanced in school-context recent years (Quehl *et al.*, 2016) such as in the works of García (2009) and García and Wei (2014) where a post-structural framework is suggested, because:

> … bilingualism is not simply linear but dynamic, drawing from the different contexts in which it develops and functions. More than ever, categories such as first language (L1) and second language (L2), base and guest languages, host and borrowing languages, are not in any way useful, because the world's globalization is increasingly calling on people to interact with others in ways that defy traditional categories. In the linguistic complexity of the twenty-first century, bilingualism involves a much more dynamic cycle where language practices are multiple and ever adjusting to the multilingual multimodal terrain of the communicative act. (García, 2009, p. 53)

This notion expands the previous notion of multilingualism, following the heteroglossic stance.

In this study, the discussed beliefs are positioned on a continuum, with *dualistic*, monoglossic beliefs at one end and *dynamic*, heteroglossic, diversifying beliefs at the other end. At one end of the established continuum, dualistic beliefs can be found, with a perception of multilingualism as a balanced, linear and static product (Matarese, 2012),

making use of a dualistic terminology, e.g. _bilingualism, balanced multilingualism, additive_ or _subtractive bilingualism_ (García, 2009). The beliefs would imply that the multilingual individual moves between two (or more) separate languages. At the other end of the continuum, the dynamic beliefs emphasize the relationship between the languages, focusing on the interrelated processes and practice. Instead of considering multilingualism as two (or more) separate languages, a more dynamic approach is taken, in which it is connoted as a complex, holistic set of interacting resources.

3.1.4 Monolingual habitus

The German education researcher Gogolin has researched beliefs and approaches regarding language learning, as well as multilingualism and multilingual students in educational settings, and has uncovered the presence of a "fixed pattern of assumptions" (Gogolin, 2002b) in the educational concepts in German schools, which she calls the "monolingual habitus" (Gogolin, 2002b). This implies an implicit monolingual mindset, even in schools explicitly focusing on multilingualism, which regards monolingualism as normality and multilingualism therefore as a discrepancy of the norm. This mindset conceives multilingualism as a deficit and a problem, which implies that learners from non-dominant groups are perceived as deficient even before they start their school careers. The learners are not seen for what they already know and can do, but for what they cannot, their deficit. This basic orientation towards language and its role in society has been called a "language as problem" orientation (Ruiz, 1984). Gogolin (2002a) gets to the root of this orientation by showing how a monolingual habitus governs a major part of the decision-making in education.

Gogolin bases the monolingual habitus on Bourdieu's social theories and concept of habitus (Bourdieu and Thompson, 1991), defined as a "system of unconscious functioning styles of thought and perception filters, conceived by members of different social classes" (Tenorth, 2007, p. 304). Habitus describes habits of thinking and feeling, as well as characteristics of people, which are expressed in their behavior; and a linguistic habitus is defined as a set of unquestioned dispositions toward languages in society. This notion of Bourdieu's has been systematically used since 1967. However, the concept has a longer history. The Greek term 'hexis', translated as 'habitus' in Latin, was already used by Aristotle. Bourdieu found it in the works of Panofsky, who in his turn based his ideas on the work of Thomas Aquinas (Rehbein, 2011).

According to Gogolin (2002a) the monolingual habitus reaches far into classrooms, with subtle but extensive consequences for identity development, hampering academic achievement and school success especially amongst immigrant children. It should be highlighted that the habitus is unconscious, and not governed by conscious actions. Even so, it results in the assimilation of ways of dealing with language diversity and promotes "language remedial courses" (Fürstenau, 2016, p. 78) instead of taking the home languages of the students into consideration. The habitus is furthermore "evidenced in transitional bilingual approaches and unrealistic expectations for native-like proficiency" (Benson, 2013, p. 283).

The historic "one nation, one language" approach (Roth, 2013) fails to recognize the natural linguistic and cultural diversity of today's students. If a monolingual habitus is applied to education, it causes us to view students as deficient if they do not speak the dominant language used in school for instruction.

As mentioned above, the monolingual habitus is even found in terminology for language policy and in multilingual education. The use of terms such as L1 and L2 for first and second languages implies that the normal state is speaking one language (*the* mother tongue). It also suggests a clearly defined border between languages and in the order they are learned, as well as in the language proficiency (García, 2009).

Moreover, Gogolin has introduced the term *lebensweltliche Zweisprachigkeit* (life-world bilingualism)[5] (Gogolin, 1988) which is based on Husserl's concept of life-world (*Lebenswelt*) to describe the world as immediately or directly experienced in the subjectivity of everyday life. This describes the linguistic situation and capacity of those people who have more than one language in their lives. Gogolin's proposal suggests a corrective to the deficit view of bilingualism in the term *doppelseitige Halbsprachigkeit* (double semilingualism) (Gogolin, 2005). The language knowledge of those students is not acquired and certified through school and mostly not officially recognized. It is nevertheless used and needed in their everyday life. This study has focused on this life-world multilingualism of the students[6] and how it is implemented in educational settings. Drawing on the contexts in today's society, as seen in Section 2.3, and the transnational social spaces visualized in Section 2.1.2, the challenges in education must be considered to have

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[5]   Later, the term was extended to *lebensweltliche Mehrsprachigkeit* (life-world multilingualism).

[6]   I have chosen to abbreviate this as LWMUL.

increased, calling for a consideration of the students' life-world, which includes several languages.

3.1.5 Beliefs, in this study

The question of teachers' mental processes and perceptions has a distinguished position in several different academic fields, implying an importance for the practice. As seen above, a broad spectrum of perceptions regarding multilingualism in educational settings is prevailing, as well as an ample usage of different concepts.

Drawing on the above given status, I refer to teachers' mental constructs and assumptions as beliefs, in an approach influenced mainly by Anglo-American research, which offers a less complex concept and probably more explicit one like those of the subjective theories (Scheele and Groeben, 1988). A dynamic, cross-disciplinary approach is taken, in which beliefs are focused upon as implicit and explicit mental constructs and perceptions of the observed issues in an educational setting. The notion of teaching as a multifaceted and interactional endeavor is adapted, where teachers, depending on the contexts, may hold multiple, illogical, and even contradictory beliefs.

The beliefs must not be logical, but rather individually arranged and may at the same time be contradictory. These beliefs are further considered as influential on the practice. It is important to bear in mind that research shows on beliefs which are not primarily evidence-based, but rather based on misconceptions and limited everyday understandings, characterized by complexity reduction and an expectation of uniformity.

In the present study, a stance favoring dynamic beliefs regarding multilingualism is taken, containing a notion where language practices are multiple and ever adjusting in a dynamic cycle. This moves away from dualistic beliefs with notions of limited resources and linear development towards a final product native-likeness, and where languages are considered to contaminate each other. Instead, the idea of students' MULR is established, in which the languages are reinforcing each other, without clear-cut bordered units between them. Since the students inevitably draw on their personal LWMUL in situated activities, including education, these interacting resources need to be acknowledged. The continuum of beliefs established in Section 3.1.3 will be used for the analysis.

3.2   Implementation approaches in multilingual settings

Language diversity, multilingualism, is a common reality in many classrooms today. It can be found in every society and in different ages and stages of life; it is simply globally apparent. Therefore, a myriad of studies regarding multilingualism have been and are being conducted in different disciplines: social sciences, psychology and education studies (Lengyel, 2017).

The societal processes following globalization have also affected research on multilingualism as well as reformulated the perspectives and beliefs. Educational research that has focused on the consequences of multilingualism on socialization, integration and education has been of special interest for this study. The previous main research on this topic has been conducted within linguistics, psychology and sociolinguistics; it has therefore been considered in the study's interdisciplinary approach.

In the globalized world of today, we meet diverse groups of students. Increased transnational movements and high-speed communication have transformed society. In countries like Germany and Sweden every fourth student in public schools has a migration background (SIRIS, 2017a; Statistisches Bundesamt, 2017a) and in the super-diverse urban centers, between 50 and 70% of all first graders are bilingual or multilingual (Küppers *et al.*, 2016). Today's children grow up experiencing linguistic and sociocultural diversity that was unimaginable only a few decades ago. Many of them experience multilingualism and heterogeneity as a commonality.

Linguistic diversity is however not a new phenomenon in European classrooms (Gogolin and Krüger-Potratz, 2006), but it has been colored by the nation state formation in the 19th century, where a linguistic homogenizing policy followed (Lengyel, 2017). Minority languages and dialects were considered divergent, linguistic diversity as something "unnatural" (Krüger-Potratz, 2011), and multilingualism something dangerous and harmful, which should be fought.

Nowadays, this has changed and a more positive discourse towards linguistic diversity is noticeable, with several political initiatives promoting multilingualism. As mentioned in Chapter 1, there are approaches such as the framework strategy of the EU (European Commission, 2005), which sets as a long-term objective for all EU citizens to speak two languages in addition to their mother tongue. Another example would be UNESCO

(2003), which as well recognizes multilingualism as a resource and highlights the respect for the languages of people belonging to different linguistic communities. In the authors' view, multilingualism encourages international exchange and dialogue, as part of culture, enhancing a climate of mutual trust and understanding. Furthermore, the possibility for students to use their everyday LWMUL in educational settings to facilitate learning, stimulates integration and supports the principle of equal rights to education.

Multilingualism is however still not seen as the norm, even though it is seen as a resource in many cases (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, 2015). In the following sections, approaches to linguistic diversity in educational settings are presented.

3.2.1 Institutional language learning and teaching

In educational settings, there are many different teaching models[7] regarding how institutions deal with multilingual students. The prevalent models for teaching in multilingual primary education will be presented below, drawing on the widespread model by Baker (2006), who identifies 10 broad types of bilingual education.[8] The 10 types are consequently placed into three different forms of education, depending on the approach to bilingualism and the aim considering linguistic diversity:

1. Monolingual forms of education for bilinguals
2. Weak forms of education for bilinguals
3. Strong forms of bilingual education for bilingualism and biliteracy

Of those 10 types, the relevant ones for this study will be further explained in detail below. In Tab. 4, an overview of the different types of programs relevant for this study are summarized:

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[7] For examples of overviews, see Niedrig (2011); Wright (2014).

[8] The 10 types of programs suggested by Baker are: 1. Mainstreaming/Submersion (Structured Immersion), 2. Mainstreaming/Submersion with withdrawal classes/Sheltered English/Content-Based ESL, 3. Segregationist, 4. Transitional, 5. Mainstream with Foreign Language Teaching, 6. Separatist, 7. Immersion, 8. Maintenance/Heritage Language, 9. Two Way/Dual language, 10. Mainstream bilingual. Even if typologies might suggest static systems, it is important to bear in mind that such systems develop and evolve continuously.

Types of program	Typical type of student	Language of the classroom	Societal and educational aim	Aim of language outcome
MONOLINGUAL FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR MULTILINGUALS				
MAINSTREAMING/ SUBMERSION	Language minority	Majority language	Assimilation/ subtractive	Monolingualism
MAINSTREAMING/ SUBMERSION with withdrawal classes	Language minority	Majority language with "pull out" classes	Assimilation/ Subtractive	Monolingualism
WEAK FORMS OF MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR MULTILINGUALS				
TRANSITIONAL	Language minority	Moves from minority to majority language	Assimilation/ subtractive	Relative mono-lingualism
SEPARATIST	Language majority	Majority language with L2/FL lessons	Limited enrich-ment	Limited multilin-gualism
STRONG FORMS OF MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR MULTILINGUALS				
IMMERSION	Language majority	Bilingual with initial emphasis on L2	Pluralism and enrichment. Additive	Multilingualism and multiliter-acy

Tab. 4: Forms of dealing with multilingualism in educational settings (modified from Baker, 2006)

Submersion vs*. immersion* teaching models

The *submersion* teaching model (Busch, 2012) is an approach in which the academic language, the language used for instruction in school, is the language spoken by the (power) majority in the region/country. It is the second (or third or fourth …) language for some students, multilingual from birth or through migration, newly arrived or just learning another language. Baker places this in the first form (monolingual form of education), calling it "mainstreaming". It is the most common approach in European countries for newly arrived students. Rather than acknowledging the students' home language, the aim has been to assimilate and achieve strong knowledge in the majority language. Baker (2006) gives the following metaphor:

> Submersion contains the idea of a language minority student thrown into the deep and expected to swim as quickly as possible without the help of floats or special swimming lessons. (p. 216)

In the submersion model, there are different additive approaches for newly arrived students such as *pull-out classes* in which they may receive compensatory lessons in the majority language and may also receive lessons in the home language (mother tongue instruction). Assimilation is the aim.

The *immersion* model would be the opposite of submersion and Baker (2006) identifies it as a strong form of bilingual education. The students are taught through the medium of a foreign language. The academic language (the language of instruction) therefore is an additional, minority language (seen in relation to the student). Immersion programs often use different teachers for each of the languages (García, 2009). This model is based upon a Canadian experiment, the "St. Lambert Experiment" (Lambert and Tucker, 1972) and this method is today continuously used by many bilingual schools[9] (García, 2009). The target group in the Canadian experiment was the education-oriented middle class with English as a L1, and French was used as the language for instruction. In an immersion model, the student's home language (in the case of that study it was English) is honored as well as used throughout the school and also reinforced in society at large. Multilingualism in a linguistic sense does not have to be a manifested goal of the teaching. Other advantages are seen with the multilingualism, such as societal benefits by knowing another (often high status) language and in the end obtaining economic advantages through that language knowledge (Baker, 2006).

In between the two counterposed methods of submersion and immersion, Baker places a third weaker form of educational approach, *transitional* programs or measures. This form is used in many European countries today with separate classes for newly arrived students in the beginning of the schooling in the new country; students can later be moved to a regular class.[10] The language minority students might temporarily be allowed to use their home languages, until they are proficient enough in the new one. The aim of this form is assimiliationist. The priority of the schooling is that the children need to function in the majority language in society. Baker (2006, p. 221) compares this with a "brief, temporary swim in one pool until the child is perceived as capable of moving to the mainstream pool".

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[9] The immersion model has had considerable influence on European bilingual education programs, however, it should be noted that it is not directly transferable to all social contexts (García (2009).

[10] This is called *Vorbereitungsklasse* in Germany, *förberedelseklass* in Sweden. In Chile, this concept is not present.

The discussion on the different models is ongoing and the search for the 'best model' never-ending. Based on these basic institutional organizational models, a plethora of local variations has arisen as well. In discussions regarding different models, there are several aspects to consider, such as individual conditions for learning and different socio, economic, political and cultural contexts, making a comparison almost impossible.[11] It is important to have in mind that no type can be said to be overall better than another. The advantages of one type over another are always related to the lens through which one looks, as well as the aims of the education.

In the present study, two types of teaching models traditionally used to describe different kinds of multilingual education programs and approaches are observed: submersion and immersion (see Chapter 5). These terms shift depending on whether one is speaking about a program itself or the power relationship of the language(s) of instruction in relation to the student. In this thesis, the focus is on the latter.

3.2.2 Teaching strategies in diversity

The many challenges associated with teaching and educational policies have increased as a result of cultural and linguistic diversity among student bodies. This diversity can furthermore be handled in several different ways in practice. There can be overall institutional approaches or more individual attempts. Therefore, the teaching strategies behind the approaches are important to highlight.[12]

Teaching in diversity
Drawing on the transnational movements in the 21st century, the question on how teachers can enact ways of teaching that pay attention to the social practices of students around the globe and further support social justice, is especially prevailing (Darji and Lang-Wojtasik, 2014). Several approaches on how to deal with diversity have been developed, including conceptions, such as the global education approach[13] which seek to recognize the challenges from an educational perspective (Lang-Wojtasik and Klemm, 2017). Global education strives to connect a global perspective with the local. Respon-

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[11] For a detailed overview of the models and the discussion of effectiveness and limitations of those, see Baker (2006).

[12] In this study, teaching strategies are the ways in which the teachers teach. It does not have to imply explicit strategies, but could also be the absence of them.

[13] In German: *Globales Lernen.*

sible actions in the context of sustainability and international justice should be implemented, and factual knowledge is needed, in order to develop orientation options for a change. Four circular, connected topic and discourse fields can be identified within the concept of global education as an educational mandate: *peace and non-violence* (providing a spatial dimension as the frame for proposed courses of action), *migration and interculturality* (a factual dimension as challenge on a knowledge level), *development and the environment* (a temporal dimension, for survival questions of humanity) and *human rights and diversity* (a social dimension, as premises of co-existence among humans) (Lang-Wojtasik, 2015). There are several conceptual takes. One (albeit incomplete) example on the European level would be the following:

- Global Education is education that opens people's eyes and minds to the realities of the world, and awakens them to bring about a world of greater justice, equity and human rights for all.

- Global Education is understood to encompass Development Education, Human Rights Education, Education for Sustainability, Education for Peace and Conflict Prevention and Intercultural Education; being the global dimensions of Education for Citizenship. (O'Loughlin and Wegimont, 2002)

This systems-theory approach differs from others in that it does not part from the national state as the natural frame, instead a world society is described drawing on the context of communication (Lang-Wojtasik, 2008).

Moreover, there have been several takes on systematization of the reactions and implementation in the classroom regarding diversity.[14] In this study, a model proposed by Weinert (1997) is used for the understanding of the implementation in the classrooms. This model divides the reactions to the diversity from the teacher's side, in four fundamentally different forms:

a) *Ignoring differences in learning and achievement (passive form of reaction)*: Differences in students' capabilities and pre-qualifications are ignored by the teacher when planning lessons, instead orientating the lessons to a fictive average student, setting this fictive student's progress in learning and achieved results as the standard for the pace and level of difficulty of teaching.

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[14] For further information on implementation in the classroom in the light of diversity, see e.g. Allemann-Ghionda (2013); Auernheimer (2003); Krüger-Potratz (2005); Trautmann and Wischer (2011).

b) *Adaption of students to the demands of the lessons (substitutive form of reaction):* Differences in students' capabilities and pre-qualifications are reduced by grouping them from the start (at an administrative level) in such a way that the groups are as homogeneous as possible with regard to the chosen criteria. Special programs (support courses, practice in learning strategies) can be implemented to improve the learning capabilities and qualifications in certain areas.

c) *Adaption of lessons to the relevant differences between the students (active form of reaction):* Lessons are adapted to the differences that are relevant for learning by offering differentiated lessons that take students' individual needs, capabilities and pre-qualifications into consideration.

d) *Specific support for individual students by adaptive lesson planning (proactive form of reaction)*: In this fourth reaction, in addition to an adaptive style of teaching emphasizing individualization in phases of written work and practice, there are differentiated achievement targets (i.e. differentiation between a basic curriculum for all students and a differentiated extension curriculum).

Other studies such as Hachfeld et al. (2015) offer another picture, mainly identifying two opposing approaches (in accordance with beliefs, see more information in Section 3.1), corresponding to a) difference in color blindness, and a combination of c) and d) (acknowledging the difference and thus adapting the strategies).

In different national contexts, different approaches can be distinguished.[15] Within the German education system in general, Wischer (2009) states that the two first reactions proposed by Weinert (a and b) have traditionally been dominating, and subject to criticism (Altrichter *et al.*, 2009), since it is considered that the teaching need further differentiation.

In Sweden, dealing with education within a diversity framework is colored by high political ambitions and advanced aims, with a policy of acceptance towards pluralism, since

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[15] It is not within the scope of this study mentioning all the approaches. In order to add information to the three national context of this study, some remarks will however be done.

the 1970s (Runblom, 1994). However, at a practical implementation level, more passive approaches can be distinguished (Hyltenstam *et al.*, 2012).

In the Chilean context, research has so far mainly been highlighting the transnational migrations and the integration of migrants overall in the society, leaving diversity in education on a secondary level (Hernández Yulcerán, 2016).

Multilingual pedagogies

So far, there has been no general consensus on a multilingual pedagogy, although attempts on how to deal with linguistic diversity have been initiated. No unified methodology can be observed in this issue, but there are a set of principles used to varying degrees in different approaches depending on the teaching context, curriculum and learners. The call is to include the language practice of the students, their LWMUL, in order to create meaningful participation in education as well as in society. The majority of the approaches so far has however often been adjustments to monolingual pedagogies in order to teach and develop one additional separate language. Recently, the acknowledgement of hybrid language practices of multilingual people has started (see more in the Section 3.1.3) and several approaches including linguistic diversity are to be seen.

A language awareness (LA) approach can be distinguished, which has gained attention in recent decades, especially in L2 learning. Initially a response to dismal achievements in two areas of British education (foreign language and school-leavers' illiteracy) (Andrews, 2007), it has developed and is today defined as "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (Association for Language Awareness, 2017). The language awareness approach advocates for explicit reflection on both native and foreign languages as an integral part of the school curriculum, and not only in language teaching (Luchtenberg, 2008). Language comparison (offering several perspectives) plays an important role in language awareness as well as metalinguistic competences.

Moreover, there are proposed models presenting approaches to and methods of including the different home languages of the students. The proposals of Cummins (2000; 2017) regarding multilingualism in education have received broad recognition in many

parts of the world. In Sweden his work is widely used in research and in practice (Hyltenstam *et al.*, 2012), while in Germany there has been less recognition (Fürstenau and Niedrig, 2010).

During recent decades, different approaches with explicit focus on multilingualism have also arisen, such as the concept of "flexible bilingualism" (Blackledge and Creese, 2010) or the "translanguaging[16] approach" (García, 2009). Those approaches share the heteroglossic notion of multilingualism mentioned earlier (see Section 3.1.3) and especially the translanguaging approach has gained major recognition. Rooted in the paradigm of dynamic multilingualism, translanguaging parts from the pedagogical field and considers a classroom practice (Garcia and Wei, 2014), which can be understood as an instructional and assessment framework that teachers can use strategically and purposefully to leverage the students' multilingualism. It is also used within a theoretical multilingual perspective described as a cognitive function (Garcia and Wei, 2014), describing the internal cognitive process where the individual's overall linguistic and cultural assets are used to understand the world. The concepts span several aspects and the definition is not clearly defined, even if:

> It is clear, though, that translanguaging offers a move away both from a focus on language as a code to a focus on the speakers in a context and how they use language, and from compartmentalisation to concurrent use of two or more languages. (Yoxsimer Paulsrud, 2014, p. 33)

García, one of the major advocates of the concept, defines translanguaging as follows:

> Translanguaging, or engaging in bilingual or multilingual discourse practices, is an approach to bilingualism that is centered not on languages as has often been the case, but on the practices of bilinguals that are readily observable. (García, 2009, p. 44)

Translanguaging parts from the notion that multilingual settings (García and Wei, 2015), and not monolingual, are the norm and that creativity and critical perspectives are included. It starts from the person itself, with the language as a complex, dynamical linguistic repertoire.

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[16] Translanguaging originates from the Welsh term 'trawsieithu' proposed by Cen Williams in 1994 (García and Wei, 2015) and was used in its original sense to refer to the purposeful pedagogical alternation of languages in spoken and written, receptive and productive modes. The term has since been changing and maturing.

Translanguaging is not limited to the spoken word, but can also be connected to writing (García and Wei, 2015). In the praxis, translanguaging focuses on what can be done with languages in teaching, including varieties and modalities, as well as on how multilingual people switch languages, integrating their entire repertoire.

Moreover, translanguaging can be seen in relation to other theoretical terms, from which Bakhtin's heteroglossia (see Section 3.1.3) can be considered as an overall term for different multilingualism perspectives (García and Wei, 2015). Translanguaging releases the language from structuralistic, mental or even only social usage areas. This interdisciplinary approach gives researchers new possibilities (García and Wei, 2015).

In educational settings, translanguaging is an approach to multilingualism that is centered not on the acquisition and development of languages, as has often been the case, but on the practices of bilingual students and their teachers that are readily observable and that are different from our traditional conceptions of autonomous languages (García and Wei, 2015).

Some of the possible strategies that could be used are (Garcia and Wei, 2014):
- collaborative dialogue and grouping,
- reading multilingual texts
- reading texts in different languages
- multilingual listening (this could be scaffolded through visual resources),
- multilingual writing
- comparing multilingual vocabulary or texts
- alternating languages and media

These strategies could be supported by usage of digital media.

The translanguaging approach integrating multilingualism is, however, so far more of an exception, where many initiatives concentrate on language learning and teaching or on language in general. Here approaches such as FörMig[17] (Gogolin, 2013) or scaffolding (Gibbons and Cummins, 2002) have been seen. FörMig is a German approach on integrated language education with the cumulative development of academic language

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[17] *Förderung von Kindern und Jugendlichen mit Migrationshintergrund* (Promoting children and adolescents with a migration background).

skills of students with a migration background as the primary concern.[18] This approach is used in different parts of Germany, in schools and in teacher training.

The internationally well-known term *scaffolding* was coined by the American psychologist Bruner (1974) to describe the way children often build their learning upon the information they already have mastered.[19] The concept refers to the difference between a learner's ability to perform independently or with guidance, and has been modified and adapted, in recent years especially by the Australian Gibbons (2002), to be used as a scaffold for the challenges in diverse classrooms with language minority students.

3.2.3 The role of reading

In recent decades in educational settings, reading has been focused upon as a prerequisite for successful learning overall. Reading is seen as a complex interactive skill that includes a meaning construction process, involving both decoding processes and comprehending processes (Perkins, 2005). As a prominent part of the teaching of reading, reading comprehension has become a buzzword, indispensable in the teacher training, since teachers should offer appropriate strategies to ensure independent reading.

Regarding reading comprehension, there are various different definitions, but little consensus. The topic is broad and poorly outlined. One model suggesting a simple view of reading, proposed by Gough and Tunmer (1986), is however widely accepted, in which reading or reading comprehension is seen as a result of decoding x linguistic comprehension (R = D x C). In this study, reading comprehension is viewed in terms of the pragmatic "literacy concept" of Anglo-American research, which sees it as a basic qualification that is needed for social and professional life. It builds on already given definitions such as the ones of Paris and Hamilton (2009), who see reading comprehension as an active and complex process that involves understanding written text, developing and interpreting meaning. Effective reading instruction would thus require a balanced approach of skills-based and whole language teaching in a motivating and supportive environment (Pressley, 2006).

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[18] Since FörMig was developed and now mainly is used in Germany, some view this as an approach of concentrating on improving the German language knowledge.

[19] The term is built upon the construct of the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD) by the Russian Vygotsky (1987). ZPD stresses the fundamental role of social interaction in the development of cognition.

In the international assessment studies PIRLS (Mullis, 2012) and PISA (Baumert, 2001), regarding reading comprehension[20] it has been highlighted upon the term "reading literacy" used to mean: "An individual's capacity to: understand, use, reflect on and engage with written texts, in order to achieve one's goals, to develop one's knowledge and potential, and to participate in society." (OECD, 2010).

Research on reading in linguistically diverse settings has mainly been highlighted the individuals' knowledge, especially in a L2 learning context, and not on an educational level. Part of the discussion has concentrated on which language the students should learn to read: in the mother tongue or in the language of instruction in school (Hyltenstam *et al.*, 2012). There are approaches focusing on multilingual contexts, such as the continua of biliteracy (Hornberger, 2003), which brings together the theoretical fields of bilingualism and literacy, introducing the concept of biliteracy.[21] This approach is mainly theoretical, not notably empirical based, and has not found a broad implementation in practice. Further attempts, e.g. Martin-Jones and Jones (2000), have mainly remained on a theoretical level.

The given overview gives a notion of the complexity of teaching reading in a multilingual setting and highlights the importance of establishing which perspective is used in the strategies.

3.3 Professional competence: the role of beliefs in the classroom implementation

As stated above, the requirements on teachers in their everyday professional life are complex and context-related. It cannot however be ignored that the aforementioned beliefs will have an impact on their practice and implementation in the classrooms, which makes this study so crucial. It is thus important to note that teachers' beliefs are influenced by societal attitudes and that they vary in different contexts. Education programs are a result of choices on different levels: by the teacher, by the school, by political authorities. Previous research suggests that there are significant relations between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices (OECD, 2009; Pajares, 1992), which play an

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[20] In this study, in German-speaking contexts the term "*Lesekompetenz*" was used, in Swedish-speaking contexts the term "*läsförståelse*" and in Spanish-speaking contexts "*comprensión lectora*".

[21] The definition of biliteracy is "any and all instances in which communication occurs in two (or more) languages in or around writing" (Hornberger, 2003).

important role in the educational settings (Skott, 2015) and therefore a continuum of beliefs are presented for this study (see Section 3.1.3).

Moreover, research has shown that initial literacy in the home language facilitates, rather than hinders the acquisition of literacy in additional languages (Benson, 2005; Bialystok, 2001). But if the teachers' beliefs imply that students have to learn to read in one language at the time, and that language should be the academic language of the school, which consequences could that have for practice?

However, a unidirectional causality should not be sought. As seen above, the beliefs can rather be seen as a filter, an interpretative device, which can be used as transformers of curricular intentions (Skott, 2015).

3.3.1 Approximating concepts regarding professional competence

In the light of the above, discussions on professional competence usually follow, with attempts at identifying competence characteristics for successful teaching, and establishing different competence models.

Drawing on Weinert (2001), the concept of "professional competence" is used to describe the personal capacity to cope with specific situational demands in teaching. Competence, in this sense, is considered as a theoretical construct of actions combining several characteristics such as "intellectual abilities, content-specific knowledge, cognitive skills, domain-specific strategies, routines and subroutines, motivational tendencies, volitional control systems, personal value orientations, and social behaviors in a complex system" (Weinert, 2001, p. 51). Bearing in mind the complexity of teaching, it has to be highlighted that those characteristics can be cognitive as well as motivational or volitional (Weinert, 2001). Weinert (1999) further states:

> An individual's system of knowledge and beliefs is formed through experience with one's own competence in achievement situations, and influences performance and achievement through expectations, attitudes and interpretative schemata. (p. 9)

Further, Weinert (2001) refers to "key competencies" which are central competences upon which others depend and which facilitate understanding and learning. This is characterized by a particularly broad scope, such as basal competencies (e.g. literacy, general education); methodological competencies (planning for problem solving; competent

use of a variety of media), communicative competencies (foreign language skills; rhetoric, written and oral exposition skills; and so on) as well as judgment competencies (e.g. critical thinking skills; multidimensional judgements about one's own and others' performance) (Weinert, 1999). In addition, meta-competencies, the ability to judge the availability, use, compensation and learnability of the personal competencies, include strategies of thinking, learning, planning and governing, as well as knowledge about tasks and strategies and knowledge of one's own personal strengths and weaknesses. These meta-competencies, which are experience-dependent, facilitate the acquisition and use of specific competencies.

Competencies can be regarded as context-dependent ability constructs, whose development can only be conceived as resulting from learning processes in which the individual interacts with his or her environment. In this notion, competencies can be acquired by learning (that is, they have to be acquired through learning), while basic cognitive abilities, in contrast, can only be learned and trained to a far lower degree (Weinert, 2001).

From this perspective, professional practice is seen as a result of an interaction of various factors (Baumert and Kunter, 2013b):

- Specific declarative and procedural knowledge (competence in the narrow sense: knowledge and skills)
- Professional values, beliefs, and goals
- Motivational orientations
- Professional self-regulation skills

Such characteristics are principally learnable and communicable, and the different competence models can be used as standards in teacher training (Terhart, 2002).

Drawing on the above, the Germans Baumert and Kunter (2006, 2013b) have developed a generic model of teachers' professional competence which transmits the notion of beliefs as an aspect of professional knowledge. The basic assumption is that the aforementioned factors, professional knowledge, beliefs, motivational orients and the capability of self-regulation, are specific interacting professional characteristics necessary for successful teaching. This assumption draws on the American educational psychologist Shulman's (1986) work, which distinguishes between general pedagogical

knowledge, subject-matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and curriculum knowledge. Baumert and Kunter (2006) have combined these in three core *dimensions* of knowledge:

- content knowledge,
- pedagogical content knowledge
- and pedagogical/psychological knowledge,

supplemented by two further *dimensions*:

- organizational knowledge
- and counseling knowledge (Baumert and Kunter, 2013b).

In their generic model of teachers' professional competence, Baumert and Kunter (2013b) give four *aspects* of competence:

- knowledge,
- beliefs,
- motivation
- and self-regulation.

Those aspects further comprise more specific *domains* derived from the available research literature. The domains are differentiated into *facets*, which are operationalized by concrete indicators. This model will be adopted for linguistically diverse settings.

3.3.2 Professional competence in linguistic diversity

This study's research interest focuses on the beliefs regarding multilingualism and their interaction with the professional knowledge in the teaching of reading in multilingual settings at a micro level (see Section 2.5). In a globalized society, with changing social needs, technologies, and attitudes, teachers need up-to-date, evidence-based knowledge on recent research. The call is for globally competent teachers, who must "continue to learn and grow professionally" (Darji and Lang-Wojtasik, 2014, p. 57). Beliefs can affect the art of teaching, thus pedagogical knowledge regarding linguistic diversity is required. However, there is presently no comprehensive model of this specific professional competence. Drawing on the interaction on different levels proposed by Baumert and Kunter (2013b), I have thus conceptualized a theoretical adoption of their

model to illustrate the interaction of the different components of professional competence (see Fig. 9 below). Firstly, four *aspects* of teachers' professional competence (knowledge, beliefs, motivation and self-regulation) are to be found. Two of these are especially dealt with in this study: beliefs and knowledge, as two separate aspects of teacher competence, even if it is important to note that the transitions between the two are blurred. These broad areas are then further divided.

Secondly, specific *domains* of those two aspects are to be found. Under the aspect of beliefs are the domains *beliefs regarding multilingualism* respectively *diversity* positioned. Under the aspects of knowledge two domains are positioned: *organizational knowledge* and *pedagogical knowledge*.

Below these domains, *facets* can be distinguished. The facets concern, respectively, beliefs on what multilingualism is, as well as beliefs on what diversity is, and how to implement this in the classroom. Under the aspect of professional knowledge, organizational and pedagogical knowledge is positioned. While organizational knowledge concentrates on the classroom management (such as different instructional methods, e.g. more or less teacher driven) in multilingual settings, the pedagogical knowledge is divided into two facets relevant for this study, namely knowledge on the language learning process and knowledge on the reading process. Relevant here would also be the knowledge on breaking down the competences given in the curricula (see Section 2.4) into the micro level in the classroom.

In the model by Baumert and Kunter (2013b), beliefs are mentioned as an important aspect of professional competence (especially the self-related cognitions), even though they are given only peripheral attention. Epistemological beliefs (world views) do not take a prominent position in their model, although they refer to the unsatisfactory research state in that aspect. Baumert and Kunter (2013b) consider knowledge to be the core of professionalism; in this study two aspects in the observed linguistically diverse settings are highlighted: beliefs and professional knowledge, visualizing this as a bridge between mental constructs and practice.
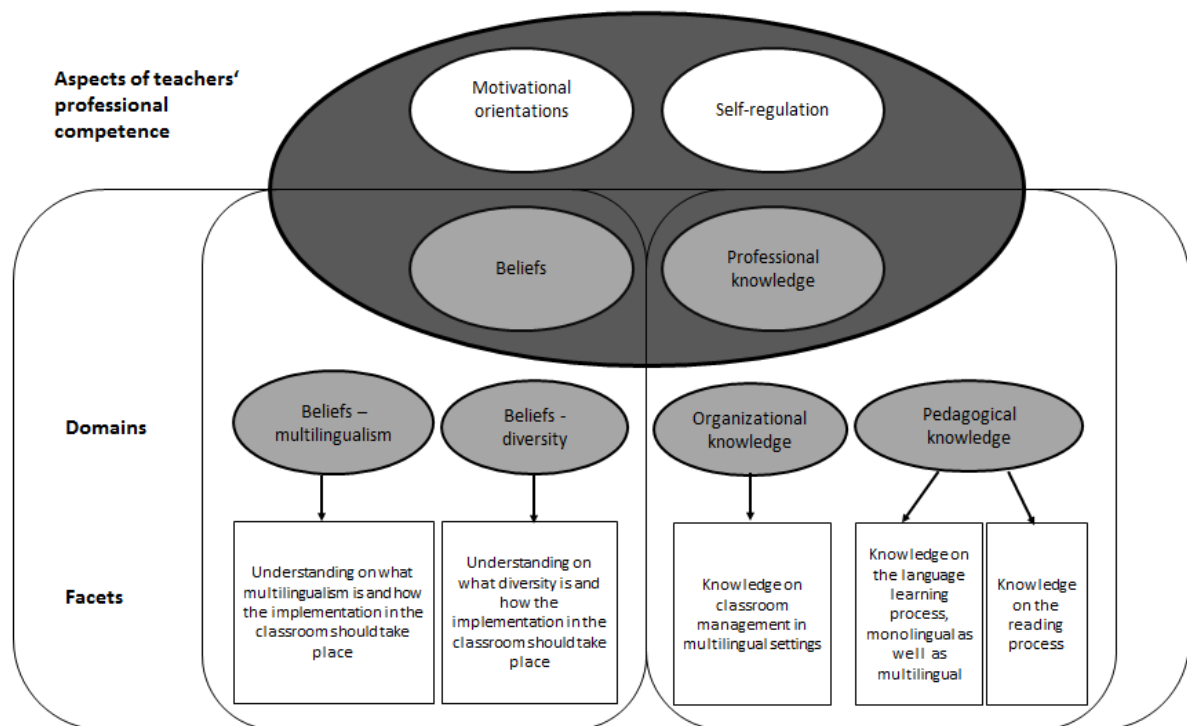
Fig. 9: Model of teachers' professional competence[22]

Additional to this model, it has to be stated that the beliefs are further influenced by individual and institutional preconditions in the teaching settings. Those preconditions interact in complex forms of different aspects regarding professional competence, which can impact on the practice. Individual preconditions can be demographic or personal characteristics, such as the perception of new and unfamiliar things. Institutional pre-conditions can be school policies or resources for diversity. Questions to acknowledge could be which beliefs the teaching staff has regarding linguistic diversity and if there are strategies implemented put up by the school administrators. The composition of the students is a further important precondition, since the degree of diversity can differ on many levels.

In this study, the beliefs regarding multilingualism thus are operationalized as part of the professional competence of teachers, at the same time the beliefs have a special status for the teaching, bridging the said mental constructs with the practice. Moreover, the teachers´ beliefs at a micro level must be seen as related to beliefs in their schools (meso level) as well as beliefs in the education system as a whole (macro level). The

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[22] Modified for teaching reading in multilingual settings, drawing on Baumert and Kunter (2013a).

above conceptualized model will be used in the analysis for a deeper understanding of the interaction between beliefs and implementation.

3.4 Concluding the theoretical framework and the examination lenses

This chapter has presented the theoretical framework for examining and understanding the data gathered for this thesis. The focus of the presented theoretical framework is at the micro level, introduced in Section 2. This micro level is also the main focus of this study, dealing with interactions in classrooms and mental constructs, takes on linguistic diversity, as well as the professional competence behind those interactions.

The concept of teachers' mental constructs, beliefs, has been on the agenda in several different academic fields, calling upon the concept given in this chapter to be approximated. Previous research (Skott, 2015; Gay, 2015; Lucas *et al.*, 2015; Pettit, 2011) indicates that a wide array of teachers' beliefs can be found. Drawing on the concept of heteroglossia (see Section 3.1.3), a continuum of dualistic and dynamic beliefs was illustrated. The beliefs regarding linguistic diversity in education are stated to be complex and multi-dimensioned, even if research shows a monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2002b) within educational institutions. This indicates a rather dualistic understanding of multilingualism in which the languages of a person would be separated from each other, not interacting to a major degree and thus rather constituting a threat for learning than being considered a resource. Even though no unidirectional causality should be sought, research shows that beliefs have an impact on teachers' strategies (Richardson, 1996; Pajares, 1992) and such dualistic understandings must thus be taken into consideration.

While reports and research have demonstrated that there are academic benefits associated with inclusive approaches to linguistic diversity, there are also considerable challenges in organizing and implementing them effectively. There are thus various takes on systematization of reactions and implementation in the classrooms, varying considerably in the different contexts, on the national as well as international level. Different takes on diversity can be sighted (see Section 3.2), of which a model proposed by Weinert (1997) is primarily used in this study for the analysis of the empirical data.

In the globalized and linguistically diverse settings of this study, the teachers' professional competence (Baumert and Kunter, 2013a) regarding linguistic diversity and reading is highly demanded. The aforementioned beliefs can be regarded as an aspect of this, and in this study beliefs are considered to bridge those mental constructs and practice. Other aspects are also vital, especially the professional knowledge regarding teaching reading as well as experience of teaching in diverse settings.

The tension between the political intentions promoting multilingualism at a macro level (see Chapter 2) in today's linguistically diverse society, and the existing rather dualistic beliefs regarding multilingualism illustrated in this chapter (mainly at a micro level) lies at the heart of this thesis. The question regarding the teachers' beliefs and strategies implemented in relation to the students' LWMUL in a society colored by globalization and transmigration will thus be scrutinized in an analysis drawing on the collected data, thereby considering the multilayered contexts illustrated in Section 2.5.

The above presented theoretical perspectives on teachers' beliefs and implementation in linguistically diverse teaching contexts, and the required professional knowledge in such settings provide different lenses for examining and understanding the data gathered for this thesis. In Part Two, the empirical material and the analysis are presented. In the following chapter, the methodology used for data collection and analysis will be presented.

PART TWO

Methods, findings, analysis and discussion

The Part Two of this thesis contains three chapters on the empirical findings as well as a concluding chapter. It starts with an account of the methods used for the study, in Chapter 4, and includes methodological considerations regarding challenges such as conducting research in a diverse linguistic setting. The researcher's positionality is reflected upon and the ethical considerations and remarks on the study's limitations are formulated. Chapter 5 introduces the findings from the field experience, including the classroom observations and the interviews. In addition, the first analysis procedure (1st AP), a categorical structuring coding, takes place. In Chapter 6, the second analysis procedure (2nd AP) through evaluative coding is illustrated. A reconstruction of the continuum of beliefs as well as of implementation approaches in the teaching is conducted. Chapter 7 gives the third and final analysis procedure (3rd AP), in which a type construction takes places and types of strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings can be distinguished. This chapter also offers concluding remarks on the analysis procedures. Part Two of this thesis closes with Chapter 8, in which the results of the investigation are presented in relation to the research questions and the theoretical perspectives. This chapter also concludes the thesis, offering a discussion of the results including contributions and future directions.

4 Methodology

This chapter presents the research approach, settings, participants and methods used to collect and analyze data in this thesis. It includes a summary of the methodological challenges faced and experienced in designing an international comparative case study research project across three countries, as well as a data collection procedure which had to adapt to various practical issues related to research in different populations. The data analysis process utilized is described and the methodological considerations of the studies are highlighted, and the challenges and potential limitations are acknowledged and discussed. It also aims at clarifying the role of the researcher in writing and in carrying out the study.

4.1 Research design

This thesis has an international as well as a comparative approach. Such an approach is intended to uncover what is often taken for granted in one's own school culture. This enables critical thinking about one's own educational practice and assessment culture. It furthermore challenges one to think broadly about the link between local practices and global issues in today's society, where the boundaries between the local and the global are being blurred through "glocalization" (Robertson, 1995) (also see the discussion on globalization in Section 2.1.1).

The research design uses case studies, in a comparative qualitative approach. In such approaches, it needs to be stated and motivated why the given cases can be compared (Phillips and Schweisfurth, 2011) and this is described in this section. It is also important to emphasize that the thesis is written from a German perspective, with a German procedure, even if my prior experience as a Swede has left its tracks.[1]

Research on complex issues, such as teachers' beliefs and teaching strategies of reading comprehension in multilingual and different geographically remote settings, calls for use of a methodology that combines several research methods and approaches to the data. Thus, the overall design of this cross-sectional research project is a triangulated

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[1] See also Section 4.7 for challenges in the research process.

take on empirical qualitative research with an interpretive theoretical perspective on the collected data. In the search for a wider understanding of the teaching strategies, I have combined several research methods and research tools that are common to the social research field in Germany. The combination consisted of classroom observations in the school environment (participant observation), semi-structured interviews based on an interview guide with the teachers, and a questionnaire for the key data of the teachers' biography and formation.

The choice of this diverse methodology is based on the fact that the research project is highly complex. Adding that writing is a complex activity governed by micro-level factors (e.g. individual writing skills, computer literacy, age, writing situation and other background issues) and macro-level ones[2] (e.g. ideologies, policies, traditions, practices) makes this project even more complex. It must therefore be scrutinized from many different perspectives. The methodology allows for an iterative take on the research subject, as the final analysis is informed by the earlier phases. It presents the contextual qualities (conditions, intentions) as well as the impact qualities (output, outcome). This brings new insights for teaching reading in multilingual settings into the debate and discussion of appropriate and culturally sensitive approaches on education in general.

4.1.1 Perspectives of international qualitative social research in a globalized world

Following Flick (2004a), this study is a comparative one, with an international approach. As Crossley and Watson state (2003), international comparative studies possess special features. Special attention is therefore given to the meaning of perspectives and the usage of individual terms in the different contexts.

Crossley and Watson (2003) further refer to the fact that international comparative researchers more than others need to direct different perspectives on one phenomenon, they call it "jostling of different perspectives" (p. 34). They also point to inevitable paradigmatic clashes, which can be clearly visible in the previous accounts of the historical evolution of the field, as well as in this study.[3]

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[2] Micro and macro here does not refer to the contexts of the study, but to the writing process, thus meso is not mentioned.

[3] There is more on the history of comparative research in Section 2.1.

Why is there then a need for international qualitative research, would not the comparison within one education system or region be sufficient? The fact that education systems are not isolated, within their own working organizations, but parts of the world system, and in the globalized society of today even more so, makes this kind of research so crucial. It is important to overcome the ethnocentrism that can easily arise when individuals or groups take the stance to use the own ethnic culture as the value and standard for judging other groups (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004). In another perspective, it is important for the education system to prepare the performance and compatibility of their students, giving them the qualifications for a globalized market (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004), which also calls for the need for international comparisons.

However, it is vital to avoid a 'naïve, pre-scientific take-over' approach (Hornberg, 2010; Hörner, 1993), in which education models from other countries should replace the present ones. There are no "one-size-fits-all recipe for school success" (Farrell, 2008) and each social and cultural context demands different teaching models. The aim with this study has not been to find such a recipe, but to obtain further insights into teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings; for such an aim, the international comparative approach is of vital importance, since it offers different perspectives. Such insights might lead to teachers reflecting on their own teaching practices and increased understanding of the reasons behind their actions.

4.1.2 Case studies in different national contexts

The research design was developed using an international comparative approach drawing on case studies. In such an approach, the reasons for choosing the cases have to be explained (Phillips and Schweisfurth, 2011), which will be done in this section.

Case studies have a long tradition through their offering an understanding of the empiricism, even though this research approach has often come to take a backseat position due to the high prevalence of quantitative large-scale studies (Lamnek and Krell, 2010). For this study, a case-study approach was chosen due to its suitability, drawing on Yin (2009) who states that:

> In general, case studies are the preferred method when (a) "how" and "why" questions are being posed, (b) the investigator has little control over events and (c) the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. (p. 2)

Yin further states that case studies are particularly well-suited to uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of situations or phenomena where the variables involved cannot be delineated from their contexts, which made the aforementioned design suitable for this study.

In a case study design, several objects can be defined. Typical objects chosen as a case in social research are individual people, groups of people, organizations/networks, entire communities, cultures or other forms of social relationships (Hering and Schmidt, 2014). For this study, the individual teachers and the classrooms in which they act were chosen as a case, since they represent easily identified units, both as interviewees as well as forming part of the observed objects in the different schools.

Miles and Huberman (1994) state that much of the analysis is usually done in the course of writing the case report in case-study research. This leads to a linear but at the same time iterative process. In Fig. 10 below (author's design, drawing on Yin, 2009), the iterative process of this study is illustrated. Drawing on an initial plan, several interconnecting phases can be recognized, including designing the study, preparing the different parts, collecting data, sharing with other people as well as analyzing the data and the process.
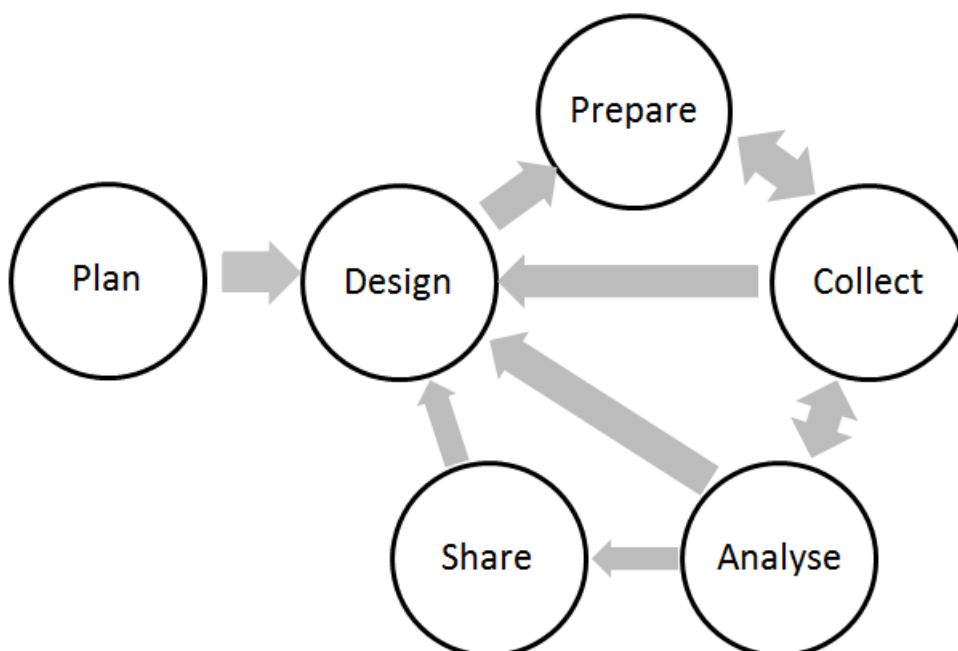
Fig. 10: Research process

Case study designs have been criticized because interpretation of the research can be questioned. In order to prevent such criticism, it is crucial to document the research process, offering detailed descriptions as well as handling the data at different decision levels; this has been the intention in this study (see Section 4.7).

This study aims at in-depth descriptions and analysis which will shed light on the beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. This insight into the educational practice is enabled by the case study design and made clearer through the international comparative approach which illustrates the differences and similarities in a transparent way.

4.1.3 Some words on mixed methods

Depending on the circumstances, one method may be better suited then others for a study. The importance of appropriateness of the used research design is thus crucial Kuckartz (2011, p. 50). The research questions and the following analysis should be kept in mind for the research design. Thus, one in which data is collected using different methods was opted for, since it would shed light on the issues from different angles. This follows the current practice of a pragmatic research community, combining different deductive and inductive logic by integrating qualitative and quantitative data and approaches (Johnson and König, 2016). In today's research, mixed methods designs are developing in several directions.

Originally from a rather restricted approach in the 1990s, mixed methods is now an approach which goes far beyond the first initial ideas. It has experienced a tremendous development over the past two decades (Kuckartz, 2011; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003) and now includes not only methods, but also methodologies, paradigms and even disciplines (Johnson and König, 2016). The concept of mixed methods has been defined in a number of ways in recent years, adapting varying levels of specificity.

In some works, the terms 'triangulation' and 'mixed methods' are used as synonyms, while other works adhere to precise definitions. Denzin (1989) was one of the first to take up the concept of triangulation, distinguishing four types: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation. The last issue was thus developed by introducing the concepts of 'within-methods', referring to the act of connecting two methods of the same paradigm/methodology (such as open-ended interviews and participant observations) and 'between-method', where two or

more methods from different paradigms/methodologies (such as experiments and guided interviews) were combined (Johnson and König, 2016). This has been the basis for a further development of the mixed methods approach.

Today, triangulation is primarily used as a principle of design in qualitative research, but it also holds a specific place in mixed methods research, the goal being converging and validating findings. Mixed methods have been elaborated to include a broad and differentiated set of approaches. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggest a typology with a rather widely accepted view of designs with different dimensions. Further, Bryman (2014) provides a set of quality criteria, stressing issues such as the need for linkage for the research question, explicitness about the mixed methods design, and transparency. These issues have been considered in the study (see Section 4.7.4).

Johnson and König (2016) state that methodologists today, in contrast to the paradigm wars in the 20th century, contend that "qualitative and quantitative approaches should not be regarded as polar opposites or dichotomies". Even if I am not of the opinion that the paradigm wars are over (especially not in the German research context), I share this stance, and a mixed methods design approach has been the basis of this study for the data collection. I do see a shift in tendencies regarding this issue, where studies are considered to be more qualitative or quantitative, to a certain extent, and not contrasting and incompatible approaches.

One given definition on mixed methods would be Greene's (cited in Johnson *et al.*, 2007):

> Mixed method inquiry is an approach to investigating the social world that ideally involves more than one methodological tradition and thus more than one way of knowing, along with more than one kind of technique for gathering, analyzing, and representing human phenomena, all for the purpose of better understanding. (p. 119)

This would be the approach taken in this study: an open approach with focus on the purpose of better understanding.[4] The aim of this approach was chosen, in order to invigorate the study, allowing deeper reflective insights which are supported by observations from different perspectives. The experience from the field made it clear that several levels had to be taken into consideration in the contexts of this study, from the

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[4]   I am aware of the present discussion regarding mixed methods and that others could interpret my approach in another way.

overarching, societal educational policies at a macro level, over the organizational aspects at an institutional meso level, down to the individual beliefs and interactions at a micro level (also see Section 2.5), this being enabled by the mixed-methods approach.

The different parts of the design approach were as follows: first, participant observations were conducted, with the aim to gain deeper understanding of the everyday teaching. Secondly, semi-structured interviews with the teachers were conducted with an interview guide as a basis. The key data of the teachers' biography and formation were collected through a quantitative questionnaire, in order to gain a quick insight their background during the interviews.[5] More on the different parts of the study can be found in the following sections, as well as a material overview in Tab. 9.

4.2 Sampling and selection criteria

As previously mentioned, the initial selection and invitation to this study involved schools in three countries: Germany, Sweden and Chile, where students had access to another language other than the school language, in their home. Several considerations were made before the data collection took place and these will be described below.

4.2.1 Country and cities

When selecting the cases, two main content-related as well as research-pragmatic reasons were considered.

Firstly, the countries that should be included in the study were selected according to several preconditions. Initially, content-related considerations were undertaken. The researched topic should have a high relevance in the chosen countries. Primarily, the two European countries Germany and Sweden were considered suitable. Several phases of immigration in both countries have been distinguished: they have both had regulated immigration since the 1960s, when labor forces in both countries were needed. In recent decades, the focus has shifted towards a migrant population mainly consisting of asylum seekers (Migrationsverket, 2016; Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, 2005). Germany and Sweden were thus selected, being two countries with notable similarities in economies, labor markets, welfare regimes, culture and migration (see Section 2.3 for

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[5] My approach approximates what Johnson and König (2016) call "Parallel Mixed Methods Design" as well as "Triangulation Design".

more information on migration to these two countries). Germany was also well suited, due to the fact that my base was in Germany (practicalities are not to be overlooked in research). Sweden, as my native country and a country with the aforementioned similarities to Germany but with different approaches to education (Ratzki, 2013) was also well suited for this study. In both Germany and Sweden, the teaching context had to be a setting where the academic language for learning was a majority one (German and Swedish), with a *submersion* teaching model (Busch, 2012) (see Section 3.2.1), for L2 students who live in a bilingual life-world (Fürstenau and Gomolla, 2011).

The third country, Chile, is one which has also lived through several phases of migration (see Section 2.3.3). At the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, many Europeans, especially Germans, established themselves in Chile. Later, during the Pinochet era, Chile generated more immigrants than it received. For example, many Chileans migrated to Sweden (Migrationsverket, 2016). Today, the percentage of foreigners in Chile is low, even if the financial development during recent decades has again made it attractive for people to move there (Departamento de Extranjería y Migración del Ministerio del Interior, 2007), especially from the surrounding countries and the Asia. My role as a project coordinator of an exchange program between the University of Education Weingarten, and a partner institute in Chile, with the *Baden-Württemberg Stiftung* as the external funding source, enabled me to add Chile as a third country.

Adding Chile offered the possibility of adding material to the study from another teaching context: a setting where learning in the academic language takes place in a minority (foreign) language, using the *immersion* model (see Section 3.2.1). This was a contrast to the settings in Germany and Sweden and of major importance when choosing the research method and focus, especially when considering the context in which the study was conducted.

Research-pragmatic preconditions when choosing countries were also considered. One crucial precondition to conduct empirical research in different countries/classrooms is to understand the language of instruction. Phillips and Schweisfurth (2011) emphasize that for qualitative studies the comparative and international researcher needs to master the language in the given country as well as to be familiar with the school cultures that are compared. Since my language knowledge included German, Swedish, Spanish and

English the aforementioned countries would be suitable according to this criterion. Access to the schools (see next Section) was also enabled due to my ability to address the staff in their own language (see Section 4.7.6).

Criteria for choosing cities in Germany and Sweden were that they should be university cities of 50,000-150,000 inhabitants, since major cities might not represent the situation in the rest of the country. Since Germany is divided in 16 *Bundesländer* (federal states) with supreme legislative and administrative power, including its education system, one region (federal state) had to be chosen. The southwest region Baden-Württemberg (BW) is an attractive region due to its economic strength and also where I live.

In Chile, the criteria referring to inhabitants did not apply. The already stated partner institute was situated in a major city and, due to practicalities (financial resources), it was not possible to access other parts of the country.

4.2.2 Participants

After the selection of the countries and cities mentioned in Section 4.2.1, the search for participants started.

The selection was based on the aim to have similar schools in terms of socioeconomic status (SES). This was possible regarding the schools in Germany and Sweden, but in Chile the SES of the neighborhood around the participating school was higher. For detailed information of the informants, see the section on the respective classrooms in Chapter 5.

All together 15 primary schools were invited to participate in the study. Finally, two regular schools from Germany (BW), two regular schools from Sweden and one bilingual school from Chile chose to participate in the study. The aim was to have two participating schools in Chile as well as in Germany and Sweden, but due to time constraints, it was only possible to collect data in one classroom.

Through internet research, schools fulfilling the preset criteria (grade 4 classes including students with more than one home language) were contacted. Mainly via email, the first contacts were made in January-May 2015 through a gatekeeper (one person with access to the potential participants), generally the school principals. After the gatekeepers had consented to participation of the school, they passed on contact data of a teacher

at their school to me. I then contacted the respective teacher, via email and/or telephone, to find suitable dates for my visits. In one case, the first contact was made over social media with a teacher at one school and later on with the principal. I stated that I wanted to attend classes regarding reading, on two occasions, and that a recorded interview with the teacher was required. The final decision of which classrooms in the different schools I could visit was made by the schools' principals.

Prior to the main study, one school in Germany (BW) was visited for a pilot study, this will be discussed in Section 4.4.

Information regarding the participating teachers and classroom as well as period of time is shown in Tab. 5 below. Acronyms are given for easy identification following the two-letter code ISO 3166 for general purposes (International Organization for Standardization, 2017): DE – Germany, SV – Sweden, CL – Chile. In order to respect the research ethics (Vetenskapsrådet, 2011; Hopf, 2009a), the schools and the participating teachers' and other people' names have been substituted with different pseudonyms (and titles) depending on the cultural context (Przyborski and Wohlrab-Sahr, 2014). Therefore, the following has been considered:

- When addressing a teacher, in Germany a surname is used, thus adding a *Frau* (Mrs.) in front of the surname.
- For the Swedish teachers, a first name is given, this being the custom in Sweden for addressing teachers.
- For the Chilean teacher, the designation *Frau* is also used, but here the first name is used instead of the surname, being the custom in Chilean schools.

Classroom, teacher	Germany (BW)	Sweden	Chile
DE1 (pilot study) **Frau Schmidt**	January-February 2015		
DE2 **Frau Vogel**	April-May 2015		
DE3 **Frau Mayer**	June 2015		
SV1 **Lotta**		August 2015	
SV2 **Malin**		September 2015	
CL1 **Frau Maria**			November 2015

Tab. 5: Classrooms, teachers and time-period of classroom observations

The home language of the students and the percentage of students with only one home language are stated in Tab. 6 below, in order to give an overview on the composition of the students in the different classrooms.

Classroom	Number of students	Number of home languages in the class[6]	Number of students with only DE, SV or ES
DE1 (pilot study)	20	5	15 (75%)
DE2	25	12	11 (44%)
DE3	25 (mixed aged, grade 3 and 4)	5	21 (84%)
SV1	18	2	16 (89%)
SV2	19	12	2 (11%)
CL1	22	1	20 (90%)

Tab. 6: Composition of the students in the classrooms and their home languages

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[6] Not including the majority languages German, Swedish or Spanish.

The classrooms DE2 and SV2 may be considered typical classrooms in many Western European nation states of today. This includes an increasing number of immigrants and thus they are experiencing a growing ethnic, cultural and linguistic heterogeneity in their societies. Many different cultures and languages are gathered in those two classes, from different parts of the world. Further information about the classrooms is given in the sections on the respective classrooms.

As previously mentioned, in all the cases but one the contact was through the principal and I felt that the participating teachers had been encouraged by them to join the study and to participate in the interviews. The principals of the participating schools themselves were interested in the themes addressed, especially in reading. Being Swedish also opened many doors in Germany, as Sweden is seen in a positive light in Germany. I also felt that the participating teachers already had a positive attitude towards other cultures and multilingualism and they therefore were curious about the study. Without the engagement and welcoming attitude of the school staff, it would have been very difficult to carry out this study.

4.3   Data collection and methods

Within qualitative research, methods that enable the reconstruction[7] of the subjective view are emphasized. This study builds on an ethnographic research approach (Lüders, 2004) which aims at producing qualitative data in which the voices of the participants can be heard, giving an insight in the subject teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. For this purpose, various approaches were combined in order to expand the perspective of the observed topics and these methods will be presented in detail below after an initial introduction.

Firstly, participant observations were conducted before the interviews, in order to observe the practice in the classrooms. This was followed by interviews with the teachers. There is a broad palette of qualitative research interview possibilities and out of them the semi-structured interview based on an interview guide was chosen, determined by what the research questions aimed at observing.

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[7]   Within this study, I am not referring to the German concept of *Rekonstruktion* used within the documentary method, but to "construct again: such as a: to establish or assemble again" (Merriam Webster, 2018).

Further, already when planning the data collection process and deciding for a certain methodological approach, the analysis method that will be used plays an important role, since it should relate to the data collection method. Several different methods are possible in qualitative research, see e.g. Hussy (2013) for an overview of research methods used in German social science. For this study, the German approach *qualitative Inhaltsanalyse* was chosen, drawing on Schreier (2012) as well as on Kuckartz (2014a, 2014b)(see Section 4.6). Schreier (2012) calls this method "qualitative content analysis" (QCA) and this term will be used further on in this study.

4.3.1 Participant observation

The empirical part of the study involved setting up a data collection procedure in educational contexts. Participant observation was chosen because of its historical roots in anthropology and ethnology, and in the social reform movement of the late 19th and early 20th centuries in the United States and Great Britain (Lüders, 2004).

Denscombe (2003) states that there are essentially two kinds of research methods for observation used in the social sciences. The first is systematic observation with its origins in social psychology. This normally links with the production of quantitative use of statistical analysis. The second is participant observation, mainly associated with sociology and anthropology. It is used by researchers to infiltrate situations and to understand the culture and processes of the groups being investigated. Participant observation usually produces qualitative data. This study has applied overt participant observation, where the researcher participated in a closed setting as a passive observer with minimal interaction (Bryman, 2012). This means that I was present in the classroom, the observed people were aware of the fact that I was there, but my intention was not to participate in any major way in the classroom activities.

This type of observation was chosen since it would allow me to take part in everyday situations and settings in the usual context of the objects to be observed. The possibility to observe events that informants may be unable or unwilling to share was also provided. This method can be used in multiple ways and combined with other methods of gathering information, a major feature that made it suitable (Flick, 2014). Yet another reason for choosing it was that it is well-suited for research which aims to describe the state of certain life-worlds (Flick, 2014). Furthermore, DeWalt and DeWalt (2011) suggest that it may be used to increase the validity of the study, as observations may help

the researcher to attain a better understanding of the context, this being vital for the following interviews.

Originally, videotaping was planned for, and selected episodes of the videos were to be used for later group discussions. The teachers then could have had the possibility to observe their own teaching strategies and, post hoc, explain their cognition of the situation and furthermore, reflect on their teaching strategies (Helmke, 2009). Several pragmatic research factors nevertheless impeded videotaping. The main reason was that it was not allowed in schools in Chile. Furthermore, the schools in Germany and Sweden also saw videotaping as a major intervention that would have hindered their participation.

Pragmatic reasons, such as financial and practical factors, had further influence on the length of the observation periods. The shortest period would be the stay in Chile (one week) and it was therefore decided, that the classroom observations would be conducted on two occasions, in order to have the same conditions in all the classrooms.

The field part

The classroom observations took place in each class in the majority language class in Germany (German) and Sweden (Swedish) and in the minority language class in Chile (German). After a first contact with the school had been made, a date was set with the teacher for the classroom observations. The field part of the study was conducted between April 2015 and November 2015. I attended the lessons as a passive observer in the classroom, on two occasions in the schools in Germany and Sweden and on one occasion in Chile. Field notes (see Section 4.3.4) were taken during the observation. The purpose of the observations was to get the background to the interviews and to have reference points during the later interview. Observations offers the researcher a distinct way of collecting data. Being a direct interaction, it is not reliant on what people say they do, or what they say they think.

The purpose of the visit (observing teaching strategies of reading comprehension in multilingual settings) was explained to the teachers prior to the visit. The teachers were asked not to prepare any extra classes or change their concepts. However, in some cases, if no activities regarding reading were planned for the intended visit dates, the teachers changed their planning to include reading.

The observations were built up in a similar way in all the classrooms. I had previously decided with the teacher on when to come to the classroom. On some occasions, I could have a talk with the teacher before the classes started, on others this was not possible. In the classroom, the teacher then presented me to the students, explaining my presence. Some of the teachers underlined that I was there to observe them, not the students, which the students appreciated.

After the short introduction, I took my place in the back of the classroom in order to take a minimally participating observer role (Bryman, 2012). I took field notes and wrote down my impressions of the class as well as any occurrences. Before entering the field, I had given thorough thought regarding my role as a researcher. Participant observation can disturb the natural setting of the classroom with the presence of an observer as an outsider and a new element in the classroom. Since the circumstances of this study had the potential to change the behavior of the participants, my presence was intended to cause as minimal disturbance as possible, without drawing much attention to my person. The students and the teacher were aware of my presence, but in general after a couple of minutes, they did not seem to notice my presence. However, my role varied in the different classrooms, depending on the context, depending on whether the teacher or the students wanted me to interact or not. The degree of my interacting was therefore changing. Sometimes the teacher wanted me to interact, if a person was missing from a group for example. Sometimes a student was curious and asked me questions.

In all classrooms observations, I focused on nine dimensions (Spradley, 1980):

1. *Space:* layout of the physical setting; the classroom
2. *Actors*: the name and relevant details of the people involved (teacher and students, other people present)
3. *Activities:* the various activities of the actors
4. *Objects:* physical elements: furniture etc. Were there references to other languages or cultures in the classroom, such as written text on posters or books in other languages?
5. *Acts*: specific individual actions. Were other languages used in the classroom or were references made by the teachers or the students to other languages?
6. *Events:* particular occasions

7. *Time*: the sequence of events

8. *Goals*: what the actors were attempting to accomplish

9. *Feelings*: emotions in particular contexts, both from the actors but also my own feelings during the observations

In some cases, I took photographs of different artefacts, such as pages in school books, or other artefacts that seemed important for my study to stir my memory. If I photographed anything in the classroom, I had previously asked the teacher for permission and no pictures were taken during class. I did not take any photographs of any teacher or student to ensure their anonymity.

4.3.2 Questionnaire

As mentioned above, different methods are better suited to different circumstances and therefore I opted for a questionnaire using a quantitative approach for collecting key data of the teachers' biography and formation. A one A4-page questionnaire[8] was developed, with questions regarding issues relevant to the study, such as the teacher's education level and year of completing their training in education, their own language knowledge, extended time spent abroad, previous experience with multilingual children, and any relevant training. This was a fast way to collect key data on the teacher's background, which is important for contextualizing, and it also offered subject matter for the conversation. The questionnaire was first developed in German before the pilot study (see Section 4.4) and tested during it. After the pilot study, minor changes were made. Following this, it was used with the German teachers in Germany.

For the empirical part in Sweden, I translated the questionnaire into Swedish, with some minor changes, which arose after having used it in Germany and after having discussed it with my Swedish supervisor. In Chile, the questionnaire in German was used.

4.3.3 Interviews

The interview is one of the most used resources in the qualitative research (Hopf, 2009b) and qualitative interviewing offers a great variety of approaches, even if most qualitative interviews types are close to each other. The decision of including interviews in the study was colored by suitability, based on the research questions as well as the

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[8] Refer to Appendix C (German) and Appendix D (Swedish) for the questionnaire.

claim by Kvale and Brinkman (2009), that "the qualitative interview has a unique potential for obtaining access to and describing the lived everyday world"[9] (p. 29). Further, the choice of one interview form is always attached to the research tradition and the knowledge interests, and influences the design and the methodological approach. The eventual risks and problems need to be critically reflected upon. Therefore, the different types of interviews were examined and finally, a semi-structured interview[10] (Bryman, 2012, pp. 471–479) with aspects of a focused interview was chosen as the interview type, since this was seen as a suitable method for gaining an insight into the teachers' world; their beliefs on the topic and the implementation in the classroom.

Open interviews are dominant in German-speaking areas (Flick, 2014), now attracting more interest also in Anglophone areas. In particular, semi-structured interviews have become widely used in social science (Hopf, 2009b). This type of interview means that the researcher has an interview guide: a preset list of questions or fairly specific topics that are to be covered (Bryman, 2012; Hopf, 2009b). The interview guide offers a frame to ensure the possibility of interviews and statements of the interviewees. Open questions (questions with no implicit answer, like "yes"/"no", "I like it/I don't like it") were used in this study, offering the interviewee a great deal of leeway in the answers. The structure described also enables the researcher to follow a certain structure, without restricting the interviewees' viewpoint to a higher degree. The interviewer has the possibility to make ad hoc questions, meaning that they can react to the interviewee's answers. Hopf (1978) warns against applying the interview guide too bureaucratically, since that could restrict the benefits of openness. The questions should not simply be 'ticked off' one after another and this was considered as well in this study.

The field part
Before the interviews were started, I asked for permission to record them, and also explained the reasons for recording, this being a memory-aid. The interviewees were also informed that their names would be anonymized. Information about the purpose of the study was given.

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9   The authors refer to the German term *Lebenswelt*, mentioned in Chapter 3.

10 Flick refers to "semi-standardized" interview in English, in German some would refer to the term *Leitfadeninterview* etc.

In the present study, an interview guide[11] containing four major topic areas was applied. The interviews started with unstructured, general questions, and then an increased structure was introduced, in order to prevent the interviewer's frame of reference being imposed on the interviewee's viewpoints. Drawing on the research questions (see Section 1.1), the interviews were directed toward questions and topics concerning teaching reading in multilingual settings. The teachers were also encouraged to give their personal perceptions and considerations of issues regarding multilingualism.

The initial topic area, asking questions about the teachers' *own experience regarding multilingualism* (see Section 2.2 for a discussion on concepts regarding linguistic diversity as well as Section 3.3 on professional competence), was used as an entrance to the interview and the interviewee. The second topic area went more specifically into *beliefs regarding multilingualism* (see Section 3.1 for a discussion on beliefs in multilingual settings). The third topic area dealt with the *school set-up regarding multilingualism* and the closing fourth topic area dealt with *reading and multilingualism* (see Section 2.4 for a discussion on the three countries' education systems and the role of multilingualism and reading; and Section 3.2 for implementation approaches in multilingual settings). Even if the topic areas were not treated in the same sequence in all the interviews, in the analysis part they are mentioned in the same sequence as in the interview guide, in order to structure the data and facilitate the analysis as well as the comparison.

At the beginning of each interview, the aforementioned questionnaires were filled in, including key data of the teachers' biography and formation, like age and studies, and questions about the teachers' own experience with other languages (longer stays abroad, studies) and if they had any specific training related to reading, multilingualism or second language acquisition.

The interviews lasted from approximately thirty minutes up to one hour and ten minutes depending on the schedule and workload of the respective teacher (see Tab. 7). The briefness of the interview in Chile was due to the teacher's schedule, which did not allow for a longer interview.

The place for the interviews was the classrooms or an adjoining room at the same school. The decision for the interview location was taken due to practical reasons, it was the least time-consuming choice, and had practical advantages such as that the teacher

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[11] Refer to Appendix A (German) and Appendix B (Swedish) for the interview guide.

had the possibility to fetch material if they had spoken about something special. There were disadvantages too, since we were sometimes interrupted by other teachers or students, wanting to ask something or fetch something.

Classroom, teacher	Duration recording
DE1 (pilot study) Frau Schmidt	43 minutes
DE2 Frau Vogel	52 minutes
DE3 Frau Mayer	55 minutes
SV1 Lotta	First occasion: 54 minutes Second occasion: 16 minutes
SV2 Malin	61 minutes
CL1 Frau Maria	30 minutes

Tab. 7: Duration of the interview recordings

The interviews were conducted in German in Germany and Chile and in Swedish in Sweden.[12] Before the interviews I had some concerns, that my role as an interviewer would be questioned, since I did not have German as a mother tongue. This did not occur, though, on the other hand, my multilingual skills were praised by the German teachers. The Swedish teachers only had contact with me in Swedish and did not experience my multilingual facet in the same way.

During the interview, it was refrained as far as possible from making early evaluations and a non-judgmental position was sought. I intended to perform a non-directive style of conversation. To increase specificity, retrospective inspection was used: supporting the interviews by recalling a responding question ("If you think of moment X during class, how was it there?").

Step by step during the interview new topics were introduced or changes initiated to cover the topical range contained in the interview guide. Not all of the questions were included in all the interviews, but all topical ranges were covered. Here Flick (2014) refers to Merton and Kendall who see the danger of "confusing range with superficiality"

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[12] For an overview of participants, refer to Section 4.2.2.

when realizing the criterion of covering all topical ranges. Since the topical ranges were limited to four, I make the assessment, that this danger was not prominent in this study, and that the depth was maintained even if covering all four topical ranges. The goal was to have "a maximum of self-revelatory comments concerning how the stimulus material was experienced" (Flick, 2014). However, every interview situation is a new one and the conduct depends essentially on the interviewer´s situational competence. My competence in this area increased with the practical experience, also contributing to differences between the interviews. The statements from the interviewees were routed by their own previous experience and personality. In some cases, it was very clear, that the statements were seeking "social desirability bias" (for example in statements such as "*Mehrsprachigkeit ist eine Bereicherung*" – multilingualism is an enrichment), and in most cases, the statements then quickly ended there. To questions regarding multilingualism it has to be added that the interviewees knew that the interviewer was multilingual herself.

A digital recorder was used to record the interviews. This was placed between the interviewee and interviewer during the interviews. The recordings were later transcribed.[13]

After the interviews, an interview protocol was filled out with technicalities regarding the interview: date, length and place of the interview, things that had caught my attention and the atmosphere: how did my presence seem to affect the teacher? Further thoughts were written down in the field notes[14] as a memory-aid.

4.3.4 Field notes

Because of the frailties of the human memory (Bryman, 2012) which may make us forget things, researchers are recommended to take field notes based on their observations. However, arguments for and against taking notes during the observations need to be considered. Taking field notes may distract the interviewer's ability to observe, especially too detailed ones. It also has to be considered that already here a selection process is taking place, based on the researcher's selective perceptions (Flick, 2014). The selectivity does not only concern if we choose to write down one aspect and not another one, but also how we write down things.

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[13] See Section 4.5 and Section 4.7.3.

[14] See Section 4.3.4.

Having these arguments in mind, I chose to take field notes concerning the school visits, since I considered taking notes an important *aide-mémoire*. The note taking was conducted according to the following principles:

- Before visiting a school, I wrote down initial reflections. How were my thoughts regarding the school, what were my feelings and expectations?
- During the observations and interviews, I wrote down brief notes *(jotted notes)* ((Bryman, 2012) on how the surroundings seemed to me and what was happening, in the surroundings and within me. This type of notes was chosen, since they can be jotted down inconspicuously, preferably out of sight. Detailed note taking in front of people may make them self-conscious (Bryman, 2012) and especially younger students can be very curious on what a 'new' adult in the classroom is doing. I therefore used a paper note pad and a pen, since a computer or tablet would have attracted even more attention. Taking more detailed notes would also have been too distracting and I might have missed more of the activities occurring around me. Conversations and events especially concerning the research questions, such as interaction between students and teacher, were written down.[15] I tried not to evaluate the aspects that I wrote down.
- Directly after a visit, I tried to find an isolated place (in the school or in the surroundings) to be able to sit down again to complement my notes. This immediate reflection was an important part of my continuous analysis. A perspective that builds both on a direct observation as well as a more distanced perspective after some time has passed, gives important material for an analysis.

The field notes were subsequently copied out into a digital format. I consulted them later in the process for remembering the events during the visits, and the sensations and thoughts that I had had.

4.3.5 Research diary

Since the very beginning of the research and during the entire research process, I kept a research diary, where reflections on practical as well as on theoretical issues took place on a regular basis. I used it to keep a record of what I did at different stages as an aide-mémoire. There I recorded my own reactions on different topics, questions that

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[15] For more information on the focus during the observations, see Section 4.3.1.

I had and conclusions that I came to. I also wrote down practical things like, "Found the contribution of X – have to read it!" and later on, what I had drawn from that contribution. Information about conferences I went to, conversations with people on my topic as well as impressions and feelings were also part of the diary.

I often went back to my previous notes to read about my thoughts at a special moment and then reflected upon if there were any changes. I sensed a major development in my way of thinking from the start of the process and the end. In the beginning the reflections mostly took place on a practical level, "how am I going to do this?" and became more theoretical at the end of the process, drawing conclusions on what I had experienced.

4.4   Pilot study

Bryman (2012) states that it is desirable, if possible, to conduct a pilot study before the main data collection of a study, in order to be able to assess the research procedure, the research questions and the research tools (such as the interview guide). The purposes of such a pilot study are multiple. It provides the researcher with experience in using the research tools, in this case the classroom observations and the interviews, including a questionnaire. If interviews are planned for, a pilot study can also identify if questions are not understood, if they make respondents feel uncomfortable, or how they flow in general. Practical issues, such as how to handle the recordings can also be tested.

For these reasons, a small-scale pilot study was conducted prior to the main study. The principal aim was to test the feasibility of the main study and refine the design quality and efficiency. The pilot study therefore was set in the same context and with the same procedures as planned for the main study.

The decision not to use this part of the study for the analysis was decided on initial to my visits and the participant teacher was aware of the reason for my visits and the interview. The decision was taken because the school was not placed in a locality which met the selection criteria and I knew the teacher personally, so my presence was made possible due to personal connections. The purpose for the pilot study was to test the research design, not to add data to the study.

During the pilot study, classroom observations were conducted over two sessions, followed by an interview with the teacher. The context was the same as for the planned main study, in a grade 4 German class in a school in BW in Winter 2015 (classroom DE1). The classroom observations were conducted as described following in Section 4.3.1. Field notes were taken during the observations. After the classroom observations, an interview was conducted with the teacher,[16] using an interview guide. Afterwards, the interview was transcribed as described below in Section 4.5.

Regarding the methodological aspects, the pilot study revealed the need for modification of some aspects of the interview guide. The teacher was also asked how she had experienced the interview and the questions and some more minor changes were made. I highly valued the experience of being able to observe how the students managed my presence in the classroom and how they reacted, which prepared me for the future part of the study. It also provided me with a useful opportunity to gain some insight into the teaching and learning processes in this context and also to test the collection instruments.

4.5   Transcription

When working with audio recordings, the data has to be transcribed. Over recent years, the importance of the chosen methods for the transcriptions has increased (Schreier, 2006) and the awareness of the influence on the transcriptions for the analysis has become more noticeable (Knoblauch, 2010). Producing a transcript of a spoken conversation is a difficult tightrope walk. On the one hand, the researcher needs to represent the spoken statements in as much detail as possible, but on the other hand, too many details can make the transcript difficult to read and understand. Therefore, several decisions have to be taken before starting with the transcription.

First of all, it has to be decided on whether the entire material should be transcribed or not. Since the material in this study was of reasonable size, I chose to transcribe all the interviews, in full. This enabled an overview of the entire material, no material was dismissed at an early stage, which might have been of importance later. During the transcription phase, significant aspects were written down in the research diary. These were

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[16]   See Section 4.3.3.

read again during the analysis process. Each transcription was made in the recorded language.

Another significant decision was on which level the transcription should be conducted, how complex should it be? Through the transcription itself the first distortion of the oral statements appear and a subjective interpretation is done (Schreier, 2006). Since the focus of this research was not on a linguistic level, I chose to present a simple, literal transcript. The aim was to achieve a readable, accurate transcript.

Dialect language has been approximated to standard language, in order to avoid easy identification of the person's origin. The transcribed text was anonymized, removing names e.g. of people, institutions and cities. It is important though to remember, that a transcript will never be able to fully represent an interview situation, since the context is missing. Even if a few non-verbal elements (paralinguistic features), such as if the person is sighing or laughing, are included, most of them, such as facial expressions and gestures, are not visible.

I transcribed the material shortly after each of the interviews, in order to have the situations better in mind. It was time-consuming, but the advantage of knowing the interview situation and the interviewees meant I had a good knowledge of the entire material.

After the first round of transcription, they were left aside for a short period of time. I later listened to the interviews again, since the first versions usually contain mistakes. Omitted, replaced or added words are the most problematic things in a transcription according to Dresing (2015). I discovered traces of this in the second round; in the first transcription round I had replaced many words with similar words, both in German and Swedish. The word *före* (Swedish for "before") I had transcribed *innan* (also Swedish for "before"). Especially the German interviews I had to listen to several times, not always understanding what was said the first time.

The transcription conventions used were adopted from a German standard by Dresing et al. (2015) with some modifications (see Tab. 8).

1.	It was transcribed literally; not summarized or transcribed phonetically. Dialects were translated into standard language. If no suitable translation for a word or expression was found, the dialect was retained.
2.	Informal contractions were transcribed, and not approximated to written standard language. e.g. "gonna" would be left in the transcript.[17] Sentence structure was retained when possible, despite possible syntactic errors.
3.	Discontinuations of words or sentences as well as stutters were omitted; word doublings were only transcribed if they were used for emphasis ("This is very, very important to me.") Half sentences were recorded and indicated by a slash /.
4.	Punctuation was smoothed in favor of legibility. Thus, short drops of voice or ambiguous intonations were preferably indicated by periods rather than commas. Units of meaning had to remain intact.
5.	Pauses were indicated by suspension marks in parentheses (.) marking shorter pauses and (…) longer pauses.
6.	Affirmative utterances by the interviewer, like "uh-huh, yes, right" etc. were not transcribed. EXCEPTION: monosyllabic answers were always transcribed. An interpretation was added, e.g. "Mhm (affirmative)" or "Mhm (negative)".
7.	Words with a special emphasis were <u>underlined</u>.
8.	Every contribution by a speaker received its own paragraph. In between speakers there was a blank line. Short interjections also got their own paragraph. At a minimum, time stamps were inserted at the end of a paragraph.
9.	Emotional non-verbal utterances of all parties involved that support or elucidate statements (laughter, sighs) were transcribed in brackets.
10.	Incomprehensible words were indicated as follows (inc.): for unintelligible passages the reason was indicated: (inc., mobile phone ringing). If a certain word was assumed but neither I nor the second person reading and listening to the transcript were sure, the word was put in brackets with a question mark, e.g. (Xylomentazoline?).
11.	The interviewer was marked by "I" (interviewer), the interviewed person by "B:" (for German *befragte Person* - interviewee).
12.	The transcript was saved in Word (.doc file). The file was named according to the audio file name. E.g. Interview_SV2.doc

Tab. 8: Applied transcription conventions[18]

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[17] Since no English was spoken during the interviews, a fictive example is used.

[18] Drawing on Dresing et al (2015).

The transcribed interviews in German[19] were then proofread by a German native student teacher and the material in Swedish by a Swedish native speech and language therapist according to the "two man rule" (Dresing *et al.*, 2015), tracking down possible mistakes in the transcription.

In sum, the process of transcription was replete with decision-making at every step. I was challenged in many ways and had to stay highly attuned to what was being said, how it was conveyed, and how perceptions change as the process unfolds.

4.6   Data analysis method

For this study, data from five case studies (see Chapter 5) were collected and further analyzed in the manner described below.

4.6.1 Qualitative content analysis

The method used for the analysis has been the aforementioned German approach to QCA, *Qualitative Inhaltsanalyse*. Because of the study's international set-up and the different approaches in different research settings, detailed background information will be given on this analysis method. QCA is described as a method for systematically describing the meaning of qualitative data (Schreier, 2012; Mayring, 2000; Kuckartz, 2014b). The analysis "is done by assigning successive parts of the material to the categories of a coding frame" (Schreier, 2014). The method is characterized by three features: it reduces data, it is systematic and it is flexible (Schreier, 2012).

The history of content analysis is long, dating back to the 18th century in Scandinavia (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). It was nevertheless in the United States, at the beginning of the 20th century, when it was first used as an analytic technique. The QCA developed out of the quantitative version of the method, in a context of a broadening media landscape. The first leading textbook was published by Berelson in 1952, but here the focus was still quantitative. Berelson defines the method as "a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of communication" (Berelson, 1952).

The development of content analysis continued in Europe, in Germany especially in a qualitative approach. A major proponent of the method in Germany is Mayring (Mayring,

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2000, 2010), who has developed several distinct versions, notably summarizing and structural QCA.

In English-speaking countries, especially in the UK and the United States, the situation as well as the development of the method has been different. There, there were the first attempts at establishing a qualitative version of the method, and finally embracing it. This has led to a different conception of "content analysis", resulting in different methods in the English-speaking countries than in Germany. Mostly, English-speaking qualitative researchers do not mention QCA at all (Gibbs, 2007; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Silverman, 2010) or if they do, it is a quantitative version. Yet some other authors (Boyatzis, 1998; Saldaña, 2009) describe what is essentially QCA, but call it by another name, e.g. "thematic coding" (Boyatzis, 1998). In the Anglo-American literature, only recently has QCA been described as a distinct method (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). In Sweden, in recent years, the German approach to QCA has started to establish itself, notably in health care research (Graneheim and Lundman, 2004).

The rather theory-based and quantitative-oriented version by Mayring has been further developed in Germany, mainly by Kuckartz (2014a) and Schreier (2012), giving space for flexible adaptions of the method. QCA stands in a position in between qualitative and quantitative research, showing a broad continuum, even though today the classical dichotomy of the two approaches is more of a polarity with floating transitions (Schreier, 2006). The quantitative versions highlight the manifest meaning of text and the categories are often formed in a concept-driven way whereas the qualitative versions highlight the latent meaning to a higher degree and the categories are mostly formed in a data-driven way.[20]

4.6.2 Three analysis procedures

In this study, mainly the previously mentioned approaches of Schreier and Kuckartz have been applied, and divided in three main analysis procedures, which will be described below. During all three, coding is used to assign the material into different categories. Schreier (2012) states that it is "probably *the* [italics in original] most widely known and popular method of qualitative data analysis" (p. 37), but that it is at the same time highly elusive. There are many different proceedings but the core of many different

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[20] Please note that the terms concept-driven and data-driven are used analogue to the terms deductive and inductive respectively.

coding approaches is nevertheless the same, where segmentation, dividing the material into units, is an important part. The coding units are then later the parts that can be interpreted in a meaningful way. Their size depends on the material and can vary, from an entire book to a single word.

First analysis procedure (1st AP)

The core ideas and steps of the 1st AP (see Section 5) predominantly followed the proposes by Schreier (2012) and Kuckartz (2014b). Different authors use different terms to describe these approaches: Mayring (2010) refers to them as structural, Schreier (2012) as subsumption, Kuckartz (2014b) as thematic qualitative text analysis (*inhaltstrukturierende*), and Hsie and Shannon (2005) as conventional. In the 1st AP, the implementation preconditions and factors in the multilayered contexts in the three countries (see Chapter 2) illustrated in the empirical data (observations and interviews) were structured categorically (see Section 5 for the 1st AP). Two main categories were built, deductively drawing on the research questions in combination with one main category created inductively, drawing on the key data of the teachers' biography and formation. The subcategories were created inductively, drawing on the empirical data.

Second analysis procedure (2nd AP)

This was followed by a 2nd AP with evaluative codings (see Section 6) created inductively, drawing on the mentioned empirical data as well. The core ideas and steps of the 2nd AP mainly follow the evaluative coding approach by Kuckartz (2014b) (evaluative qualitative text analysis/*evaluative qualitative Inhaltsanalyse*), narrowing the focus towards the topics in the research questions (see Section 6 for the second analysis procedure).

Third analysis procedure (3rd AP)

Finally, drawing on the first two analysis procedures, a third, final one (see Section 7) took place. This procedure mainly followed the *"Typenbildung"* analysis approach by Kuckartz (2014b), by 1) identifying similar cases and 2) reconstructing groups of the strategy types when teaching reading in multilingual settings. This reconstructive research approach (Kruse, 2015) enables an overview of the types of strategies. This transfers the grasped know-how of the teachers' inside perspectives and beliefs, from an implicit into an explicit form, thus gaining deeper understanding of teachers' beliefs and implementation strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings

The type construction has a central position in empirical social research. Already in the 19th century, the concept of types played an important role in research, formed by the 'ideal type' (*Idealtypus*) through Max Weber (Kluge, 2000a). Construction of types can be seen as an attempt to comprehend, understand and explain social realities as far as possible, bringing order to data (Kluge, 2000a). Individual teacher types in diverse settings have been constructed and presented previously in research (e.g. Edelmann, 2006). Since the 1980s type construction has experienced a renaissance in sociology and qualitative social research, even though there are only a few approaches in which the construction is explicated and systematized in detail (e.g. Kelle and Kluge, 2010; Kuckartz, 2014b).

Hermeneutic processes

It is vital to understand the analysis procedures as hermeneutic processes, where a text can only be interpreted as the sum of its parts. Further it should not be forgotten that a text is approached with preconceived notions and assumptions (Kuckartz, 2014b, p. 19). Working with the text will alter these notions and assumptions, and the researcher will gain another understanding of the text and that will probably change some of their original ideas. That is, the researcher develops a progressive understanding and this process can be illustrated as a spiral.[21] During the procedure, the researcher never circles back to the beginning. It is also very possible that understanding of the text will alter with continual reading and working with it, giving an alternative interpretation.

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[21] For this reason, the procedures are illustrated in a spiral form, drawing on Kuckartz (2014a), see Fig. 11.
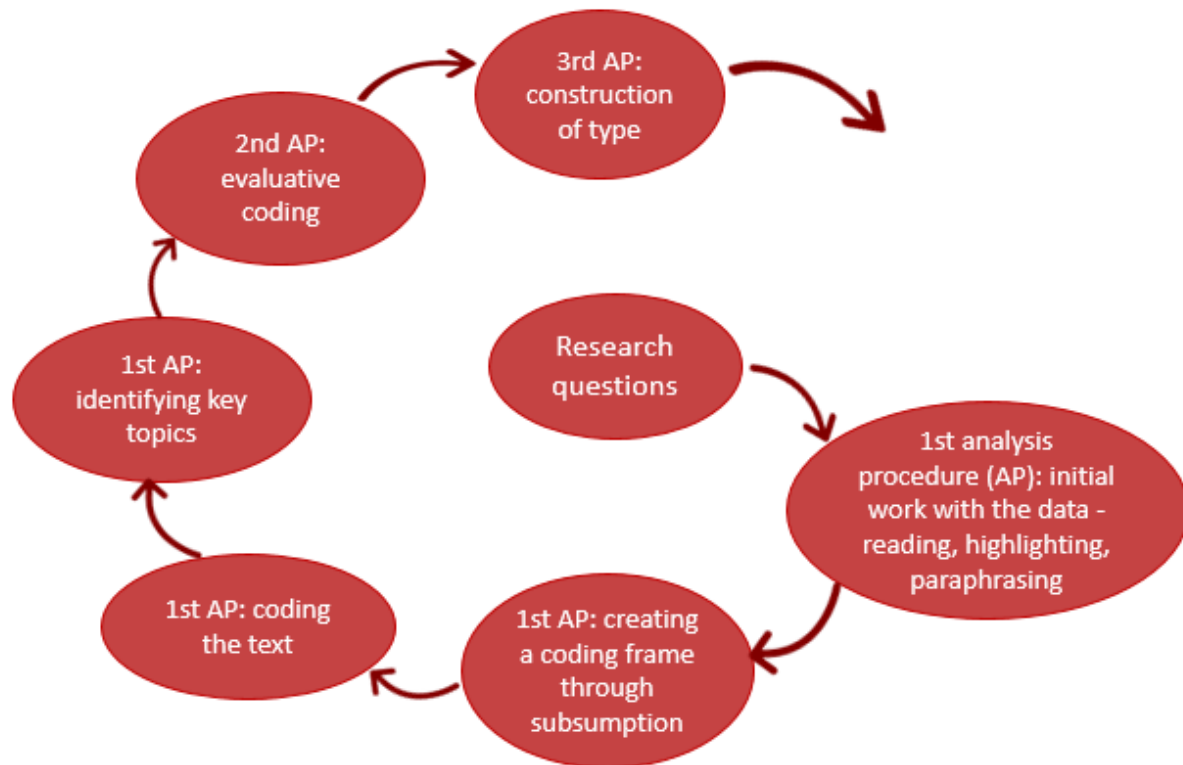
Fig. 11: Analysis method and process: overview of the three analysis procedures (AP)

During the entire study, this hermeneutic process was prominent. My work with the material changed my notions and assumptions, enabling a continuous development regarding the understanding of findings from the research questions.

Moreover, the contexts of a study have to be considered as well (see Chapter 2). They were found to be multilayered and thus bundled in an interpretation frame containing three main levels: macro, meso and micro, described in Section 2.5. They were also considered during the three analysis procedures. Those procedures are described in detail in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

4.7 Methodological considerations

During each study, choices regarding methods have to be taken, which lead to different consequences, sometimes targeted, sometimes unexpected. These methodological considerations will be discussed below.

4.7.1 Challenges for international comparative research

Research has experienced an exponential growth thanks to the ever-advancing spread of technology (Bray *et al.*, 2014). This study would not have been possible only ten years ago. Searching for participating schools in different countries would have been even more difficult without the fast communication enabled by today's ICT. The literature research for this study was also enabled by the internet: e-books increased immensely the accessible reads. The possibility to read e.g. school curricula whenever necessary, online, and in the case of Sweden even translated into English, was not there just a decade ago.

The digital technology of today enables easy access to literature from all over the world, as already mentioned. Nevertheless, it is impossible for one single person to handle all the accessible material (Crossley and Watson, 2003). The literature of the researcher's own country, gets more attention, and so it was also in this study. The Swedish material was often easily accessible online, and also more easily understood (for me), since Swedish has been the foundation of my language knowledge for so many years. The Swedish material did not entirely fit with the German conditions though, and often the conceptual issues were differently arranged. For understanding the German conditions, knowing German and reading German literature therefore was indispensable. Furthermore, literature in English also plays an important role in the international comparative research and was consulted as well.

As initially stated, this thesis has an international as well as a comparative approach. Such an approach is intended to uncover what often is taken for granted in one's own school culture. This enables critical thinking about one's own educational practice and assessment culture (Bray *et al.*, 2014). It furthermore challenges one to think broadly about the link between local practices and global issues. Researching in three countries means penetrating deeply into three different systems and this was a challenge, including a significant amount of work and time.

In several research areas, there is a visible increasing Anglo-American domination (Hsiung, 2012; Alasuutari, 2005), but there will always be a certain local hegemonic discourse and cultural theoretical legacies as well as different research paradigms. My study is about challenging these discourses as well as trying to "bury some disciplinary ditches" (Lengyel, 2017, p. 170) aiming for an interdisciplinary approach.

4.7.2 Challenges for this study

The fact that researchers conducting observations in qualitative research are themselves subjective instruments of perception makes qualitative research at the same time so interesting and problematic (Lamnek and Krell, 2010). The researcher should get to know the observed field from the inside and in order to access the field, identification will be an important element. The researcher should attempt to lose the external perspective and to share the viewpoint in the field, in an attempt of "going native" (Flick, 2014). In interview situations, interviewers should furthermore be empathetic and that feature can be source of a wide range of problems (Hermanns, 2009). Often, the researcher has an intuitive idea of what could be sensitive for the interviewee and he or she may try to avoid these questions. Such a protective behavior will however limit the insight into the life-world of the interviewee.

On the other hand, distance to the observed object is vital, being part of the observation and validity. The researcher has to seek to obtain knowledge about the everyday aspects in the observed, but at the same time maintain the distance of the "professional stranger" (Flick, 2014). This area of tension between identification and distance constitutes a paradox for the observer, which requires several methodological considerations, therefore this section is needed.

This tension is something I myself experienced. As the study advanced, I experienced a growing identification with the teachers. Sometimes I felt incapable of asking questions that I myself experienced as unpleasant, and this feeling grew stronger during the project. I also became afraid of exerting too much pressure and in this way exploiting the teachers' and schools' given trust in me. Retaining an 'independent' interest, whatever the interviewee said (Hermanns, 2009), was thus increasingly difficult.

Furthermore, I experienced that especially the German speaking teachers were inhibited by my presence as a multilingual person. They sought for answers with a high level of "social desirability bias" (Stocké, 2004) with cliché inspired answers (e.g. "*Mehrsprachigkeit ist eine Bereicherung*" – multilingualism is an enrichment), especially when the recorder was turned on. But then again, the presence of a recorder normally inhibits many people.

It is important to remember that there are many factors influencing the answers of the interviewees, many more than just the question itself (Stocké, 2004). The German

speaking teachers seemed more inhibited than the Swedish speaking teachers, who seemed more untroubled, also addressing problems in a more direct way. The fact that we spoke in Swedish, both parts being Swedes, might have influenced this. They probably didn't perceive me as a multilingual person in the same way as the German speaking teachers.

The three languages used in the study were also a challenge and this will be looked at more closely in the following section. What occurs if research is conducted in a language that is not the researcher's L1 and also includes multiple other languages?

4.7.3 Challenges in qualitative transnational and multiple language research processes

Dealing with the transnational complexity of the research settings represented a major part of the research process. The presence of multiple languages in this qualitative research process was one major challenge through the entire study. German and Swedish were used during observations and interviews; English for the literature and writing; and Spanish in the Chilean context. Considering the complexity of moving across languages, it is of utter importance to discuss how the research was conducted, as well as issues concerning validity. This complexity is, however, neither frequently debated nor normally mentioned in text books on methodology. On the contrary, it is viewed as a rather unremarkable aspect of the research process or works (Temple and Young, 2004), even though there has been a move towards reflection in fieldwork in the last decade (Martin-Jones and Martin, 2016). I question the invisibility of this topic, given the importance that language has in research, and call for major inclusion in the research process of this issue to further our understanding of some of the dynamics involved. Language is a key constitutive part of research, since most research takes place through language: interviews, observations, text data, all of which are communicated through language. Pictures and illustrations can also be seen as language.

Multiple roles of languages in the research process can be identified, adding a reflection dimension, especially regarding translation (Enzenhofer and Resch, 2013), but also in other aspects. Cultural and ideological contexts behind languages cannot be ignored either. Hoping for a future major emphasis on this issue, the research process in this study including multiple languages will thus be described in detail below, providing an

insight into the challenges encountered in the methodological as well as the analytical processes.

Methodological aspects

In research processes including multiple languages, methodological aspects regarding those languages and their role in the research should be monitored. These methodological challenges have gained attention in recent decades (Squires, 2009), even though a structured framework is still missing. Two main methodological aspects regarding the handling of the languages could be identified during the research process of this study:

1) language challenges deriving from *language skills* on different levels, both concerning the researcher and other participants; how communication should take place; and

2) in the *interpretation context*: how data should be handled (should it be translated or not and if - when?) and thus analyzed and finally communicated to people outside of the research project.

1. Challenges through language skills

Regarding the first aspect, conducting interviews and observations in another language than the mother tongue was part of the challenge (Kruse *et al.*, 2012). One crucial precondition in order to be able to conduct empirical research, especially in schools, is to understand the language. Phillips and Schweisfurth (2011) emphasize that for qualitative studies the comparative and international researcher needs to master the language in the given country as well as be familiar with the school contexts that are compared. I have this knowledge of the implied languages (see Section 4.7.6) which enabled this study. Thus, this aspect did not constitute a major challenge for the field work. Instead, the second aspect called for major consideration as I experienced a limitation in the writing process in English, which will be discussed below.

2. Translation in research including multiple languages

Later in the research process, a second challenge arose regarding the practical aspects: the question of whether or not the collected data in the various languages, such as the interviews, should be translated into one language for the analysis; and, if yes, when. Qualitative social research is especially sensitive to the translation problem, since it mainly deals with open questions, giving space for individual ways of expression and communication dynamics (Bohnsack, 2014). In addition, social science often compares

practice and discourse in different languages and cultures (Adick, 2008b, p. 49), and it is important not to overlook the potential problem of an insensibility to specific national and cultural contexts (Bryman, 2012).

The predominant model in the majority of previous research projects involving multiple languages is, however, to ignore issues involving translation. Results are often presented as if researchers and participants were all fluent (Temple and Young, 2004), even though more often the final product after translation can be considered a transmuted text (Halai, 2007). Through translations, many choices need to be considered and in such a process a "cultural filtering" (Thome, 2012, p. 294) is distinguishable. I have thus chosen to address the issue of multiple languages in the research process, since it composes such an important part of the study. My many years of experience in the translation field will probably have given me a greater sensibility to this issue as well.

Moving across languages

In this study, the movements across languages took the following forms: first, I discussed the topic of this project with my supervisor and other academics at the University of Education in Weingarten. In the initial phase, the literature was mostly read in German and Swedish and then later, in English, since it became clearer that the thesis would be in in English. The reason for writing in English was routed by the wish that people in the three countries involved in the study should be able to read about the project. Writing it in German would have excluded the majority of interested readers in Sweden and Chile, as well as some of the participants. Nevertheless I share some of the present fears of many that English is taking over as an academic language (Norrby, 2015; Mittelstrass *et al.*, 2016) and I believe that research should be written in other languages as well. Even so, writing in either only German or Swedish was not a feasible option for the present study. The abstract is, however, given in English, German, Swedish and Spanish, enabling those without English knowledge to gain an insight into the topics investigated.

Language use depended on the other person's life-world languages as well as the situations. Discussions with the German supervisor took part in German, with the Swedish assistant supervisor in Swedish, and communication between the three of us was in German or English. In Chile, it depended on their preferences: German was mainly used with Germans and Spanish with Chileans, but within the context of the German school, German was mainly used, especially with teaching personnel. Peer-debriefing was

done in German, English, Swedish and Spanish with numerous colleagues on several occasions.[22] Having all this in mind, this project has been multilingual in several aspects. However, it has to be indicated, that even if I have a high level of these languages,[23] the fact that German is not my mother tongue might have led to different interpretations than if it had been.

Writing in English was also a major challenge since academic writing, in every language, has its own conventions and is not the same as everyday language. I felt limited in my writing, unable to find the relevant words or not recognizing the nuances of meaning in the words that did occur to me. I spent uncountable hours looking up terminology[24] and sought help among friends and colleagues. Nevertheless, the possibility of being present in all the countries in classroom observations and conducting interviews without any interpreter was of high value for the research and enabled to react rapidly in those situations.

Translation procedure

"Each translation produces ambiguity" (Przyborski and Wohlrab-Sahr, 2014, p. 309), and "[s]uch interpretation processes are time-consuming, at the same time highly interesting: through them one learns not only about the other language, but also about oneself and one's own culture" (ibid. p. 315). To that I would like to add, that one also learns how to experience the external world, one's own language and culture, which are filtered through your previous experiences.

Enzenhofer and Resch (2011) further point to the importance of well-done translations in order to not distort the meaning. Translations are never an easy task, since there is a "a global relationship, unique and unrepeatable for each textual binomial and, of course, for every translation action" (Rabadán, 1991). Adding the cultural aspects in this study increased the difficulties. It has to be kept in mind as well, that translation itself can be considered an interpretative act, which is the taken stance in this study. Already in choosing the words in the other language, an interpretation is done. Why one word

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[22] More information on the peer-debriefing in Section 4.7.4.

[23] See Section 4.7.6.

[24] The major tools were on internet and the following pages were visited almost every day: *LEO* – online dictionary EN/DE (www.leo.org/englisch-deutsch/), *Merriam Webster* – online dictionary EN (www.merriam-webster.com), *NE* online dictionary EN/SV (ne.ord.se) and different websites for synonyms such as www.thesaurus.com. The website *Linguee* (www.linguee.de) proved to be of importance as well, in providing previous translations.

and not the other? The intention of the translations in the present study has been to use an instrumental translation (Wettermann, 2012), trying to adapt the statement to the target language culture. The goal was that it should not be noticeable that it is a translation, by adding equivalences of the text in its intercultural representation. A culture-specific explication was thus added if needed.

In the translation procedure, two main processes can be outlined (Bucholtz, 2000): *interpretative* and *representative*. The interpretative process deals with choices pertaining to content, and includes perceptions of linguistic and paralinguistic cues. The representative (or technical) process deals with choice of form, and refers to the actual symbols with which verbal and non-verbal elements are conveyed. Each process implicates the other, they are not separate units. In this study, the emphasis is put on the interpretative process, since the meaning and beliefs behind the words and linguistic symbols are the significant.

The fact that the researcher and the translator was the same person in this study facilitated the translation, since I had been present during the original statements. I nevertheless became increasingly aware of the problems of conceptual equivalences (Crossley and Watson, 2003, p. 32) during the study. German terms and definitions are generally more specified then English and Swedish ones, which in several cases led to the detailed definitions of different terms. This study has used a wider conceptualization than what might have been used in a 'pure' German study.

A further challenge when translating consists of retaining the characteristics (*Duktus* in German) and conceptual meaning, of the statement, as already mentioned, since translated words often do not translate exactly and rarely have the same nuances. In the case that the translation differed from the word meaning in the original language, this has been clarified.

Another significant issue for translation is that not only a formal language competence is important, but also a life-world experience (Przyborski and Wohlrab-Sahr, 2014). Dialectal coloring, connotations, insinuations are further important factors in language communication. As an example from this study, the Swedish word *flerspråkig* can be mentioned. It means 'multilingual' in general Swedish, but for a Swedish teacher, it will mostly indicate a newly-arrived student, who does not yet speak Swedish.

One more practical challenge was also present, regarding literature references as well as quotations from the material: which language would be used? Including only the original language was not an option if it was Swedish or Spanish, due to the fact that I was writing in English, but how should I refer to the original text, only including the translation or both the original statement and the translation? Here I finally opted for two approaches. For literature references, due to space issues I have chosen to give only the translation. For the quotations from the material, I have chosen to use the translations in the text and give the translation in the appendix. This decision was taken due to the fact that the quotations can be longer and the number of quotations is high in the findings chapter; an inclusion of the translations in the footnotes here would have impeded fluent reading.

The material was maintained in the original language until the final analysis. First, after clarifying which statements were to be included in the study, the translation of those into English took place, even though some of the Swedish parts were translated earlier into German and English for the working in research groups (see Section 4.7.4). Translating the entire material into all those three languages would have been too time-consuming and not added any extra value to the research process, since I was the only researcher present during the entire project and I had the language knowledge of the involved languages.

As previously mentioned, after having translated the selected parts of the material, I left the translations for a period of time and later returned to them in order to review them with fresh eyes. In the final phase of the writing, the translations were reviewed by others. The whole process was time-consuming, but reflects the multilingual setting of the study and was an essential feature.

To conclude, it has to be stated that the presence of multiple languages stimulated a deeper reflection on the data. Several considerations were monitored, especially in methodological aspects, such as how the presence of languages should be dealt with, but also in analytical aspects, such as the validity of translated data. Considering the growing globalization of research, the importance of such reflections cannot be denied and should be given major emphasis in research processes including multiple languages.

4.7.4 Quality criteria

The question on how the quality of qualitative research can be determined is frequently asked and debated. How can subjective perceptions, everyday knowledge and matters or similar objects in qualitative research be assessed reliably? What criteria should it satisfy? There is a heterogeneous literature on this topic, depending on the research field and paradigm, giving a number of different stances taken by qualitative researchers in relation to this issue. Steinke (2004) identifies three different positions for the evaluation of qualitative research:

1. Quantitative criteria for qualitative research
2. Independent criteria of qualitative research
3. Postmodern rejection of criteria

In the first position, which is closely linked to the QCA of Mayring (see Section 4.6.1), Steinke (ibid.) states that it is characteristic for criteria from quantitative research to be transferred to qualitative research. Main criteria, such as reliability, validity and (even though less) objectivity, are adapted and operationalized. For example, "inter-coder reliability" (Mayring, 2010), suggests that codes should be coded by several people or at least on several occasions. Such a 're-test' should preferably be conducted by others, as well as the researcher (to make a 'comparison over time' as suggested by Schreier, 2012). The analysis process is then performed a second time and checked whether it leads to the same results. Even if this was not a main part of the used quality criteria for this study, such a re-test was conducted (by myself) as well to readjust coding (for more information, see Section 5.5), but no major statistical value is given to this issue, since in my opinion, the changing context is vital for the coding. I myself noticed that my own perception of the data changed during the research process.

In the second position, Steinke (2004) identifies adherents with fundamental doubts about the transferability of quantitative criteria to qualitative research. As a starting point when forming appropriate criteria, these adherents take the particular theoretical, methodological and procedural character of qualitative research. They discuss aspects like communicative validation, triangulation, validation of the interview-situation and authenticity. This is intended to compensate for any one-sidedness or distortion, which may result from individual methods or researchers, as well as aiming to create the lowest power distance in research relationship. Within this position, there have been various

attempts to develop alternative criteria, such as those suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985): trustworthiness, credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability. Today, the most used criteria within qualitative research (with differences within different disciplines and research paradigms) nevertheless continue to be validity and reliability, where "validity typically receives more attention than reliability" (Flick, 2014).

In the third position that Steinke (2004) highlights, postmodern rejection, she identifies adherents who generally argue against the possibility of formulating criteria for qualitative research. For example, Richardson (2011) postulates that it is impossible to relate criteria to a fixed referential system. Furthermore, Denzin (1990) states that the division between the observer and the observed reality is overcome by the researchers writing in the first person singular, and questions about reliability and validity are not necessary.

Steinke's criteria have been criticized (Lüders, 2010) for not being comprehensive enough, even if they come within a framework for guidance for implementation and "derive from a special understanding of qualitative research" (oriented towards grounded theory) (ibid, p. 81).

My own stance is colored by the two last positions that Steinke highlights. From my perspective, research should be comprehensible for other people and it should be intended to compensate for one-sideness. One main aim of quality research in social science is to produce descriptions of a social world. Such descriptions facilitate in-depth insights in another way than most quantitative research. All descriptions are, however, bound to a particular perspective and therefore subjective. It can never be disregarded that the social interaction that takes place in the research may create different stories, depending on the interacting people and the context. The researcher gets to observe different things depending on who they are: for example, a 50-year old researcher might not get the same story told by a teenager, as would a 20-year old person. Further, the researcher's understanding of the observations and issues discussed in interviews is filtered by their previous personal experiences.

Drawing on the second position identified by Steinke, this study was focused on documentation and making the research process intersubjectively comprehensible. This included a detailed documentation and description of the research process, after trying out the research method in a pilot study (see Section 4.4). During the research process, a research diary (see Section 4.3.5) was written for preparation, follow-up and as a

memory aid. The researcher's own reflection has always been present, in field notes, memos during coding, transcription rules, and further documentation.

As an observer in a classroom, it is important for the researcher not to try to assume all possible roles, which is often intended in the beginning. Instead, the ethnographic observer should try to change attention in the classroom. He or she needs practice in making the unknown and invisible (the implicit) known and visible (Kullberg, 2014). In this study, the pilot study in Germany allowed me to practice in the role as observer and interviewer in the European countries. Prior visits in schools in Chile also had made me familiar with the settings in that country.

Data collection and evaluation has a communicative character (Riemann, 2010) and the interpretation of the data can therefore be conducted in a better way as a communicative process. This is something that I noted early in the research process and therefore formal and informal discussions with various people were imperative for the process of reflection and used as a validation strategy (Flick, 2004b). Such discussion supported the entire process, taking place in research groups as well as outside of such groups. The discussions were mainly conducted with other PhD students or academics, but also with other people, in order to overcome my own bias from my previous experiences and knowledge.

In this study, in addition to my own analyses and interpretations, interpretations took place in a research group at the PH Weingarten for the chosen analysis method (*Forschungswerkstatt Qualitative Inhaltsanalyse*) in a peer-debriefing[25] process. In this methodological colloquium, mainly the analysis method and the coding of the data were discussed. The focus was on an exchange on data analysis in different content analysis approaches. Parts of the coding were interpreted in the group and alternative interpretations other than my own were given space, adding a verbal validity to the analysis. The colloquium was visited especially in phases when I was deeply active with coding, primarily during the 1st AP.

Presentations were further given in another research group at the PH Weingarten, attended by masters and PhD students (*Nachwuchskolloquium*). In the two last years of

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[25] Drawing on Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 308): "It [peer-debriefing] is a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling analytical sessions and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind".

the thesis, seminars were given at Stockholm University, which were attended by masters and PhD students and other academics.

The input from the mentioned groups of people proved to be very useful for the analysis procedure, providing external perspectives on things that I might have taken for granted from my own internal perspective. This tweaked the methodology resulting in some changes of the coding of the materials.

Further actions in quality matters were the mixed methods design approach as well as detailed descriptions of the steps taken. This approach in the data collection was part of the validation strategy, applying different perspectives to the research process and the collected data. The sampling strategy used in this study is described in detail, as well as the individual methodical decisions (see Sections 5, 6 and 7).

4.7.5 Ethical aspects

Ethical considerations have to be made in every research approach. The quest for knowledge cannot harm individual privacy, interests or expose the participants to risks. Ethical regulations are comprehensive though, varying depending on disciplinary domain and national context. There is a multitude of laws, directives, guidelines, and ethical codices for research (Flick, 2014), and adding the international context of this study, it is even greater. In this study, particularly the legal and ethical requirements of Germany, the country where I was based, have been considered, especially the codices of the research discipline (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Erziehungswissenschaft, 2010) in question. The Swedish codices of the Swedish Research Council (Vetenskapsrådet, 2015) have been observed as well. In Chile, there were no general codices, so the ethical aspects were instead governed by the respective Chilean universities. Therefore, the German and Swedish ethical requirements were focused upon.

Drawing on those ethical aspects, the following actions were undertaken:

1. The participants were informed about the aim of the study: I would be looking at strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. The schools received both written and oral information prior to my visit. The students' families also received written information of my study before the visits, passed on to them by the teacher. In one case, in the Chilean school, where the research tradition is different and the preparation time before the visit was short, it was not possible to pass on

information to the parents prior to my visit. In that case, only the school and the students were informed of my study. During my visit to the schools, the students were once again informed about the purpose: to observe the teachers, not the students.

2. The participant teachers were informed that the data would be anonymized, eliminating the connection between observations, interviews or questionnaire answers and any individual. Further, the material would be kept confidential (no external people would have access to the data).

3. The schools and the teachers were given my contact details and I offered to pass on information about multilingualism or about the study at a later date, if requested.

The data was treated confidentially during the entire process and codified procedures were used.

4.7.6 Researcher's positionality: transnational and multilingual researcher

The framework of any study is derived not only from theories, contexts and contemporary concerns, the positionality of the researcher is another important aspect (Ravitch and Riggan, 2016). As Crossley and Watson state (2003, p. 36) "We are all conditioned by our upbringings, culture, education, environment, our status in society and our perceptions of how others view us", I experienced how my own background influenced the entire study, starting with the aforementioned search and access to literature. Throughout the project, I was confronted with different challenges, some related to each other, and some related to my personal background. Some of these challenges are a normal part of any study, e.g., the aforementioned difficulties while gaining access (Breidenstein *et al.*, 2013, pp. 50–70), deciding what questions to ask or being between different cultures. However, I experienced that my transnational background left a mark on the study.

Due to my own transnational and multilingual background, it is possible, that my previous experiences with the settings and languages have influenced my perception. In fact, my life-world connection to those settings and languages has been one of the major motivational factors for this research and thus needs further explanation.

Swedish is the language I would call my first language and it was the only one for the first four years of my life. In the fifth year, I participated in a friend's mother tongue classes of English in kindergarten. English has since then followed me throughout my entire life, being an important part of my life, especially during university studies, but also in my later profession as a translator. In contemporary Sweden, English plays a significant role in everyday life through media, such as radio (particularly songs in English) and television (subtitles for programs in other languages). There are a high number of programs offered in English at universities and text books are often in English, even if the subject itself is given in Swedish. In 2008, 87% of all doctoral theses in Sweden were written in English (Norrby, 2015). In addition, transnational student movements are common so many Swedish students go abroad during their university studies.[26]

I started German in grade 7 (at age 13), taking it as a school subject for six years. Later it fell into oblivion for many years, before it was needed again when I moved to Germany in 2002. I have lived in Germany ever since and also obtained German citizenship in 2017.

After a short time with a Spanish-speaking friend during the kindergarten period, I started Spanish in grade 1 of high school (at age 16) in a definitive manner and it was taken as a school subject for three years. The studies consequently continued at university and were amplified through longer stays in Spain and Latin America. During a longer period of time, I worked in the translation business, mainly using English, Spanish and Swedish. First, in a Swedish environment, then in Germany. Today, Spanish is now a part of my everyday life-world through my Spanish husband and our two multilingual children.

My extensive language knowledge has enabled access to the different schools, and deeper access to the different countries. Even though I consider myself to be a fluent multilingual person in these languages, it is highly possible though that during the interviews and the later transcriptions, my understanding of the German statements might have been different than those with German as a L1.

Finally, as aforementioned, writing in English was a further challenge, since I was not that familiar with academic English writing and this was time-consuming as well (see

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[26] And so did I: I spent three years in Spain and completed a three-month practical training in Luxembourg.

above, Section 4.7.3). Also in this case, my perceptions and notions might be another then if English had been my mother tongue.

In conclusion, it has to be stated that the research process including several languages was not easy, even for a transnational and multilingual person as myself. Further, my description of the observed issues draws on the multiple languages in my own life and the perspectives developed from those. However, I have come to believe that as the complexity increases when working from a transnational and multilingual background, so do the challenges and the possibilities. Moreover, it is important to note that without these, this study would not have been feasible.

4.7.7 Limitations

In research, the human factor as well as the context has to be considered. There are many issues that have to be decided on and these have been taken, drawing on the researcher's previous experience. It is also important that possible limitations in a study should be reflected upon during the analysis and interpretation of the research.

There are several limitations with this study, which should be mentioned. First of all, it has to be highlighted that the study has a qualitative approach, which aims at a better understanding of the observed issues. It should not be assumed that a generalization in a quantitative manner was the aim.

Further, the aforementioned challenges with the languages should not be ignored. Bias and specific interpretations due to my previous personal experiences are possible throughout. I do not claim to have a complete picture of the complex issues present in this study. I have observed part of the classroom practice and my observations were limited in time. Due to practical and financial reasons, I did not have the possibility to revisit the teachers in order to enter in a "dialogue(s) with the investigated" (Heinze, 2010, p. 15). Only the teachers in BW would have been easily accessible and accessing only some of the participants would have been contradictory. A communicative valida-tion in the sense of Mayring (2002, p. 147) was also not part of the methodology. In-stead, a comprehensive description of the research process has been focused upon (see Section 4.7.4).

Further, it has to be indicated that the participants took part voluntarily, which may give a bias in the sample, since it has to be assumed, that those with an interest in the

research area participated. As mentioned, the contact with the teachers was through a third person, in all cases except for one, the principal of the school. Here it can be assumed that the principals chose a teacher that would handle the situation well and not one that may have experienced problems in this field previously.

4.8   Concluding remarks on the methodology

This study aims at gaining a deeper understanding of the teachers' beliefs of multilingualism and the implemented strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings, as well as the interaction of those two issues. Having this in mind, this study has applied a mixed methods design approach for the data collection of case studies (see Section 4.1.3), using methodology situated in social science, particularly in the international comparative education field.

All research involves rules and norms. The characteristics of which are that they must be available for scrutiny by other people, giving them the opportunity to verify the results by attempting to reproduce them (depending on the research paradigm), including a description of the applied analysis method, in this case a qualitative content analysis in three analysis procedures. The chosen methodology with participant observation alongside interviews (see Section 4.3) offers "snapshots" (Flick, 2004a) of the beliefs and strategies implemented by the participating teachers in the multilingual settings. The description in this chapter offers an insight into the methodological aspects of this study, dealing with the multilayered contexts presented in Section 2.5.

The methodology part of my research proved to be far from straightforward. The fact that the study was an international comparison, including several languages and cultures, and ranging from aspects, such as movements of people to subtleties as the translation of quotes, added a complexity to the study which would not have been present in the research in a national and monolingual context. Thus, reflection upon these multilingual aspects of recording and writing up plays a prominent role in this study.

The data was co-constructed by interactions between the participants and myself as a researcher, moving across languages and national borders, providing an internal unfolding process inside myself: an opportunity to reflect on my own experiences as a multilingual person and researcher within multilingual contexts. A cross-disciplinary approach was taken, providing space for my past, including perspectives from linguistics,

and challenging research paradigms in order to offer an insight into the issues I observed, based on transnational life-world spheres of today.

In Tab. 9, an overview of this study's material described above is illustrated, indicating participant classrooms, dates of visits, number of participant observations, data collection type and documents supporting the research process.

Class-room	Date	Observation	Field notes	Inter-views	Question-naire	Research diary
DE1	January-February 2015	2 occasions	14 A4-pages	43 minutes	yes	yes
DE2	April-May 2015	2 occasions	17 A4-pages	51 minutes	yes	yes
DE3	June 2015	2 occasions	10 A4-pages	55 minutes	yes	yes
SV1	August 2015	2 occasions	11 A4-pages	70 minutes	yes	yes
SV2	September 2015	2 occasions	11 A4-pages	61 minutes	yes	yes
CL1	November 2015	1 occasion	9 A4-pages	30 minutes	yes	yes

Tab. 9: Material overview

The following chapter will introduce the empirical data in detail as well as initiate the description of the findings from the analysis.

5 First analysis procedure: categorical structuring of the material

This chapter initiates the description of the findings from the analysis process, which was divided in three procedures (see Section 4.6.2). The data analysis and the findings are structured according to the research objectives and questions (see Section 1.1). First, the classroom findings are presented separately in a chronological order, starting with the field experiences in Germany where the first part of the data collection took place. This is followed by the field experience in Sweden where the second part of the data collection took place and finishing with the field experience in Chile, where the last, third part took place.

After the description of the findings, a categorical structuring of the material is introduced in a 1st AP. Further analysis procedures were initially not planned, but soon the material called for a type construction and the evaluative coding was a necessary intermediate step to reach it. These later will be described in Chapters 6 and 7.

5.1 Samples in Germany, Sweden and Chile

The findings from the observations and interviews in the participating classrooms are described in detail, in the chronological order they were visited. For information about the education systems in the three countries, see Section 2.4.

In the following sections the main description of the field experience in the classrooms is presented. The classrooms, beginning with Germany (BW) followed by Sweden and Chile, and the data collection there are described, including the classroom observations and the interviews (see Chapter 4 for details on the methodology).[1] Firstly, the classrooms and the teachers' educational background alongside their personal experience

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[1] Please observe that, as described in Section 4.2.2, the teachers and students have been given a pseudonym in order to be able to identify about which person is spoken later on in the text, hereby including the cultural contexts. Therefore, the following has been considered: in Germany a surname is used, when addressing a teacher, adding a *Frau* (Mrs.) in front of the surname. For the Swedish teachers, a first name is given, this being the custom in Sweden for addressing teachers. For the Chilean teacher, the designation *Frau* is also used, but here the first name is used instead of the surname, being the custom in *Deusche Schulen* in Chile.

with multilingualism are introduced, followed by a description of the classroom observation. Secondly, the findings from the interviews are described. In the interviews, four themes were focused upon, drawing on the research questions (see Section 1.1). The findings are presented following the structure from the interview guide (see Section 4.3.3 and Appendixes A and B): the teachers' personal experience with multilingualism, the school set-up regarding multilingualism, beliefs regarding multilingualism alongside with reading and multilingualism.

For the analysis, all the material from the classroom observations, interviews (including the questionnaires) and field notes were transformed into digital documents. The interviews were transcribed as described in Section 4.5. The questionnaire (see Appendixes C and D), with questions on key data of the teachers' biography and formation, was commented upon when filling it out and is therefore considered a part of the interview.

5.2 The German classrooms

In Germany, two classrooms were visited. In this section, the classroom observations and the interviews with the two teachers of those classrooms are described.

The two participating schools were located in Baden-Württemberg (BW), a federal state in the southwest of Germany. BW is one of the most economically successful regions of Germany. Even though it is not that rich in natural resources, the population is known for its "ingenuity, inventive spirit and an appetite for hard work" (Staatsministerium Baden-Württemberg/Baden-Württemberg State Ministry, 2016). Adding to this, the diverse and varied landscapes, attractive for tourists, make BW a "great place to live" (Staatsministerium Baden-Württemberg/Baden-Württemberg State Ministry, 2016).

The aforementioned factors have made BW an attractive region to live in and the sample census of 2013 (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2015a) shows that almost 3 million of the inhabitants have a migration background, which is 28% of the total 10.6 million population. Furthermore, almost every fifth student in primary school has a migration background.

The migration numbers have been fluctuating over the years, from a migration balance of -70,490 in 1975 to 147,158 in 1990 (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2015c). In the last few years, especially since 2013, immigration has increased again,

giving a migration balance of 90,004 people in 2015 (Statista, 2016). During the observations for this study, which were conducted in 2015, migration increased considerably and the debate about how to deal with this situation in school was extraordinarily vivid.

5.2.1 Classroom DE2

Classroom DE2 was part of a school in the southern part of BW, situated in a mixed area of apartment blocks and single-family houses. The area was situated in the vicinity of one of the highest ranked parts of the city according to the *Mietspiegel* (rent index[2]). The language of instruction was German. The school consisted of primary grades 1-4. The teaching time was from 7:50 to 12:15 (in the *Regelklasse,* the mainstream class), although the school also offered fee-based lunch and after-school activities.

Different kinds of posters in German were on the classroom walls, mostly regarding grammar, but also about homework and the week's plan. Colored signs with "days of the week" in English were the only signs not in German. There were two maps, Germany and the world, and a small bookshelf in the back of the classroom with books in German (the school also had its own library). The teacher's desk was placed on the left side in front of the children who were seated in rows facing a green chalkboard.

The class consisted of 25 students at the time of my visit. 12 different languages were represented as home languages of the students, apart from German (the language of instruction); and 13 students (56%) had more than one language in their home. Apart from German, languages from all over the world were represented, especially European languages such as Croatian, English, Italian, Norwegian, Polish and Russian, but also Arabic and Chinese. Most students had been born in Germany, only two had arrived about two years before.

5.2.1.1 Teacher Frau Vogel

The teacher, Frau Vogel[3], was in her late 30s. She had been working as a primary school teacher for 14 years, with two breaks for maternity leave. Frau Vogel was interested in foreign languages and had spent an extended time (more than three months)

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[2]   *Mietspiegel* is a publication that details what the average property rental prices are throughout different districts of German cities or states. The exact reference is not given since it then could be possible to identify the region of the school.

[3]   For information about the anonymization of the teachers' name, see Section 4.2.2.

abroad, in Italy. She had also taken extra courses for *Deutsch als Zweitsprache* (German as a L2), drawing on her own interest, the courses were not part of her studies.

Frau Vogel had been working in a school in another German federal state before, where 90% of the children had a migration background. She had been teaching this class since grade 3, with grade 4 now being her second and last year with the class.

5.2.1.2 Classroom observations

The classroom observations in classroom DE2 took place in April-May 2015. I was present on two occasions during the German class where the topic was reading. I took a seat in the back of the classroom.

First visit

At the beginning of the class, I was introduced to the children. Another adult, a teacher trainee, was also present. At first, some practical issues were discussed: a lot of toilet paper had been thrown on the floor in the girls' toilet. Solutions for that were discussed. The teacher then explained that they were going to change the seating for the presentations, which would take place in the following class. The students therefore moved forward, to sit at the desks in the two front rows.

Following this, the teacher started with an introduction of new words. Laminated pictures of different bicycle types were attached to the chalkboard and subsequently the students were encouraged to guess the names. An interaction about the different possible names took place and the students were free to argue for and against the names. The teacher added unknown words and supported them with terminology. In addition, she used gestures to explain objects like *Rahmen* (frame), showing a square with her hands. Two names were pronounced together, since they had a French origin. The names were added below the picture of the respective type of bike. The students also had to guess which bicycle type was the first one to be developed.

After having spoken about the terminology to the whole class the students were divided into groups and sat down together to work with the text in the book *Deutsch-Stars 4* (Scholtes *et al.*, 2010), which they used for reading comprehension. During this class,

the topic of the text was *Die Geschichte des Fahrrads* (the history of the bicycle) (see Fig. 12).[4]
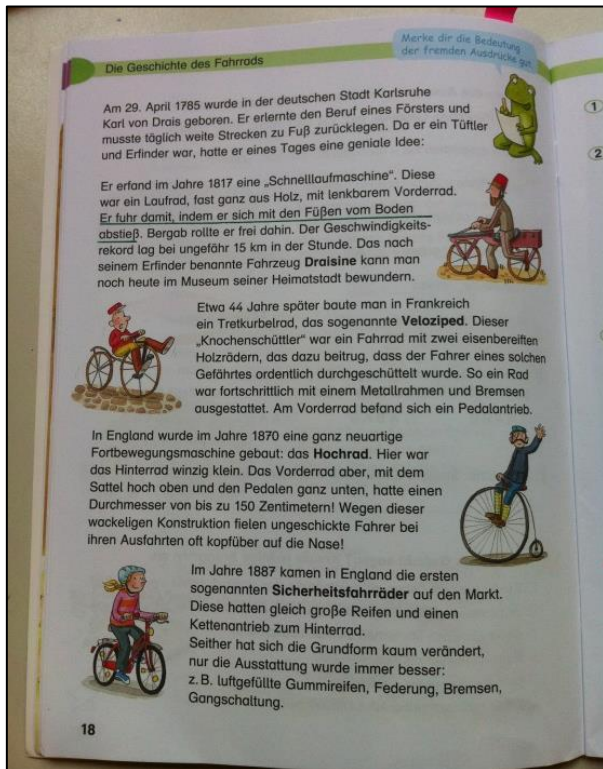
Fig. 12: Text about the bicycle in classroom DE2

During group work, the teacher explained that the students were supposed to read the text according the *Lesekonferenz* (reading conference)*.* The *Lesekonferenz* involved working in a group with a text, according to preset instructions they had been given earlier in the school year, which was in their folders (see Fig. 13). They had to look for words that they might not understand and then answer the questions.

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[4] The illustrations from the observations have an explanatory character, showing the context. They are not part of the analysis. They are not used for comparison, since the possibility of taking photos was not given in all the settings. Some pictures have been covered up, to ensure the anonymization of the surroundings.
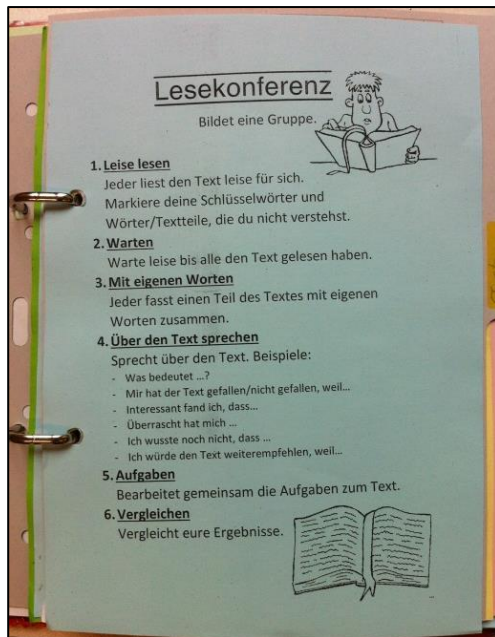
Fig. 13: Information on group work with texts in the *Lesekonferenz* (reading conference)

On the following page in the textbook, questions regarding the text (see Fig. 14) had to be answered. Some groups went out of the classroom to work somewhere else. The teacher walked from one group to another to help them.
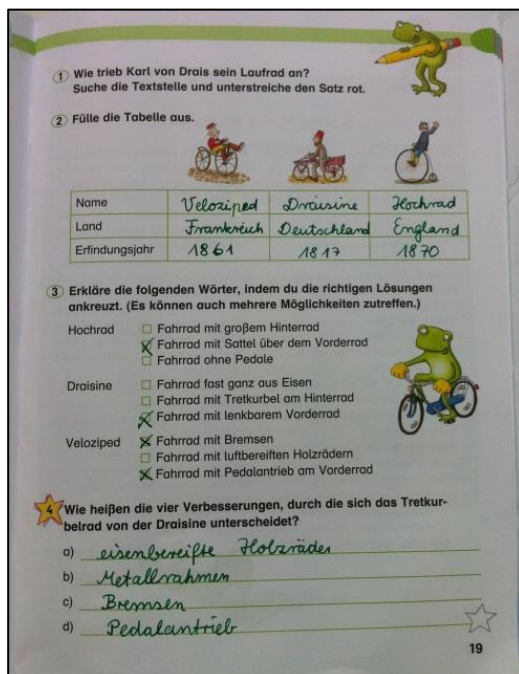
Fig. 14: Questions regarding the text about the bicycle[5]

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[5]   Here including the answers.

In their folder, the students also had information on *Lesestrategien* (reading strategies) to use during reading. After the group work, the whole class gathered in the classroom again and talked about the text. The first words were compared and possible difficult words were explained by other students. The teacher supported where needed or summarized what had been said. The questions and the answers were then read out loud by the students. The teacher corrected them during the reading.

Second visit

During the second visit, after a short introduction to the topic, the students worked on tasks regarding the past tense, which they had had homework on. Afterwards, they answered the questions one by one. Following this, the teacher started to talk about an accident between a car and a bicycle on a street corner. A couple of students were assigned different roles as witnesses to the accident. Each student received a note on what to say, and props such as a police vest. After one round, some other students were assigned the roles, for the students to hear the explanation of what happened once more.

After the second round, the teacher asked if there were some words that needed explanation. One such word was *Schürfwunde* (abrasion). The teacher turned to Besjana (one of the students who had arrived in Germany two years before) "Do you know this?". Besjana nodded affirmatively.

The teacher explained that she wanted to paint the accident situation on the green chalkboard. Different possible explanations on what happened were discussed, drawing on the witnesses' statements.

Following this, the students had to work on a text regarding the accident, in their learning diary. Drawing on an information sheet in their folder on how to write an accident report (see Fig. 15), they were to consider some 'Wh-questions'[6], each one could be underlined in different colors in the text. For homework, they had to write an accident report.

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[6] Several questions can be asked with words starting with 'w'. (*W-Fragen* in German and Wh-questions in English).
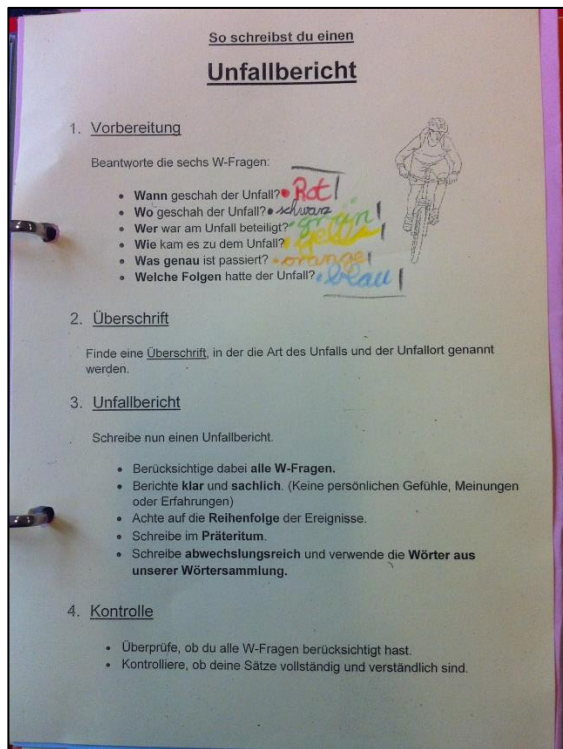
Fig. 15: Information on how to write an accident report

5.2.1.3 Interview with Frau Vogel

The interview with Frau Vogel took place in May 2015 after the second of the classroom observations. The place for the interview was the classroom of Frau Vogel and the recorded interview lasted 52 minutes. During the recorded interview, I experienced the atmosphere as far more tense than conversations with Frau Vogel in general. At the end of the interview, Frau Vogel also explained, that in the initial contact (taken over the principal) it had not been clear to her that she herself, the teacher, would be in the focus of my visit, but that she had no problem with that. However, as future reference to my research, she mentioned that other colleagues might have a problem with this.

Personal experience with multilingualism
Frau Vogel had gained personal experience with multilingualism originating in several different ways: her teacher education, self-sought extended time abroad (Europe), her professional life (students with other home languages in her classes) as well as her own private life (through close friends). She spoke and taught English and had some knowledge of Italian.

School set-up regarding multilingualism

The school had no policy documents regarding multilingualism. At the time of this study (2015), there was no special material about multilingualism present in the school, and it was hardly ever discussed with the parents.

In the school year of my visits (2015), the school had their first *Vorbereitungsklasse* (preparatory class) for students who had newly arrived in Germany with no knowledge of German. In the past, the new students used to be placed in the mainstream classes, without regard of their lack of German.

Students with Turkish as their home language could receive classes in Turkish at school, in the afternoon. However, the students from this class did not participate. There was also the possibility for students with other home languages, such as Italian, to participate in home language classes, in different schools in the city.

Frau Vogel had not gone through any in-service training regarding multilingualism, but the preparatory class teacher had been informing the other teachers about general intercultural issues, such as how to organize the classes. This teacher had also informed the others about how to work with the newly arrived students and how to promote their German learning process.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism

Regarding multilingualism in general, Frau Vogel made positive statements without detailed distinctions. When asked, what multilingualism (*Mehrsprachigkeit*) would mean to her, Frau Vogel commented:

> For me it [multilingualism] is a huge gift, I tell all the parents that and all, that (…): I have good friends myself, the man is Turkish, she is German … I would love to have that [multilingualism] for my children, and also for myself personally. (DE2:1)[7]

A multilingual person (*mehrsprachige Person*) would for her be:

> For me that is somebody that speaks at a language native speaker level, a second language. (DE2:2)

When asked the follow-up question "Two languages?", she answered:

> …or three, it can be three as well, it depends. (DE2:3)

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[7]   The quotes can be read in the original language (German) in Appendix E.

Frau Vogel had not known exactly which languages the students in her class spoke at home before my visit. As a preparation for my visit, she spoke about the home languages in class:

> I just asked in a general way, exactly. So, we went through the class asking everybody, and then I said, I would like to know, what you (…) And then the children simply replied. This was very interesting, since some of them did not really know and so. Since I brought in the siblings as well and that has also (…). But then the children reflected a bit, that was really nice, exactly, yes. (DE2:4)

The teacher already knew which student had English as her home language. This student was often asked to read English texts out loud to other students or to play major roles when the class played theater in English. Frau Vogel:

> In Diana's case naturally it is special, since she is half American and I of course try to include this in the English class (…) Ehm, that I also let her read out loud, or, ehm, [act] in smaller role plays, that she can play a role there. (DE2:5)

When asked for if there were advantages with multilingualism, she mentioned that the multilingual children seem to have better language awareness. She appreciated this especially in the English classes, because then all the children start from scratch and the children with more languages in their lives are mostly better at learning the new language. As a possible disadvantage of multilingualism, she mentioned that the multilingual children may have difficulties with grammatical structures and, in general, language difficulties.

She further stated that she had noticed that it is easier for the children with a home language close to German, such as other European languages, than for children with non-European languages. She also mentioned the difference of level between the everyday language and the language used at school.

Reading and multilingualism
The colleagues in the respective grade levels decided together how to work with the reading in class, although no special method was used at this school. In this class, a text book was used (see Classroom observations) as well as a special folder with different techniques for different learning activities. An example was the aforementioned *Lesekonferenz* (reading conference) on how to work in a group with a text, another one *Lesestrategien* (reading strategies), which was also observed during one of the classroom observations.

Frau Vogel went into detail when talking about teaching and reading comprehension:

> That has been my goal during these two years, that they simply have certain strategies, such as (…). Underlining or marking words, ehm. That they simply, I find it, it is really something very important, that they can also admit, that they sometimes do not know a word, do not understand, or a word group, or that a sentence sounds strange and (….) Since it maybe was stressed wrongly. So, it is important for me that they leave this class-room after two years, being able to say "Ok, I can understand such a text, I have tools for it". (DE2:6)

When referring to reading and multilingualism, she had noticed that the multilingual children can have problems, especially on a word level, due to set locutions and similar issues. The student with English as a home language would have an advantage though, due to the many Anglicisms in the German language. In general, she did not have the opinion that the multilingual readers would be different when it comes to reading: either the child is a *Vielleser* (likes reading and reads a lot) or not.

The multilingual children did not receive different tasks than the monolingual children, but the teacher offered scaffolding tools, such as explanations of words or gestures when describing words. This way of teaching seemed important to her for the children with only German as well, since archaic language can be used in fairy tales for example:

> Since I in the end don't see any difference between multilingualism and monolingualism, but actually it's really in the reading comprehension of the individual children. (DE2:7)

Since Frau Vogel considered multilingualism an enrichment, she tried to include references to other languages in class:

> Exactly, it is really seen as an enrichment, now and again, it is the case, that well, a similar word, if we, for example, take English (…) "That exists in my language as well" or (…). Yes. I try to also integrate that a bit. (DE2:8)

The children could bring books in another language, but this was not something that the teacher asked for especially and it had only happened one or two times, when a newly arrived student with a European home language brought a book in her home language, since she missed her home in the other country. She had read out loud from that book, which the other students at first found *lustig* (amusing), but after a short while boring.

5.2.2 Classroom DE3

Classroom DE3 was part of a school in the southern part of BW, in the same town as DE2, but in another part of the city. The area was situated in one of the highest ranked parts of the city according to the *Mietspiegel* (rent index[8]), with mainly single-family houses.

The language of instruction was German. The school included the grades 1-4 in primary school, with grade 1-2 and grade 3-4 being taught together. The teaching time ranged from 7:50 to 12:15 (in the *Regelklasse,* the mainstream class). The school also offered fee-based lunch and after-school activities.

Different posters written in German were hanging on the classroom walls, mostly regarding grammar, but also about homework and a week plan. There were notices with sentences in English, such as "Good morning children", "How old are you?", "What's your name?", the days of the week, etc. A small bookshelf was situated in the back of the classroom with books in German (the school also had its own library). The teacher's desk was placed on the left side in front of the children. The children were seated in groups of three or four. There was a green chalkboard next to the teacher's desk.

The grade 3 and 4 class consisted of 25 students at the time of my visit. Four different languages were represented as home languages of the students. Four students (16% of all students in class) had more than one language, apart from German, in their homes. The other languages were European languages. All but one student, who had arrived some months before, had been born in Germany.

5.2.2.1 Teacher Frau Mayer

The teacher, Frau Mayer, was in her mid-40s. She had been working as a primary school teacher for almost 20 years, always in the same region, with two breaks for maternity leave. Frau Mayer was interested in foreign languages and had spent an extended time (longer than three months) in Italy. She had taken no courses on multilingualism or second language acquisition during her teacher education and had not done any in-service training regarding these issues either. Her major passion in teaching was reading.

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[8] *Mietspiegel* is a publication that details what the average property rental prices are throughout different districts of German cities or states. The exact reference is not given since it then would be possible to recognize the region of the school.

5.2.2.2 Classroom observations

The classroom observations in school DE3 took place in June 2015. I was present on two occasions during German classes, where the topic was reading. I took a seat in the back of the classroom.

First visit

Before entering the classroom, I noticed a poster regarding a reading project which was hanging on the classroom door (see Fig. 16), showing the engagement in reading in class.

Fig. 16: Poster on the classroom door DE3[9]

After a short introduction by the teacher regarding organizational issues and explaining my visit, the students worked with tasks on their own. During the German class in DE3, they were normally divided into two groups, grade 3 and grade 4, and got different tasks. The book *Einsterns Schwester 4* (Bauer and Maurach, 2011) was used for reading comprehension for the students in grade 4. The week of the first visit, the topic was sentence elements, subject and predicate. The teacher initially walked from one group to another

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9   The picture has been modified for anonymizing reasons.

to help the students with the tasks. The newly arrived student worked with other tasks and walked up to the teacher on several occasions asking her for help or for correcting the tasks that he had finished. After the students had finished their tasks, they were allowed to read a book of their own, which they could bring from home if they wanted to.

Later, the class was to gather around the teacher in a circle on the floor in the back of the classroom to look at different objects that had been forgotten in the classroom. The teacher asked me to join the circle, which I did. "What is this?" was the question to the students and the answer came quickly "Nouns". The students had to group the different objects and several possible ways of grouping were suggested.

After this group task, the students were divided into smaller groups to find the English words for something. I was asked to join one group, which was supposed to say the week days in English. One boy stated that he knew them in Russian, even though his family was not Russian. The students asked me to pronounce the week days in Swedish, which I did. Later we were asked to pronounce the week days for the whole class and my group wanted me to say one week day in Swedish, which I then also did.

Second visit

After some quick initial organizational information from the teacher, the class discussed the comprehension of some words in the text book. The question was about how they understood the words.

The students were to continue their work with the tasks in the book. The newly arrived student was asked to come up to the teacher first, she then indicated which tasks he should do and helped him with the first initial questions. Later, the teacher circulated between the groups to help the students with the tasks. The newly arrived student walked up to the teacher once and again. He read out loud what he had written and the teacher exclaimed "*Super!*" (Great!). He also had some questions about the German articles. Afterwards, he continued with the tasks in his notebook, *Die bunte Reihe* (Götting, 2011).

After about 15 minutes with the tasks, the students had to read out loud what they had written. Before they started, she asked if they had any questions, if there were any words that they had not understood. Different possibilities were discussed until she gave a final version.

Following this, the entire class was gathered together and the teacher gave different instructions to the two grades on which tasks they had to work on. She distributed the tasks on separate papers. The students had to pair up for the tasks, and could work in the corridor if they wanted. After some 15 minutes, they had to gather together again. Some organizational information regarding the next day was given, the students were assigned some tasks for homework.

5.2.2.3 Interview with Frau Mayer

The interview with Frau Mayer took place in June 2015 in an adjoining room in the school, after the second of the classroom observations. The recorded interview lasted 55 minutes. I experienced the atmosphere as very relaxed.

Personal experience with multilingualism

As previously mentioned, Frau Mayer had gained personal experience with multilingualism originating from self-sought extended time abroad (Italy), her professional life (students with other home languages in her classes) as well as her own private life (through close friends). She had not done any training concerning multilingualism. She spoke and taught English and had some knowledge of Italian, originating from the time she spent there.

School set-up regarding multilingualism

The school had no official policy regarding multilingualism. Shortly before my visits (June 2015), the school had acquired a book, *Das mehrsprachige Klassenzimmer* (Krifka *et al.*, 2014), regarding different languages of students, which they were recommended by the local school authority.

At the time of my visit another colleague at the school involved herself strongly in issues regarding *DaZ* (*Deutsch als Zweitsprache* – German as a L2). The following year a preparatory class (*Vorbereitungsklasse*) would be introduced at the school. Already this year the school had received some newly arrived students. At first, they were placed in the same class, but after some time, they were separated and placed in different classes, since the school found, that they spoke too much in their mother tongue (Serbian) with each other and that their German language development thus was slowed down. The newly arrived students also received 9 hours of extra German classes, separate from the rest of class.

The students with Turkish and Italian as their home languages could take home language courses, in another school in the town in the afternoons.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism

Regarding multilingualism in general, Frau Mayer made positive statements without detailed distinctions. When asked what multilingualism (*Mehrsprachigkeit*) meant to her, Frau Mayer commented:

> To me, multilingualism is that I speak a language, my mother tongue, almost, or I mean/I speak my languages, like my mother tongue. That is for me multilingualism. That is, I speak German and just like that I could speak English. (DE3:1)[10]

As mentioned above, Frau Mayer spoke German, English and some Italian. When asked if she was multilingual (*mehrsprachig*), she stated that she had not thought about that before, but she would not consider herself multilingual, nor bilingual. She further stated that she preferred to speak about *zweisprachig* (bilingual), because *mehrsprachig* (multilingual) would be somebody that speaks many languages:

> Yes, I would call a person who really can speak <u>five</u> languages multilingual. This [her language knowledge] is not multilingualism. (DE3:2)

She added that she would not consider herself multilingual, since she had spent too little time in Italy (10 months). Additionally, Frau Mayer considered that there had to have a life-world connection with the languages in order to be multilingual. She gave the following example:

> I believe that language is always connected with how I live the language. That is, if I live in Spain, I learn the language and I <u>live</u> with that language. If I learn Spanish in an evening course at the *Volkhochschule* [center for adult education], then I <u>learn</u> the language. That is for me/and that is for me really multilingualism/for me it means, that I <u>live</u> that language. Either with one of my parents or with my grandparents or with my friends. That is multilingualism for me. (DE3:3)

She asked me, how many languages I speak. She guessed German, English and Swedish and when I added Spanish, she asked:

> And Spanish on [a] mother tongue level?" (DE3:4).

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[10] The quotes can be read in the original language (German) in Appendix E.

When asked about multilingualism in class, Frau Mayer mentioned projects which they had organized, such as international days. She then mentioned working with words in different languages, for example 'cat', where the students should gather this word in different languages and then the flags were painted behind the word. Here the newly arrived student could participate extraordinarily well and say some words in their home language (Serbian). They had also had project days, where they cooked food from another country, such as Italian food. This had been done with different countries, mainly the countries that the teachers had knowledge of, such as Italy and Greece. The parents then could bring food from those countries if they wanted to. In the future, Frau Mayer could envisage including the languages of the newly arrived students. Now she often asked the students with English as their home language, which food they ate and how it was cooked.

If a xenophobic issue should occur, Frau Mayer mentioned bringing in the food issue:

> And that's what everyone says/or in this way to work against xenophobia, so that I say "Yes, but what do you mean, foreigners are stupid? I don't think so. You all love it, I know that you all eat pizza and spaghetti!" And then they suddenly realize it, they say "Yes, that's true". Exactly. (DE3:5)

When asked about the advantages and disadvantages of multilingualism in class, Frau Mayer answered:

> I am actually/I am a positive person, actually I only see advantages (laugh), one disadvantage could be that those with two languages or more mix up the languages and our school German is expecting, well, this correct German. (DE3:6)

Following this, she mentioned some advantages from her point of view:

> Because the children simply, also this feeling for the language, it is an openness that they have, and a skill. Yes. And it's intellectually stimulating if I can speak several languages, that's great! It engages the mind and I also think that for later, I think that for later, I believe, that these people maybe somehow learn easier through their whole life, I also see this as an advantage as well. Yes. (DE3:7):

Frau Mayer knew which students in the class had more home languages than only German. She did not know how much the students spoke the other languages at home, they had not spoken about that.

Reading and multilingualism

The colleagues in the respective grades decided together upon how to work with reading in class. No special method was used for the reading comprehension. They worked with a text book (see more under Classroom observations).

Frau Mayer worked with a weekly schedule where the subject of German was divided into reading and writing. Reading was a very important issue for Frau Mayer in her teaching:

> Reading is very, very important to me, since reading stimulates so much. The language is animated and the ability to express oneself, vocabulary is amplified, it's tremendous/spelling, <u>everything</u>, through reading. (DE3:8)

She said that she held special reading classes where the students were required to work intensively with a text. Some of them had then read the text at home. Further, she and the school had organized several reading animation activities, such as author visits, visits to the library, book boxes, book presentations and book reviews. Some of these activities were part of a reading week which they had every year (see Fig. 16). One student with English as his home language had brought books in English for the book presentations, which Frau Mayer saw as an enrichment.

When asked about reading comprehension and multilingualism, Frau Mayer stated that a child is either a good reader or not, that does not depend on the languages. She also believed that the multilingualism had no effect on this:

> And for German it has no positive effect, but also no negative, I don't know, I don't find any effect. (DE3:9)

Frau Mayer also stated that the students with English as their home language had a major advantage in that they could help other students when reading English, especially the pronunciation.

5.2.3 Summarizing the field experience in Germany

It should be noted that the main focus in the field experience was not upon the underlying didactical method or theory but to describe the actual practice in the classroom with the aim to highlight how the students' LWMUL is implemented in practice in class. This background information is also important for the understanding of the interviews and the later analysis. Further, it has to be highlighted that I only visited the

classes on two occasions, after which, the teachers were interviewed. During such a limited time, all issues could not be covered in both classes. My descriptions are snapshots of reality, e.g. I only comment on what I observed during my visits and acknowledge that all areas of the teaching could not be covered.

Personal experience with multilingualism

Both teachers had lived abroad for an extended time and by coincidence in the same country (Italy). They were interested and open-minded towards new cultures and languages and had personal experience with multilingualism, but not from the teacher education. The personal experiences were derived from personal initiatives, such as taking an extra course, or personal life experiences.

School set-up regarding multilingualism

At the time of my visits, many refugees were arriving in Germany and the schools were receiving many new students without knowledge of German. Therefore, intermittent forms of education, preparatory classes (*Vorbereitungsklasse*), were being organized, but yet not employed in either of these schools. The present institutional organization of the classes in both schools would thus be a submersion teaching model (see Section 3.2.1), where all students were taught in one class in German. In bot schools, additional to the submersion model, the newly arrived students were offered extra "pull-out classes" (Baker, 2006) of German.

The organization of the newly arrived students was discussed among the colleagues, especially with regard to how to facilitate rapid German language learning. The multilingualism of students with more than one home language was mostly not discussed. There were no documents or policies regarding multilingualism at the meso level, although in one school a book on multilingualism in class had been acquired. At this meso level, the findings show no major implementation of the students' home language/s.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism

Even though both teachers showed an interest in other languages, and they taught English as well as German, they did not consider themselves multilingual. They explained there was a missing cultural connection to the cultures of the other languages. They also stated that they did not speak the language well enough. They believed that to be multilingual, a perfect command of all the languages is required. The knowledge of which languages the students had in their home was not profound except for those whose home language was English.

Reading and multilingualism

The students with several languages were in general not receiving other tasks than those with only German. However, if they were newly arrived, for organizational reasons, they were either placed in a preparatory class or they received easier tasks. The students' multilingualism was not considered to require a major extension in the strategies when teaching and if considered, it was mainly for organizational reasons. The teachers considered that students either are avid readers or not, and no importance was put on linguistic diversity.

Concluding, it can be stated that the findings show no major implementation of the students' home language at the micro level. On an institutional organizational (meso) level, some actions could be distinguished, such as offering mother tongue instruction, but this would not imply a direct implementation in the classroom and especially not with regard to reading.

5.3 The Swedish classrooms

Two classrooms were visited in schools located in a mid-sized city in northern Sweden, in an area with mainly single-family houses. However, due to confidentiality reasons the specific region in Sweden cannot be described as it was in Germany.

5.3.1 Classroom SV1

Classroom SV1 was part of a school in northern Sweden. The school was situated in an area with mainly single-family houses.

The language of instruction in the class was Swedish. The primary school included grades 1-6. The teaching time ranged from 8:20 to 14:00-14:30. The school provided free lunches. *Fritids*, after-school activities (pedagogic group activities) could be booked additionally by the parents for students aged 6-13 (Skolverket, 2017b).

Even though my visit took place in the beginning of the school year, some posters written in Swedish were hanging on the classroom walls, mostly regarding grammar, but also detailing homework and the weekly plan. Signs with the weekdays in English were the only texts not in Swedish. There was a world map and a globe, and a small bookshelf in the front of the classroom with books in Swedish (the school did not have its own library). The teacher's desk was placed on the left side in front of the students. The

students were seated in rows facing the white board at the front of the classroom. In the back of the classroom, a sign was hanging with the convention on the rights of the child. There were also boxes marked with the students' names for material.

The class consisted of 18 students at the time of my visit. Two different languages were represented as home languages of the students, apart from the language of instruction, Swedish. Two students (16%) had more than one language, apart from Swedish, in their home. Both were born in Sweden. The percentage of students with a migration background (16%) was slightly higher than the average in the rest of the city (11%) (SIRIS, 2017a).

5.3.1.1 Teacher Lotta

The teacher, Lotta, was in her 50s. She was initially trained as a preschool teacher and worked 10 years as one. Later on, she retrained and became a primary school teacher and had been working at this school for 11 years. Lotta had no training in multilingualism or second language acquisition. She had not spent any extended time abroad (here meaning longer than three months). One major area of her professional interest was reading.

5.3.1.2 Classroom observations

The classroom observations in school SV1 took place in August 2015. I observed two Swedish classes on reading. I took a seat in the back of the classroom.

First visit

The class started with a short introduction, explaining my presence. The teacher explained that I lived in Germany and spoke many languages, such as Spanish, the same as the student Dolores.

Following this, the teacher began reading a Swedish book on the Viking time, *Drakskeppet* (Bylock, 2005, 2005) that had been already started. First, she used a PowerPoint presentation to show pictures regarding events from the book; with some written text included. In the first picture, a Viking boat was shown. The teacher asked if the students remembered what had happened in the beginning of the book. Where did the actions take place? They looked at the world map and identified the location of the country described in the book. Thereafter, they went through the events in the book and the students retold the story supported by the pictures. Some words were not known by the

students, since they were words that were no longer in everyday use. If no peer could help with the understanding, these were then explained by the teacher. If the students did not understand, the teacher used body language and gestures, such as for the expression of *blomman slokar* (the flower is wilting).

The teacher started reading. If one of the aforementioned words was present, she stressed the use of that word in a different context, such as *seglen slokar* (The sails are slacking). The teacher stopped the reading now and then, asking questions regarding different words.

After approximately 10 minutes of reading, the teacher stopped reading. The next class was about to begin and the students would have to change buildings. As homework, the students were asked to think about what would happen next with the protagonist of the book, since she had been sold as a *träl* (slave).

Second visit

On the second day of my visit, the teacher explained to the students that they were going to work with *sammansatta ord* (compound words). She presented small paper notes with different words. She pulled two notes: *peppar* and *kaka*, which together made *pepparkaka* (gingerbread cookies). The students were asked to give further words originating from the two compound words. This procedure was then repeated and yet further words were presented.

Following, they talked about the opposite of compound words, when words are not written together (*särskrivning*)[11]. Examples of this were given, such as *En brun hårig flicka kom in* (a brown hairy girl came in) and an illustration of a brown hairy girl was shown. The teacher asked the students, if there were any alternative spellings. The students answered that the words could be written together, *brunhårig* (brunette) then another meaning would be given. A picture of this was shown (a brown haired girl).

More examples were given, then the students received paper notes where they should write similar words, one word on each note. They got five minutes for this task. These words were later read out loud and discussed.

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[11] In Swedish, the issue of writing the words together or not is important, since there can be a difference in meaning.

Following this, the teacher announced that the students would receive a task, which they would not be able to finish that day as they should illustrate the words. The teacher asked, "What does illustrate mean?". "It means draw", answered a student. The students received a separate sheet of paper for this task. They had 10 minutes to start it and the rest had to be done as homework. The teacher explained that they could be creative and paint with colors and later they would make an exhibition of those newly invented words. Some words were quite innovative, such as *hårnyckel* (hair key) and they discussed how to paint those words.

5.3.1.3 Interview with Lotta

The interview with Lotta took place in August 2015 after the second classroom observation. The place for the interview was an adjoining room to the classroom. After 54 minutes, Lotta had a class again and we decided that I should return a second time. The second recorded interview lasted 16 minutes, giving a total of 110 minutes. The atmosphere seemed relaxed during the conversations before, during and after the interview.

Personal experience with multilingualism

Lotta had no significant personal experience with multilingualism. She had not spent any extended time abroad and she had not completed any training regarding multilingualism or second language acquisition. Apart from Swedish, she spoke English and some Spanish. Her experience derived from working with multilingual students. She mentioned that she had had classes, where almost none of the students were born in Sweden.

School set-up regarding multilingualism

The school had no official policy regarding multilingualism. At the time of this study (2015), there was no special material about multilingualism present at the school. There was one special education teacher (*speciallärare*) with an interest in Swedish as a Second Language at the school.

Students with other home languages could take classes in those languages as mother tongue instruction. A notice in the staffroom indicated the times for the different languages and where the classes took place. Nine languages were mentioned on the notice. The 40-60 minutes classes took place once a week.

Lotta stated that no exchange usually takes place between the teachers in the mainstream classes and the teachers of the mother tongue. These teachers would mainly arrive at the school in the afternoon when the other teachers were in meetings or had left the school for the day. She thought that they would have to develop such an exchange.

She stated that the school had not experienced any problems with racism regarding different skin color. The only issue that they had was between Muslims that had criticized other Muslims, for not being sufficiently Muslim, such as the girls not wearing headscarves.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism

When asked, what multilingualism would mean to her, Lotta stated:

> It is a benefit, that I would say firstly. But multilingualism – being able to express yourself and to understand, in several languages. Well, you get a more enriched language. Multilingual. You can express yourself and understand several languages. This is how I think. (SV1:1)[12]

She had not thought of any advantages or disadvantages with multilingual students in the class, or regarding multilingualism in general, but she considered it an advantage, that multilingualism implies, not only knowing another language, but also another culture:

> Actually, I do see an advantage with this, it is not only linguistically, but also as an advantage of understanding other cultures, an understanding of the worldview, that is the big thing I believe with multilinguals. (SV1:2)

Lotta stated though that some multilingual students had limitations, they did not know many synonyms, Swedish for them would be a school language, not a reading language. Some of these students would not read that much, they had another reading culture, which does not facilitate learning, Lotta explained.

Reading and multilingualism

In this classroom, reading comprehension was highlighted as a vital part in the students learning process. Therefore, the students were required to read 20-25 minutes every Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday morning. The teacher chose a couple of

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[12] The quotes can be read in the original language (Swedish) in Appendix E.

books, of which the students could choose one. The students also had the possibilities to listen to the books, since the school had an agreement with an external company which reproduce them digitally.

Several read the same book at the same time. After students had finished the books, they had conversations about them (*boksamtal*) in groups. They also had periods, where the students could choose a book of their own and then present it in some way, through a review or an oral presentation with PowerPoint.

For reading comprehension, the school worked with the methods from *En läsande klass*[13] (A Reading Class), an initiative by the Swedish best-selling children's book author Martin Widmark and financed mainly through one of Sweden's biggest lotteries (En läsande klass, 2017). The project *En läsande klass* started in April 2014 and a number of experienced teachers developed a study plan for teachers to use. The material consisted of a study guide with texts that the publishers, authors and illustrators had put at the disposal of the teachers until the end of 2018, as a concrete tool for reading comprehension. In this approach, reading is learned with reading strategies, each of which is supported by figures with different tasks (see Fig. 17).

Fig. 17: Reading strategy figures from *En läsande klass* in classroom SV1

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[13] www.enlasandeklass.se *En läsande klass* was based on three models for reading comprehension: RT (Reciprocal Teaching), TSI (Transactional Strategies Instruction) and QtA (Questioning the Author).

The material was distributed free of charge in printed form to all schools teaching the first six years of compulsory school. It was also made available freely on the internet.

The class SV1 also worked with another scheme: *Läsförståelse* (Reading comprehension) (Hydén *et al.*, 2013), with different levels of understanding the text (see Fig. 18).

Fig. 18: Abstract from the book *Läsförståelse A* in classroom SV1[14]

At the first parents-teacher meeting, the parents normally received a copy of a parent guide for reading (Hesslind, 1998) from the Swedish Council of the International Reading Association (SCIRA).

Lotta had not given much thought about multilingualism and reading, although one issue that she had been reflecting on was the fact that the multilingual children sometimes had difficulties with Swedish terms. If a student did not know a word, they could look for words on the internet using the school iPads.

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[14] In this textbook, the questions are divided in three different levels according to the following:
Green: *Vad står det i texten?* (What does the text say?). The answers are clearly to be found in the text.
Yellow: *Vad säger texten?* (What does the text express?). These answers are also written in the text, but between the lines. The student has to draw her/his own conclusions.
Red: *Fundera över texten* (Reflect upon the text). The student should reflect upon the text in a critical way.

5.3.2 Classroom SV2

Classroom SV2 was also part of a school in northern Sweden in a middle-big city, same as classroom SV1. The school was situated in an area with mainly apartment blocks.

The language of instruction was Swedish. The primary school included grades 1-9. The teaching time ranged from 8:20 to 14:00-14:30. The school provided free lunches. *Fritids*, after-school activities (pedagogic group activities) could be booked additionally by the parents for students aged 6-13 (Skolverket, 2017b).

The class consisted of 19 students at the time of my visit. 12 different languages from all over the world, such as Arabic, Bosnian, English, Kurdish, Persian, Somali and Spanish, were represented as home languages of the students. The percentage of students with a migration background (70%) was significantly higher than the average than in the rest of the city (11%) (SIRIS, 2017a).

My visit took place in the beginning of the school year, which might explain the lack of posters on the classroom walls. There were some, written in Swedish, mostly detailing homework and the weekly schedule; and some bigger ones with illustrations presenting reading strategies (Sahlin, 2016), at the front of the classroom. I first thought they were the figures from *En läsande klass* (from the methods used in SV1), but at a closer look I saw that they were not identical. There was a world map in the back of the classroom, as well as a small bookshelf with books in Swedish (at the school, there was also a combined public and school library). The teacher's desk was at the front left side of the classroom. The students were seated in rows facing the teacher and the whiteboard.

5.3.2.1 Teacher Malin

The teacher, Malin, was in her 50s. She had initially trained as a preschool teacher and later retrained and became a primary school teacher. She had been working as a primary school teacher for over 15 years. Furthermore, Malin had completed training in Swedish as a L2 (*Svenska som andraspråk*), 30 ECTS.[15] She had not spent longer than three months abroad. Her main area of professional interest was reading.

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[15] In Sweden, the university studies are free of fees for Swedish and EU-citizens. There is a major offer of courses, which can be taken separately, not as part of a degree program. There are also part-time courses offered on an online basis (Svenska institutet, 2017). 30 ECTS corresponds to one semester of study in Sweden.

5.3.2.2 Classroom observations

The classroom observations in school SV2 took place in August-September 2015. I observed two Swedish classes on reading. I took a seat in the back of the classroom.

First visit

The class started with 10 minutes for silent reading. The students entered the classroom and picked up something to read, a book from the bookshelf, a children's magazine, *Kamratposten (Kamratposten, 2016)* or a comic. Two of the students left to attend resource teaching in the Swedish language.

After the initial reading, the teacher introduced me and she highlighted the fact that I was there to observe her, not them. The students were curious and wanted me to pronounce my full name. They were also curious about which languages I could speak.

The teacher then moved on to present a couple of words on the board regarding different parts of a house (*knut, tomt, hack, gavel, altan*) and she asked them which word they considered the most difficult. This led to an active discussion amongst the students. Subsequently, the teacher wrote some headings on the board and they discussed these following the same procedure as with the single words. The teacher asked what kind of sentences they were and the students quickly replied "Headings". The different parts of an article/text were explained and a notice was on the board with the words *Rubrik, Inledning, Vem, När, Vad, Varför* (heading, introduction, who, when, what, why).

The teacher projected a paragraph from a text (see Fig. 19) with a digital projector, without revealing the title of the book:

FÖDELSEDAGS-
PRESENTEN

Boken är gjord av mörkblå sammet. Den har ett glansigt, rött hjärta på framsidan. *Mina Vänner* står det under hjärtat.

Boken är Klaras. Hon går i 4A på Ängbäcksskolan. Klara har precis fyllt tio år. Hon fick boken i present av sin mormor.

"Du kan intervjua väninnorna", sa mormor. Hon såg glad och förväntansfull ut. "Det är så roligt att ha sedan när man blir gammal. Vänta du bara."

Klara vill inte förstöra glädjen för mormor. Hon berättar inte att hon inte har några kompisar.

Mamma tittar bekymrat på Klara som bläddrar fram och tillbaka bland bokens tomma sidor. Som om hon letade efter något.

"Det blir väl trevligt, Klara?" Mamma pratar högt.

Fig. 19: Abstract from the book *Kompisboken*[16] (Hallberg, 2012) in classroom SV1

The teacher asked, if the students recognized the book which they did (they had read it in class). She then asked them to read the text through and find the answers to the previously discussed questions for an article/text. After a couple of minutes, they discussed the answers. The teacher gave positive feedback and said that the students had done this very well. They were now to practice once more and then the next day, they were to write a text on their own.

Another picture was shown and the teacher suggested they should pair up, after finishing a couple of initial sentences individually. Before they started, the teacher pinned a notice on the board with some keywords. She asked the students to whisper when discussing what to write and then proceeded to circulate between the pairs whilst offering help. After about five minutes, most of the pairs were finished, and the teacher told the rest to finish off. The students read some of their suggestions out loud and the teacher gave them positive feedback. Following this, the teacher suggested that they would become even better, if they practiced one more time. She gave them some other keywords

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[16] The title *Kompisboken* means "The friend book". The text shown is the beginning of the book, and tells how Klara, the protagonist, receives the book as a birthday present.

to work with and one student asked what the word *veterinär* (veterinarian) meant. One of the student's peers said that it meant "animal doctor".

The teacher explained that they were now going to work together and decide on the heading. One of the students gave two suggestions: *Tito på veterinären* and *Tito i veterinären*. Neither of these suggestions makes semantic sense in Swedish, since the first one would indicate that Tito physically is placed *on* the vet, and the latter that Tito would be *inside* the vet. The teacher wrote down both suggestions on the board and added a third one: *Tito hos veterinären*. When asked which version to choose, one of the students suggested "the third one". When asked to elaborate, the student said: "Because *på* would be on top of someone". The teacher gave another example: *frisören* (the hairdresser) and reminded the students of the previously explained strategies. She also asked them to name their stories if they had not done so already.

In the end of the class, the teacher took out the book *Kompisboken* and asked the students, if they could remember what it was about. She also asked some probing questions, such as what certain vocabulary meant (*svikare* for instance*:* quitter). She finished the class by reading out loud for 15 minutes.

Second visit

As I entered the classroom the following day for my second visit, there were two adults sitting next to two of the students. They were not introduced, but the rest of the class seemed to know them. Afterwards, the teacher explained that they were giving *studiehandledning* (study guidance) (see Section 2.4.2.2) in the students' mother tongue. During this visit, only one of the students left for withdrawal classes of resource teaching in Swedish.

The class started with approximately 10 minutes silent reading. Following this, the teacher asked, what the students would tell a person who had not read the last section of the book? They repeated the questions that should be asked when writing an article and they discussed this for about 10 minutes. She then said that they should practice this some more with new words, and the students worked in pairs again. The teacher circulated in the classroom and offered help. Afterwards, the students took turns reading their text out loud and she gave them positive feedback. After this, she supplied the students with yet another word list. One of them requested clarification for the use of a

preposition before they got into their pairs again. The pairs continued their sentence work and a couple of the texts were read out loud.

Thereafter, the teacher suggested that the students should know how to do this and moved on to another task. She showed a text with the projector and read it out loud. The students were then asked to read on quietly on their own, afterwards, they were quizzed on the content. One student commented that the word *sen* (later) was used frequently in the text. The teacher asked what was wrong with that and the student replied "nothing", but that variation would have been even better.

They continued speaking about the text in this manner and the teacher changed it on the computer as they agreed on the changes. Later, she gave them two similar examples that they could practice on their own. She distributed two pictures that could be glued in their notebooks. She also declared that they would become good at writing and added and reading, since those two activities were related.

The teacher picked up the book *Kompisboken* again. She asked the students to summarize, what they had read yesterday. She asked for the meaning of *ögonbryn* (eyebrow) and went on to explain it using descriptives, whilst pointing at her own eyebrow.

5.3.2.3 Interview with Malin

The recorded interview with Malin took place in September 2015 in the classroom and lasted 61 minutes. I experienced the atmosphere as generally relaxed, but at the same time with some tension.

Personal experience with multilingualism

Malin had no mayor personal experience with multilingualism. She spoke English, but had not spent any extended time abroad. She had completed a course in second language acquisition (*svenska som andraspråk*), for one semester (30 ECTS). She had extensive experience derived from working with multilingual students. In her present class, 17 out of 19 students had more than one home language.

School set-up regarding multilingualism

The school had no official policy regarding multilingualism. There was no preparatory class (*förberedelseklass*) in the school, the newly arrived students started directly in mainstream classes without necessarily knowing any Swedish. They received resource hours targeted at Swedish, which they attended away from their class with an allocated

learning support teacher. The library (a combined public and school library) had some books on multilingualism and second language acquisition. In an anteroom to the principal's and other administrative colleagues' office, there were some books as well, such as a book by (Fredriksson and Wahlström, 1997).

Students with some home languages were offered home language classes[17]. These 40-60- minute classes were given in the afternoon at the school, once a week. A list with the available languages and the contact person (home language teacher) was available on the school's web page at the time of the visit. Newly arrived students could also receive study guidance[18] (Skolverket, 2013).

At the time of my visit, the Swedish curriculum (Skolverket, 2011a) had two separate syllabi: one for *Swedish* and a different one for *Swedish as a second language*. The teacher explained that she delivered both syllabi in the class concurrently. Sometimes a support teacher was present in class. The students later received grades according to the syllabus followed.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism

Malin knew which home languages the students had, but not which language they normally would speak in the family or with siblings. When asked, what multilingualism meant for her, she stated:

> Well, for me as a teacher, it means a great challenge. In the teaching. (SV2:1)[19]

When asked what this challenge looked like, Malin continued:

> Well, I need to consider that there may be children entering my classroom that may not be able to express themselves, and they might not understand anything I tell them. It may be like that. And I may need other tools for communication, and for communication with their parents, I may need to use an interpreter. (SV2:2)

Malin explained the quite complicated procedure that she had to go through to book interpreters for meetings with parents. Interpreters were booked through a call center in the southern Sweden and the interpreters took part over the phone.

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[17] 78% of the students of this school were entitled to these courses according to SIRIS (2017a) during the time for my visit.

[18] Study guidance in the mother tongue is regulated in the Swedish compulsory school ordinances, where it is stated that it should be offered to students entitled to mother tongue instruction, if they are at risk of not reaching the learning goals of subjects in the Swedish curriculum (*Skolförordning*, SFS 2011: p. 185).

[19] The quotes can be read in the original language (Swedish) in Appendix E.

When going back to the question of multilingualism, Malin stated that language meant a lot of things to her, body language for example. For her, a multilingual student would be someone who is exposed to more than one language at home. When asked if it had to be in the home, she continued, that it could also be a student who was learning, for example, German in school.

As an advantage with multilingual children in the class, Malin stated that the groups were great fun to work with:

> The advantages are that/well, it … the groups are great fun to work with, for me as a teacher, it is incredibly inspiring, and the students make you, well, they/the groups are very nice and the students are very considerate and caring of each other, the atmosphere simply is very nice in the class. They have the ability to enrich each other in various ways. (SV2:3)

As a disadvantage with the multilingual students, Malin pointed out that the students' work load is greater than their peers':

> Well, some of them have to learn/I mean, some of them may have/we have students who have a lack of vocabulary in their mother tongues and have not yet developed/well, they have not developed the school language in their mother tongue. And now they need to work on mother tongue <u>and</u> Swedish … it is kind of … a double task. It is really challenging for those kids. It is. They have a huge mountain to conquer if we can put it like that. (SV2:4)

Reading and multilingualism

In classroom SV2 no special method was used for teaching reading comprehension. Malin stated that she used a mixture of what she had read and learned, she relied on her professional experience. There were some pictures regarding reading strategies in the classroom (Sahlin, 2016) (see Fig. 20). As previously mentioned, from the back of the classroom I initially thought they were from *En läsande klass* (A Reading Class[20]).

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[20] For more information on *En läsande klass*, see Section 5.3.1.3.

Fig. 20: Pictures regarding reading strategies in classroom SV2

Malin explained why she had chosen to use these characters and not *En läsande klass*:

> I made that decision [not using the ELK photos], well, those pictures were used so exaggeratedly when they arrived. I had the feeling as if they were spreading like fire between schools, and it turned into, it seemed like, no one had reflected on what they actually stood for before using them. (SV2:5)

For the work with multilingual students, she felt that joint text analyses were vital when working with multilingual students:

> Well, I think like this, as so many of our students in our class are multilingual, I feel that it is really, extremely important that we work with all texts together, we select, look at which kind of words there are, what do they mean, can this be said in an easier way, can we exchange this word for another, so that we really/because the most words that occur, they [the students] have like an everyday language. But academic language is different. Children normally pick up the everyday language with ease, but we need to work with the academic language. Most of us we don't express ourselves in the same way at school as you do at home. So it is extremely important that we stick to being role models. We have to write in one way to reach the set knowledge goals and so on. So it is very, very important that we, we are role models, that we offer pre-perception, that we write together, that we write in pairs, before you have to do it on your own. And then I think that we work with both/I try to do so with the writing and the reading, and not only during Swedish class, but that we do so in all subjects. (SV2:6)

Malin emphasized the importance to target reading in all subjects, not just in language classes.

When asked, how they include the multilingual students' experiences, which Malin previously had said was important (see above), she explained that they had been working

with recipes, different traditions and geography. They had not included literature in other languages, the books were read in Swedish. Malin stated that it was difficult to find books in other languages. She did not know about the possibility to order books from *Internationella biblioteket*[21] from which books in other languages could be ordered through the local school library.

5.3.3 Summarizing the field experience in Sweden

In Sweden, two classrooms were visited on two occasions each and following these, the teachers were interviewed.

Personal experience of multilingualism
None of the two Swedish teachers had lived abroad for any prolonged time. They both seemed interested and open-minded towards new cultures and languages but had no major personal experience with multilingualism. One of the teachers, Malin, had taken an additional university course *svenska som andraspråk* (Swedish as second language) deriving from her personal interests. Lotta had attended several training courses targeting reading, but had no official training in multilingualism.

School set-up regarding multilingualism
At the time of my visit (2015), many refugees were arriving in Sweden and the schools were receiving a significant number of new students without knowledge of Swedish. The prevailing form of teaching was submersion (see Section 3.2.1) in which all students were taught in Swedish. Intermittent forms of education, preparatory classes (*förberedelseklass*), were thus being organized, but not yet employed in these schools.

At one of the schools (SV2) additional support, such as study guidance and additional classes ("pull-out classes" of Swedish, (Baker, 2006) were offered. Mother tongue instruction was offered at both schools. The organization of the newly arrived students and how to facilitate rapid learning of Swedish was discussed among the colleagues, but not the multilingualism of the other students with more than one home language.

None of the schools had any official policy regarding multilingualism. In one of the schools, the library (a combined public and school library) had some books on multilingualism and second language acquisition, and in an anteroom to the principal's and other administrative colleagues' office, there were some books as well. Otherwise, the

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[21] Skolverket (2015).

findings show no major implementation of the students' home language at the meso level except with regard to organizational issues.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism

Although both teachers showed an interest in other languages and cultures, and they were both teaching English as well as Swedish, they had not reflected considerably on the possible issues regarding multilingualism in the classroom. When asked about what multilingualism meant to them, they answered "the usage of several languages". One of the teachers, Malin, stated that multilingualism brought an additional challenge to her classroom as she could have students who did not understand the language of instruction Swedish. She also emphasized the extra workload for the students who have to learn Swedish as well as work on developing their home language/s. The teachers generally knew which languages the students had in their home, but had limited knowledge of it, in general.

Reading and multilingualism

Reading was stated to be of uttermost importance in both classes and a significant amount of time was allocated for reading and reading comprehension. The students were asked to read for themselves several times a week and the teachers regularly read out loud to them. Two opposite strategies regarding reading were used: in one classroom a specific method, *En läsande klass* (A Reading Class) was used (after a decision in the teaching staff) and in the other class the teacher chose an eclectic method based on her teaching experience and training.

The multilingual children were allowed to look up the meaning of Swedish words on the internet in their home language in both classes but none of the teachers had planned any specific activity around multilingualism, such as bringing books in other languages to school.

In conclusion, the findings show no major implementation of the students' home languages (other than Swedish) at the micro level. Any active implementation regarding the linguistic diversity was done mainly intermittently on an organizational level, such as in different additional support measures, such as mother tongue instruction or study guidance (see also Section 2.4.2.2). Reading, however, was considered very important for the students' learning. It was also the teachers' main interest in teaching, which was probably why I was granted access to the classrooms.

5.4   The Chilean classroom

In Chile, due to practicalities (see below), only one school was visited. Due to reasons of confidentiality, the school, which was situated in a major city, cannot be described in as much detail as the region in Germany. It can however be described as a region that is attractive for migrants.

5.4.1 Classroom CL1

Classroom CL1 was part of a school situated in a privileged area of mainly single-family houses in a major city in Chile. It was a bilingual, private non-subsidized school (*particular pagado*, see Section 2.3.3) with Spanish and German as the languages of instruction, a so called *Deutsche Schule* (German school abroad). In Chile, an important ranking of the school is the *Prueba de Selección Universitaria* (PSU), a university admission test. This school normally reaches an upper position in that ranking, like many other international private non-subsidized schools. [22]

The school offered classes from kindergarten, starting with *Präkindergarten*, from the age of two),[23] a Chilean program (*Chilenischer Bildungsgang*, Grade 1-12) and a parallel German one (*Deutscher Bildungsgang*, Grade 5-12). The teaching time in grade 4 (the class that I observed) ranged from 7:50 to 13:35 with once weekly afternoon classes from 14:30 to 16:00 (including a break for fee-based lunch).

The class consisted of 22 students at the time of my visit. Two of the students were exposed to German at home as well as in school, the rest were only speaking Spanish at home.

The teacher's desk was situated in front of the students to the left. A three-part green chalkboard was positioned next to the desk. The students were seated in groups of three or four. Some notices regarding issues such as homework could be found on a small whiteboard next to the green chalkboard. Most of them (except for the homework, which was written only in German) were bilingual (see e.g. Fig. 21), such as one regarding values: Spanish: *Valores*, German: *Werte* and then the text below in each respective language.

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[22] As mentioned in Section 2.4.3, in 2014, 48 of the top 50 schools were private schools.

[23] In addition to the kindergarten fee, the child has to take an admission test.

Fig. 21: Example of a bilingual illustration in classroom CL1

There was a small bookshelf in the back of the classroom with books in Spanish and German (the school also had an own library). There was also a world map and a globe in the back of the classroom. The students wore a school uniform, and the girls could choose between wearing a skirt or trousers.

5.4.1.1 Teacher Frau Maria

The teacher, Frau Maria had grown up in Germany with one Chilean and one German parent and the family had moved to Chile when she was still in school. She was now in her 30s and had studied to become a primary school teacher at a German-Chilean institute in Santiago de Chile, which is especially for people who aim at to working as a teacher in the German schools in Chile.[24] Courses covering second language acquisition and multilingualism were part of her training. She had been working as primary school teacher for 6 years. She spoke German and Spanish in her daily life and English was also present in her linguistic repertoire, although not as much as the other two languages.

5.4.1.2 Classroom observation

The classroom observation in school CL1 took place in November 2015. This was the final phase of the school year, since in Chile it ends in December. Due to my short stay,

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[24] You have to have a good command of both German and Spanish in order to attend that training.

I could only visit this classroom once[25] during German class, where the topic was reading. I took a seat in the back of the classroom.

Classroom visit

When the class started, the teacher was greeted by the students: "*Hallo Frau Maria*"[26]. She explained to the students that they had a visitor from Germany and she told them to great me as well, with "*Hallo Frau Monica*". The spoken language in the classroom was German.

Frau Maria asked the students if they could remember what they had done the previous week. Hands were raised and suggestions were given. They had been dealing with adjectives, the students' answers were written in red on the chalkboard. She gave them the adjective, *fröhlich*, and asked "*Was kann fröhlich sein*?" (What can be happy?). Some suggestions were given. The teacher wrote *Namenwörter* (nouns) in green on the board and added the suggestions. She stated that there was more information in their note books. She continued with *Tunwörter* (verbs) in blue.

Following this, she explained that today they would learn a new *Gedichtsform*[27] (type of poem): *Elfchen*.[28] She asked the *Austeildienst* (handout monitors, students who are assigned to hand out tasks) to come forward and to hand out the tasks. These involved a sheet with an example of an *Elfchen* whilst Frau Maria explained the assignment and the rules (see Fig. 22). I was also given a sheet.

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[25] During my visits to Chile, I visited several other *Deutsche Schulen* and conducted various classroom observations, but those visits were in relation to the Baden-Württemberg Stiftung project and in another school year, not being part of the thesis.

[26] In the *Deutsche Schulen* in Chile, the standard greeting to teachers is to say hello and to add either Mrs. or Mr. and then the first name.

[27] The German form would be *Gedichtform* without the s in the middle.

[28] *Elfchen* is a kind of poetry in five lines, similar to a cinquain. It contains eleven (in German *elf*) words. The first line includes one word, the second line, two words, the third line three words, the fourth line, four words and the final fifth line, one word. They do not have to rhyme.
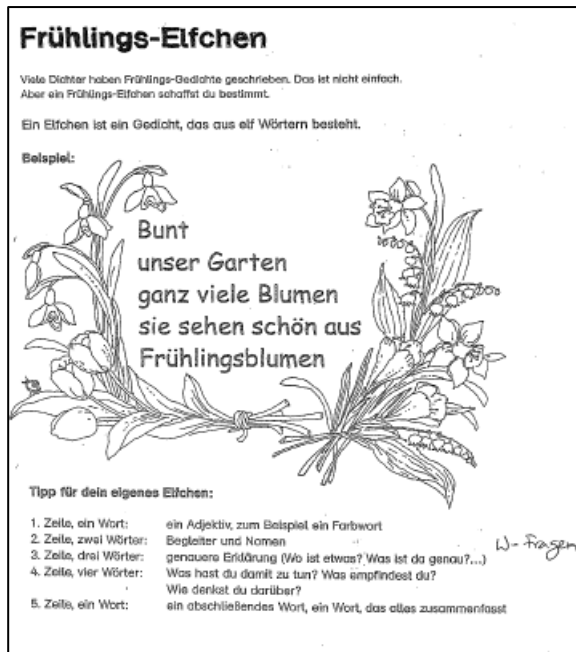
Fig. 22: *Frühlings-Elfche*n in classroom CL1[29]

The students were asked to cut out the text, glue it into their note book, and then read it. The teacher then asked the students how many words an *Elfchen* contained. Hands were raised and the answer (eleven) was given. She asked how the adjective *bunt* (colorful) should be underlined? She went through the same process with the other words. Then she said that they had identified the word classes and that they should now compare the lines. The information was to be found on the sheet. The findings of the *Elfchen* were read out loud by the class, before they were asked to compose a poem of their own. As the students started writing, the teacher walked through the class and helped them. She told them to have a look in their folders*: "Schau mal in la mapa".*[30] She then corrected herself by removing the code-switching: *"Schau mal in den Ordner"*.

After about 15 minutes, the teacher concluded that all students had finished and that some had even written two poems. She asked the students if they considered it difficult to write an *Elfchen*? "*Nein, weil es wenige Wörter hat*" (No, since it has few letters) one student answered. The students were asked if anyone wanted to read their poems out

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[29] This poem describes the flowers in the spring.

[30] "Look in the *mapa*". This was the only time where the teacher mixes the two languages during class. *Mapa* in Spanish means map, but in this sense it would be a 'false friend' and used instead of the German word *Mappe* – portfolio.

loud in the front of the class and a couple volunteered. Following this, everyone was given a separate sheet, where they could write their poems.

The teacher explained that there were more types of poems and that they would have a look at this tomorrow. She asked the students again, if they found it difficult to write a poem. The students all declared loudly: "*Neeeeeein!*" (No). The bell rang. The students said "*Auf Wiedersehen*" (Goodbye). There would be a short break for the students and then another teacher would come. Frau Maria had an extended break.

5.4.1.3 Interview with Frau Maria

The interview with Frau Maria took place in November 2015 after the classroom observation. It took place in the corner of a large staffroom in the school (as teenager) and the recorded interview lasted 30 minutes. During the recorded interview, the atmosphere seemed relaxed although I was a bit stressed because we would have quite a limited time for the interview, since Frau Maria would have another class coming up soon.

Personal experience with multilingualism

As previously mentioned, Frau Maria grew up in Germany with one Chilean and one German parent. The family moved to Chile when she was still at school. When she lived in Germany, the German language held a stronger position in her life but since she moved to Chile, Spanish has become the dominant one. She stated that she did not speak Spanish that well since they moved from Germany[31]:

> And as we/as we came here, that is to Chile, eh, well, I couldn't speak Spanish that well, and I didn't want to be the German, and then I wanted/at one point I told my X [the German parent], that I only wanted to speak Spanish. (CL1:1)

The German parent thus changed to speaking Spanish with her. Looking back, she was not sure if it would have been better to stick to German with the German parent, even though she then would have had a tougher time with Spanish:

> Maybe it was good [to change the language], since I learned Spanish quickly, but maybe it was not so good however, since I maybe had/well, if I had continued speaking German at home, then I would have been a native speaker, but …. With time this has/so I also forgot some part of the language. (CL1:2)

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[31] The quotes can be read in the original language (German) in Appendix E.

Courses covering multilingualism and second language acquisition (SLA) were part of her training, which she undertook at a German-Chilean institute, dedicated especially for people who aim at to working as a teacher in the German schools in Chile.[32]

School set-up regarding multilingualism
The school had a bilingual immersion approach, with German and Spanish as languages of instruction. A subject-determined arrangement was used, where some subjects were given in Spanish and some in German. The languages were used separately in the respective subjects. Frau Maria stated that the students were only allowed to use both languages in mathematics. In her German classes, she would let the students look up words which they might not know. She encouraged them to not focus on isolated words though, but on getting the meaning of the text or the communication.

There was no policy regarding multilingualism at the school. The official communication with the parents was bilingual though (German and Spanish). Several bilingual signs with text in both German and Spanish could be seen in the classrooms and around the school.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism
Frau Maria stated that multilingualism involves not just the language, but also the culture and the connection to the language:

> Well, it is not only the language, it is also the culture, eh, the connection to, well, in this case, to Germany, eh, it is two different worlds. (CL1:3)

Frau Maria also believed that a person who grows up with several languages, becomes more open minded. Although she had grown up bilingual herself, she considered her German to have deficits, since she had forgotten much of it after moving to Chile, when she started to focus only on Spanish (see CL1:2 under personal experience). She considered that there were more advantages to multilingualism than disadvantages and she felt that multilingual students tended to be more flexible, and learn additional languages quicker than their monolingual peers. As a disadvantage, she mentioned that multilingualism meant a double work load for the students since they have to learn everything in two languages. In some subjects the vocabulary could become rather difficult as well:

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[32] You have to have a good command of both German and Spanish in order to attend that training.

Yes, and as a disadvantage, well, for example, subjects like natural studies, where the subject matter is quite difficult, and this is in German, well, of course, that is even more difficult. It is quite difficult in terms of the vocabulary, in both languages. Ehm, but I see more advantages than disadvantages really, the children get used to it [the multilingualism]. (CL1:4)

Reading and multilingualism

The classes in this school were jointly planned by the teaching staff of each grade level. The different subjects were then divided in smaller units. In German, there were the smaller units *Schreiben* (writing)*, Lesen* (reading), *Sprechen* (speaking) and *Hören* (listening). Those units were further divided into detailed tasks, planned in a schedule for the whole year. The hours that should be dedicated to each topic were given as well. The planning document was written in German. At the time of my visit, the plan for reading comprehension listed reading and understanding poems, rhymes and songs.

The students with German as a home language did not participate in the German classes, they had separate classes only for them. All students were asked to read in German for 15 minutes every morning. They could choose their own book, but it was not allowed to be a comic. They also had two *Pflichtlektüre* per year (books that they had to read). Frau Maria stated that they sometimes had book presentations (this was however not listed in the aforementioned detailed planning document).

As mentioned above, the teaching in German and Spanish was kept separate. Students were working without a textbook in German at the time of my visit, since the staff had not found any suitable one. Textbooks for German as a L2 were not welcomed on a political level since they contained a more simple, lower level of German. Unfortunately the textbooks used for students in Germany would be too advanced for these students.

Frau Maria stated that she worked a lot with reading, she considered it important for learning. The children of today, however, would read less and less and therefore she viewed it as vital to work with reading in class:

I try to let them read a lot in class, since many children read very/well, that with the reading comprehension is an issue, but also in Spanish. The children read less and less and they hardly understand anything about what they are reading. I therefore try to let them read a lot in class and also to underline things everything, the colors, which you could observe in class. (CL1:5)

Frau Maria declared that she had observed that the students in their school learned to read quicker than in a Chilean state school, and that the writing would also improve quicker than in the Chilean schools.

5.4.2 Summarizing the field experience in Chile

In Chile, one classroom was visited on one occasion, following which, the teacher was interviewed.

Personal experience with multilingualism

The teacher in CL1 had spent an extended time abroad. She also had significant personal experience with multilingualism, growing up herself with two languages, and multilingualism and second language acquisition being part of her training.

School set-up regarding multilingualism

The school was bilingual with two languages of instruction, German and Spanish. An immersion teaching model (see Section 3.2.1) was used, offering content-based L2 instruction of German in some subjects. There were no documents or policies regarding multilingualism in the school. The communication with the parents had to be at all times in both German and Spanish, thus all written communication was in both languages. At this meso level, the findings show a major use or implementation of the students' home language, since two languages were included as the languages of instruction.

Beliefs regarding multilingualism

Even though the teacher showed an interest in other languages and cultures, and also used two languages on a daily basis, she had not reflected much upon issues regarding multilingualism, inside or outside a classroom. She did not consider herself multilingual, since her knowledge of German was not perfect.

Reading and multilingualism

The teacher stated that reading was of utmost importance and much time was planned for reading and activities around the reading. The students were asked to read quietly to themselves several times a week and the teacher also read out loud to them. Only one language was used, depending on the subject being taught.

No specific emphasis was placed on multilingualism and the students were not asked to bring books written in languages other than Spanish or German to school. If the students did not know the meaning of a word in German, they were allowed to look the words up in Spanish dictionaries or to ask what it meant.

In conclusion, the findings show no major implementation of the students' home language at the micro level. Rather the school's two languages were intended to be kept as separate as possible.

5.5   Steps taken for the first analysis procedure

As described in Section 4.6.2, coding was used in this study to assign the material to different categories. The criterion of segmentation used in the first analysis procedure (1st AP) was a thematic one (Schreier, 2014), meaning that topic (theme) changes signal the end of one unit and the beginning of another. Thematic criteria is often more useful in qualitative research, even though formal criteria (such as words, sentences or paragraphs) are more clear cut (Schreier, 2012). The advantages of the thematic criteria are that they fit better with the coding frame. Next, the steps of the 1st AP are described.

Step one

In the first step of the 1st AP, the complete material from the interviews was initially examined in paper form. A first selection process took place, in which the material was broken down according to case (interviewee). In accordance with Flick (2014, p. 175) material that seemed irrelevant (to the research questions) was left out. This may sound like an easy task, but the distinction between irrelevant and relevant material is not as crystal clear as it may seem. Once material is classified as irrelevant, it will no longer be a part of the analysis. Therefore, it is important to err on the safe side and to have a broad category of relevant material. In this step, all parts that struck me as especially relevant for the research questions were highlighted and paraphrased (summarized).

Step two

In the following second step the material considered relevant was assigned into categories, which, in this context, is called coding (Hussy *et al.*, 2013):

> **Coding** [bold in original text] is a very flexible method for analyzing statement content. Through practically sticking a concluding "label" to the statement, the meaning of relevant

text passages is recognized. The coding can occur in a rather concrete manner and close to the material or it can be rather abstract. (p. 153)

At the beginning of the coding, a coding frame ("the heart of the method", (Schreier, 2014), has to be established, in order to structure the coding units. In this analysis procedure, this was done according to a subsumption approach[33] (Schreier, 2012). Here, I used the software MAXQDA, which facilitated the handling and enabled structuring the material, giving the possibility, for example, to search for words or to write digital memos (short notes) to codes. The software further offers possibilities such as grouping codes by colors, quickly changing statements from one code to another or visualizing patterns, which is an integrative part of today's research, leaving behind the polarized debate (Crowley *et al.*, 2002) on whether to use such software in qualitative research or not. However, it is important to bear in mind that software is a tool for analysis, and not to be seen as an analysis method in itself (Kuckartz, 2010), which was avoided in this study.

During this step, two main thematic categories were built, deductively creating a concept-driven main coding frame, drawing on the research questions about which the study searched for more information, combined with one main category created inductively, drawing on the data of the teachers regarding biography and formation.

Step three and four

Thereafter, the main coding of the material started. Here steps three and four were interrelated. Shortly after my visits, I started with the first case (interviewee), chronologically (DE1[34]). This was coded through before starting with the next case, since coding one case (step three) determines the subcategories (step four), which were thus formed inductively, based on the material. This procedure meant that when a relevant passage was found in the material, it was given a provisional name: a subcategory was created. The next relevant passage was then examined. If it fitted into an already existing subcategory, it was added to that one (subsumed). If it didn't, a new subcategory was created. This procedure was repeated until all passages that were considered relevant

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[33] Schreier (2012, p. 88): "A subsumption is especially useful if you have already decided upon your main categories and now want to generate the subcategories." In this approach, firstly you examine relevant passages for pertinent concepts. Following, you decide whether the concept is new or not. If it is, it is turned into a category, otherwise, it is passed to an already existing (sub)category.

[34] The pilot study was later not further analyzed but used as an occasion for practicing the coding procedure.

were coded and a point of saturation (Saldaña, 2009) was reached: that is, no new subcategories were found from my perspective, which would have brought new information. During this procedure, sometimes the data in its paper format was read through again, and the audio recordings listened to. The field notes were consulted when I wanted to remember the contexts or my thoughts at that moment.

This process was, as was the aforementioned transcription process, replete with decision-making at every step. I was constantly faced with the question of whether to subsume a segment of the material under already existing subcategories or whether to create a new subcategory. If one segment was subsumed too quickly, the danger was that something important would get lost sight of. If, on the other hand, I was too reluctant to subsume segments, and kept creating subcategories, the number of categories would increase rapidly and the danger of getting lost in the data was imminent. The more subcategories that I created, the harder it was to keep track of them all and at the end I saw myself forced to reduce them.

This procedure resulted in a coding frame structure as shown below in Fig. 23.
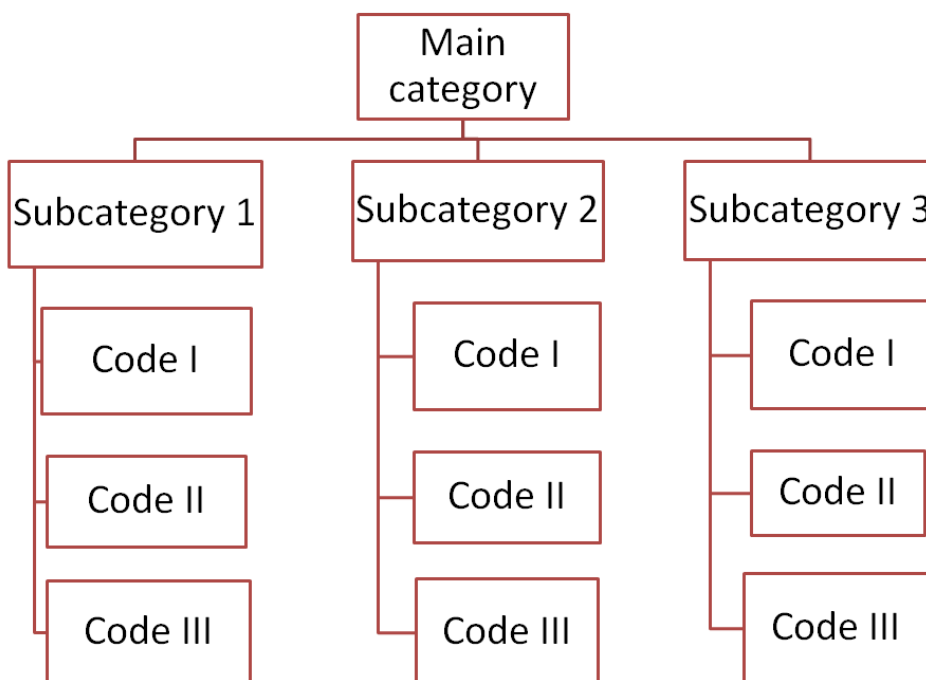
Fig. 23: Coding frame structure[35]

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[35] Created by the author. Given the complexity of the established coding, an example is shown in this figure.

My intention was to assign one segment only to one subcategory, in order not to have limitless potential possibilities of coding (Flick, 2016). This was not always possible for all segments though, since statements may express several things at the same time.

When establishing the names of the categories, several difficulties arose. The name could be too close to the text. It could also be too detailed and thus not to be found in other cases. The abstraction level of the codes could be too divergent and thus complicate the analysis. It could be difficult to separate the codes from each other and a distinct separation was not always immediately possible. Therefore, the names of the categories were adapted during the analysis process. Segments that seemed relevant for the research questions, but could not be assigned a category at that point, were added to a general one under each of the subcategories (a "residual" category).

Step five
Once the first case was entirely coded, the coding of the remaining cases followed. If material was found, which could not be assigned any subcategory, a new subcategory was created. After the overall coding, the codes in the general categories were looked through again. I tried to determine what the codes had in common. In some cases, some additional categories were created, and in others, some segments could be applied to already existing categories. Some segments, however, remained in the general categories, if they were considered as important for the analysis, but too diverse to create a subcategory.

The category names were described in memos in MAXQDA. The code names, the descriptions, key examples[36] and number of codes are given in a codebook in order to facilitate the overview (see Appendix F).

Step six
After the coding process was completed for all the cases, the entire data had been structured and systemized. Here an intermediate step, a case-related thematic summary, was added to compress and reduce the material, giving an overview of which parts were especially relevant for the research questions. This summary gave an overview, which was important for establishing the key topics needed for the following analysis procedures.

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[36] The key examples are given in the original languages, since those were maintained during coding and translated later.

Step seven

In a final step of the 1st AP, a descriptive analysis took place. This had already started earlier during the coding, memos of thoughts about the material were written. Further, the case-related thematic summary constituted a good basis for a case summary, showing the major issues of each one. An in-depth interpretation of each case took place, after reading the transcripts carefully again. The memos were read through for this interpretation and the coding was supporting this step.

The above described steps in this 1st AP are illustrated below in Fig. 24.
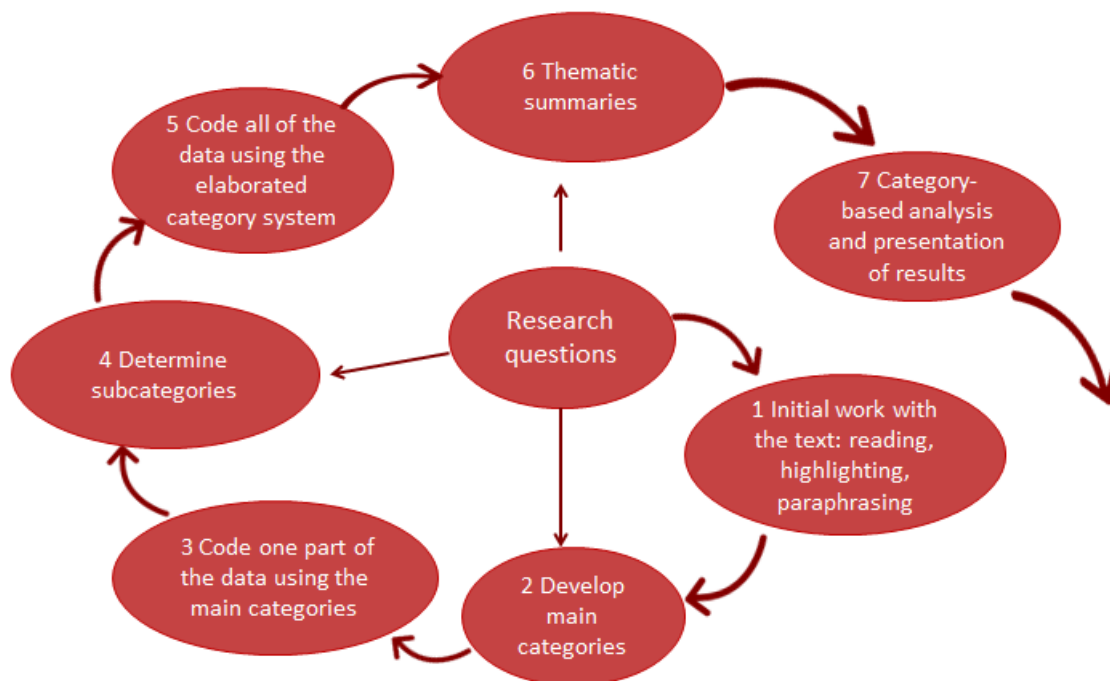
Fig. 24: Steps in the 1st AP[37] (structuring)

Repetition of step four

As stated above, these steps are not to be seen as a linear process, but as an iterative one, where the steps were repeated consistently, especially step four, which was repeated in order to evaluate the coding frame. The coding process was therefore laid aside for about two months after the first coding of the complete material and then it was coded again. This enables a comparison across points in time (Schreier, 2012), which was applied, since there was only one person involved in the direct coding of the

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[37] Developed by the author, drawing on Kuckartz (2014b, p. 70).

material. Schreier (2012) proposes this step for quality criteria, providing a type of reliability also called internal reliability (Bryman, 2012). The goal for evaluating the internal reliability is consistency. Reliability is however not an "all-or-none", a "yes-or-no" type of criterion. The question is not whether the coding frame is reliable or not, but to what extent it is reliable (Schreier, 2012); this is a matter of degree.[38]

In this repetition, I thus started the coding from scratch, just maintaining the categories (main categories and subcategories). A major part of the segments (78%)[39] were coded to the same category as in the first coding round. In some cases, not the exact identical segments were coded. This could derive from the fact that thematic criteria were used (formal criteria, like a sentence being one segment, enables more distinct coding). It could also be that the category definition was unclear. I further noted a difference in my coding procedure. There was a tendency to code shorter segments in the first coding round and longer ones in the second, including more of the context around the statements as well. There was also the case where some subcategories overlapped. These minor issues were 'fine-tuned' and 'streamlined' when standardizing the coding.

The categories

After the adaptions in the repetition of step four, the three main categories remained. As stated above, the categories draw on the research questions and are thus *beliefs regarding multilingualism* and *implementation of the students' LWMUL when teaching reading*. The categories were built on the material itself. As this study has a qualitative approach, the focus is not on giving statistical value to the numbers of codings under the categories, but those can indicate a tendency, in which direction the statements went. The following different categories and their meaning are explained in detail.[40]

First category

In the first category, issues regarding beliefs and the three subcategories *Implications for the teaching*, *Implications for the student* and *Meaning multilingualism* (see Fig. 25) were structured. The two subcategories regarding implications describe where the multilingualism is mentioned as having an impact on the students or on the teaching in the

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[38] There will be more on quality criteria in qualitative research in this study in Section 4.7.4.

[39] This percentage of interceding agreement states from an analysis with MAXQDA.

[40] All the categories can be found in the codebook, which can be downloaded from the homepage of Logos Verlag.

classroom. The third one, meaning multilingualism, describes what multilingualism meant to the teachers.
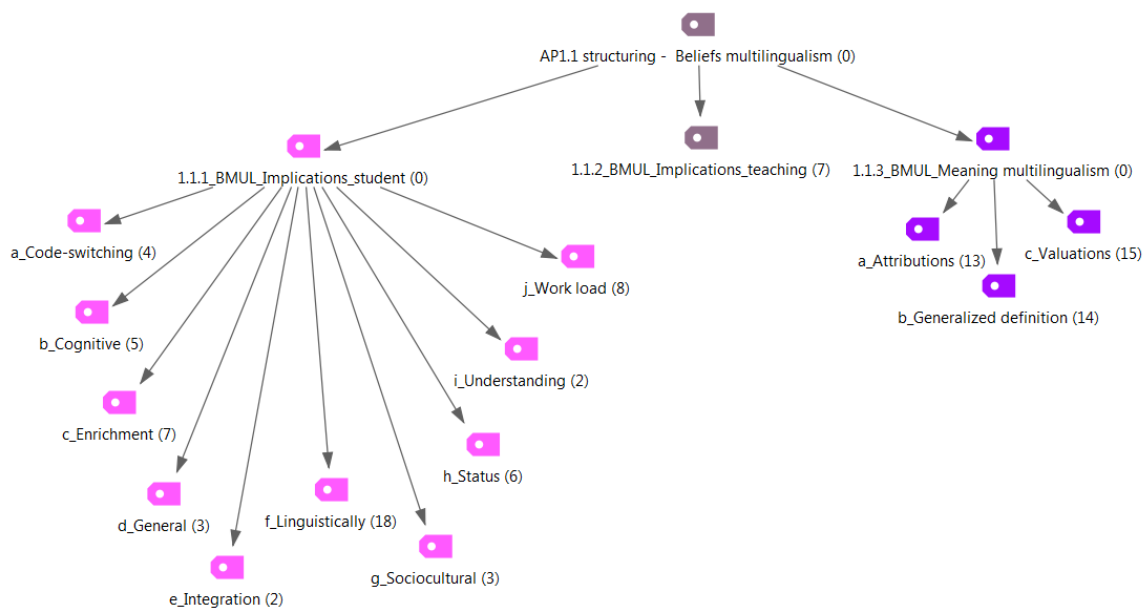
Fig. 25: First category in the 1st AP (structuring): beliefs about multilingualism

Second category

In the second category, issues regarding the implementation in the classrooms were structured. This category was built of two subcategories: *didactical*, and *organizational*, meaning which form the implementation took. Under the first subcategory, *didactical,* didactical methodological issues (such as adapting the level or reading in the home language) were coded (see Fig. 26).
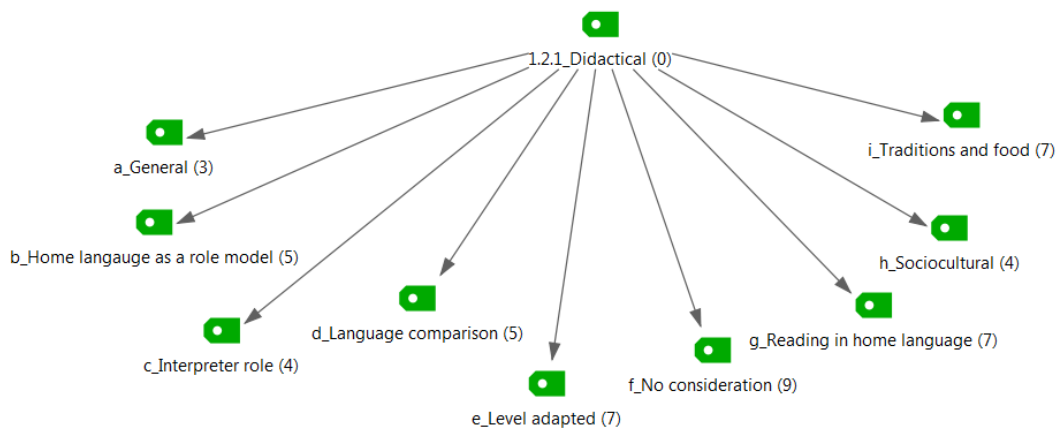
Fig. 26: Second category in the 1st AP (structuring): implementation LWMUL - 1st subcategory - 'didactical'

The second subcategory, the *organizational* category (see Fig. 27), included organizational issues, such as extra classes for the majority language, or the teachers having knowledge of the students' home language.
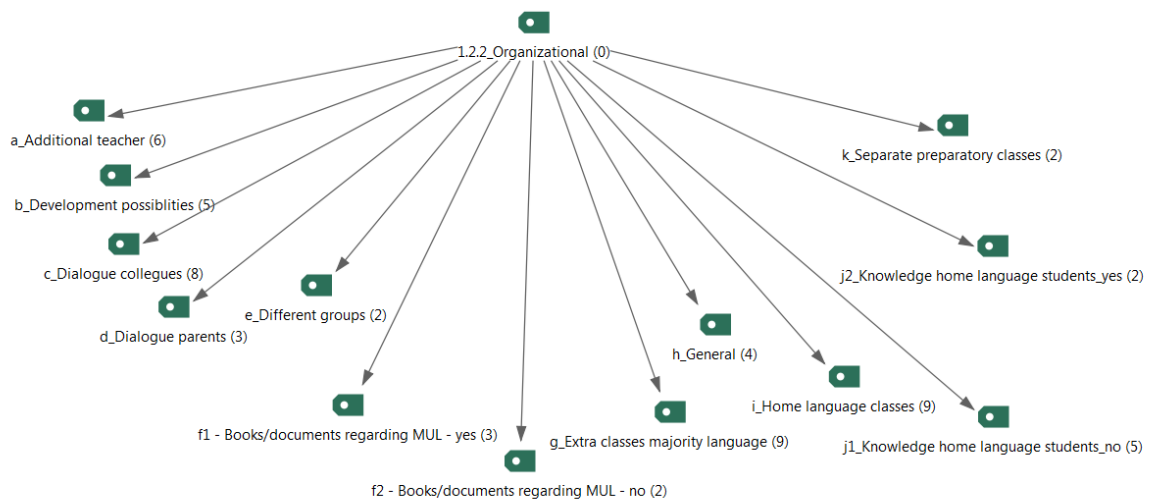
Fig. 27: Second category in the 1st AP (structuring): implementation LWMUL - 2nd subcategory 'organizational'

Third category

In the third category, issues called *key data - teacher* (see Fig. 28) regarding key data of the teacher, such as biography and formation, were structured. This category focuses

on the teacher's educational background (subcategory *professionalization reg. MUL*) as well as *personal experience* with multilingualism.
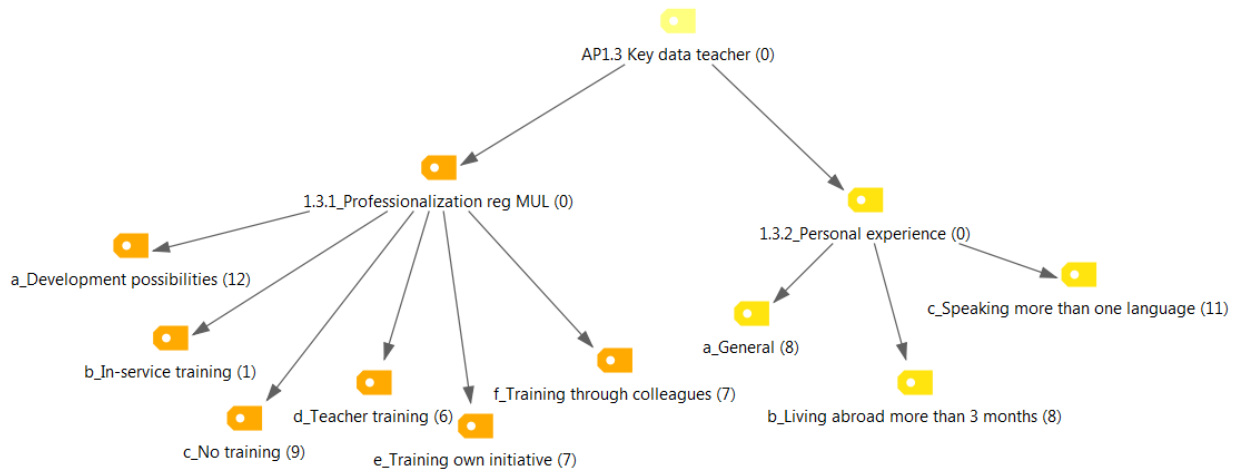
Fig. 28: Third category in the 1ˢᵗ AP (structuring): key data of the teachers

In summary, this 1ˢᵗ AP was time-consuming, but since the data was from five teachers and not more, it was possible to maintain the same procedure for all five cases.

As mentioned in Section 4.7.4, the coding process was peer-debriefed on four occasions at workshops in an internal interdisciplinary research group at the PH Weingarten (*Forschungswerkstatt Qualitative Inhaltsanalyse*).

The following analysis procedures draw on the findings derived from this 1ˢᵗ AP.

5.6   Concluding remarks on the first analysis procedure

In this chapter the findings from the participant observations and the interviews were introduced in the 1ˢᵗ AP. This procedure structured the material which enabled an overview of the data. Using one specified analysis method might give the impression that the analysis can be made easily but the fact is that there are many different approaches to qualitative content analysis, in Germany alone. If an international context is added, even more approaches can be found. Therefore, it has to be highlighted that it was not clear from the beginning which steps would be necessary. The final aim with the analysis was to construct types, shedding light on the research issues. During the analysis procedure, I identified the need of an intermediate analysis procedure (constituting the

second analysis procedure, see Section 6, 2nd AP) between the 1st AP and the type construction (later named the third analysis procedure, 3rd AP).

Following, a 3rd AP, a type construction (see Section 7), was introduced, which implied a continuation of the previous analysis procedures. It is also further important to understand the analysis process as a hermeneutic circle, not as a linear process (see Section 4.6.2). The stated steps were repeated and refined through several cycles, implying changes during the whole process.

The complex interaction in the multilayered contexts of the study visualized in Chapter 2 was made clear in the 1st AP, providing several important aspects on teaching in multilingual settings. In Section 2.4, it was stated that linguistic diversity was considered at a macro level in all three countries of this study. Linguistic diversity could also be identified in the material from the three different settings visited, with students with more than one home language in the classes.[41] At a meso level in the curricula of all the three settings (see Sections 2.4.1.1, 2.4.2.1 and 2.4.3.1 respectively), linguistic diversity was mentioned, and it was stated that it should be taken into account, e.g. in the German curriculum (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004, p. 64): "Language learning at school must take account of the linguistic diversity in society".

During the observations, special attention was given to issues regarding linguistic diversity and reading at the micro level in the classroom. It should be noted that the main focus of the research was not on the underlying didactical method or theory but to describe the actual practice in the classroom with the aim to highlight how or whether the students' LWMUL is implemented in practice. The observations were important for understanding the contexts in the interviews and for the later analysis. In the interviews, the teachers' personal experience with multilingualism and the school set-up regarding multilingualism were illustrated. It was found that all the teachers knew more than one language. One had grown up with several languages in her home. Moreover, the teachers' beliefs regarding multilingualism were reflected upon. Several statements indicated beliefs being multilingual required the ability to speak more than one language fluently.

Reading was stated to be of utmost importance in all the schools visited. Even though the importance of acknowledging linguistic diversity in teaching was stated at the macro

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[41] This was also one of the preconditions for the selection of schools and classes, see Section 4.2.1.

and meso levels (as seen in Section 2.4), the findings indicate that no major implementation of the students' home language took place regarding reading at the micro level (in the classrooms). Some teachers expressed some insecurity regarding linguistic diversity, as they had not had any training on that issue.

The participant observations and the interviews were of similar length in all cases except in Chile (see Section 4.8 for an overview of the material); all providing a snapshot of the interaction between teachers' and students in school. However, the author's behavior during the field experience has to be reflected upon, especially regarding the conduct of the interviews. On some occasions, the interviewees could have been given more space to answer, I could have waited longer before saying something myself. The effect that the presence of a multilingual researcher could have has been discussed in Section 4.7.2.

During the 1st AP, the key topics with a strong connection to the research questions were singled out (see Tab. 10) for further analysis procedures.

Beliefs regarding MUL	- Meaning of MUL
	- Implications
	- Workload for students
Implementation of MUL	- Dialogue with colleagues
	- Home language: resource or deficit
	- Levels
	- Guidelines and policies
Key data of the teachers	- Biography and formation
	- Personal experience with MUL
	- Training regarding MUL

Tab. 10: Key topics after the 1st AP

The three key topics identified in the 1st AP were: the **beliefs** regarding multilingualism (meaning, implications and workload for the students to develop their multilingualism), the **implementation** regarding the multilingualism in the classroom (dialogue with colleagues, home language used as a resource or deficit, the different levels in class, as well as guidelines and policies) and the **key data of the teachers** (biography and formation, own personal experience alongside training regarding multilingualism). These

key topics were used as a framework for the continuing analysis process which will be introduced in following Chapters 6 and 7.

6 Second analysis procedure: evaluative coding

This chapter describes the 2nd AP, which involves an evaluative coding, thus narrowing the focus towards the topics in the research questions: the teachers' beliefs about multilingualism, the implementation of the students' LWMUL when teaching reading in a multilingual setting; how beliefs and implementation are related; and whether type of beliefs and implementation of teaching strategies vary according to different teaching models.

The evaluative coding is a widespread coding method and different forms exist. Mayring (2014) (see Section 4.6.1) describes this form of coding as a scaling procedure, in which different scale values of variables are set. For this study, the approach of Kuckartz (2014b) was applied (see Section 4.6). He describes evaluative qualitative text analysis as another basic method of systematic qualitative data analysis. Unlike the 1st AP (see Section 5.5), which was a thematic analysis, focusing on identification and systematization by analyzing topics and subtopics and how they are related, this evaluative coding assesses, classifies and evaluates the data. In this process, the researcher's language and interpretation skills are further highlighted (Kuckartz, 2014b, 2014b) and the abstraction level is raised.

6.1 Steps taken

In the 2nd AP, the main steps from the 1st AP (see Section 5.5) were repeated:
- Working with the data (text)
- Building categories
- Coding
- Analyzing
- Presenting results

Some differences between the 1st and the 2nd AP should be highlighted. In the 1st AP, subcategories were created using topics and subtopics, but in this 2nd AP, this was done differently. The evaluative coding did not involve reading the transcriptions in paper form again. Instead, the existing transcriptions were reused for another analysis in MAXQDA.

In this procedure, the findings from the observations and the interviews with the teachers (at micro level) were considered.

Step one

At first, the categories were defined by drawing on the data, especially the key topics from the 1st AP (see Section 5.6), thereby considering the research questions (see Section 1.1). Two main categories were thus set deductively: *beliefs regarding multilingualism* and *implementation*.

The **first main category** was *beliefs regarding multilingualism,* beliefs being of major interest in this study, and part of the research questions. Beliefs were also to be found in a major part of the statements regarding multilingualism.

The **second main category** was *implementation*, also being part of the research questions. Further, a major part of the statements regarding the practice in the classroom dealt with the implementation in class.

Step two

In the following second step, text passages were identified as relevant and coded. This step draws on the previous codings (built thematically) from the 1st AP (see Section 5.5), thus saving time. The codings in this evaluative procedure did not integrate all the thematic categories from the 1st AP, but the identification of passages considered relevant was simplified as result of the structuration in the 1st AP.

Step three

In step three, the characteristics for the evaluative categories were defined and assigned. As seen above, the first main category was set as *beliefs regarding multilingualism.* In order to reconstruct these beliefs, particularly the questions in the first two topic areas, *Personal experience with multilingualism* and *Beliefs on multilingualism* (see Appendixes A and B), were identified as suitable subcategories. Drawing on the continuum of beliefs (see Section 3.1.3), it was differentiated deductively between three different characteristics in the first main category which were used to build the categories:

a) *Dualistic:* text segments showing on beliefs regarding multilingualism, in which it is indicated that the languages within one person would be separated and those languages would not interact on a major degree.

b) *Uncertain:* in these text segments there is an uncertainty in the beliefs about the meaning of and where to situate the multilingualism, and what it implies for the multilingual people?

c) *Dynamic*: these text segments show a more holistic view of beliefs about multilingualism - that languages are interconnected and interact in a way that is complex, but which does not imply interference.

The second main category was *implementation*, meaning how the students' LWMUL was implemented in classroom practice when teaching reading. In order to reconstruct the implementation, particularly the questions in the third and fourth topic areas, *School set-up regarding multilingualism* and *Reading and multilingualism* (see Appendixes A and B), were referenced. Here, three characteristics were defined deductively (drawing on Weinert's reactions to diversity, see Section 3.2.2) and used as categories to identify whether the students' LWMUL was being implemented or not in the teaching:

a) *Static*: no consideration is taken in class regarding the students' LWMUL.

b) *Inquisitive*: consideration is taken in class regarding the students' LWMUL, but not due to evidence-based decisions but more due to the teacher's own interests and curiosity as well as organizational reasons.

c) *Active*: consideration is taken in class regarding multilingualism as a result of evidence-based decisions or due to dynamic beliefs, including the students' other languages and their MULR.

Additionally, the following two characteristics were identified in the text segments, regarding the short- or long-term nature of the implementation, and thus used as two additional categories:

d) *Intermittent:* consideration is taken in class regarding multilingualism on a temporarily, short-term basis.

e) *Continual:* consideration is taken in class regarding multilingualism on a long-term basis.

The aim with adding these quantitative features was to get an overview of the nature of implementation and to visualize any tendencies in the implementation.[1] In this manner, the coding frame for the 2nd AP was created.

Step four

Next, with the software MAXQDA the thematically relevant passages could be compiled into a table, which gave an overview of the included codings and served as starting point for the analytical work in this procedure.

Step five

This step included the evaluative coding of the entire data set, including all five cases. During this step, the categories were adjusted from the material that was coded, giving the final categories.

Step six

In the final step of this 2nd AP, the focus of analysis continued, with the descriptive presentation of the categories and documentation of the process to build them. Once again, the memos from the coding were used, as well as the compiled list for an overview of key statements. The steps taken in this procedure are to be viewed as a hermeneutic process (see also 4.6.2). For an overview of the steps in this 2nd AP, see Fig. 29 below.

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[1] The aim was not to give an exact number of occasions where the implementation was on a short or long-term basis. This study is a qualitative case study, with a small number of participants and such numbers would thus not have any statistical relevance.
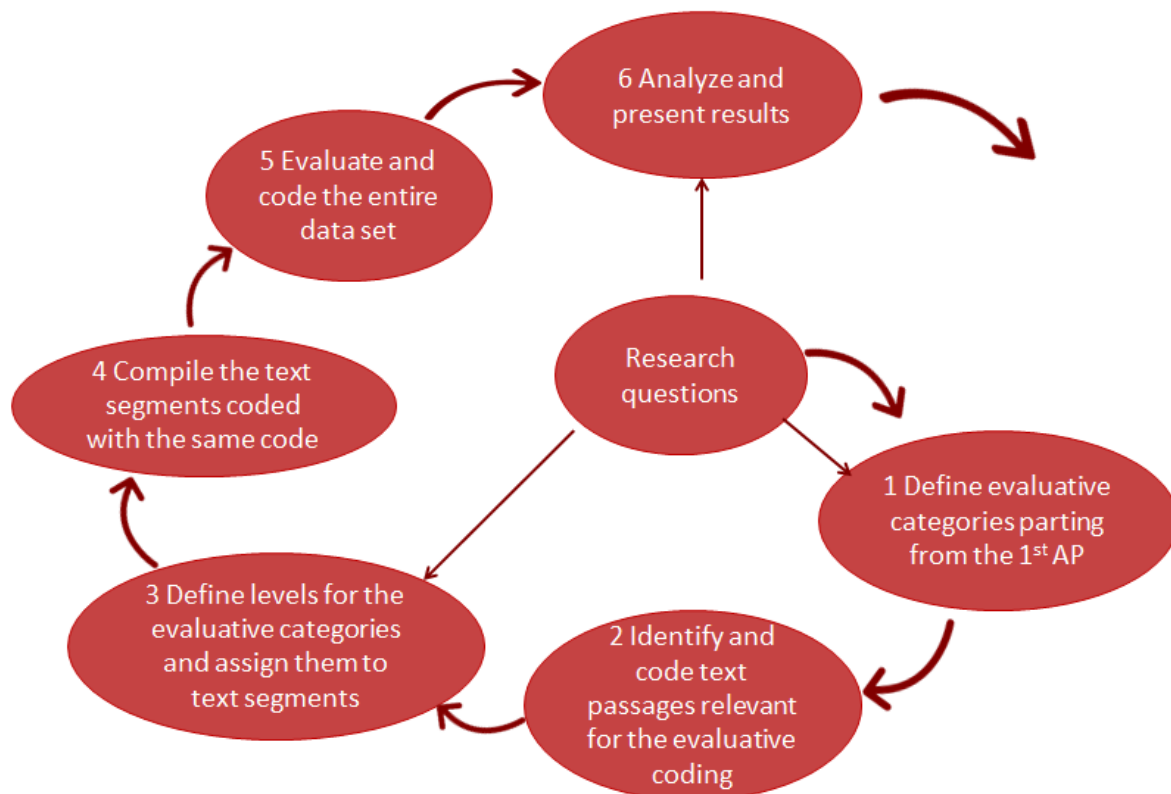
Fig. 29: Steps taken in the 2nd AP (evaluative)

Out of the above procedure, a clear structure was developed, as can be seen in Fig. 30, below:

AP2 - evaluative coding
- 2.1_Beliefs
  - a_Dualistic
  - b_Uncertain
  - c_Dynamic
- 2.2 - 1 Implementation_manner
  - a_Static
  - b_Inquisitive
  - c_Active
- 2.2 - 2 Implementation_time span
  - d_Intermittent
  - e_Continual
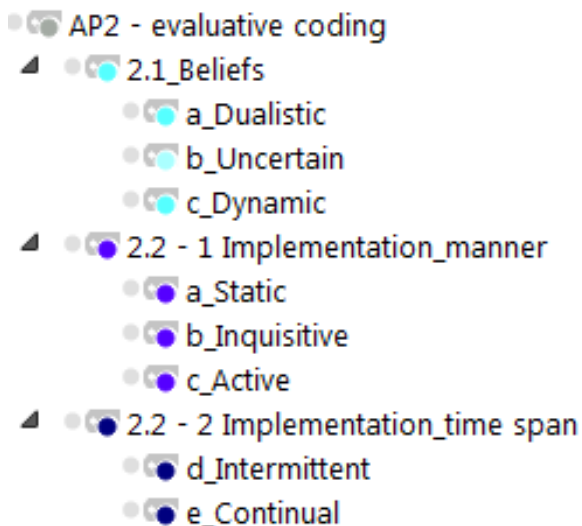
Fig. 30: Categories in the 2nd AP (evaluative)

These categories are reconstructed in the following two sections.

6.1.1 Reconstructing a continuum: dualistic, uncertain and dynamic beliefs

After the 2nd AP, the findings in the first main category, *beliefs regarding multilingualism* (mainly dealing with the micro level), show that a significant part of the teachers' beliefs are of a dualistic nature. Drawing on the categories from the 2nd AP, a reconstruction is performed deductively in an in-depth analysis, in reference to the continuum of beliefs introduced in Chapter 3.

a) *Dualistic*

In this study, statements were found showing beliefs regarding multilingualism which indicate that the languages within one person would be separated and that the languages do not interact on a major degree. The beliefs go in direction towards a thinking which indicates that the presence of more than one language would be negative for the individual's language acquisition (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017), since it would imply interferences for learning the language of instruction.

A definition on what multilingualism would be was often stated in terms emphasizing the competence level of the included languages. In particular, the German teachers indicated that to be multilingual meant that the level of all languages should be very high, as high in the L1 ('native-like'). This could be observed in statement DE2:2 above (p. 144), where a multilingual person is defined as "someone that speaks a language at a native speaker level". This belief was expressed repeatedly (also see DE3:1 for example, p. 151).

Several examples in the empirical data were found which show that academic language[2] was a natural focus for the teachers. This can be exemplified through one teacher who admitted not knowing how well the students speak their home language.[3] She highlighted though, that they could speak the academic language (Swedish) very well:

> I don't quite know how good they really <u>are</u> in/Persian and Spanish. I don't know what they know, but Dolores and Hisham speak Swedish very well. (SV1:3)

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[2] The academic language or the language of instruction is the language spoken in class and it is German and Swedish respectively.

[3] It should be noted that this conversation took place in the very beginning of the term and the teacher had had the students for only a few weeks.

The following quote also shows a significant focus on knowledge of German knowledge of the multilingual child, while their other languages are not given any major thought:

> Ehm, we had thought/planned was to integrate Besjana there [in the separate class for learning German], but that's already (..) Well, there are children, which, well (..) need more support and I think that Besjana and actually all the other multilingual children [in this class] are now doing well in class. (DE2:9)

Dualistic beliefs such as the aforementioned can lead to separating students with the same home language, believing that they will speak their home language too much instead of learning the language of instruction (as seen in DE3).

In these dualistic beliefs, the perception of multilingualism is of someone with a perfect command of all her/his languages. Monolingualism is seen as the normality. Code-switching or translanguaging is not encouraged, since this does not fall within the monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2008) and does not fit with the idea of languages as separate systems, being developed linearly. This could, for instance, be observed in the Chilean case, where the Chilean teacher corrected herself the only time during my visit when she herself code-switched, using a Spanish word within a German sentence (see Section 5.4.1.2).

This fails to recognize the complex nature of multilingualism and further assumes that the legitimate practices are those enacted by monolinguals (García, 2009). The notion that the languages scaffold each other and that reading in one language could stimulate reading in another is not present within this belief.

b) *Uncertain*

In the text segments coded as *uncertain,* beliefs which push the teachers to expand their actual perspectives can be distinguished. The notion of where to situate multilingualism is uncertain, what does it imply for multilingual people? A curiosity was explicitly articulated in some cases, where some teachers expressed that my visits nudged them into a new thinking, giving them new perspectives. This can be visualized by the following quote where one teacher, after my first visit, took home a book about multilingual classrooms:

> I find it very appealing to read, it has a nice tone, good language, also linguistically comprehensible anyway, even though the thickness [of the book] of course is a bit (..) but I read some chapters, Italian really interested me, but then it was too much with the sounds

and all. That goes too deep for me. In the beginning I thought, well, this is something that I have to read more closely. I only had it for one day and I skimmed it but that is, what I now say "Well, there I got nudged" and that will continue to interest me. (DE3:10)

This curiosity is shown as well in intents to implement the students' home languages in different ways, such as comparing words in different languages or focusing on different cultures, traditions or foods, occasionally. This, however, does not include reading in other languages in any major way, even though some occasional intentions can be distinguished. Those initiatives principally come from the students themselves, such as bringing a book in the home language but mainly if the home language is a high-status one, such as English.

If their home language is a high-status one, such as English (which is as well integrated in the curricula), the student can be assigned a role model position, being encouraged to read out loud (for the 'right' pronunciation). Traditions or foods can also be integrated, here broadening the interest into and (mainly) including all students' home cultures.

The teachers in this study generally did not have any special training on multilingualism and did not consider themselves as having enough knowledge. Even if training has been taken, such as in the case of Frau Vogel, this can lead to a lack of confidence in professional competence as well as uncertainty in the beliefs:

> Yes, but this was so limited, that I would say, that I don't have any special training for multilingual classes. (DE2:10)

A curiosity can be further visualized by the following quote by Lotta (SV1) who highlights the need for training regarding that competence, when asked which one could be needed when teaching reading in a multilingual setting:

> Well, one has a perception about how difficult it can be [to understand texts]. I believe that this is important. Then one has to have, one has to have some, one has to have training on how one/well, what has been working in research? (SV1:4)

c) *Dynamic*

The text segments coded as dynamic show a more holistic view with beliefs regarding multilingualism which indicate beliefs that the languages a person speaks are interconnected, interacting together in a complex way, but without negative effects. The statements coded as dynamic were significantly fewer than those coded as dualistic, but still

some examples could be found, such as Malin who expressed beliefs of language as a multifaceted matter:

> Language can be so much I think when you speak about multilingualism. For instance, for me, I can imagine pictures and body language and, such languages we have as well. (SV2:6)

However, as mentioned above, such dynamic beliefs were rather an exception in the statements and the findings tend to show dualistic beliefs at this micro level.

In both the 'dualistic' as well as the 'uncertain' category, beliefs seem to be given greater weight within professional competence (see Section 3.3.2), than in the 'dynamic' category, in which the beliefs are stronger sustained by professional knowledge.

6.1.2 Reconstructing implementation approaches: static, inquisitive, active, intermittent and continual

After the 2nd AP, the findings in the second main category, *implementation* of the students' LWMUL, show a more homogeneous picture than those regarding the beliefs, which varied to a greater degree. Here meso and micro levels are interdependent in their impact.

For the *implementation* five characteristics were defined regarding whether the students' LWMUL was implemented or not when teaching reading in a multilingual setting. Firstly, three characteristics regarding the manner of implementation were used: a) static, b) inquisitive and c) active; and two regarding the time span and time frame: d) intermittent and e) continual.

a) *Static*

Text segments were coded into this characteristic if no special attention was given to the linguistic diversity in class, such as if the teacher did not know the home language of the students; if there was no major reflection on multilingualism and how it could be implemented in class; or if this was usually not discussed with colleagues or the parents. Such implementation was identified as a main characteristic in the classrooms.

The data shows that the teaching was seldom adapted to the multilingual students. When asked directly if they changed their way of teaching due to the multilingual nature of their class, the teachers mainly stated they did not. One teacher said:

> Not that I've changed my procedures. No. I use the same procedures as I still have those [students] who have good comprehension. Considering them being multilingual. (SV1:5)

The home language of the students was not considered a relevant factor in the class-rooms. It was generally not known which languages the students would use at home. This could then be discussed in class for my visit, such as seen in DE2:04.

One further example of a static implementation of the students' home language could be observed in the fact that no cooperation existed between the class teachers and the mother tongue instructors:

> No, we don't cooperate in that manner[4] [when asked if they cooperated with the mother tongue instruction teachers regarding the subjects taught in class]. (SV1:6)

There were several examples of measures outside of the classroom, such as additional classes in the language of instruction (German, Swedish) or mother tongue instruction. These activities were considered as static implementation, since they were not implemented in the regular mainstream class, but as remedial courses, mainly to "encourage children who grow up in multilingual homes to fit into the school's dominant expectation of monolingualism" (Fürstenau, 2016, p. 78). As stated above, no cooperation took place between the class teachers and the mother tongue instructors.

Further, a connection between the beliefs and the implementation could be distinguished, the beliefs forming part of the professional competence of the teachers (see Section 3.3.2) and being used for the implementation. Dualistic beliefs such as the aforementioned, which imply that the different languages do not interact, but instead 'steal' resources from each other. This could lead to an implementation, in which scaffolding concepts, considering that those students could support each other from their different knowledge level, were mainly not present. This can be observed in the following case, in which children with the same home language were separated and placed in different classes:

> Then we have noticed though, that when there are too many children with the same mother tongue in one class, they want to sit together and speak in their own mother tongue, that is why we decided to separate them and to divide them into different classes. (DE3:11)

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[4] Actually, no cooperation existed. The class teachers and the mother tongue instruction teachers normally did not meet or even speak with each other, since their hours at school were different.

In such a case, the home languages are not taken into consideration in teaching, instead the intention is to reduce the linguistic diversity in the classroom, since the beliefs assume that the languages steal resources from each other.

b) *Inquisitive*

In the text segments coded as inquisitive, consideration was taken regarding the students' LWMUL when teaching reading. This was not done due to evidence-based decisions but rather by drawing on the teacher's own interest or curiosity. This was manifested in language awareness approaches such as comparing languages (which was implemented in curricula), even if not mentioned explicitly.

Inquisitive reflections could also lead to initiating a training course on teachers' own initiative or reading text books on multilingualism or language acquisition, as in the following quote:

> Well, as you're suggesting/I, for example, I buy a lot of books on my own that I like, for instance Pauline Gibbon's books and Hajer's books and well/those books that I read on my own, I buy out of my own pocket. (SV2:7)

The schools are generally not the initiators to such approaches, rather the material shows that they did not initiate anything in this direction, which might lead to the teacher feeling isolated on this issue:

> Nothing that we have received from the school administration and been told to read since that would be important to know as we have such a huge body of second language students. It hasn't been like that. All my training has been in my own spare time, that's my honest truth. (SV2:8)

c) *Active*

In the text segments coded as *active*, consideration was taken regarding the students' multilingualism on evidence-based decisions or as a result of dynamic beliefs, including the students' other languages and their MULR.

This active approach is often used when the student's home language is a high-status one, such as English, as shown in DE2:4 where the student Diana has a North-American background. She is then used as a role model for the other students, reading text out loud or playing major roles in English plays. This approach is used frequently:

> For example, in English class when we got instructions, they are always in English and then also in German and often the other children don't have their book open and then I say, X should read the task out loud and then we will look at what it could mean and he can translate it immediately. (DE3:12)

The English-speaking children can also be asked for words. When asked about multilingualism and reading in class, one teacher stated that she used to ask one student for words in English:

> "Conor, how do you say, I don't know really and so" and then he tells me. Or he also knows so many words, everyday words, which we don't really have in that form in school. How do you say for example *Angeber*, which I didn't know and then he says "Oh, it's a show-off". "Oh, yes, exactly". That is then (…) on the contrary, he also adds to our knowledge, through his reading ability, in another language, I find that nice. (DE3:13)

The active approach could be distinguished mainly in organizational actions, such as in SV2, where the possibility of study guidance during class was present.[5]

Another service offered in Sweden is the digital reproduction of texts (*inläsningstjänst*), which the students can listen to instead of only reading the texts. This is not directed only at the multilingual students, but available for all students.

In the Chilean context, considering it to be a bilingual school with explicit goals regarding multilingualism, one could have expected many examples. However, there is a strict policy of separating the languages. The students should use one language at a time. Some exceptions were made, the teacher for example stated that the students are allowed to write down a Spanish word if they do not know it in German:

> .. and now, in the fourth class, I even allow that they for example, at the side, if they do not know a word, that they write down the Spanish word. (CL1:6)

This did not appear to be the norm, since she used "even allow" ("sogar" in German).

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[5] This means that an adult comes to class and sits next to the student and translates or scaffolds during the tasks. There have been difficulties with finding trained personnel for these positions, therefore I just indicate 'adult', since it is mostly not a person with a teacher training qualification. For more information, see Section 2.7.2.2.

The dynamic beliefs mentioned above further offer a ground for approaches where one teacher adapted her way of correcting written text by a student with another home language than German, since the student would have "her language":

> And in dictation, where I dictate for them, there she has, not that she would write the wrong articles for example, but if I notice, that she has (…) made such a typical, let me call it maybe an, "Italian error", then I would just circle it and then maybe only with an exclamation mark "careful!", but that is because of her language, and it would not be an error, and as such, it would not affect her grade. (DE3:14)

Although a major proportion of the statements could be characterized as *static*, several statements were characterized as *inquisitive* or *active*, this showing greater variation than in the previous characteristics regarding beliefs.

In addition to these three characteristics (static, inquisitive and active) concerning the implementation approach to multilingualism in class, two characteristics (intermittent and continual) were defined to visualize the nature of the time span of the previously mentioned three characteristics of implementation (see also Section 6.1).

d) *Intermittent*

The following text segments were already coded as either *static*, *inquisitive* or *active* regarding the manner of implementation. Here they are coded as *intermittent* to indicate that the implementation is short-term or temporary.

If other languages were used in the classroom, it often occurred on an intermittent basis, identified for instance in here:

> Multilingualism in class. That are mainly lessons/such special lessons, we have an international day, or we do, we will do that next week, that is also on the weekly schedule, such terms, I say for example "cat", then I have several children with different languages, we collect and the *Katze* is then German, then we draw the flag next to it, then the Serbian child comes, "what is it in my language?" and draws his flag next to that and so that we also have kind of a language/or such a listening bath. But there are only certain individual lessons. (DE3:15)

There were initiatives where the children brought books in their home language to school, but this was not something that the teacher asked for especially and it only happened occasionally. In this study, in the cases where students brought a book to class, they came from other European countries.

Further intermittent approaches to implementing the home languages in class could be special project days where different cultures were highlighted or issues regarding food could be brought up, then including food from other cultures. Also in the regular teaching, food from other cultures could be discussed:

> I really enjoy eating (laugh) and I asked Conor, "Conor, what do you have in Ireland, what do you eat traditionally?", until he realized, "Irish stew", what would be in this stew, then he describes it and what's in it and our mouths all watered while listening. (DE3:16)

Attempts where the students' home languages were included could be distinguished, but mainly in an ad hoc manner. These text segments were coded into this category as well, such as in DE2:8 in Section 5.2.1.3, where Frau Vogel views multilingualism as an enrichment which is why she stated that she tried to integrate it.

e) *Continual*

In the text segments coded as *continual*, the time span of the implementation of students' LWMUL in class is considered, referring to continual, long-term basis approaches. As in the previous text segments coded as intermittent, these were already coded as either *static*, *inquisitive* or *active* regarding the manner of implementation.

The students' LWMUL was implemented on a long-term basis in several cases, especially organizationally through different groups or material and additional hours of the language of instruction (for example the following, which was coded as *static* regarding the way it was implemented):

> The children get special educational support, but not necessarily in my class, minimally as well, but we have these additional hours. (DE3:17)

As seen in this statement, the intermittent and organizational characteristics often overlap. Such activities were to be seen in all classrooms, in the mainstream classes in Germany and Sweden as well as in the bilingual classroom in Chile. In Chile, during the German lessons, students with German as a mother tongue and students with Spanish as mother tongue, the latter learning German as a foreign language, were separated (coded in *static* regarding the way it was implemented):

> There are/I have two [German] mother tongue speakers, but in the German class they go to the mother tongue class. (CL1:7)

The increased numbers of migrants in 2015 in Germany and Sweden forced the schools in those countries to move on certain issues (coded as *intermittent* regarding the manner of implementation):

> We are really in the starting phase here [regarding newly arrived students], that was the topic in the last [teacher] conferences, how much we also simply (…) Well, react to, deal with it, and of course this issue with the asylum seekers is something different for us, well, since these children are here all of a sudden and then they leave again suddenly. (DE2:11)

The organizational implementation could include different material or an additional teacher as well, for instance, as in the following statement, when asked if the multilingual students are grouped in any way or get different materials (coded as *intermittent* regarding the manner of implementation):

> Ehm … sometimes and sometimes not. Sometimes, certain Swedish lessons can have, Swedish and social science I have an additional teacher who also has training in Swedish as second language and when she comes, then we <u>sometimes</u> group the students based on, for example, the reading level. (SV2:9)

Here, as well the intermittent approach on these issues shine through.

In Sweden, the students with another home language receive mother tongue instruction (see Section 2.4.2.2). I coded this as organizational, since it is not included in the implementation in class, but in separate classes after the regular school (coded *static* regarding manner of implementation):

> [When filling in the questionnaire] "Do the multilingual children receive any additional classes?" Yes, they receive supplementary classes in their mother tongue. (SV1:7)

Overall, clear connections between a static implementation and a continual time span can be distinguished, as well as between an inquisitive manner of implementing the students' home languages and an intermittent time span, as shown in Fig. 31.

Code System	a_Static	b_Inquisitive	c_Active	d_Intermittent	e_Continual
▲ ☐ AP2 - evaluative coding					
▲ ● 2.2 - 1 Implementation_manner					
☐ a_Static			▪	◾	◼
☐ b_Inquisitive		▪		◼	▪
☐ c_Active			▪		◾
▲ ● 2.2 - 2 Implementation_time span					
☐ d_Intermittent	◾	◼	▪		
☐ e_Continual	◼	▪	◾		
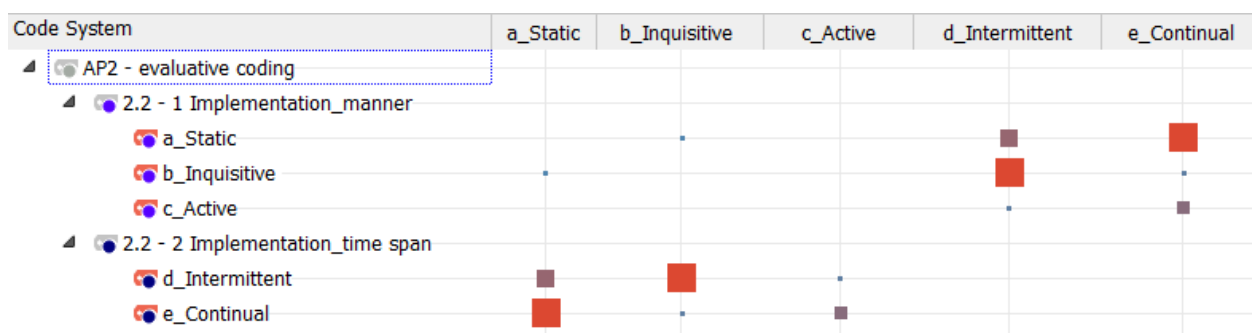
Fig. 31: Code relations browser on implementation - manner and time span[6] (2nd AP)

This confirms the strong position of static implementation approaches regarding the students' LWMUL in the teaching, as continual, long-term implementation approaches, in which the students' LWMUL is generally not taken into consideration. If it is, it is mainly done in short-term intermittent ways at an organizational, meso level, and not as part of the regular teaching at the micro level.

6.2   Concluding remarks on the second analysis procedure

The need for an intermediate analysis procedure in between the structuring of the 1st AP (see Chapter 5) and the construction of types (see Chapter 7) increased during the initial phases of the analysis process. This 2nd AP added clarity to the following construction of types. The 2nd AP was conducted in another dimension than the 1st AP, adding more classifying and evaluative content alongside with abstraction. The categories used were created from the prior analysis from which the established key topics (see Section 5.6) were extracted without greater complications. The patterns observed in this 2nd AP further enabled the following construction of types to be refined. Two main categories were established, *beliefs regarding multilingualism* and *implementation* of the students' home languages in class. These categories are broader than the ones in the 1st AP and more theoretical and abstract as they are based upon my theoretical knowledge.

Concluding the first main category, *beliefs regarding multilingualism*, the findings show that the observed beliefs tended to go in a dualistic direction, where languages were

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[6] Created with the code relations browser function in MAXQDA. The bigger the dot, the greater the amount of coded text segments in the respective category.

seen as separate systems, which are not interacting (see Section 3.1.3). Also distinguished were the beliefs that the knowledge level needed in each language for being multilingual should be 'native-like', or even 'perfect' (see Section 3.1.3). This reflects the outdated definition by Bloomfield (1933, p. 35) which considers multilingualism to be "the native-like control of two languages" (see Section 2.2). Those beliefs were especially strong in the German contexts.

Regarding the second main category, *implementation*, the findings show that the LWMUL was considered predominantly as a static implementation, in which no special active attention was given the students' home languages. This was seen more at the individual micro level than at the institutional meso level. At the micro level, the teachers did not change their way of teaching because of the multilingual setting. Further, issues on reading and multilingualism were mostly not connected. The fact that the students could be literate in another language/s was generally not given any recognition. The occasions, in which the students' LWMUL was included, did mainly not originate from planned, evidence-based actions (e.g. language awareness or translanguaging approaches, see Section 3.2.2), but from the students themselves, such as bringing a book in their mother tongue. Such actions were mostly to be observed, if the mother tongue of the student was a high-status language, e.g. English.

In several cases (especially at the meso level), organizational issues were the reasons for considering linguistic diversity, generating activities such as grouping the students or offering additional classes in the language of instruction. Mother tongue instruction was also offered, but separately, not involving any implementation in the classroom. No cooperation between the class teachers and the mother tongue instruction teachers was observed. It is worth highlighting that a more intermittent nature can be distinguished in the implementation in class (micro level), whereas the implementation regarding organizational issues (meso level) was more systematic. This confirms what the teachers stated: that the implementation in class does not consider the MULR of the students. There was generally no reference to the macro level, which does consider linguistic diversity.[7]

Overall, no major amount of reflections regarding reading and the students' MULR appeared in the findings. An interconnection between beliefs and implementation could be

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[7] For more information on the levels, see Section 2.5.

distinguished; the beliefs forming part of the professional competence the teachers used for the implementation, which could involve static implementation that did not consider the MULR as an asset. Moreover, the contexts of the globalized society and the transnational movements in that society do not seem to have entered the implementation in the classrooms, to reflect the linguistic diversity of the students.

In the following chapter, a construction of types of implemented strategies is established, drawing on the findings regarding beliefs and implementation in the 1st and 2nd AP, further identifying the similarities and differences between the observed, in the aforementioned findings.

7   Third analysis procedure: constructing types

This chapter describes the third and closing analysis procedure: the type construction.[1] For this procedure, the key topics identified from the first and second analysis procedure were brought together and used as sources (see Section 4.6.2 for an overview of the three analysis procedures). The type construction supports the cross-national approach of the study, since it takes on local and national features, at the same time as it leaves space for the identification of cross-national similarities.

Type construction is a systematic procedure with the aim "to identify similar cases and to form groups, respectively types, so that the cases within one type are as similar as possible and the types are as different as possible from each other" (Hussy *et al.*, 2013, p. 271). Firstly, a typology is defined, based on an *attribute space* with several, at least two, attributes.[2] Drawing on the findings on beliefs (from the first research question) and on implementation (in the second research question), four attributes were conceptualized and a matrix featuring four types of strategies used in teaching could be established (see Section 7.1.2): inattentive, insecure, obliged and inclusive. This draws on the combination of selected attributes and their dimensions (Kluge, 2000a) which thus build types. This matrix with four types of strategies can be used for future reflections and research regarding teaching in linguistically diverse contexts.

The empirical findings (see Chapter 5 and 6) present an interim draft which portrays the implicit and explicit teachers' beliefs and orientations in the implementation. The interim function of the drafted types must be highlighted, since the process could be never-ending "Empirical based theory building is [...] one process of the 'interpretative amplifying'. The end of an empirical research [study] as such is thus never exactly defined" (Nohl, 2013, p. 279).

Even if the draft is to be seen as a process, some orientation patterns can be distinguished, which show the beliefs and the implementation of the teachers when teaching reading in multilingual settings. From those patterns, a practice in linguistic diversity can

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[1]   In German: *Typenbildung.*

[2]   It should be noted that the attributes do not correspond with codes used in the previous coding, even though the names are the same (Kelle and Kluge, 2010).

be visualized. Drawing on the findings, a type construction of teaching strategies in multilingual settings could occur. However, it is important to bear in mind that strategies in this sense indicate both implicit and explicit teaching approaches and that the constructed strategies do not draw on the participating teachers in this study. Moreover, the types of strategies do not correspond to any existing person, but were created explicitly to grasp the similarities and differences between the observed in the findings (Kelle and Kluge, 2010). It is also important to highlight that one teacher can make use of some or all of the strategies in their teaching, depending on different contexts and aspects. Following this, the steps taken for the type construction in this study are presented.

7.1 Steps taken

For the type construction, drawing on Kuckartz ((2014b), it was first determined what should be accomplished by constructing types out of the findings in this study. Drawing on the empirical data, the aim was to construct types of different strategies implemented for teaching reading in multilingual settings. Considering the sample size, it was decided on a manageable construction in two dimensions.

Secondly, it was decided which of the attributes in the empirical data could be seen as relevant for the typology. This decision was based on the study's research questions (see Section 1.1). Since the research interest was to explore which beliefs the teachers had on multilingualism and what the corresponding implementation ways in the classrooms were, the terms *beliefs* and *implementation* were chosen as two dimensions, drawing on the evaluative coding.

Further, an attribute space that should serve as the basis for the type construction was defined. This part of the analysis was built on the previous conducted thematic and evaluative codings (see Chapter 5 and 6). This was thus not as complex to perform as previous analysis procedures, since I could draw on the existing categories, adapt them into attributes, and form them as distinctively as possible. It was intended to create types which were internally as homogeneous as possible, but that should differ from other types as much as possible.[3] Kelle and Kluge (2010, p. 90) state that:

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[3] This refers to "intern homogeneity" and "extern heterogeneity" (Kluge, 2000b).

> … the process of type construction should not be considered as a purely technical (re)construction of attributes and identification of attribute combinations, on the contrary, it deals with grasping the 'sense' and 'meaning' of the attribute combinations.

This "grasping the 'sense'" was, as many other steps in the analysis, demanding in many aspects; in time as well cognitive resources required. After this procedure, four types of strategies for teaching reading in multilingual settings were crystallized.

7.1.1 Establishing types of strategies

From the two previous analysis procedures (see Chapters 5 and 6), four types of strategies were crystallized. Drawing on Weinert's four forms of reaction in the implementation regarding diversity (see Section 3.2.2), the following types were thus developed and coded as visualized in Fig. 32:

AP3 - type construction - Strategies
    Type 1 - inattentive
    Type 2 - insecure
    Type 3 - obliged
    Type 4 - inclusive
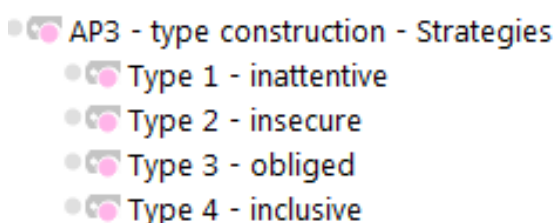
Fig. 32: Categories in the 3rd AP

The developed types of strategies will be described in detail. If not mentioned otherwise, these predominantly consider the micro level in the multilayered contexts (see Section 2.5) of the study. The macro level (see Section 2.5) is distant from the implementation, and the meso level (see Section 2.5) deals mainly with organizational matters in the institutions.

Strategy 1: inattentive
The first strategy implies a static, mainly continual approach towards the implementation of the students' LWMUL in class as well as dualistic beliefs. The students' multilingualism resources[4] play no part in the chosen teaching strategy. The teachers do not implement any special activities or measures regarding the multilingualism, rather a "difference blindness" (Kubota, 2004) is adopted. A fictive average monolingual student is generally used as orientation for the lessons. The level of the language of instruction is one of the most important matters and how the student can achieve a high level.

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4   The 'multilingual resources' are abbreviated as MULR in the following matrix.

Further, the home language/s of the students does/do not play any enhanced role in the classroom, such languages are rather marginalized (unless it is a high-status language such as English). Individual differences and cultural background are not acknowledged and/or viewed as enriching, instead an assimilationist direction is taken (Hahn *et al.*, 2010). The beliefs seem to be that the best approach to diversity is to treat everyone the same in the spirit of fairness, thus downplaying such differences (Hahn *et al.*, 2010). The knowledge of the home languages is not seen as relevant for the teaching and, in most cases, the teachers have no knowledge of the students' home language/s.

Monolingualism is seen as the 'normal' state (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017). Code-switching or translanguaging are not encouraged, since this does not fall within the monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2008) on the institutional meso level and does not fit with the idea of languages as separate systems, being developed linearly. This fails to recognize the complex nature of multilingualism and further assumes that the legitimate practices are those enacted by monolinguals (García, 2009). The notion that the languages scaffold each other and that reading in one language could stimulate reading in another language is not present within this strategy. Rather, the teachers' beliefs regarding multilingualism go in a dualistic direction. In this way, the beliefs are given greater weight than knowledge in the professional competence at the micro level (see Section 3.3.2) when it comes to issues concerning linguistic diversity. Directives on a macro level regarding support for multilingualism are not very obvious in this strategy. Instead, the student's level of the language of instruction is viewed as significant. According to the dualistic beliefs, the perception of multilingualism is one in which the individual should have a perfect command of all her/his languages. Beliefs that the students possess limited resources (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017) regarding languages can be distinguished, thus leading to a concentration on the language of instruction. The "transnational social spaces" (Fürstenau, 2016) of the students, including other languages and cultures, are left aside, and not acknowledged in this strategy.

Strategy 2: insecure
The second type of strategy implies static, mainly intermittent approaches towards implementation of the students' MULR in class as well as dynamic beliefs. The students' linguistic diversity is recognized at the micro level, but hindered from full inclusion in the implementation due to different factors. A teacher might apply this strategy, when feeling insecure about how to deal with multilingual students, e.g. due to lack of training, minor

personal experience or non-existing supporting framework. Examples of this insecurity could be found abundantly in the empirical data. The teacher might not have any special training on multilingualism and thus may feel insecure or he/she does not consider the own knowledge as sufficient, even if training has been taken.

A curiosity can be distinguished, which pushes the teachers to expand their actual perspectives. The beliefs regarding multilingualism go in a more dynamic direction than in the first type of strategy, but the lived insecurity is still given greater weight when it comes to the implementation, due to lack of knowledge in the professional competence at the micro level (see Section 3.3.2) on this issue.[5]

This inquisitive approach and reflection at the micro level is shown in teaching intentions to consider the students' home languages in different ways, in the implementation, such as comparing words in different languages or focusing on different cultures, traditions or food on occasions. However, this does not include reading on a larger scale, although some occasional attempts observed. The initiatives principally come from the students themselves, such as bringing a book in the home language/s. If the home language is a high status language, such as English, the student can be assigned a role model position, being encouraged to read out loud (for the pronunciation) or explain the traditions or foods.

The insecurity on how to deal with the multilingualism and which competences are needed when teaching in a multilingual setting can lead to different actions at the micro level, such as the teacher taking a training course on their own initiative or reading text books on the issue (see SV2:7 in Section 6.1.2). The school is not usually the initiator to such actions at a meso level. This might lead to the teacher feeling isolated on this issue (see SV2:8 in Section 6.1.2).

Strategy 3: obliged
The third type of strategy implies active, predominantly continual approaches on the implementation of the students' LWMUL alongside dualistic beliefs. The students' MULR are recognized, due to practical factors such as different language levels of the students, and therefore their multilingualism has to be considered in the practice. Mainly

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[5] Examples of this inquisitive approach could be found in this study, where several of the teachers expressed that my visits nudged them into a new thinking, giving them new perspectives, such as in the statement where one teacher brought a book home about multilingual classrooms after my first visit (see e.g. quote DE3:10 in Section 6.1.2).

deriving from the institutional, meso level, this leads to an implementation in organizational terms, decisions for which might not be taken by the teacher alone. This can be observed in actions such as dividing the students into different groups and working with different levels of materials. Focus is laid on practical, organizational aspects at the meso level and how well the children can learn the language of instruction (see e.g. DE3:17 in Section 6.1.2), for which often additional classes are provided. These strategies are more commonly a result of institutional discussions at the meso level and less dependent on individual beliefs at the micro level.

Generally, the multilingualism is mostly viewed as a deficit (Harklau, 2000), which leads to bringing it up only if the students have any problems in the language of instruction. Then it can be discussed, e.g. in teacher-parent talks or in discussions with colleagues at the meso level on where to place a certain student. The home language is generally not highlighted and the knowledge regarding this issue can be low or non-existent. Diversity is not recognized as an explicit learning potential; speaking only one language is considered the norm (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017).

Within this strategy, activities such as code-switching or translanguaging are not encouraged, since they do not fall within the monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2008) and does not fit within the idea of languages as separate systems, being developed linearly. In a rather competitive perspective regarding the different languages, the individual student's different languages are not seen as possible scaffolds for each other. The languages are rather considered to compete and viewed within a "limited resource model" (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017).

Strategy 4: inclusive

The fourth type of strategy implies active, intermittent and continual implementation of the students' LWMUL alongside dynamic beliefs. The students' other language/s are explicitly recognized as resources for learning and therefore considered in the teaching. The teacher also knows how to utilize the students' MULR at the micro level, e.g. as a result of training, personal experience or a given institutional framework, thus leaving less space for beliefs than in the other strategies. These strategies tend to be more explicit then the others, since they transform the monolingual norm. Translanguaging approaches (Garcia and Wei, 2014) can be observed, where educational structures and strategies at both micro and meso level offer a space in which language practices emerging from both home and school are brought together. Such approaches expand

and extend practices that are typically valued in school (and in the everyday world) since they often transgress and destabilize language hierarchies. A "willingness to look beyond one's own activities in life and school" (Darji and Lang-Wojtasik, 2014) can be sighted in a globalized, holistic approach, in which the globalized context is considered, pulling the "transnational social spaces" (Fürstenau, 2016) of the students into the classroom.

In this dynamic approach of interaction, the focus is not so much upon competence between languages, instead the students' entire linguistic repertoire is recognized and accepted. The beliefs are dynamic in a non-competitive perspective towards the language of instruction. The teachers believe that each one of the students' languages is important, and do not consider a separate proficiency in the L1 and in L2 (or L3, L4 etc.). Development in one language is believed to help the development of other language/s.

The teacher does not share all the language practices of the students, but recognizes and accepts them. The teacher may have knowledge of different language groups and what could be significant for those, and how to support language development drawing on that. One language can still be used as a common language in class, but all languages are equally valued, in a global approach.

7.1.2 Introducing a matrix

Data display is an important step during qualitative data analysis (Yin, 2015). For displaying the strategies established in this study described in Section 7.1.1, a two-dimensional matrix was introduced, visualized below in Fig. 33, drawing on the previously mentioned attribute space. On the vertical axis, the beliefs regarding multilingualism are represented on a continuum from dualistic to dynamic (see Section 3.1.3). On the horizontal axis, the implementation of the students' home languages in the classroom (see Section 3.2) is represented as ranging from static to active.
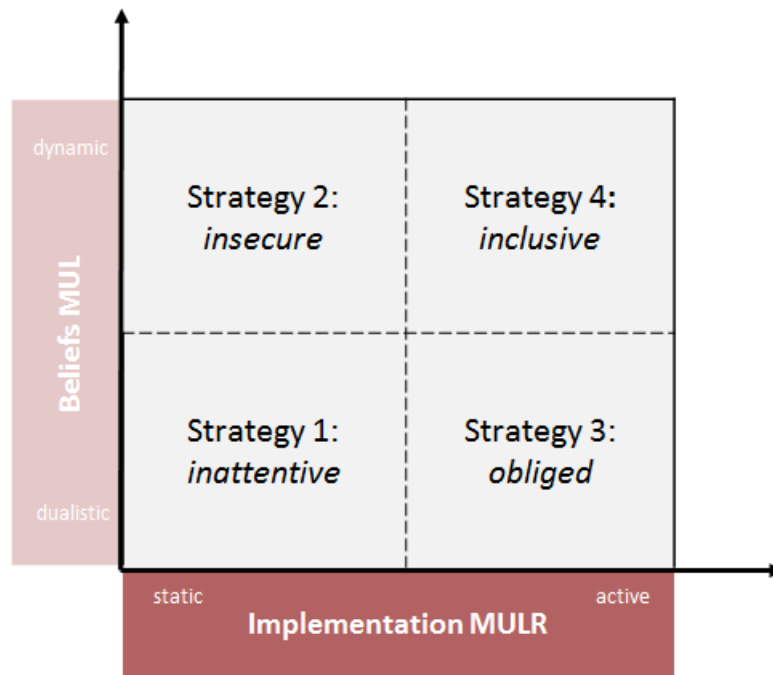
Fig. 33: Matrix of strategies[6] (3rd AP)

The structural modelling is used to portray the relationships of elements originating from the analysis. In this matrix, for each of the four types the previous established and described strategies are illustrated. The development of a matrix facilitates the usage of this study's findings as a tool for future reflections on different educational settings. It should, however, be noted that the given characteristics in the attribute space are to be considered as a continuum, not as a static, linear process. Furthermore, there are no clean-cut boundaries between the strategies. Organizing the data in this manner can give a notion of quantifying the findings, but that has not been the aim in this study. The aim of the matrix is to provide a clear and comprehensible understanding of the information and of what can be viewed as typical (Kuckartz, 2014b).

7.2 Concluding remarks on the third analysis procedure

Drawing on the 1st and 2nd AP (see Section 5 and 6), four types of strategies used in teaching reading in multilingual settings were drafted in the 3rd AP of this chapter. The

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[6] MUL: multilingualism, MULR: multilingual resources, referring to the students' home languages and their life-world multilingualism (LWMUL).

purpose is to comprehend, understand and explain social realities in a globalized education, portraying the interaction of implicit and explicit beliefs as well as strategies in the teaching implementation as far as possible. The four types draw on Weinert's four forms discussed in Section 3.2.2, which are further developed drawing on the material in this study. A spectrum of strategies was outlined: inattentive, insecure, obliged and inclusive, drawing on the beliefs and how the students' LWMUL is taken into consideration in the implementation. Professional competence (see Section 3.3) is considered as interacting with the beliefs. The multilayered contexts described in Section 2.5 were considered in the outlining of the strategies, which are not dependent on the different national contexts, as they can be considered in all the multilingual settings.

The organization in a pattern form offers a tool for reflections on teaching in multilingual settings. The two-dimensional representation system in a matrix (see Section 7.1.2) enables an easier understanding of the types of strategies. Moreover, it should be noted that even though this study focuses upon teaching reading, the material indicates that the findings could apply to any teaching in linguistically diverse settings.

7.3 Concluding remarks on the three analysis procedures and the findings

The three analysis procedures[7] offer a description of the observed topics, distinguishing the complexity involved in multilayered contexts. The initial categorical structuring of the material in the 1st AP (see Chapter 5) introduced the empirical data and facilitated an overview of the material. The 2nd AP (see Chapter 6) moved on to reconstruct the identified findings in an evaluative coding, which narrowed the perspective. Concluding, the 3rd AP in this chapter systematically identified a pattern of similar cases and established four types of strategies used in the teaching. The findings concerning the two main topics of the research interest (*beliefs* and *implementation regarding the multilingualism*), used as main categories during the analysis process, are highlighted below.

7.3.1 Beliefs

The beliefs regarding multilingualism and the associated teaching showed a significant similarity in all the multilingual settings in this study, which mainly observed teacher

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7   See Fig. 11 on page 134 for an overview of the analysis procedures.

beliefs at a micro level. These are found to go in a dualistic direction, in which languages are considered separate systems which do not interact. Different national contexts can be considered as not significant, even regarding the limited sample, since the beliefs do not appear to be case- or country-specific, they are of a global nature. Language knowledge is considered something rather static and dualistic, in the sense of high versus low knowledge levels, not as a complex, iterative process of learning. Monolingualism is considered the norm (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017), especially at the meso level, and diversity is mainly seen as something that will complicate the teaching. Training regarding multilingualism is not extensive, thus giving teachers' beliefs instead of knowledge the upper hand at the micro level. The teachers' own experiences are further colored by the monolingual stance, which can lead to frustration (both for teachers and students), when the expected language development is not reached. These aspects illustrate a general knowledge and beliefs about multilingualism, which are not evidence-based. Beliefs should, however, not be viewed as something monofactorial. The multilayered contexts as well as the complexity of the observed issues and factors included, have to be considered.

7.3.2 Implementation

The classrooms in the three different national contexts show significant similarities, to the point that some of them could have been interchanged on a visual level. The organization at a meso level and the seating within the classroom were similar, the teacher in a central position in the front and the students organized in clusters around the classroom. In the classrooms, mainly a monolingual norm was followed, with signs in the language of instruction and in English (also included in the curricula). Here, the bilingual school showed another pattern where the majority of the signs were written in both languages of instruction (German and Spanish).

Also, the implementation in the classrooms at a micro level shows many similarities. A monolingual norm could be observed in all the classrooms. The Chilean bilingual classroom could have been expected to be more multilingual, but here the separation of the languages was even more prominent, especially at the micro level. The teacher was strict with separating the languages, not considering code-mixing as a resource. She also corrected herself when she accidentally code-switched (see Section 5.4.1.2).

The above observations confirm the presence of a monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2008), an overall rather static implementation of the students' home languages. Monolingualism is seen as the norm, providing space for beliefs in which limited resources are available for the languages (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017) An inattentive type of strategy regarding linguistic diversity seems to have the upper hand (both at a micro and meso level), in which the globalized transnational social spaces of the students are given no space in the classroom.

In the following final chapter, the findings of the study are presented in relation to the research questions. The overall study results are discussed and the contributions of the study summarized.

8   Concluding discussion

This final chapter is dedicated to the discussion and conclusions of the overall study results. Firstly, the findings of the study (see Chapters 5, 6 and 7) are presented in relation to each of the research questions (see Section 1.1). Secondly, results are discussed, including interpretations within a context frame at different levels (see Chapter 2) with the aim of providing explanations of the findings. The derived constructs of the beliefs regarding multilingualism and the implementation and role of professional competence in such contexts (see Chapter 3) are employed for further discussion. The contributions of the study are summarized and the researcher's role in the study is reflected upon. Moreover, some considerations will be presented, which were identified in this study as possible opportunities for the prospect of teaching reading in multilingual settings as well as for the research. Finally, the chapter closes with comments on possible future directions.

8.1   Discussion of the findings

This study presents an analysis of the complexity and diversity of teaching reading in multilingual settings, with reference to implied beliefs (see Section 3.1) as part of professional competence (see Section 3.3), especially at a micro level (see Section 2.5). Empirical studies such as this one can provide a basis from which the explicit educational discourse can interconnect with pedagogical discourse on practice. Further, the outcome of this study offers a tool, in the form of a matrix outlining the identified types of strategies (see Chapter 7), which can be used for educational theories as well as in pedagogical practice. This tool enables the identification of new perspectives and stances of diversity in teaching (e.g. linguistic diversity), as well as shedding new light on already well-known ones (e.g. beliefs and strategies). This possibility for reflection about teaching is enabled through the matrix, which illustrates various types of strategy used in teaching. Reflection, supported by this matrix offers teachers the ability to analyze and structure complex interactions which are prevailing in teaching in linguistically diverse settings typical of the current "glocalized" society (Robertson, 1995) in which migration movements have created new "transnational social spaces" (Fürstenau, 2016).

The discussion in this chapter moves from considering the research questions (see Section 1.1) individually to considering broader implications of the sum of the results and what they imply for understanding the teaching of reading in multilingual settings.

Research aim

The overall research aim of the present study was to gain deeper understanding on teachers' beliefs and implementation strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. In three countries (Germany, Sweden and Chile), classroom observations and interviews with teachers (see Chapter 5) were thus conducted in two different contexts, i.e. submersion and immersion teaching models (see Section 3.2.1), in a case study approach (see Section 4.1.2) reconstructing the settings.

Four research questions (see Section 1.1) were developed for a multilayered insight on the topic. Firstly, the focus was on the teachers' beliefs concerning multilingualism and what it implied for them. Secondly, how did the teachers implement the students' LWMUL, the students' MULR, when teaching reading in a multilingual setting? Thirdly, the relation between beliefs and implementation stand in focus. Finally, the fourth question observed whether the beliefs and the way they were implemented varied between the teaching models in the three countries.

In this study, a multilayered context was identified (see Section 2.5), which called for an interpretation frame. The contexts were thus bundled and structured into three main levels: macro, meso and micro. Although the research questions mainly focused on issues at a micro level (within the classrooms), all three contexts are considered to interact, thus taking a stance in a holistic perspective. In order to discuss the research questions, the empirical data consisting of five case studies (see Chapter 5) were analyzed in three analysis procedures using a QCA (see Sections 5, 6 and 7) in a comparative education research approach (see Section 4.1).

First research question

The first research question focused on the teachers' beliefs regarding multilingualism (see Section 3.1), predominantly at a micro level (see Section 2.5), focusing on the individual teachers. This study provides an insight into the teachers' beliefs, outspoken explicit ones as well as the less obvious implicit ones, provided through participant observations as well as interviews. The findings (see Chapters 5, 6 and 7) suggest that

the teachers' beliefs regarding multilingualism are complex and multilayered. The beliefs further manifest themselves as multidimensional clusters which are interacting with varying levels of strengths and dominance (see Section 3.1.3).

Drawing on the Bahktinian concept of 'heteroglossia', the beliefs observed were positioned on a continuum with *dualistic*, monoglossic beliefs at one end and *dynamic*, heteroglossic, diversifying beliefs at the other end (see Section 3.1.3 and 6.1.1). Whereas the general attitudes towards multilingualism were positive and it was seen as an asset (see Chapter 5), many beliefs were observed to be of dualistic nature (see Chapter 6), in which an individual's languages are not considered to be interacting. Multilingualism seemed to be considered as different autonomous linguistic systems, each of them being compartmentalized and developing linearly (García and Wei, 2015), instead of considering the dynamic interactions between the languages. Multilingualism was considered as the ability to speak several languages fluently and on a native-like level. Becoming as linguistically competent as possible ('native-like', see e.g. (Mehmedbegovic and Bak, 2017)), especially with academic language, was seen as the goal of multilingualism. This draws on outdated definitions from the mid-19th century (see Section 2.2) in which full linguistic proficiency of the target language/s was seen as the main aim. Gogolin observed these beliefs in German educational settings already in 1994 (see Section 3.1.4) and according to this study, they do not seem to have changed considerably since then.

From the observations in this study, it can be assumed that the teachers' past experiences influence their beliefs (see Sections 5 and 6). In particular, the participants' background, whether personal or professional, influences their beliefs on multilingualism. The lack of training (pre- or in-service) was highlighted by the teachers as an origin of insecurity in multilingual settings (see Sections 5.2 and 5.3). It must also be assumed that these experiences and beliefs have an influence on the implementation of activities in class (see more on this in the third research question). However, even if the teacher's own personal experience with multilingualism stretched over a longer time span, this did not seem to be reflected significantly in the practice, which would imply more dynamic beliefs: the teacher training (pre- as well as in-service) and the settings (especially at the micro level) seemed to be of greater significance.

The study revealed a tendency towards poor reflection regarding multilingualism in educational settings, even when those settings are regarded as expressly multilingual. In the teacher training of the participating teachers in the three countries, issues concerning linguistic diversity seemed to have been only a minor focus or not at all. Both these factors appear to consolidate dualistic beliefs regarding multilingualism, since the professional knowledge on this issue (see Section 3.3.2) is missing.

The society in which the schools are functioning have changed, new transnational social spaces (Pries, 2004; Fürstenau, 2016) have arisen, but the mindset in teaching seems to still be set on monolingualism. Most of the observed beliefs have to be categorized as unwarranted or even as misconceptions, and certainly not in line with the latest research, which shows multilingualism as being complex and dynamic, in which a given individual's languages interact (see Section 3.1.3) with each other; thus these beliefs seem to be in need of a reconceptualization.

Second research question

The second research question focused upon how the teachers implemented the students' LWMUL when teaching reading in multilingual settings. At a societal, macro level (national as well as international), the preconditions for implementing the students' LWMUL and their MULR exist in the three countries: several language directives even position multilingualism as a goal (see Section 1). There is a great deal of room for maneuver and in all three countries these preconditions remain rather unnoticed at the meso and micro levels (institutional and individual levels).

At an institutional, meso level (see Section 2.4.1.1, 2.4.2.1 and 2.4.3.1 for the three countries) multilingualism was considered in all the curricula, especially in the Chilean context, where it was an explicit aim (see Section 2.4.3.1). However, in the Chilean context, multilingualism means adding the teaching of German as a foreign language to the students' mother tongue. It is not concerned with the students' LWMUL, their MULR from outside the school context.

In the classrooms visited in Germany and Sweden (mainstream classrooms), monolingual forms of education (see Section 3.2.1) were offered, with transitional submersion approaches for newly arrived students, without a firmly rooted inclusion of the students' LWMUL. Instead, predominantly actions outside the classroom, such as additional clas-

ses of the language of instruction (German respectively Swedish) could be distinguished. In Sweden, support for developing the home language/s was offered through in-class support in the home language/s along with mother tongue instruction outside of the classroom. However, the latter could be described as more symbolic than effective, simply due to the limited time of instruction (e.g. at the most 60 minutes per week). In addition, this support is offered during pragmatically difficult hours (after regular school hours, late in the afternoon) or in schools at a distance. Moreover, it tends to be offered separately, without cooperation with the subject teachers.

Officially, the Chilean classroom offered a strong form of multilingual education, where two languages were included in a bilingual immersion approach. The curricular arrangements at a meso level had a clear aim towards multilingualism, acknowledging a "complex interconnected multilingualism" (Zentralstelle für das Auslandsschulwesen, 2009). However, in terms of its implementation in the classroom at a micro level, a subject-determined arrangement was distinguished in which the separation of the languages was highlighted and a balanced, additive multilingualism was aimed for, hence providing space for dualistic beliefs regarding multilingualism.

The students' LWMUL could also be taken into consideration in the classroom (especially in Germany and Sweden) when referring to general occasional activities, such as project days focusing on different countries. Then, culture concept thinking (see Section 2) was prominent, which included culturally specific artefacts or habits, such as different kinds of foods or traditions.

Scaffolding (see Section 3.2.2) was used to promote the learning of subject matter, whereby explanations were supported through gesturing. This was, however, not introduced especially for the multilingual students, but for all students.

Reflexive thinking regarding language awareness (see Section 3.2.2) could be observed, in which the multilingual children were assumed to have an advantage, due to their preexisting competence in more than one language. However, translanguaging approaches, such as proposed by García and Wei (2014), including strategies taken the students' LWMUL into account (see Section 3.2.2) were not observed in any greater extent.

In general, if the students' LWMUL and their MULR were taken into consideration, it was predominantly due to organizational reasons, such as differing language levels or the relatively high status of the students' home language (i.e. English). English was more familiar to the teachers themselves, which facilitated the implementation of these students' home language.

Several different reactions towards linguistic diversity in the classroom could thus be distinguished (see Section 3.2.2). In light of the above findings, it should be noted that when teaching reading in a multilingual setting, the teachers in this study tended not to plan lessons with the students' LWMUL and their MULR in mind. Rather, a static "difference blindness" approach (Kubota, 2004) was applied regarding linguistic diversity, whereby the diversity was mainly overseen and the settings treated as homogeneous. The fact that the students could be literate in another language was mainly not given recognition (Blommaert *et al.*, 2006). In the Chilean context, the linguistic diversity was approached in a static manner, in which the teaching approach was based on dualistic beliefs. This meant that the teachers tried to separate the languages as much as possible, thus not making room for support in the interacting languages.

Overall, no major dynamic understanding of the other language/s as a scaffold for learning could be observed. A monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 2008) could be found to exist in all three contexts observed, especially at the meso and micro levels, even though the national and international institutions at the macro level strive towards viewing multilingualism positively in inclusive and active approaches (European Commission, 2005; UNESCO, 2003). This, together with dualistic beliefs does not allow much space for more than one language in the classroom. In conclusion, it was observed that the preconditions for promoting multilingualism, such as in language directives and curricula, exist in the three countries at the macro and meso level, but these need to be internalized and implemented by the individuals at the micro level. This was generally not observed in this study.

This study further confirms the reaction pattern established by Weinert (1997) with four types of reactions (see Section 3.2.2) on diversity. A similar pattern as the one proposed by Weinert could be distinguished in the implementation in the different classrooms, in which static forms regarding the students' LWMUL constituted the main part. The active reactions were in part obliged through practical and organizational factors, due to which

the students' multilingualism had to be considered. Drawing on the findings on beliefs (from the first research question) and on implementation (in this second research question), a matrix featuring four types of strategies used in teaching could be established (see Section 7.1.2), these were: inattentive, insecure, obliged and inclusive. This matrix with four types can be used for reflections regarding teaching in linguistically diverse contexts as well as for future research.

Third research question

After highlighting the teachers' beliefs and the implementation of the students' LWMUL in the two first research questions, the third research question focused on how the teachers' beliefs and implementation of the students' life-world multilingualism within the classroom interrelate. Earlier research suggests a link between beliefs and the implementation in teaching practices (see Section 3.1), which could be observed in this study.

In the findings, a contradiction could be highlighted drawing on the first two research questions. On the one hand, at a micro level attitudes towards multilingualism were mainly positive, even though the beliefs predominantly were of a dualistic nature. The implementation considering multilingualism as a resource for the students was supported by legal directives at the macro and meso level (but only in organizational and administrative terms at the latter level). At the micro level, the multilingualism appeared practically invisible and the approaches in the implementation mostly static.

Thus, drawing on the interaction on different levels regarding the professional competence proposed by Baumert and Kunter (2013a), a model of teachers' professional competence in multilingual settings was conceptualized (see Fig. 9). Two aspects of professional competence, beliefs and knowledge (see Section 3.3.1), were divided into domains and facets in order to visualize a bridge between mental constructs (beliefs) and practice. Beliefs regarding multilingualism and teaching in a linguistically diverse context were found to have more of an impact on the implementation in class than the pedagogical knowledge or previous training and to represent the upper hand when teaching reading in multilingual settings. As a result of a lack of training regarding linguistic diversity, the pedagogical knowledge was more likely missing and not part of the teachers' key competences. This was something that the teachers themselves had a notion of

and thus reported. Moreover, this lack of knowledge caused them to feel insecure in dealing with linguistic diversity (see also (Becker-Mrotzek *et al.*, 2012).

According to Gogolin (2008) instead of professional rationality, personal preferences and experiences are used to make decisions about teaching strategies. However, this idea could not be corroborated in this study. While beliefs (building on personal preferences and experiences) appear to be of major importance, the contexts seemed to have the upper hand in the final implementation in class. Overall, the strategies used in teaching at the micro level seemed to be ruled by the persistence of a monolingual habitus (see Section 3.1.4) in the contexts. Dualistic beliefs were strong, even when the personal experience with multilingualism was considerable. A connection between greater personal experience with multilingualism and a major implementation of the linguistic diversity in the classroom could thus not be observed. The teacher with personal LWMUL from childhood (see Section 5.4.1.1) did not show fewer dualistic beliefs than the others. In that case, it could be observed that the context's monolingual habitus interlinked with the beliefs, framing the implementation in a strong dualistic structure without major consideration of the dynamic nature of multilingualism.

According to the teacher reports in this study, no major reflections regarding linguistic diversity and the implementation in class could be found in their teacher training, which may have contributed to insecurity in the implementation as well as to dualistic beliefs. Linguistic diversity did not play a major role in the everyday teaching in class at a micro level. The knowledge of the students' home languages did not seem to be imperative for the implementation in class. If reflections regarding linguistic diversity and the implementations thereof in class in general could be stated as minor, reflections regarding multilingualism and reading have to be considered as almost non-existent. The relationship between reading and multilingualism did not seem to be considered at all.

Further, it can be supposed that if teachers hold dualistic beliefs and do not believe in a supporting interaction between languages, they will not recognize any of the advantages in allowing languages other than the language of instruction in the classroom, even if these preconditions are given on a macro level. They will instead try to concentrate on the classroom language, striving for the students to achieve the highest level possible in that language and thus missing the scaffolding opportunity from the students' MULR.

Fourth research question

The fourth research question undertook the task of targeting differences between the two different teaching models: national monolingual education systems in Germany and Sweden with a submersion approach and bilingual education in Chile with an immersion approach (see Section 3.2 for information on teaching models). The present study consisted of case studies and hence entire educational models or countries were not the focus.

Overall, no major difference could be distinguished at the micro level in terms of teaching implementation between the different teaching models of submersion versus immersion. A "difference blindness" (Kubota, 2004) was applied as the main strategy in all the visited settings, implying a static approach regarding the students' LWMUL. In the Chilean case, dualistic beliefs were however observed to be especially strong (see Chapter 6), even if the setting was a supposedly strong form of multilingual education. Much effort was put upon separating the languages, not providing any major space for the languages to support each other. In the cases in Germany and Sweden, this was not as clearly stated as in Chile.

The organizational classroom management (as part of the professional competence, see Section 3.3.2) in the implementation was observed to be different. The tendency in Chile was towards a more teacher-driven way of teaching, in which the teacher's role is to communicate knowledge in a clear and structured way; explain correct solutions; give students clear and resolvable problems; and to ensure calm and concentration in the classroom. In the two European schools, a less teacher-driven approach could be distinguished, in which the students were seen as active participants who acquire knowledge and where interaction is needed for the learning. In the German and Swedish settings, the development of thinking and reasoning was stressed more than the acquisition of specific knowledge (Staub and Stern, 2002), thus providing students space to reflect. These findings also offer an explanation of the stronger dualistic beliefs in the Chilean case. Dynamic beliefs would follow a less teacher-driven approach, hence allowing an interaction between the students' MULR.

In the Swedish cases, the focus on reading and its importance for the education of a student was clearly distinguished. Multimodal approaches to reading were applied. In this context, Swedish teachers emphasized the importance of reading more than the

German or Chilean teachers. Moreover, the Swedish teachers reported having taken training courses (pre- and in-service) for this purpose. These courses had however no connection to linguistic diversity. Part of the focus on reading in these case studies presumably has its origin in which schools participated. The reason for accepting to take part was probably due to the participating teachers' interests in reading; several of them were already engaged in reading activities.

Overall research interest

In recent years, the importance of teachers' professional knowledge and their beliefs in the provision of high quality instruction has consistently been demonstrated in research (see Chapter 2). Therefore, this study wanted to gain a deeper understanding on the beliefs and the strategies used when teaching reading in multilingual settings.

The findings indicate that teachers' beliefs influence the strategies significantly at the micro as well as meso level, even if they are not seen as monofactorial. Dualistic beliefs together with a monolingual habitus in the educational contexts lead to static approaches towards the students' LWMUL, even though the framework at a macro and meso level includes multilingualism.

The implementation in the classroom regarding linguistic diversity (see Chapter 5) did not vary significantly between different teaching models in the different national contexts. A tendency towards pragmatic strategies, including other languages with activities such as translating words from other languages (mainly high-status languages) could be found in all the case studies. This, however, seldom drew on the students' LWMUL, but was limited to some exclusive languages, mainly English (also in the curricula).

It was not possible to distinguish a major difference in the different national contexts drawing on the material in this study. However, the beliefs seem to have the upper hand to the professional competence regarding multilingualism, providing little space for professional knowledge (see Section 3.3). The mainly dualistic orientation of the beliefs observed in this study seems to be of global nature, not originating from a specific national context.

As mentioned under research question two, this study further confirms the reaction pattern established by Weinert (1997) with four types of reactions (see Section 3.2.2) on diversity. The active reactions were in part observed to be obliged through practical and

organizational factors. The developed matrix of strategies used in teaching in linguistically diverse contexts (see Section 7.1.2) can be used for both teaching settings, submersion and immersion, since no major difference was established between the two. It can also be used for future reflections and research regarding teaching in linguistically diverse contexts.

Furthermore, feelings of insecurity among the teachers could be observed in the strategies regarding linguistic diversity, which may derive from the knowledge about multilingualism being general, not professional (see Section 3.3.2), or based on research. Separating languages appeared even more important in the bilingual Chilean school due to the tendency of strong dualistic beliefs as well as a present monolingual habitus. In all cases, more emphasis was put on organizational measures, mostly at a meso level, than on individual student-oriented activities regarding multilingualism at a micro level.

8.2 Contributions

In addition to the insights I have gained as a researcher and person, this study makes descriptive, conceptual and methodological contributions to educational practices and research, which I will briefly summarize below.

The descriptive contributions of this study include the documentation and analysis of educational actors, practices, and socio-political processes in multilingual settings that are salient in education today. In the present study, a deeper understanding could be gained of the participant teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. The complexity of the researched topics was illustrated, thus providing an overview of the multilayered contexts and preconditions in the observed multilingual settings. Previous research (see Section 3.1) has offered numerous analyses of teachers' beliefs in different settings as well as their strategies when teaching in linguistically diverse contexts. Reading is furthermore thoroughly researched in several fields. However, those previous studies are predominantly more limited in terms of approach, focusing on only one of the topics. In this study, the interaction of both beliefs and implementation in these multilingual settings was of major importance. The complexity of the study thus increased extraordinarily.

In addition to the analysis of the beliefs and the teaching strategies, the conceptual contributions of this study include the analysis of multilingual educational settings, where the students possess MULR, which have to be dealt with in the classroom. There are multiple formations of beliefs and strategies in education practice, with a visible continuum of beliefs and a large variation of strategies and where no clear-cut concepts can be established. Yet, I believe that it is valuable to reflect on the possibilities in teaching as well as to produce related discourses on these issues. Much like the prism of a kaleidoscope, each representation of these issues provides an additional angle from which it is possible to view the same concerns in a new way. Ways of working with challenges among different viewpoints should therefore be encouraged as well as analyses taking into account the multilayered contexts.

This cross-disciplinary approach, building on my previous linguistic knowledge alongside the educational approach, implies further complications for an already complex structure of the study. This approach was, however, intentional, with the hope to bridge distances between field areas, in view of the importance of the topic for so many students in our society. Bringing research closer to practice and vice-versa was also a vision of mine, in order to search for a major understanding between both. The results of the study thus add an important contribution to a multidimensional understanding.

The outcome of this study furthermore offers a tool (see Section 7.1.2) which can be used for educational theories as well as in pedagogical practice. This tool enables teachers to identify new perspectives and stances as well as shed new light on already well-known ones. A reflection on the implementation in class is enabled through the matrix on different types of strategy. This offers the possibility to analyze and structure such complex interactions as teaching in the linguistically diverse settings of today's globalized society, where transnational movements are more of a rule than an exception.

Moreover, the methodological contributions of this study shed light on the procedures in research including multiple languages. In an increasingly globalized society, research often takes place in a context which includes multiple languages. This issue presents a rather unremarkable aspect in research, even though there has been a move towards reflection in fieldwork in the last decade (see Section 4). This is, however, so far not frequently mentioned in text books on methodology, nor discussed overall, but I envision

a future where this will change, since without language no major communication can take place and thus no research. Adding the contexts during fieldwork, the language situation during analysis has to be considered as well, and translations should never be made invisible. First, it has to be highlighted that in translation an interpretation has already taken place, which could change the meaning, depending on who is making that translation. Secondly, the effort of research in a linguistically diverse context should not be underestimated. It means adding (at least) one more dimension to an already complex reality. Two main practical aspects in a research process with diverse languages need to be considered (see Section 4.7.3): the *language skills* of the participants (how can the communication take place) as well as the *interpretation context* (how should the data be handled and analyzed)?

So far, such issues have predominantly been ignored in research, instead providing space for static approaches similar those on linguistic diversity. In my opinion, therefore the need for reflection regarding these issues is imperative, since language is such a major part of research. My hope is that this study can offer a framework for future research involving several languages.

8.3   Researcher's reflexivity

Some reflections regarding methodological considerations have already been expressed in Chapter 4, but some more regarding the entire research process need to be added.

During data collection, I came to realize that data is not merely 'collected' but rather given. Participants choose what they wish to share. This was of course affected by various factors. I may have influenced how the informants responded with more positive statements more than someone else, or had I participated in class more informally for a longer time in the busy everyday teaching, my presence might have led to a social bias.

As a multilingual Swedish national, Swedish, Spanish, German speaker and teacher, and English speaker; naturalized immigrant to Germany and previous Spanish resident; and mother of two multilingual children, I have some credential for the insider status,

albeit as a speaker of high status languages. Although my insights into multilingual settings are completely different from those whose repertoires include languages that do not have the same status or visibility as mine, my own multilingual experiences must be seen as without doubt. These experiences have further influenced my choice to conduct this research and to have left marks on the research process.

In the German context, as a representative of a different European academic research paradigm, there was potential for me to be regarded as an outsider. In conversations and interviews with teachers and other academics, the fact that I am Swedish, with an international background, seemed to lessen this distance, in fact it opened many doors. Some schools welcomed me because I was Swedish and the personnel had had positive experiences with Swedes or the country of Sweden before. A multilingual Swede will, in most cases, always be welcome wherever he or she goes and their multilingualism will be seen as a positive asset. This is something that I have experienced on many occasions, in educational contexts as well as in my personal life.

During field work, some of the students sought interaction with me, and it is to assume that my origin gave them rather positive connotations as well. They were astonished by my language knowledge and interested in hearing more. I used to ask myself what it would have been like, if I had come from a less highly valued country. Therefore, it is vital to have in mind, that even though the researcher intends to take a passive role in the research settings, it is never a neutral one, the context is always there.

Moreover, it should be noted that the present study and its findings are not representative for any specific country or even educational system, which was not the aim of this case study approach. Instead, it was to gain a better understanding and to distinguish a pattern in the strategies. In this manner, differences and similarities could be highlighted and a scenario given regarding the strategies when teaching reading in a multilingual setting. The findings thus emphasize the importance of focusing on linguistic diversity in pre- as well as in-service training.

I would also like to add that the central core of this study consists of detailed case studies in particular educational settings, and is not representative for all settings. However, the wider processes at work in any particular setting need be to kept sight of, as well as the powerful globalized discourses underpinning those processes. For such purposes, case studies give an important insight by adding the context, which offers a deeper

understanding of the observed linguistically diverse settings. This can further contribute to improving the education offered.

8.4   Future directions

This study is part of my long-term inquiry into multilingualism in different dimensions; it builds on my previous experiences and points towards future areas of interest. To conclude, I will mention possible areas of future inquiry.

In the present study, a wide range of factors that may impact on the teaching of reading in multilingual settings and multilingual literacies comes into focus. Complex and multidimensional beliefs can be seen to interact with professional competence regarding the implementation of teaching reading in multilingual settings. The study has revealed that a teacher's previous personal experience with multilingualism does not necessarily imply an active implementation of the students' MULR when teaching reading in a multilingual setting. It appears that multilayered, mainly dualistic beliefs are present and used to guide the implementations in class. The beliefs are further framed by a monolingual habitus in the educational system and a view that multiple languages do not and should not interact. This leads to static reactions towards multilingualism which then means an oversight of the students' MULR as an advantage to learning.

The analysis in three procedures of empirical data and theoretical perspectives taken in this project resulted in a matrix of four types of strategies which were established as a pattern for teaching reading in multilingual settings. It is necessary to critically examine the dominant public discourses which reproduce a deficit perspective on linguistic diversity among the students. It is undeniable that there is a need for further training (both pre- and in-service) on linguistic diversity (especially related to less valued languages, adding a transnational perspective) in the classrooms, thus expanding the professional competence of teaching staff in a global direction. Such training could start with an exploration of the pedagogical staff's beliefs and own experiences of linguistic diversity. A discussion regarding interactions at different levels in educational settings and their interconnection should also follow.

There are, however, many stories left to tell, both in the settings that I visited and other settings. In this study, two different teaching settings, submersion and immersion teaching models, were investigated. Visiting further settings could deepen and further differentiate the developed types. Moreover, there are theoretical concepts, such as "super diversity" (Vertovec, 2007) and the global education approach (Lang-Wojtasik and Klemm, 2017), which were beyond the scope of this study and therefore could only be briefly mentioned, but which would be interesting to pursue in this context. Moreover, adding a longitudinal aspect could illustrate recurring patterns, which could process questions regarding the professional competence in these issues. My main wish is a continued discussion of the issues, away from the notion of multilingualism as a deficit and towards the reinforcing of multidimensional perspectives, in which linguistic diversity is valued as a resource to a more global approach to teaching.

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Appendix A: Interview guide in German

Themenbereich 1: Eigene Erfahrungen mit Mehrsprachigkeit –

Own experience regarding multilingualism

Impulsfrage	Detailierungsfragen
Erzählen Sie über Ihre Klasse bezüglich Mehrsprachigkeit	
Mögliche Einstiegsfrage: Ich habe in Ihrem Unterricht XXX gesehen. Wieso sind Sie so vorgegangen?	
Wie hoch ist der Anteil mehrsprachiger Kinder in Ihrer Klasse und wie breit ist das Herkunftsspektrum?	
Welche Erfahrungen mit mehrsprachigen SuS haben Sie gemacht?	
Hat sich das Bild hinsichtlich der SuS mit DaF/DaZ in den letzten Jahren verändert?	(Nationalität/Anzahl gestiegen/ gesunken?)

Themenbereich 2: Überzeugungen zur Mehrsprachigkeit – *Beliefs multilingualism*

Impulsfrage	Detailierungsfragen
Was bedeutet Mehrsprachigkeit für Sie?	
(Erzählen Sie über zwei mehrsprachigen Kinder in Ihrer Klasse)	
Wie ist Ihre grundsätzliche Einstellung zum Thema Mehrsprachigkeit im Unterricht?	
Wie sehen Sie die Anwesenheit mehrsprachiger Schülerinnen und Schüler im Unterricht?	
Welche Vor- und Nachteile ergeben sich aus Ihrer Sicht durch die Mehrsprachigkeit im Unterricht?	
Vor- und Nachteile hinsichtlich der Lesekompetenz?	

Themenbereich 3: Schulpolitischen Rahmenbedingungen –

School set-up regarding multilingualism

Impulsfrage	Detailierungsfragen
Welche Dokumente über die Mehrsprachigkeit gibt es?	Lehrpläne? Richtlinien? Materialen? Literatur?
Haben Sie an Fort- oder Weiterbildung für den Unterricht in mehrsprachigen Settings teilgenommen?	
Wie fühlen sich die Lehrkräfte vonseiten der Schulpolitik und der Schulbuchverlage unterstützt?	

Themenbereich 4: Lesekompetenz und Mehrsprachigkeit –

Reading and multilingualism

Impulsfrage	Detailierungsfragen
Was bedeutet Lesekompetenz für Sie?	
Erzählen Sie über Ihre Planung vom Unterricht zur Lesekompetenz	Materialen? Literatur?
Welche Kompetenzen sind aus Ihrer Sicht für die Durchführung eines Unterrichtes zu Lesekompetenz unter Bedingungen der Mehrsprachigkeit nötig?	- Welche Anforderungen im Speziellen werden an die Lehrkräfte gestellt? - Wie fühlen Sie sich in dieser Hinsicht ausgebildet? - Gibt es Fortbildungen bzw. werden sie genutzt?
Welches Ziel sollte ein Unterricht zu Lesekompetenz unter mehrsprachigen Bedingungen haben?	
Wie gehen Sie bei dem Unterricht vor?	Bekommen die mehrsprachigen Kinder andere Aufgaben/Erklärungen/Materialen?

Abschluss:

- Haben wir etwas vergessen, was Sie gern noch ansprechen würden?

Appendix B: Interview guide in Swedish

Temaområde 1: Egna erfarenheter med flerspråkighet –

Own experience regarding multilingualism

Impulsfråga	Detaljfråga
Berätta om klassen när det gäller flerspråkighet	
Möjlig "uppvärmingsfråga": under lektionen lade jag märke till XXX. Varför valde du detta sätt att genomföra undervisningen på?	
Hur många flerspråkiga barn finns det i klassen och hur stort är ursprungsspektrumet?	
Vilka erfarenheter med flerspråkiga elever har du hittills haft?	
Har situationen vad det gäller elever med svenska som andraspråk ändrat sig de senaste åren?	(Nationalitet/antal sjunkit/stigit?)

Temområde 2: Uppfattningar flerspråkighet –

Beliefs multilingualism

Impulsfråga	Detaljfråga
Vad är flerspråkighet för dig?	
Hur ser din grundläggade inställning ut vad det gäller flerspråkighet i undervisningen?	
Vad säger du om flerspråkiga elever i klassen?	
Vilka för- och nackdelar ser du med flerspråkigheten i undervisningen?	
För- och nackdelar med flerspråkighet när det gäller till läsförståelsen?	

Temaområde 3: Styrdokument/ramvillkor –

School set-up regarding multilingualism

Impulsfråga	Detaljfråga
Vilka dokument om flerspråkighet finns det?	Läroplaner? Riktlinjer? Material? Litteratur?
Har du gått på fortbildning/kompetensutveckling för undervisning i flerspråkiga miljöer?	
Hur känner pedagogerna i skolan att de stöttas av skolpolitiken och läromedelsföretagen?	

Temaområde 4: Läsförståelse och flerspråkighet –

Reading and multilingualism

Impulsfråga	Detaljfråga
Vad betyder läsförståelse för dig?	
Berätta om planeringen för undervisningen vad det gäller läsförståelse	Material? Litteratur?
Har du gått på fortbildning/kompetensutveckling för undervisning av läsförståelse?	
Vilken kompetens behövs anser du för att kunna genomföra undervisning för läsförståelse i en flerspråkig miljö?	- Vilken kompetens krävs av pedagogerna? - Hur bedömer du din egen kompetens för detta? - Finns det fortbildningar/kompetensutveckling, har du gått någon fortbildning?
Vilka mål ska undervisningen i läsförståelse i flerspråkiga miljöer ha enligt dig?	
Hur går du tillväga vid undervisningen?	Får de flerspråkiga barnen andra uppgifter/förklaringar/material?

Avslut:

- Har vi glömt något, som du gärna skulle vilja tillägga?

Appendix C: Questionnaire in German

<u>Kurzfragebogen</u>

Name:

_____

(1) Wann sind Sie geboren?

_____

(2) Wann und wo haben Sie Ihr Lehramtsstudium beendet?

_____

(3) Haben Sie ein spezielles Studium für den Unterricht in multilingualen

Klassen absolviert?

_____

(4) Wie lange sind Sie bereits im Schuldienst?

_____

(5) Welche Sprachen sprechen Sie?

_____

(6) Haben Sie eine längere Zeit (länger als drei Monate) im Ausland

verbracht?

_____

(7) Anzahl Kinder in der Klasse mit einer anderen Sprache in der Familie?

_____

(8) Bekommen die mehrsprachigen Kinder besondere Förderung? (z.B.

Muttersprachunterricht, Deutsch als Zweitsprache)

_____

Appendix D: Questionnaire in Swedish

<u>Frågeformulär</u>

Namn:

_____

(9) Födelseår?

_____

(10) Typ av utbildning, år?

_____

(11) Har du gått något speciell kurs/utbildning när det gäller undervisning i flerspråkiga miljöer?

_____

(12) Sedan hur länge arbetar du som lärare?

_____

(13) Vilka språk talar du?

_____

(14) Har du tillbringat en längre tid i utlandet (längre än tre månader? Om ja, var och hur länge?

_____

(15) Antal elever i klassen som har andra språk än svenska i familjen? (t.ex. föräldrar med annat modersmål eller att annat språk talas regelbundet i familjen)

_____

(16) Får de flerspråkiga barnen någon speciell extraundervisning? (t.ex. modersmålsundervisning, svenska som andraspråk)

_____

Appendix E: Transcription of quotes - original language and translations

Quote	Original (German)	English translation
DE2:1	Ja, für mich ist das [Mehrsprachigkeit] ein Riesengeschenk, das sage ich allen Eltern und allen, das (...) Ich habe selbst gute Freunde, da ist der Mann Türke und sie Deutsche … (...) Ich hätte das auch am liebsten für meine Kinder, und auch für mich persönlich, also (...)	For me it [multilingualism] is a huge gift, I say that to all the parents and everyone, that (…): I have some good friends myself, the man is Turkish, and she's German … I would love to have that [multilingualism] for my children, and also for myself personally.
DE2:2	Das [eine mehrsprachige Person] ist für mich schon jemand der eine Sprache auf Muttersprachenniveau beherrscht, eine zweite Sprache	For me that [a multilingual person] is someone that speaks a language at a native speaker level, a second language.
DE2:3	Oder drei, es können auch ja drei sein, je nachdem	…or three, it can be three as well, it depends.
DE2:4	Ich habe allgemein so gefragt einfach, genau. Also, wir haben so eine Runde gemacht und dann habe ich gesagt, ich würde gerne wissen, wie ihr (...) Und dann haben die Kinder halt erzählt. Das war ganz interessant, weil einige das auch gar nicht richtig dann wussten und so. Weil ich das ja auch mit den Geschwistern noch eingebracht hatte und dann hat auch (...) Aber da haben die Kinder denn selber so ein bisschen reflektiert, das war denn ganz nett, genau, ja.	I just asked in a general way, exactly. So, we went through the class asking everybody, and then I said, I would like to know, what how you (…) And then the children simply replied. This was very interesting, since some of them did not really know and so. Since I brought in the siblings as well and that has also (…). But then the children reflected a bit, that was really nice, exactly, yes.
DE2:5	Bei Diana ist es natürlich jetzt einfach speziell, weil sie Halbamerikanerin ist und ich natürlich da auch versuche, dass wir den Englisch-Unterricht so einzubringen (...) Öhm, dass ich sie auch mal eher etwas vorlesen lasse oder ja, öhm, bei kleinen	In Diana's case naturally it is special, since she is half American and I of course try to include this in the English class (…) Ehm, that I also let her read out loud, or, ehm, in smaller role plays, that she can play a role there.

	Rollenspielen, dass sie dann in die Rolle schlüpft und (...)	
DE2:6	.. da ist eigentlich mein Ziel so in diesen zwei Jahren, dass sie einfach auch bestimmte Strategien haben, wie im (..). Unterstreichen oder markieren von Wörtern, öhm. Dass sie auch einfach, ich finde, was ganz wichtiges ist es einfach, dass sie auch zugeben können, dass sie ein Wort mal nicht kennen, nicht verstehen, oder eine Wortgruppe, oder dass sich ein Satz irgendwie komisch anhört und (...) Weil man ihn auch vielleicht falsch betont hat. Also, das ist mir sehr wichtig, dass sie eigentlich nach den zwei Jahren rausgehen und sagen können, OK, ich kann mir so einen Text erschließen, ich habe einen Werkzeug dafür".	That has been my goal during these two years, that they simply have certain strategies, such as (…). Underlining or marking words, ehm. That they simply, I find it, it is really something very important, that they also can admit, that they sometimes don't know a word, don't understand, or a word group, or that a sentence sounds strange and (….) Since it maybe was stressed incorrectly. So, it is important for me that they leave this classroom after two years, being able to say "Ok, I can understand such a text, I have to tools for it."
DE2:7	Weil ich letztendlich den Unterschied zwischen Mehrsprachigkeit und Einsprachigkeit dann nicht sehe, sondern wirklich in der Lesekompetenz der einzelnen Kinder	Since I in the end don't see any difference between multilingualism and monolingualism, but actually it's really in the reading comprehension of the individual children.
DE2:8	Genau, es wird wirklich so als Bereicherung gesehen, immer mal wieder kommt das dazu, ja, so ein ähnliches Wort, wenn wir jetzt Englisch (...). "Es gibt auch in meiner Sprache" oder (...). Ja. Ich versuche schon, das auch mal ein bisschen mit zu integrieren.	Exactly, it is really seen as an enrichment, now and again, it is the case, that well, a similar word, if we for example take English (…) "That's also in my language" or (…). Yes. I try, to also integrate that a bit.
DE2:9	Öhm, wir hatten eben mal gedacht, angedacht war damals Besjana auch dort zu integrieren, aber es ist schon (...) Also, es gibt schon Kinder, die einfach da, ja (..)	Ehm, we had thought/planned was to integrate Besjana there [in the separate class for learning German], but that's already (..) Well, there are children, which, well (..) need more support and

	noch mehr Förderung brauchen und wo ich jetzt auch denke, Besjana und eigentlich auch alle anderen mehrsprachigen Kinder kommen so jetzt gut im Unterricht zurecht.	I think that Besjana and actually also all the other multilingual children [in this class] are now doing well in class.
DE2:10	Ja, aber eben so begrenzt, dass ich sagen würde, dass ich kein spezielles Studium für multilinguale Klassen habe.	Yes, but this was so limited that I would say that I don't have any special training for multilingual classes.
DE2:11	Dazu, da sind wir gerade wirklich so in den Anfängen, das war jetzt einfach die letzten Male Thema in den Konferenzen, wie viel wir da einfach jetzt auch (...) Ja, drauf reagieren, damit umgehen und natürlich ist diese Asylbewerberproblematik für uns auch nochmal etwas anderes, weil öhm, weil diese Kinder einfach auf einmal da sind und dann auf einmal wieder gehen	We are really in the starting phase here [regarding newly arrived students], that was the topic in the last [teacher] conferences, how much we also simply (…) Well, react to, deal with it, and of course this issue with the asylum seekers is something different for us, well, since these children are here all of a sudden and then they leave again suddenly

Quote	Original (German)	English translation
DE3:1	Für mich ist Mehrsprachigkeit, dass ich eine Sprache, meine Muttersprache, praktisch, oder was heißt eine/ich spreche meine Sprachen, wie meine Muttersprache. Das ist für mich Mehrsprachigkeit. Also, ich spreche Deutsch und genau so könnte ich auch Englisch	To me, multilingualism is that I speak a language, my mother tongue, almost, or I mean/I speak my languages, just like my mother tongue. That for me is multilingualism. That is, I speak German and just like that I could speak English.
DE3:2	Ja, ich würde jemanden mehrsprachig nennen, der wirklich fünf Sprachen sprechen kann. Das ist ja nicht Mehrsprachigkeit	Yes, I would call a person who really can speak <u>five</u> languages multilingual. This [her language knowledge] is not multilingualism.
DE3:3	Ich denke, Sprache hat immer auch damit zu tun, dass ich die Sprache lebe. Also, wenn ich in Spanien lebe, lerne ich die Sprache und dann lebe ich mit der Sprache. Wenn ich hier in Deutschland, eine/Spanisch an der Volkshochschule lerne, dann lerne ich die Sprache. Das ist	I believe that language is always connected with how I live the language. That is, if I live in Spain, I learn the language and I <u>live</u> with that language. If I learn Spanish in an evening course at the *Volkhochschule* [center for adult education], then I <u>learn</u> the language. That is for me/and that is for me really multilingualism/for

	für mich noch mal so/und das ist so für mich auch eigentlich Mehrsprachigkeit wirklich/für mich bedeute es, ich lebe diese Sprache. Entweder mit einem Teil meiner Eltern oder mit meinen Großeltern oder mit meinen Freunden. Das ist, das ist für mich auch Mehrsprachigkeit	me it means, that I <u>live</u> that language. Either with one of my parents or with my grandparents or with my friends. That is multilingualism for me.
DE3:4	Und Spanisch muttersprachlich?	And Spanish on [a] mother tongue level?
DE3:5	Und so spricht eben jeder/oder auch dieses gegen die Ausländerfeindlichkeit, so arbeiten, dass ich sage "Ja aber wie, Ausländer sind blöd? Das glaube ich nicht. Ihr liebt das nämlich, weil ich weiß, ihr esst alle Pizza und Spagetti!" Und dann wird es denen erst bewusst, sie sagen "Oh, ja, stimmt ja". Genau.	And that's what everyone says/or in this way to work against xenophobia, so that I say "Yes, but what do you mean, foreigners are stupid? I don't think so. You all love it, I know that you all eat pizza and spaghetti!" And then they suddenly realize it, they say "Yes, that's true". Exactly.
DE3:6	Ich finde eigentlich/ich bin ein positiver Mensch, ich sehe eigentlich nur Vorteile (laugh), ein Nachteil könnte gesehen werden, dadurch dass sie zwei oder mehrere Sprachen haben, kriegen sie die ein bisschen durcheinander, und unser Schuldeutsch erwartet ja, dieses korrekte Deutsch	I am actually/I am a positive person, actually I only see advantages (laugh), one disadvantage could be that those with two languages or more mix up the languages and our school German is expecting well, this correct German.
DE3:7	Weil die Kinder einfach, auch dieses Sprachgefühl, es ist eine Offenheit, die sie haben, und eine Kunst. Ja. Und es fördert ja auch intellektuell, wenn ich mehrere Sprachen sprechen kann, wie toll. Eine Geistrege und ich denke auch für später, ich denke auch für später, ich glaube schon, dass die Menschen ihr Leben lang irgendwie leichter lernen vielleicht, das sehe ich auch als Vorteil. Ja.	Because the children simply, also this feeling for the language, it is an openness that they have, and a skill. Yes. And it's intellectually stimulating if I can speak several languages, that's great! It engages the mind and I also think that for later, I think that for later, I believe, that these people maybe somehow learn easier through their whole life, I also see this as an advantage as well. Yes.
DE3:8	Mir ist das Lesen sehr, sehr wichtig, weil durch das Lesen ganz viel angeregt wird. Da wird die Sprache angeregt und die	Reading is very, very important to me, since reading stimulates so much. The language is

		Ausdruckfähigkeit, der Wortschatz erweitert, das ist enorm/die Rechtschreibung, <u>alles,</u> über das Lesen.	animated and the ability to express oneself, vocabulary is amplified, it's tremendous/spelling, <u>everything</u>, through reading.
DE3:9		Und auf Deutsch wirkt es nicht positiv aber auch nicht negativ aus, ich weiß es jetzt gar nicht, ich finde keine Auswirkung.	And for German it has no positive effect, but also no negative, I don't know, I don't find any effect.
DE3:10		Ich finde das sehr ansprechend zu lesen, ein schöner Ton ist getroffen worden, gute Sprache, auch sprachlich verständlich auf alle Fälle, wobei so eine Dicke natürlich ein bisschen (...), aber da habe ich mir die einzelnen Kapitel, Italienisch hat mich jetzt interessiert, aber dann habe ich auch gemerkt, uff, das ist mir jetzt ein bisschen zu viel, mit den ganzen Lauten und wie. Das geht mir jetzt zu tief. Aber den Anfang habe ich gedacht, ja, da ist durchaus was drin, was ich genauer lesen muss. Ich hatte es nur einen Tag mit und hatte so ein bisschen quergelesen aber das ist, was ich jetzt auch sage, "Hey, da habe ich so einen Anstupser gekriegt" und das gilt für mich dann, als Interessegebiet auf jede Fälle weiter.	I find it very appealing to read, it has a nice tone, good language, also linguistically comprehensible anyway, even though the thickness [of the book] of course is a bit (..) but I read some chapters, Italian really interested me, but then it was too much with the sounds and all. That goes too deep for me. In the beginning I thought, well, this is something that I have to read more closely. I only had it for one day and I skimmed it but that is, what I now say "Well, there I got nudged" and that will continue to interest me.
DE3:11		Dann haben wir aber gemerkt, wenn die Kinder mit der gleichen Muttersprache zu viele sind in einer Klasse, die sitzen dann auch gerne zusammen und unterhalten sich dann in ihrem eigenen Muttersprache, daraufhin haben wir beschlossen, die etwas zu trennen und haben dann die einzelnen Kinder auf verschiedenen Klassen aufgeteilt.	Then we noticed though that when there are too many children with the same mother tongue in one class, they like to sit together and talk to each other in their own mother tongue. That is why we decided to separate them and to divided them into different classes.

DE3:12	Zum Beispiel wenn wir im Englischen eine Arbeitseinweisung haben, die stehen ja immer auf Englisch und dann auf Deutsch auch da und oft haben die anderen Kinder ihr Heft nicht auf und ich sage denn, er soll die Aufgabe vorlesen und dann gucken wir eben, wie kann das heißen und er kann das sofort übersetzen.	For example, in English (Class) when we get instructions, they are always in English and then also in German, and often the other children don't have their books open and then I say, X should read the task out loud and then we will look at what it could mean, and he can translate it immediately.
DE3:13	Conor, wie spricht man dann aus, das weiß ich nicht gar nicht so" und dann sagt er mir das. Oder er weiß auch viele so Wörter, so Alltagswörter auch, die wir so in der Schule nicht so haben. Was heißt zum Beispiel so "Angeber", das wusste ich nicht so und dann sagt er "Ah, it's a show-off", "Ah, ja genau". Das ist dann (...), im Gegenteil, er bringt uns noch Wissenszuwachs dadurch auch, durch seine Lesekompetenz, in einer anderen Sprache, finde ich schön	"Conor, how do you say: I don't know really that?" and then he tells me. Or he also knows so many words, everyday words, which we don't really have in that form in school. How do you say, for example, "Angeber"? Which I didn't know and then he says "Oh, it's a show-off". "Oh, yes exactly". That is then (…) on the contrary, he also adds to our knowledge, through his reading ability in another language. I find that nice.
DE3:14	Und im Diktat, da ich diktiere sie, da hat sie jetzt, nicht das sie jetzt die falschen Artikeln zum Beispiel schreiben würde, aber wenn ich merke, dass sie so einen (..) <u>typischen</u>, nenne ich es mal, "italienischen Fehler" machte, dann würde ich es nur unterkringeln und nur vielleicht nur ein Ausrufezeichen "Achtung!", aber das ist durch ihre Sprache, aber das wäre jetzt nicht ein Fehler und dadurch wirkt es sich nicht auf die Note aus.	And in dictation, where I dictate for them, there she has, not that she would write the wrong articles for example, but if I notice, that she has (…) made such a <u>typical</u>, let me call it maybe an, "Italian error", then I would just circle it and then maybe with only an exclamation mark "careful!", but that is because of her language, and it would not be an error, and as such, it would not affect her grade.
DE3:15	Mehrsprachigkeit im Unterricht. Das sind hauptsächlich so Stunden/so besondere Stunden, wir machen den internationalen Tag, oder wir machen, das machen wir nächste Woche, das ist auch im Wochenplan, welche Begriffe, sage ich zum Beispiel "Katze", dann habe ich verschiedene	Multilingualism in class. That are mainly classes/such special classes, we have an international day, or we do, we will do this next week, that is also on the weekly schedule, such terms, I say for example "cat", then I have several children with different languages, we collect and the "Katze" (cat) is then German, then we draw

	Kinder mit verschieden Sprachen, wir sammeln dann die Katze ist dann Deutsch, dann malen wir die Flagge da hinten, dann kommt das serbische Kind wie heißt es bei mir und malt seine Flagge da hinten und das wir so ein bisschen ein Sprach/oder so ein Hörbad auch kriegen. Das sind aber einzelnen Stunden/	the flag next to it, then the Serbian child comes, "what is it in my language?" and draws his flag next to that, and so that we also have kind of a language/or listening bath. But these are only individual classes/
DE3:16	Ich esse sehr gerne (laugh) und ich habe dann auch Conor gefragt, Conor was ist dann bei euch in Irland, was habt dann ihr traditionell, bis er drauf gekommen ist, Irish Stew, ist wohl der, diesen Eintopf, dann beschreibt er das so "was kommt da alles rein" und uns läuft das Wasser im Mund zusammen.	I really enjoy eating (laugh) and so I asked Conor: "Conor, what do you have in Ireland? What do you eat traditionally?" Until he realized, Irish stew, which would be in this stew. Then he described it and what's in it, and our mouths all watered while listening.
DE3:17	Die Kinder bekommen ja eine besondere Förderung, jetzt nicht unbedingt in meinem Unterricht, minimal auch, aber wir haben ja auch diese Extrastunden.	The children get special educational support, but not necessarily in my class, minimally as well, but we have these additional hours.

Quote	Original (Swedish)	English translation
SV1:1	Det är ju en fördel, för det första skulle jag vilja säga. Men flerspråkighet - att kunna uttrycka sig och kunna förstå, på flera språk. Alltså man får ju ett mer berikat språk. Flerspråkig. Man kan ju uttrycka sig och förstå flera språk. Så tänker jag.	It is a benefit that I would say firstly. But multilingualism – being able to express yourself and to understand, in several languages. Well, you get a more enriched language. Multilingual. You can express yourself and understand several languages. This is how I think.
SV1:2	Men, alltså jag ser ju en fördel på det här med, som inte språkligt bara, utan som en fördel på det här att man har förståelse för andra kulturer, man har förståelse för hur världen ser ut, den är ju den stora grejen tycker jag med att ha flerspråkiga/	Actually, I do see an advantage with this, it is not only linguistically, but also as an advantage of understanding other cultures, an understanding of the worldview, that is the big thing I believe with multilinguals/

SV1:3	Jag vet inte hur de riktigt <u>är</u> på/persiska och på spanska. Jag vet ju inte vad de kan. Men på svenska kan Dolores och liksom Hisham jättebra.	I don't quite know how good they really <u>are</u> in/Persian and Spanish I don't know what they know, but Dolores and Hisham speak Swedish very well.
SV1:4	Alltså att man har en insikt om hur svårt det kan vara. Det tycker jag är viktigt. Sen måste man ha, man måste ha nån, man måste ju ha utbildning i hur kan man/alltså vad är det som i forskningen har fungerat?	Well, one has a perception about how difficult it can be [to understand texts]. I believe that this is important. Then one has to have, one has to have some, one has to have training on how one/well, what has been working in research?
SV1:5	Men inte att jag ändrar mitt arbetssätt, det har jag inte gjort. Utan nej. Jag har samma arbetssätt för jag har ändå haft dom som jag tycker förstår bra. Om man säger, för att vara flerspråkiga.	Not that I've changed my procedures. No. I use the same procedures as I still have those [students] who have good comprehension. Considering them being multilingual.
SV1:6	Nej. Vi har inget samarbete på det sättet.	No, we don't cooperate in that manner [when asked if they cooperated with the mother tongue instruction teachers regarding the subjects taught in class].
SV1:7	"Får de flerspråkiga barnen någon speciell extraundervisning?" Ja, modersmål får de.	"Do the multilingual children receive any additional classes?" Yes, they receive supplementary classes in their mother tongue.

Quote	Original (Swedish)	English translation
SV2:1	Ja för mig som lärare betyder det ju en stor utmaning. I undervisningen.	Yes, for me as a teacher, it means a great challenge. In the teaching.
SV2:2	Ja, alltså, jag måste ju ta hänsyn till att till mitt klassrum kan det komma barn som inte alls kan göra sig förstådda och de kanske inte alls förstår vad jag säger till dem. Så det kan det ju vara. Och man kanske måste använda många andra sätt att kommunicera och för ett kommunicerande med deras föräldrar så måste jag ju använda mig av tolk.	Well, I need to consider that there may be children entering my classroom that may not be as to express themselves, and they may not understand anything I tell them. It may be like that. And I may need other tools for communication and in communication with their parents, I may need to use an interpreter.

SV:3	Fördelarna är ju att/alltså det ... det är väldigt roliga grupper att jobba med, för mig som lärare, det är oerhört stimulerande och de får en, alltså, de/det blir som regel väldigt fina grupper, och de blir väldigt omhändertagande med varandra, och det blir liksom, ja, en fin stämning i klassen helt enkelt. De kan ju som berika varandra på en mängd olika sätt också.	The advantages are that/well, it … the groups are very fun to work with, for me as a teacher, it is incredible inspiring, and the students make you, well, they/the groups are very nice and the students are very considerate and caring of each other, the atmosphere simply is very nice in the class. They have the ability to enrich each other in various ways.
SV2:4	Ja, en del av dem ska lära sig/alltså en del utav dem kanske har/vi har ju elever som har kommit som har ett bristande ordförråd på sitt modersmål och ännu inte utvecklat liksom/de har inte utvecklat sitt skolspråk på sitt modersmål. Och då ska de både jobba med sitt modersmål <u>och</u> med svenskan ... det är ju liksom ... dubbla arbetsuppgifter. Alltså, det är jättetufft för de barnen. Det är det. De får en väl/en stor uppförsbacke om vi så säger.	Well, some of them have to learn/I mean, some of them may have/we have students who have a lack in the vocabulary in their mother tongues and have not yet developed/well, they have not developed the school language in their mother tongue. And now they need to work on mother tongue and Swedish … it is kind of … a double task. It is really challenging for those kids. It is. They have a huge mountain to concur if we can put it like that.
SV2:5	Jag tog det beslutet, därför att de där bilderna, jamen, det blev så explosionsartat när det kom och jag kände att bilderna spreds som en löpeld mellan alla möjliga skolor och, det blev så, man kanske inte har tänkt efter, först innan man börja använda dem, innan man började vifta med de där bilderna och korten, vad det egentligen stod för.	I made that decision [not using the ELK photos], well, those pictures were used so exaggeratedly when they arrived. I had the feeling as if they were spreading like fire between schools, and it turned into, it seemed like, no one had reflected on what they actually stood for before using them.
SV2:6	Alltså, jag tänker ju så här, att eftersom vi har så många elever, som är flerspråkiga i klassen, så tänker jag att det är <u>jätte-, jätteviktigt</u> att vi, vi jobbar liksom med alla texter tillsammans, vi plockar ut, tittar på vad det är för ord, vad betyder de, går det här att säga på något enklare sätt , kan vi byta ut det här ordet mot ett annat ord, så	Well, I think like this, as so many of our students in our class are multilingual, I feel that it is really, <u>extremely</u> important that we work with all texts together, we select, look at which kind of words there are, what do they mean, can this be said in an easier way, can we exchange this word for another, so that we really/because the most words that occur, they [the students] have like

	att vi verkligen/för att de flesta ord som kommer, har ju som ett vardagsspråk. Men skolspråket är ju något annat. Vardagsspråket brukar barn tillägna sig ganska så snabbt, men vi måste vara medvetna om att vi har ett skolspråk och det är det vi måste jobba med. Man uttrycker sig inte riktigt på samma sätt i skolan som man gör i hemmet, och det/texterna ser annorlunda ut, vi ska skriva på ett visst sätt för att nå liksom kunskapskraven och så vidare. Så det är ju jätte-, jätteviktigt att vi, vi är förebilder, att vi ger förförståelse, att vi skriver tillsammans, att vi skriver i par, innan man sen ska göra det själv. Och så tycker jag att vi jobbar med både/jag försöker göra så både med skrivandet och läsandet, och inte bara i svenska, utan att vi gör det i alla ämnen.	an everyday language. But academic language is different. Children normally pick up the everyday language with ease, but we need to work with the academic language. Most of us we don't express ourselves in the same way at school as you do at home. So it is extremely important that we stick to being role models. We have to write in one way to reach the set knowledge goals and so on. So it it very, very important that we, we are role models, that we offer preperception, that we write together, that we write in pairs, before you have to do it on your own. And then I think that we work with both/I try to do so with the writing and the reading, and not only during Swedish class, but that we do so in all subjects.
SV2:6	Språk kan ju vara så mycket tänker jag när du säger flerspråkighet. För mig tänker jag så här, jag kan tänka bildspråk och kroppsspråk och, såna språk har vi ju också.	Language can be so much I think when you speak about multilingualism. For instance for me, I can imagine pictures and body language and, such languages we have as well.
SV2:7	Ja, alltså, som du tänkte/jag har ju t.ex. köpt böcker själv som jag tycker är väldigt väldigt bra, som Pauline Gibbons böcker och Hajers böcker, och alltså/sånt har jag köpt själv, som jag läser själv.	Well, as you're suggesting/I, for example, I buy a lot of books on my own that I like, for instance Pauline Gibbon's books and Hajer's books and well/ those books that I read on my own, I buy out of my own pocket.
SV2:8	Ingenting som vi har fått här på skolan och som vi har blivit tillsagda att det här måste ni läsa eller det här måste ni sätta er in i eftersom ni har en sån stor del andraspråkselever. Så har det inte varit, utan/när jag har fortbildat mig har det varit på min fritid kan jag säga.	Nothing that we have received from the school administration and been told to read since that would be important to know as we have such a huge body of second language students. It hasn't been like that. All my training has been in my own spare time, that's my honest truth.

SV2:9	Öhm ... ibland och ibland inte. Ibland så kan ju vissa svensklektioner ha, svenska och mot mina SO-lektioner så har jag en kompanionlärare som också är SVA-utbildad och när hon kommer in, så brukar vi, <u>ibland</u>, göra grupper utifrån t.ex. läsnivå	Ehm … sometimes and sometimes not. Sometimes, certain Swedish lessons can have, Swedish and social science I have an additional teacher who also has training in Swedish as second language and when she comes, then we <u>sometimes</u> group the students based on, for example, the reading level.

Quote	Original (German)	English translation
CL1:1	Und als wir nach/als wir hier, also nach Chile gezogen sind, eh, da konnte, ich konnte ja nicht gut Spanisch reden, und ich wollte auch nicht die Deutsche sein, und da wollte ich/auf einem Mal habe ich auch zu meine XX [deutsche Elternteil], gesagt, ich möchte nur Spanisch reden.	And as we/as we came here, that is to Chile, eh, well, I couldn't speak Spanish that well, and I didn't want to be the German, and then I wanted/at one point I told my XX [the German parent], that I only wanted to speak Spanish.
CL1:2	Vielleicht, also es war gut, weil ich schnell Spanisch gelernt haben, aber vielleicht nicht so gut, weil ich hätte vielleicht/also, wenn ich mit meiner Mutter vielleicht auf Deutsch zuhause geredet hätte, da wäre ich noch Muttersprachler gewesen, aber ... Das hat sich mit der Zeit/da habe ich auch, die Sprache ein bisschen verlernt.	Maybe it was good [to change the language], since I learned Spanish quickly, but maybe it was not so good however, since I maybe had/well, if I had continued speaking German at home, then I would still have been a native speaker, but … With time this has/ so I also forgot some parts of the language.
CL1:3	Also, es ist ja nicht nur die Sprache, es ist auch die Kultur, eh, die Beziehung zur, also zu in, in diesem Fall, nach, zu Deutschland, eh, es sind halt zwei verschiedene Welten.	Well, it is not only the language, it is also the culture, eh, the connection to, well, in this case, to Germany, eh, it is two different worlds.
CL1:4	Ja, und als Nachteil, ja, zum Beispiel, Fächer wie Naturkunde, wo, eh, der Stoff ziemlich schwierig ist, und das dann noch auf Deutsch, ja, natürlich, es wird dann noch schwieriger. Weil vom Wortschatz hier ist es ziemlich schwierig, auf beiden	Yes, and as a disadvantage, well, for example, subjects like natural sciences, where the subject matter is quite difficult, and then this in German, well, of course, it becomes even more difficult. It is quite difficult in terms of the vocabu-

	Sprachen. Ehm, aber ich sehe mehr Vorteile als Nachteile eigentlich, ja, die Kinder gewönnen sich halt.	lary, in both languages. Ehm, but I see more advantages than disadvantages really, the children get used to it [the multilingualism].
CL1:5	Ich versuche viel im Plenum zu lesen, weil viele Kinder lesen ganz/also, das mit dem Leseverstehen ist ein Thema, aber auch im Spanischen. Also die Kinder lesen immer weniger und die verstehen auch fast kaum, was sie lesen. Ich versuche dann immer im Plenum zu lesen und dann auch alles unterstreichen mit den Farben, wie du gesehen hast, damit sie	I try to let them read a lot in class, since many children read very/well, that with the reading comprehension is an issue, but also in Spanish. The children read less and less and they hardly understand anything about what they are reading. I therefore try to let them read a lot in class and also to underline everything with the colors, which you could observe in class.
CL1:6	/und ich erlaube sogar jetzt auch, in der vierten Klasse, dass sie auch zum Beispiel nebenan, wenn sie ein Wort nicht kennt, dass sie auch das spanische Wort neben hinschreiben.	.. and now, in the fourth class, I even allow that they for example, at the side, if they do not know a word, that they write down the Spanish word.
CL1:7	Es sind/ich habe zwei Muttersprachler, aber in der Deutschstunde gehen sie ja in den Muttersprachunterricht.	There are/I have two [German] native speakers, but in the German class they go to the German native speaker class.

Globalization has not only changed our society, it has also had a profound effect on education. Many schools deal with student populations that due to migration have become increasingly multilingual. Politically, few would argue against the importance of multilingualism; rather, it is promoted to the fullest. However, in practical terms the challenges associated with teaching and educational policies have increased manifold as a result of the linguistic diversity among student bodies. Reading is certainly regarded as a key learning skill, however, the question arises as to how the students' life-world multilingualism is taken into consideration. Furthermore, being considered part of teachers' professional competence, teachers' mental processes and perceptions (beliefs) have been the focus in several different academic fields. Previous research suggests that there are significant links between teachers' beliefs and practices. This thesis explores the aforementioned aspects in greater detail, with the overall aim to gain a deeper understanding of teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. Using a cross-disciplinary, qualitative research approach, the empirical inquiry is based on case studies within different, linguistically diverse settings. The case studies include classroom observations as well as teacher interviews in German, Swedish and Chilean grade 4 classrooms.

Monica Bravo Granström is an academic staff member at the University of Education Weingarten (Germany) with focus on multilingualism and language learning, as well as a Swedish instructor at several universities in the South of Germany.