

MASTERARBEIT | MASTER'S THESIS

Titel | Title

„Multilingualism in a Viennese middle school EFL classroom“
A case study

verfasst von | submitted by
Lena Ilse Wolf BEd

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

Wien | Vienna, 2025

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

UA 199 507 511 02

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

Masterstudium Lehramt Sek (AB) Unterrichtsfach
Englisch Unterrichtsfach Geschichte und Politische
Bildung

Betreut von | Supervisor:

Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Ute Smit

Acknowledgements

This project cannot be attributed solely to my own efforts, as many people have supported me in various essential ways. First, I would like to thank my supervisor, Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Ute Smit, for her support, patience, and constructive criticism. Secondly, I want to express my gratitude to the anonymous teachers and students who participated in this study. Not only did you help facilitate my data collection, but you also contributed significantly to my personal journey of becoming a teacher who looks forward to embracing linguistic diversity in the EFL classroom. Additionally, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my partner, Stefan, who supported me in ways that are too numerous to mention here. Lastly, I want to thank my friends and family for their emotional support throughout this process.

Table of contents

Tables and Figures	ii
1. Introduction	1
2. Multilingualism: definitions and benefits	2
3. Ideological frameworks shaping language beliefs	6
3.1 The monolingual habitus	6
3.2 Standard language ideology.....	9
3.3.Raciolinguistic ideologies.....	10
4. Pedagogical approaches to multilingualism in EFL education	11
4.1 Multilingual pedagogies	12
4.2 Translanguaging	13
4.2.1 Translanguaging stance.....	15
4.2.2 Translanguaging and classroom atmosphere	17
5. Multilingualism in Austrian schools	18
5.1 Multilingualism and language diversity in the EU	18
5.2 Language planning and language prestige in Austrian schools.....	21
5.3 Current handling of multilingualism in Austria's schools.....	26
5.4 Monolingual norms in Austrian schools.....	32
6. Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism and second language learning.....	33
6.1 Conceptualizing teacher attitudes and beliefs	33
6.2 Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism and second language learning in an international context	36
6.3 Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism in Austria	38
7. Methodology	39
7.1 Interviews	41
7.2 Researcher positionality	42
7.3 Qualitative content analysis.....	43
7.4 Transcription.....	44
7.5 Thematic qualitative analysis: an overview of the process	45
8. Analysis.....	49
8.1 Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism	49
8.2 Teacher persona.....	50
8.3 Multilingualism enacted in class	52
8.4 Teachers' approach and rationale to language management inside their classroom	56
8.5 Student confidence	58
8.6 Institutional environment.....	60
8.7 Students' culture and identity	61
8.8 Classroom atmosphere.....	64

8.8.1 Emic perspective	64
8.8.2 Etic perspective	65
8.8.3 Connecting etic and emic perspectives	69
9. Results	70
10. Discussion	85
11. Conclusion.....	89
Bibliography.....	91
Appendix	107
Kurzfassung	107
Abstract.....	108
Teacher Interview Guide	109
Focus Group Questions	112
Observation sheet multilingualism	113

Tables and Figures

Table 1 Top three foreign nationalities living in Austria in 2024 (excluding Germany).....	24
Table 2 Participant information teachers.....	45
Table 3 Participant information students.....	45
Table 4 Code system used for analysis.....	47
Table 5 Example of a thematic summary matrix.....	48
Table 6 Teachers' intersections of beliefs and persona with her language management approach in the classroom.....	73
Figure 1 State Language Policies.....	22
Figure 2 Two case model of the teacher interviews, displaying up to 10 most frequently used codes per column.....	71
Figure 3 Two-case model of the focus group interviews, depicting up to 9 most frequently used codes per column.....	79

1. Introduction

For an extended period, formal learning environments in mainstream, institutionally monolingual settings have often abstained from the promotion of multilingualism. The shift to a view of multilingualism as a resource was brought on by a focus on its various advantages in scientific research, which started in the 1960s. While the earlier research often highlighted metalinguistic knowledge as a benefit of multilingualism (Bialystok, 1991), more recent research such as Bjørke, Haukås, and Dypedahl (2018), Herdina and Jessner (2002, p. 11), or Cenoz (2003) showcases, for instance, increased metacognition in addition to metalinguistic abilities. The notion of multilingualism as a resource has been recognized by institutions such as the Council of Europe and found its way into the curricula of many countries. Austria's legislative, too, commends that the value of all languages should be showcased in school curricula (Rechtsinformationssystem des Bundes, 2023a, 2023b).

Nonetheless, there appears to be a discrepancy between the international, epistemic state of multilingualism and its practical implementation in Austrian schools. While teachers recognize the benefits of multilingualism on a theoretical basis, their opinion frequently changes when dealing with multilingualism inside their own classroom, where it is often viewed as a learning obstacle (De Angelis, 2011, p. 223). The fact that no obligatory module on how to support multilingual learners in teacher education exists is contributing to this, making it future teachers' personal objective to seek out courses with a corresponding focus, even though, for instance, in the school year of 2020/21, 27.2 % of learners in Austrian schools spoke languages in addition to German at home. An even higher proportion was observed in Vienna, where roughly half of all students (53.3 %) were LX German users (Statistik Austria, 2022). In 2022, Erling, Gitschthaler, and Schwab (2022, p. 579) reported that 63% of teachers in Austria did not feel prepared to teach in multilingual classrooms, which could explain why multilingualism in schools is often viewed as a burden rather than a resource. A paper put forward by Erling, Brummer, and Foltz (2022) has revealed the importance of teacher attitudes toward multilingualism: in two lower secondary schools, a connection between positive teacher attitudes towards multilingualism and an above-average success rate of linguistically diverse students reaching their language learning goals in English has been drawn. Their findings are important for advancing educational equity, as especially multilingual students with migration backgrounds tend to face greater challenges in academic performance compared to their monolingual peers in Austria's educational system (Erling, Radinger, and Foltz, 2020, p. 2).

Building upon the quantitative research of Erling, Brummer, et al. (2022), the aim of this project is to add a qualitative, ethnographic dimension by investigating how multilingualism is practiced in an English classroom at a Viennese middle school. This thesis firstly examines the English teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism, then looks at the implementation of multilingualism in the English classroom, and lastly, inspects how their multilingual students perceive their teachers' practices related to multilingualism. In doing so, a rich and multifaceted account will be given of how multilingualism is practiced in an urban Viennese middle school classroom, incorporating both teacher and student perspectives.

2. Multilingualism: definitions and benefits

A variety of definitions exist when it comes to conceptualizing multilingualism. Kemp (2009, p. 11) explains that this stems from participants' complex language use and researchers' varied backgrounds, ideologies, and objectives. He cautiously raises a minimum consensus that most psycholinguistic researchers agree on the definition of multilingualism as the use of three or more languages, such as himself (2009, p. 11) or De Groot (2011). However, other sources argue that using more than one language can already be termed multilingualism, such as Jessner and Kramersch (2015), Li (2008), or the European Commission (2007). The lack of consensus on the term also includes the degree of proficiency, as well as the functional capability individuals need to attain in a language to qualify as multilingual. Even though the employment of definitions specific to a research background can be seen as justified and necessary, it can stifle interdisciplinary cooperation. Weinreich (1953, p. 115) already expressed criticism of this fact in 1953, stating that comparing studies is impeded by the great variance of linguistic techniques and sociological orientations.

Moving on to some of the most utilized definitions of multilingualism, researchers of trilingualism and third language acquisition often employ the criterion of the usage of at least three languages (Cenoz, 2001, p. 7). Other scholars may use the term multilingualism in a generic manner, denoting the use of at least two languages, subsuming bilingualism and trilingualism as part of the phenomenon, which would be considered the mainstream definition (Cenoz, 2009, p. 7). Other researchers, for example Blommaert (2010, p. 102), or Canagarajah (2011, p. 4), depart from a definition of multilingualism utilizing a certain number of languages but rather define it as a collection of resources. Blommaert's definition, which is also utilized by Jessner and Kramersch (2015), argues that:

[m]ultilingualism ... should not be seen as a collection of ‘languages’ that a speaker controls, but rather as a complex of specific semiotic resources, some of which belong to a conventionally defined ‘language’, while others belong to another ‘language’. The resources are concrete accents, language varieties, registers, genres, modalities such as writing – ways of using language in particular communicative settings and spheres of life, including the ideas people have about such ways of using, their language ideologies (Blommaert, 2010, p.2).

As indicated by the quotation marks for the term ‘language’, labelling, or distinguishing between linguistic practices related to multilingualism, or a ‘language’ is often a challenging endeavor. In this context, Canagarajah (2011, p. 4) raises the practice of shifting between codes, registers, and discourses, which monolinguals partake in, too, and poses the question whether anybody could be considered monolingual at all, if monolinguals and multilinguals both utilize these multilingual practices in their daily lives. Dialects are indicative of these terminological difficulties: Horner and Weber (2018, p. 21) explain that distinguishing between a language and a dialect based solely on linguistic criteria is a challenging, if not impossible, task. The most commonly applied criterion for this distinction is mutual intelligibility; however, this criterion has many exceptions. While dialects should be mutually intelligible, there are exceptions, for instance German dialects. Moreover, even though languages should not be mutually intelligible, Swedish, Dutch, and Norwegian, or Bosnian, Croatian, and Serbian (BCS) are largely mutually intelligible. Thus, Horner and Weber (2018, p. 21) advocate for a view of languages as social-political constructs. This notion is also supported by Gordon (2005), who advocates that the features constituting a language must be operationally defined, as languages do not have self-identifying features.

Another commonly employed definition of multilingualism is provided by the European Commission (2007, p. 6). According to the commission, multilingualism is “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”. The advantage of this definition lies in its ability to distinguish different dimensions of multilingualism. An ability to do so is vital for institutions of the European Union, as they enable them to direct attention to the effectiveness of language-related policies, such as the fostering of multilingualism in a country, or the revitalization of an Indigenous minority language in a particular community. The following section will elaborate on the concepts of societal and individual multilingualism, as used in the definition put forth by the European Commission.

One of the key concepts of this thesis is the significance of enabling multilingual individuals to use their language repertoire¹ flexibly, without the constant pressure to conform to the limits of specific named languages, as well as establishing learners' languages as resources. To support these notions, the thesis adopts Blommaert's (2010) definition of multilingualism, which highlights that various named languages are all part of the same set of semiotic resources within a multilingual person's mind.

Until the 1960s, research on language acquisition primarily focused on monolingual subjects and considered having one first language as the standard. Consequently, multilingual individuals were often perceived as atypical in mainly monolingual contexts. Contributing to this, multilingualism was often not considered, or even discouraged, in countries that believed one singular national language to be central for social cohesion. In 1962, a study by Peal and Lambert revealed that monolingual children were outperformed by their bilingual peers, both on a linguistic and cognitive level, which triggered a wave of research on the benefits of bi- and multilingualism. Finally, in the early 2010s, the "Multilingual Turn" was announced by May (2013) and Ortega (2012), who proclaimed the official change from a deficit-oriented approach of multilingualism to one highlighting its many advantages. The remainder of the chapter will provide a brief overview of the various advantages associated with multilingualism.

To begin with, multilingualism bears multiple cognitive advantages. The emergence of these advantages in research can be seen in connection with a paradigm shift that changed the notion of multilingualism from several, separate language systems existing in individuals' minds, to an understanding of intertwined languages. This conceptualization of languages is featured, *inter alia*, in Cook's Model of Multicompetence (1991), Meißner's Multilingual Processing Model (2004), or Herdina and Jessner's dynamic model of Multilingualism (2002). These models offer valuable frameworks into multilingual language use and development, highlighting the dynamic and complex nature of multilingualism.

The aforementioned cognitive advantages include, for instance, a heightened level of metacognition. Bjørke, Haukås, and Dypedahl (2018), Herdina and Jessner (2002, p. 11), or Cenoz (2003) have hypothesized improved metacognitive abilities to be a result of gaining increased knowledge of languages and language learning. Pertaining to this, Kemp (2007, p. 257) revealed that metacognitive competences, such as grammar learning strategies, increase in frequency corresponding to the number of languages known, which is also supported by

¹ The language repertoire of an individual can be described as "sets of lexical and structural features" that is particular to the individual (Otheguy, García and Reid, 2015, p. 286)

Jessner and Allgäuer-Hackl (2022, p. 16). Multilingualism is also beneficial for fostering metalinguistic awareness, meaning the ability to think about and compare languages. Bialystok (1991) can be considered one of the earliest researchers to uncover, *inter alia*, the metalinguistic benefits of multilingualism. Another prominent area of cognitive merit is concerned with executive function. Based on the cognitive advantage hypothesis, which proposes that managing multiple linguistic systems benefits executive functions, researchers have uncovered advantageous effects related to attention, inhibitory control, and working memory (Bialystok, 2009; Dolas et al., 2022). The benefits of multilingualism for an individual can even extend to the domain of cognitive health: Freedman et al. (2014) put forward a study suggesting that due to their brains' flexibility, older bilinguals appear to be protected from the onset of Alzheimer's disease.

Attention now turns to the various social and emotional benefits of multilingualism, where languages as a tool for connecting with different people and cultures will be discussed. Speaking multiple languages often entails exposure to different cultural contexts. Liberman, Keysar, and Kinzler (2015) propose that increased communication skills honed by intercultural communication may result in an increased awareness of others' perspectives. This finding illustrates the richness of perspectives and points of view that can be gained through multilingualism, relating both to single individuals and different cultures. Furthermore, multilingualism can be a crucial tool for connecting with people on a local level. In view of people in multilingual communities, Garcia (2011) highlights multilingualism's role as a facilitator for interacting with others, enabling feelings of connectedness and a sense of belonging.

As this section has made evident, multilingualism can be considered an immense benefit for language users, as numerous cognitive and socio-emotional advantages are associated with it. In line with this, when multilingualism is fostered in educational institutions, positive effects related to language acquisition, but also socio-emotional aspects of students are recognized, such as agency, motivation, or group dynamics (Erling, Brummer et al., 2022; Schwarzl, 2020, as cited in Cataldo-Schwarzl, 2024, p. 140). Therefore, the importance of utilizing students' multilingualism as a resource cannot be understated, as educational systems with a monolingual bias may stifle the development of such benefits.

3. Ideological frameworks shaping language beliefs

The following chapter will be concerned with ideological frameworks shaping language beliefs. The two frameworks discussed are the monolingual habitus, standard language ideology and raciolinguistic ideologies. As will be argued, these concepts have the potential to influence various aspects related to the teaching and the assessment of language in the Austrian EFL context. The following sub-chapters will introduce each framework, explore their implications for EFL teaching, and seek to understand how a critical examination of these frameworks could benefit multilingual EFL learners in Austria.

3.1 The monolingual habitus

The monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 1997), or monolingual norm, can be subsumed as a predisposition that regards monolingualism as the standard. Gogolin uses the word habitus in terms of Bourdieu, which can be subsumed as a matrix of perception, action, and thought that is acquired during a lifetime. It is intended to make one's life easier by dealing with new developments in a routinized, albeit unreflective manner (Wojnesitz, 2010, p. 87). Gogolin (1997, p. 41) defines the monolingual habitus as “the deep-seated habit of assuming monolingualism as the norm in a nation”, arguing that schools, rooted in the myth of national linguistic and cultural homogeneity, overlook children's diverse conditions and experiences in a multilingual and multicultural society.

In educational systems, the monolingual habitus influences students and teachers alike. A manifestation of it, for instance, is the interpretation of bilingualism as a form of double monolingualism. Bonnet and Siemund (2018, p. 202) explain that teachers with a monolingual habitus conceptualize multilingualism as an “addition of different languages, rather than as the interception, integration, and distribution of linguistic and other semiotic resources in situated communicative events”. Consequently, bilinguals are seen as deficient in their languages, unless they can consider themselves ambilingual, that is, fully proficient in both of their languages, comparable with native-speaker monolinguals (Jessner & Kramsch, 2015, p. 3). These standards can be detrimental to multilinguals' well-being and development in schools, as teachers with a monolingual habitus might not consider their multilingual resources or understand their language practices. Bonnet and Siemund (2018, p. 203) highlight that the monolingual habitus in teaching is especially visible in two phenomena: the fact that curricula and initiatives that were dedicated to fostering multilingualism mainly focus on English, and their observation that the way multilingualism at most schools is

fostered is not through “a dialogue between languages”, but the “chronological addition of separate curricular languages.

Several consequences arise from a monolingual habitus at school: not only does the potential of multilingualism as a tool for learning tend to be overlooked, but also multilingual students may be regarded as out of the norm, or even a problem. The issue is that while teachers often have a positive theoretical view on multilingualism, monolingual norms or misconceptions about language acquisition become visible when dealing with multilingual students (De Angelis, 2011; Haukås, 2016; Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016). Disadvantages for multilingual students can be grave: Broermann (2007) revealed in Germany that students who speak minority languages and have different cultural backgrounds than the majority within the nation-state are likely to face institutional challenges, social integration challenges, as well as limited access to resources. Studies by Erling et al. (2019, 2022) indicate that the situation in Austria is not dissimilar. Nevertheless, it is important to note that while the monolingual habitus at school can be one of the reasons for these issues, other factors, such as socioeconomic challenges, can also play a role. Additionally, the experiences of multilingual students in education systems can differ considerably based on the social prestige associated with their languages. Languages attributed to high social capital are more likely to be viewed as resources within schools, while those with low social prestige most frequently do not receive the same recognition.

In research, the multilingual norm appears to have replaced the monolingual yardstick; multilingualism’s advantages have now been highlighted for decades. Since teachers are trained academically, why does the monolingual norm still pose such a challenge in schools? The reasons are complex, as the persistence of the monolingual norm involves various factors related to teacher education, personal beliefs and biographies of teachers, and practical issues related to teachers’ practice.

The power of the monolingual norm in teachers’ educational trajectories has emerged as one of the most prominent reasons for its perseverance, as it can exert influence on every level of teachers’ education. Kubota and Lin (2006, p. 471) posed that teachers who experienced monolingual norms in their educational biographies are likely to exhibit negative perceptions of multilingualism themselves. This already concerns classroom practices teachers experienced as students: Meier (2018) revealed a correlation between the multilingual practices teachers were implementing in their lessons and their experiences in their personal educational trajectories. Even though multilingualism has become ubiquitous, its role in society may not be reflected sufficiently in teacher training. In 2011, De Angelis stated that

across Europe, the likelihood that teachers received adequate training on how to accommodate multilingual learners was small. Moreover, the monolingual norm can further extend its influence through the social community of teachers in practice. It has also been revealed to be sustained through in-service teachers' socialization and working environment (Lundberg, 2023). As demonstrated above, the monolingual norm may accompany teachers throughout their whole life, starting with their own experience in school, continuing through university, and finally through their jobs, which illustrates the difficulty of breaking institutional, monolingual patterns.

Moving on to personal factors, demographic aspects, as well as the mental dispositions of teachers may also exert influence on whether multilingualism is embraced in their practice. Lundberg and Brand (2023) revealed that demographic variables including gender, age, and teachers' own multilingualism, can play a role in whether teachers conceive multilingualism as a resource. Being female, for example, is associated with a more positive view of multilingualism. Furthermore, teachers' beliefs can also support the monolingual norm. In this context, research highlights misinformed beliefs of teachers about the students' L1 interfering with the target language (Michala, Manoli et al., 2024, p. 11; Ticheloven, Blom, Leseman & McMonagle, 2019; De Angelis, 2011, p. 223). This goes hand in hand with the lack of sufficient training on multilingualism, criticized by De Angelis (2011), which increases the likelihood of teachers' language teaching being guided by their own pre-conceptions of multilingualism rather than the scientific understanding of it.

Lastly, aspects related to in-service teachers' practice also represent a factor in the persistence of the monolingual norm. For instance, this includes an alleged lack of suitable materials (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016; Gitschthaler et al., 2021). Furthermore, more general reasons pertaining to teachers' working conditions were also cited as reasons for a lack of attention to multilingualism in teaching, such as being overwhelmed with the number of students in class (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016; Gitschthaler et al., 2021). These findings demonstrate that tackling the monolingual habitus is a complex endeavor, involving multiple factors such as educational systems, teachers' beliefs, and their working conditions. From international comparisons, we can see that there is great variance in how well countries manage to meet their multilingual language-learners' needs, especially in the context of linguistic diversity that is brought about by immigration.

3.2 Standard language ideology

The sociolinguistic impact of standard language ideology (SLI) can range from a micro level of individual interactions to a macro level of international policies. Educational institutions play a significant part in the perpetuation of SLI. De Korne (2012, p. 180) lists three ways ideology may exert influence on multilingualism in educational systems: “Ideology conditions ideas on *what languages should be taught*, based on the status of the languages. Ideologies also condition key pedagogical decisions such as *what language and language competence involves, and how languages should be taught*”. Subsequently, the concept of standard language will be treated, followed by its implications for the Austrian EFL context.

Post-structuralists like Bourdieu (1991) conceptualized linguistic practices as social capital. The country's elites had the power to decide which languages and language varieties yielded high forms of social capital, and which did not. In a globalized world, standard varieties of English², specifically general American English (GAE) or Standard British English (SBrE), hold the highest amount of social capital, apart from the national languages of countries. The social capital of English is evident in its connection to resources, as proficiency in the language enhances opportunities for employment in national, as well as international or digital environments. In SLI, the codified varieties of English to be attained are often represented as static entities in school textbooks, with a fixed selection of grammatical rules to be acquired (Jansen, Mohr, and Forsberg, 2022, p. 67). This does not account for the diversity in the English language present today and suggests stability of language systems, with a clear right/wrong dichotomy to be applied (Jansen et al., 2022, p. 67).

Regarding EFL education, this conceptualization of the two target varieties could result in negative consequences for the recognition of multilingual students' linguistic resources. Firstly, teachers might be more reluctant to employ translanguaging approaches due to their adherence to the right/wrong dichotomy in SLI, and its mostly static notion of English grammar. Teachers' SLI could therefore decrease opportunities for multilingual students to utilize their linguistic repertoire for learning and to develop their multilingual competence further. This is in line with Philipsson (2000, pp. 92-103), who connected SLI in EFL to linguistic imperialism, resulting in English-only approaches to EFL teaching and the maximum exposure principle. Furthermore, SLI does not only influence which language

²A standard variety of English is a variety that has undergone a codification process, which, from a prescriptivist perspective, leads to correct and incorrect (non-local) versions of English (Jansen, Mohr and Forsberg, 2022, pp. 64-65).

varieties are treated as a resource in school, it can also influence participation frameworks: when teachers conceive of their students as “passive receivers of knowledge”, teacher talk is likely to be the most prominent form of classroom participation (De Korne, 2012, pp. 480-481). In contrast, teachers who distance themselves from SLI often see learners as co-constructors of knowledge, which is why their status within the participation framework entails more engagement and speaking time (De Korne, 2012, pp. 480-481).

As for the Austrian context, SLI in EFL education could result in detrimental consequences for multilingual students who originate from countries where non-standard varieties of English are spoken, such as India or Nigeria. As previously noted, SLI devalues non-standard varieties of English, often leading to the dismissal of what Kachru (1992) categorizes as non-inner-circle varieties (Rezaei, Khosravizadeh, & Mottaghi, 2019). Despite English serving as an integral component of daily communication in these countries, students’ communicative competences in these varieties might not be sufficiently recognized by Austrian teachers due to their deviation from the two target norms.

A possible step towards a more equitable education system, recommended by critics of SLI, is the employment of dynamic language pedagogies, such as languaging and translanguaging (Pérez-Vidal & Pugès, 2023, p. 300). De Korne (2012, p. 483) highlights that these approaches allow speakers to use their linguistic resources as needed, showcase connections between languages, and potentially flatten language hierarchies. Furthermore, they also represent an accessible way for learners to employ multimodality, nonverbal means of expression, or language mixing to develop multiliteracies (Pérez-Vidal & Pugès, 2023, p. 300). Researchers such as Weber (2009) and McGroarty (2010) state that with flexible, heteroglossic approaches to language, detrimental influences of SLI can even be counteracted.

3.3. Raciolinguistic ideologies

Raciolinguistic ideologies refer to the combined understanding of language and race, which influences how speakers from racialized communities are perceived and interpreted by white listening subjects (Flores & Rosa, 2015). Flores and Rosa’s (2015, p. 150) research draws attention to the intersectional nature of discrimination, as they argue that an utterance in standard English may be perceived as deficient or inappropriate solely based on the hearer’s racial othering of the speaker. Investigating how white listening subjects judged racialized speakers’ utterances in standard English, it was revealed that the racialized students who participated in their study were expected to model their language use after white speaking

subjects. Nevertheless, no matter how closely they managed to do so, their linguistic practices were still perceived in a racialized way by the white listening subjects (Flores & Rosa, 2015, p. 156). It is widely acknowledged that negative consequences of raciolinguistic ideologies extend beyond the domain of education; however, the implications for the Austrian EFL context will be treated subsequently.

Firstly, raciolinguistic ideologies may result in negative consequences for multilingual students of color, as language production of migrant students who grew up using a non-standard variety of English as a second language in their home countries, for instance in Kenya, could be regarded as deficient by their teachers due to the students' racial positioning, even if they manage to appropriate the norms of standardized varieties of English promoted in Austrian schools.

Further, as the study of Flores and Rosa (2015) was conducted in the U.S., a country that features many different varieties of English associated with a history of racial tensions, a question worth exploring would be whether these findings would be replicated in an Austrian EFL context. In the light of institutionalized racism, it is not unlikely that in a class of students sharing similar language acquisition journeys, that is, exposure to non-standard varieties on social media, and standard varieties at school, students of color would still be judged less favorably than white students. Furthermore, the question of whether Austrian EFL teachers regard Austrian German accents in students' oral language production more favorably than minority language accents, such as Turkish, arises.

As established in the preceding paragraphs, raciolinguistic ideologies can result in multilingual EFL students having to strive for the idealized, white native-speaker norm, at the expense of leaving their other linguistic resources unutilized. Due to the omnipresence of raciolinguistic hierarchies beyond the domain of education, their disruption cannot merely occur in schools, as omitting more powerful stakeholders beyond the educational system would work to the detriment of students. While this is the case, it is imperative that, especially white, teachers are exposed to relevant theory, in order to question how their own biases might be reflected in their teaching.

4. Pedagogical approaches to multilingualism in EFL education

In the preceding chapter, it was illustrated how the monolingual habitus can negatively impact multilingual students in EFL education. Although institutions such as the Council of Europe or the Ministry of Education in Austria have made attempts to counteract the monolingual habitus, it is still far from being eradicated. One possible explanation for this pertains to

teachers' pre-service training. In 2016, many teachers in Austria stated that they did not feel prepared to teach in multilingual classrooms (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016, pp. 116-117). Looking at some of the most recent data, Dallinger (2023), within the context of a master's thesis, investigated attitudes of Austrian teachers working at VoXmi schools, a network intended to foster multilingualism and multiculturalism. It was still found that teachers felt unprepared to teach linguistically heterogeneous students. This is why it is crucial that teachers are exposed to multilingual education strategies during their studies. The following sub-chapters will introduce two of them: multilingual pedagogies, and translanguaging.

4.1 Multilingual pedagogies

Multilingual pedagogies can be conceptualized as instructional approaches designed to support students with diverse linguistic backgrounds, with a particular focus on students with home languages different than the language of instruction (Cummins, 2018). Aiming to include all learners in a meaningful way, multilingual pedagogies require educators to incorporate the language practices of all students into their teaching (Garcia & Flores, 2012, p. 232). Approaches used to incorporate students' language practices within multilingual pedagogies may differ significantly, as stressed through referring to multilingual pedagogies in the plural form. Factors exerting influence on how teachers may integrate students' language practices involve sociopolitical conditions of schools, teachers' beliefs, students' experiences, or educational goals (Garcia & Flores, 2012, p. 232).

Garcia and Flores (2012, p. 242) consider attention to the social dimensions of language to be a key component for multilingual pedagogies: they emphasize that two crucial principles for developing multilingual pedagogies are focusing on social justice and social practice. The dimension of social justice relates to socioeconomic discrimination carried out through linguistic hierarchies. Their study highlights that multilingual pedagogies nurture students' critical examination of these conditions sustaining societal inequality. To start with, Garcia and Flores (2012) recommend equal and democratic participation in the classroom to provide equity for all languages, cultures, and communities. Next, students' linguistic and cultural strengths should be honed by including students' whole linguistic repertoires. In doing so, students' multilingual awareness and tolerance can be nurtured to grasp political, social, and economic struggles associated with different language practices (Garcia & Flores, 2012, p. 242). Further, they suggest keeping high expectations of students, and highlighting the importance of academic rigor. The importance of practicing academic language is also echoed by Heugh (2018, p. 360), who highlights students' command of it as a pre-condition to

participate in hierarchical linguistic structures. As a last aspect related to social justice, Garcia and Flores (2012, p. 242) encourage pedagogies to advocate for children and to provide “equitable and valid assessments” to help students improve their learning, as monolingual norms frequently influence standardized assessments.

Attention to social practice in multilingual pedagogies is the second dimension that Garcia and Flores (2012) urge teachers to consider. Here, many of the recommendations support multilingual students by drawing attention to language as a social practice: it is emphasized that languages are more than a system of grammar and vocabulary by focusing on their importance for social interactions, language users’ identity, and social participation. Firstly, Garcia and Flores (2012, p. 243) recommend supporting quality interactions that enable students to use their linguistic repertoire fluidly when sharing ideas, going beyond the boundaries of named languages. Next, attention can be drawn to how language is used for a particular purpose in various domains, such as academic settings (Garcia & Flores, 2012, p. 243). This supports multilingual students by making implicit language choices explicit, which they would otherwise may have to grasp on their own. Other tactics include multilingual scaffolding through collaborative grouping and cooperative learning, which can be tailored to provide linguistic support, practice language structures, or increase opportunities for language production. Lastly, Garcia and Flores (2012, p. 243) advise focusing on the high relevance of lessons and students’ maximum identity investment, which is done through discussing content covering social issues students might be involved in. This aligns with Cummins (1996, p. 147), who advocates that students’ academic achievement benefits from recognizing themselves in the curriculum’s content and language. A concrete piece of evidence for this is provided by Rutgers (2021, p. 223) who revealed that students of EAL as well as English first language students had better GCSE test scores when teachers’ approaches to multilingualism honored not only students’ additional languages, but also their attitudes toward them, and their identities as speakers of the respective languages.

4.2 Translanguaging

Translanguaging is conceptualized by Garcia (2009, p. 45) as the diverse discursive practices bilinguals use to navigate their bilingual worlds. According to Wei (2018, pp. 20-25), such practices encompass linguistic varieties, including dialects, registers, styles, and accents. These practices also involve using a multimodal repertoire, which can incorporate non-linguistic resources such as gestures and objects in the surrounding environment.

Translanguaging permits multilinguals to utilize all these resources to interact with others and

make sense of their surroundings. Perhaps one of the most important aspects of translanguaging is that translanguaging scholars challenge the monolingual norm. Instead, translanguaging proponents regard the language practices of bilinguals or multilinguals as the standard (Garcia & Wei, 2013, p. 22). In doing so, translanguaging validates the fluidity and complexity of multilinguals' language use (Garcia & Wei, 2013). The remainder of this chapter discusses the demarcation of translanguaging from other linguistic practices permitting fluid language use, important terminological distinctions of translanguaging in the educational field, and how translanguaging can be utilized in schools to address and transform conditions of social inequality.

Especially in the early stages of translanguaging research, it has often been asked what distinguishes translanguaging from code-switching or code-meshing. These unclear conceptual distinctions result out of the fact that the terms code-switching and code-mixing were initially used to describe the “systematic alternating use of two languages or language varieties within a single conversation or utterance” in bilingual settings (Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2005, p. 235) The difference between translanguaging and code-switching/code-mixing relates to a divergence in how proponents of the two practices conceive multilinguals’ mental representation of languages. A substantial number of translanguaging proponents view the languages in multilinguals’ minds as part of one system. In contrast, many authors studying code-switching would conceptualize these languages as belonging to separate systems.

In educational settings, a distinction between pedagogical translanguaging and spontaneous translanguaging exists. The former is considered a pedagogical practice and a theory that involves instructional strategies combining two or more languages. Spontaneous translanguaging, in contrast, refers to the unplanned, natural practice of multilinguals to blend and switch languages. However, due to the occurrence of intermediate situations where both kinds can occur (for instance unplanned, spontaneous translanguaging by students while the pedagogical translanguaging prompted by the teacher takes place), Cenoz and Gorter (2021, p. 18) state that a continuum is a far more accurate representation of the two than a dichotomy. It is also stressed that even though spontaneous translanguaging is unplanned, it can still be pedagogically valuable, as teachers can link it to the learning process (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021, p.18).

Translanguaging is not just a practice that allows multilingual individuals to use their diverse linguistic skills flexibly, but it also has the potential to address and transform social inequalities. This section will elaborate how this potential is understood and how it can be

utilized in educational settings. Flores (2014) views translanguaging as a political act, as it can help language-minoritized speakers to legitimize their language use by disrupting linguistic hierarchies. Through the utilization of students' whole language repertoire, the boundaries of named languages can be called into question, along with related concepts like language purity (Garcia & Otheguy, 2020, p. 25). In restrictive communicative situations, such as lessons in school that only allow the use of one language, multilinguals are often put at a disadvantage. This disadvantage can arise through being forced to use specific linguistic and multimodal resources that conform to the dominant language practices. In contrast, students with the language of instruction as their first language may use a much larger portion of their linguistic repertoire to make sense of the content (Garcia & Otheguy, 2020, p. 25). However, translanguaging does not only cater to students with marginalized language practices: the transformative power of translanguaging can also benefit students whose linguistic repertoire conforms to language varieties of high social prestige, as translanguaging also nurtures the appreciation of cultural and linguistic diversity (Garcia & Wei, 2014, cited in Tai & Wong, 2023, p. 1102).

4.2.1 Translanguaging stance

Translanguaging can be a powerful tool in education. Despite this, translanguaging practices are often stifled by coeducational and sociopolitical conditions under which educational institutions function. Educational models still frequently adhere to the strict separation of named languages (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016, p.195). There are a variety of reasons for this. Firstly, schools frequently uphold the “notion of political state-languages” which is questioned by translanguaging theories (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016, p. 15). Another factor is the concept of interference, which led scholars to recommend that “no ‘foreign elements’ should enter the ‘structured domain of language’” (Garcia & Kleyn, 2020, p. 18). The separation of languages can also be explained when looking at the onset of the fostering of multilingualism, which was carried out within the mindset of an additive ideology, i.e., adding autonomous language(s) to the curriculum. To do so, the ‘direct method’ was employed, which kept named languages apart from other named languages (Garcia & Otheguy, 2020, p. 18). To counteract the educational separation of languages and enable multilingual language use, a translanguaging theory actively interrogates corresponding linguistic practices, challenges multilingual norms, and demonstrates adaptability in linguistic choices (Wei, 2011, p. 1233).

Teachers who embrace translanguaging have been described as having a translanguaging stance. A translanguaging stance, according to Erling, Brummer et al. (2022, p. 75) is marked by three pillars:

- 1) The teachers' belief that the "students' whole linguistic repertoires are resources in general and specifically for learning".
- 2) The creation of a classroom ecology that is "supportive of the students' multilingualism and their rights to develop and maintain all of their languages".
- 3) Teachers' respect for "students' ways of knowing, and their multilingual identities", and an encouragement to utilize them in the classroom to contribute to academic attainment.

The employment of translanguaging pedagogies can promote educational equity in various ways, covering classroom inclusiveness, language development, learner engagement, and metalinguistic awareness. Teachers enacting translanguaging stances may shape their classroom environment into a space that not only welcomes multilingual students' language practices but also supports them in the attainment of the language of education (Kleyn and Garcia, 2019, p.73 as cited in Erling, Brummer et al., 2022, p. 76). When allowed to use their language repertoire beyond the boundaries of the language of instruction, it can become easier for multilingual students to grasp the content of lessons, as the languages have the potential to mutually reinforce each other in the learning of knowledge and language (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012, p. 546). Examining the benefits for learner engagement, translanguaging can lead students to be more invested in learning, as it may aid students in creating identities that are more involved during the lessons via meaningful participation (Canagarajah, 2012, p. 20). This is supported by the fact that translanguaging permits students to go beyond the boundaries of named languages to express their ideas, which can be particularly helpful to students with a low command of the language of instruction. In doing so, translanguaging highlights the meaning-making potential of every learner (Garcia & Otheguy, 2020, p. 27). Additionally, translanguaging can be considered beneficial for multilingual competence. When students are asked to explicitly reflect on overlaps between languages, such as noticing cognates, metalinguistic awareness is fostered (Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014, p. 763). Through practicing metalinguistic awareness, students learn to reflect on languages in an abstract way and practice the examination of their systematic elements. Lastly, the benefits of translanguaging for students can extend beyond school hours. At home, students may discuss content learned in school in a different language with their parents, which can contribute to a deeper understanding of the subject matter (Baker, 2021, p. 286).

Therefore, translanguaging also contributes to academic attainment by allowing students to re-process content at home.

4.2.2 Translanguaging and classroom atmosphere

It is commonly understood that learning about students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds can aid teachers in forming positive relationships with their class (Dörnyei & Muir, 2019, p. 722). Building on this understanding, translanguaging will be explored as a specific pedagogical strategy that can contribute to a positive classroom atmosphere. Many researchers have connected translanguaging to beneficial effects for the classroom climate, such as Decristan (2024), Dreyden (2021), Erling, Brummer et al. (2022, p.72), or Hall and Cook (2012, pp. 285–287). Regarding the relationship between translanguaging and classroom atmosphere, Decristan (2024, p. 2) stresses that a positive classroom atmosphere that values the students' linguistic resources and cultural diversity is a pre-condition to practicing translanguaging. Other researchers, such as Littlewood and Yu (2011, pp. 70-71), do not regard it as a pre-condition, but rather as a (secondary) goal of translanguaging. As the following paragraphs demonstrate, benefits for the classroom atmosphere may include social aspects as well as emotional and psychological benefits.

Regarding the social benefits of translanguaging, it can be conducive to building rapport with, and amongst students: Zhou and Mann (2021, pp. 274-275), who investigated translanguaging within the framework of a CLIL- classroom of first-year English majors in China, document the use of translanguaging as a “rapport-building strategy”, which enabled teachers to take on a supportive role by encouraging students to share complex ideas by mixing English and Mandarin. This could aid teachers in cultivating positive relationships with students by enabling them to express their ideas as valued classroom community members despite their language limitations. Further, social benefits also pertain to multicultural students' interpersonal relationships. When students feel safe to perform their migrant identities in the EFL classroom, enabling an exchange of their experiences with other students of similar biographies can create moments of feeling understood in the class community (Dryden, 2021, p. 9). In accordance, translanguaging has also been praised as a possibility to create a safe space for multilingual and multicultural students by Erling, Brummer et al. (2022, p.73). They explain that translanguaging can engage and validate multilingual identities through fostering language awareness and intercultural competence. In this context, it is important to note that students may hesitate to express their multilingual identities due to dominant monolingual norms and past sanctions for using home languages.

To counteract this, teachers can encourage students to embrace their full linguistic repertoire by engaging in translanguaging themselves (Decristan, 2024, p. 2).

Turning to emotional and psychological advantages, translanguaging can also benefit students suffering from Foreign Language Anxiety (Dryden et al., 2021, p. 1). Foreign language anxiety, or FLA, describes a phenomenon that, according to one of the most employed academic definitions by Horwitz et al. (1996), can involve fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and communication apprehension in foreign languages. Instead of enforcing strict language dichotomies, translanguaging can create a “collaborative space” (Moody, Chowdhury & Eslami, 2019, p. 87), where the students may flexibly use their whole language repertoire. This practice also benefits students who do not have a large vocabulary in the target language, as it may decrease FLA by letting them use their whole linguistic repertoire to compensate.

5. Multilingualism in Austrian schools

This chapter will provide information on how multilingualism is presently considered in Austrian schools. As policies related to multilingualism were heavily influenced by EU-bodies, such as the Council of Europe, the first sub-chapter will consider the macro-context by treating multilingualism and language diversity in the EU. In the remainder of the chapter will be concerned with how multilingualism is currently approached in Austrian schools.

5.1 Multilingualism and language diversity in the EU

Due to processes of globalization and digitalization that started in the 1990s, English has undoubtedly been the most favored language by language planning institutions across the world, as promises of economic opportunities or access to international communication have become closely associated with the language. Prior to this, educational institutions across the world favored policies with monolingual foci, and finally at the end of the 20th century, bilingualism (Pérez-Vidal & Pugès, 2023, p. 297). In the mid-1990s, as a response to the rapid spread of English, top-down policies began to promote linguistic diversity and multilingualism. The European Union emerged as one of their most important initiators in Europe. European institutions “placed languages at the crossroads between linguistics, sociolinguistics, politics, and education, in an unprecedented manner”, which represented a significant departure from their prior language planning concerns of protecting the languages of nation-states (Commission of the European Communities, 1995, as cited in in Pérez-Vidal & Pugès, 2023, p. 297). A key goal for promoting multilingualism in the European Union was

established in the Barcelona conclusions presented by the European Council in 2002. The conclusions stated that “Europeans should be able to communicate in two languages in addition to their mother tongue” (European Union, n.d.). Nearly 20 years later, in 2019, the Council of the EU issued another recommendation regarding how many languages should be acquired by EU citizens. It emphasized that member states should

explore ways to help all young people to acquire before the end of upper secondary education and training – in addition to the languages of schooling – where possible, a competence level in at least one other European language which allows them to use the language effectively for social, learning and professional purposes, and to encourage the acquisition of an additional (third) language to a level which allows them to interact with a degree of fluency. (Council of the European Union, 2019, as cited in Tomasi, 2022, p. 124)

Tomasi (2022, p. 124) criticized that the phrasing of the latter recommendation, including expressions such as ‘a good knowledge’, “suggests that the Council had little confidence that the language competence benchmark proposed in the same recommendation could actually be implemented”. Turning to the Council of Europe (henceforth CoE), Tomasi (2022, p. 125) also postulated a declining focus on language learning and multilingualism, as the CoE’s language policy division was cut back to a unit. The European Commission, too, appears to operate with a decreased focus on languages, as their multilingualism policy unit was integrated into the schools, with the respective commissioner (2019-2023) of Innovation, Research, Culture, Education and Youth, Mariya Gabriel, omitting topics such as language learning or multilingualism in her mission letter (Tomasi, 2019, p.125). This is also true for the mission letter sent to the current commissioner, Iliana Ivanova, from Ursula von der Leyen (von der Leyen, 2023).

Despite critiques from scholars such as Tomasi, many of the policies discussed have been hailed as successful and continue to be implemented in Austria today (Pérez-Vidal & Pugès, 2023, p. 298). Pérez-Vidal & Pugès (2023, pp. 297-298) list, amongst others, the CLIL (content and language integrated learning) approach for primary and secondary education (Nikula & Marsh, 1997; Pérez-Vidal, 2009; Lyster, 2017). CLIL quickly gained widespread popularity, as it was adopted by a great majority of member states after being recommended by the CoE (Tomasi 2022, p. 122). Other instruments developed by the CoE include the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), which was developed to set standards of language levels fit for international comparison (Council of Europe, 2001/2020), and the European Language Portfolio (ELP), intended to document personal language experiences at school (Cassany, Esteve, Martin Peris and Pérez–Vidal, 2004). The significance of the CEFR must particularly be highlighted, as can be considered revolutionary in more than one aspect:

it not only introduced a unified scale for language proficiency levels, but it also departed methodologically from error-making approaches to ‘can do’ statements and the evaluation of one’s own competence. Likewise, the ELP promotes autonomous self-assessment, as well as the fostering of language learners’ intercultural and plurilingual competencies (Tomasi 2022 p. 120). Another fundamental change contained in the CEFR was the departure from the ‘ideal native speaker’ as the ultimate goal of language learning. Instead, “linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place” posed the new objective (Council of Europe, 2001, as cited in Tomasi, 2022 p. 120).

Despite the efforts to promote multilingualism in Europe, various structural and policy-related challenges have affected its effective implementation: Pérez-Vidal and Pugès (2023, p. 298) criticize that, except for bilingual territories, the focus of promoting multilingualism has been somewhat neglected due to both the difficulty to track literacy in additional, or third language acquisition, and the still accelerating influence of English. Another factor that might have weakened the influence of the policies issued was that even though the importance of fostering students’ abilities to make connections between languages was formulated, articulated guidelines regarding how this should be brought about in language teaching were never put forth (Dorner, 2008). Lastly, the diverging approaches to language learning found in European institutions, for instance the EU, and the CoE, represent another aspect that could have negatively impacted the fostering of multilingualism. While the EU often tried to establish a minimum of languages to achieve mastery within compulsory education, the goal of the CoE was to continuously develop and build a linguistic repertory as a life-long project (Tomasi, 2022, p. 124).

A different point of criticism that has often been raised in connection to fostering multilingualism in the EU is the treatment of minority languages, as a commonly grounded linguistic policy is yet to be formulated to promote linguistic diversity more effectively, despite the 2004-2006 action plan ‘Promoting language learning and linguistic diversity’ (Santipolo, 2019, as cited in Perri, 2021, p. 16). Furthermore, many decisions regarding minority languages were made without adherence to a standardized framework devised to protect linguistic rights, such as the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML). Perri (2021, p. 103) explains this by the fact that, like all EU-policies, strategies to protect minority languages are recommendation based, and considers them “general options that countries can freely implement by harmonizing (if they wish to do so) basic assumptions and political conditionalities aimed at maximizing cost-effectiveness, affordability and the social appropriateness of juridical provisions in each member state”.

5.2 Language planning and language prestige in Austrian schools

Looking at the state of linguistic diversity in Austrian schools, English emerges as the most commonly learned foreign language, followed by French, Italian, Spanish, and Russian, which are all traditionally considered languages of high social prestige in Austria. According to Pérez-Vidal and Pugès (2023, p. 259), not only the dominant local language and languages of international status are considered part of multilingualism in education, but also languages found in the sociolinguistic environment of students, such as “minority languages that have been revitalized, or the languages of immigrant children”.

Illustrated by the example of the unprecedented popularity of English, the selection of languages that are taught in schools may be influenced by (colonial) history, globalization, and ideology (Pérez-Vidal & Pugès, 2023, p. 295). Multilingualism in education is heavily linked to language planning, as schools are one of the state’s central agents to bolster or suppress languages. Language planning refers to

political activities that are used to exert conscious and targeted influence on systems of social communication, to introduce desirable changes or to avoid undesirable changes. In other words, it refers to a conscious, practical language policy (de Cillia & Busch, 2006).

Such policies may cover corpus planning, as well as status planning. According to Kloss (1969), corpus planning refers to deliberate efforts aimed at modifying the actual corpus or shape of a language. Corpus planning is conceptualized by Kloss as forming a dichotomy with status planning, which focuses on the status of one language in comparison to other languages. Status planning can be summarized as an activity that aims to assign the use of specific languages to certain roles.

Concerning multilingualism in schools, status planning is an area of special significance: a concept or strategy often used within status planning is “language expansion policy”, referring to the “spread of a particular language or standard as opposed to other varieties at a national level, or to the spread of a particular language as opposed to other particular languages at an international level” (de Cillia & Busch, 2006, p. 577). Within language expansion policies, schools have the crucial role of teaching, promoting, or standardizing languages. As already mentioned, language ideology is also reflected in school curricula, which can be an indicator of the national approach to specific (minority) languages, as well as the social prestige of languages.

Fleck (2022, p. 392) states that in the German-speaking area of the European Union, there is a clear hierarchy of languages: as expected, German is at the top, followed by English.

Then, due to the distinction between non-EU languages/Third-country nationals and EU languages, we find the latter being higher in social prestige than the former, since third-party nationals must take costly and time-consuming exams to assess their level of German proficiency. At the bottom of the ranking, we find languages that cannot claim a state, such as Kurdish and Romani. The significance of a language's status became especially apparent in the case of Turkish as a possible Matura³-subject in Austria: in 2011, plans of adding Turkish as a Foreign language at AHS were met with heavy resistance from Austrian citizens. De Cillia attributed this reaction clearly to the low prestige of the Turkish language, as well as the Turkish-speaking population of Austria (Neuhauser, 07. 04. 2011).

Sachdev and Bourhis (2001) developed a model to illustrate how dominant ideologies may exert influence on the conduct of communication in the form of state language planning policies.

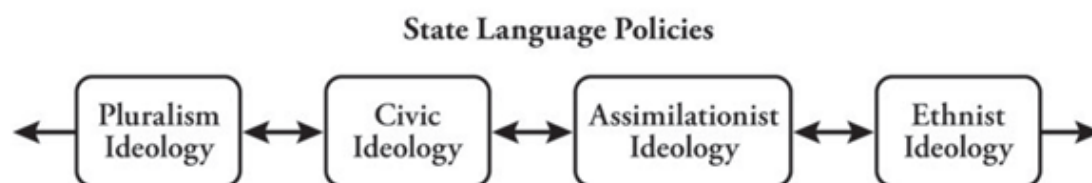


Figure 1. State Language Policies. Source: The vitality of the English-speaking communities of Quebec: From community decline to revival, by R. Y Bourhis, 2008.

The distinguishing feature of the pluralism ideology from all other ideologies on the continuum is the will to give financial and social aid to national minorities and immigrant communities because maintaining key features of their linguistic, cultural, or religious identities is considered valuable by the state in question, which may even modify its institutions to fit the needs of such minorities. In the civic ideology, outright official support is avoided, and little, if any, financial means to support minority languages or cultures are allocated (Sachdev, Giles & Pauwels, 2013, p. 402). The assimilationist ideology advocates for conformity to the dominant group based on a founding myth advocating for the equality of all citizens, and the ethnist ideology represses linguistic minorities or even excludes “undesirable” minorities from citizenship as a way of enforcing assimilation to the dominant language. These ideological positions are not fixed and may be subject to change: as Sachdev, Giles, and Pauwels (2013) elaborate, factors that could lead to a shifted position on language

³ The Matura is the Austrian equivalent of a high school leaving exam, similar to the A-levels in the UK, or the Abitur in Germany. It serves as both a secondary school diploma and a university entrance qualification.

policies of a state are changes in the stability or legitimacy of ethnolinguistic groups, or the activism of oppressed groups for more tolerant policies, as seen in the UK or Australia.

Subsequently, Austria will be situated on Sachdev and Bourhis' (2001) model of state language policies. To do so, the treatment of autochthonous minority languages at schools and community languages are both considered since, as will be seen, clear-cut categorizations between them are often not applied in local contexts. Austria has six officially recognized autochthonous minority languages: Czech and Slovak in Vienna, Croatian and Romanes in Burgenland, Hungarian in Burgenland and Vienna, as well as Slovene in Carinthia and Styria. De Cillia (2022) takes a few key events in Austria's language planning as responsible for the decline of linguistic minority languages, starting with the abolishment of bilingual classes in the bilingual parts of Carinthia in 1955/56. Further events in Carinthia include that in 1959, it became mandatory for Slovenian-speaking children to specifically enroll in Slovenian language classes, as well as the quasi-abolition of an upper elementary school, which reduced the years of teaching in the minority language from 8 to 4 years. Numerically speaking, while in Carinthia's settlements of Indigenous Slovene minorities, there were 43,000 Slovenian speakers reported in the census of 1951, only 12,500 were left in 2001. Not only in Carinthia but also in Burgenland, a decline in minority languages has been observed (De Cillia, 2022, p. 173). Altogether, these officially recognized minority languages were listed by 1.6% of Austria's population for the last census in 2011 (Vetter, de Cillia & Reisigl, 2024, p. 8). It must be noted that while the decline of the linguistic minority in Carinthia is a stark example, it can illustrate the power of schools as institutions of language planning⁴. The teaching of Slovenian in Carinthia and Styria, as well as Croatian in Burgenland, is mentioned explicitly in the state treaty of 1955, covering both elementary education and certain middle schools. Local school laws cover the teaching of minority languages in Austria's linguistic minority settlements, governing their use as languages of instruction and in language classes. Nevertheless, these school laws often do not clearly distinguish between mother-tongue classes and second-language classes (de Cillia, 2013, p. 144). What is more, for other minority languages such as Slovakian, Czech, as well as Romani, no such laws exist (Melchior & Doleschal, 2024, p. 84).

In contrast to their Indigenous counterparts, Austria's non-indigenous minority languages have steadily increased over the last few decades. To compare them to the

⁴It must be noted here that schools were only one area where language planning took effect. Although there many other noteworthy aspects of the topic of linguistic minorities in Carinthia, such as the heavy resistance from its German-speaking population against bilingual town signs, they unfortunately cannot be elaborated on within the scope of this chapter.

trajectory of Austria's Indigenous minority languages, the demographic data of a different decade must be considered, as the two closest available data sets provided by Statistik Austria cover the years 1951, and 1961. While 1951 is technically closer to 1955, it represents a different form of state, as Austria was still occupied by the United Nations (also referred to as the Allies) until 1955, which influenced the geographical mobility considerably as Austria was not fully sovereign. In addition, post-war migration also had a strong influence on population statistics, in addition to the Gastarbeiter-movement that started at the onset of the 1960s to help re-build Austria. Hence, for the purpose of comparison, the data from 1961 will be utilized here. In 1961, the top three linguistic minorities (excluding Germans) were from Yugoslavia, which includes Serbo-Croatian, Macedonian and Slovene as official languages, at 14,948 people, followed by Italians with 9,847 people, and lastly, Hungarians with 5,985 people. In contrast, in 1961, we have Italy at the top with 8,662 people, followed by 4,956 people from Hungary and 4,565 from Yugoslavia (Statistik Austria, 28.03.2023). Subsequently, the historical population statistics of Austria's Indigenous and non-indigenous minority languages introduced in the previous section will be compared to current demographic data, in order to identify shifts and their potential implications for language planning in education.

In present-day Austria, exact data of the languages spoken comes from school-based statistics, which is examined in Chapter 5.3. To contextualize the historical data of the previous paragraph, a comparison will be conducted with the nationalities residing in Austria today. This approach will ensure the inclusion of the adult population not currently enrolled in educational institutions. Although the subsequent information may not precisely detail the languages spoken by the various nationalities, it is intended to offer current demographic insights that can be compared to the historical data available.

Table 1

Top three foreign nationalities living in Austria in 2024 (excluding Germany)

1. Romania	153,427 people
2. Serbia	121,961 people
3. Turkey	119,706 people

Note. Adapted from Statistik Austria, 2024.

As can be seen, the top three nationalities living in Austria, excluding Austrians and Germans, are Romanians, Serbians, and Turks. Connecting this to the languages spoken in Austria, the latest statistics are from the field of adult education. Collected in 2016/17, the survey carried

out by Statistik Austria (2024) encouraged listing multiple languages, as the data was intended to provide insight into the language use of working adults between 25 and 64 years. 83.8% of those questioned spoke German, 3.2% Turkish, 5.8% spoke BCS, Romanian and Arabic was each spoken by 1.8%. What becomes evident when referring to the historical data is that, in contrast to the Indigenous minority languages, other linguistic minorities have increased substantially since 1960.

Having established the demographic developments of Austria's Indigenous, and non-indigenous linguistic minorities, the question of how linguistic diversity is honed through language planning in schools will be examined. Starting with the language subjects offered in Austrian schools, the latest statistics published in 2018/19 list the following 26 languages: Albanian, Arabic, BCS, Bulgarian, Chinese, Dari, French, Igbo, Italian, Kurdish/Kurmanji, Nepali, Pashto, Persian, Polish, Portuguese, Romani, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Slovenian, Somali, Spanish, Czech, Chechen, Turkish, and Hungarian (BMBWF, 2019, p. 11). When examining the demographic data with the languages available, in theory, at Austrian schools nowadays, one might attribute a pluralistic ideology in Sachdev and Bourhis' (2001) model, given that resources are spent to make Austria's minority languages available to be taught at schools. On the other hand, concerning the decline of Indigenous linguistic minorities, it becomes clear that the act of offering language classes at school is not a clear-cut way to preserve their linguistic diversity⁵. Furthermore, regarding non-indigenous linguistic minorities, we can see that policies also must consider the accessibility of mother-tongue classes, as well as how to provide an incentive for students to develop their linguistic repertoire further. For instance, mother-tongue classes are neither obligatory nor binding which can be considered part of the reason why in 2022, only 20% of students with a different first language than German were enrolled in such classes (de Cillia, 2022, p. 181). Additionally, mother-tongue classes have been criticized as being sidelined as extra-curricular subjects (Smit & Schwarz, 2019, p. 300). Considering that a pluralistic ideology also can entail modifying institutions to accommodate the linguistic rights of minorities better, it is open to debate whether such measures should be taken if given measures indicative of a pluralistic ideology fail to take effect.

⁵Apart from the teaching of minority languages in school, there are other dimensions to be considered such as the heavy resistance against bilingual town signs, which would exceed the framework of this chapter.

5.3 Current handling of multilingualism in Austria's schools

Unfortunately, examining the fruits of the EU's labor towards fostering multilingualism in their member states, Edwards (2022) and Hélot (2021) confirm Pérez-Vidal et al. (2023) criticism of the neglect of EU policies related to multilingualism, as they both state that Austria's educational system still shows the permeation of monolingual norms, even though the development of Austria's current curriculum was heavily influenced by the CEFR (Volgger, 2011, p. 15.) Nagel (2012) goes even further, stating that the state school system stands on the firm footing of a monolingual ideology with German as the language of instruction. A manifestation of this is that in Austria, multilinguals must operate within the same framework of rules that was cut out for their monolingual peers, even though they may face vastly different challenges and needs in their learning journeys, which can be considered indirect discrimination (Gomolla & Radtke, 2007, p. 281). For instance, this could result in a negative grade in a subject that is not caused by a lack of competency in the subject, but by insufficient German proficiency that hinders students to follow the content of the lesson (Gomolla & Radtke, 2007, p. 274) Furthermore, Leichsering (2003) has shown that multilingual students' home languages are often not merely left unutilized, but even banned in class or during recess, due to the fear that German-speaking students might be excluded.

These findings are especially alarming when taking population statistics into account. Considering the latest demographical data available, in 2017, 29% of students in Austria used a different language than their first language in school. This percentage is above EU average, which lies at 10% (European Parliament). In Vienna, even 53% of students use a language other than German at home, amongst the most common BCS (12%) and Turkish (10%) (Wien.GV, Integrationsmonitor, 2021/22). Given the criticism raised by Edwards (2022), Hélot (2021), and Pérez-Vidal et al. (2023), who argue that Austria's educational system is designed primarily for monolingual students, this data highlights the necessity of providing an education that embraces and accommodates multilingualism.

Monolingual norms also frequently surface in public discourse, as despite the extensive research on the benefits of pluri- or multilingualism in language teaching, multilingualism in Austrian schools is still often considered a challenge rather than a resource. Debates often highlight families with migrant backgrounds, frequently involving blanket statements and stereotypical attributions, thereby hindering an innovative approach to the existing linguistic diversity in Austrian schools (Herzog-Punzenberger, 2017, p. ii). This falls in line with Jessner and Allgäuer's (2022, p. 19) critique of language-of-education oriented perspectives, which, to foster a higher mastery of the language of the majority, still advocate

for a partition of language subjects. Pejorative attitudes also frequently find their way into the political arena, for instance, in 2016, when the coalition between the Austrian political parties ÖVP and FPÖ planned to ban languages other than German during recess in lower-Austria. Amongst the most widely used objections to this, also raised by constitutional lawyers such as Bernd-Christian Funk, was that banning languages other than German would be unconstitutional, as Austria's constitution safeguards a right to privacy, and in further consequence, a right to speak any language people may desire. Moreover, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, (henceforth CRC), which was partly included in the Austrian constitution in 2011, would also prohibit such actions (de Cillia, 2022, p. 184): Article 29 protects linguistic and cultural diversity by promoting

[t]he development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own. (OHCHR, 1989, Art. 29(c))

Furthermore, article 30 states:

In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities or persons of indigenous origin exist, a child belonging to such a minority or who is indigenous shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group, to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practise his or her own religion, or to use his or her own language. (OHCHR, 1989, Art. 30)

However, as remarked by Fleck (2022, p. 396), it is unclear whether this protection extends beyond autochthonous language minorities: in 2015, when confronted with a language ban at an Austrian school, the then minister of education stated prohibiting languages other than German during recess are in opposition to Article 8 of the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, as well as Article 1 BVG on the Rights of Children (BGBl I 4/2011). Nevertheless, legislative efforts to protect children's rights to use their own languages can only work to a certain extent, as language bans can still be carried out informally. In Austria, this often begins as early as kindergarten and may continue through secondary education. This can lead to the acceptance of these practices and often results in feelings of resignation among those affected (Thomaselli, 2023).

Several researchers criticize the treatment of home languages in Austria's educational system as exhibiting signs of segregation, amongst them Wojnesitz (2010), Jessner and Mayr-Kreiler (2017, p. 89), and Bruneforth, Lassnigg, Vogtenhuber, Schreiner and Breit (2016, p. 44). Wojnesitz (2010, p. 74) states that the way home languages are treated in the Austrian School system shows signs of a model of segregation as, inter alia, mother-tongue classes are

often not implemented for practical reasons, such as a lack of qualified teachers, while in theory, all L1-speakers should have a right to attend them. Her definition of a segregation model is from Skutnab-Kangas (2000), who characterizes it as

a program where linguistic minority children with a low-status mother tongue are forced to accept instruction through the medium of their own mother tongue in classes with minority children (with the same mother tongue) only where the teacher may be monolingual or bilingual but often is often poorly trained, where the class/school has poorer facilities and fewer resources than classes/schools for dominant children (...) and where the teaching of the dominant language is often poor or non-existent. (p. 591)

Wojnesitz (2010) describes mother-tongue teaching in Austria as partly segregated due to classes being held in the afternoon, long commutes to classes in question for students, infrequent classes, and the low status of mother-tongue teachers in the school community. Another indicator of segregation is given by Jessner and Mayr-Kreiler (2017, p. 89), who criticize that more and more children who predominantly use home languages other than German are classified as “students with special education needs”, and that children with non-German “everyday-languages” attend classes with predominantly other children exhibiting similar language practices. This problem is echoed by Wojnesitz (2010, p.101), who identifies an overly high share of children from migration backgrounds in special-needs schools. Bruneforth et. al. (2016, pp. 42-45) also diagnose signs of segregation since the portion of students with non-German home languages varies significantly across different school types. In middle schools, the share of students who have migration backgrounds, and/or are LX-German speakers, and who are from low socio-economic backgrounds is disproportionately high (Bruneforth et al., 2016; Herzog-Punzenberger, 2017; Schreiner et al., 2020; Statistik Austria, 2019 in Erling, Foltz et al., 2021, p. 571). What is more, urban middle schools, whose demographics are mainly students who speak German as an additional language and have a low socio-economic status, represent the lowest learning outcomes of Austrian schools (Oberwimmer, Vogtenhuber, Lassnigg & Schreiner, 2019; Schreiner et al., 2020, in Erling, Brummer et al., 2022). Some researchers interpret these significant differences in educational achievements between students who have different home languages than the language spoken at school as a sign of insufficient language support for the latter (Herzog-Punzenberger, 2007, p. 243). These points emphasize the need to rethink Austria’s current approach to language planning in education and the dire need for teachers to utilize multilingualism as a resource at school.

An example of a specific policy that prompted many researchers to talk about segregation in the context of the Austrian school system are the “German language support classes” (GLSC). However, the term segregation here is not strictly used in terms of Skutnab-Kangas (2000, p. 591), as students put in these classes are not specifically selected to share the same home languages. These German language classes are intended for students whose level of German language proficiency is deemed too low to join regular classes. The level of German language proficiency is ascertained in a standardized exam administered at the point of school entry and repeated after a period of one semester. Should the level of German proficiency be considered sufficient, the students are able to attend regular classes. If this is not the case and their proficiency is deemed insufficient or “ungenügend”, the students are put in German language classes for at least another semester to up to four semesters BMBWF (2024, June 4). An alternative that would enable students whose German language proficiency is deemed inadequate or “mangelhaft” to spend more time with German-speaking peers would be German language courses, which would enable them to spend more time with their German-speaking peers than being placed in a GLSC, as students would remain in a regular class instead of a GLSC, and attend German language courses as a supplementary way to attain higher German language proficiency.

In contrast, GLSC are a pull-out (segregative) program. Although they are not uncommon in EU-Countries (European Commission, EACEA, and Eurydice 2019), they are a subtractive and assimilative model, with a focus on language learning rather than content learning (Gitschthaler, Erling & Schwab, 2024, p. 2). They have also fallen under heavy criticism for taking away the chances to build social connections with German-speaking peers in their class, which takes away not only opportunities to authentically communicate in German and practice the language but also can also lessen their chances to be socially included in the class community, as well as hinder their academic achievement (Erling, Gitschthaler, Schwab, 2022). Another point raised by critics of this approach is that the students in question would miss the content of other subjects in their curriculum, which is backed by prior research revealing that students from pull-out models usually fall behind in content learning (Baker, 2011). These points were the basis of a petition signed by 300 headmasters, advocating against the implementation of this policy.

The merit of such classes has been questioned by Fürstenau and Gomolla (2011, p. 19), who revealed that they had little effect on reaching the students’ learning goals but instead stigmatized those attending such classes. After the GLSC were put in effect for one year, the Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Forschung (Federal Ministry of

Education, Science and Research, henceforth BMBWF) published an evaluation revealing mixed findings regarding the success and acceptance of the program. On average the teachers surveyed partially agreed to the statement that the standardized German Test MIKA-D is very useful. That said, this trend does not reflect all perspectives, as some schools stated that the test results were not utilized at all. A few school boards even reported that the test was useless to them. Amongst the most common suggestions to improve the program were smaller groups, more flexibility, and conducting the classes in an integrated rather than a segregated manner. This position is echoed by Schwab, Resch, Gitschthaler et al. (2024, p. 14), who highlight that practitioners as well as researchers criticize the school's loss of autonomy and being pressured to cast aside well-functioning, established language education models. Regarding teacher attitudes toward GLSC, most teachers who participated in the BMBWF and taught GLSC indicated that they volunteered for the role and had high levels of self-efficacy. In contrast, teachers who were short-handedly informed about being assigned to teach GLS classes without volunteering for the role reported low self-efficacy. Those teachers also mentioned low rates of collaboration with other teachers, unsuccessful cooperation with students' parents, feelings of being overworked, and a low level of identification with their work (Spiel, Popper & Holzer for BMBWF, 2022, p. 26). The evaluation of 2022, which collected its data between November 2020 and October 2022, appears to be the only one undertaken by BMBWF, which leaves long-term evaluations of its effectiveness lacking. Looking at prior, evidence-based research on language education models, Collier and Thomas (2009, p. 42) make a strong case against segregative and assimilative education models, as they revealed that while initially, such models offer considerable language improvement in the beginning, many students who participated in these models exhibit diminished academic and cognitive development over time.

Another factor that plays a part in the segregation of students with home languages other than German is the structure of Austria's educational system. Here, compared to most European countries, children leave comprehensive schooling exceedingly early, which is a particularly grave disadvantage for children with home languages other than German (Erling et al., 2022; Wojnesitz, 2010, p. 97). This problem is also echoed by the German educational system, which exhibits a similar structure, and, like Austria's educational system, implements early tracking⁶ (see Henninges, Traini, & Kleinert, 2019). In Austria, already after four years of elementary school, children are put into the dual-track educational system, with the

⁶Differences may apply between federal states in Germany, as the educational system's structure is regulated at the state level.

possibility of either attending an academic secondary school (AHS) or a middle school, which ends after four years of schooling and does not equip students with a Matura, a standardized final test that enables students to study at a university.

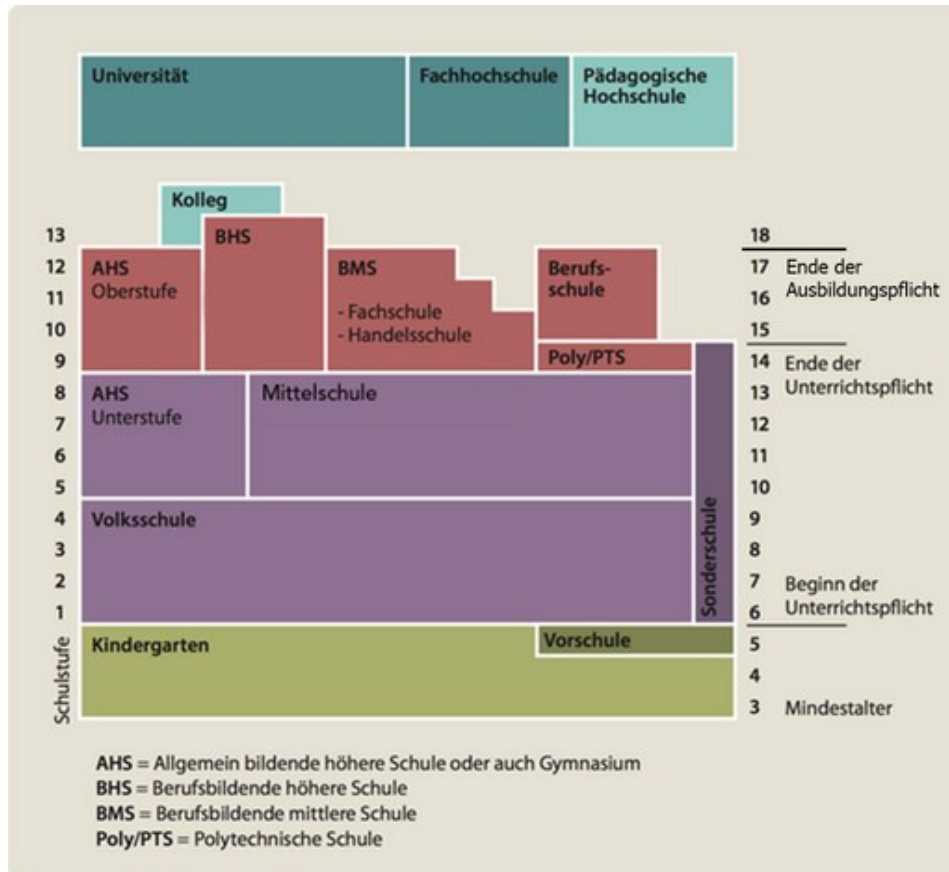


Figure 1. The Austrian School System. Source: Grafik © Parlamentsdirektion / Kinderbüro der Universität Wien.

In middle schools, a consistent performance below the national average has been measured in all core subjects. While it is theoretically possible to switch from a middle school to a higher secondary school, it is rarely managed: Erling et al. (2021), citing Statistik Austria (2019, p. 573), report that the majority of middle school students either continue schooling in vocational education, attend professional school or a polytechnical school, or end their scholastic path after their compulsory education in middle school has ended. When students reach the point of having to enter one of the two systems, the deciding factors are largely not cognitive abilities but ethnicity, socio-economic status, and language background (Leitgöb, Bacher & Weber, 2015; Maaz, Trautwein & Lüdke, 2008; Oberwimmer et al., 2019; Kesselring & Leitner, 2007, p. 93 as cited in Erling et al., 2021, p. 573), arriving at the conclusion that “hardly any other industrial state’s educational performance depends so much

on the parents' wages and educational background as it does in Austria" (Becker, 2004; Maaz et al., 2008; Erler 2007, 7 93 as cited in Erling et al., 2021, p. 573).

5.4 Monolingual norms in Austrian schools

As for Austria's School system, Schwab, Resch, Gitschthaler et al. (2024, p. 177) detect a monolingual habitus. Their justifications are that schools frequently do not utilize multilingual students' whole language repertoire, as well as the segregation, discrimination, and shortage of support for students with migration backgrounds (see Chapter 5.3). As the next paragraphs illustrate, leaving multilingual students' home languages unutilized, or even banning them at school, can lead to various effects detrimental to the social prestige of students' home languages, the societal inclusion of immigrants, and the negotiation of multilingual students' identities at school.

Firstly, failing to incorporate students' languages can convey the impression that they are unwanted in schools and should be kept to the confines of their homes. Especially in Austria, this can purport sociolinguistic hierarchies, as the most frequently spoken community languages, such as Turkish, Arabic, or BCS, have traditionally been attributed with a low social prestige (see Chapter 5.2). Upholding these linguistic hierarchies can also be detrimental to the confidence and motivation of students, as their multilingual funds of knowledge may be left unrecognized or even devalued at school.

Secondly, a monolingual habitus can negatively affect the societal inclusion of migrant students. Within the monolingual ideology of nation states, one single national language is considered key to social cohesion, which is often the reason that learning the national language is portrayed as the most important goal for migrant students. Yet, discouraging the use of home languages at school, or even suggesting refraining from their use in students' families can result in detrimental effects on their acquisition of other languages like German or English, as most of the scientific community studying second language learning agrees that one should have a sound fundament of the first language as a base for further language learning (Fleck, 2022, p. 391).

Additionally, a monolingual habitus can also trigger complex processes related to identity negotiation and adaptation of migrants. Fleck (2022, p. 391) shows that banning home languages at school can bring about the rejection of integration offers, or, in contrast to this, an over-adaption, where first languages are completely rejected. Yet, societal inclusion cannot merely be discussed in view of the migrant community; it also must consider

integration offers from the host society. Through banning community languages during recess, the responsibility for linguistic integration is solely put on the LX-Speaker, even though many German-speaking students state that they would be interested in learning their friend's first language (Wojnesitz, 2010). Erling, Brummer et al. explain that

Such work suggests that deficit perspectives, defined as restricted and misinformed visions that primarily focus on negative aspects of specific social groups, persist in educational systems with regard to multilingualism and additional language learning (Mertens 2008; Keefer 2017). Deficit perspectives contribute to perceptions that certain groups (for instance, multilingual students from migration backgrounds) have intellectual shortcomings that prevent them from achieving academically. (Erling, Brummer et al., 2023, p. 75)

Lastly, it is important to note that the monolingual norm can perpetuate institutional discrimination against multicultural students. Wojnesitz (2010, p. 101) explains that teachers with a monolingual habitus may attribute poor academic performance to presumed inherent differences aptitude among ethnic groups, instead of contextualizing low grades of multilingual students with struggles to adapt to the monolingual norm. Also in Germany, Gomolla and Radtke (2007, p. 254) feature an interview with a head-teacher, where ethnic differences are used as a justification for low learning outcomes. Regarding Austria, a factor that can be seen as contributing to this is the negative discourse on multilingualism in the context of immigration. Erling, Brummer et al. (2022, p. 75) pose that deficit perspectives, defined as “restricted and misinformed visions that primarily focus on negative aspects of specific social groups, persist in educational systems with regard to multilingualism and additional language learning” (Mertens, 2008; Keefer, 2017, as cited in Erling, Brummer et al., 2022) contribute to the perception that certain groups, such as multilingual students with a history of migration, are less likely to attain academic success due to wrongly attributed intellectual shortcomings.

6. Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism and second language learning

6.1 Conceptualizing teacher attitudes and beliefs

Until the turn of the century, teacher attitudes and beliefs did not occupy a central role in SLA literature but have been examined under the umbrella of “individual differences, together with motivation, metacognition and learning strategies” (Woods, 2003, p. 202), with some of the earliest authors to focus on teacher beliefs being Oxford (1990) and Wenden (1991). Research has continued to reveal their influence in education: teacher attitudes and beliefs take up a

major role in guiding teachers' decisions, as well as the navigation of their daily practice (Bandura, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Skott, 2014). Though teachers' beliefs exert considerable influence on their professions, their research has been stifled by the lack of a unitary definition of the concept. The following section will be concerned with how existing research employs different terms and how distinctions are drawn.

Examining the term attitudes, they are viewed as part of the same functionally integrated cognitive system values and beliefs are considered to be part of (Rokeach, 1969). Attitudes are typically seen as encompassing individuals' evaluations or feelings toward a situation or an object (Rokeach, 1969, p. 112). In contrast, the definition of beliefs includes a broader range of positions. While some authors regard beliefs as an individual's judgments over the veracity of a proposition (such as Pajares, 1992, p.316), other authors view them as a "set of interrelated notions" such as McAlpine, Eriks-Brophy, and Crago (1996, p. 392, as cited in Gill & Fives, 2014, p. 1). Additionally, Hermans, van Braak, and Van Keer (2008, p. 128, as cited in Gill & Fives, p. 1) regard beliefs as a collection of conceptual representations containing broad information about individuals, objects, and occurrences, and relationships characteristic to them. Values, which are considered to be driven by singular beliefs, guide "actions and judgements across specific objects and situations, and beyond immediate goals to more ultimate end-states of existence" (Rokeach, 1969, p. 160).

Echoing the terminological difficulties related to "attitudes", the term "belief" has also been criticized as underspecified, as researchers raised the point that little common ground has been reached on how to distinguish the term from values, attitudes, and world views (Gill & Fives, 2014, pp. 19-20). To sharpen the boundaries of the term, Gill and Fives (2014, p. 19) laid out five core characteristics of teacher beliefs based on widely used definitions:

1. Beliefs describe individual mental constructs which are subjectively true for the person in question (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996, 2003; Schoenfeld, 1992).
2. Beliefs have cognitive, as well as affective aspects, or at minimum, beliefs and affective issues are viewed as inextricably linked, even if viewed as distinct (Abelson, 1979; Gill & Hardin 2014; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992).
3. Generally, beliefs are thought to be contextually and temporally stable reifications that are only to be expected to change when challenged with substantial engagement in relevant social practices (Borko & Putnam, 1996; Calderhead, 1996; Cooney, Shealy, & Arvold, 1998; Gill, Ashton, & Algina, 2004; Kagan, 1992; Lloyd, 2005; Mansour, 2009; Richardson, 2003).

4. The ways teachers tackle problems of practice are substantially going to be influenced by their beliefs (see Mansour, 2009; Op't Eynde, de Corte, & Verschaffel, 2002).

Some of these characteristics differ from other definitions used in literature, such as Barcelos (2011, p. 285). In contrast to Gill and Fives (2014), she states that beliefs fluctuate and may change over short periods. Potential drivers include significant others or micro- and macro-political contexts. Barcelos (2011) also considers beliefs to be complex and dialectical: citing Negueruela-Azarola (2011, pp. 360-361), she states that beliefs are both stable and changing, highlighting that some kinds of beliefs are influenced by context to a more minor degree than others. Therefore, she advocates that their paradoxical nature ought to be acknowledged to provide a complex view of beliefs (Barcelos, 2003, in Mercer, 2011, p. 336).

This study will employ the term “attitudes”, as the use of this term will facilitate a connection between the findings of this thesis and one of the papers most relevant to its research focus. This is especially important given that the intention of this thesis is to offer a qualitative perspective that complements the existing discourse presented in that work (see Erling, Brummer et al., 2022). In the fashion of Rokeach (1969), the term attitude will be treated as a conglomerate of beliefs.

There are several factors that complicate researching teacher attitudes and beliefs. For example, their variable, and occasionally incoherent nature: Green (1971, as cited in Gill & Fives, 2014, p. 19) posits that beliefs can, but do not have to be internally coherent, may exist in mutual isolation, and potentially vary from one situation to another. This stands in accordance with Kramsch (2003, p. 111), who states that beliefs should account for “variability, contingency, and consistency”. Additionally, beliefs can have a filtering function, where information incompatible with existing beliefs is met with internal resistance (Blömeke, Kaiser & Lehmann, 2008). Still, they may change during teachers’ lives. One reason for this is that they are shaped by teachers’ experiences or the emotions connected to them- for instance, an emotion such as embarrassment may be related to the beliefs a person has about themselves, which can thus influence their actions (Aragão, 2011). Furthermore, beliefs and attitudes are social and experiential in nature and are formed in discursive practices (De Wilde, 2024, p. 132). This is also in line with Navarro and Thorton’s (2011) research, which advocates that beliefs are other-oriented, as significant others can affect whether a person adopts new beliefs or re-enforces their old set of beliefs.

Something that is vital to consider in the context of this research is that often, attitudes do not directly translate to action (Basturkmen, 2012). This is also true for beliefs, as Borg (2006) and Barcelos and Kalaja (2003) state that there is no causal relationship between

actions and beliefs. This relationship is influenced by factors such as affordances, or people's interpretation of their own "actions, emotions, and self-concept" (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011, p. 286). That said, this complexity can also yield unexpected benefits, such as the finding that teachers having a negative attitude about multilingualism does not necessarily entail teaching that ignores the resources multilingual students bring to the table: Erling and Moore's research (2021, p. 6) suggests that an increased awareness of teachers' own beliefs, no matter if they are embrative of multilingualism or not, can aid them to contribute to more equity in the educational system for multilingual students and be more reflective of their practices as not to perpetuate deficit discourses about multilingualism themselves.

6.2 Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism and second language learning in an international context

It cannot be denied that teachers' attitudes play a crucial role in shaping their classroom practice. Subsequently, a few selected studies will be shared that represent some of the most salient ways teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism can impact their multilingual students and, consequently, educational equity. One of the most relevant research issues for this study is that, despite the many acknowledged advantages of multilingualism in literature, teachers often experience it as a burden in their own classrooms. For example, Birello, Llopart-Esbert and Moore (2021) revealed that pre-service teachers in Spain held positive beliefs toward the multilingualism of students, which turned negative when they started teaching in multilingual classrooms. A different kind of discrepancy between the teachers' theoretical recognition of multilingualism's benefits and their practical recognition was found in the context of Norwegian third-language classrooms. Haukås (2016) showed that while teachers believed their own multilingualism to be a resource for language learning, they did not think the same about the multilingualism of their students. The teachers explained this by supposedly different abilities to apply language awareness between them and their students.

A factor that could explain why multilingual skills in schools are often unutilized is that teacher education may not prepare student-teachers sufficiently for the super-diversity brought about by globalization and migration: Dražnik, Llopart-Esbert, and Bergroth (2022) found that student-teachers in Slovenia, Catalonia, and Finland feared inadequate application of linguistically sensitive teaching in diverse classrooms due to insufficient training. The relevance of preparing teachers to work in linguistically diverse classrooms is underscored by other studies conducted across diverse educational settings worldwide: In international contexts, deficit views are likely to be found in teachers who do not have extensive

knowledge about minoritized multilingualism, and how to adapt their teaching to recently immigrated students (Pettit, 2011; Vikøy & Haukås, 2021).

In contrast, a positive teacher attitude toward students' multilingualism has been put in connection to the use of multilingual education strategies. Through inquiring about teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism in online questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, Haim and Tannenbaum (2022) revealed that teachers who do have an embracing attitude towards multilingualism did use educational strategies to make use of their learner's linguistic resources inside their classroom. They were described as having a more inclusive, resource-oriented approach than teachers perceiving more difficulties. What is more, the benefits of these teacher attitudes can even extend to students' academic achievement: Erling, Brummer, et al. (2022) even conducted a study that suggests that Austrian middle school- teachers who were familiar with students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds and embraced their students' multilingualism could exert a favorable effect in the attainment of their learning goals in certain school types.

The studies cited here only represent selected aspects of the newest research on multilingual students and teacher beliefs, but looking at research on teacher beliefs and multilingualism of the past decades reflects many educational disparities multilingual students still face today: Brophy and Good (1986) demonstrated that in the 1980s, teachers' ascertainment of students' academic success could yield negative consequences for those differing from the mainstream norm. Already in the early 1960s, research had shown that teachers tended to emphasize what marginalized students could **not** do, which led to lower expectations for them (van den Bergh, Denessen, Honrstra, Voeten, & Holland, 2010). This aligns with late 60s and early 70s language acquisition research, which frequently thematized the negative interferences of learning three or more languages (Stedje 1976/1977 as cited in Knapp, Seidlhofer and Widdowson, 2009, p. 113). Research on positive cognitive aspects of multilingualism finally emerged in the late 80s and early 90s (Knapp et al., 2009, p. 113).

Working towards educational equity for multilingual students is complex, with many factors shaping teachers' expectations of them, including parental socio-economic status, linguistic capital, and nationality. However, the benefits to be reaped from positive teacher attitudes can be significant: multilingual students thrive under high teacher expectations, and equitable language policies gain traction when supported by teacher attitudes (Young, 2014, p. 157). It is also worth noting that not only multilingual students would benefit from teachers implementing multilingual pedagogies: Candelier (2004) and Hélot (2012) showed that monolingual students profit from increased language awareness and positive attitudes, which

have been linked to higher school attainment. Despite this, many teachers are still hesitant to use multilingual pedagogies due to the fear that the linguistic majority might be disadvantaged (Meier, 2018).

6.3 Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism in Austria

In alignment with research in international contexts, De Angelis (2011, p. 223) revealed that while many teachers in Austria had a positive theoretical view on multilingualism, they regarded their students' multilingualism as a hindrance to their teaching. This was due to the belief that the extensive use of the students' home language would inhibit English language learning, which is why they would deliberately refrain from using their students' home language. A decade later, Bredthauer and Engfer (2016, p. 104) published a study that re-confirmed the validity of De Angelis' findings on teachers' theoretical embracement of multilingualism, and their diametrical actions inside their classrooms: teachers in Germany and Austria advocated for multilingual approaches yet a monolingual habitus appeared to be ubiquitous in conventional didactical concepts. The key reasons given were insufficient professional development and a lack of suitable coursebooks, leading teachers to view multilingual didactics as outside their responsibility. Bredthauer and Engfer (2016) attested this to the observation that most frequently, teachers tried to acquire strategies to implement multilingual approaches autodidactically. This can result in a barrier to multilingual students' success. This is due to the fact that the implementation of multilingual approaches is rarely managed without professional development (Göbel, Vieluf & Hesse, 2010; Pölzlbauer, 2011; Neveling, 2013 as cited in Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016, p. 108). Arguments for multilingual didactics that they deducted from reviewing empirical studies were, for instance, promoting tolerance and intercultural learning, striving for holistic language learning, and beneficial effects for further language learning. Bredthauer and Engfer (2016, pp. 109-110) also revealed reasons language teachers were hesitant to implement multilingual pedagogies. Amongst them were concerns for feasibility due to large variety of languages in classes or the lack of necessary language skills, the fear of detrimental inferences between languages, or the assumption that drawing comparisons between languages is too difficult for most of their students. Additionally, many language teachers still advocated for "time on task" and thought of spending time on other languages as losing valuable time. This is disputed by Krumm (2003), who found that validating students' first language, a new language to be learned is less likely to be seen as a threat to their identity. Another concern of teachers was the loss of

authority, since teachers rarely speak community languages, and fear that using other languages might interfere with German acquisition (Bredthauer & Engfer, 2016, p. 114).

Furthermore, teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism vary between different school types. Erling, Foltz and Wiener (2021) revealed that multilingualism is regarded more favorably by teachers in the academic track. One factor of this could be the high portion of students using languages of low socio-economic prestige in middle schools. These beliefs can contribute to the gaps in achievement between the different Austrian school types (Erling & Moore, 2021, p. 529; Erling, Mayer & Foltz, 2021), as a connection between teachers' expectancies of students and the students' scholastic achievement has been made numerous times in research.

Across Europe, studies like Hall and Cunningham 2020; Heyder and Schädlich 2014; Lundberg 2019; Young, 2014 affirm that teachers' negative attitude can perpetuate disadvantages in the educational system for multilingual students. Considering that Austria's middle schools already frequently fail to meet their required learning goals in their core subjects, these findings are troubling. In 2019, Ressler published a diploma thesis titled "English teachers' beliefs on the promotion of multilingualism at "Mittelschule" (MS, formerly called NMS/Neue Mittelschule) in Vienna", where six English teachers were interviewed about their beliefs surrounding multilingualism. The responses revealed that most frequently, the integration of other languages besides German and English stops after teachers have asked their students which languages they speak. Reasons given for not engaging with students' whole language repertoire were time constraints, as well as personal beliefs. Moreover, her thesis confirmed that misconceptions amongst English teachers about multilingualism, and a lack of knowledge about resources for multilingual education are still present. Although the study is not representative due to its small sample size, it still offers insight into the challenges many teachers in Austria face in addressing students' multilingualism, and the need for further investigation to work towards educational equity.

7. Methodology

To reiterate, the research questions for this study are:

RQ1: How do two teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism impact the enactment of multilingualism in a Viennese middle school classroom?

RQ2: How do the students perceive their teachers' classroom practices related to multilingualism?

This MA thesis examines the practical implementation of multilingualism in a Vienna middle school and the role of the two team-teachers' beliefs. Since publications by Erling, Brummer et al. (2022), have indicated a potential correlation between teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism and students' academic success, this study will not only focus on exploring teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism but also delve into students' perception of their teachers' attitudes, manifested through classroom practices. In preparation for this thesis, I have observed several English lessons held by the English teachers of the class. Because of this, along with conversations with the teachers about our mutual interest in multilingualism at school, this thesis will start under the assumption that the teachers have a positive attitude toward multilingualism and can create a supportive classroom atmosphere while still taking measures to test this assumption.

The present study is of a qualitative, ethnographic nature. Embedded, single-case studies may use a wide array of methods (Yin, 2009, p. 46). The following section will give insight about the three means of data collection employed to achieve an in-depth exploration of the enactment of multilingualism in English lessons, and how it might be influenced by teachers' attitudes, and the students' reception of them. By employing a triangulation approach encompassing the indicated three data sources, this research fortifies its validity.

Firstly, 12 English lessons were investigated using semi-focused observation sheets. The sheets contained a chronological order of the activities carried out in the lesson and a transcript of teacher talk. Since Erling et al. (2022) concluded that a positive classroom atmosphere could play a part in the academic success of the students investigated, a section for notes about the classroom atmosphere was added to the bottom of the observation sheet, intended for a rough categorization into neutral/positive/negative, as well as any striking incidents that could have influenced the classroom atmosphere. This section was intended to be analyzed in combination with the transcript of the teacher talk to form a basis for further investigation. Teacher interviews were the second means of gathering data. Their aim was to investigate the teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism and how they were formed, as well as to provide deeper insight into their praxis. To anonymize the data, Maria and Rio were used in exchange for the teachers' real names. Lastly, two focus-group interviews (henceforth termed F1 for focus-group 1 and F2 for focus-group 2) with the students were conducted, modeled after a questionnaire developed by Erling, Brummer et al. (2022), in order to gauge the students' perception of their teachers' stance on multilingualism, their classroom practices, and learning environment.

7.1 Interviews

Subsequently, the two kinds of interviews used for data collection, the 1-on-1 teacher interviews and the students' focus group interviews, are briefly treated. Both the teachers and the students were interviewed in German. As most previous interactions with the researcher occurred in German, the interviews continued this line to ensure a more comfortable atmosphere for the interviewees. All interview guides can be found in the appendix.

The 1-on-1 interview was used as a means of data collection for the teachers' stance. The interview was semi-structured (Le Compte & Preissle, 1993), as it had to be ensured that the interviews of the two teachers could be compared while still allowing for the necessary flexibility to probe further into specific statements. The reason why 1-on-1 interviews were used for the teachers was that their responses, given the separated nature of the two interviews, were less likely to be influenced by the answers given by their team-teaching partner, which allowed for a detailed account of both perspectives. In turn, as the following paragraph will show, the focus group interviews, in contrast, can be helpful in estimating a general group consensus.

Turning to the focus group interview, it is a qualitative data-collection instrument able to reveal unique perspectives on specific issues. During an interactive discussion, group participants share their perspectives about specific issues. The advantages of this means of data collection for the present project extend beyond the diversity of student perspectives that can be gained from it: being interviewed with their peers could make students feel more at ease in comparison to being interviewed alone. Additionally, the kind of data that can be gained from it has more potential to be an accurate representation of the class's opinions than a 1-on-1 in-depth interview, as in a group setting, a controversial perspective presented by one member can be challenged by other participants. In seeking to provide justification, participants might provide examples, which can uncover different nuances of topics. In consequence, through the validation of issues by others, extreme views and community norms can be identified (Hennink, 2020, p. 138). Because of the lessons observed prior to the focus group interviews, the students most likely associated me with their teachers. This raises the possibility of receiving guarded answers, seeking to avoid consequences for potential negative opinions of their class teacher. To counteract this, questions were used inquiring how the students felt and behaved in class, rather than inquiring about their teacher (such as "Do you feel comfortable in English class" rather than "Does teacher X make sure you feel comfortable in her class", or "Do you sometimes use your home languages during English class" instead of "Does teacher X allow you to use your home languages?"). By using indirect

questions, the purpose of the questions is made less obvious, and more candid results are expected (Tuckman, 1972 as cited in Cohen, 2011, p. 417).

7.2 Researcher positionality

This section will provide information about the researchers' positionality, covering factors that influenced the research framework, such as initial observations of the class, preceding research on the subject matter, and potential biases on the part of the researcher. Starting with the initial impressions of the English lessons, it must be stated that they influenced the development of the research focus considerably. Notably, the interactions between the educators and their pupils reflected a strong rapport, evidenced by a relaxed classroom atmosphere characterized by shared humor and the acknowledgment of student achievements. Additionally, a variety of strategies were employed to support multilingual learners during English instruction, including the use of non-linguistic communication to elicit vocabulary. Maria articulated her enjoyment in working with a linguistically diverse student body, emphasizing the benefits of teaching at a middle school. Her extended engagement with a single class, which encompassed her other subjects—Physical Education, Handicrafts, Art, and an English Remedial course—facilitated the development of profound relationships with her students.

The thesis examines a multilingual middle school in Vienna, focusing on the positive perceptions educators have of students' multilingualism, contrasting with the prevailing deficit-oriented discourse. Drawing on Elizabeth Erling's research, which highlights the influence of teacher attitudes on multilingual students' learning environments and experiences, this investigation prioritizes teacher attitudes toward multilingualism, their implementation in the classroom, and students' perceptions. The study intentionally excludes the correlation between teacher attitudes and academic achievement present in Erling, Brummer et al. (2022), as such quantitative analyses require larger participant samples for reliable conclusions. Instead, it aims to deliver a qualitative, ethnographic analysis of two teachers embracing multilingualism, contributing qualitative insights to existing quantitative research on this topic.

Next, the selection of participants must be analyzed for potential biases that could influence the findings, which is a prerequisite for ethnographic research. As a researcher involved in the social world of my research setting, I ought to use reflexivity to acknowledge myself and my influence on the research, as personal biographical aspects, world view, and

resulting biases are a lens through which researchers look and “interpret the already-interpreted world of participants” (Preissle, 2006, p. 691). It is not in the researcher’s power to eliminate these effects, instead, they must make their own part, their pre-conceptions, paradigms, reactions, and roles as transparent as possible (Cohen, 2011, p. 225).

Starting with my own potential biases, it is my personal estimation that both teachers embrace multilingualism in the classroom. Without reflection and methodological rigor, the halo effect could manifest in a selective data collection process or in favoring a more positive interpretation of the data due to my preconceived notion of the teachers. To counteract this, a triangulated database is recommended (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 246), which is used in this thesis.

Moving on to the teachers, since Maria offered to let me sit in on her and Rio’s English lessons, it is probable that she is convinced of the quality of her teaching and would like to present the most positive aspects of it. The issue of teachers behaving differently when observed is a common theme in the literature about classroom observations. Scriven (1981, p. 5), when criticizing observations as a tool to assess teachers, claimed that the visit itself altered the teaching, which makes the lesson at hand not a representative sample. Even though assessment is no aim of this study, there is nevertheless a likelihood that the classroom practices were altered by my presence as an observer.

Furthermore, researcher presence could also alter the students’ behavior. Due to the Hawthorne effect, the presence of a researcher during lessons alters the behavior of the participants, as they may wish to “avoid, impress, direct, deny, or influence the researcher (Cohen, 2011, p. 246). To desensitize the students to my presence in the classroom, I sat in on multiple lessons prior to the project. Despite this, and an initial introduction/repeated clarification that I was not here to evaluate, students asked several times if I was evaluating the teachers. It is therefore possible that this misconception influenced (especially the initial) observations of the project.

7.3 Qualitative content analysis

As an analytical framework for the data collected (12 classroom observations, two focus-group interviews, and two teacher interviews), qualitative content analysis (Kuckartz & McWerthor, 2014) was chosen. Qualitative content analysis offers the advantage of being compatible with many different types of data and being suitable for research projects that develop their categories deductively, inductively, or, like this thesis, employing a mix of the two. Here, prior to the data analysis, a handful of codes emerged during the literature research

in combination with the interview questions from Erling, Brummer, et al., (2022). While coding the data, new (sub-)categories were formed.

Other advantages that qualitative content analysis offers for this project are, for example, being able to address latent meanings that are communicated intersubjectively (Kuckartz & McWerthor, 2014, p. 40). It also honors the interactive nature of the data's origin, which is vital for a research setting that takes the perspectives of two teachers, as well as their students, into consideration. Lastly, it is a systematic approach using clear rules for each step of the analysis and involves coding the entire data set, which is why it is so suitable for a qualitative, ethnographic case study that seeks to provide a detailed account of the research subject (Kuckartz & McWerthor, 2014, p. 44). Another factor honoring the nature of the case study is that with qualitative content analysis, it is not strictly necessary to have a hypothesis at the onset of the project, allowing for different interpretations of the data collected (Kuckartz & McWerthor, 2014, p. 54).

This study will employ Kuckartz's approach to qualitative content analysis due to the following reasons: to structure and analyze the data collected, the software MAXQDA 24 was used. While MAXQDA supports various analysis techniques, it was developed by Kuckartz, making his approach particularly compatible. Unlike methods that rely on paraphrasing text passages to create coding categories, Kuckartz's analysis retains the original text, reducing the risk of misinterpretation or oversimplification. Instead of paraphrasing, MAXQDA ensures the traceability of analytical steps (Dresing, 2024).

7.4 Transcription

All interviews were transcribed following Kuckartz's (2014) guidelines for computer-assisted qualitative analysis. For the transcription itself, neither transcription software nor AI was used. As for the classroom records, where using audio recording techniques were not an option, it was still an aspiration to stick as closely to the transcription rules as possible when noting down verbatim expressions under the timely constraints given. Nonetheless, it has to be noted that due to the lack of audio recordings, some parts of classroom conversations may be missing or inaccurate, which is why they cannot be treated with the same gravitas as the rest of the data. The rules of transcription adhered to can be found in Kuckartz and McWerthor (2014, p. 123). To equip the transcription of the interviews with as much contextual detail as possible, the transcription was carried out either on the same day or as closely to the interview date as possible. The coding process preserved the data in its original languages, including English, German, and a few utterances from other languages spoken by

the students. Subsequently, translations were provided by the researcher for all citations stemming from the interviews, as they were all conducted in German.

Table 2

Participant information teachers

Alias	Years of teaching the class	Educational background
Maria	4	She completed teacher training at a university college of teacher education, in the subjects English and Craft education
Rio	2	He studied piano pedagogy at a university of music and performing arts

Table 3

Participant information students

Alias	Age	Languages spoken by student
Focus group 1		
Student 1	14	German, English, Arabic
Student 2	15	German, English, Serbian, Albanian
Student 3	14	German, English, Turkish, Bulgarian
Student 4	14	German, English, Bulgarian
Focus Group 2		
Student 5	15	German, English, Rumanian
Student 6	15	German, English, Arabic
Student 7	14	German, English, Turkish
Student 8	14	German, English, Kurdish, Turkish, Arabic
Student 9	15	German, English, Turkish

7.5 Thematic qualitative analysis: an overview of the process

Kuckartz and McWerthor (2014) offer three methods of qualitative text analysis, including thematic qualitative analysis, which was chosen as the most suitable method. The framework of this approach frequently entails a mix of inductive and deductive category formation,

which is also the case for this thesis (Kuckartz & McWerthor, 2014, p. 75). For this project, the analysis was not held off until every piece of data was transcribed; rather, phases of analysis and data transcription overlapped. Part of the reason for this was that firstly, a small sample was analyzed to determine which method of content analysis was most suitable for this project. Secondly, the dates for the interviews were several weeks apart due to the schedules of the respective teachers. However, the overlapping of data collection and analysis is not unusual for many approaches of qualitative data analysis. Regarding the rules of the coding process, Kuckartz and McWerthor's (2014, p. 78) approach on how to assign text passages to categories was followed.

The initial stage of analysis included highlighting the most important passages, as well as writing memos on the most important instances and insights. Then, major categories were formed according to the relevant literature (such as teachers' beliefs about multilingualism, teachers' beliefs on multilingualism manifested in classroom practices). After (as well as during) the data was analyzed using these major categories as codes, more specific sub-codes emerged, and major codes were divided into their respective sub-codes. In this process, major codes were also modified and differentiated, for instance, in cases where the original definition of the categories was deemed too narrow or too wide to cover the instances observed. Then, a thematic summary for each code was compiled through summarizing all text passages. As a last step, the thematic summaries were used to answer the research question, in rapport with the full-text passages coded to ensure that the coded data was not misrepresented.

Table 4

Code system used for analysis

Name of code	Subcodes
teacher beliefs related to multilingualism	1. advantages of multilingualism 2. drawbacks of multilingualism
teacher persona	1. teacher self-image 2. anti-discriminatory values 3. prior education related to multilingualism 4. affinity toward multilingualism/multilingual settings 5. goals for teaching in multilingual settings
multilingualism enacted in class	1. utilization of students' home languages 2. discussing differences between languages 3. peers providing language support 4. teacher knowledge about students' linguistic backgrounds/culture 5. teaching material related to multilingualism 6. code-switching/code-mixing 7. teaching vocabulary with regard to students' multilingual backgrounds
teacher approach to managing languages inside the classroom	1. multilingual habitus 2. compensation of monolingual aspects/monolingual habitus 3. regulation of languages 4. German deficit/working on German 5. Code switching/code mixing
student confidence	1. teacher complimenting their skills (school/task related) 2. students asking for help 3. students' self-assessment 4. students correcting teacher
institutional environment	1. indications of a multilingual habitus 2. indications of a monolingual habitus
culture/identity	1. religion 2. comparisons between cultures/countries 3. talking about culture/countries during lessons 4. discrimination/racism
classroom management	1. instances of classroom management observed during lessons 2. teachers' stance on classroom management 3. students helping teachers with classroom management
classroom atmosphere	1. humor 2. democratic elements 3. small talk/non-school related compliments 4. consideration/acknowledgement of students' needs 5. talking about problems with students 6. acknowledging negative feelings 7. checking for understanding 8. explaining the importance of tasks/learning 9. non-specific compliments from students 10. possible negative influences on classroom atmosphere

In the following pages, thematic summaries for each code will be provided. To arrive at a thematic summary, all coded instances of a category are collected in a thematic summary matrix in a bullet point format, which is then turned into a written summary. Translation from German to English occurred while composing the initial, bullet-point structured summary. To protect the privacy of all participants involved, it was decided that neither the thematic matrices nor the raw data would be contained in this thesis. Nevertheless, to illustrate the methodological process of this thesis, one example thematic summary matrix that did not contain sensitive information will be provided here:

Table 5

Example of a thematic summary matrix

attitudes toward multilingualism		
teacher	passage(s)	summary
Maria	I_Maria, Pos. 87a 87b 108 110 56-59	advantages • Multilingualism as part of diversity is beautiful • Multiple languages spoken in class are an advantage and something positive, but as a teacher, it is important to steer the existing multilingualism in a positive direction, as there can also be disadvantages disadvantages • Disadvantages listed include talking behind someone's back, and cursing. • Yelling across the classroom in a language other than German or English, or talking in a large group of students in a language that only some understand can result in quarrelling between students, as students sometimes think they heard a curse word, when it was merely a misunderstanding attributed to only knowing a few words of the language in question, also happened to herself • Students also to switch to their home languages to exclude others, but states that with more diverse student demographic the formation of cliques has become less of a problem
Rio	I_Rio, Pos. 30 58 71	advantages • Views languages as part of an individual's identity, wants students to know that their languages are valued and important • Says knowing multiple languages is something positive, thinks it's a pity Rio only knows two languages • Multilingualism as part of cultural diversity in a classroom is something positive, as Rio can use the existing cultural diversity to encourage students to be curious about things beyond their cultural point of view disadvantages • Says there can only be advantages, but then backtracks when asked for disadvantages and lists that the only negative thing would be cursing

8. Analysis

In this chapter, the thematic summaries for each code are presented. Teacher interview data will not be explicitly labeled; however, data from classroom records and focus group discussions will be indicated.

8.1 Teacher attitudes toward multilingualism

Perceived benefits of multilingualism

The teachers of the class strongly connect the advantages of multilingualism to diversity. Starting with Maria, she states that diversity is beautiful and considers multilingual classrooms an advantage. She expresses her admiration for students speaking multiple languages, calling it remarkable. Rio also wants to convey to the students that their languages, as part of their identity, are important to him. He also conceives multilingualism as an asset, as, to him, it goes hand in hand with cultural diversity in a classroom. He states that diversity is a resource which can be utilized to encourage students to learn about other cultures and to go beyond their own cultural points of view. In four more instances of Maria's interview, multilingualism is claimed to have advantages, but they are not further elaborated on.

Perceived drawbacks of multilingualism

When asked about potential disadvantages, Maria lists more concrete examples. In her view, drawbacks of multilingualism include when a language is to talk behind someone's back and cursing in languages not understood by the teacher. Another problem mentioned is misunderstandings between either students, or Maria and the students. She explains that, often, students only know a few words in their peer's language, which can result in thinking that they heard a curse word, when in fact the conversation was about a different topic, but then states "Sure, there are problems, sure, it's difficult, sure, it's a challenge. But it also brings a lot of positive aspects with it".

In contrast, Rio initially mentioned cursing as the only drawback of multilingualism but then downplayed its importance, concluding, "Well, I think it can only have advantages. To cut it short, I love languages, and I love the world and everything it has to offer".

8.2 Teacher persona

Teachers' self-image

Maria describes herself in the interview as a teacher who likes to have fun and supposes that when she is having fun, the students feed off her energy as well. This is supported by the classroom records, where humor was coded 42 times in total, making it one of the largest categories. While this is the case, Maria also believes in being transparent about her negative feelings: when she has a bad day, Maria makes a point in telling her students the reasons for her mood. If their actions contribute to her feelings, she clarifies that her frustration is a response to their behavior, not a reflection of her feelings toward them as individuals.

Rio shares in his interview that he occasionally tries to learn words in the students' home languages, such as salutations. Although he is concerned about mispronouncing items, which might make students think he is mocking their home language, he reveals part of his view of his self-image as a teacher by stating that the students already got to know him as a decent teacher and will therefore hopefully not misunderstand his intentions. He clarifies that his motive for including the students' home languages is to convey to them that their languages, as part of their identities, are important to Rio. In the interview, he tells Maria and him are 'very open, present and nice' to the students.

Anti-discriminatory values

In the interview, it also becomes evident that Maria holds anti-discriminatory values: several times, she criticizes the negative medial discourse surrounding urban middle-school students, stating that it does not correspond to her personal experience at all. Furthermore, she expresses enjoyment in disproving people's expectations of what it is like to teach in such schools. Maria also makes a point in telling her students that their multilingualism is a resource since she feels that this is often negated in the media. She also advocates against discrimination in the classroom records, namely when telling the students that "everybody deserves respect, no matter who they are and where they come from". Maria also notes that part of the reason why she works at a middle school is that she believes "it makes a difference **who** is teaching the students".

In Rio's interview, he also reports frequently telling his students that he, sadly, can only speak two languages, which suggests that he wants to convey to the students that multilingualism can be regarded as a resource. Rio also states that before he started teaching at the school, he planned to include many projects with a focus on multilingualism in his teaching, giving the reason that thinking about the discrimination against children with a

home language other than German in Austria saddened him. However, before explaining his reasons, Rio acknowledges his rationale itself might be a form of prejudice. Unfortunately, no elaboration as to why this could be considered a prejudice was given during the interview. Nonetheless, in preceding conversations Rio mentioned the phenomenon of positive discrimination, which could be a potential explanation of his utterance. Rio's anti-discriminatory values also became evident in the form of him criticizing schools trying to enforce "German-only" regulations.

Affinity toward multilingual settings

Maria reveals that during a school practicum as a teacher-in-training, she discovered that she greatly enjoyed teaching in multilingual settings and was thrilled when the school she currently teaches at became a job prospect. Maria also explicitly states having an affinity toward multilingualism, as she regards speaking multiple languages as something remarkable and tells her students that she enjoys that "each language has its unique features".

An affinity toward multilingualism is also present in Rio's interview: for example, he gives loving languages and diversity as a reason for his plans to carry out projects related to multilingualism. In addition, Rio also noted that during his last vacation, he enjoyed researching the origins of words and looked forward to revealing the findings to his students.

Prior education related to multilingualism

Maria's university education about teaching in multilingual settings, as noted in the interview, was sparse: while dealing extensively with differentiation, multilingualism was never a focus. That said, as an in-service teacher, she attended multiple lectures and workshops on multilingualism but also mentions that amongst the many options contained in the professional development offer at the beginning of the year, multilingualism does not take a prominent place. This is why Maria advocates for a greater focus on multilingualism in both pre- and in-service teacher training, as "multilingualism is ubiquitous in Viennese schools".

As for Rio's education related to multilingualism, it must be stated that he studied piano pedagogy and was employed at the school in question within the framework of Teach4Austria for the first two years. For the current school year, Rio arrived at a special agreement with the school, which entails him having to obtain additional pedagogic credits at an university. He states that Teach4Austria does not leave much freedom of choice regarding the courses to be completed and that one focusing on multilingualism has not been an option.

Due to this, Rio advocates that multilingualism should receive attention in the courses offered by Teach4Austria. When asked whether multilingualism was ever an area of attention in his piano pedagogy studies, Rio elaborates that, despite multilingualism not being a key concern to him at that time, it was thematized many times in his piano courses that instruments could be taught without using spoken language. He followed up with an anecdote about how the linguistically diverse student population never struggled in the courses related to playing piano, as German skills were unimportant in the practical courses. This was also re-confirmed to him while giving piano lessons to children, as he explains having observed that “the most important factor is the emotion behind the piece.”

Goals for teaching in multilingual settings

Regarding her goals for teaching in multilingual settings, Maria wants her students to feel comfortable asking for help when they don't understand something. She regards this as a lofty goal, as “students do not want to expose themselves as not having understood something”. To work towards this, she developed strategies to check for understanding in an unobtrusive manner. For instance, instead of asking if everybody understands the content discussed, Maria rather lets students summarize the content or asks questions directed at the whole class, which students answer by raising their hands for the option they think is correct.

Turning to Rio's interview, he raises two goals for teaching multilingual students: firstly, wanting to include a focus on multilingualism once a week in the classes he is teaching. Secondly, while talking about schools regulating the use of students' home languages, he empathized that the pressure to learn German must be intense, which is why he works towards alleviating this pressure.

8.3 Multilingualism enacted in class

Utilization of students' home languages

The enactment of multilingualism during Maria's English lessons has many different facets. One of the most salient ways students' home languages were utilized in the lessons could be observed during the teaching of new vocabulary. Related to this, Maria explains that she often offers students the chance to earn participation points by including the meanings of vocabulary items in their home languages or by drawing them, accommodating both multilingual and monolingual students. Maria elaborates that writing down home-language

translations also has the advantage of serving as a means of differentiation, for instance, when some students require more time to write down vocabulary than others, as well as a pre-reading activity. She further adds that she frequently utilizes gestures or facial expressions to explain vocabulary. These practices enable her to refrain from the use of German translations as much as possible, with the additional advantage that students' diverging levels of vocabulary knowledge were also circumnavigated through this. Some of the practices could be seen as beneficial to the classroom climate: Maria highlights that the use of gestures and mimics can be entertaining to the students. Other ways of explaining vocabulary observed during the lessons that were not mentioned in the interview include the use of realia or drawing the meaning of vocabulary on the blackboard.

Furthermore, differences pertaining to the meaning of vocabulary items in different countries or regions sharing the same language were also present in the classroom observations: for instance, when a student translated a word into Arabic, another student commented that in Syria, a different word is used, to which Maria explained that regional differences also exist between Germany and eastern regions of Austria, where *Kartoffel und Tomate* ("potato and tomato") are used in the latter regions, whereas *Paradeiser und Erdäpfel* are used in the former. The students also appeared to be engaged in discussing differences between their languages, as sometimes small debates arose around the correct translation of a German word into their home languages. Additionally, when Maria explained the meaning of *covered*, a student who discovered an instance of polysemy remarked that "in Turkish and in German there are also words that are similar, for example, *Sarma* can be used for cabbage rolls, but it also means covered". Another instance worth mentioning is when a student said that there was no translation of the word *forest* to Syrian Arabic⁷, adding that he might also have forgotten the word. Maria then used geolinguistics to draw a connection between Syria's geography and the language, hypothesizing that this might be the case because there are not many forests in Syria.

Turning to Rio, when teaching vocabulary, he likes to let the students work on word fields in their vocabulary book, where he encourages adding the meanings of the items included in their home language or drawing them. What is more, he also reports asking the students for the meaning of certain words in their home language.

⁷ The word for forest in Syrian Arabic is غابة (*ghāba*).

Discussing differences between languages

Another facet of multilingualism observed is discussing differences between languages, which will be treated separately to the utilization of students' home languages, as the criterion for this code was that students were not explicitly asked to provide input in their home language (although they still did so voluntarily, as will be seen). Classroom records from the English lessons held by Maria include explaining differences between the use of a word in German vs English. For instance, when a student asked whether "race" was a word to describe people, Maria raised their attention to the fact that in German, the term is not used any longer due the term's appropriation by the National Socialists. Other instances include explaining the capitalization of words in English compared to German, as well as the discussion of phonetics. Pertaining to the latter, during a lesson, Maria explained why native English speakers often struggle to pronounce the voiceless velar fricative "ch" in German. On the other hand, comparisons between languages were also made by students, for example, when Maria remarked upon a difficult aspect of the English language, acknowledging a student's frustration by stating that languages can sometimes be tricky, another student commented that "Turkish is not like this, there are no articles in Turkish".⁸

Regarding the explanation of differences between languages, Rio provides an example in the interview of a conversation between a student and him in the interview, which illustrates that differences between languages are also discussed during his teacher talk: Rio asked, "Does this exist in your language as well?" The student responded, "In Serbian, we have six cases".

Peers providing language support

A different manifestation of multilingualism observed during the lessons of both teachers was that peers are frequently utilized to provide language support. In many instances, this support was given to a student who had arrived in Austria in the same school year and, as he had not studied German before, had a very low level of the language. The student also had difficulties understanding English, which is why both teachers asked his Arabic-speaking peers to translate instructions for him when needed.

⁸ For clarification purposes, the subject matter was not articles but recognizing adjectives, which makes it likely that the student's comment related to his own linguistic difficulties with grammatical items.

Teachers' knowledge of students' linguistic backgrounds

Regarding knowledge of students' linguistic and cultural background, Maria is exceptionally well informed. Apart from naming every language spoken in class during the interview, classroom records show that she also knows which countries students grew up in, or where part of their family lives. This knowledge extends beyond official documents held by the school. Maria explains that when she consulted the school's documents on her students to find out about their home language(s), it became apparent to her that the information provided in these documents was incorrect, as frequently, only one language was listed⁹. She also states that inquiring about a student's linguistic repertoire requires a certain sensitivity, as, for example, some students and their families had complex refugee experiences of flight, which might cause feelings of discomfort when disclosing languages the students encountered in different countries. In the case of the school in question, it is unclear whether the example raised by Maria pertained to an issue in the past or an ongoing challenge.

As for Rio's knowledge of students' linguistic backgrounds, he explains that he found out about their linguistic repertoires when teaching physics, as he frequently asks students for the meaning of a term in their home language. Rio could name most languages spoken in class, although not as many as Maria. In this context, he clarified that since he is teaching another class with students of the same age, it is difficult not to get the home languages mixed up.

Teaching material related to multilingualism

As the last facet of how multilingualism is addressed, the use of teaching materials related to multilingualism during English lessons is examined. In the interview, Maria raises that she does not use any materials focusing on multilingualism, attributing this to the lack of suitable material, but adding that she needed to delve deeper into the topic. She also criticized the English books used, noting that while they contained vocabulary lists with the German translations of the words, they did not include German articles. As she considers the articles useful for the portion of her students working on their German, she occasionally tells students to add them. Providing scaffolding for new course-book units is another way Maria considers her students' multilingualism in the lessons. She reported that during her professional

⁹ It must be noted here that up until 2007/8, it was only possible to list one first language in the process of enrolling in an Austrian school. Then, under the term 'Specification of the language(s) used in everyday life.', listing multiple languages started to be encouraged. However, as Fleck (2013, p. 11) notes, it is possible that administrative programs have not been adapted.

development, it was stressed that when teaching English as a foreign language, it is necessary to include strategies aiding students to cope with new vocabulary, as prior knowledge could not be taken for granted. This is why, in her view, the lack of material catering to multilingualism was less of an issue in English compared to other subjects, as it is common practice to include strategies that help learners cope with new words. Apart from this, she listed Google Translate as a tool used during lessons to help students look up words in their home language, as well as using pictures when teaching vocabulary.

As for Rio's utilization of teaching material related to multilingualism, he states that while not having any material explicitly concerned with multilingualism at his disposal, he was making sure that "everything is as language-aware ("sprachsensibel") as possible". When being questioned about his wishes or needs related to teaching multilingual students, he mentioned a lack of accessibility related to teaching material concerned with multilingualism: "I think having more teaching materials on this would be just fantastic. I am sure they exist, but everything else is practically handed to you, whereas with this, you really must search".

Students' perspective on classroom practices related to the enactment of multilingualism

The following paragraph discusses the students' perception of the enactment of multilingualism. When asked if they are allowed to use their home languages in class, both focus groups list translating words into their home languages for their vocabulary book to get a participation-plus and translating to peers with special language needs as examples of the use of home languages. F1 also mentioned using home languages to help them grasp difficult concepts. The utilization of home languages in pair discussions was listed by F1 as well, even though an Arabic-speaking student commented that "usually just the Arabs and the Turks" did so. Furthermore, one student remarked that they sometimes enjoyed translating for their special-language-needs peers, but sometimes they did not, as it also took away from their "own time".

8.4 Teachers' approach and rationale to language management inside their classroom

This sub-chapter will present coded instances of the teachers providing information about how they manage languages during the English-lessons, that is, why teachers either encourage, or discourage the use of certain languages/modes of communication or utilize languages other than English themselves. Other manifestations include considerations taken to help students work around limited proficiency in a language. Even though aspects of this may overlap with other categories, such as anti-discriminatory values, this category will be central

to answering the research questions of this thesis, as this presents teachers' rationale informing the decision when to encourage or discourage the use of certain languages. With this data, the implementation of multilingualism inside their classroom can be examined from three angles in the chapter presenting the results: teachers' explicit attitude towards multilingualism, teachers' rationale to language management inside their classroom, and teachers' actual classroom practices observed. By integrating these three perspectives, any potential discrepancy between teachers' stated beliefs and the underlying rationale for their language management, and their actual classroom practices, is systematically addressed.

Signs of a multilingual habitus

The first facet of this sub-chapter focusses on indications of a multilingual habitus. This covers instances where teachers considered their students' multilingualism as a guiding factor for their classroom practices¹⁰.

Starting with Maria, she emphasizes that a key factor in addressing students' multilingualism during English lessons is keeping in mind that German is not the first language of most of her students, which is why she does not presuppose that a translation to German will help her students to understand new vocabulary. Instead, she reports opting for strategies explained in Chapter 10.3, section "utilization of students' home languages". Shifting the focus to another critical element of the management of languages, Maria reports being absolutely against banning home languages, as having a strong foundation in their home language helps students to learn other languages more easily.

Turning to Rio's indications of a multilingual habitus, when being questioned about how he considers his students' multilingualism during lesson planning, he criticized that the grammar sections of the English books used build on the students' understanding of German grammar. Since "many children of the former [class in question] did not have this foundation", the challenge for him was to find a way to navigate around this, as well as to ensure that they would not confuse the structure of German grammatical items with English items.

However, he also raised the point that in their mode of team-teaching, Maria carried out the lion's share of lesson planning. Instead, he offered considerations for multilingual students related to his physics lessons, which he regarded as being applicable to English as

¹⁰This should not be mistaken for a diagnosis of a multilingual habitus for either teachers on part of the researcher. The multilingual habitus is conceptualized as a continuum, not a binary category (Turner, 2020). Therefore, the data collected in this thesis may both feature indications of a multilingual, or a monolingual habitus.

well, such as rephrasing difficult terms the students might struggle to understand. Rio posits that his students are likely aware of their ability to employ their linguistic repertoire in a flexible manner during breaks. He illustrated this point further with an example: prior to assessments in subjects such as physics, Rio tells his students that, if they should have forgotten the German term, they could write it down in a different language. He employs Google Lens for translation, ensuring that all responses can be appropriately evaluated and acknowledged. This practice underscores his dedication to fostering an inclusive learning environment that recognizes and values linguistic diversity.

Management of languages

Although disapproving of banning students' home languages at school, Maria described situations in which she is more critical of her students' use of home languages, all pertaining to interpersonal issues arising between students. In these situations, she asks students to switch to a language that everybody can understand. This was also mentioned by a student in F1, who reported that Maria, amongst other teachers, sometimes asked him and his friends to switch to German. Regarding the role of German, when teaching vocabulary, Maria reported occasionally letting her students translate words from English to German as an optional homework to enhance their German vocabulary. She also lists adding German articles whenever German translations from the book's vocabulary list are used as another practice working towards this goal.

Rio does not mention restricting home languages in the interview. On the contrary, regarding the topic of using home languages to express something not intended for the ears of teachers, he stated that the students would use their home languages as well as German, which is why it makes no difference to him which language is used. Rio also adds that regarding swearing in languages other than English, he tries to move away from tabooing swearing in his lessons, since he hypothesizes that this only encouraged his students to do so. Instead, he gives coloring books to foul-mouthed students, who then must color a decorative depiction of the word used.

8.5 Student confidence

The first aspect of student confidence presented is teachers complimenting the students' skills, followed by students' self-assessment of their participation (featuring data from the focus

groups, as well as classroom observations, students asking for help, and students correcting their teachers).

Teacher compliments (school/task-related)

In the lessons observed, the code was used 20 times. Aspects of students' performance complimented by the teachers included

- speedy task completion
- staying attentive during the lessons
- coming up with mnemonic aids
- giving correct answers
- active participation
- having good instincts regarding grammatical correctness
- writing "lovely" example sentences
- drawing beautifully for their vocabulary book
- good pronunciation, fluid reading skills
- well-informed argumentation and creativity

In addition, affirming words were also found ("See? I told you, you can do it!"), and affirming actions were encouraged ("Yes, correct! [To the student next to them] Please give her a high five!").

Students' self-assessment of their participation

Both focus groups state that they feel comfortable participating and expressing their opinions during English lessons. F1 reports that they always raise their hands and receive participation-plus as a reward. F2 elaborates on different reasons for their participation, stating that usually they raise their hands "because [they] want to, because of participation". The other example given is Maria selecting students to answer questions who did not raise their hands, and in case they could not answer the question, other students could volunteer to do so. One student raises this practice as a reason for Maria being a "good teacher", as she tries to select each student once a lesson. F2 adds that they usually do not participate when English is the first lesson of the day, as they are all tired.

The second facet is students verbally expressing confidence in their work to their teachers in the classroom records. English lessons were often closed with Maria asking who

would receive a plus for their participation, which was usually answered by a handful of students raising their hands. Other occasions for participation plusses observed included when students came up to Maria and presented translations of English vocabulary into their home languages. Further manifestations were comments from students regarding their work as exceptionally good: “Well, if I don’t get a plus here, then I really don’t know. I really put a lot of effort into this”.

Students asking for help

Maria aims to help her multilingual students feel confident enough to ask questions, as she recognizes in the interview that admitting a lack of understanding in class can be uncomfortable for students. Therefore, *students asking for help* was included as a facet of student confidence. Questions unrelated to the content of lessons, such as “Which page are we on?” were omitted for this category. Most of the questions in this category were of a conceptual or lexical nature, many of them centering on the definition or the correct use of English words, such as “Can you say lands instead of countries?”. One student sought for help with a difficult reading task by stating, “Ms. Maria, I am reading, but I am not understanding”. Additionally, questions related to German articles arose two times during the discussion of vocabulary in English: one student asked how to deal with German articles if they did not know if the noun was masculine or feminine. In another instance, while discussing the noun *bone*, a student asked whether *der Knochen* was the correct German translation. After receiving a confirmation, he asked why people said *die Knochen*.

Students correcting the teachers

As a last aspect that can be seen as an indication of student confidence, students correcting their teacher was coded 6 times. Instances observed included students notifying their teachers about minor mistakes on the blackboard, such as forgetting a comma or a letter in a word or telling one teacher that the other teacher just made a mistake.

8.6 Institutional environment

This section pertains to the institutional environment of the school in question, as well as to factors located in Austria’s educational system in general that were commented on by the teachers. These institutional structures have the potential to exert influence through framework conditions that can hinder or encourage the language practices of multilinguals in a specific classroom.

Signs of a multilingual habitus

Firstly, signs of a multilingual habitus will be presented. “Signs”, in this instance, refers to explicit manifestations of a multilingual habitus expressed through institutional efforts to foster or display multilingualism. As for the school itself, both teachers list a variety of ways their school promotes multilingualism in their interviews. Firstly, the middle school is a dual language practice school, teaching many subjects in English. Additionally, elective compulsory subjects currently offer Spanish but will include French and Arabic in the future. Concerning teacher training, the school’s internal training sessions focused on multilingualism for a whole year, with workshops that included teachers taking on the perspective of someone trying to understand a text in an unfamiliar language, using a medication leaflet as an example. During the preceding school year, multilingualism was also fostered through strengthening students’ home languages in the form of a native language support teacher. Lastly, several material manifestations of the students’ linguistic diversity are presented in the school building: the school library provides a selection of books in languages other than English and German, and the display of the student population’s many languages on posters in the corridors.

Signs of a monolingual habitus

Points made in the teacher interviews also raise aspects of an institutional environment with a monolingual habitus, which, however, are found beyond the boundaries of the school in question. Firstly, a monolingual habitus is visible in data forms used by schools to capture personal student data, as discussed in Chapter 10.3. Further, both teachers criticized that schoolbooks in subjects other than English generally did not account for students whose first language is not German. Both teachers reported, from their own experience or those of colleagues, having to pre-teach German vocabulary to make the texts in subjects other than English intelligible to their students.

8.7 Students’ culture and identity

This category features all instances where aspects of multilingual students’ identities were engaged with by the teachers, as well as instances where discrimination or racism was discussed during English lessons.

Religion

Maria frequently showed consideration for her students' religion in the classroom records. This includes proactively asking her Muslim students if anybody needed forms to apply to take time off to celebrate Bayram and informing them about their options on how many days they could take off during the festivities¹¹. As another example, while discussing what was needed for the upcoming home economics lesson, Maria reminded the students to buy halal meat (which was followed by a round of applause from her students). Other instances observed include checking on fasting students' health during Ramadan. As a last example, when faced with the decision to include a free period or to end the school day earlier, the students raised the point that they needed time to pray, which was considered in Maria's decision.

Although for Rio, no classroom instances of the topics could be found, his interview indicates consideration for the students' religious identities: while one of his students taught him the expression "wallah", which can be translated to "I swear to God", another student remarked that he could not use this phrase, as Rio was not Muslim. Although she added, "Well, I guess it is okay if **you** use it", he reports responding that if using the phrase would somehow go against the student's religious convictions, then, of course, he would refrain from using it.

Considering the students' perspective on teachers considering their religion, F1 reported that Maria took the initiative to inform herself about her students' culture through conferring with their religion teachers, as well as through conversations with students when she first started teaching the class. Another aspect of the classroom records worth mentioning is that the students occasionally mentioned religion in a humorous context during lessons. When talking about the medical issue of conjoined twins, one student joked, "They are praying simultaneously!" Another student, when a cell phone rang during the lesson, jokingly announced, "Time to pray!"

Countries and cultures

This category includes comparisons between countries and cultures and the thematization of countries and cultures in general. As for the thematization of the subject in English, instances included

¹¹This example, along with the next one, was recorded at the beginning of an English lesson. Since Maria is the head teacher of the class, occasionally pressing administrative issues were dealt with in the beginning or the end of an English lesson.

- British media (classroom records)
- discussing vocabulary necessary to talk about an earthquake in Turkey that occurred before the lesson (classroom records)
- Australian Indigenous culture (classroom records)

Comparisons between countries and cultures were made in the context of influential women from different cultures (F2), and culturally dependent meanings of paralinguistic markers (classroom records). The last example was discussed when a student made a “tsss” sound to respond to Maria. She then made the same sound and asked the students what she wanted to communicate versus what the student wanted to communicate. Thematising culturally different conventions, she explained that while the student merely wanted to communicate “no”, it was an expression of disapproval or being annoyed when she did it. Maria further stressed that while she knew the student’s intention, the class needed to be careful not to use it with teachers of different cultural backgrounds than their own, as the respective teachers might mistake it for a provocation.

In the focus group interviews, when being asked if cultural topics were frequently thematized during the English lessons, a student from F1 stated that Maria was usually the only teacher initiating the conversation when culture was thematized in the classroom. In contrast, the students from F2 reported frequently dealing with cultural topic during English lessons, without making distinctions between the two teachers.

Discrimination/Racism

An aspect related to culture that was discussed in the lessons was the under-representation of people of color in the media, prompted by an exercise in *More 4*. The students were asked to reflect on popular book covers depicted in *More 4*. It was quickly noticed that most of the protagonists were white, and when asked by Maria whether they could name a book with a person of color as a protagonist, the students denied. Then Maria asked, “Why do you think that is? We have so many people of color but no protagonists?” To which a student replied, “Because that’s racist”. Maria then responded, “Actually yes, if you look at us, a third of people are not white, but there are very few series with protagonists of color”. Then, a student raised the point that it is different in the music industry, which prompted a short discussion about the medial representation of PoC in different industries.

Another instance observed during an English lesson provides an example of how discrimination was dealt with when it came from the students in class: when talking about the word for a term in students’ home languages, a student gave the translation of the word into

Kurdish, to which another student replied, “Does Kurdish exist?”. As a result, Maria promptly explained that comments like this were not accepted inside her classroom.

8.8 Classroom atmosphere

Motivated by Erling, Brummer et al. (2022, p. 72), who elaborated on the importance of a positive classroom atmosphere as part of a translanguaging stance taken by teachers, the classroom atmosphere is now examined as a manifestation of the teachers’ stance toward multilingualism. As stakeholders’ perspectives can differ considerably from the researchers’ account, the classroom atmosphere is described through an etic and an emic approach. In doing so, the inside perspectives of students and teachers (provided in the interviews), as well as the outside perspective of the researcher (provided in the classroom observations) are considered. Lastly, both perspectives are combined to address similarities and potential divergences.

8.8.1 Emic perspective

Starting with the teachers, both report in the interviews that they like to utilize students’ home languages as a way of showing their students that their multilingual identities are valued. Maria also speculates that her students enjoy using their home languages. Conversely, Rio states that he feels the students are indifferent to the utilization of their home languages. This discrepancy could potentially be attributed to the diverging number of years the teachers spent with the class: Maria, who has taught the students since grade 1, explained that especially during the first two years, vocabulary tasks that involved the students’ home language appeared to incite motivation in the class, whereas Rio joined as a team teacher in the third grade. The focus groups also highlight the fact that Maria has extensive knowledge of their linguistic backgrounds, which is an important factor in cultivating a positive classroom atmosphere. However, both teachers hypothesize that while using home languages can enhance classroom climate, it is just one of several important factors.

Furthermore, Maria and Rio emphasize the effectiveness of humor in classroom management, preferring it over showing anger to create a positive atmosphere. In this context, Maria elaborates that the use of humor is also a good way to shift the classroom atmosphere in a positive direction after addressing a problem.

Lastly, the classroom atmosphere in the observed lessons also benefited from teachers’ and students’ empathy and willingness to help. In connection with this, Maria states that she uses peer support to strengthen the student community and to show understanding when

(multilingual) students cannot follow parts of the lesson. To sum up, both teachers express enjoyment in teaching multilingual classes, take actions to positively influence the classroom climate, and appreciate the supportive nature of their students.

As for the focus group interviews, many aspects mentioned by the teachers were confirmed by the students. Both F1 and F2 state that they feel comfortable during English class and participate actively. In the focus groups, factors pertaining to classroom climate were mentioned two times in connection to peer support: A student from F1 said that she did not enjoy being asked to help somebody she was not friends with. Another student from F1 remarked that sometimes, when he was giving peer support, Maria mistook it with an idle conversation and asked them to stop chatting. Along the course of the interview, a few students provided further, unprompted remarks pertaining to classroom climate: A student from F1 highlighted that they enjoyed Rio's humor, and a student of F2 stated that he regarded Maria as a good teacher, as she was always well prepared and explained things in a way he could understand. A different student from F2 stated that he generally enjoyed the English lessons but added that he did not enjoy them if Maria had to talk about behavioral issues of the students. An interesting aspect observed in the context of this topic is that two other students added to his statement, connecting their own behavior to the classroom climate: they mentioned that sometimes, other students might not feel comfortable in class because they are fooling around together, which, as they explained, results in Maria having to manage their behavior. The first student to mention behavioral management elaborated that he did not enjoy talking about problems with Maria, giving examples of her reminding the class to study for an upcoming test or reminding students who wanted to start their vocational education to start looking for an apprenticeship, as this was their last year of middle school.

8.8.2 Etic perspective

Subsequently, the etic approach to characterizing the classroom atmosphere will follow, consisting of categories coded by the researcher.

Using Humor

The first aspect of the classroom atmosphere is humor. Humor was coded 42 times in the classroom records alone, making it one of the most frequently used codes in this project. As humor can be subjective, it was only coded when the teachers made a comment or a gesture that made students laugh. An example of the use of a gesture is provided by an instance where

conditionals were practiced using the story of “The Boy Who Could Fly” as an example. When a student was asked what he would do if he could fly, he responded that he would not walk anymore, to which Maria replied, “So you would move around the class like this?”, her hands flailing around wildly, which prompted laughter on the student’s side. Humor was also incorporated into student feedback: during a lesson, Maria showed me a word field that was very neatly written, commenting on his nice handwriting. Another student sitting nearby who struggled with the legibility of his handwriting showed his task to us, stating jokingly, “Mine is even prettier!” to which Maria responded, “I like your handwriting. It is like a riddle”. An example of humor used to refer to classroom management occurred when conditionals were practiced. A student raised the example, “If I make a lot of noise, Ms. Maria will be angry”, which she affirmed, stating, “Yes, it is a law of physics, I will get angry”, laughing exaggeratedly. Furthermore, routine aspects such as task comparisons were also occasionally carried out with a humorous undertone, for example, when students had to act out a dialogue, and Maria asked them to change their voices to be either very low- or high-pitched. One last example illustrating the creative and free use of language in the classroom was when Maria reminded the students of the rhyme “He she it, das S geht mit” (loosely translated to “He she it, the S tags along”), which a Turkish speaking student, expressing his frustration trying to remember the rule, said “He she it, siktir git” (meaning “He she it, bugger off!”), which other students translated for Maria.¹²

As for Rio, exaggeration was also used in a humorous context in the classroom records: when stating that students had 40 seconds left to complete a task, he jokingly shouted, “Time pressure! Time pressure!”

Consideration of the students’ needs

The classroom atmosphere is also shaped by teachers considering the students’ needs. This includes showing concern about the students’ needs and well-being, such as asking them if they are alright, or if they want to sit somewhere in the front when they forgot their glasses. Teachers also were observed to stand up for students; for instance, when a student struggling with an English task prompted some students to laugh, Maria reminded the class that the struggling student was not fortunate enough to attend as many English lessons as they had before he moved to Austria. Furthermore, democratic elements are incorporated into the lessons, such as asking students whether they prefer to have a free period or to end their

¹² Although Maria also, like the rest of the class, chuckled at the translation, she also noted that she did not know if this was a good way to remember it, as she did not encourage swearing inside her classroom.

school day one hour early. Another aspect of teachers considering students' needs is acknowledging feelings of frustration. For instance, when a student struggled to solve a gap-fill exercise to practice a grammatical structure, Maria stated, "I know, they really are tricky. There are so many exceptions; sometimes something like that comes up, and it is very difficult."

Conveying the importance of tasks or studying

Occasionally, Maria explained the importance of tasks or studying to students. This occurred especially often before an English test. For example, when many students appeared to struggle with a task, Maria responded, "I know this is a difficult task. It will not be as tricky in the test, but it is a good exercise." The relevance of tasks for the upcoming test was also highlighted when students appeared to be distracted during teacher talk. Furthermore, the students were reminded of the importance of homework with respect to their grades.

Small talk/compliments

Small talk and non-academic compliments to students proved to be an extensive sub-code of classroom atmosphere. Instances of teachers engaging in small talk found in the classroom records relate to

- students' families/cultures
- educational biographies of students
- current weather extremes
- pieces of media, and countries

Compliments made by the teachers cover

- students behaving nicely
- pretty handwriting

The students also complimented their teachers in the focus-group interviews. Regarding Maria, these included being a good teacher, being well-prepared, being able to explain things well, speaking great English, teaching "good" lessons, trying to give everybody a chance to contribute¹³, and being "friendly and nice" to the students. Compliments paid to Rio also

¹³ Relating to students raising their hand.

included being a good teacher, as well as him being able to motivate the students to participate using shared humor.

Addressing problems

This category contains problems addressed by Maria in the classroom records that were not related to classroom management but instead sought to address aspects that appeared to have been relevant for longer periods of time. Instances observed include

- measures students could take to receive better grades, such as legible handwriting or delivering homework on time
- the importance of receiving good grades in their last year of school
- the need to hand in absence notes (parents would have to pay fines if lessons remained unexcused)
- the decline of students' academic performance
- students' mental well-being related to their academic workload

Non-obtrusive checks for understanding

This code was developed in response to Maria expressing her desire for students to feel comfortable seeking assistance in her lessons should they encounter difficulties in understanding the content. The classroom records show that Maria has several ways of checking for understanding at her disposal that elicit information about the students' grasp of the lesson's content with a low risk of putting single students on the spot. The instances observed included giving two possible answers to a question and letting the students raise their hands for option A or B and asking the students to point their thumbs upwards if they considered something to be true or downwards if they considered it false. Lastly, to cover multiple options, Maria also let the class raise one, two, or three fingers if they considered a sentence read out by Maria to be conditional 1, 2, or 3.

Possible negative influence on classroom atmosphere

Although this paper does not aim to weigh positive and negative influences on classroom atmosphere, it still includes both aspects to avoid bias in focusing solely on positives. The code "classroom management" was initially intended for this category but given the overall positive tone of classroom management during lessons, it appears inappropriate to classify

these utterances as negative influences. The students were all addressed in a neutral or friendly tone, and the conversations were conducted respectfully. The few coded instances in which teacher talk could have influenced the classroom climate negatively cover an expression of frustration on the teacher's side when having to re-discuss a topic that was already covered many times, asking why only some students were carrying out a task intended for the whole class, and confronting students why they have not started a task.

As for the student perspective, factors listed in the focus group interviews that could contribute to a negative classroom climate were not receiving a participation-plus when they considered themselves eligible, feeling tired in the first lesson, and a lack of variation in the English lessons, mentioned in connection to the infrequent inclusion of digital media.

8.8.3 Connecting etic and emic perspectives

This section connects the etic perspective to the emic perspectives of students and teachers. The classroom climate can generally be characterized as positive from both perspectives, as the stakeholders in the classroom, as well as the researcher experienced the classroom atmosphere in a similar manner.

Regarding the negative aspects of classroom climate, it can be stated that the quantity of occurrences is far outnumbered by the positive influences on the classroom climate. In addition to this, some codes, like “talking about problems with students”, featuring instances such as reminding students to start thinking about what their plans are after their graduation that year, might not be particularly enjoyable conversations for the students in question but are motivated by good intentions of the teacher. In line with this, classroom management is a vital part of teachers' daily tasks and was conducted in a friendly manner, absent from shouting or anger.

Taking all aspects into account, there are several aspects that would indicate that the English language classroom can be considered a safe space for multilingual students. Apart from the students stating that they feel comfortable and participate actively during the lessons, as well as the mere frequency of the use of humor, students also paid unprompted compliments to their teachers in the focus groups. Many less obvious coded instances also speak in favor of a positive classroom atmosphere, such as the fact that the students felt comfortable bringing up parts of their identity, such as their religion, in conversations with their teacher (sometimes even in a humorous context), or not having to worry about whether their dietary restrictions will be considered by Maria.

9. Results

To reiterate, the first research question of the thesis is as follows:

RQ1: How do teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism impact the enactment of multilingualism in a Viennese middle school classroom?

- 1.1 What are the similarities and divergences between the teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism?
- 1.2 How do personal factors shape their attitudes toward multilingualism?
- 1.3 How do the teachers' attitudes intersect with the classroom practices observed?

The following section explores question 1.1, addressing the similarities and divergences between the teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism.

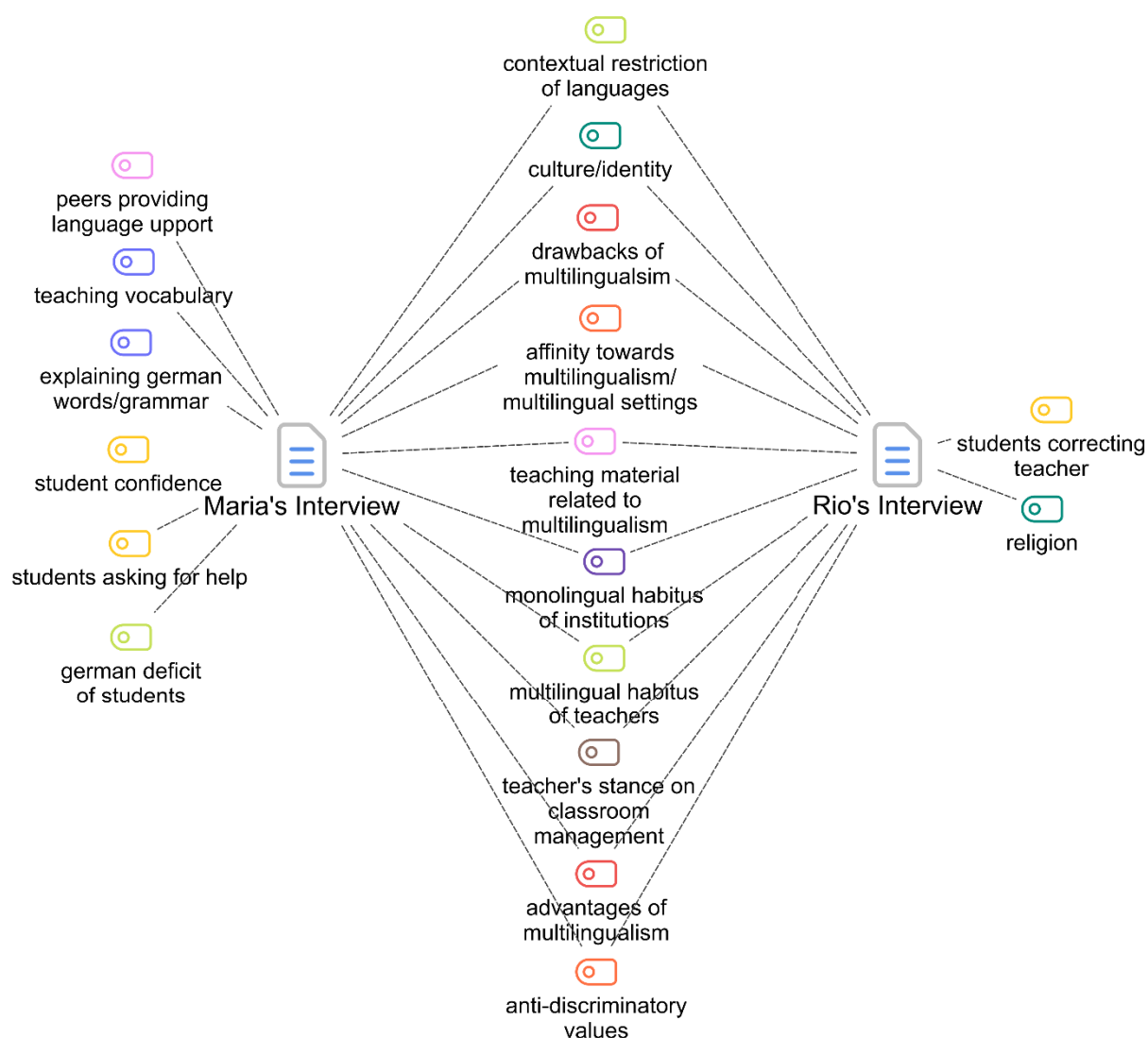


Figure 2. Two case model of the teacher interviews, displaying up to 10 most frequently used codes per column.

To answer sub-question 1.1, a model is examined illustrating the topics both teachers addressed, as well as where the two interviews diverged. It is vital to keep in mind that the codes do not exclusively represent the teachers' personal approach to multilingualism but merely topics touched upon in the interview. The data must be examined in consideration to its context, for which the respective thematic analysis found in the preceding chapter can be consulted.

As can be seen in Figure 2, due to the interview questions, many aspects were addressed by both teachers. These include management of languages, culture/identity, drawbacks and advantages of, and teaching material related to multilingualism. As these topics have been addressed in detail in the thematic analyses of the last chapter, they will not receive any further attention here. However, not all statements about the teachers' attitude

toward multilingualism were prompted by interview questions: anti-discriminatory values related to their students' multilingualism, as well as an affinity toward multilingualism/multilingual settings, were raised independently by both teachers (p. 51). Austria's education system, too, was criticized unprompted by both teachers, touching upon aspects pointing towards a monolingual habitus (p. 61). Additionally, considerations related to their students' languages were listed that warranted the code "multilingual habitus" (p. 57). Furthermore, they also gave information about their stance on classroom management.

The divergences of the two interviews are now examined. Related to the code "multilingual habitus", it can be stated that Maria provided more concrete examples of how she considered her students' multilingualism during English lessons than Rio. Measures taken by her to expand her students' German vocabulary (p. 55) were also listed. This can be seen in connection to Maria's mentioning of the code 'German deficit', which occurred in the context of her stating that the portion of her students struggling the most with the German language were second-generation immigrants. According to her interview, this is also part of the reason why German translations were sometimes used during the English lessons. Other categories exclusively addressed by her were student confidence (p. 58), and students asking for help (p. 60).

Aspects that were touched upon by Rio, and not by Maria, are students' religion (p. 62), as well as students correcting the teachers (p. 60). Both were raised in relation to his concerns about using newly learned phrases in students' home languages despite being unfamiliar with their religious significance.

Finally, regarding some of the differences addressed, it must again be considered that most of the lessons were planned, as well as conducted by Maria, which could play a role in certain differences between the two teachers, such as Maria listing more concrete ways of how she addresses her students' multilingualism.

The discussion now proceeds with the next sub-question:

1.2 How do personal factors shape their attitudes toward multilingualism?

The teacher interviews illustrated that the teachers' self-image and values exerted considerable influence on the enactment of multilingualism. When being inquired about language management during their English lessons, it could frequently be observed that an embracing attitude towards multilingualism, as well as anti-discriminatory values informed teachers' decisions.

The following chart will show how the teachers' beliefs and their persona interacted with their approach to language management inside the classroom, which the three horizontal codes are sub-codes of.

Table 6

Teachers' intersections of beliefs and persona with her language management approach in the classroom, beginning with Maria (highlighted in red), followed by Rio (highlighted in blue)

Codesystem	social capital of languages	management of languages	multilingual habitus of teachers
▼ teacher beliefs			
drawbacks of multilingualism		3	
advantages of multilingualism		1	
▼ teacher persona			
prior education related to multilingu			
goals regarding teaching in multilin			1
self-image			
affinity towards multilingualism/mu	1		1
anti-discriminatory values	1		1

Codesystem	social capital of languages	management of languages	multilingual habitus of teachers
▼ teacher beliefs			
drawbacks of multilingualism		1	
advantages of multilingualism		1	
▼ teacher persona			
prior education related to multilingu			
goals regarding teaching in multilin	1		
self-image		1	
affinity towards multilingualism/mu			
anti-discriminatory values		1	

The analysis of Table 6, alongside a contextual examination of each individual result, reveals several insights.

Examining Table 6, it becomes visible that the teachers' position on multilingualism was characterized by certain differences. For Maria, the potential drawbacks of multilingualism were related to students switching to another language to exclude others. She reported trying to counteract these exclusions, which is why the management of languages and drawbacks of multilingualism intersect in Table 6. Rio, after having mentioned in his interview that students sometimes switched to home languages to exclude others, quickly relativized his statement by explaining that they may do so in any language. Then, he added that multilingualism, in his opinion, could only have advantages, as represented in the intersection of the codes "advantages of multilingualism" and "language management" in Table 6. Maria's position on this matter reflects a more nuanced approach, as she stated that

multilingualism could have many advantages but that it was the teacher's responsibility to "push it in the right direction". Rio furthermore made mentions of his self-image, as well as anti-discriminatory values in connection to language management, which was done in the context of him conceptualizing himself as a benevolent teacher supportive of his students' languages, as well as through a critique of schools trying to enforce language bans.

Secondly, both teachers took the social capital of languages into consideration when managing languages in the classroom. Maria connected this topic to her anti-discriminatory values, which manifested in her actively trying to convey to her students that their multilingualism was a resource despite the societal discourse on it, as well as through thematizing that she enjoyed teaching in a school type that usually is given negative media representations. Turning to Rio's considerations related to the social capital of languages in language education, he emphasized the importance of reducing the societal pressure on students to speak perfect German.

Lastly, differences also pertained to the number of concrete examples given by the teachers on how multilingualism is fostered in their English lessons. Maria's interview revealed several ways the multilingualism of her students was considered in her language teaching (code "multilingual habitus"), such as not taking German proficiency for granted or using language portraits to celebrate linguistic diversity. In contrast, Rio's ways of considering multilingualism in his teaching are not represented in Table 6. This stems from the fact that his concrete examples given in the interview pertained to Rio's other subjects rather than English or to general considerations applicable to all subjects.

Attention is now directed to the third sub-question:

1.3 How do teachers' attitudes intersect with the classroom practices observed?

Table 7

Most frequent practices/topics related to multilingualism during the English lessons

Codesystem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
multilingualism enacted in class		1										
explaining differences between languages					1	1						
utilization of students home languages	1			1	2	4						2
peers providing language support								2				1
teacher knowledge about students' languages/culture												
teaching material related to multilingualism												
code switching/code mixing	9	2		3	6	3	1	5	7	3	6	1
classroom atmosphere	1			1								1
humor	5	3	1	4	3	2	9	4		6		5
consideration/acknowledgement of students' needs	1	1	3	4			5		1	2	3	2
acknowledging negative feelings										1		
democratic elements		1		1			1					
reminding students of individual differences											1	
conveying the importance of tasks/studying to students			1			1	1			1	2	
small talk/non-academic compliments	2	1	3	2				1				1
addressing problems	1	2				3	1	2		2	1	3
compliments from students												1
checking for understanding	1	1					1	1		1	1	
possible negative influence on classroom atmosphere		1		1	1					1		
student confidence	3	3	1	1		2		4		2	5	
self-assessment of participation		1	1			3		1				
academic compliments from teacher	3	1		1	1			1		1	4	
students asking for help				2		3		1				
students correcting teacher		2	1							1		
culture/identity												
religion			1	1			1	2			1	
comparisons between countries/cultures									1			
talking about other countries/cultures					1							
discrimination/racism												4
classroom management	6	7	2	2	3	4	12	2		8	3	4
teaching vocabulary	1		1	7	4	2		1	2	1		
teaching through context					1	2		1				
using real-life objects	1		1	1		1				1		
drawing vocabulary items on board	1				4							
explaining german words/grammar				5	6	5		2	1	1		
gestures/mimics	1			2	3	2			1			

Note. In the first row of the graph, the lessons are sequentially numbered based on the order of observation.

This code matrix browser depicted in Table 7 enables us to examine which classroom practices/topics took prominent roles during the lessons observed. From Table 7, several insights about the English lessons can be gained.

Firstly, concerning what could be observed regarding multilingualism enacted in the classroom, code switching/code mixing was a constant throughout nearly all the lessons¹⁴. While the students' home languages were deliberately utilized in roughly half of the lessons, peer support and explaining differences between languages took on a minor role in comparison. Even so, this could also be partly due to the nature of the classroom records: as they center on teacher talk, peer support could have been overlooked on the part of the researcher should it not have been verbally encouraged by the teacher. Additionally, Table 7 also shows an absence of the use of teaching materials centering on multilingualism, which corroborates the statements given in the interview.

Secondly, concerning the classroom climate during the lessons, it clearly becomes evident that humor was a central part of English lessons, with only classroom management and code-switching surpassing the code in quantity. This supports both teachers' claims that they aimed to cultivate a positive classroom climate. Another aspect supporting this is that the consideration of students' needs took fourth place of most coded categories. Here, it must be kept in mind that Maria was the form teacher of the class. Consequently, a portion of the coded instances were concerned with administrative matters. Maria's responsibilities as the form teacher could also account for the fact that talking about problems with students takes up a large portion of the code classroom climate. When examining these instances, a substantial part centers on administrative matters such as missing excuse slips for being absent. Another portion is taken up by aspects that did not belong to the daily tasks of a class's form teacher, and, instead, were intended for the benefit of the students: in these instances, Maria talked about topics such as reaching their future goals, systemic discrimination/racism in Austria, or how to achieve better test outcomes. All in all, the observed phenomena are indicative of a warm, positive classroom atmosphere during the English lessons, which can be seen as a pre-condition for multilingual students to thrive (see Chapter 4.2.2).

Thirdly and lastly, the chart also provides information about the management of languages during English lessons. These actual, observed practices add another angle through which the teachers' statements given in the interview can be inspected. The extent of code-switching addressed prior indicates that languages may be used flexibly and according to the users' needs in the classroom. In connection with this, it is important to note that although the category code-switching and mixing counted instances where teachers spoke in one language and students responded in another (and vice versa), teacher talk constituted the majority of

¹⁴ This code encompasses utterances by the teachers, as well as conversations between students and teachers that included more than one language.

these interactions. Maria's indication during her interview that she often resorted to using German when discussing matters relevant to her role as the form teacher of the class may be a contributing factor to the substantial length of this code. Another aspect worth elaborating on is the management of languages in the context of teaching vocabulary. In Table 7, explaining the German meaning of words takes on a central role. To put this in context, when new vocabulary items were introduced in the lessons, the students frequently switched to German asking, "Was heißt das auf Deutsch?" or asked the teachers if the German translations they had in mind were correct. Maria, in her interview, pointed out that while generally trying to refrain from frequent German translations in her teaching, she reported occasionally deliberately including German translations as an optional task at home, to cater to the portion of her students wanting to practice their German. Another aspect that should be addressed regarding the role of German is the teachers' diverging angle on German proficiency. Rio's view could be characterized by aiming to de-center the importance of German in his teaching, as he felt that the need to perfect one's German was communicated to his students in nearly all areas of their lives, which was why he wanted to not further add pressure. Maria, in contrast, while stressing that all languages are resources, also highlighted the importance of German in the current job market in her interview. Additionally, she expressed concern for certain demographics of students who particularly struggled to improve their German. Other ways of language management within teaching vocabulary were that non-verbal communication, such as gestures and mimics, was often utilized, as well as teaching through context. Word fields or drawings to convey the meaning of vocabulary were also a frequently applied means, found in students' vocabulary books or on the blackboard.

To conclude the examination of the chart, it can be stated that the English lessons permitted the flexible use of language, as seen in the frequent code switching, as well as the strategic utilization of the students' home languages. In one classroom record (number 6 in Table 7), Maria even explicitly normalized mixing languages, stating "I'm just noticing I am mixing English and German because I am copying from your vocabulary book- that is completely alright". These observed phenomena align with teachers' statements highlighting that they perceived multilingualism as a valuable resource and could be seen as an indication that multilingual students may flexibly disposed of their linguistic repertoire in the English lessons. Various techniques catering to multilingual students were also present, indicating a multilingual habitus on the side of both teachers. These techniques included, for instance, using nonverbal communication to explain vocabulary, or utilizing peer support to help bridge language barriers between teachers and students. Lastly, the phenomena discussed were

embedded in a positive classroom atmosphere, which can be conducive to multilingual students' participation in lessons, as teachers may create a safe space for them to participate actively and perform their identities (Erling, Brummer et al., 2022), with the many instances of shared humor between students and teachers also speaking in favor of this.

The discussion now proceeds to the next set of research questions.

RQ2: How do the students perceive their teachers' classroom practices related to multilingualism?

- 2.1: What teacher practices addressing multilingualism in English lessons are mentioned by the focus groups?
- 2.2: What are the students' opinions on these practices?
- 2.3: What other factors are listed by the students that may influence the implementation of multilingualism in the classroom?

Sub-questions 2.1 and 2.2 are considered first, focusing on the teacher practices that address multilingualism in English lessons mentioned by the focus groups, along with students' opinions on these practices.

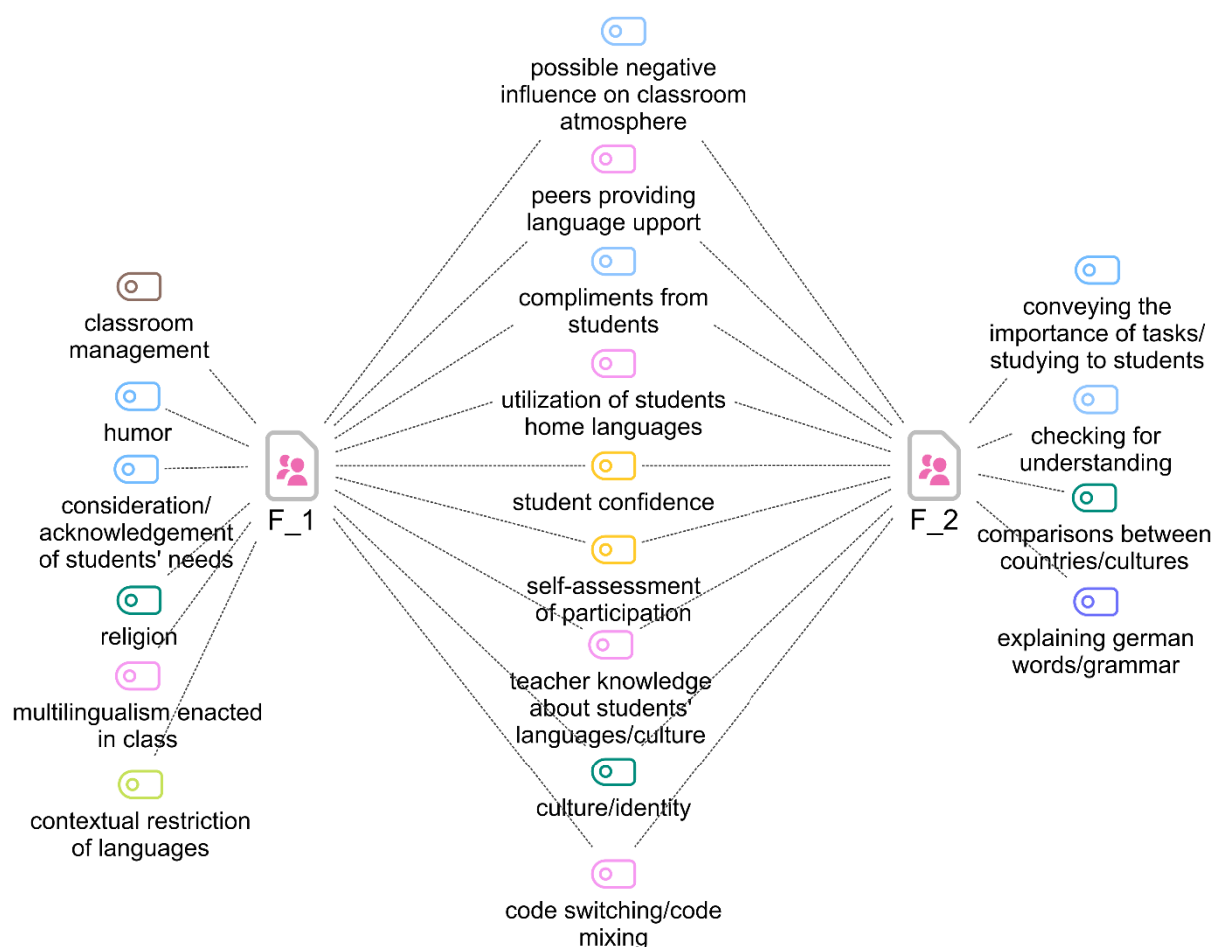


Figure 3. Two-case model of the focus group interviews, depicting up to 9 most frequently used codes per column.

Figure 3 will be used not only to illustrate the most prevalent aspects of the discussions but also to focus on divergences and commonalities regarding the students' perceptions of their teachers' classroom practices related to multilingualism. In line with Figure 2, the mere frequency of codes does not give context to the data, which is why some degree of elaboration is needed.

To begin with, the commonalities of the two focus-group interviews will be focused on: in line with the preceding data, both groups affirmed that their teachers were informed about their linguistic repertoire. Practices related to multilingualism mentioned by both focus groups were the utilization of peer support to help with language limitations, the utilization of students' home languages, and code switching/code mixing. Concerning peer support, students from F1 stated that peer support was utilized not only when bridging language barriers but also within the framework of correcting tests, where students with good grades were assigned to other students to help them with the most important issues. F2 centered on language support for peers. In this context, a student explained that he provided language

support during the lessons to a friend and even utilized break time to explain more aspects of the lesson in their shared first language if needed. As for the strategic utilization of the students' home languages, both focus groups raised the examples of being allowed to utilize them for their vocabulary books when new vocabulary was discussed, as well as when providing peer support. Moving on to code switching/mixing, these practices were also raised as a means to discuss new vocabulary. As reported by two students from separate focus groups, when being asked to provide language support to peers, one portion of the students stated that they enjoyed going so, while another portion stated that their opinion on the practice depended on their relationship with the peer in question. Concerning code switching between German and English when explaining vocabulary, the opinions of the participants also varied. The majority represented students with a higher German proficiency who gave the example that Maria was utilizing German when trying to help students to grasp the meaning of new vocabulary. In this context, one student with lower proficiency than her peers, who arrived in Austria only two years ago, described this practice as less helpful to her. Both groups mentioned that teachers used German to help students understand lesson content. This suggests that students with higher German proficiency may have had a neutral or positive view of its use in the classroom.

The focus now turns to aspects of the implementation of multilingualism that were only raised by F1: falling under the code "multilingualism enacted in class", this includes an observation by a student that another student within the focus group communicated differently when using German or English compared to Turkish. He observed that a student, when speaking "German or English, she speaks quietly, you can barely hear her. But when she speaks Turkish, you can hear her through the school corridors!". This could be an indication that of different facets of identity, such as confidence, were associated with particular languages for the student. Furthermore, F1 raised that Maria, amongst other teachers, occasionally restricted the use of home languages during the break. This observation corresponds to her statement that she, when under the impression that language is used to exclude others, occasionally asks her students to switch to a language everybody can understand. However, the students delivered this information in a neutral tone without further criticism. Given that the students felt comfortable critiquing other aspects of lessons during the interview, it created the impression that this was of minimal concern, as the group quickly moved on to another topic. An interesting aspect raised by an Arabic-speaking student was that in his view, "usually only the Arabs and Turks did [use their home language]" during pair discussions (see Analysis section 8.3). This was neither confirmed nor denied by other

participants. Although this was a generalizing statement raised by one student, it must be considered that Arabic and Turkish represent two of the largest groups of languages spoken in the classroom, which raises questions regarding the position of less-spoken languages in partner/group work scenarios in multilingual pedagogies.

Aspects related to multilingualism that were only touched upon by F2 were checking for understanding and comparisons between countries and cultures. Regarding differences between countries and cultures, F2 focused on providing concrete examples from lessons where culture was thematized in books/worksheets instead of focusing on instances where their own culture was addressed, like in the case of F1.

To summarize, the practices related to multilingualism that were listed by the students were language support through peers, the strategic utilization of students' home languages during the lessons, code-switching/mixing, as well as explaining aspects of the lesson in German. The students' opinions on giving peer support were largely positive. Still, some students specified that their reception of the practice depended on the person they were working with or if they felt like they wanted to utilize the time available during the lesson for their own tasks. As for code-switching, as well as the strategic utilization of their home languages, both groups raised the utilization of home languages in connection to being able to earn a plus for participation, which could indicate a positive association. Another possibility is a neutral view of the practice, which would fall in line with Rio explaining that, contrary to his expectations, the utilization of the students' home languages did not cause any great reactions. The fact that Maria had been the form teacher of their class for more than three years also speaks in favor of this, as she could have normalized such practices in her classroom over time. As for specifically switching to German to explain vocabulary during English lessons, the students' reception of the practice depended on their German proficiency. A student with lower proficiency reported that the practice was less helpful to her, while those with higher proficiency appeared to have a neutral to positive stance towards the practice.

Subsequently, the last sub-question will be addressed:

2.3 "Which other factors are listed by the students that may influence the implementation of multilingualism in the classroom?"

The last research question was intended to capture other unexpected ways that could influence the implementation of multilingualism during English lessons. What emerged were many

aspects pertaining to multilingualism in the further sense, like the students' culture, confidence, or the teachers' use of humor.

As can be seen in the literature discussed, a positive classroom atmosphere is vital for multilingual pedagogies (see Chapter 4.2.2): to enable students to use their full multilingual repertoire, it is important that they feel seen in their multilingual as well as multicultural identities. In connection to this, Garcia and Flores (2023) emphasize the importance of teacher openness to diverse cultures, while Duarte and Kirsch (2020) raise the proposition that fostering intercultural knowledge is a key aspect of multilingual education. Most importantly, Erling et al. (2019) argue that advantages can arise for multilingual students if they are provided with safe spaces to perform their identities within a positive classroom climate. Therefore, while teachers' considerations for their students' culture or religion addressed by the focus groups might not directly pertain to teachers' practices related to multilingualism, they were rich in context about the relationship between students and teachers and gave important contextualization about whether the classroom atmosphere can be considered conducive for multilingual students to thrive. The importance of teachers respecting students' identities was echoed in the answers given by students of F1. Both religion and consideration of their needs were addressed within a shared context, where it was praised that they could take certain cultural considerations for granted with Maria. For example, the students reported asking Maria about the current conflict between Israel and Palestine, which impacted some students on a personal level. The students also positively highlighted that Maria was very informed on this matter and covered the events between Israel and Palestine without taking any sides. Other examples included supportive actions to enable the celebration of religious holidays or considering students' dietary restrictions. In summary, the given examples suggest that students feel that their teachers consider their religion and ethnicity as integral parts of their identity.

Another useful angle on the implementation of multilingualism is student confidence: the literature review highlights the role of student confidence in connection to teaching multilingual students, as they are more likely to meet their learning goals in English classrooms when they feel comfortable and participate actively (Erling, Brummer et al., 2022). Data from the classroom records has shown that students' confidence was supported through compliments from their teachers. The fact that students asking for help when struggling to understand something has been observed 9 times in the 12 lessons audited is an argument in favor of students feeling confident in asking for help. This is also supported by both focus groups stating that they felt comfortable during English lessons and participated

actively. In line with this, the students' exhibition of confidence was not merely limited to their statements given in the interview but could also be observed in the form of multiple students holding themselves eligible for a plus at the end of almost each English lesson observed. Although these are merely indications of confidence where no distinctions between individual students are possible, this serves as a general approximation regarding the students of the class.

An additional interesting aspect is the use of humor by the teachers: when looking for code relations, it becomes evident that humor is frequently used in combination with classroom management (see Table 8 below), which could have strengthened the relationship between students and teachers.

Table 8

Intersections of humor with other codes in the classroom records.

Codesystem	humor
▼  multilingualism enacted in class	1
 explaining differences between languages	
 utilization of students home languages	
 peers providing language support	
 teacher knowledge about students' languages/culture	
 teaching material related to multilingualism	
 code switching/code Mixing	3
▼  classroom atmosphere	
 humor	
▼  consideration/acknowledgement of students' needs	1
 acknowledging negative feelings	
 democratic elements	
 reminding students of individual differences	
 conveying the importance of tasks/studying to students	1
 small talk/non-academic compliments	1
 addressing problems	1
 compliments from students	
 checking for understanding	
 possible negative influence on classroom atmosphere	
▼  student confidence	1
 self-assessment of participation	1
 academic compliments from teacher	
 students asking for help	
 students correcting teacher	
▼  culture/identity	
 religion	2
 comparisons between countries/cultures	
 talking about other countries/cultures	
 discrimination/racism	
▼  classroom management	7
 teacher's stance on classroom management	
 S helping teacher with classroom management	
▼  teaching vocabulary	5
 teaching through context	
 using real-life objects	
 drawing vocabulary items on board	
 explaining german words/grammar	
 gestures/mimics	2

Note. Upon examination, all instances related to code-switching were incidental, which is why they will not be treated further.

Table 7 shows the number of segments in the classroom records where humor directly intersects with another code, with the highest number of relations bearing classroom management, followed by teaching vocabulary and code-switching. To provide an example of

an instance combining humor with classroom management, when a student, seeming upset about the length of a text they were asked to write, said, “Do we have to write all that?”, Maria responded, “No, I will write it for everyone”, which caused a chuckle amongst the students before everyone started their text without any further comments.

As for teaching vocabulary, the use of humor pertained to students being asked to use pantomime to display the meaning of words, as well as the use of humorous examples given by students as well as teachers. Maria also encouraged students to use creative examples when practicing grammatical structures, which could be seen in a dialogue between Maria and a student, where she stated, “You know I love reading your texts. Are you being creative?” To which the student replied, “Yes, of course!”. This exchange could signify Maria striving to add entertaining elements to the lessons.

10. Discussion

The present section will look at the key findings of this ethnographic case study, relate them to relevant theory, and lastly, raise the project’s limitations and strengths. This thesis investigated two team-teachers’ attitudes toward multilingualism, the implementation of multilingualism in their English Language classroom, and lastly, how their students perceived the implementation of multilingualism in the lessons. To outline the most salient findings, it can be stated that both teachers’ attitudes toward multilingualism can generally be described as positive, and their lessons as inclusive of their multilingual students’ language practices.

Examining the teachers’ reasons for fostering multilingualism, it becomes evident that their efforts are strongly linked to anti-discriminatory values. As illustrated in Chapter 5.2, their students’ home languages, such as Arabic, Turkish, and BCS, are generally associated with low socioeconomic prestige in Austria. This can result in these minority languages being undervalued or even banished at school. In response to these linguistic hierarchies, both teachers criticized the low social prestige of immigrant languages in their interviews. They claimed that these circumstances incentivized them to utilize students’ home languages in the classroom, as they wanted to convey to their students that all languages are valuable. Related to this, Rio highlighted aiming to make his students aware that their languages, as part of their identities, were seen and appreciated in class. In view of relevant research, his efforts could have enhanced his multilingual students’ readiness to learn new languages at school (see Krumm, 2003, in Chapter 6.3). As illustrated in Chapter 4.2.2, considering students’ multilingual identities can also lead to various interpersonal benefits, such as being conducive to rapport between students and teachers.

In a more specific context, the findings of this study also have to be considered in relation to teacher attitudes in Austrian secondary EFL classrooms. As demonstrated in Chapter 8.2, Austrian EFL teachers who express interest in their students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds and bear a positive attitude toward multilingualism may exert a favorable influence on students' language learning. Especially in underprivileged school contexts, students' participation and, potentially, their learning outcomes were revealed to profit from teachers creating a positive classroom atmosphere characterized by respect for students' multilingual and multicultural identities (see Erling, Brummer et al., 2022). Regarding the students' perception of their teachers' knowledge of their linguistic backgrounds, all focus group participants confirmed that both teachers were well-informed about their language repertoire, and some participants particularly highlighted Maria's knowledge of their cultures. In line with this, the classroom atmosphere observed could also be considered opportune to students' language learning, as the majority of students questioned stated that they felt comfortable during English lessons and assumed their classmates experienced similar feelings. The students also reported that they participated actively most of the time. Although the positive classroom atmosphere observed in the teachers' EFL lessons may have been influenced by the considerations of students' multilingual and multicultural identities, it is important to acknowledge that there is a wide range of other factors located both inside and outside their teachers' control that could have exerted influence on it.

The following section briefly overviews the variety of multilingual practices employed in the EFL lessons. Firstly, vocabulary translations into the students' home languages were frequently utilized, for example, to discuss unfamiliar vocabulary items during reading exercises. Other multilingual practices observed include teachers encouraging their students to make use of their home languages during pair discussions or to help other students, as seen in the case of the Arabic-speaking student with limited English and German proficiency. Furthermore, aiding the notion that home languages can be considered assets, students could translate vocabulary into their home languages to receive positive marks for participation. These practices to foster multilingualism could have resulted in various advantages discussed in chapter two, such as beneficial effects related to students' language acquisition and a favorable influence on socio-emotional aspects such as motivation or group dynamics (Erling, Brummer, et al., 2022; Schwarzl, 2020, in Cataldo-Schwarzl, 2024).

Research on teacher attitudes frequently highlights teacher education as an opportunity to cultivate positive attitudes toward multilingualism. However, both teachers reported never having engaged with multilingualism directly in their studies. Despite this, they, either

intuitively or as a result of a later in-service engagement with the topic, demonstrated actions in the English classroom that were in line with many important aspects of multilingual pedagogies, such as Garcia and Flores' (2012) recommendations for multilingual pedagogies discussed in chapter 4.1. Garcia and Flores' (2012) main principles are attention to social justice, as well as social practice in order to render multilingual pedagogics as socially just as possible. They additionally advocate for attention to providing equity for multilingual students through equal, democratic participation in the classroom, which was even highlighted as a reason for enjoying English lessons by a student in the focus group interviews. Other observed manifestations of this in the classroom were teachers' attention to socio-cultural aspects of language, for instance, when a student was informed of a diverging cultural reception of a non-verbal answer given by him. Attention to social justice may also extend beyond the language classroom, such as becoming advocates for children by supporting valid assessments for multilingual children outside the monolingual norm. This was mentioned in Rio's interview, where he reported allowing the use of languages other than German for his physics tests should the students have forgotten the German term. A focus on social practice was also present in the form of giving space to the ideas and actions of students in the lessons. For instance, this manifested in encouraging creative sample sentences of students during targeted practice of a grammatical structure or in the context of writing tasks. Additionally, learning was often socially constructed, for example, through peer support. Lastly, multilingual scaffolding (Garcia & Flores, 2012, p. 243) was also frequently observed, mainly in the context of teaching vocabulary, where paralinguistic measures were used for contextualization, such as body language, gestures, and realia.

Given the fact that this thesis is a qualitative, ethnographic case study, there are limitations to the findings of this project, such as the lack of generalizability, as well as the fact that another researcher involved in the data coding process could have added validity to the findings. Furthermore, as teachers' attitudes and students' perspectives were explored in interviews with the researcher, the social-desirability bias could have influenced the information provided. Lastly, another limitation of the study pertains to its context, as only the English language classroom was examined. By taking other subjects of the teachers into consideration, this study could have provided information on teachers' implementation of multilingualism in the German language, which could have given an even richer account of multilingual practices.

Despite these limitations, this project still provides a valuable contribution to the intersection of teacher attitudes toward multilingualism and the practical implementation of

multilingualism in an EFL context. The strength of this study lies in the fact that because of its qualitative nature, the perspectives of students as well as teachers on the implementation of multilingualism could be considered, which can provide context to other, more quantitative research projects with a similar focus. Furthermore, the classroom observations offer numerous examples of how students' home languages can be incorporated into Austrian EFL classes, which can be used to inspire other teachers wanting to utilize students' whole linguistic repertoire in their teaching.

11. Conclusion

This thesis investigated how two team teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism were reflected in their EFL lessons in a Viennese middle school setting. Student and teacher perspectives were explored through interviews. Additionally, 12 of their EFL lessons were observed to provide further information about the teachers' classroom practices related to multilingualism. The employment of qualitative content analysis revealed nuanced insights about teachers' motifs to foster multilingualism in the English language classroom, their strategies to do so, and the students' opinions on their teachers' practices.

The results of this research project show that both teachers have positive attitudes toward multilingualism. While the advantages of fostering multilingualism in educational contexts often highlight beneficial effects for language learning and cognition, these aspects were not given as reasons to foster multilingualism by the teachers. Instead, their motifs for including students' home languages in EFL lessons can be seen as connected to their anti-discriminatory values. Frequently, the root of their motifs was to question linguistic hierarchies. Both teachers criticized the unequal social prestige of languages, elaborating that they wanted to nurture an awareness in students that every language was a resource. As their students' most frequently spoken home languages, such as Turkish, Arabic, and BCS, do generally not enjoy high socioeconomic prestige in Austria, the need to showcase all languages as resources becomes even more evident. This aim is especially relevant considering that these languages belong to the most frequently used home languages in Viennese middle schools.

Furthermore, the teachers utilized home languages as a tool to highlight linguistic and cultural diversity in their lessons. They aimed to convey to their students that their languages, as part of their multilingual and multicultural identities, were valued in the classroom. These efforts can be seen as working towards providing a safe space for students to perform their multilingual and multicultural identities, which was also supported by the teachers treating their students' cultures and religions with appreciation and respect. As research on multilingualism in education associates a positive classroom climate with various advantages for multilingual students, such as socio-emotional benefits and potentially favorable effects on academic attainment, the two teachers' efforts gained even more significance.

It is important to note that the findings of this study must be seen in light of some limitations. Even though triangulation was achieved by the utilization of three different data sources to add validity to the research project, these findings are not immune to biases, as the

subjectivity of the researcher and the participants could have shaped the results. Furthermore, due to the qualitative, ethnographic nature of the study, as well as the small sample size, the findings are not generalizable and context dependent.

Nevertheless, this project has provided a detailed account of multilingual practices in a middle school EFL context and contributed valuable insights into two team teachers' rationale for fostering multilingualism in their classroom. In opposition to prevailing deficit-based discourses commonly applied to multilingual middle school students in Austria, this thesis offers an example of two teachers embracing their students' multilingualism and positioning it as a resource in their lessons. Educational institutions are one of the main tools at a country's disposal to exercise language planning and influence the socioeconomic prestige of languages. As agents of these institutions, teachers may influence how their students view different languages and how much value is assigned to them in the teachers' classrooms. As evidenced by the findings, the two teachers were cognizant of their role and appeared to use this knowledge as an incentive to utilize their students' linguistic repertoire in their lessons. Further research is warranted to address whether critiquing sociolinguistic inequalities in teacher training could drive more teachers to position their students' home languages as a resource in their lessons.

Bibliography

- Alim, H. S. (2005). Critical language awareness in the United States: Revisiting issues and revising pedagogies in a resegregated society. *Educational Researcher*, 34(7), 24–31. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X034007024>
- Aragão, R. (2011). Beliefs and emotions in foreign language learning. *System*, 39(3), 302–313.
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Baker, C., & Wright, W. E. (2021). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (7th ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Barcelos, A. M. F. (2003). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. In P. Kalaja & A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 7–33). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Barcelos, A.M.F., & Kalaja, P. (2011). Introduction to beliefs about SLA revisited. *System*, 39(3), 282–289.
- Basturkmen, H. (2012). Review of research into the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices. *System*, 40(2), 282–295. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.05.001>
- Bialystok, E. (1991). *Language Processing in Bilingual Children*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bialystok, E. (2007). Cognitive effects of bilingualism: How linguistic experience leads to cognitive change. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10(3), 210–223. <https://doi.org/10.2167/beb441.0>
- Birello, M., Llompart-Esbert, J., & Moore, E. (2021). Being plurilingual versus becoming a linguistically sensitive teacher: tensions in the discourse of initial teacher education students. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(4), 586–600. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2021.1900195>
- Blömeke, S., Kaiser, G., & Lehmann, R. (2008). *Professionelle Kompetenz angehender Lehrerinnen und Lehrer: Wissen, Überzeugungen und Lerngelegenheiten deutscher Mathematikstudierender und -referendare. Erste Ergebnisse zur Wirksamkeit der Lehrerbildung*. Münster, Deutschland: Waxmann.
- Blommaert, J. (2010). *The sociolinguistics of globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- BMBWF. (2019). *Informationsblätter zum Thema Migration und Schule Nr. 5/2020: Der muttersprachliche Unterricht in Österreich. Statistische Auswertung für das Schuljahr 2018/19* (by Dr. Assimina Gouma).
- BMBWF. (2024, June 4). Deutschförderklassen und Deutschförderkurse. <https://www.bmbwf.gv.at/Themen/schule/schulpraxis/ba/sprabi/dfk.html>
- Bonnet, A., & Siemund, P. (2018). *Foreign language education in multilingual classrooms*. John Benjamins Publishing Company, Amsterdam.

- Borko, H., & Putnam, R. T. (1996). Learning to teach. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 673–708). New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Bourhis, R. Y. (Ed.). (2008). *The vitality of the English-speaking communities of Quebec: From community decline to revival*. Centre d'études ethniques des universités montréalaises (CEETUM). Université de Montréal, and Canadian Institute for Research on Linguistic Minorities (CIRLM), Université de Moncton.
- Bredthauer, S., & Engfer, H. (2016). Multilingualism is great – but is it really my business? Teachers' approaches to multilingual didactics in Austria and Germany. *Darnioji Daugiakalbystė*, 9(9), 104–121. <https://doi.org/10.7220/2335-2027.9.5>
- Broermann, M. (2007). Language attitudes among minority youth in Finland and Germany. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 187/188, 129–160. <https://doi.org/10.1515/IJSL.2007.053>
- Bruneforth, M., Vogtenhuber, S., Lassnigg, L., Oberwimmer, K., Gumpoldsberger, H., Feyerer, E., & Herzog-Punzenberger, B. (2016). Indikatoren c: Prozessfaktoren. In M. Bruneforth, S. Vogtenhuber, L. Lassnigg, C. Schreiner, & S. B. Simone (Eds.), *Nationaler Bildungsbericht Österreich 2015, Band 1: Das Schulsystem im Spiegel von Daten und Indikatoren* (pp. 71–128). Graz: Leykam.
- Calderhead, J. (1996). Teachers: Beliefs and knowledge. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 709–725). New York: Macmillan.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2, 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110239331.1>
- Candelier, M. (Ed.). (2004). *Janua Linguarum – The gateway to languages: The introduction of language awareness into the curriculum: Awakening to languages*. Graz, Austria: European Centre for Modern Languages/Council of Europe Publishing.
- Cassany, D., Esteve, O., Martin Peris, E., & Pérez-Vidal, C. (2004). *Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas 12–18 años*. Secretaría General Técnica, Ministerio de Educación Cultura y Deporte. Madrid, Spain.
- Cataldo-Schwarzl, L., Reisigl, M., de Cillia, R., & Vetter, E. (2024). Zur Situation von lebensweltlich mehrsprachigen Schüler*innen: aktuelle Lage und neuere Entwicklungen in der Bildungspolitik. In E. Vetter, R. de Cillia, M. Reisigl (Eds.), *Sprachenpolitik In Österreich* (Bd. 50, S. 135–148). Walter de Gruyter GmbH. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783111329130-007>
- Cenoz, J. (2003). The additive effect of bilingualism on third language acquisition: A review. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 7(1), 71–87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13670069030070010501>
- Cenoz, J. (2013). Defining multilingualism. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 33, 3–18. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S026719051300007X>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2021). *Pedagogical translanguaging*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (7th ed.). United Kingdom: Taylor & Francis Group.

- Collier, V. P., & Thomas, W. P. (2009). *Educating English learners for a transformed world*. Albuquerque, NM: Dual Language Education of New Mexico/Fuente Press.
- Commission of the European Communities. (1995). *Teaching and learning: Towards a learning society. White paper on education and learning*. Brussels, Belgium. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- Cooney, T. J., Shealy, B. E., & Arvold, B. (1998). Conceptualizing belief structures of preservice secondary mathematics teachers. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, 29(3), 306–333. <https://doi.org/10.2307/749792>
- Council of Europe. (2001, updated 2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Council of Europe. (2024). Plurilingualism and pluriculturalism. Retrieved May 10, 2024 from <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/plurilingualism-and-pluriculturalism>
- Cummins, J. (1996). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society*. Ontario: California Association for Bilingual Education.
- Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire*. Blue Ridge Summit, PA: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, J., Slembrouck, S., Van Avermaet, P., Van Gorp, K., Maryns, K., & Sierens, S. (2018). Urban Multilingualism and Educational Achievement: Identifying and Implementing Evidence-Based Strategies for School Improvement. In *The Multilingual Edge of Education* (pp. 67–90). Palgrave Macmillan UK. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-54856-6_4
- Kachru, B.B. (1992). World Englishes: Approaches, issues and resources. *Language Teaching*, 25, 1– 14. doi.org/10.1017/S0261444800006583
- Cunningham, C., & Little, S. (2023). "Inert benevolence" towards languages beyond English in the discourses of English primary school teachers. *Linguistics and Education*, 78, 101122. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2022.101122>
- De Angelis, G. (2011). Teachers' beliefs about the role of prior language knowledge in multilingual learning and how these influence teaching practices. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 8(3), 216–234. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2011.560669>
- De Cillia, R., & Busch, B. (2006). Language policies: Policies on language in Europe. In K. Brown (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Language & Linguistics* (2nd ed.). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-044854-2/04263-2>
- De Cillia, R., & Vetter, E. (2013). *Sprachenpolitik in Österreich : Bestandsaufnahme 2011*. Peter Lang.
- De Cillia, R., (2016). Österreichische Sprachenpolitik und Mehrsprachigkeit in der 2. Republik. In O. Gruber & M. Tölle (Eds.), *Fokus Mehrsprachigkeit* (pp. 388–405). Vienna, Austria: ÖGB Verlag.
- De Groot, A. M. B. (2011). *Language and cognition in bilinguals and multilinguals: An introduction*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- De Korne, H. (2012). Towards new ideologies and pedagogies of multilingualism: innovations in interdisciplinary language education in Luxembourg. *Language and Education*, 26(6), 479–500. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2012.663552>

- Dendrinos, B. (2018). *Research into Multilingualism*. Retrieved from <https://ecspm.org/position-papers/bilingualism-multilingualism/#:~:text=Research%20into%20multilingualism&text=Individual%20multilingualism%20involves%20people%20who,are%20referred%20to%20as%20polyglots>.
- Dockrell, J. E., Papadopoulos, T. C., Mifsud, C. L., Bourke, L., Vilageliu, O., Besic, E., ... & Gerdzhikova, N. (2021). Teaching and learning in a multilingual Europe: Findings from a cross-European study. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 37, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10212-021-00539-z>
- Dolas, F., Jessner, U., & Cedden, G. (2022). Cognitive advantages of multilingual learning on metalinguistic awareness, working memory, and L1 lexicon size: Reconceptualization of linguistic giftedness from a DMM perspective. *Journal of Cognition*, 5(1)
- Dorner, D. (2008). Mehrsprachigkeit als Schlüsselkompetenz auf EU-Ebene: Die Rolle von Regional- und Minderheitensprachen. In M. Frings, E. Vetter, & A. Klump (Eds.), *Mehrsprachigkeit als Schlüsselkompetenz: Theorie und Praxis in Lehr- und Lernkontexten* (pp. 96–106).
- Dörnyei, Z., & Muir, C. (2019). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In X. Gao (Ed.), *Second handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719–736). Springer International Handbooks of Education. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02899-2_36
- Dražnik, T., Llompарт-Esbert, J., & Bergroth, M. (2022). Student teachers' expressions of 'fear' in handling linguistically diverse classrooms. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 45(8), <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2022.2086258>
- Dresing, T. (2024, August 1). Qualitative content analysis: According to Mayring or Kuckartz? *Audiotranskription*. Retrieved from <https://www.audiotranskription.de/en/qualitative-content-analysis-according-to-mayring-or-kuckartz/>
- Dryden, S., Tankosić, A., & Dovchin, S. (2021). Foreign language anxiety and translanguaging as an emotional safe space: Migrant English as a foreign language learners in Australia. *System*, 101, Article 102593. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102593>
- Edwards, J. (2022). Societal multilingualism. In S. Mufwene & A. M. Escobar (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Language Contact* (1st ed., pp. 29–60). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781009105965.005>
- Erler, I. (2007). *Keine Chance für Lisa Simpson?: Soziale Ungleichheit im Bildungssystem* (1st ed.). Wien: Mandelbaum-Verlag.
- Erling, E. J., & Moore, E. (2021). Socially just plurilingual education in Europe: Shifting subjectivities and practices through research and action. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(4), 523–533. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2021.1913171>
- Erling, E. J., Brummer, M., & Foltz, A. (2023). Pockets of possibility: Students of English in diverse, multilingual secondary schools in Austria. *Applied Linguistics*, 44(1), 178–187. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amac078>
- Erling, E. J., Brummer, M., & Foltz, A. (2022). *Pockets of Possibility: Students of English in Diverse, Multilingual Secondary Schools in Austria*. Oxford University Press (OUP).

- Erling, E. J., Foltz, A., & Wiener, M. (2021). Differences in English teachers' beliefs and practices and inequity in Austrian English language education: Could plurilingual pedagogies help close the gap? *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(4), 570–585. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2021.1913170>
- Erling, E. J., Gitschthaler, M., & Schwab, S. (2022). Is segregated language support fit for purpose? Insights from German language support classes in Austria. *European Journal of Educational Research*, 11(1), 573–586. <https://doi.org/10.12973/EU-JER.11.1.573>
- Erling, E. J., Radinger, S., & Foltz, A. (2020). Understanding low outcomes in English language education in Austrian middle schools: the role of teachers' beliefs and practices. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 44(5), 412–428. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2020.1829630>
- European Commission, EACEA & Eurydice. (2019). *Integrating students from migrant backgrounds into schools in Europe: National policies and measures*. Eurydice Report. Retrieved from https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/sites/eurydice/files/integrating_students_from_migrant_backgrounds_into_schools_in_europe_national_policies_and_measures.pdf
- European Commission. (2007). *Multilingualism as a key competence*. Retrieved May 8, 2024, from <https://education.ec.europa.eu/focus-topics/improving-quality/multilingualism/multilingualism-as-a-key-competence>
- European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights. (n.d.). Article 8: Protection of personal data. *European Union Charter of Fundamental Rights*. Retrieved September 4, 2024, from <https://fra.europa.eu/en/eu-charter/article/8-protection-personal-data>
- European Union. (n.d.). Multilingualism: An asset and a commitment. *EUR-Lex*. Retrieved September 27, 2024, from <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/EN/legal-content/summary/multilingualism-an-asset-and-a-commitment.html>
- Fairclough, N. (1995). Critical language awareness and self-identity in education. In *Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language* (pp. 219–232). London: Longman.
- Fan, S. P., Liberman, Z., Keysar, B., & Kinzler, K. D. (2015). The exposure advantage: Early exposure to a multilingual environment promotes effective communication. *Psychological Science*, 26(7), 1090–1097. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797615574699>
- Fleck, E. (2022). Diskriminierung durch Sprachverbote. In O. Gruber & M. Tölle (Eds.), *Fokus Mehrsprachigkeit: 14 Thesen zu Sprache und Sprachenpolitik. Beiträge aus Österreich und Europa* (pp. 388–405). Vienna: ÖGB Verlag.
- Flores, N. (2014). Let's not forget that translanguaging is a political act [Blog post]. Retrieved on April 4, 2024 from <https://educationallinguist.wordpress.com/2014/07/19/lets-not-forget-that-translanguaging-is-a-political-act/>
- Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 85(2), 149–171. <https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149>
- Freedman, M., Alladi, S., Chertkow, H., Bialystok, E., Craik, F. I. M., Phillips, N. A., Duggirala, V., Raju, S. B., Bak, T. H., & Ferini-Strambi, L. J. (2014). Delaying Onset of Dementia : Are Two Languages Enough? *Behavioural Neurology*, 2014(2014), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/808137>

- Fürstenau, S., & Gomolla, M. (2009). *Migration und schulischer Wandel: Unterricht*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften / GWV Fachverlage GmbH.
- Fürstenau, S., & Niedrig, H. (2011). Die kulturosoziologische Perspektive Pierre Bourdieus: Schule als sprachlicher Markt. In *Migration und schulischer Wandel: Mehrsprachigkeit* (pp. 69–87). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-531-92659-9_4
- García, O. (2009). Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas, R. Phillipson, A. K. Mohanty, & M. Panda (Eds.), *Social justice through multilingual education* (pp. 140–158). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- García, O. (2011). *Bilingual Education in the 21st Century: A Global Perspective*. John Wiley & Sons.
- García, O., & Flores, N. (2012). Multilingual pedagogies. In M. Martin-Jones, A. Blackledge, & A. Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Multilingualism*. Routledge.
- García, O., & Kleyn, T. (2016). Translanguaging theory in education. In O. García & T. Kleyn (Eds.), *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments* (pp. 9–34). New York: Routledge.
- García, O., & Leiva, C. (2014). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social justice. In A. Blackledge & A. Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy* (pp. 199–216). New York: Springer.
- García, O., & Lin, A. M. Y. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In *Bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 117–130). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02258-1_9
- García, O., & Otheguy, R. (2020). Plurilingualism and translanguaging: Commonalities and divergences. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(1), 17–35. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1598932>
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2013). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Pivot.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2013). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137385765>
- Gill, M. G., & Hardin, C. (2014). A “hot” mess: Unpacking the relation between teachers’ beliefs and emotions. In *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs* (pp. 230–245). New York: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437-21>
- Gill, M. G., Ashton, P. T., & Algina, J. (2004). Changing preservice teachers’ epistemological beliefs about teaching and learning in mathematics: An intervention study. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 29(2), 164–185. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2004.01.003>
- Gitschthaler, M., Kast, J., Corazza, R., & Schwab, S. (2021). Inclusion of multilingual students—teachers’ perceptions on language support models. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 28(9), 1664–1683. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2021.2011439>
- Gitschthaler, M., Kast, J., Corazza, R., & Schwab, S. (2024). Inclusion of multilingual students-teachers’ perceptions on language support models. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 28(9), 1664–1683. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2021.2011439>

- Göbel, K., Vieluf, S., & Hesse, H. (2010). Die Sprachentransferunterstützung im Deutsch- und Englischunterricht bei Schülerinnen und Schülern unterschiedlicher Sprachenlernerfahrung. In C. Allemann-Ghionda, P. Stanat, K. Göbel, & C. Röhner (Eds.), *Migration, Identität, Sprache und Bildungserfolg* (pp. 101–122). Weinheim: Beltz.
- Godley, A. J., & Minnici, A. (2008). Critical language pedagogy in an urban high school English class. *Urban Education*, 43(3), 319–346.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085907311801>
- Gogolin, I. (1997). The ‘monolingual habitus’ as the common feature in teaching in the language of the majority in different countries. *Per Linguam: A Journal of Language Learning*, 13(2), 38–49. <https://doi.org/10.5785/13-2-187>
- Gomolla, M., & Radtke, F.-O. (2007). *Institutionelle Diskriminierung: Die Herstellung ethnischer Differenz in der Schule* (2nd ed.). Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.
- Gordon, R. G. Jr (Ed.). (2005). *Ethnologue: Languages of the World* (15th ed.). Dallas, TX: SIL International. Retrieved June 13, 2024, from
http://www.ethnologue.com/ethno_docs/introduction.asp#language_id/
- Green, T. (1971). *The activities of teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hall, C. J., & Cunningham, C. (2020). Educators’ beliefs about English and languages beyond English: From ideology to ontology and back again. *Linguistics and Education*, 57, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2020.100817>
- Haukås, Å. (2015). Teachers’ beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13(1), 1–18.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2015.1041960>
- Haukås, Å., Bjørke, Å., Dypedahl, C., Bjørke, Camilla, & Dypedahl, Magne. (2018). *Metacognition in language learning and teaching*. United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Hélot, C. (2012). Multilingual education and language awareness. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopaedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 258–300). Chichester, England: Wiley Blackwell.
- Hélot, C. (2021). Pushing back monoglossic ideologies of language: Towards transformative and inclusive pedagogies for 21st century multilingual classrooms. In L. Mary, A.-B. Krüger, & A. S. Young (Eds.), *Migration, multilingualism and education* (pp. 3–15). Bristol, UK; Blue Ridge Summit, PA: Multilingual Matters.
<https://doi.org/10.21832/9781800412958-003>
- Henniges, M., Traini, C., & Kleinert, C. (2019). *Tracking and sorting in the German educational system* (LIfBi Working Paper No. 83). Bamberg: Leibniz Institute for Educational Trajectories.
- Herdina, P., & Jessner, U. (2002). *A dynamic model of multilingualism: Perspectives of change in psycholinguistics*. Clevedon, England Buffalo, N.Y.: Multilingual Matters.
- Hermans, R., van Braak, J., & Van Keer, H. (2008). Development of the beliefs about primary education scale: Distinguishing a developmental and transmissive dimension. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(1), 127–139.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.11.007>

- Herzog-Punzenberger, B. (2007). Ein Puzzle mit vielen Leerstellen. SchülerInnen mit Migrationshintergrund in Österreich im internationalen Vergleich. In I. Erler (Ed.), *Keine Chance für Lisa Simpson? Soziale Ungleichheit im Bildungssystem* (pp. 1–26). Vienna, Austria: Mandelbaum-Verl.
- Herzog-Punzenberger, B. (2017). *Migration und Mehrsprachigkeit– Wie fit sind wir für die Vielfalt?* Vienna: AK Wien.
- Heugh, K. (2018). Conclusion: Multilingualism, diversity, and equitable learning: Towards crossing the “abyss”. In P. Van Avermaet et al. (Eds.), *The multilingual edge of education* (pp. 341–367). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137548566_15
- Heyder, K., & Schädlich, B. (2014). Mehrsprachigkeit und Mehrkulturalität: Eine Umfrage unter Fremdsprachenlehrkräften in Niedersachsen. *Zeitschrift für Interkulturellen Fremdsprachenunterricht*, 19(1), 183–201. <https://doi.org/10.5785/13-2-187>
- Horner, K., & Weber, J. J. (2018). *Introducing multilingualism: A social approach* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1996). Even teachers get the blues: Recognizing and alleviating language teachers' feelings of foreign language anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 365–372. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1996.tb01248.x>
- Jessner, U., & Kramsch, C. (2015). *The multilingual challenge: Cross-disciplinary perspectives* (1st ed.). Berlin, Germany: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Jansen, S., Mohr, S., & Forsberg, J. (2022). Standard language ideology in the English language classroom: Suggestions for EIL- informed teacher education. In *Glocalising Teaching English as an International Language* (p. 63).
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003090106-6>
- Kagan, D. M. (1992). Implications of research on teachers' beliefs. *Educational Psychologist*, 27(1), 65–90. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2701_6
- Keefer, N. (2017). The presence of deficit thinking among social studies educators. *Journal of Social Studies Education Research*, 8(3), 50–75.
- Kemp, C. (2009). Defining multilingualism. In B. Hufeisen & L. Aronin (Eds.), *The exploration of multilingualism: Development of research on L3, multilingualism, and multiple language acquisition* (pp. 1–15). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Kesselring, A., & Leitner, M. (2007). Soziale Herkunft und Schulerfolg. In I. Erler (Ed.), *Keine Chance für Lisa Simpson? Soziale Ungleichheit im Bildungssystem* (1st ed., pp. 15–30). Vienna, Austria: Mandelbaum-Verlag.
- Kleyn, T., & García, O. (2019). Translanguaging as an act of transformation. In L.C. de Oliveira (Ed.), *The handbook of TESOL in K–12* (pp. 69–82). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119421702.ch6>
- Kloss, H. (1969). *Research possibilities on group bilingualism: A report*. Quebec: International Center for Research on Bilingualism.
- Knapp, K., Seidlhofer, B., & Widdowson, H. G. (2009). *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning*. Schierloh, Maren: Mouton de Gruyter.

- Kramersch, C. (2003). Metaphor and the subjective construction of beliefs. In P. Kalaja & A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 109–128). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Press.
- Krumm, Hans-Jürgen. (2003). „Mein Bauch ist italienisch ...“ Kinder sprechen über Sprachen. In N. Baumgarten, C. Böttger, M. Motz, & J. Probst (Eds.), *Übersetzen, Interkulturelle Kommunikation, Spracherwerb und Sprachvermittlung - das Leben mit mehreren Sprachen. Festschrift für Juliane House zum 60. Geburtstag. Zeitschrift für Interkulturellen Fremdsprachenunterricht*, 8(2/3), 110–114.
- Kubota, R., & Lin, A. (2006). Race and TESOL: Introduction to concepts and theories. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(3), 471–493. <https://doi.org/10.2307/40264540>
- Kuckartz, U., & McWhertor, A. (2014). *Qualitative text analysis: A guide to methods, practice & using software*. Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Le Nevez, A., Hélot, C., & Ehrhart, S. (2010). Negotiating plurilingualism in the classroom. In S. Ehrhart, C. Hélot, & A. Le Nevez (Eds.), *Plurilingualism and teacher education: A critical approach* (pp. 5–21). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.
- Leeman, J. (2005). Engaging critical pedagogy: Spanish for native speakers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(1), 35–45. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02451.x>
- Leitgöb, H., Bacher, J., & Weber, C. (2015). Leistungsvergleich der Neuen Mittelschule mit der AHS-Unterstufe und der Hauptschule. In F. Eder, H. Altrichter, F. Hofmann, & C. Weber (Eds.), *Befunde aus den Anfangskohorten: Forschungsbericht* (pp. 265–284). Graz, Austria: Leykam.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 18(7), 641–654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2012.718488>
- Liebscher, G., & Dailey-O’Cain, J. (2005). Learner code-switching in the content-based foreign language classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, 89(2), 234–247. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2005.00277.x>
- Lier, L. v. (1988). *The classroom and the language learner: Ethnography and second-language classroom research*. London: Longman.
- Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 44(1), 64–77. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444809990310>
- Llompart, J., & Birello, M. (2020). Migrant and non-migrant origin pre-service teachers’ beliefs about multilingualism and teaching in multilingual classrooms: Convergences and divergences. *Sustainable Multilingualism*, 17, 102–123. <https://doi.org/10.2478/sm-2020-0015>
- Lloyd, G. M. (2005). Beliefs about the teacher’s role in the mathematics classroom: One student teacher’s explorations in fiction and in practice. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 8(6), 441–467. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10857-005-5120-2>
- Lundberg, A. (2019). Teachers’ beliefs about multilingualism: Findings from Q method research. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 20(3), 266–283.

- Lundberg, A., & Brandt, H. (2023). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism: Novel findings and methodological advancements: Introduction to special issue. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 20(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2022.2160726>
- Lyster, R. (2017). Content-based language learning. In S. Loewen & M. Sato (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of instructed second language acquisition* (pp. 87–108). New York: Routledge.
- Maaz, K., Trautwein, U., Lüdtke, O., & Baumert, J. (2008). Educational transitions and differential learning environments: How explicit between-school tracking contributes to social inequality in educational outcomes. *Child Development Perspectives*, 2(2), 99–106. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-8606.2008.00048.x>
- Mansour, N. (2009). Science teachers' beliefs and practices: Issues, implications, and research agenda. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, 4(1), 2.
- Mbirimi-Hungwe, V., Hungwe, T., & Seeletse, S. M. (2020). *Emerging perspectives on translanguaging in multilingual university classrooms*. Newcastle-upon-Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publisher.
- McAlpine, L., Eriks-Brophy, A., & Crago, M. (1996). Teaching beliefs in Mohawk classrooms: Issues of language and culture. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 27(3), 390–413. <https://doi.org/10.1525/aeq.1996.27.3.04x0355q>.
- McGroarty, M. E. (2010). Language and ideologies. In *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 3–39). Germany: Multilingual Matters.
- Meier, G. (2018). Multilingual socialisation in education: Introducing the M-SOC approach. *Language Education and Multilingualism*, 1, 103–125. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2021.1951275>.
- Mendoza, A., Ou, J., Rajendram, S., & Coombs, A. (2023). Teachers' awareness and management of the social, cultural, and political indexicalities of translanguaging. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2023.2263092>
- Mercer, S. (2011). Language learner self-concept: Complexity, continuity, and change. *System (Linköping)*, 39(3), 335–346. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.006>
- Mertens, D. M. (2008). *Transformative research and evaluation*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Michala, M., Manoli, P., Lavidas, K., & Koustourakis, G. (2024). What if there is linguistic and cultural diversity in contemporary classrooms? Secondary school teachers' attitudes, practices, and challenges towards student multilingualism. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2024.2354702>
- Moody, S., Chowdhury, M., & Eslami, Z. R. (2019). Graduate students' perceptions of translanguaging. *English Teaching & Learning*, 43(1), 85–103. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42321-018-0019-z>
- Nagel, T., Schad, A., Semmler, B., & Wimmer, M. (2012). Austria. In G. Extra & K. Yagmur (Eds.), *Language Rich Europe: Trends in policies and practices for multilingualism in Europe*. Retrieved from https://language-rich.eu/fileadmin/content/pdf/LRE_English_Language_Rich_Europe_-_Trends_in_Policies_and_Practices_for_Multilingualism_in_Europe.pdf

- Navarro, D., & Thornton, K. (2011). Investigating the relationship between belief and action in self-directed language learning. *System*, 39(3), 290–301.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.002>
- Negueruela-Azarola, E. (2011). Beliefs as conceptualizing activity: A dialectical approach for the second language classroom. *System (Linköping)*, 39(3), 359–369.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.008>
- Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(4), 317–328. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0022027870190403>
- Neuhaus, J., & Bayrhammer, B. (2011, April 7). Übertriebener Wirbel um Türkisch als Maturafach. *Die Presse*. Retrieved from https://www.wiso-net.de/document/PRE_0d17fb01b7d80abd3a46fc0fab6d1b32a0214773
- Neveling, C. (2013). "Kiosco, televisión, tomate – das, was automatisch klar ist." Eine Interview-Studie zum sprachenübergreifenden Lernen im Spanischunterricht aus Lehrerperspektive. *Zeitschrift für Romanische Sprachen und ihre Didaktik*, 7(2), 97–129. Retrieved from Fachportal Pädagogik Database.
- Nikula, T., & Marsh, D. (1997). *Language and Content Integrated Learning in the Primary and Secondary school sector*. Helsinki, Finland: National Board of Education.
- Oberwimmer, K., Vogtenhuber, S., Lassnigg, L., Schreiner, C. (2019). *Nationaler Bildungsbericht Österreich 2018, Band 1. Das Schulsystem im Spiegel von Daten und Indikatoren*. Graz, Austria: Lekyam. <http://doi.org/10.17888/nbb2018-1.4>.
- Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. (1989). *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Retrieved from <https://www.ohchr.org/en/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/convention-rights-child>
- Op't Eynde, P., de Corte, E., & Verschaffel, L. (2002). Framing students' mathematics related beliefs: A quest for conceptual clarity and a comprehensive categorization. In G. C. Leder, E. Pehkonen, & G. Törner (Eds.), *Beliefs: A hidden variable in mathematics education?* (pp. 12–38). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.. https://doi.org/10.1007/0-306-47958-3_2
- Otheguy, R., García, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 6(3), 281–307. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2015-0014>
- Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Pajares, M. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307–332.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307>
- Palmer, D. K., Martínez, R. A., Mateus, S. G., & Henderson, K. (2014). Reframing the debate on language separation: Toward a vision for translanguaging pedagogies in the dual language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(3), 757–772.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12121>
- Pearl, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1962). The Relation of Bilingualism to Intelligence. *The Psychological Monographs* 76(27). <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0093840>

- Peng, J.-E. (2011). Changes in language learning beliefs during a transition to tertiary study: The mediation of classroom affordances. *System (Linköping)*, 39(3), 314–324. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.004>
- Pérez-Vidal, C. (2009). The integration of content and language in the classroom: A European approach to education (The second time around). In E. Dafouz & M. C. Guerrini (Eds.), *CLIL Across Educational Levels: Experiences from Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Contexts* (pp. 3–16). Madrid: Santillana Educación/Richmond Publisher.
- Pérez-Vidal, C., & Pugès, H. R. (2023). Multilingualism and education. In J. Cabrelli, A. Chaouch-Orozco, J. González Alonso, S. M. Pereira Soares, E. Puig-Mayenco, & J. Rothman (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Third Language Acquisition* (pp. 295–316). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Perri, A. (2021). Small rights for little homes? Minority languages in Europe between policies and ideologies. In *Multilingual Perspectives from Europe and Beyond on Language Policy and Practice* (1st ed., Vol. 1, pp. 83–110). London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429351075-9>
- Pettit, S. K. (2011). Teachers' beliefs about English language learners in the mainstream classroom: A review of the literature. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 5(2), 123–147. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2011.594357>
- Pollock, S. (2009). *The language of the gods in the world of men: Sanskrit, culture, and power in premodern India*. Los Angeles: University of California Press.
- Pözlbauer, A. (2011). "Mehr (als) Deutsch." Subjektive Theorien von DeutschlehrerInnen zur Bedeutung der Erstsprache für den Zweitspracherwerb. In H. J. Krumm & P. R. Portmann-Tselikas (Eds.), *Multilingualism is great – but is it really my business? – teachers' approaches to multilingual didactics in Austria and Germany* (pp. 61–70). Innsbruck, Austria: Studienverlag.
- Preissle, J. (2006). Envisioning qualitative inquiry: A view across four decades. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 19(6), 685–695. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09518390600975701>
- Rechtsinformationssystem des Bundes. (2023a). Gesamte Rechtsvorschrift für Lehrpläne der Mittelschulen. Retrieved May 19, 2023, from <https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=20007850>
- Rechtsinformationssystem des Bundes. (2023b). Gesamte Rechtsvorschrift für Lehrpläne: Allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen. Retrieved May 19, 2024, from <https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10008568>
- Ressl, M. (2019). *English teachers' beliefs on the promotion of multilingualism at "Neue Mittelschule" (NMS) in Vienna*. (Masters Thesis, University of Vienna, Austria). Retrieved from <https://theses.univie.ac.at/detail/51279>
- Rezaei, S., Khosravizadeh, P., & Mottaghi, Z. (2019). Attitudes toward World Englishes among Iranian English language learners. *Asian Englishes*, 21(1), 52–69. doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2018.1440367
- Abelson, R. P. (1979). Differences between belief

- and knowledge systems. *Cognitive Science*, 3(4), 355–366.
https://doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog0304_4
- Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 102–119). New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Richardson, V. (2003). Preservice teachers' beliefs. In J. Raths & A. C. McAninch (Eds.), *Teacher beliefs and classroom performance: The impact of teacher education* (pp. 1–22). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Rokeach, M. (1969). *Beliefs, attitudes, and values: A theory of organization and change*. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.
- Sachdev, I., & Bourhis, R. Y. (2001). Multilingual communication. In W. P. Robinson & H. Giles (Eds.), *The New Handbook of Language and Social Psychology* (pp. 407–428). Chichester: Wiley.
- Sachdev, I., Giles, H., & Pauwels, A. (2013). Accommodating multilinguality. In T. K. Bhatia & W. R. Ritchie (Eds.), *Handbook of Bilingualism and Multilingualism* (pp. 391–416). Oxford: Blackwell-Wiley.
- Santipolo, M. (2019). La politica linguistica oggi: Ruolo, orientamenti, prospettive. Alcune riflessioni. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata*, 2–3, 7–24. In B. Di Sabato (Ed.), *Multilingual perspectives from Europe and beyond on language policy and practice*.
- Schoenfeld, A. (1992). Learning to think mathematically: Problem solving, metacognition, and sense making in mathematics. In D. Grouws (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching and Mathematics Learning* (pp. 334–370). New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Schreiner, C., Suchań, B., & Salchegger, S. (2020). Monitoring student achievement in Austria: Implementation, results, and political reactions. In *Monitoring Student Achievement in the 21st Century* (pp. 65–77). Cham: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-38969-7_6
- Schreiner, C., Vogtenhuber, S., Bruneforth, M., Breit, S., & Karner, D. (2018). *Standardüberprüfung 2017 Mathematik, 8. Schulstufe*. Salzburg, Austria: IQS. Retrieved from <https://www.iqs.gv.at/themen/bildungsforschung/forschungsdatenbibliothek/daten-der-bildungsstandardueberpruefungen/fdb-standardueberpruefung-mathematik-8-schulstufe-2017>
- Schwab, S., Resch, K., Gitschthaler, M., Hassani, S., Latzko, D., Peter, A., & Walczuch, S. (2024). From policy to practice: How schools implement German language support policy in Austria. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 25(2), 176–192. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2023.2269726>
- Scriven, M. (1981). Summative teacher evaluation. In J. Millman & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), *The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers* (pp. 244–271). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Skott, J. (2014). The promises, problems, and prospects of research on teachers' beliefs. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teachers' beliefs* (pp. 13–30). New York: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203108437-8>

- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2000). *Linguistic genocide in education--or worldwide diversity and human rights?* (1st ed.). New York: Routledge
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410605191>
- Spiel, C., Popper, V., & Holzer, J. (2022). *Evaluation der Implementierung des Deutschfördermodells im Auftrag des Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Forschung. Abschlussbericht Oktober 2022*. Retrieved from
https://www.bmbwf.gv.at/dam/jcr:2ba5ac1e-3be9-4dd2-8d04-c2465169e726/deutschfoerdermodell_eval.pdf
- Statistik Austria (Ed.). (2022). *Bildung in Zahlen, Tabellenband*. Verlag Österreich GmbH. Retrieved May 19, 2024, from
https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/pages/325/Bildung_in_Zahlen_20_21_Tabellenband.pdf
- Statistik Austria. (2023). *Volkszählungen 1951 bis 2001, Registerzählung 2011 und 2021*[Data file]. Retrieved from
https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/pages/407/Bev_Staatb_seit_1951.ods
- Statistik Austria. (2024). *Statistik des Bevölkerungsstandes, Bevölkerung zu Jahresbeginn nach detaillierter Staatsangehörigkeit seit 2002* [Data file]. Retrieved from
https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/pages/407/Bev_Staatsangenh_Bundesland_Zeitreihe.ods
- Statistik Austria. (Ed.) (2019). *Schulstatistik: Schülerinnen und Schüler mit nicht-deutscher Umgangssprache im Schuljahr 2018/19*. Retrieved from
https://www.statistik.at/fileadmin/publications/Bildung_in_Zahlen_2018_19_-_Schluesselindikatoren_und_Analysen.pdf
- Statistik Austria. (Ed.) (2022). *Bildung in Zahlen (Tabellenband 2020/21)*. Retrieved December 2, 2023, from <https://www.statistik.at>.
- Stedje, A. (1976). Interferenz von Muttersprache und Zweitsprache auf eine dritte Sprache beim freien Sprechen—ein Vergleich. *Zielsprache Deutsch, 1*, 15–21.
- Stedje, A. (1977). Tredjespråksinterferens i fritt tal—en jämförelse studie. In R. Palmberg & H. Ringbom (Eds.), *Papers from the Conference on Contrastive Linguistics and Error Analysis. Stockholm and Åbo, 7–8 February, 1977* (pp. 141–158). Åbo: Åbo Akademi.
- Tai, K. W. H., & Wong, C.-Y. (2023). Empowering students through the construction of a translanguaging space in an English as a first language classroom. *Applied Linguistics, 44*(6), 1100–1151. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amac069>
- Thomaselli, E. (2023, March 23). “Arabisch kannst daheim reden”: Wenn Lehrkräfte Sprachverbote erteilen. *Der Standard*. Retrieved April 8, 2024, from
<https://www.derstandard.at/story/2000144794976/arabisch-kannst-daheim-reden-wenn-lehrkraefte-sprachverbote-erteilen>
- Ticheloven, A., Blom, E., Leseman, P., & McMonagle, S. (2019). Translanguaging challenges in multilingual classrooms: Scholar, teacher, and student perspectives. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 18*(3), 491–514.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2019.1686002>
- Tomasi, L. (2022). From coal mines to text mining: European institutions and the Babel of languages. In *Multilingual perspectives from Europe and beyond on language policy*

- and practice (1st ed., Vol. 1, pp. 110–134). London: Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429351075-9>
- Tuckman, B.W. (1972). *Conducting Educational Research*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Turner, M. (2019). *Multilingualism as a resource and a goal : using and learning languages in mainstream schools*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- van den Bergh, L., Denessen, E., Hornstra, L., Voeten, M., & Holland, R. W. (2010). The implicit prejudiced attitudes of teachers: Relations to teacher expectations and the ethnic achievement gap. *American Educational Research Journal*, 47, 497–527.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831209353594>
- Vetter, E., de Cillia, R., & Reisigl, M. (2024). *Sprachenpolitik In Österreich :Bestandsaufnahme 2021*. (1st ed.). Walter de Gruyter GmbH.
- Vikøy, A., & Haukås, Å. (2021). Norwegian L1 teachers' beliefs about a multilingual approach in increasingly diverse classrooms. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 18(4), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2021.1961779>
- Volgger, M. (2011). *Das multilinguale Selbst im Fremdsprachenunterricht: Zur Mehrsprachigkeitsbewusstheit lebensweltlich mehrsprachiger Französischlerner(innen)*. PhD thesis, University of Vienna, Austria.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Weaver, M. M. (2019). “I still think there's a need for proper, academic, Standard English”: Examining a teacher's negotiation of multiple language ideologies. *Linguistics and Education*, 49, 41–51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2018.12.005>
- Weber, J. (2009). *Multilingualism, education and change*. Frankfurt/Main, Germany: Peter Lang. <https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-653-00923-1>
- Wei, L. (2008). Research perspectives on bilingualism and multilingualism. In W. Li & M. Moyer (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of research methods on bilingualism and multilingualism* (pp. 3–17). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Wei, L. (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(5), 1222–1235. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.035>
- Wei, L. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39, 9–30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx044>
- Weinreich, U. (1953). *Languages in contact*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wien.GV. (2023). 5.8 Exkurs Mehrsprachigkeit. Retrieved May 8, 2042, from https://www.wien.gv.at/spezial/integrationsmonitor/bildung/exkurs-mehrsprachigkeit/#tabelle_id
- Wojnesitz, A. (2010). *"Drei Sprachen sind mehr als zwei": Mehrsprachigkeit an Wiener Gymnasien im Kontext von Migration*. Münster, Germany: Waxmann.
- Wokusch, S., & Lys, I. (2007). Überlegungen zu einer integrativen Fremdsprachendidaktik. *Beiträge zur Lehrerbildung*, 25(2), 168–179.
<https://doi.org/10.36950/bzl.25.2.2007.9917>

- Woods, D. (2003). The social construction of beliefs in the language classroom. In P. Kalaja & A. M. F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA* (Vol. 2, pp. 187–205). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-4751-0_9
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Young, A. S. (2014). Unpacking teachers' language ideologies: Attitudes, beliefs, and practiced language policies in schools in Alsace, France. *Language Awareness*, 23(1–2), 157–171. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2013.863902>
- Zhou, X., & Mann, S. (2021). Translanguaging in a Chinese university CLIL classroom: Teacher strategies and student attitudes. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 11(2), 265–289. <https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2021.11.2.5>

Appendix

Kurzfassung

Dass die Einstellungen von Lehrpersonen bedeutsam für die Gestaltung ihres Unterrichts sein können, ist in der Forschung weitgehend anerkannt. Für gewisse Schulformen der unteren, österreichischen Sekundarstufe wurde sogar festgestellt, dass jene Einstellungen nicht nur den Unterrichtsverlauf prägen können, sondern auch das Potenzial haben, Einfluss auf die Partizipation, und sogar die Lernerfolge von mehrsprachigen Schüler:innen auszuüben. Dies wird damit erklärt, dass eine positive Einstellung zu Mehrsprachigkeit, sowie die Ansätze eines „Translanguaging Stance“ (das Bewusstsein, dass alle sprachlichen Ressourcen der Schüler:innen wertvoll sind und für den Unterricht verwendet werden sollen) zu ein Klassenklima beitragen, das aktive Mitarbeit, die Involvierung von Identitäten in das Unterrichtsgeschehen, und das Selbstbewusstsein mehrsprachiger Schüler:innen im Englischunterricht fördert. Da dieser Themenkomplex vorwiegend quantitativ erforscht wurde, verfolgt diese Masterarbeit das Ziel, ein qualitatives Bild von der Umsetzung von Mehrsprachigkeit im Englischunterricht an einer Wiener Mittelschulklasse zu liefern. Dazu werden die Einstellungen zu Mehrsprachigkeit der zwei Lehrpersonen, die das Fach Englisch im Team unterrichten, in einem Interview ergründet. Zusätzlich wird mittels Fokusgruppeninterviews untersucht, wie die Schüler:innen die Einstellungen ihrer Lehrpersonen zu Mehrsprachigkeit wahrnehmen, und durch zwölf Hospitationen die praktische Implementierung von Mehrsprachigkeit im Englischunterricht dokumentiert. Die Ergebnisse der Studie zeigen, dass die zwei Lehrpersonen eine positive Einstellung gegenüber Mehrsprachigkeit haben. Diese spiegelt sich auch in der Gestaltung ihres Englischunterrichts wider, da die Mehrsprachigkeit ihrer Schüler:innen auf verschiedene Arten gefördert werden. Zusätzlich ist der Unterricht gekennzeichnet durch die Wertschätzung der kulturellen Identitäten von Schüler:innen, sowie durch den häufigen Einsatz von Humor. Dies spricht dafür, dass das Klassenzimmer zu einem Safe Space für mehrsprachige Schüler:innen wurde, in dem ihre Identitäten und sprachlichen Ressourcen Anerkennung finden. Angesichts des öffentlichen Diskurses, der die Mehrsprachigkeit urbaner Mittelschüler:innen in Österreich häufig als Defizit darstellt, wäre mehr Forschung wünschenswert, um positive Einstellungen von Lehrpersonen dazu zu kultivieren, und in weiterem Sinne, das österreichische Bildungssystem gerechter zu gestalten.

Abstract

The fact that teachers' attitudes can significantly impact their teaching is widely recognized in research. For certain types of schools at lower secondary level in Austria, it has been found that these attitudes can exert influence on students' participation and, in certain cases, even their academic attainment in EFL lessons. This was explained by the fact that a positive attitude towards multilingualism, as well as having the rudiments of a "translanguaging stance" (meaning the awareness that all students' linguistic resources are valuable and should be utilized for learning) create a classroom climate that promotes active participation, identity involvement, and the confidence of multilingual students in English lessons. As the topic of teacher attitudes toward multilingualism in Austria has mainly been researched quantitatively, this master's thesis attempts to provide a qualitative picture of the teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism and its practical implementation in a Viennese middle school EFL context. To this end, the attitudes toward multilingualism of team teachers are explored in an interview. In addition, focus group interviews are used to investigate how the students perceive their teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism, and the practical implementation of multilingualism in English lessons. These classroom practices related to multilingualism were documented through twelve observations. The results of the study show that the two teachers have a positive attitude toward multilingualism. This attitude is also reflected in the English lessons, in which the multilingualism of their students is promoted in various ways. In addition, the lessons were characterized by the fact that students' cultural identities were not only considered and valued but also by the teachers' frequent use of humor. This suggests that the teachers manage to turn their classroom into a safe space for multilingual students where their identities and linguistic resources are recognized. Given the public discourse that often portrays the multilingualism of urban middle school students in Austria as a deficit, more research would be desirable to cultivate positive attitudes among teachers and, more broadly, to make the Austrian education system more equitable.

Fragen Maria

Einleitende Fragen

- Wie viele Jahre hast du die Klasse schon unterrichtet?
- Welche Sprachen werden in der Klasse gesprochen?
- Wie/Wann hast du das sprachliche Repertoire der SuS kennengelernt?

Unterrichtsbezogene Fragen

- Wie gehst du konkret im Englisch Unterricht auf die Mehrsprachigkeit deiner SuS ein? Was wären typische Taktiken/Überlegungen, die du anstellst während der Stundenplanung für den E-Unterricht?
- Welche Materialien/Quellen werden zur Förderung von Mehrsprachigkeit im Englisch-Unterricht verwendet?
- Mit welchen Mitteln machst du sprachliche/kulturelle Vielfalt in der Klasse sichtbar?
- Aus den Hospitationen ist hervorgegangen, dass die Klasse manchmal in Englisch geteilt wird, kannst du mir mehr über die Gründe erzählen?
- Du wechselst manchmal zwischen English und Deutsch im Unterricht, kannst du mir mehr über die Gründe dahinter erzählen? (
- Während der Hospitationen wurde oft Classroom management mit Humor verbunden, kannst du mir mehr darüber erzählen?
- In den Focus Group Interviews wurde ein Schüler erwähnt, der noch wenig Deutsch bzw. Englisch konnte, und oft Hilfe von Klassenkamerad:innen in Anspruch nahm. Kannst du mir mehr darüber erzählen, wie du Peer support im Englischunterricht verwendest? (Wie wird ausgewählt, wer wem hilft?)

Reglementierung von Sprachen

- In welchen Situationen wird die Familiensprache der SuS erlaubt, in welchen nicht? Warum?

Vorbereitung im Lehramtstudium

- Wurdest du während deines Studiums ausreichend darauf vorbereitet, in sprachlich und kulturell vielfältigen Klassen zu unterrichten? (Wenn nein, was hättest du dir gewünscht?)

Schulkultur

- Welche Programme an der Schule existieren zur Förderung von Mehrsprachigkeit
- Welche Weiterbildungen zu MS besucht? Wie wurde Wissen zu MS in Ausbildung gefördert?

Einstellung

- Du hast einmal erwähnt, dass du nach dem Studium speziell in eine Schule mit vielen mehrsprachigen SuS wolltest- kannst du mir mehr darüber erzählen warum?
- Wo liegen deiner Meinung nach die Vorteile einer mehrsprachigen Klasse? Was für Challenges sind für dich damit verbunden? (Gleiche Situation am Anfang der Karriere oder anders?)

Auffassung der Lehrer:inneneinstellung durch SuS

- Wie vermutest du,

- fassen es deine SuS auf, dass du sie ihre Familiensprachen verwenden lässt?
- Hast du das Gefühl, dass eine Korrelation zwischen einem guten Klassenklima und dem Wissen der Lehrperson über das sprachliche Repertoire der SuS besteht? Kannst du mir von Beispielen erzählen?
- Hast du den Eindruck, dass multikulturelle Themen, oder Themen die die Familiensprache der SuS involvieren, eine aktive Beteiligung der Klasse im Englischunterricht fördern?
- Was ist dir sonst noch im Hinblick auf ein gutes Klassenklima mit mehrsprachigen SuS wichtig?

Persönliche Motive/Anforderungen

- Warum ist es dir wichtig, das gesamte sprachliche Repertoire deiner SuS zu nutzen?
- Wie ist dein Interesse an Mehrsprachigkeit entstanden? Kannst du dich an Situationen erinnern, die dafür maßgeblich waren?
- Kannst du mir mehr über Anforderungen an dich selbst erzählen, die du im Hinblick auf das Unterrichten einer mehrsprachigen Klasse hast?

Wünsche/Needs

- Hast du Wünsche/Bedarf an etwas, das dir helfen könnte, noch besser auf mehrsprachige SuS in deinem Unterricht einzugehen? Wenn ja, was?

Clean Up Question

- Ich wäre somit auch schon fast am Ende des Interviews angelangt- abschließend will ich noch fragen, ob es etwas Wichtiges gibt, das ich dich noch nicht gefragt hab, oder ob du noch etwas anderes sagen möchtest?

Fragen Rio

Einleitende Fragen

- Wie lange unterrichtest du schon in der 4a?
- Welche Sprachen werden in der Klasse gesprochen?
- Wie/Wann hast du das sprachliche Repertoire der SuS kennengelernt?

Unterrichtsbezogene Fragen

- Wie gehst du konkret im Englischunterricht auf die Mehrsprachigkeit deiner SuS ein? Was wären typische Taktiken/Überlegungen, die du anstellst während der Stundenplanung für den E-Unterricht?
- Welche Materialien/Quellen werden zur Förderung von Mehrsprachigkeit im Englisch-Unterricht verwendet?
- Mit welchen Mitteln machst du sprachliche/kulturelle Vielfalt in der Klasse sichtbar?
- Du wechselst manchmal zwischen English und Deutsch im Unterricht, kannst du mir mehr über die Gründe dahinter erzählen?
- Aus den Hospitationen ist hervorgegangen, dass die Klasse manchmal in Englisch geteilt wird, kannst du mir mehr über die Gründe erzählen?

Reglementierung von Sprachen

- In welchen Situationen wird die Familiensprache der SuS erlaubt, in welchen nicht?

Vorbereitung im Lehramtstudium

- Du unterrichtest im Rahmen von Teach 4 Austria an der Schule, ist das richtig?
- Was hast du studiert?

- Musik ist ein Medium, von dem gesagt wird, dass es Kommunikation über sprachliche Grenzen hinweg ermöglichen kann-Hast du schon einmal bewusst einen Fokus auf Musik und Mehrsprachigkeit beim Unterrichten, oder während deines Studiums gesetzt?

Schulkultur

- Welche Programme an der Schule existieren zur Förderung von Mehrsprachigkeit
- Welche Weiterbildungen zu MS besucht? Wie wurde dein Wissen über Mehrsprachigkeit bisher gefördert?

Einstellung

- Wo liegen deiner Meinung nach die Vorteile einer mehrsprachigen Klasse? Was für Challenges sind für dich damit verbunden? (Gleiche Situation am Anfang der Karriere oder anders?)

Auffassung der Lehrer:inneneinstellung durch SuS

- Wie vermutest du fassen es deine SuS auf, dass du sie ihre Familiensprachen verwenden lässt?
- Hast du das Gefühl, dass eine Korrelation zwischen einem guten Klassenklima und dem Wissen der Lehrperson über das sprachliche Repertoire der SuS besteht? Kannst du mir von Beispielen erzählen?
- Hast du den Eindruck, dass multikulturelle Themen, bzw. Themen, die die Familiensprache der SuS involvieren, eine aktive Beteiligung der Klasse im Englischunterricht fördern?
- Was ist dir sonst noch im Hinblick auf ein gutes Klassenklima mit mehrsprachigen SuS wichtig?

Persönliche Motive/Anforderungen

- (Warum) ist es dir wichtig, „das gesamte sprachliche Repertoire deiner SuS zu nutzen?
- GGF: Wie ist dein Interesse an Mehrsprachigkeit entstanden? Kannst du dich an Situationen erinnern, die dafür maßgeblich waren?
- Kannst du mir mehr über Anforderungen an dich selbst erzählen, die du im Hinblick auf das Unterrichten einer mehrsprachigen Klasse hast?

Wünsche/Needs

- Hast du Wünsche/Bedarf an etwas, das dir helfen könnte, noch besser auf mehrsprachige SuS in deinem Unterricht einzugehen? Wenn ja, was?

Clean Up Question

Ich wäre somit auch schon fast am Ende des Interviews angelangt- abschließend will ich noch fragen, ob es etwas Wichtiges gibt, das ich dich noch nicht gefragt hab, oder ob du noch etwas anderes sagen möchtest?

Focus Group Questions

Fragen wurden adaptiert von Erling, Brummer, et al., 2022.

Teil 1: Demographische Information, Sprachliche Ressourcen)

- Wie heißt du, und wie alt bist du?
- Welche Sprachen sprichst du? Welche davon kannst du lesen oder schreiben?
- Welche Sprachen sprichst du besser als Deutsch, welche gleich gut, und welche schlechter?
- Wart/seid ihr im muttersprachlichen Unterricht?

Teil 2: Klassenklima

- Wie findet ihr den Englischunterricht?
- Wie fühlt ihr euch während des Englischunterrichts, wie ist die Atmosphäre?
- Wie denkt ihr fühlen sich eure Klassenkamerad:innen?
- Wissen Frau X und Herr X welche Sprachen ihr sprecht?

Teil 3: Unterrichtspraktiken der Lehrpersonen, Miteinbeziehung kultureller Themen und interkultureller Vergleiche

- Helft ihr euren Mitschülern im Englischunterricht? Wie?
- Macht ihr aktiv mit im Englischunterricht? Sagt ihr oft eure Meinung?
- Wird manchmal deutsch im Englischunterricht gesprochen? Hilft euch es Dinge aus dem Unterricht besser zu verstehen?
- Dürft ihr manchmal andere Sprachen im Englischunterricht verwenden, um Wörter zu erklären? Wozu noch?
- Redet ihr oft über kulturelle Themen im Englischunterricht, wie verschiedene Religionen, Traditionen, Unterschiede und Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen Ländern?
- Lernt ihr über andere Länder im Englischunterricht?

Observation sheet multilingualism

Date, Time	Class (whole class/group of students)	Teacher

Observed Lesson

Time	Language skills	Interaction format	Procedure	Teacher talk	Languages used by teachers and students (English/German /LX)	Modes of communication used (linguistic/para-linguistic)	Differentiation

Classroom Atmosphere during the lesson

Positive O/Negative O/ Neutral O

Positive Incidents	Negative Incidents