



PhD-FHSE-2025-033  
The Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences

## DISSERTATION

Defence held on 15/12/2025 in Esch-sur-Alzette

to obtain the degree of

DOCTEUR DE L'UNIVERSITÉ DU LUXEMBOURG

EN SCIENCE DU LANGAGE

by

**Argyro-Maria SKOURMALLA**

Born on 09 September 1994 in Athens (Greece)

LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY IN TEACHING AND LEARNING  
IN MULTILINGUAL HIGHER EDUCATION  
INSTITUTIONS: THE CASE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF  
LUXEMBOURG

### Dissertation defence committee

Prof. Dr Ingrid DE SAINT-GEORGES, Chair  
*Associate Professor, Université du Luxembourg*

Prof. Dr Birgit HUEMER, Supervisor  
*Assistant Professor, Université du Luxembourg*

Prof. Dr George ANDROULAKIS  
*Professor, University of Thessaly*

Prof. Dr Heinz SIEBURG  
*Associate Professor, Université du Luxembourg*

Prof. Dr Eva VETTER  
*Professor, Universität Wien*



## Affidavit / Statement of originality

*I declare that this thesis:*

- is the result of my own work. Any contribution from any other party, and any use of generative artificial intelligence technologies have been duly cited and acknowledged;
- is not substantially the same as any other that I have submitted, and;
- is not being concurrently submitted for a degree, diploma or other qualification at the University of Luxembourg or any other University or similar institution except as specified in the text.

*With my approval I furthermore confirm the following:*

- I have adhered to the rules set out in the University of Luxembourg's Code of Conduct and the Doctoral Education Agreement (DEA)<sup>1</sup>, in particular with regard to Research Integrity.
- I have documented all methods, data, and processes truthfully and fully.
- I have mentioned all the significant contributors to the work.
- I am aware that the work may be screened electronically for originality.

I acknowledge that if any issues are raised regarding good research practices based on the review of the thesis, the examination may be postponed pending the outcome of any investigation of such issues. If a degree was conferred, any such subsequently discovered issues may result in the cancellation of the degree.

---

**Approved on 2025-09-30**

---

<sup>1</sup> If applicable (DEA is compulsory since August 2020)



# Abstract

Higher education institutions play an important role in bridging the “global and universal with the local and particular” (Frank & Meyer, 2007, p. 289). Being educational settings, universities are closely tied to national aspirations for prosperity as well as international influence (van der Walt, 2015). In today’s superdiverse (Vertovec, 2007) classrooms, universities have become significant and rich sites for examining the dynamic and implications of linguistic diversity (Jenkins & Mauranten, 2019).

The present thesis takes the University of Luxembourg, which is characterised by its multilingual profile and diverse community, as a case study to examine the role and impact of institutional multilingualism and linguistic diversity. Specifically, the study examines how multilingualism and linguistic diversity intersect with institutional policies, educational processes, and the lived experiences of teachers and undergraduate students. In doing so, the study is guided by two objectives. The first is to offer a comprehensive overview of the university’s linguistic reality through an analysis of policy documents and insights from teachers and undergraduate students. The second is to identify the opportunities and challenges encountered by the two groups in teaching and learning.

To address the research aims, data is collected through institutional policy documents, interviews with teachers, and an online survey followed by focus groups with undergraduate students. The findings reveal that even though multilingualism is part of the university’s identity, the institution’s commitment is not matched by a framework for integrating linguistic diversity into the educational process.

The study contributes to deeper understanding linguistic diversity at this multilingual university and highlights the need for more systematic policies that offer actionable guidance in embedding plurilingual practices across academic programmes. From a pedagogical perspective, this research argues for plurilingual teaching practices that recognise and validate students’ full linguistic repertoires. From a methodological perspective, this research underscores the value of combining various research methods to examine institutional policies alongside individual experiences. Overall, the study concludes that the university needs to go beyond policy and invest in pedagogical frameworks, targeted training programmes, and dedicated institutional resources that will promote an inclusive educational environment and encourage linguistic diversity in practice.



## Résumé

Les établissements d'enseignement supérieur jouent un rôle important en articulant les dynamiques globales et universelles avec les réalités locales (Frank & Meyer, 2007, p. 289). En tant qu'espaces éducatifs, les universités sont liées aux aspirations nationales de prospérité économique et d'influence internationale (van der Walt, 2015). Dans le contexte actuel marqué par une diversité croissante (Vertovec, 2007), les universités constituent des lieux importants et riches pour examiner la dynamique et les implications de la diversité linguistique (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019).

La présente thèse prend l'Université du Luxembourg comme étude de cas. Cette institution, caractérisée par un profil multilingue et une communauté très diverse, offre un terrain particulièrement riche pour examiner le rôle et l'impact du multilinguisme institutionnel et de la diversité linguistique. Plus précisément, l'étude examine la manière dont ces dimensions s'articulent avec les politiques institutionnelles, les processus pédagogiques et les expériences vécues par les enseignants et les étudiants du bachelor. Deux objectifs principaux guident cette recherche. Le premier est de proposer une analyse approfondie de la réalité linguistique de l'université à travers l'examen de documents de politique linguistique ainsi que les témoignages des enseignants et des étudiants. Le second est d'identifier les opportunités et les défis rencontrés par les deux groupes dans leurs pratiques d'enseignement et d'apprentissage.

Pour atteindre les objectifs de la recherche, les données ont été recueillies à partir de documents institutionnels, d'entretiens avec des enseignants, ainsi que d'une enquête en ligne suivie de groupes de discussion avec des étudiants de premier cycle. Les résultats montrent que, bien que le multilinguisme fait partie de l'identité de l'université, l'engagement institutionnel ne s'accompagne pas d'un cadre suffisamment structuré pour intégrer la diversité linguistique dans les pratiques pédagogiques.

Cette étude contribue à une meilleure compréhension de la diversité linguistique dans cette université multilingue et souligne la nécessité de politiques plus systématiques offrant des orientations concrètes pour intégrer les pratiques plurilingues dans les programmes universitaires. D'un point de vue pédagogique, la recherche plaide en faveur de pratiques d'enseignement plurilingues qui reconnaissent et valident l'ensemble du répertoire linguistique des étudiants. D'un point de vue méthodologique, cette recherche souligne l'intérêt de combiner différentes méthodes de recherche pour examiner les politiques institutionnelles parallèlement aux expériences individuelles. L'étude conclut que l'université doit aller au-delà des politiques et investir dans des cadres pédagogiques, des programmes de formation ciblés et des ressources

institutionnelles dédiées qui favoriseront un environnement éducatif inclusif et encourageront la diversité linguistique dans la pratique.

# Zusammenfassung

Hochschulen spielen eine bedeutende Rolle bei der Überbrückung des „Globalen und Universellen mit dem Lokalen und Besonderen“ (Frank & Meyer, 2007, S. 289). Als Bildungsinstitutionen sind Universitäten eng mit nationalen Bestrebungen nach Wohlstand sowie internationalem Einfluss verbunden (van der Walt, 2015). In den heutigen superdiversen (Vertovec, 2007) Lernumgebungen sind Universitäten zu zentralen und reichen Schauplätzen geworden, um die Dynamiken und Implikationen sprachlicher Vielfalt zu untersuchen (Jenkins & Mauranten, 2019).

Die vorliegende Arbeit nimmt die Universität Luxemburg, die sich durch ihr multilingual geprägtes Profil und ihre diverse Gemeinschaft auszeichnet, als Fallstudie, um die Rolle und Wirkung institutioneller Mehrsprachigkeit und sprachlicher Diversität zu analysieren. Konkret untersucht die Studie, wie Mehrsprachigkeit und sprachliche Vielfalt mit institutionellen Richtlinien, Bildungsprozessen sowie den gelebten Erfahrungen von Lehrenden und Studierenden im Bachelorbereich zusammenwirken. Dabei folgt die Arbeit zwei Zielen: Erstens soll ein umfassender Überblick über die sprachliche Realität der Universität geboten werden, basierend auf der Analyse von Richtlinien dokumente sowie den Perspektiven von Lehrenden und Bachelorstudierenden. Zweitens sollen die Chancen und Herausforderungen identifiziert werden, denen beide Gruppen im Lehr- und Lernkontext begegnen.

Zur Beantwortung der Forschungsfragen wurden institutionelle Grundsatzdokumente analysiert, Interviews mit Lehrenden geführt sowie eine Online-Umfrage mit anschließenden Fokusgruppen mit Bachelorstudierenden durchgeführt. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass Mehrsprachigkeit zwar Teil der Identität der Universität ist, das institutionelle Engagement jedoch nicht von einem Rahmen begleitet wird, der sprachliche Vielfalt systematisch in die Bildungsprozesse integriert.

Die Studie leistet einen Beitrag zu einem vertieften Verständnis sprachlicher Diversität an dieser multilingualen Universität und hebt die Notwendigkeit systematischerer Strategien hervor, die praktikable Orientierung für die Verankerung plurilingualler Praktiken in Studienprogrammen bieten. Aus pädagogischer Perspektive plädiert die Untersuchung für plurilinguale Lehrpraktiken, die die gesamten sprachlichen Repertoires der Studierenden anerkennen und wertschätzen. Methodisch unterstreicht die Forschung den Mehrwert einer Kombination verschiedener Erhebungsmethoden, um institutionelle Regelwerke im Zusammenspiel mit individuellen Erfahrungen zu beleuchten. Insgesamt kommt die Studie zu

dem Schluss, dass die Universität über reine Policy-Formulierungen hinausgehen und in pädagogische Rahmenkonzepte, gezielte Weiterbildungsprogramme und institutionelle Ressourcen investieren muss, um ein inklusives Lernumfeld zu fördern und sprachliche Vielfalt nachhaltig in der Praxis zu stärken.

## Table of contents

Abstract .....	i
Résumé.....	ii
Zusammenfassung.....	iv
Table of contents .....	vi
List of Abbreviations.....	ix
List of Figures .....	xi
List of Tables.....	xii
Introduction.....	1
The Present Research.....	4
Structure of the Thesis .....	10
1. Literature review .....	12
1.1 Language Policies in Multilingual Universities .....	14
1.1.1 Managing Linguistic Diversity .....	16
1.1.2 Internationalisation and Medium of Instruction in Higher Education.....	23
1.1.3 Policies and Initiatives on Linguistic Diversity in the European Context.....	35
1.1.4 Language Ideologies and Practices in Language Policy .....	38
1.2 Teaching and Learning in Multilingual University Classrooms .....	40
1.2.1 Educational Approaches to Linguistic Diversity in Higher Education.....	41
1.2.2 Plurilingual Practices for Multilingual University Classrooms.....	44
1.2.3 Implications of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning .....	48
2. Theoretical Framework .....	54
2.1 Policy Document Analysis as an Analytical Approach .....	54
2.2 Reflexive Thematic Analysis as Interpretive Framework .....	57
2.3 Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) for Discourse Analysis .....	60
2.3.1 The Interpersonal Metafunction .....	63
2.3.2 Discourse Semantics.....	64
2.4 The Appraisal Framework .....	66
2.4.1 Attitude .....	68
2.4.2 Engagement .....	74
2.4.3 Graduation .....	76
3. Methodology .....	79
3.1 Research Questions .....	80
3.2 Research Approach.....	82
3.2.1 The University of Luxembourg as a Case Study .....	83
3.2.2 Triangulation in Data Collection and Research Methods .....	88
3.3 Policy Documents .....	91
3.3.1 Policy Document Analysis for Institutional Policy Documents .....	92
3.3.2 Reflexive Thematic Analysis of Institutional Policy Documents.....	93
3.4 Social Actors-Teachers and Undergraduate Students.....	102
3.4.1 Ethical Considerations.....	103
3.4.2 The Role of the Researcher.....	105
3.4.3 Research Methods for Data Collection from Social Actors .....	107
3.4.3.1 Semistructured Interviews with Teachers .....	107
3.4.3.2 Online Survey with Undergraduate Students.....	115
3.4.3.3 Focus Groups with Undergraduate Students.....	124

3.4.4 Approaches to the Analysis of Data from Teachers and Undergraduate Students.	128
3.4.4.1 Reflexive Thematic Analysis of Data from Interviews, Focus Groups and Open-ended Survey Questions .....	129
3.4.4.2 Applying the Appraisal Framework to Data from Interviews, Focus Groups and Open-ended Survey Questions .....	139
3.4.4.3 Analysis of the Closed-Ended Survey Questions .....	150
4. Data Analysis .....	153
4.1 Policy Documents .....	155
4.1.1 Insights from Policy document Analysis .....	158
4.1.1.1 Loi modifiée du 27 juin 2018 ayant pour objet l'organisation de l'Université du Luxembourg .....	162
4.1.1.2 Règlement d'ordre intérieur de l'Université du Luxembourg (ROI) .....	167
4.1.1.3 Règlement des études : Annexe au règlement des études – programmes de bachelor .....	170
4.1.1.4 Charte pédagogique .....	179
4.1.1.5 Politique du Multilinguisme .....	181
4.1.2 Thematic Insights from Policy Documents .....	183
4.1.2.1 Perspectives on Language, Multilingualism, and Diversity in Institutional Policy .....	187
4.1.2.2 Language Requirements, Learning Objectives, and Language Roles in Institutional Documents .....	189
4.1.2.3 Institutional Measures to Support Multilingualism and Linguistic Diversity	193
4.2 Teachers and Students' Perspectives .....	195
4.2.1 Insights from Teachers and Undergraduate Students .....	196
4.2.1.1 "I want to understand better the reality in which I work"—Language Reality in Teaching and Learning at the University of Luxembourg .....	207
4.2.1.2 Teaching and Learning Practices in Linguistically Diverse Classrooms .....	231
4.2.1.3 Implications of Multilingualism and Linguistic Diversity in the Educational Process .....	251
4.2.1.4 "I think that the university of Luxembourg insists on multilingualism for very good reasons but then we are left alone"—Supporting University Members in Navigating Linguistic Diversity .....	269
5. Discussion .....	281
5.1 Multilingualism and Diversity as Core Values for Excellence .....	282
5.2 Addressing the Gap Between Language Policy and Language Reality in Classrooms .....	283
5.3 The Roles and Status of Languages in Teaching and Learning at the University of Luxembourg .....	286
5.4 Opportunities and Challenges in Multilingual Classrooms: The Need for Plurilingual Pedagogical Practices .....	292
5.5 Applying the Appraisal Framework to Data from Teachers and Students .....	298
6. Limitations .....	302
7. Future Prospects .....	306
8. Conclusions .....	309
8.1 Summary of Key Findings .....	309
8.2 Implications of the Present Study .....	312

8.3 Limitations and Outlooks .....	316
References .....	319
Appendix .....	360
1. Transcription Symbols .....	360
2. Information Notice about Personal Data Processing .....	361
2.1 Teachers (Semistructured Interviews) .....	361
2.2 Undergraduate Students (Focus Group Discussions) .....	364
3. Informed Consent Forms.....	368
3.1 Teachers (Semistructured Interviews) .....	368
3.2 Undergraduate Students (Focus Group Discussions) .....	370
3.3 Legal Basis of the Research.....	372
4. Ethics Review Panel (ERP) Approval .....	373
5. Data Protection Office (DPO) Approval .....	373
6. Set of Questions .....	374
6.1 Semistructured Interviews with Teachers .....	374
6.2 Focus Groups with Undergraduate Students .....	375
6.3 Online Survey for Undergraduate Students .....	376

# List of Abbreviations

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)  
Research questions (RQ)  
Systemic functional linguistics (SFL)  
European Higher Education Area (EHEA)  
Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)  
English–Medium Instruction (EMI)  
English–Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS)  
Languages other than English (LOTE)  
Other languages as medium of instruction (OLMI)  
French–Medium Instruction (FMI)  
German as a scientific language (DaW)  
European Civil Society Platform to Promote Multilingualism (ECSPM)  
European Education Area (EEA)  
Lingua receptiva (LaRa)  
Integrated Didactic Approaches (IDAL)  
Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE)  
Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)  
Institut Supérieur de Technologie (IST)  
Institut Supérieur d'Études et de Recherches Pédagogiques (ISERP)  
Institut d'Études Éducatives et Sociales (IEES)  
Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)  
Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)  
Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)  
Times Higher Education (THE)  
University's Language Centre (ULLC)  
Règlement d'ordre intérieur (ROI)  
University of Luxembourg (UL)  
Ethics Review Panel (ERP)  
Data Protection Office (DPO)  
General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)  
Registered Processing Activities (RPA)  
Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP–Q)  
Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)  
Règlement des études (RE)  
Demokratesch Partei (DP)  
Lëtzebuurger Sozialistesche Aarbechterpartei (LSAP)  
National Institute of Languages (INLL)  
American Psychological Association (APA)  
Universitas Montium (UNITA)  
Universal Design for Learning (UDL)  
Second Language Acquisition (SLA)  
Institut National des Langues Luxembourg (INLL)

Language Dynamics and Management of Diversity (DYLAN project)  
Artificial intelligence (AI)  
Promoting Plurilingual Education (PEP)  
Advancing Competence in Teaching for Student Success (ACT)  
Institute for Innovative Teaching and Learning (I2TL)

# List of Figures

- Figure 1: Analytical framework for the management of linguistic diversity in higher education (adapted from Darquennes et al., 2020, p. 19).
- Figure 2: The analytical steps for the application of the reflexive thematic analysis.
- Figure 3: Language strata (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 9).
- Figure 4: Stratification of language (adapted from Matthiessen, 1995).
- Figure 5: Language strata and metafunctions (adapted from Santosa, 2016, p. 48).
- Figure 6: Polarity and modality (adapted from Halliday & Matthiesen, 2014, p. 176).
- Figure 7: Discourse semantics across the three metafunctions (Martin, 2014, p. 10).
- Figure 8: The relationship between affect, judgment, and appreciation (Martin & White, 2005, p. 45).
- Figure 9: The system of attitude (adapted from Martin & White, 2005).
- Figure 10: Multilingualism at the University of Luxembourg (Multilingualism Policy, 2020, p. 9).
- Figure 11: Triangulation in the present research.
- Figure 12: Steps for purposive or judgemental sampling in interviews with teachers.
- Figure 13: Distribution of interviewees per age group.
- Figure 14: Frequency of teaching language per monolingual, bilingual or trilingual courses.
- Figure 15: Distribution of first languages among participating teachers.
- Figure 16: Distribution of additional languages among participating teachers.
- Figure 17: Distribution of completed surveys by language version and gender.
- Figure 18: Respondents' profile by age group and faculty.
- Figure 19: Distribution of first languages among undergraduate respondents of the survey.
- Figure 20: Distribution of additional languages among undergraduate respondents of the survey.
- Figure 21: Distribution of participating students' profile in focus groups by age group and faculty.
- Figure 22: Distribution of first languages among student participants of the focus groups.
- Figure 23: Distribution of additional languages among student participants of the focus groups.
- Figure 24: Annotation scheme, screenshot from the UAM CorpusTool.
- Figure 25: The system of engagement as applied in the analysis of data from interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus groups.
- Figure 26: The system of gradation applied in the present research.
- Figure 27: Structure of the Data Analysis chapter.
- Figure 28: Timeline of rector appointments and the five approved documents.
- Figure 29: Code portrait of the semistructured interviews, produced in MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021).
- Figure 30: Code portrait of the open-ended survey questions, produced in MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021).
- Figure 31: Code portraits of the focus groups, produced in MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021).
- Figure 32: Distribution of responses to question about use of teaching language in class.
- Figure 33: Distribution of students' responses on the frequency and languages they use in the educational process.
- Figure 34: Distribution of responses to question about the use of multiple languages in class.
- Figure 35: Distribution of responses to question about confusion caused with the use of multiple languages in class.
- Figure 36: Distribution of students' responses on the usefulness of using their first language(s) for the different purposes.
- Figure 37: Visual representation of demographic variables and teachers' perceptions of linguistic diversity, made in Canva.
- Figure 38: Word cloud with students' experience in studying at the University of Luxembourg.
- Figure 39: Distribution of students' perception to the implications of linguistic diversity.
- Figure 40: The hierarchy of languages within the local and the national context.

# List of Tables

- Table 1: Perspectives about EMI in higher education (adapted from Lueg, 2018, p. 49–50 and 56–57).
- Table 2: Multilingual education and effects on language (Hornberger, 1991, p. 223).
- Table 3: Framework for policy documents analysis (adapted from Cardno, 2018, p. 631).
- Table 4: Categories of affect (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 51).
- Table 5: Judgement in social esteem (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 53).
- Table 6: Judgement in social sanction (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 53).
- Table 7: Appreciation in attitude (adapted from Martin and White, 2005, p. 56).
- Table 8: Examples of engagement.
- Table 9: Graduation in attitudinal meanings (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 151).
- Table 10: Teaching language(s) per bachelor programme, based on the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate programmes.
- Table 11: Research methods for data collection.
- Table 12: Selection of indicative codes in the data from policy documents.
- Table 13: Development of themes for policy documents.
- Table 14: Themes from the analysis of policy documents with their definitions and examples.
- Table 15: Profile of teacher participants for the pilot study.
- Table 16: Distribution of potential teacher participants per faculty and gender.
- Table 17: Distribution of teachers at the end of 2023, per faculty and gender.
- Table 18: Distribution of participating teachers, per faculty and gender.
- Table 19: Undergraduate students per Faculty and nationality (hierarchical).
- Table 20: Outline of the online survey for undergraduate students.
- Table 21: Analysis of teachers and students' data by data set.
- Table 22: Codes in the data from teachers and students
- Table 23: Development of themes for Data set 1.
- Table 24: Themes and subthemes from interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus group discussions (Data set 1).
- Table 25: Excerpt from the annotated spreadsheet of the interview with teacher T7.
- Table 26: Example from the Excel document of closed-ended survey questions.
- Table 27: Question groups per Excel sheet.
- Table 28: Overview of key aspects per axis from the policy document analysis.
- Table 29: Articles Modified in the 2023 Version of the Law on the Organisation of the University of Luxembourg.
- Table 30: Official teaching languages and entry requirements per bachelor programme according to the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study.
- Table 31: Themes from the reflexive thematic analysis of the five policy documents.
- Table 32: Distribution of coded segments per document.
- Table 33: Teaching languages per course, example from the Bachelor of Psychology.
- Table 34: Distribution of coded segments in interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus groups.
- Table 35: Word frequency per language and data set (adapted from MAXQDA).
- Table 36: Realisation of evaluations regarding language reality in the educational process.
- Table 37: List of practices reported by teachers and students.
- Table 38: Students' views on how helpful they find it when teachers switch between the university's languages during the lectures.
- Table 39: Distribution of students' responses to questions about the use of first language(s), per faculty, gender, age group, and first language(s).
- Table 40: Realisation of evaluations regarding teaching and learning practices in multilingual classrooms.

Table 41: Realisation of evaluations regarding the implications of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process.

Table 42: Overview of the recommendations put forward by teachers and students.

Table 43: Realisations of evaluations regarding the university's support in navigating linguistic diversity.

Table 44: Adapted from University Transcriptions (Jefferson Transcription System - A guide to the symbols - University Transcription Services)

# Introduction

Increasing human mobility, globalisation, and the widespread use of new technologies have fundamentally reshaped the global and European demographic, social and political landscape (Duarte & Kirsch, 2020). These changes have resulted to an increase in language contact and multilingual exchanges (Jenkins & Mauraanen, 2019). In the field of education, the impact of these changes is particularly evident in superdiverse (Vertovec, 2007) classrooms characterised by social, cultural and linguistic diversity (Meissner & Vertovec, 2014). This diversity raises important questions about how institutions navigate linguistic diversity and the complex linguistic reality in the educational process (de Saint-Georges, 2013).

In this context, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2025) highlights the broader value of higher education as “a rich cultural and scientific asset” that supports personal growth and drives economic, technological, and social transformation. Higher education promotes skills, attitudes and knowledge that are essential in shaping active individuals who will contribute to society and align with the demands of labour markets (Bergan et al., 2009). Kyllonen (2012) further emphasises that higher education has been shown to increase community engagement, a fundamental factor to democratic societies. In the European context, this vision is reiterated in the Sorbonne Declaration (1998), which highlights the pivotal role of European higher education institutions in the promotion and preservation of cultures.

Universities are central to this discussion, serving as key higher education institutions that constitute the bridge between “the global and universal with the local and particular” (Frank & Meyer, 2007, p. 289). Their significance touches upon both the individual and society (Kyllonen, 2012). As Martyniuk (2012) suggests, universities pursue a dual objective by promoting civilization alongside competitiveness. Universities are closely tied to national aspirations for prosperity and international influence (van der Walt, 2015) and are correlated with lower unemployment rates and better job opportunities (Oreopoulos & Salvanes, 2011).

Amid global changes, universities have witnessed a notable shift in their ethnolinguistic composition, characterised by growing linguistic and cultural diversity among teachers and students (Hofmann, 2020). In this evolving environment, the role of language has changed from a peripheral one to a defining feature of “a new reality that must be embraced if colleges and universities are to be successful in a pluralistic and interconnected world” (Smith & Schonfeld, 2020, p. 18). Consequently, discussions around diversity and language in universities have

become increasingly urgent and complex, driven by the need to address both international and national contexts (Smith, 2020).

Shifts in ethnolinguistic composition of universities have deeply influenced the academic landscape and have made universities a significant and rich site for examining the dynamics of multilingualism and the implications of diversity (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). A substantial body of research in higher education has explored the management of linguistic diversity in formal settings (e.g. Darquennes et al., 2020) as well as in more informal contexts (e.g. Hazel & Mortensen, 2013). In previous relevant research, scholars have explored various aspects of language use, including language alternation and language choice (Haberland et al., 2013), as well as the broader opportunities and challenges that emerge in multilingual academic environments (Byram et al. 2019; Gajo et al. 2013). Relevant research has also addressed the ongoing tension between plurilingual realities of student populations and the predominantly monolingually orientation of pedagogical practices (Gayton et al., 2025; Nwachukwu et al., 2024).

Nevertheless, a persistent gap in the literature lies in the limited research that directly connects institutional language policies with the lived experiences, practices, and perspectives of teachers and students. In particular, there remains a need to explore how policies are interpreted and enacted by teachers, and how students experience and respond to linguistic expectations in the educational process. Hu and Lei (2014) observe that there is a lack of studies that integrate analyses of institutional policies with actual teaching practices. Highlighting this disconnect, Orduna–Nocito and Sánchez–García (2022) stress the importance of integrating the two perspectives in order to make “top–down and bottom–up ends meet and support each other coherently” (Orduna–Nocito & Sánchez–García, 2022, p. 2). To that, Llorca et al. (2015) add the need for research that is locally grounded, attentive to institutional and national language policies, and responsive to the lived realities of students in specific contexts. Expanding on this argument, scholars such as Preece (2019) and Odeniyi and Lazar (2020) underline the importance of investigating how students draw on their full linguistic repertoires in discipline–specific contexts, in order to inform the development of inclusive, plurilingual pedagogies that reflect the realities of linguistically diverse academic environments.

At the university level, despite of its importance, undergraduate education has received comparatively limited attention. Although a number of studies have examined the ways in which undergraduate students engage with academic content in languages other than their first (e.g. Thøgersen & Airey, 2011), a significant proportion of research either generalises across student populations or focuses on the specificities of postgraduate or international contexts.

This gap is especially significant considering that the undergraduate level of study frequently signifies students' initial encounter with academic discourse in a second or additional language (Thøgersen & Airey, 2011). This level of study is a formative stage for undergraduate students during which institutional ideologies around language are reinforced, negotiated, or contested through policy, pedagogy, and practice. Moreover, in Luxembourg many students enter higher education through a Luxembourgish school system grounded in a formally institutionalised plurilingual education model. This means that undergraduate students can be seen as specialists whose prior linguistic repertoires and experiences position them as valuable contributors to the development of inclusive and effective academic language practices. Therefore, in this context, understanding how undergraduate students navigate the linguistic reality is essential for the development of pedagogical practices that reflect the linguistic diversity of student populations in more meaningful, effective and responsive ways (Canagarajah, 2013).

Considering the above, the present research aims to contribute to the field by examining linguistic diversity as it is shaped and experienced across two interconnected domains: institutional language policy, and the lived experiences of teachers and undergraduate students. By drawing on the voices of teachers and undergraduate students and by connecting their classroom realities to the University of Luxembourg's language policy framework, the present study promotes more inclusive and contextually responsive approaches to teaching and learning. Through this research, I argue that linguistic diversity is integral to the mission of higher education and that universities need to take an active role in engaging with linguistic diversity in order to effectively fulfil their educational, social, and cultural role. The challenge, therefore, lies in developing policies and pedagogical approaches that meaningfully integrate linguistic diversity in teaching and learning, while promoting equity and inclusion for all.

## The Present Research

Linguistic diversity plays a critical role in teaching and learning, particularly in multilingual universities like the University of Luxembourg, which is also characterised by the diversity of its members. The heterogeneity of this university stems partly from the country's multilingual context, where Luxembourgish, French, and German are official languages, and partly from the diverse backgrounds of its staff and students (Hofmann, 2020). In addition to the country's administrative languages, English has a significant presence across a wide range of academic disciplines at the University of Luxembourg. Its presence is attributed to its dual role as a working language at the university, alongside French and German, as well as its status as the *lingua franca* in academia.

The University of Luxembourg's unique linguistic landscape shapes its educational practices. At the same time, it presents significant challenges in developing language policies and pedagogical approaches that cater to the linguistic and educational needs of its plurilingual student body. In this context, a comprehensive understanding of these dynamics is imperative for enhancing academic success and promoting inclusivity.

A number of studies have previously examined different aspects of multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the University of Luxembourg. De Bres and Franziskus (2014) employed the use of language diaries as a methodological framework to analyse students' multilingual practices, offering insights into how students navigate multiple languages in their daily lives. De Saint-Georges et al. (2020) conducted semistructured interviews with master's students enrolled in a trilingual master's programme in order to explore how these students experience academic life and how they manage language use within a multilingual curriculum. At the doctoral level, Hofmann (2020) applied discourse analysis to investigate how doctoral candidates position themselves with respect to academic success, language proficiency, and the process of internationalisation, highlighting the complex interplay between language and identity within the university's multilingual setting. In another study, Deroey et al. (2015) collected the perspectives of study programme directors and university staff to identify specific language support needs. Their findings played an important role in informing the development of the university's multilingualism policy, aligning institutional efforts with actual language demands.

Despite the valuable insights from the aforementioned studies, a gap remains in exploring the intersection of institutional language policy and teaching and learning practices in the context of undergraduate education. According to Franceschini and Veronesi (2013),

integrating an analysis of relevant policy documents with the perspectives of teachers and undergraduate students is crucial, since a comprehensive understanding of language dynamics in academic settings must account for both institutional language policies and the lived experiences of stakeholders. Such an approach also allows to consider how language policies are formulated and negotiated in an academic context while considering the dynamic interrelation of the global, national, and local contexts (Schwarzl et al., 2019). Moreover, it invites critical reflection on how expectations and language ideologies are articulated on the different levels and how they influence individuals' teaching and learning experiences.

With that in mind, the present research places its focus on analysing the complex interaction between institutional policy documents representing the macro-level, alongside the lived experiences of teachers and students, representing the micro-level (Darquennes, et al., 2020). Through this dual focus, the present study explores how linguistic diversity is framed in institutional discourse and enacted in teaching and learning at this multilingual university.

The above form the research questions (RQ) for this study as follows:

RQ1: What do policy documents reveal about the framework that guides teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity?

RQ2: How do teachers and undergraduate students experience multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg?

RQ2.1: What opportunities do teachers and undergraduate students report in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning?

RQ2.2: What challenges do teachers and undergraduate students report in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning?

RQ2.3: What teaching and learning practices do teachers and undergraduate students report using to address linguistic diversity?

In addressing these research questions, the study employs a qualitative research design that integrates policy document analysis, reflexive thematic analysis, and the appraisal framework, to explore how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are conceptualised, experienced, and navigated in policy and the educational process at the University of Luxembourg.

The study begins with the analysis of policy documents to examine how institutional language policies at the University of Luxembourg frame multilingualism and linguistic

diversity in the educational process. This approach allows for a critical interpretation of how language ideologies and policy priorities are articulated at the institutional level. Complementing this, reflexive thematic analysis is applied to policy documents, as well as to data from interviews with teachers, an online survey and focus groups with undergraduate students to identify patterns related to multilingualism and linguistic diversity.

To further analyse the perspectives of teachers and undergraduate students, the appraisal framework from Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is applied to data from interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus groups. Following an “inherently language-based analysis” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 243), this approach examines the specific linguistic resources used to make meaning (Martin & Rose, 2008), prioritising how the two groups of individuals use language at the interpersonal level of discourse (Martin & White, 2005).

Prior research using the appraisal framework has demonstrated the potential of the framework in revealing language attitudes and perceptions in academic settings (e.g. Badklang & Srinon, 2018; Lu & Troyan, 2023; Ngo & Unsworth, 2015). Although used in some higher education studies, its application remains limited in exploring how linguistic diversity is evaluated within universities, particularly regarding the intersection of policy and practice. The present study addresses this gap by applying the appraisal framework to analyse the discourses of teachers and students, offering deeper insights into how evaluative language reflects broader institutional and educational dynamics.

Evaluations in individuals’ discourses are particularly valuable to this study as they provide crucial insights into their ideological stances and how they engage with linguistic diversity (Thompson & Hunston, 2001). In applying the appraisal framework, I prioritise the system of attitude, complemented by the systems of engagement and graduation, to examine “semantic resources used to negotiate emotions, judgements, and valuation, alongside resources for amplifying and engaging with these evaluations” (Martin, 2000, p. 145).

In total, the combination of policy document analysis with reflexive thematic analysis and the appraisal framework allows the capturing of both the institutional and personal perspectives and enables a comprehensive understanding of institutional policies and individual experiences within this multilingual academic context.

To ensure clarity in this study, it is important to define some of the key terms that are used throughout the text. The present research distinguishes between multilingualism, linguistic diversity and plurilingualism. Although the terms ‘multilingualism’ and ‘linguistic diversity’ are often used interchangeably (Cenoz et al., 2021; Marshall & Moore, 2018), they represent different conceptual dimensions. For Grover (2023), multilingualism is the

“pluralization of monolingualism” (Grover, 2023, p. 753) and represents the idea of multiple distinct languages that coexist. In defining multilingualism, Canagarajah and Liyanage (2012) also emphasise the clear separation between languages, viewing each language as a parallel, monolingual entity with well-defined boundaries. Given that the present study is informed by the University of Luxembourg’s policy framework, I use the term ‘multilingualism’ to refer to the institutional language policies. In all other instances, I use the term ‘linguistic diversity’ to capture the dynamic interplay of languages and linguistic varieties (Cenoz et al., 2021) and to reflect the complexity of language use.

Alongside the term ‘linguistic diversity’ I choose ‘plurilingualism’ to represent the fluid ways of interaction (Canagarajah & Liyanage, 2012). This understanding also informs my use of the terms ‘plurilingualism’ and ‘plurilingual pedagogies/practices’ to refer to educational practices. This choice is deliberate and is linked to my intention to foreground the dynamic use of multiple languages and linguistic varieties, with an emphasis on individuals (Ortega & Piccardo, 2018; Piccardo, 2013). It also underscores the social dimension of linguistic diversity (Erling & Moore, 2021) grounded in the principles of “equity and inclusion” (Guarda, 2025, p. 472). Moreover, the selection of these terms highlights the role of language in promoting participation and social justice within educational settings. In this respect, I use terms like ‘plurilingualism’, ‘linguistic repertoire’ and ‘linguistic profile’ for individual language users to capture the range of languages and varieties they use, irrespective of proficiency and with an emphasis on the interrelation between languages (Schwarzl et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the term ‘first language(s)’ is preferred over terms such as ‘mother tongue’ and ‘native language’, reflecting ongoing debates in the field (e.g. García & Wei, 2014). This decision is motivated by several considerations. Firstly, unlike ‘mother tongue’, which is typically understood as a fixed, lifelong language closely tied to one’s identity, ‘first language’ refers in a more neutral way to the language(s) initially acquired, without implying permanent dominance or identity attachment. This terminology aligns with Gumperz’s (1964) work on linguistic repertoires, which views language competence as fluid and multifaceted rather than fixed. This distinction is important to the present research as the notion of a ‘first language’ can change over time, particularly in contexts like the Duchy of Luxembourg, where individuals adapt to new linguistic environments (Gilles et al., 2023). In such contexts, the term ‘first language’ better captures the linguistic realities of multilingual societies where individuals often grow up in multilingual households and may acquire several languages simultaneously from early childhood (Gilles et al., 2023). Therefore, it is more accurate to acknowledge the possibility of multiple ‘first languages’ rather than restrict the concept to a singular ‘mother

tongue’. Additionally, this term resonates with the lived realities of contemporary, superdiverse university contexts (Vertovec, 2007), where individuals continuously navigate and negotiate meaning through “a continuum of separated and flexible multilingual [practices]” (Osterkorn & Vetter, 2015, p. 121) positioning themselves as plurilingual subjects in constant development.

Expanding on the use of terminology, throughout the text, I refer to the individuals involved as ‘teachers’ and ‘students’, or more broadly as ‘individuals’ or ‘actors’. In choosing these terms, I aim to emphasise the specific institutional roles and identities within the university, rather than defining them solely through their participation in the study. This decision aligns with the appraisal framework within SFL, used in parts of the analysis, which emphasises how language is used to construct and negotiate social roles, identities, and evaluations (Martin & White, 2005), and is grounded in Halliday’s view of language as a social action that reflects ideologies (Martin & Rose, 2007). It is also consistent with the interpretivist paradigm followed in this research, which sees individuals as social actors whose experiences and perspectives are situated in contexts (Denzin & Linkoln, 2000). Additionally, these terms correspond to those used consistently in the University of Luxembourg’s policy documents, particularly the use of ‘students’ rather than ‘learners’.

Furthermore, in line with the qualitative nature of this study, the focus is directed towards language ideologies rather than language attitudes. Although both concepts concern beliefs about language, ideologies are typically explored through discourse and qualitative methods (Kroskrity, 2016), thereby providing a more in-depth analysis of the ways in which language is linked to identity, power, and social positioning within academic institutions. Exploring language ideologies is particularly important for this research as such ideologies have a profound influence on access to learning and the dynamics that occur in multilingual universities.

Regarding language policy, I adopt a conceptualisation that considers language policy as a combination of language practices, management, and ideologies (Spolsky, 2003), whether intentionally or unintentionally, aimed at shaping communication to serve the needs of communities or governing bodies (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012).

The significance of this research lies in two aspects. Firstly, it addresses a gap in the literature by integrating the analysis of policy documents with the perspectives of teachers and undergraduate students, drawing on prior work that highlights the importance of combining institutional policies alongside individuals’ perspectives (Orduna–Nocito & Sánchez–García,

2022). In doing so, the present research remains attentive to the university's context while being responsive to the lived realities of teachers and students.

Secondly, this study carries significant implications for institutional language policies, as it draws directly on the lived experiences of teachers and students. Specifically, the analysis of the perspectives and practices of teachers has the potential to contribute to the creation of more accessible material, more inclusive classrooms and effective teaching practices. In parallel, the perspectives of undergraduate students can facilitate the identification of strategies to support learning, acknowledge students' diverse linguistic backgrounds, and inform curricula to better meet their needs and challenges, offering valuable information for shaping policies that are responsive and reflective of the linguistic diversity within the institution.

Overall, this research is of particular relevance to the University of Luxembourg. It combines a critical review of institutional policy documents with insights drawn from the lived experiences of teachers and undergraduate students. It facilitates a deeper understanding of the institutional and sociolinguistic context at this university, revealing how policies translate into practice on the micro-level. Ultimately, this research promotes more inclusive pedagogical practices that support the alignment of the institution's vision and mission with the realities and needs of its diverse community.

## Structure of the Thesis

The present thesis is organised around eight main chapters. Chapter 1 delves into the literature review and provides an overview of existing research on language policy and linguistic diversity in higher education. The chapter begins by exploring studies that have greatly influenced the discussion around language policies in higher education settings. The literature review becomes context-specific by focusing on the European context, which is further explored through existing documents and initiatives. This part is followed by prior research on the impact of institutional language policies on teaching and learning practices, where plurilingual pedagogies are explored. This chapter identifies gaps and under-researched areas in the existing literature, which directly inform the design and objectives of the study. The main points, which are summarised at the end of the different sections, indicate how these gaps shape the present research's objectives and guide the research design.

The second chapter outlines the theoretical framework upon which this research is founded. The Theoretical Framework chapter establishes the conceptual and methodological foundations for the analysis of institutional policy documents as well as for the interpretation of data collected from teachers and students. This chapter is divided in three parts. The first part outlines the theoretical and analytical tools to examine institutional language policy documents, with a focus on policy document analysis (Cardno, 2018). The second part draws on the works of Braun and Clarke (2006) and Naeem et al. (2023) to present reflexive thematic analysis, which is the analytical approach used for the interpretation of policy documents and data from teachers and students. The third part of the Theoretical Framework chapter is dedicated to the appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005). This part explains how the appraisal framework is applied in the present research to provide a linguistically grounded examination of evaluations in discourses from teachers and students.

The third chapter is concerned with the research methodology and provides a detailed description of the research design, the data collection methods, the sampling strategies, and the analytical approaches. Precisely, the Methodology chapter begins by presenting the research questions. Subsequently, the chapter outlines the university setting and provides a detailed overview of its structure, the population, and the undergraduate study programmes offered. Following this, the chapter details the study's triangulated design, describing the selection of data collection methods, which include five of the institutional policy documents, semistructured interviews, an online survey and focus groups. The Methodology chapter also addresses the process for selecting and inviting teachers and students to participate in the

research and describes the development of data collection instruments. This chapter concludes by delineating the ethical considerations and the role of the researcher, both of which are particularly important given the involvement of human subjects in this study.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the research in a systematic way. The chapter starts with the analysis of data from policy documents and addresses the first research question on the conceptualisation of multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the institutional level. The second part of this chapter shifts to data from teachers and undergraduate students. This chapter provides the basis for the discussion that follows, serving as a bridge between data and implications of the research.

The Discussion chapter provides a critical interpretation of findings in light of relevant literature. This chapter constitutes a reflection of the significance and implications of the results and discusses how findings confirm or challenge existing knowledge. This chapter also explores the implications of the present research for policy and practice in the educational process.

The sixth chapter includes a critical reflection on the limitations of the research, providing an account of its methodological constraints, potential sources of bias, and issues related to the generalisability of the findings. The Limitations chapter is followed by the chapter on future prospects. This seventh chapter offers recommendations for future research, suggesting ways in which future studies can build upon the current work, address identified gaps, and further expand the scope and applicability of the findings.

Lastly, the conclusion summarises the principal findings and outlines the practical implications derived from the study. The thesis ends with a critical reflection on the significance and broader impact of the research, highlighting its contribution to the field of language policy and linguistic diversity in higher education as well as its potential influence on the development of future policy and pedagogical practices within multilingual universities.

# 1. Literature review

Universities serve as a microcosm of society, reflecting both global dynamics and local realities. Their dual role, operating simultaneously at the international and national levels, makes them a particularly rich context for examining linguistic diversity (Frank & Meyer, 2007). Linguistic diversity is receiving growing attention in higher education research (Darquennes et al., 2020), especially in institutions situated in multilingual contexts, as is the University of Luxembourg.

In higher education, teaching and learning continue to be challenged by the increasing diversity of their community as well as the demands placed on universities. Central to navigating this complexity is the role of language policy, which shapes the institution's linguistic culture (Huemer, 2019) and impacts multiple aspects of academic life, including teaching methodologies, curriculum design, and the educational process (Soler, 2019). Language policies determine the language(s) of instruction and contribute to the construction of academic discourse, ultimately influencing students' academic success (Huemer, 2019). In this respect, institutional language policies are also reflective of institutional ideologies including those that pertain to language, multilingualism, and linguistic diversity (Soler, 2019).

When it comes to teachers, their role is characterised by its multifaceted nature, encompassing responsibilities that extend beyond subject matter expertise. In addition to the delivery of course content, teachers are expected to use pedagogical strategies for effective teaching. As Nicholls (2002) notes, effective teaching entails the translation of one's own knowledge into pedagogical practice and a nuanced understanding of students' needs in order to facilitate academic success. Teachers' role in promoting student engagement and in creating a more inclusive classroom environment adds to the importance of including teachers' experience in research (Cents-Boonstra et al., 2020). Furthermore, their expertise in both the subject content and pedagogy is essential in addressing the challenges posed by linguistic diversity in multilingual classrooms.

At the undergraduate level, students are not only engaged in learning disciplinary content but also negotiating their identities and social belonging within a multilingual academic environment (Leibowitz et al., 2005). Understanding how linguistic diversity is addressed at this level provides valuable insights into broader institutional practices. It also contributes to a deeper exploration of how plurilingual pedagogies can be integrated into the curriculum to promote students' diverse linguistic repertoires, academic success and sense of belonging.

Therefore, it is very important to understand how language policies at the university level impact students' learning and academic performance.

To explore the above, the Literature Review chapter brings together research that addresses different dimensions of linguistic diversity, its impact on individuals, the ways in which it is navigated in university settings around the world, and its implications for teaching and learning practices. In doing so, relevant literature presents trends and emerging debates in the field. While previous research has addressed the broader implications of linguistic diversity within higher education (e.g. Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Darquennes et al., 2020; Preece, 2009), there remains a gap in understanding how language policies and institutional practices shape the academic experiences of teachers and undergraduate students. Much of the existing research tends to focus either on language policy at the national or institutional level, or on the experiences of postgraduate students (e.g. Bernhofer & Tonin, 2022; Preece, 2019). However, these issues are especially relevant at the undergraduate level, which frequently constitutes the first experience of academic life for students and marks a crucial stage in their education and identity development. Specifically, the gap lies in the need for focused research on how language policies affect the academic experiences of teachers and undergraduate students in multilingual contexts.

The present research addresses this gap by focusing on the undergraduate level at the University of Luxembourg. Precisely, the research explores how linguistic diversity is framed and enacted in institutional language policies, and how teachers and undergraduate students experience and navigate this multilingual environment. Exploring these dynamics is crucial for improving and developing pedagogical practices that more effectively respond to the needs of teachers and undergraduate students at this multilingual university.

The Literature Review chapter is divided into two main parts both of which are examined within a broader interconnected framework. Each of these parts addresses a different aspect of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in higher education, starting with an examination of language policies in higher education. Subsequently, the chapter explores the implications of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning.

Analytically, the first part examines how linguistic diversity is managed through language policies in universities. It starts with a comprehensive overview of the major developments in the field of language policy, with a particular focus on the European context. This part also examines the role of internationalisation as a driver of language policies, often associated with the spread of English. The first part is further enriched by an examination of language ideologies, which are embedded in institutional discourses and practices, and which

play a crucial role in shaping how languages and linguistic diversity are valued and positioned in institutional policies.

The second part of this chapter focuses on the educational process and explores how linguistic diversity affects teaching and learning in multilingual higher education institutions. This part brings together research on the role of teachers in employing pedagogical practices and how they respond to student diversity. This part also considers the needs of undergraduate students, who bring a wide range of linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds to the classroom. Drawing on that, the last section of this part focuses on plurilingual pedagogies as a response to the opportunities and challenges associated with multilingualism and linguistic diversity.

Overall, the aim of this first chapter is to explore the complex concepts and ongoing debates surrounding language policy and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning in multilingual university classrooms. The chapter provides valuable insights into the evolution of institutional language policies and plurilingual pedagogical practices, drawing on a wide range of existing research across different higher education settings. Throughout this chapter, relevant research on the University of Luxembourg is presented to provide background, inform the discussion, and help contextualise the current research.

## 1.1 Language Policies in Multilingual Universities

Language policies play a central role in the shaping of communication, identity and access in higher education institutions. Such policies govern not only which languages are used for instruction and administration, but also how language inclusivity and power dynamics are addressed (Pérez–Milans, 2015). In this respect, language policies significantly influence institutional culture and can greatly impact academic careers (Huemer, 2019).

Language policies are shaped by a complex interplay of ideological, social and institutional factors, as universities navigate their role in responding to national agendas while also engaging in global discussions to address today's global challenges (de Saint–Georges, 2020). Furthermore, as universities become increasingly international, the need to manage linguistic diversity has brought language policies to the forefront of institutional planning (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012). In this respect, language policies are no longer regarded as a fixed set of rules; rather, they are understood as context–specific, operating simultaneously through top–down institutional directives and bottom–up practices of individuals (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012).

Within the political agenda of the European Union, the importance of multilingualism and linguistic diversity is increasingly recognised as a means to support broader strategic goals and unification. Beyond that, the European Union views multilingualism and diversity as a cultural asset and an economic driver. These views have resulted in the Union promoting language policies that connect language learning and objectives such as employability, mobility and competitiveness in a knowledge-based economy (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012). In the field of higher education, European Union's language policy development reflects this vision by positioning multilingualism and linguistic diversity as a personal resource and a strategic necessity for Europe's global standing.

In European higher education, language policies often result from a combination of national and European regulations, as well as global trends within academia. On the national level, policies tend to reflect the linguistic landscapes and cultural priorities of a given country. At the European level, regulations stem from initiatives and objectives of the European Union, such as the 2005 Multilingualism Strategy, which promotes linguistic diversity and encourages member states to adopt inclusive language practices that enhance mobility and intercultural dialogue (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012). On a global scale, the dominance of English as a lingua franca has led many higher education institutions to adopt English-medium instruction (EMI) policies in order to attract international students and promote global academic collaboration (Adriansen et al., 2022).

The first part of the Literature Review chapter begins with a broader discussion on managing linguistic diversity in higher education, exploring the various areas covered by higher education language policy. This section includes the framework suggested by Darquennes et al. (2020), which highlights the different levels that need to be considered in language policies in multilingual higher education institutions. The next section discusses languages as mediums of instruction together with internationalisation of higher education as a factor that has greatly affected the evolution of language policies in higher education. This section also addresses the global rise of English as the dominant medium of instruction and reviews current trends in its adoption across universities worldwide.

The third section of this chapter situates the present research within the European context. It outlines declarations, frameworks and policy initiatives, such as the Bologna Process and the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), that emphasise the value of multilingualism and the need to promote linguistic diversity in higher education. The section concludes with an examination of the interplay between language policies, ideologies and practices. It explores

how language ideologies inform institutional policies and influence practices, while revealing the gaps that often exist between institutional policies and classroom realities.

### 1.1.1 Managing Linguistic Diversity

The concept of language policy has been explored in literature through formal regulations and informal sociocultural practices. Scholars such as Cooper (1989) offer structured frameworks that define language policy as a set of explicit rules or as a dynamic interplay of practices, beliefs, and management. This perspective is further developed by government authorities or institutional bodies who view language policies as serving to regulate what is considered the “desirable form and use of languages” (Cooper, 1989, p. 160).

Meanwhile, Schiffman (1996), Shohamy (2006), and Androulakis (2019) emphasise the covert dimension of language policies, explaining that such policies are often embedded in cultural norms, social ideologies, and historical narratives. Shohamy (2006) argues that language policy is not confined to official documents or institutional regulations, rather, it is manifested implicitly through patterns of language use in daily life. Similarly, Schiffman (1996) describes covert language policies as being deeply rooted in community norms and behaviours and shaped by shared beliefs and historical experiences. Androulakis (2019) reinforces this view, noting that language policy frequently arises from real-world language practices in social settings and is not always formally documented in codified laws or official texts.

Informed by similar viewpoints, Spolsky (2003) offers a foundational framework that conceptualises language policy as comprising three interrelated components, namely language practices (actual language use in daily interactions), language beliefs or ideologies (assumptions and values about language), and language management (explicit efforts to influence language use through planning or regulation). This framework acknowledges the formal and informal dimensions of policy, from an institutional perspective and in terms of social norms.

Expanding on Spolsky’s (2003) framework, Rindler Schjerve and Vetter (2012) conceptualise language policy as a discursive, power led process that is shaped by broader social, economic, and cultural forces. Their approach emphasises the dynamic interaction between macro-, meso-, and micro-levels of language policy, recognising both top-down structures and bottom-up practices. This approach aligns with recent critical perspectives (e.g. Androulakis et al., 2021; Menken & Pérez-Milans, 2020; Spotti et al., 2019) that challenge

monolingual ideologies and advocate for a focus on linguistic diversity and plurilingual realities. These scholars argue that language policy must be understood as a sociopolitical process that reflects and shapes power relations. As such, it has the potential to either reinforce structural inequalities or to challenge dominant ideologies and promote more equitable linguistic practices.

Among the different areas of language policy, higher education holds significant influence, as it shapes the opportunities available to future professionals and impacts their career (Lasagabaster, 2015). Language policy in higher education is complex and multidimensional, covering multiple domains and aspects (Darquennes et al., 2020). Indicatively, Jenkins (2013) argues that language policy in higher education must address the “tripartite mission” of institutions (Jenkins, 2013, p. 3): teaching, research, and service functions. Other scholars have proposed alternative perspectives. For instance, Gregersen et al. (2018) replace ‘service’ with ‘communication’, and Liddicoat (2016) includes administration and learning alongside teaching and research.

To the multiple domains, Knight and de Wit (1995) add the tensions that come with internationalisation and the need for “inclusive communication in multiple languages while maintaining competitiveness” (de Saint–Georges, 2020, p. 2). At the same time, individuals increasingly advocate for their diverse trajectories to be acknowledged as integral to national narratives (Canagarajah, 2006). All the above greatly influence policies in higher education, which are required to balance national demands with the need to engage in global discussions (de Saint–Georges, 2020).

Taking the above into consideration, various initiatives have sought to emphasise the value of multilingualism and linguistic diversity and bring it to the forefront of educational policy discussions (Androulakis et al., 2021). However, initiatives and approaches to navigating linguistic diversity in higher education vary significantly, ranging from monolingual models that prioritise lingua francas to more inclusive frameworks that actively support plurilingual practices. Indicatively, Backus et al. (2013) identify the lingua franca approach as one way of addressing linguistic diversity, where a single dominant language, typically English, is adopted to unify communication among all participants (de Saint–Georges, 2020). In contrast, Hultgren (2016) describes the model of parallel or multiple language use. This approach officially recognises and employs two or more languages side by side, promoting the simultaneous delivery of content in multiple languages rather than privileging one over the others.

A third model, mentioned in Backus et al. (2013) as inclusive multilingualism, shifts the focus from rigid language norms to flexible communicative strategies that promote mutual understanding among individuals with varying levels of language proficiency. Instead of aiming for linguistic accuracy and correctness or enforcing the use of a single language, this model values adaptability and the strategic use of diverse interactional resources, such as code switching, visual aids, gesturing, use of technologies, collaborative translation, and simplified language, to support inclusive and effective communication. This model is marked by a high degree of flexibility, aligning with real-world communicative practices, where individuals draw on their full linguistic repertoires, both verbal and non-verbal, to construct and negotiate meaning (de Saint-Georges, 2020).

The aforementioned models offer valuable conceptual frameworks to understanding how institutions navigate linguistic diversity, each reflecting distinct underlying ideologies about language use and linguistic diversity (de Saint-Georges, 2020). The various approaches also highlight the spectrum of possibilities available to higher education institutions in shaping their language policies. Nevertheless, it remains essential to critically examine which approaches are embedded within institutional structures each time and how language policies are implemented and experienced in practice (Spolsky, 2004).

Darquennes et al. (2020) point to a significant gap in comprehensive research on how language policies are formulated, enacted, and perceived within higher education. This lack of detailed information hinders the ability to interpret policy documents meaningfully and raises questions about whether such policies are carefully developed to address the language needs of specific institutions or if they simply reproduce generic frameworks imposed by government or other external actors (Freeman, 2013).

Webb (2002) emphasises the importance of collecting this type of information, noting that a well-documented language policy should cover key areas such as: the identification and description of language-related issues, the rationale for decisions taken to address such issues, the broader context in which the policy operates, the goals and mission of the policy, and clear guidelines for its implementation and evaluation. Nonetheless, in many cases, publicly available language policy documents lack this level of detail, making it difficult to assess how institutions manage linguistic diversity and the effectiveness and appropriateness of their policies (Webb, 2002).

To respond to this gap, Darquennes et al. (2020, p. 19) propose an analytical framework for managing linguistic diversity in higher education (see Figure 1). The framework is designed

to support critical reflection on institutional language policies, particularly in relation to teaching, research, and communication:

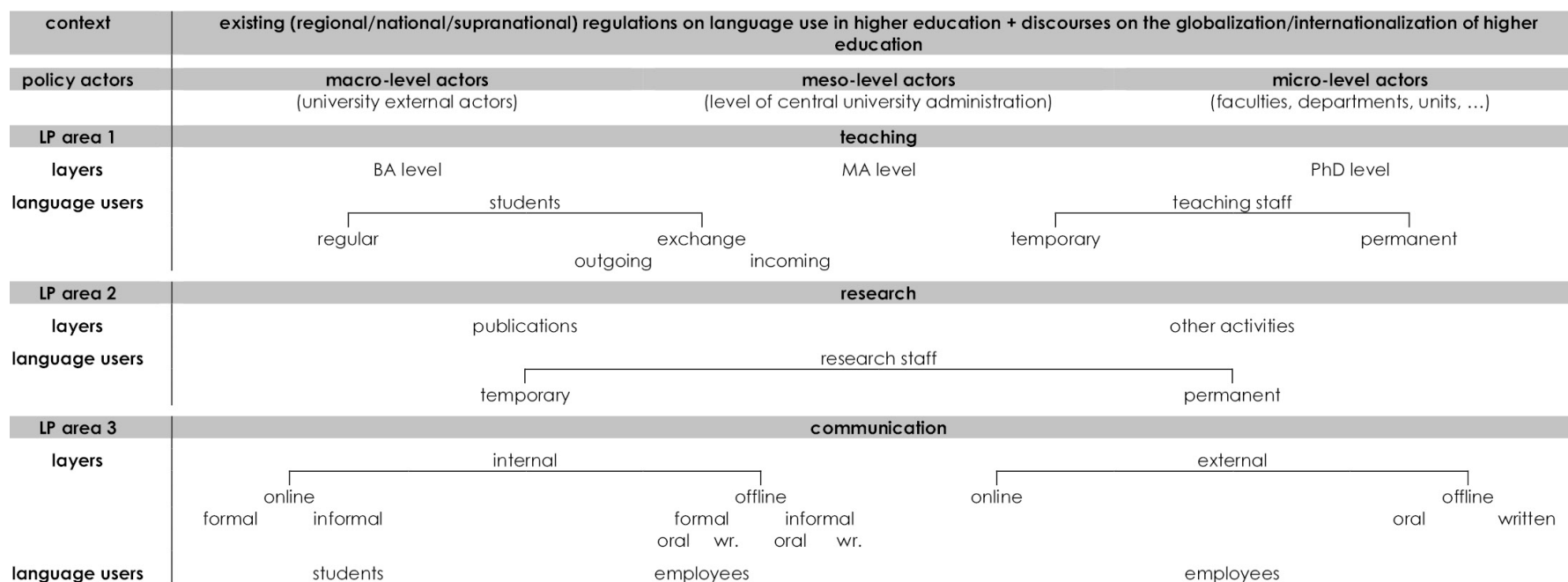


Figure 1: Analytical framework for the management of linguistic diversity in higher education (adapted from Darquennes et al., 2020, p. 19).

As illustrated in Figure 1, the framework developed by Darquennes et al. (2020) invites universities to reflect on their use of working languages through the lens of what they refer to as “language policy areas” (Darquennes et al., 2020, p. 19). In addition to the different policy areas, this framework categorises the policy actors involved in multiple levels. It distinguishes between internal actors, such as staff and students, and external actors, which include government bodies and other authorities, all of whom play a role in shaping language policy decisions. Another feature of the framework is the categorisation of language users within these policy areas, indicating the active role individuals play in shaping and enacting language policies. This emphasis on human agency aligns with the perspective of Gregersen et al. (2018), who stress the importance of viewing language policy as a top–down process but also as one shaped by everyday practices and interactions.

The structure of the framework proposed by Darquennes et al. (2020) encourages institutions to adopt a critical analysis of how languages are selected, implemented, and used across the various institutional domains. Moreover, by focusing on the choice of language across these domains, the framework highlights the importance of connecting theoretical frameworks with empirical realities. The need to bridge the gap between theoretical frameworks and empirical research is also reflected in previous studies. For example, Veronesi et al. (2013) conducted research at the multilingual Free University of Bozen–Bolzano to explore how linguistic diversity is managed in practice. Drawing on audio and video recordings from nine lectures, their findings indicate the importance of involving departments and relevant stakeholders in language policy discussions. Additionally, Veronesi et al. (2013) conclude with the need to address the specific linguistic needs of each disciplinary context, adding to the idea that effective language policy must be context–sensitive and collaboratively developed.

Building on the importance of context and responsiveness in language policy, Moring et al. (2013) collected data through interviews, observations, and focus group discussions at the University of Helsinki, which they analysed using policy and discourse analysis. Their research emphasises the need for continuous monitoring of language use and the provision of institutional support for all languages present within the university. Moreover, through their research Moring et al. (2013) draw attention to the importance of distinguishing between overt (explicit) and covert (implicit) language policies, particularly in university settings. They also argue that language policy analysis should extend beyond the local institutional level to consider broader national and international forces that shape language practices in higher education.

Relevant research at the University of Luxembourg was conducted by de Saint–Georges et al. (2020), who investigated how students navigate the complexities of a multilingual and multicultural academic environment. Using semistructured interviews with master’s students enrolled in a trilingual programme, the study explored how students interpret their academic experiences and manage the tensions that arise from diverse linguistic and cultural norms. The study employed a co–inquiry approach, which promotes collaboration between teachers (as researchers) and students (as participants), in a mutual exploration of the subject matter. The research provides further insights on the relationship between institutional and students lived experiences, contributing to the ongoing discourse on multilayered norms (Canagarajah, 2006) in higher education. The study concludes with the significance of further addressing the connection between linguistic norms and cultural practices within academic settings.

Deroey et al. (2015) offered an institutional perspective on the matter by interviewing study program directors and other university members to assess the requirements for language support within the University of Luxembourg. Their research sheds light into how institutional actors perceive and address multilingualism, revealing the practical challenges and requirements involved in supporting diverse language users. This study, which established the foundation for the development of the university’s Multilingualism Policy, demonstrates the significance of institutional awareness and commitment in effectively managing linguistic diversity at the university level.

Despite previous research on language use within specific institutional contexts and the recognised need for comprehensive policy development, implementation, and monitoring, research that systematically applies analytical frameworks in researching these matters remains scarce. In particular, frameworks, such as the one proposed by Darquennes et al. (2020), are rarely employed to evaluate how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are managed across different policy areas and among various levels of actors in practice. In fact, Gregersen et al. (2018) warn that without proper integration into university management structures and consistent follow–up, language policies run the risk of becoming “dead documents full of good intentions” (Gregersen et al., 2018, p. 30). With this phrase, Gregersen et al. (2018) articulate the need for active participation of social actors in shaping the policy, alongside clearly defined responsibilities and ongoing monitoring of the documents to ensure effective policy implementation and sustainable impact.

This research gap becomes particularly significant when considered in the context of the wider internationalisation of higher education. As universities increasingly engage in global networks, attract international students and staff, and adopt international strategies, language

policy becomes a crucial element of institutional internationalisation efforts (Mittelmeier et al., 2024). However, without appropriate language policies, the inclusion, accessibility, and global engagement goals promoted by internationalisation cannot be achieved. Therefore, managing linguistic diversity must be seen as central to advancing meaningful and sustainable internationalisation in higher education (Llurda et al., 2014).

For this reason, the next section focuses on the internationalisation of higher education. It provides an overview of key definitions and research on the topic, offering a framework for understanding the relationship between internationalisation and language policy. A central aspect of this relationship is the medium of instruction, with English increasingly adopted as the dominant language in internationalised academic settings. However, other national and regional languages continue to play important roles, either alongside English or in specific institutional or disciplinary contexts. Despite the growing recognition of language's role in globalised environments, there remains a significant research gap concerning the impact of internationalisation on language management in higher education institutions. This gap indicates the need for further research into the practical implications of language policies in either facilitating or hindering the goals of internationalisation in higher education.

### 1.1.2 Internationalisation and Medium of Instruction in Higher Education

Internationalisation and globalisation of higher education, together with increased human mobility have transformed universities into global institutions. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) defines internationalisation as “the integration of an international/intercultural dimension into all the activities of a university, including teaching, research and service functions”. The concept has been expanded by scholars such as Knight (2003, 2008) and Crişan–Mitra and Borza (2015), who view internationalisation as a strategic process and a shift in institutional identity, encompassing academic practices and global engagement.

In higher education policy, de Wit (2002, 2011) identifies internationalisation as an increasingly influential force that extends across political, economic, sociocultural and academic dimensions. Expanding on this, scholars such as Björkman (2013) and Zolfaghari et al. (2009) argue that internationalisation goes beyond institutional boundaries, fundamentally reshaping the role of universities in society. In fact, Knight (2003) situates internationalisation in the broader discourse of marketisation, according to which universities increasingly operate like global businesses, competing for students and resources (Damiyano, 2022; Fairclough,

1993). In this respect, internationalisation has become an increasingly influential force shaping higher education institutions worldwide, including the University of Luxembourg. Since its establishment, the university has prioritised collaboration with partner institutions and has built a growing network of partnerships with universities across Europe and beyond. These efforts are intended to promote exchange, to attract more international students and to strengthen Luxembourg's position as an appealing setting to study (Heimböckel et al., 2012).

Internationalisation in universities is also informed by broader trends in how institutions are evaluated. An indicative example is university rankings, which often use indicators such as the proportion of international students to assess the degree of internationalisation and overall institutional performance. These global trends in evaluating higher education, particularly the emphasis on internationalisation indicators, are reflected in institutional strategies at the University of Luxembourg, which uses such metrics to enhance its visibility and reputation. However, Knight (2011) warns against the use of simplistic metrics that prioritise quantifiable elements over more meaningful aspects. As Knight (2011) explains, although such statistics may offer a convenient overview of the setting, they frequently fail to capture the multidimensional and complex nature of the institution's internationalisation. As a response to that, Knight (2011) argues for more nuanced, context-sensitive evaluations of institutional change, which recognise internationalisation as a transformative process that affects the institution on the academic, cultural and strategic levels.

Internationalisation of higher education has been the subject of extensive research (Altbach, 2016; Shin & Kehm, 2013). Kuzhabekova et al. (2022) note that there are over 2,300 academic articles on the topic, which supports Klopper's (2020) assertion that internationalisation is considered as "a vital aspect of higher education in the twenty-first century". Similarly, Mittelmeier and Yang (2022) conducted a systematic literature review of publications in the *Higher Education Research & Development* journal spanning from 1982 to 2020. Their analysis reveals a significant increase in academic publications addressing higher education and internationalisation, thereby reflecting a growing interest in the subject over time.

In relevant research, internationalisation is often framed positively and associated with curriculum design, as well as staff and student mobility (de Wit, 2011). For instance, van Vught et al. (2002) emphasise the core values of quality and excellence associated with international collaboration and mobility. Yang (2002) also highlights the role of internationalisation in advancing human knowledge, further reinforcing its positive impact. However, recent research has begun to question the uncritical adoption of the positive narratives. Notably, a systematic

review of two decades of research by Mittelmeier and Yang (2022) reveals a tendency to overlook the complexities and challenges of internationalisation. This includes the limited involvement of international students in empirical research and policymaking.

One of the most significant outcomes of internationalisation of higher education is language use in the educational process for teaching, educational materials and assignments, referred to as the medium of instruction (van Pinxteren, 2023) or language of instruction (e.g. Brock–Utne, 2010). In this context, the choice of medium of instruction is closely tied to the core functions of education and research, as well as their broader societal roles, such as the production of knowledge and the preparation of students for the job market (Jalava, 2012). Bull (2012) explains that debates around the choice of medium of instruction are often found on a spectrum. On the one end, universities are seen as institutions driven by the market. The other end of the spectrum frames institutions as public institutions that contribute to social welfare. Therefore, the development of language policies and choice of language for the educational process is shaped by how institutions position themselves along this spectrum, reflecting their values and goals (Bull, 2012).

In relevant research, van Pinxteren (2023) explores the relationship between the medium of instruction and various aspects of educational systems, drawing on data related to language use, access to education, and educational effectiveness. His analysis highlights how historical, political, and socioeconomic contexts significantly influence language choice in higher education. Based on the findings, van Pinxteren (2023) categorises educational systems into colonial, decolonial, and transitional. Colonial systems, found in Sub-Saharan Africa, typically rely on former colonial languages as the medium of instruction. In contrast, decolonial systems, mainly situated in the global North, tend to use national or indigenous languages closely aligned with the population's first language. Transitional systems, such as those in parts of North Africa, are in the process of shifting towards greater use of local languages, although colonial languages continue to play a significant role in instruction.

At the same time, the role of English has been widely discussed (Jenkins, 2013) as “the language of higher education” (Beecham, 2008, p. 111) and a significant outcome of the internationalisation processes (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). The use of English “to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries [...] where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (Macaro, 2018, p. 19) is discussed in literature as English as the Medium of Instruction (EMI). Aiming to include the multilingual context, Dafouz and Smit (2016) talk about English–Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS), which they consider to be “semantically wider, as it does not specify any

particular pedagogical approach or research agenda” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 399). Nonetheless, to maintain clarity and align with the terminology most commonly used in language policy discussions, the following paragraphs will use the term EMI.

According to Gazzola (2017), the growing number of English–taught courses at universities in non–English speaking countries reflects a tension driven by internationalisation efforts. The extensive use of English in higher education is referred in the Declaration on Multilingualism in Higher Education as the ‘Englishisation’ of higher education (European Civil Society Platform for Multilingualism, 2023). The term is further defined by Wilkinson and Gabriëls (2021) “as the process in which the English language is increasingly gaining ground in domains where another language was previously used” (Wilkinson & Gabriëls, 2021, p. 14).

Government policy appears to promote EMI in teaching (de Haan, 2014). Despite of that, McKinley and Galloway (2022) used qualitative methods, including interviews and document analysis, to investigate how institutional language policies are interpreted and implemented by various stakeholders. Their findings reveal a disconnect between top–down policy intentions and the everyday realities of those affected by EMI.

Other research has shown that Englishisation through EMI is associated with the institution’s openness in the global markets (Maiworm & Wächter, 2008), future careers in different disciplines (Byun et al., 2011), and employment in prestigious jobs (Costa & Coleman, 2012; Lueg, 2015). Precisely, Maiworm and Wächter (2008) conducted a large–scale survey of European higher education institutions and found that the adoption of EMI was often linked to efforts to increase international visibility and openness to global markets. Similarly, Byun et al. (2011) used qualitative survey data to analyse the perceived benefits of EMI for students’ future careers across different disciplines. Their findings suggest a strong relationship between EMI participation and perceived employability. Costa and Coleman (2012) as well as Lueg (2015) further supported these findings through qualitative case studies and document analysis, showing that EMI is often positioned as a pathway to more prestigious or globally competitive employment opportunities.

Relevant research has also been concerned with the production and use of teaching materials in various academic disciplines, revealing tensions, inconsistencies and varying levels of support and preparedness across institutions. Indicatively, Soler and Rozenvalde (2021) used mixed methods approach, combining surveys and discourse analysis of teaching materials to explore EMI in multilingual classrooms. Their research shows that in such classrooms, English content often lacks contextual adaptation, which can put teachers and

students at a disadvantage, particularly in disciplines where language-specific terminology is important. From a teachers' perspective, Deroey (2023) highlights the lack of materials available to inform the decisions of practitioners working on EMI when designing and delivering courses. Her review of 25 published training initiatives resulted in the development of a proposed EMI lecturer training framework, which emphasises components such as language proficiency, pedagogy and EMI awareness.

At the same time, concerns have been raised regarding English language proficiency of teachers and students in EMI settings. Language related challenges are particularly evident in institutions where EMI is still emerging, as well as among older staff who may not have received training or support for teaching in English (Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011). Haastrup (2008) and Jensen et al. (2013) investigated English language competence of teachers and students using interviews and surveys. Their findings conclude that limited proficiency among these two groups can negatively impact the quality of teaching and learning outcomes. Additionally, their findings suggest that, without adequate language support, EMI can hinder rather than enhance the educational experience.

The impact of internationalisation and Englishisation in higher education is also discussed in respect to national and local languages. As universities become more internationalised, tensions emerge around the balance of global engagement with the preservation of linguistic and cultural diversity. In regions such as Catalonia and the Basque Country in Spain, as well as in Wales, there has been an effort to actively maintain and support national and regional languages as mediums of instruction, alongside English, through targeted language policies (Gallego-Balsá et al., 2021).

In other contexts, however, EMI has been identified as a site where broader ideological tensions emerge. In these tensions, political shifts across Europe, particularly the rise of nationalist discourses, have brought renewed attention to the dominance of English and its perceived impact on local languages (Lueg, 2018). In the Netherlands for instance, universities have agreed to reduce the number of EMI programmes and moderate internationalisation efforts (Kamerlin, 2024). In Norway, the government has introduced a policy requiring mandatory Norwegian language courses for doctoral and postdoctoral researchers, aimed at protecting Norwegian as an academic language, reflecting wider concerns about language loss. Similarly, a case study at a German university shows how institutional shifts towards EMI create tensions, with stakeholders expressing concerns about the loss of national linguistic traditions and identity (Lueg, 2018).

A number of studies have explored similar themes in the context of Scandinavian higher education context, where EMI is increasingly prevalent. The Scandinavian context in particular, presents a notable similarity with the case of Luxembourg, given that it possesses local languages that are not widely used for academic subjects (e.g. Danish language in Danish universities, DMA Research, 2005). In both the Scandinavian and the Luxembourgish context, the adoption of EMI is often driven by the desire to enhance international competitiveness and to attract a more diverse student body. Consequently, both contexts face parallel challenges and debates around language policies and the role of English.

In the Scandinavian context, the emergence of nationalist discourses is echoed by Leppänen and Pahta (2012, p. 161) who describe EMI as “pervasive, seductive, corruptive and harmful, affecting individuals and social groups and their minds and language practices” (Leppänen & Pahta, 2012, p. 161), with consequences for both individuals and communities. Their findings show that EMI can reshape language practices and ideologies in ways that may not be consistent with the principles of inclusivity or equity. Through an analysis of Finland’s linguistic landscape, Saarinen (2020) illustrates that in contexts where national language and identity are deeply intertwined, the spread of EMI often provokes anxiety about cultural and linguistic erosion. This perception can stimulate nationalist discourses aimed at protecting the national language and heritage.

Hazel and Mortensen (2013) conducted a video-based interactional analysis of the classroom environment in Danish universities. Their findings support the hypothesis that local languages, such as Danish, continue to play a crucial role in students’ academic experiences, even in circumstances where English is the official medium of instruction. With that in mind, Hazel and Mortensen (2013) advocate for a more inclusive approach to language policy, one that values and integrates local languages alongside English, rather than replacing them.

The integration of EMI in higher education has also given rise to concerns regarding inequality, language hierarchies and social justice. Although the growing use of English in higher education is often justified by its role as the academic lingua franca (Huemer, 2019), scholars increasingly call for a more critical approach that supports multilingual policies and teaching practices in response to its dominance at the expense of other languages (e.g. Huemer, 2019; Lasagabaster, 2021; Wilkinson & Gabriël, 2021).

Indicatively, Lueg (2015) used qualitative interviews and discourse analysis, to examine how EMI can contribute to subtle forms of linguistic segregation, particularly between those who use English as a first language and those who use English as a second or foreign




language. The study's findings suggest that EMI can reinforce social and academic inequalities, as linguistic fluency is frequently associated with academic competence.

Preisler et al. (2011), Risager (2012) and Haberland and Mortensen (2012) used qualitative research methods, including interviews, ethnographic observation and discourse analysis, to explore the functionality of English in academic interactions. Their research shows that English becoming the default language of instruction, does not necessarily reflect the complex linguistic realities of universities. Therefore, the argument advanced is that, in terms of internationalisation efforts, it would be more appropriate to place linguistic diversity at the centre, as opposed to English, to better reflect the actual language practices and needs in higher education institutions.

Tensions around EMI not only shape institutional policies and language hierarchies but also influence how individuals are perceived within academic communities. Jensen et al. (2013) investigated these issues in Danish universities, focusing on how teachers who speak English with nonstandard or heavily accented varieties of English are perceived by colleagues and students. Using a mixed methods approach, including surveys, interviews, and classroom observations, the study explored attitudes towards teachers' language use in EMI settings. The results show that staff with an accented English were often seen as less competent regardless of their actual teaching ability or subject expertise. These perceptions reflect deeper sociolinguistic biases and demonstrate how linguistic hierarchies continue to shape interactions and evaluations in multilingual academic environments.

Other research supports that individuals' 'multilingual capital', defined as the value of their full linguistic repertoires, is often overlooked in EMI contexts (Eversley et al., 2010). Eversley et al. (2010) argue that institutional language practices tend to privilege English while marginalising other languages. This may exclude or disadvantage staff and students who bring valuable multilingual resources to the institution.

Lueg (2018) summarises the aforementioned perspectives about EMI in Table 1:

<b>Perspective</b>	<b>Internationalised knowledge economy</b>  EMI is necessary for	<b>Language and teaching quality</b>  EMI is harmful due to	<b>National domain loss</b>  EMI threatens	<b>Inequalities</b>
<b>Arguments</b>	universities' ability to compete	lack of language capability	own language	–discriminations between students; language proficiency against those studying in domestic language –exclusion of non–English language content –EMI attracts (discourages) higher (lower) strata students and reproduces inequalities

*Table 1: Perspectives about EMI in higher education (adapted from Lueg, 2018, p. 49–50 and 56–57).*

The previous paragraphs contribute to the discussion of the dominance of English as a global lingua franca in academia. However, as Roche (2012) explains, English is not the only language that served as a global or international language for academic purposes. In earlier times, other languages (e.g. Latin) played a similar role and their prominence depended on the specific political and cultural conditions. Besides, as Parmentier (2020) points out that the use of languages other than English (LOTE) in higher education, also found as other languages as medium of instruction (OLMI)<sup>1</sup>, fulfil another aim of internationalisation that is to enhance language abilities in local languages to address students' academic, professional, and cultural requirements (Louis et al., 2024).

Drawing on that, Marginson and Rhoades (2002) add the importance of paying closer attention to the national and local contexts in which universities operate, as these contexts interact with global trends to shape institutional practices. One such localised example of research comes from Serna–Bermejo and Lasagabaster (2023), who compare English and Basque as mediums of instruction at the multilingual University of the Basque country. The importance of the local context is also highlighted in Llurda et al. (2015). In their research, Llurda et al. (2015), invited students from two universities, the University of Lleida and the University of the Basque Country, to complete a questionnaire on the roles of English and local languages, as well as the university's efforts to promote EMI. Recognising the complexity and significance of these issues, Llurda et al. (2015) concluded with the need for further research at the local level to better describe the characteristics of each setting.

Considering the importance of a localised approach, the following paragraphs shift the focus to the University of Luxembourg. In this context, LOTE or OLMI are directly relevant, as French, German, and Luxembourgish, which are the administrative languages of the country, are examined as mediums of instruction and as academic languages through relevant research.

The discussion around the role of French as a medium of instruction (FMI) in higher education originates back to the 1960s, particularly through the development of specialised French (« Français de spécialité ») and French for Academic Purposes (« Français sur Objectif Universitaire ») (Cavalla et al., 2019). More recently, FMI has gained attention in the first report published by the Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie (AUF, 2019). This report raises concerns about the growing dominance of English in scientific publications, portraying it as a serious threat to French in academia, if not as de Gaudemar (2019, p. 1) puts it, a battle

---

<sup>1</sup> EMI / OLMI. Universidade Federal de Santa Maria. Retrieved from: <https://www.ufsm.br/orgaos-suplementares/dri/emi-olmi>

that could be considered lost (« Une vision fataliste pourrait même considérer que la cause est entendue et que la bataille du français dans la transmission de la science est perdue »).

Empirical insights into FMI come from studies such as Jarmouni et al. (2024) and Maafi (2022), which examine FMI in higher education in Morocco, where French functions as a foreign language. Both studies reveal a strong correlation between language skills and academic performance, with many students expressing discomfort due to difficulties in understanding scientific terminology in French. Elimam (2019) further contributes to the discussion by examining FMI in Algerian universities. Elimam (2019) advocates for recognising FMI as a distinct disciplinary approach that requires targeted training for teachers and students. Nevertheless, as the AUF report (2019) highlights, the topic remains underexplored and calls for further research.

As with FMI, the role and status of German as a scientific language (DaW) in contemporary higher education has been a subject of debate. According to the University of Goethe, the use of German as a medium of instruction in higher education is closely connected to German speaking populations and is seen as a tool for gaining and transmitting knowledge („für die deutschsprachige Gesellschaft ist die deutsche Wissenschaftssprache Erkenntnisinstrument und notwendiges Mittel des Wissenstransfers“)<sup>2</sup>. Although German is considered to be the second most important scientific language after English, internationalisation and the growing dominance of EMI, often come at the expense of German (Roche, 2012). This shift has sparked ongoing discussions about the legitimacy of German as scientific language and the need to renegotiate its theoretical grounding in response to evolving academic and linguistic landscapes (e.g. Bongo, 2018). In addition to internationalisation and EMI, the decreasing role of German in higher education is often attributed to the complexity of the language. However, Roche (2012) explains that this complexity is not necessarily inherent to the language itself but rather reflects how it is used by speakers in academia.

A growing body of literature addresses German as academic language in German-speaking university contexts (Friedl, 2021). Relevant research mostly focuses on the challenges students face with academic writing (e.g. Furchner et al., 2014; Köck, 2015), and especially international students and students with German as second language (e.g. Bongo et al., 2018; Friedl, 2021). However, comparatively little research has been conducted on how academic

---

<sup>2</sup> Wissenschaftssprache Deutsch. Goethe Universität. Retrieved from: [https://www.uni-frankfurt.de/44205211/Wissenschaftssprache\\_Deutsch#:~:text=F%C3%BCr%20die%20ausl%C3%A4ndischen%20Zielgruppen%20ist%20wissenschaftliche%20Mehrsprachigkeit%20ein,deutsche%20Wissenschaftssprache%20Erkenntnisinstrument%20und%20notwendiges%20Mittel%20des%20Wissenstransfers](https://www.uni-frankfurt.de/44205211/Wissenschaftssprache_Deutsch#:~:text=F%C3%BCr%20die%20ausl%C3%A4ndischen%20Zielgruppen%20ist%20wissenschaftliche%20Mehrsprachigkeit%20ein,deutsche%20Wissenschaftssprache%20Erkenntnisinstrument%20und%20notwendiges%20Mittel%20des%20Wissenstransfers)

German is actually taught or perceived by teachers (e.g. Dvorecký, 2014; Friedl, 2021). This lack of focus on pedagogy and teachers' perspectives represents a gap, especially in light of broader concerns around the diminishing role of German in academic contexts. As Roche (2012) argues, the German language, praised for its “strategic linguistic advantages” („Das Deutsche hat neben den einzigartig effizienten Möglichkeiten der Wortbildung und Entlehnung so viele weitere linguostrategische Vorteile“, Roche, 2012, p. 64), should continue to play an important role in higher education. Doing so would help preserve linguistic diversity and promote academic communication that is specific to the context.

In debates about EMI and OLMi, the role of local language becomes highly relevant at the University of Luxembourg. In this context, although Luxembourgish has been recognised as the national language of the country since 1984<sup>3</sup> (Article 1), its role in academia remains limited. The government, however, frames it as an evolving academic language<sup>4</sup> and several national strategies have sought to strengthen its presence as a language of scientific communication.

On the national level, the government developed a 20-year strategy to promote the language, focusing on four key areas. Firstly, the strategy roots for the strengthening of the language's status by increasing its visibility and official use in public life. Secondly, efforts are made to standardise the language through research. Thirdly, the strategy encourages the learning of Luxembourgish integrating it into educational programmes. Finally, it seeks to enhance cultural production in Luxembourgish by supporting literature, media, and the arts in this language<sup>5</sup>.

The university plays an active part in this process through collaborations with institutions such as the Zentrum fir d'Lëtzebuerger Sprooch and the Institut fir Lëtzebuerger Sprooch a Literaturwëssenschaft, which aim to promote research in and about the language. Public lectures and conferences are increasingly used to share findings on the linguistic landscape of the country, helping to integrate Luxembourgish language research within the university and the wider society.

Nonetheless, the university's strong international orientation has led to a growing reliance on English. Hofmann (2020) used discourse analysis to examine doctoral students'

---

<sup>3</sup> Loi du 24 février 1984 sur le régime des langues. Journal officiel du Grand-Duché de Luxembourg. (17 February 1984). Retrieved from: <https://legilux.public.lu/eli/etat/leg/loi/1984/02/24/n1/jo>

<sup>4</sup> Promotion of the Luxembourgish Language. Site du ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de l'Enfance et de la Jeunesse. (1 September 2023). Retrieved from: <https://men.public.lu/en/grands-dossiers/systeme-educatif/promotion-langue-luxembourgeoise.html>

<sup>5</sup> Strategy for the promotion of the Luxembourgish language. The Luxembourg Government. (17 October 2024). Retrieved from: <https://gouvernement.lu/en/dossiers/2018/langue-luxembourgeoise.html>

perceptions on academic success, language use, and internationalisation at the University of Luxembourg. One of the key findings of her research is the tension between the prevalence of English and the increasing pressure to publish in international journals. The findings underscore the complex interplay between EMI, local language promotion, and internationalisation, and point to the need for more balanced language policies that allow for both global engagement and the meaningful inclusion of national and regional languages in academia.

Overall, the expansion of EMI and Englishisation continues to shape higher education and brings to the surface complex tensions between internationalisation, linguistic diversity, and local identity. As seen in the case of the University of Luxembourg, EMI often coexists with national languages, raising critical questions about inclusion, equity, and the role of language in academic discourse. In such contexts, while English is frequently positioned as a strategic tool for promoting internationalisation in higher education, this emphasis can be on the expense of staff and students, with negative impact on active participation and academic success. Moreover, the ideological framing of EMI as neutral often masks underlying power dynamics. These dynamics need to be critically examined in light of their ideological underpinnings as they significantly influence the development, interpretation, and implementation of language policies (Hultgren et al., 2014; Swaan, 2013).

Research reviewed in this section presents language policies as powerful instruments that shape inclusion, access and academic culture. In this respect, Orduna–Nocito and Sánchez–García (2022) call for more nuanced inquiry into the multifaceted roles that English occupies within these contexts, ranging from a tool for internationalisation to a site for negotiating academic cultures. This lack of research, particularly around policy implementation and the lived experiences of stakeholders, represents a critical area for further research, especially in relation to institutional decision making and the everyday realities of teaching and learning in multilingual environments.

For a more contextualised understanding of the matters, the following section will focus on the European higher education landscape. The European context is defined by a distinctive interplay between language as a marker of cultural identity and as a pragmatic resource for mobility, inclusion, and competitiveness (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012). This dual role has resulted to a complex and often contradictory language policy environment, in which ideals of linguistic diversity coexist with the increasing dominance of English. For universities, this duality frames multilingualism as an important feature and a practical challenge.

Understanding this tension is essential in analysing how language policies are formed and experienced within European higher education institutions.

### 1.1.3 Policies and Initiatives on Linguistic Diversity in the European Context

In recent decades, multilingualism and linguistic diversity have become central to the European Union's policy agenda, reflecting the cultural diversity of its member states and the economic imperatives of an increasingly interconnected and knowledge-driven society (Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012). The European context offers a comprehensive framework for examining the evolution of language policies, reflecting the region's commitment to multilingualism, inclusion and linguistic rights. At the same time however, there is a growing recognition that higher education institutions across Europe face complex challenges related to multilingualism and linguistic diversity, especially with regard to the increasing internationalisation, the prominence of English and the growing diversity of staff and students (Tight, 2022).

At the European level, a range of initiatives has been launched to actively support and promote multilingualism (Tsioli & Androulakis, 2024). One of the earliest milestones was the European Cultural Convention adopted by the Council of Europe in 1954, which encouraged member states to promote mutual understanding and appreciation of each other's languages and cultures. This laid the ground for subsequent European efforts to integrate language learning and linguistic diversity into broader cultural and educational policies.

A significant development occurred in 1992 with the adoption of the European Charter on Regional and Minority Languages by the Council of Europe. This charter marked a noteworthy shift as it recognised the linguistic rights of regional and minority language speakers and promoted the protection and use of their respective languages and linguistic varieties in public life. Guided by similar, democratic values, the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (1998) emphasises the importance of respecting and protecting the ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and religious identities of national minorities. Collectively, these policy documents reflect the broader European commitment to multilingualism, cultural inclusion, and linguistic rights, principles that continue to shape language policies in educational institutions, including higher education institutions.

Some years later in 2007, the Council of Europe addressed plurilingual education and its aim "to develop speakers' language skills and linguistic repertoires" (Council of Europe, 2007, p. 10). In the respective campaign, the Council of Europe talked about the role of educational systems in raising awareness of the value of being able to use multiple languages,

regardless of proficiency level. This view adds to the lifelong value of multilingualism and the importance of supporting its development throughout one's life (García, 2009). Additionally, this responsibility of educational settings as mentioned by the Council of Europe, highlights the need for official frameworks and policies that regulate language use, further emphasising the role of institutions in promoting linguistic diversity.

In line with the above, the European Parliament's resolution 'Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment' (2009), outlines measures to support and promote linguistic diversity. One of the outcomes of this resolution is the establishment of the European Civil Society Platform to Promote Multilingualism (ECSPM)<sup>6</sup>. Among its contributions, the ECSPM published the document 'Transnationalizing Modern Languages: Reframing language education for a global future' (2018), which affirms the role of linguistic diversity across Europe and advocates for the development of plurilingual competence in education.

These policy developments have placed pressure on higher education institutions, which are tasked with implementing language strategies that align with the European Union's ambitions while also addressing local, institutional, and disciplinary realities. In this respect, European universities find themselves at the intersection of top-down policy frameworks and bottom-up linguistic realities, where linguistic diversity is both a goal to be achieved and a challenge to be managed.

The most influential language policy document for European higher education institutions is the Bologna Declaration (1999). One of the main aims of this declaration is to promote the "European dimension in higher education" (Bologna Declaration, 1999, p. 2) by encouraging mobility, collaboration, and interaction among European universities adding to the linguistically diverse profile of institutions.

The Bologna Declaration has been followed by documents and initiatives aimed at monitoring its implementation and suggesting future directions in European universities. Notably, the establishment of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA)<sup>7</sup> in 2010 reinforced the Bologna Declaration by promoting alignment and coherence across European universities. In the Paris Communiqué (2018), marking two decades since the original declaration, ministers reaffirmed their commitment to "new and inclusive approaches for continuous enhancement of learning and teaching across EHEA" (Paris Communiqué, 2018, p. 3). The same document also

---

<sup>6</sup> European Civil Society Platform. <https://ecspm.org/>

<sup>7</sup> European Higher Education Area. <https://ehea.info/>

stresses the need for enhanced collaboration among institutions as well as with the openness to society.

In addition to the EHEA, the European Education Area (EEA)<sup>8</sup> incorporates the vision of the European Union and the European Commission for quality education. Among others, EEA's aims include the promotion of multilingualism through language teaching and learning, diversity and inclusion through mobility programmes, and internationalisation through collaborations between European universities. The Erasmus+ program is an indicative example for staff and student mobility to increase linguistic diversity and contact among European universities.

Another initiative for the promotion of linguistic diversity in higher education is the Helsinki Initiative on Multilingualism (2019). This initiative focuses on the following three main areas: 1) making scientific knowledge accessible in multiple languages for society, 2) encouraging the dissemination of scientific knowledge in academic journals and books on a local level, and 3) promoting linguistic diversity in research evaluation. This initiative is also part of the 'In all languages'<sup>9</sup> campaign, which calls universities, policymakers, and researchers to actively advance and support linguistic diversity in higher education.

In line with the aforementioned campaign, the ECSPM launched the 'Declaration for multilingualism in higher education'<sup>10</sup>. This declaration has three main objectives. Firstly, it aims to raise awareness regarding the use of multiple languages across various language policy areas in higher education. Its second objective is to promote linguistic diversity and plurilingualism in the educational process. Thirdly, the declaration aims to encourage the integration of new technologies in order to support linguistic diversity in teaching and in learning.

Nonetheless, the European Union's approach to multilingualism and linguistic diversity has been criticised. Specifically, Baroncelli (2014) argues that, despite of the high value attributed to multilingualism at the institutional level, the European Union lacks a comprehensive framework that addresses multilingualism at other levels. This gap has a significant impact on European universities, where efforts to increase the international competitiveness of the higher education system (Bologna Declaration, 1999) often result in internationalisation being closely linked with the widespread use of English. Precisely, as

---

<sup>8</sup> European Education Area. <https://education.ec.europa.eu/>

<sup>9</sup> Helsinki Initiative on Multilingualism in Scholarly Communication. (2019). <https://www.helsinki-initiative.org/>

<sup>10</sup> Declaration for Multilingualism in Higher Education. ECSPM. Retrieved from: <https://ecspm.org/declaration-for-multilingualism-in-higher-education/>

European universities become more diverse and international, they face the challenge of balancing local linguistic practices with the global dominance of English. At the same time, European universities are expected not only to reflect broader policy objectives but also to adapt them to the specific needs of each institution.

Such tensions are indicative of broader ideological shifts in higher education concerning the role and value of multilingualism compared to the global prestige associated with English proficiency. These shifts have an impact on the ways in which multilingualism is framed in higher education institutions, notwithstanding the promotion of linguistic diversity by European policies. The next section starts with language ideologies and examines their intersection with language policies, to explore how these ideologies inform and shape language practices in higher education. Specifically, the next section delves deeper in these dynamics in order to provide a more nuanced understanding of the complex relationship between language policy, ideologies, and diversity in an era of internationalisation of higher education.

#### 1.1.4 Language Ideologies and Practices in Language Policy

Language ideologies are closely related to, and make an important part of, language policy in multilingual educational contexts (Farr & Song, 2011; Ricento, 2006). Language ideologies form a belief system about languages, their use, and their social significance (Karlsson & Karlsson, 2019). This belief system is often influenced by the social context in which languages are used and can shape behaviours, attitudes, and practices regarding language (Walker, 2024). With language ideology, Woolard (1998) refers to “representations, whether explicit or implicit, that construe the inter-section of language and human beings in a social world” (Woolard, 1998, p. 3). This definition includes the social and cultural views that shape how language is valued, and how individuals perceive themselves and others in a given context.

Language ideologies are closely related to language policies though the two do not exist in a linear cause-effect relationship. As Sonntag (2000) argues, ideologies tend to remain stable over time, while policies are shaped by shifting sociopolitical contexts and often reflect conflicting or competing ideological positions (Farr & Song, 2011; McCarty, 2004). Farr and Song (2011) have stated that language policies are typically applied top-down and dictate teachers’ and students’ practices. Nonetheless, these policies are often underpinned by more profound, albeit often implicit, language ideologies. Consequently, a nuanced analysis of policy requires attention to the ideological frameworks in which it is situated.

At the same time, an exclusive focus on formal policy risks overlooking the agency of individuals, particularly teachers, in interpreting and implementing policy at the micro-level (Canagarajah, 2005). The language practices of individuals, defined as the linguistic choices they make in their interactions, provide valuable insights into how language ideologies are implemented in practice. These practices often diverge from official institutional policies, reflecting alternative or conflicting ideological orientations (Hultgren et al., 2014).

In higher education, research on the dynamics between language ideologies and language practices provides a critical lens for the understanding of the lived realities of multilingual communities and the ways in which language policy is experienced on the micro-level. Understanding how language is framed, used and perceived in academic settings is essential to capture how multilingualism influences classroom interaction, learning outcomes, and students' access to the educational process.

Nevertheless, the intersection of language ideologies and language practices in multilingual higher education remains insufficiently explored, particularly in relation to teaching and learning. In fact, existing research tends to prioritise top-down analyses of policy texts, often overlooking the lived experiences of those directly engaged in the educational process (e.g. Orduna-Nocito & Sánchez-García, 2022). Hornberger and Johnson (2007) explain that examining both macro-level policies and micro-level practices is essential for understanding the sociolinguistic dynamics that shape the educational outcomes. Such research would offer deeper insights into the ways in which institutional policies align with or diverge from the realities of classroom interactions, learning outcomes, and the overall educational experience in multilingual university settings. In the same direction, Llurda et al. (2015) also propose a shift towards more localised research, with the aim of more accurately capturing the unique characteristics of specific educational settings.

A critical review of European language policy in higher education adds another aspect to this discussion. Although language policies often articulate commitments to multilingualism, inclusion, and linguistic rights, their implementation frequently diverges from these ideals (Canagarajah, 2005). On the one hand, policy documents advocate for the promotion of linguistic diversity as a shared European value. On the other hand, there is a tendency to leave out the sociolinguistic complexities within universities (Liddicoat, 2018). Crucially, language policies rarely reflect the beliefs, experiences, and needs of social actors, such as teachers and students, whose agency is essential in shaping educational outcomes.

For example, Farr and Song (2011) conducted interviews with teachers to explore their interpretations of language policies and the ways in which those policies influence their

teaching practices. Their research concludes that there was often a disconnect between the institutional directives and the realities of language use in the classroom. In another research, Canagarajah (2005) conducted policy analysis to examine how institutional language policies are framed and the extent to which they align with the ideologies embedded within those policies. Findings revealed tensions between policies and their implementation.

In her doctoral research at the University of Luxembourg, Stoike–Sy’s (2014) collected data through course observations, questionnaires, and interviews to develop an interpretive theory of how individual and institutional multilingualism is perceived within the university. The study investigated perceptions of students enrolled in a trilingual master’s programme, examining the multilingual practices within these courses and the emergence of language hierarchies. Findings showed a discrepancy between the university’s institutional multilingualism and students’ reality of heterogeneous linguistic repertoires, which were perceived as either enriching or disruptive. This disconnect was found to be driven not only by institutional constraints but also by the influence of underlying language ideologies, which shape how policies are understood and put into practice.

Overall, the discrepancy between explicit language policies and their implementation confirms the need for a multilevel analysis that bridges macro–level policy frameworks with the micro–level realities and practices of actors. In view of the aforementioned points, the following section moves beyond policy discourse to focus on the pedagogical implications of linguistic diversity in higher education. It explores how linguistic diversity is approached in teaching and learning practices and considers how more pluralistic and inclusive pedagogical practices can better respond to the linguistic realities of contemporary multilingual university classrooms.

## 1.2 Teaching and Learning in Multilingual University Classrooms

Institutional language policies establish the overarching framework within which linguistic diversity is managed. However, it is through individuals’ practices that these policies are most visibly enacted in teaching and learning (Tsioli & Androulakis, 2024). In the context of higher education, the role of linguistic diversity goes beyond formal regulation, to include classroom interaction, academic identity construction, and epistemic access (Bredtmann et al., 2021).

As demonstrated by scholars, such as Hu and de Saint–Georges (2020), the ways in which students engage with their plurilingual repertoires are shaped by the social and institutional conditions of their learning environments. Despite an emphasis on individual

agency, students' capacity to mobilise diverse linguistic resources is significantly dependent on the extent to which environment acknowledges and values this diversity. Research by de Saint-Georges et al. (2020) further shows that the presence of either monolingual norms or inclusive multilingual practices within university classrooms significantly impacts students' learning experiences and their participation in the educational process.

With that in mind, this second part of the Literature Review chapter focuses on linguistic diversity in teaching and in learning. This part begins with an examination of the theoretical foundations of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning in higher education. It introduces plurilingual pedagogical approaches relevant to higher education contexts and explores how the different approaches frame and influence language use in multilingual university classrooms.

The subsequent section specifically addresses enrichment programmes that promote linguistic diversity in the educational process. This part presents plurilingual pedagogical practices, including receptive multilingualism, which have been shown to encourage linguistic diversity in higher education classrooms. The section concludes by exploring the implications of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning. In this last part, the emphasis is directed towards the impact of linguistic diversity on negotiating identities, academic success and students' engagement. Following this structure, the Literature Review chapter moves from the macro-level, that is the role of the university in managing linguistic diversity, to the micro-level, focusing on teachers and students in the educational process.

### 1.2.1 Educational Approaches to Linguistic Diversity in Higher Education

In the European context, which is guided by initiatives and policies that place emphasis on multilingualism and linguistic diversity, the need to promote plurilingual pedagogical practices is becoming more apparent. The importance of such practices is increasingly recognised, particularly in institutions that attract staff and students with diverse backgrounds.

Scholars such as May (2008) and Baker (2011) categorise multilingual education programs based on educational, linguistic, and sociolinguistic factors, to distinguish between transitional, maintenance and enrichment models. Van Ginkel (2014) identifies two approaches to multilingual education: the submersion approach and the additive approach. Regardless of the specific classification, these models reflect varying perspectives of the role of language in education, as a barrier, a right, or a valuable resource (Ruiz, 1984), each carrying important implications for the management of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning.

Transitional programs, which focus on shifting students from their first language(s) to the language(s) of instruction, typically adopt an assimilative approach. These programs may initially allow students to use their first language(s), but they ultimately aim to replace these languages with the official teaching languages, often holding higher status. As Cummins (1994) argues, this approach tends to undermine students' home languages, which are viewed as less valuable in academic contexts. Cenoz (2012) further adds that such programs do not promote plurilingual approaches as they are not orientated towards multilingualism or multiliteracy.

Maintenance programs, often associated with the submersion approach, aim to preserve the student's first language(s) while prioritising the learning of the official language(s) of instruction (May, 2008). The submersion model generally treats multilingualism and linguistic diversity as a challenge, viewing the use of multiple languages in the educational process as potentially confusing. In this view, maintenance programs can result in the marginalisation of home languages and cultures, leading to a loss of linguistic and cultural diversity within educational settings (Lambert, 1980).

Conversely, enrichment programs reflect the additive approach, which aims to develop students' full linguistic repertoires. Rather than replacing students' home languages, these programs seek to enhance students' proficiency in both their first language(s) and the language(s) of instruction. Van Ginkel (2014) describes this approach as a philosophy that values all linguistic varieties, recognising them as integral to the educational process. Notably, this approach supports parallel language use, defined as "the concurrent use of several languages within one or more areas, whereby [n]one of the languages abolishes or replaces the other" (Gregersen et al., 2018, p. 9). In this paradigm, multiple languages coexist and contribute equally to the educational process. Therefore, enrichment models promote linguistic diversity and cultural pluralism (Baker, 2011) through inclusive and dynamic academic environments where language and identity are perceived as resources rather than barriers (García & Flores, 2012).

The above approaches are associated with a series of effects on language and society, as described by Hornberger (1991, p. 223) in Table 2:

<b>Transitional programs</b>	<b>Maintenance programs (Submersion approach)</b>	<b>Enrichment programs (Additive approach)</b>
Language shift	Language maintenance	Language development
Cultural assimilation	Strengthened cultural identity	Cultural pluralism
Social incorporation	Civil rights affirmation	Social autonomy

*Table 2: Multilingual education and effects on language (Hornberger, 1991, p. 223).*

The additive approach to multilingual education, as conceptualised by Hornberger (1991), has increasingly been associated in recent literature with plurilingual perspectives (García & Flores, 2012). Plurilingual perspectives consider learners' linguistic repertoires as integral to knowledge construction rather than as obstacles to be overcome. Scholars, such as Menken and Shohamy (2015), de Backer et al. (2017), Gorter and Cenoz (2017), and de Saint-Georges et al. (2020), advocate for the pedagogical benefits of plurilingual perspectives in education, as they reflect the linguistic complexity of the real world. The additive approach also advocates for language and human rights (Wright, 2007) and aligns with broader values of social justice and democratic participation in education (Piller, 2016). From this perspective, the exclusion of students' diverse backgrounds and linguistic repertoires raises questions of inequality (Gipps & Stobart 2009; Stobart 2005) and can result in their being at a disadvantage (Gorter & Cenoz, 2017).

Considering the above, in her research, Vetter (2013) has called for a reconfiguration of language policies and teacher education through a plurilingual lens, arguing for ways to bring “multilingualism of the life-world to school instead of silencing the multiple voices of multilingual pupils” (Vetter, 213, p. 96). In this excerpt, Vetter (2013) argues that the success of multilingual education depends on the explicit recognition and systematic inclusion of students' diverse linguistic repertoires. This perspective is equally applicable to higher education, where institutions have the potential, and the responsibility, to acknowledge and integrate students' diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, instead of silencing their voices (de Saint-Georges et al., 2020).

The above points highlight the particular relevance of the additive approach in multilingual universities, where staff and students bring their diverse linguistic backgrounds into the educational process. This approach is consistent with plurilingual educational paradigms and strategies, which aim to promote linguistic equity and inclusion in higher education (Wright, 2007). It supports equitable participation and improves academic outcomes for linguistically diverse populations by valuing and integrating their full linguistic repertoires into the educational process. Adopting an additive approach allows institutions to move beyond symbolic forms of inclusion toward meaningful, structural, and pedagogical reforms.

The following section builds on these theoretical foundations, and particularly the additive approach, to examine how it is translated into pedagogical practice. The focus in the next section is on plurilingual practices and how students' linguistic repertoires can be actively integrated into teaching and learning, with the aim of contributing to a more inclusive educational environment.

### 1.2.2 Plurilingual Practices for Multilingual University Classrooms

Plurilingual pedagogical practices respond to linguistic diversity in educational settings and are a central component of the additive approach. Rather than treating languages as isolated systems, plurilingual practices encourage the use of individuals' whole linguistic repertoire through pedagogical practices that aim for inclusivity. Scholars talk about the plurilingual approach as "a holistic approach that takes into account all the languages in the learner's repertoire" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011, p. 1), emphasising the fluid use of multiple languages, as a valuable resource for learning. As Piccardo (2018) explains, in applying plurilingual pedagogical practices "teachers and students pursue an educational strategy of embracing and exploiting the linguistic diversity present in order to maximize communication and hence both subject learning and plurilingual/pluricultural awareness" (Piccardo, 2018, p. 214).

Prior research on plurilingual practices has mostly focused on language classrooms or in the context of early, primary and secondary education (e.g. Cummins, 2012). For example, Coelho and Ortega (2020) discuss the growing interest in plurilingual practices within school settings, and especially in kindergarten and primary schools. In her presentation on plurilingual education in primary and secondary schools in the Frisian context, Duarte (2021) referred, among others, to language awareness (Candelier, 2003), teaching for transfer (Cummins, 2008), functional multilingual learning (Sierens & van Avermaet, 2014), linguistically responsive teaching (Lucas et al., 2008), intercomprehension (Hufeisen & Marx, 2007) and holistic models for multilingual education (Cenoz, 2009).

With a focus on high schools, García and Sylvan (2011, p. 385) emphasise the importance of acknowledging the "singularities in pluralities" (García & Sylvan, 2011, p. 385) that characterise multilingual classrooms. Through their research, they advocate for plurilingual pedagogies that acknowledge and build upon the diverse linguistic resources students bring to the classroom, as essential for promoting meaningful learning experiences and supporting academic success (García & Sylvan, 2011).

However, Beacco and Byram (2007) argue that plurilingual practices should not be limited to language instruction or to primary and secondary education. Rather, they argue that these practices can be effectively implemented across a range of educational contexts that value openness, inclusion, diversity, and intercultural understanding. With that in mind, the next paragraphs introduce key approaches to plurilingual education, that may be relevant to university contexts, namely translanguaging and receptive multilingualism, particularly through intercomprehension and *lingua receptiva* (LaRa). Subsequently, the section will turn

to Integrated Didactic Approaches (IDAL), with a focus on Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) serving as a widely used model in universities, before concluding with the use of plain language in academic settings. Given that the present research focuses on the University of Luxembourg, the next paragraphs draw from relevant examples in comparable higher education contexts, analysing how these practices have been implemented in university settings and assessing their impact on teaching and learning.

I start this overview with translanguaging, which in the words of Mazak (2016) “translanguaging is many things” (Mazak, 2016, p. 1); it is both a theory and a pedagogy (García et al., 2021; García & Wei, 2014). As a theory, translanguaging is described as a dynamic process of making meaning through diverse linguistic systems (Wei, 2011), a process that places students in the centre of the educational process and supports classroom practices that draw on their full linguistic repertoires. On the other hand, translanguaging as a pedagogy is defined as “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 251).

Prior research (e.g. García & Wei, 2014; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Somlata, 2020) links translanguaging to increased student engagement and academic performance, conceptualising language as a resource and valuing students’ linguistic practices as integral to the educational process (García et al., 2017). At the same time, the implementation of translanguaging pedagogy has been subject to controversial views, as it challenges language ideologies that are embedded in monolingual, nationalist (Li, 2022) and colonial frameworks (Rajendram et al., 2023). By placing emphasis on the linguistic practices of plurilingual students, particularly those from marginalised backgrounds, translanguaging disrupts dominant narratives and questions power dynamics within education. While this shift promotes a more inclusive and equitable approach to language in education (Rajendram et al., 2023), it also provokes debates among educators, policymakers, and institutions invested in more traditional educational approaches and models.

Unlike translanguaging, which involves the active use of an individual’s linguistic resources, receptive multilingualism focuses on understanding across languages without requiring active production in each one. In fact, Blees and ten Thije (2015) explain that receptive multilingualism can be used when interlocutors have some level of receptive skills in the other’s language(s). In higher education, Blees et al. (2014) argue on the growing importance of receptive multilingualism as potential alternative to the extensive use of English.

This approach empowers students to communicate in the languages they are most comfortable with, without having to deliver course content in each of these languages (Blees et al., 2014).

Receptive multilingualism was introduced by Rehbein et al. (2012) through the concept of LaRa. LaRa describes the “linguistic, mental, interactional as well as intercultural competencies which are creatively activated” (Rehbein et al., 2012, p. 249) in receptive multilingual communication practices. This practice makes use of individuals’ linguistic repertoires without insisting on proficiency. It encourages multilingual exchange and promotes inclusion in practice. This means that LaRa can be used as a strategy for communication, where individuals have a good level of understanding in the other’s language(s) but are allowed to choose and use their preferred language(s) to respond.

While LaRa can be understood as part of the wider framework of plurilingualism (Canagarajah, 2009), in the specific context of language teaching and learning receptive multilingualism appears either as intercomprehension (Blees & ten Thije, 2015) or as inherent *lingua receptiva* (Verschik, 2012). Intercomprehension was initially developed in projects involving adult learners and university students in Romance speaking countries, specifically France and Germany (Meißner, 2008). It is defined as the understanding of a language or linguistic variety without explicit or formal teaching of that language due to the shared linguistic structures and relatedness of the languages involved (Conti & Grin, 2008). The objective of this concept is to facilitate the acquisition of linguistic competences in a foreign language through the use of another related language that the individual has already acquired and can understand, without explicit teaching. Therefore, the emphasis is placed on receptive skills, although competences can also extend to productive skills.

Receptive multilingualism, and particularly concepts like LaRa and intercomprehension, show that mutual understanding can be achieved without full productive competence in each other’s languages (Rehbein et al., 2012). On the other hand, approaches such as IDAL, further systematise learning and communication in multilingual contexts. The IDAL Commission defines the concept as “the pedagogical use of other languages in the learner’s developing repertoire, and of the learner’s experiences of learning and using these other languages”<sup>11</sup>. The concept of IDAL, also found as ‘Crosslinguistic Pedagogy or Teaching for Transfer’, was proposed by Candelier et al. (2012) as a pedagogical approach that

---

<sup>11</sup>La Commission Didactique intégrée des langues de l’association internationale EDiLiC - Éducation et Diversité Linguistique et Culturelle. Retrieved from: <https://www.idalcommissiondil.com/>

emphasises the use of the languages and linguistic varieties that are present in a student's developing repertoire (Duarte & Kirsch, 2020).

In higher education, IDAL is specifically referred to as Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE). The term ICLHE was introduced to differentiate this approach from Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and to distinguish between higher education and primary and secondary education (Fortanet-Gómez, 2013). ICLHE has traditionally focused on teaching English as an additional language (Dimova & Kling, 2020) and refers to the intentional design of programmes that integrate both content and language objectives, using an additional language alongside the dominant language of instruction. The concept also addresses the pedagogical and methodological challenges associated with teaching disciplinary content through an additional language (Ruiz-Madrid & Fortanet-Gómez, 2023) and has been linked to issues relating to the necessity for explicit policy that delineates the roles of all stakeholders (Lasagabaster, 2022; Macaro, 2018). Despite its growing importance, Ruiz-Madrid and Fortanet-Gómez (2023) report limited research on its pedagogical aspects.

Talking about accessibility and inclusivity of the educational process in multilingual settings, other scholars emphasise the use of plain language (Lutz, 2019; Myers & Martin, 2021). Plain language refers to the process of tailoring (Pierce-Grove et al., 2016) the language used to overcome language barriers. For Bremer et al. (1996) the purpose of using plain language is to adjust one's speech to facilitate comprehension and involve individuals in an effective communication. However, scholars (Fairclough, 2006; Leskelä et al., 2022) argue that plain language lacks scientific basis and is less analytical with negative effects on the academic style. Therefore, even though plain language is very much aligned with principles of accessibility and participation (Leskelä et al., 2022), it is not widely used in educational settings and especially higher education.

The above plurilingual practices and concepts suggest ways to create a more inclusive, equitable and engaging learning environment valuing students' full linguistic repertoires and promoting intercultural understanding. In higher education, such approaches have been demonstrated to enrich academic engagement, enhance learning outcomes (Galante et al., 2019) and promote awareness of culture and language, contributing to social unity (Duarte, 2022). Despite of the growing body of research that explores plurilingualism in teaching and learning (Steve & Marshall, 2020), Dafouz and Smit (2022) document a comparatively limited number of studies concerning the implementation of such approaches in higher education settings. One such example is the research of Duarte and Günther-van der Meij (2022) who

study translanguaging and receptive multilingualism at the University of Groningen. In their research, Duarte and Günther–van der Meij (2022) argue for the importance of training teachers and making students aware of such approaches that allow them to exploit their linguistic repertoires in the educational process.

This finding aligns with other research (e.g. Cruickshank, 2015; Dooly & Vallejo, 2020; Galante et al., 2020; Mady, 2019; Portolés & Martí, 2020), which finds that teachers appear reluctant to adopting plurilingual practices in the educational process. Teachers often view plurilingualism as overly theoretical or misaligned with classroom realities and their willingness to apply such practices depends on the perceived practicality of these methods, as well as their ideologies and professional experience (Portolés & Martí, 2020). Priorities of institutions around standard language norms can further complicate the application of plurilingual pedagogies.

Nevertheless, Galante et al. (2019) argue that, beyond teacher training, effective implementation of plurilingual concepts and practices requires addressing practical, ideological and structural challenges in linguistically diverse environments. With that in mind, the next section critically explores implications of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning by drawing on relevant research, with particular attention to how linguistic diversity shapes academic engagement, identity negotiation, and pedagogical practices.

### 1.2.3 Implications of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning

Linguistic diversity plays a critical role in shaping the educational experience and has far-reaching implications for academic performance, future career prospects, sense of belonging, and empowerment. As university populations become increasingly diverse, these dynamics present both opportunities and challenges. This section explores the implications of linguistic diversity for the educational process, with a particular focus on its impact on teachers and students, particularly at the undergraduate level.

A growing body of research suggests that language plays a central role in students' academic success, social integration, and personal identity within higher education. Leibowitz et al. (2005) explored the intersection of language, identity, and learning in a case study at the University of Western Cape, South Africa. In their research, Leibowitz et al. (2005) use semistructured interviews with 64 staff members and 100 students from various disciplines. Their findings show that language significantly shapes personal identity and influences how students engage with their academic environment. This research also showed that students who

could draw on their linguistic diversity felt a stronger sense of belonging, as language use directly influenced their academic engagement.

In the Luxembourgish context, prior research illustrates that language also serves as a social symbol shaped by numerous assumptions and assigned values with a significant role in shaping individual and collective identities (Sieburg, 2013). At the University of Luxembourg, de Bres and Franziskus (2014) examined the multilingual practices of first- and second-year students enrolled in a course on multilingualism. In their study, de Bres and Franziskus (2014) use language diaries, which were produced in class, to track students' language use and its impact on learning. Their study found that students' multilingual practices varied based on context, language proficiency, and personal backgrounds, pointing to the emergence of "hybrid national and language identities" (de Bres & Franziskus, 2014, p. 74). However, despite the prevalence of multilingualism, the study also found that students' language practices were often invisible within the university setting, raising questions about how effectively it recognises and supports the linguistic identities and realities of its students throughout the educational process.

Cummins (2001) linked academic success to students' participation and engagement in the educational process. At the undergraduate level, the positive correlation between student engagement and academic success is supported in the research of Sibanda and Joubert (2022). Specifically, Sibanda and Joubert (2022) explored experiences with EMI, sense of belonging, and the role of indigenous languages at two different campuses of the University of the Free State. Through surveys, interviews, and focus groups with students and faculty staff they found that students feel more comfortable and empowered when using indigenous languages, highlighting how multilingualism supports academic performance and success.

The use of multiple languages has also been identified as a catalyst for creativity and diversity of thought. In Preece's (2019) study with plurilingual postgraduate students at a university in London, participants highlighted the cognitive and intellectual benefits of being able to use multiple languages in an academic setting. Participants described linguistic diversity as a "real asset" (Preece et al., 2019, p. 126) that was "mentally stimulating" (Preece et al., 2019, p. 126) and contributed to increased creativity and a broader range of perspectives. From this research, Preece et al. (2019) conclude that multilingual resources support academic success by allowing students to use their full linguistic repertoires, which in turn strengthens their identities as learners and thinkers.

Linguistic diversity has also been linked to cognitive benefits. Talking about cognitive benefits, Cook (2008) introduces the concept of multicompetence, defined as the ability to use multiple languages "in the same mind" (Cook, 2008, p. 11). The concept suggests that

plurilingual individuals develop increased linguistic awareness and may even experience changes in certain cognitive processes, leading to improved problem-solving and analytical skills. In academic contexts, these cognitive benefits can translate into greater adaptability and improved proficiency in managing complex tasks among plurilingual students. This means that multilingualism provides students with a more dynamic cognitive framework that allows them to engage with complex academic content from multiple perspectives. By contrast, García and Lin (2016) state that monolingualism in education “results in academic failure, linguistic and identity insecurities, and the inability to enjoy the critical metalinguistic awareness” (García & Lin, 2016, p. 6).

Furthermore, linguistic diversity can be an important tool for collaborative learning and knowledge construction in academic settings. Research by Gajo et al. (2013) explore how multilingual interactions among teachers and students in a law course at the University of Zurich contribute to the co-construction of knowledge. To this end, Gajo et al. (2013) analyse the language practices used by participants in an analysis of bi- and plurilingual interactions from a class at the Faculty of Law at the University of Zurich. Drawing on their findings, Gajo et al. (2013) suggest that the integration of multiple languages into the curriculum and classroom practices contributes to richer academic exchanges and deeper understanding of the subject matter.

The advantages of linguistic diversity are also evident in the professional sphere. Cenoz and Gorter (2015) emphasise the career benefits of multilingualism, asserting that individuals with plurilingual competencies are more likely to succeed in a progressively interconnected, globalised job market. The ability to communicate across cultural and linguistic boundaries has been demonstrated to enhance employability, particularly within international organisations, diplomatic fields, and cross-cultural industries. In this respect, by providing students with the opportunity to develop multilingual skills, universities equip them with an essential skill set that is valued across a range of sectors. This not only improves employability but also enables students to thrive in multicultural and multilingual working environments (Pietrzyk-Kowalec, 2023).

Despite of the positive points, multilingualism and linguistic diversity present challenges in the educational process. A relevant challenge in higher education pertains to the impact of language barriers on students’ academic performance, particularly in disciplines where the use of field-specific language is crucial (Bernhofer & Tonin, 2022). In addition to that, requiring students to alternate between languages in their studies, particularly in technical or specialised subjects, can lead to cognitive fatigue (Dabaj & Yetkin, 2011). The constant

switching can hinder students' ability to engage with academic content in a meaningful way, which may result in reduced academic performance (Baker, 2011; Harzing & Feely, 2007).

Bernhofer and Tonin (2022) conducted a relevant study at the University of Bozen–Bolzano with the objective of investigating the impact of linguistic diversity on academic performance. In their research, Bernhofer and Tonin (2022) distributed surveys to students in order to gather data on their language proficiency, linguistic background, and language preferences for academic work and exams. In addition, the researchers used students' exam scores to compare the performance between those with different first language(s) than the language(s) used for the exams. The findings of the study indicate that language can act as a barrier for students who are not fully proficient in the language(s) of instruction and can negatively impact their ability to demonstrate their knowledge.

The use of discipline-specific language becomes more challenging in linguistically diverse contexts, where plurilingual pedagogies are not exploited. As Unsworth (2001, 2006) notes, plurilingual students encounter distinctive challenges in navigating discipline-specific language. This challenge is extended to teachers, especially to those who lack the necessary training or awareness to effectively support students in developing academic language proficiency within their respective disciplines. Wingate (2015) observes that content teachers often lack the preparation to teach academic writing or language skills, attributing these responsibilities to other areas of expertise. Consequently, students who are required to navigate both the language of instruction and the specialised language of their discipline, may experience feelings of discouragement and low self-esteem.

At the University of Luxembourg, Uwera (2016) conducted ethnographic research on language practices within the law department. The study focused on how students and teachers navigate the university's multilingual environment, particularly with respect to its working languages, English, French and German. Uwera's (2016) research highlights the challenges encountered by students and staff when engaging with languages that are not their first language(s), providing valuable insights into the discipline-specific academic and communicative difficulties that arise in multilingual education.

In linguistically diverse settings, sociocultural barriers can also lead to students' negative experiences. Plurilingual students may experience feelings of exclusion or marginalisation, especially if their language or accent is perceived as nonstandard (Woltran & Schwab, 2025). As argued by Odeniyi and Lazar (2020), students from migrant communities may face additional challenges, given that their linguistic backgrounds may not correspond with the prevailing academic discourse in mainstream higher education.

Relevant research reveals that although linguistic diversity, “during the last decades [...] has been seen mainly as an opportunity” (Jessner–Schmid & Kramsch, 2015, p. 2), it also presents significant and complex pedagogical, sociolinguistic, and institutional challenges. These challenges are of particular significance for undergraduate students, where students are in the early stages of forming their academic identities and who are expected to navigate both the general academic discourse and the specialised language(s) of their chosen disciplines, often without sufficient linguistic or institutional support.

Despite growing awareness for the challenges related to linguistic diversity, research has thus far predominantly focused on the benefits, with the more complex realities related to linguistic disadvantage and exclusion receiving comparatively less attention (Dafouz & Smit, 2022). In light of this, the second part of this chapter concludes with a significant research gap that calls for context-specific inquiry into how linguistic diversity is navigated within universities considering institutional frameworks, teachers’ perspectives as well as undergraduate students’ experiences.

The Literature Review chapter provided an overview of research on the management of linguistic diversity in European higher education institutions, with a focus on plurilingual pedagogical practices in multilingual contexts and the broader implications of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning. In exploring these matters, the literature review revealed the need for further research that explores the institutional policy alongside individuals’ practices (Hu & Lei, 2014). For example, Clarke (2020) reports a notable lack of empirical research on the ways in which international and plurilingual students experience language policies and practices within European universities, and how these affect their learning experiences. The study of Odeniyi and Lazar (2020) further illustrates that the language practices and educational experiences of plurilingual students, particularly those from migrant backgrounds, are not yet fully understood, and that both teachers and students require more tailored support.

This gap is significant, given the growing emphasis on policy-driven reforms in higher education. Without a clear understanding of how policies are interpreted and implemented by teachers and students it becomes difficult to assess policies’ effectiveness and to ensure that the intended objectives are met (Orduna–Nocito & Sánchez–García, 2022). At the same time, research at the undergraduate level is particularly important. Undergraduate students may face unique challenges in their transition from secondary education, where multilingualism may not have been a central focus, into a higher education environment, where language use is more complex.

As a trilingual institution situated in a multilingual and multicultural national context, the University of Luxembourg constitutes a valuable opportunity to explore the interplay between institutional language policy and the experiences of teachers and students. Prior relevant research at this university has mainly included staff, master's and doctoral students, with a particular focus on language practices, perceptions, and challenges in multilingual academic settings (de Saint-Georges et al., 2020; Hofmann, 2020; Stoike-Sy, 2014). Considering the University of Luxembourg's policy framework, which positions multilingualism as an asset for teaching and learning, understanding how undergraduate students engage with these policies is crucial.

The present study addresses this gap by examining the intersection of language ideologies and language practices on the undergraduate level of study at the multilingual University of Luxembourg. In doing so, the research aims to provide a comprehensive overview of how diversity is framed and managed on the macro-level while also including the micro-level perceptions and practices of teachers and undergraduate students. Researching the above issues at the undergraduate level can provide valuable insights into the needs of this population, inform institutional policy and teaching practices, and potentially contribute to reforms in the existing language policy. Ultimately, addressing this gap contributes to the broader discourse of linguistic diversity in multilingual European universities and informs the development of inclusive policies and pedagogies.

## 2. Theoretical Framework

The second chapter presents the theoretical framework that underpins the present research, establishing the basis to interpret how linguistic diversity is framed and experienced in the educational process at the University of Luxembourg. The study adopts a multilayered approach that combines policy document analysis with discourse analysis, which allow for a comprehensive examination of institutional language policies and individual experiences.

The chapter begins with an examination of the conceptual and methodological tools employed to analyse institutional policy documents. Institutional policy documents are first analysed using policy document to systematically examine their content, structure and ideological underpinnings. This is followed by reflexive thematic analysis to identify patterns, values, and ideological constructs that shape the university's multilingual language policy. The two analytical approaches foreground how multilingualism and diversity are framed at the institutional level, and which discourses are dominant in the institution's policy.

The second part of this chapter examines the lived experiences of teachers and undergraduate students through discourse analysis. This part adopts a dual approach that combines reflexive thematic analysis with the appraisal framework, situated within systemic functional linguistics (SFL). Analysis of data collected from teachers and undergraduate students draws on the reflexive thematic analysis, as the initial method to identify patterns of meaning. Subsequently, the appraisal framework is applied to gain deeper understanding of how individuals navigate linguistic diversity in the educational process.

The combination of these approaches facilitates a multidimensional exploration of multilingualism and linguistic diversity, connecting macro-level institutional discourses with micro-level individual experiences, enhancing this research's contribution to the fields of applied linguistics, critical discourse studies, and sociolinguistics.

### 2.1 Policy Document Analysis as an Analytical Approach

Language policy documents shape and reflect practices, ideologies, and power relations (Johnson, 2013; Ricento, 2015). Schiffman (2012) refers to “the linguistic culture” (Schiffman, 2012, p. 5) of language policy documents to describe the set of language-related ideologies, cultures, attitudes and belief systems embedded in these documents. In this respect, policy is a “discursive activity” (Bacchi, 2000, p. 49) that has a significant impact on practices and realities.

Throughout the text, the terms ‘institutional policy’ and ‘institutional policy documents’ are specifically used to refer to formal text documents adopted by the University of Luxembourg; texts which serve to guide internal practices and reflect broader ideological positions. These terms are deliberately chosen to emphasise the institutional level of analysis, distinguishing it from ‘official policies’ typically associated with national or governmental language policies (Soler & Gallego–Balsà, 2019), and which lie beyond the scope of this study.

The analysis of institutional language policy documents requires the selection of an appropriate method to identify both what is explicitly stated and what is implied. The present research employs policy document analysis, a method that serves as both a qualitative research method and a practical tool for exploring how educational institutions conceptualise and legitimise language use (Cardno, 2018). This approach is based on the understanding that policy texts are not neutral, but are historically, socially and ideologically situated reflecting the identities and ideologies of the institution in which they are produced (Blommaert, 1999; Lo Bianco, 2008; May, 2012). The methodological advantage of policy document analysis lies in the use of tools that guide a systematic analysis allowing to explore the different aspects of policy production and implementation.

In the present research, policy document analysis is applied using the structured and critical framework outlined by Cardno (2018). This framework builds on previous work in policy analysis (Alexander, 2013; Bell & Stephenson, 2006; Busher, 2006) and is organised around five areas. The first area, document production and location, looks at where and how the document is produced and how it fits within the broader institutional and policy framework. The second area, authorship and audience, considers who wrote the document, who it is intended for, and what kinds of power dynamics are involved. Third is the policy context, which focuses on the social, political, and institutional background in which the policy was developed. The fourth area, policy text, examines the language used in the document and the discourses it reflects. The last one, policy consequences, explores the potential implicit and explicit outcomes of the policy, particularly in terms of its impact on the institution’s identity and the practices of its stakeholders (Cardno, 2018).

This framework for policy document analysis is organised around specific questions to address each of the five areas (see Table 3):

1) Document production and location	<p>Why was the document produced?</p> <p>Where was the document produced and when?</p> <p>Where was it located?</p> <p>Was it easy or difficult to access?</p>
2) Authorship and audience	<p>Who wrote the document?</p> <p>What is their position, and do they have a bias?</p> <p>Who was it written for?</p>
3) Policy context	<p>What is the purpose of the policy (for the organisation or the state)?</p> <p>Are drivers or forces behind the policy evident?</p> <p>What values underpin and guide the policy and are these linked to local or national strategic and quality issues?</p> <p>Are there multiple values that might create tensions?</p>
4) Policy text	<p>How is the policy structured and how does the text provide evidence of its construction or development?</p> <p>What are the key elements of the policy and are they associated with local or national legal or regulatory requirements?</p> <p>Are there related procedures specified in the text that provide guidance for practice?</p>
5) Policy consequences	<p>What is the intended overall impact of the policy?</p> <p>How is policy implementation intended to be monitored?</p> <p>How and when is the policy to be reviewed?</p> <p>How does the text draw attention to important aspects of practice related to the policy?</p>

*Table 3: Framework for policy documents analysis (adapted from Cardno, 2018, p. 631).*

According to Cardno (2018), the answers to the questions proposed (see Table 3) should either be found in the policy text itself or noted as omissions, helping to identify contradictions, ambiguities, or tensions within these documents. This way the framework allows to reveal the underlying forces or drivers that influence the policy and its impact.

In the present research, policy document analysis allows for a critical reading of how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are framed, what ideologies underpin these framings, and to what extent institutional language choices align with broader educational and political agendas. This structured approach is particularly valuable, as it places importance on the examination of both implicit and explicit language ideologies. Furthermore, by incorporating an analysis of the interaction between these policies and institutional practices, the research further investigates the potential impact on individual experiences within the university. In this respect, institutional language policies are not regarded as abstract frameworks, but rather as instruments that shape and influence language practices in the educational process.

Policy document analysis is followed by reflexive thematic analysis. Reflexive thematic analysis, as described by Braun and Clarke (2006), offers a structured yet flexible approach which enables the identification, categorisation, and interpretation of recurring patterns and meanings in institutional policy documents.

In the present research, reflexive thematic analysis has a twofold role. On the one hand, it enhances the examination of institutional policy documents. On the other hand, it acts as the primary method for analysing data from teachers and students. The dual application ensures methodological coherence across the different types of data and allows for a nuanced understanding of language ideologies and practices within the institution.

## 2.2 Reflexive Thematic Analysis as Interpretive Framework

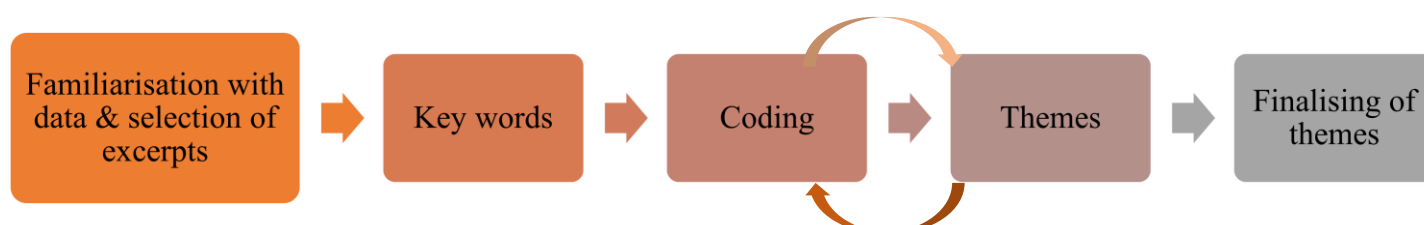
Thematic analysis is not bound to a single theoretical framework, which allows for flexibility in how data can be approached and interpreted (Morgan, 2021). The adaptability of this framework makes it suitable to the interpretive, qualitative orientation of the present study, which deals with complex issues, such as the management of linguistic diversity and the implementation of institutional language policies. Its flexibility also supports a nuanced analysis of both the institutional policy documents and the perspectives of teachers and undergraduate students.

Given the interpretive nature of qualitative research, I adopt a reflexive thematic analysis approach, which recognises the researcher's active role in meaning making. As Bailey

(2018) argues, reflexivity lies in the recognition of the researcher’s background, values, and decisions throughout the research process. Patton (2015) stresses that reflexivity requires awareness of the broader social, political, and cultural contexts that shape the data and the research process; contexts that greatly inform research at the multilingual University of Luxembourg.

In the present research, reflexive thematic analysis serves distinct but complementary purposes across the different data sets. For institutional policy documents, reflexive thematic analysis facilitates the identification of thematic patterns within institutional policy texts, enhancing their analysis. When applied to data from teachers and students, reflexive thematic analysis is the preliminary step that introduces discourse analysis.

To apply reflexive thematic analysis, the present study draws on Braun and Clarke’s (2006) four-step model combined with the extended six-step process outlined by Naeem et al. (2023). This hybrid approach offers a structured yet interpretive framework for the identification and development of themes, allowing for both analytical depth and methodological transparency. The steps followed in applying reflexive thematic analysis are illustrated in Figure 2:



*Figure 2: The analytical steps for the application of the reflexive thematic analysis.*

The first step involves in-depth familiarisation with the data. As noted by Naeem et al. (2023) early and repeated engagement with the data supports analytical depth. In the case of policy documents, this step includes repeated readings followed by the selection of excerpts that align with the research questions. In the dataset from teachers and students, this first step entails immersion in teachers and students’ narratives with the objective of identifying key segments that pertain to language-related matters.

The second step is about the identification of key words within the selected excerpts, based on Naeem and Ozuem’s (2022) ‘6Rs’ principle. The ‘6Rs’ principle, which stands for realness, richness, repetition, rationale, repartee, and regal, describes the process for selecting key words based on their frequency, semantic richness, and alignment with the research

questions. In this second step, words are drawn directly from the data and often encapsulate ideological or conceptual dimensions that are relevant to the context.

Key words are followed by coding. Drawing on Saldaña (2013), codes for the present research consist of “a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence–capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language–based data” (Saldaña, 2013, p. 3). In the present research, coding is primarily inductive, emerging directly from the data. Nonetheless, a deductive dimension is also present, informed by the theoretical underpinnings of the study, and particularly language policy, linguistic diversity and language ideologies. This dual approach is informed by Spencer (2011), who highlights the importance of balancing the two interconnected approaches due to the insights they provide when combined. Precisely, the inductive approach allows the data to reveal its meaning organically, and the deductive method uses structured frameworks and theoretical insights to guide interpretation (Spencer, 2011). The dual approach ensures that the analysis remains grounded in the data while being informed by relevant theoretical constructs.

The third and fourth steps inform one another and involve several rounds of review, as represented by the two arrows in Figure 2. In the fourth step, codes are grouped into broader interpretive categories, forming themes. These themes are then further refined to ensure coherence and consistency. The process of refining the themes involves a two–stage review guided by Patton’s (1990) criteria of internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. The first stage includes the evaluation of the internal consistency within each theme by examining whether the codes under each theme form a coherent pattern. The second stage ensures that all themes are distinct and there is no overlap.

The fifth and final step for reflexive thematic analysis entails defining and finalising the names of the themes. The criteria for choosing the names of the themes include clarity and relevance, often using direct phrases from the data (Vaismoradi et al., 2016). This step ensures a consistent thematic system across data sources, namely policy documents and data from teachers and students, to promote coherence and to facilitate meaningful comparisons. The process is grounded in the idea that a uniform thematic system helps identify themes that reflect both institutional discourses and individual experiences. This supports the study’s goal of bridging the macro–level of institutional policy with the micro–level of individuals’ practices and experiences (Naeem et al., 2023).

In essence, reflexive thematic analysis provides a systematic framework for the analysis of data by identifying patterns and meanings. However, this analytical approach does not fully capture the nuances of evaluation that are very important in understanding how individuals

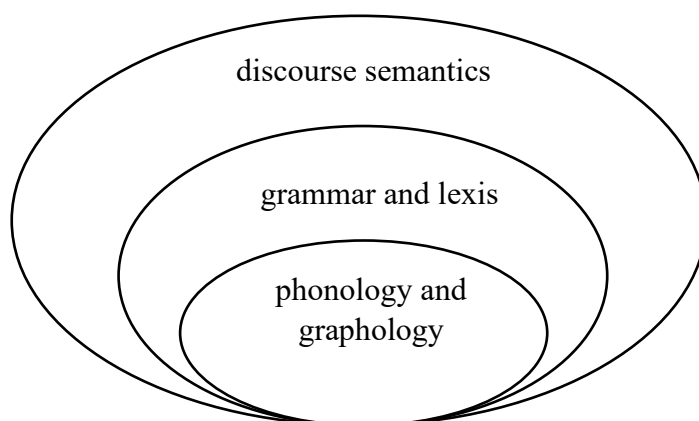
frame their experiences and position themselves in the context. To address that and to deepen the analysis of data from teachers and undergraduate students, the study integrates the appraisal framework.

To contextualise the use of the appraisal framework, which is situated within the broader theory of SFL, the next section starts with an overview of key principles of SFL. Essentially, SFL provides the theoretical foundation for understanding language as a social semiotic system, a system that reflects and constructs social meanings through grammatical and discursive choices. Therefore, a brief discussion on the main features of SFL is necessary to clarify how meaning making, evaluation and interpersonal positioning are approached, setting the foundations for the application of the appraisal framework in the present study.

## 2.3 Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) for Discourse Analysis

Developed in the 1960s by Halliday, SFL conceptualises language as a form of social action that reflects ideologies (Martin & Rose, 2007). What differentiates SFL from other linguistic theories is that it prioritises meaning and examines how individuals use language to make sense and meaning of reality. As Eggins (1994) asserts, in SFL, the context is inextricably intertwined with language, and language cannot be studied in isolation from the context. Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) argue that “SFL theorises language in a way which harmonises far more with the perspective of critical social science than other theories of language” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 139).

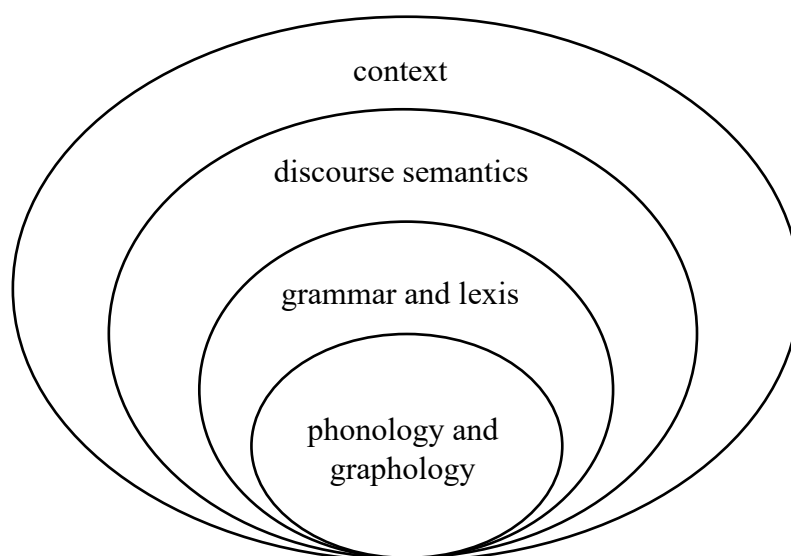
According to Halliday (1985), the SFL model incorporates three distinct levels, or strata, of language analysis. These levels represent the semantic, the lexicogrammar (comprising grammar and lexis) and the phonological/graphological strata (Halliday, 1985), as illustrated in Figure 3:



*Figure 3: Language strata (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 9).*

The stratum of phonology and graphology refers to linguistic expression. It includes the set of systems that construe sound and form meaning (Santosa, 2016), distinguishing between spoken and written modes (Martin & White, 2005). This stratum constitutes the basis for the lexicogrammatical level. In Martin and White's (2005) words, the stratum of lexicogrammar "is realised through" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 9) phonological and graphological patterns. Martin and White (2005) explain that "lexicogrammar is a pattern of phonological patterns; that is to say, it is a more abstract level realized by a more concrete one" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 9); it organises words and structures to convey meaning. The third stratum, discourse semantics, is concerned with the representation of people, events and social relationships and examines how individuals construct meaning in discourse. The appraisal framework, which focuses on how language is used to express attitudes, evaluations, and interpersonal positioning, is situated in the stratum of discourse semantics.

In addition to the three strata presented in the previous paragraph, SFL incorporates context as a fourth layer (see Figure 4). Context reveals how language operates within and is shaped by its social environment (Halliday, 1978). As illustrated in Figure 4, context is a separate, stratified layer in the SFL architecture of language, and is conceptualised as an external element, rather than part of the internal organisation of language (Hasan, 2001). This view of context, which emphasises the dynamic interplay between language and its social context in meaning making, distinguishes SFL from other linguistic theories (Bartlett & O'Grady, 2017). This view is also consistent with Malinowski's insight, as referenced in Martin (1984), that the interpretation of meaning is inextricably linked to the context in which a text is produced and interpreted, whether in spoken or written form.



*Figure 4: Stratification of language (adapted from Matthiessen, 1995).*

In addition to the stratification of language illustrated in Figure 3 and Figure 4, SFL distinguishes between the intrinsic functions of language realised through the three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual, as well as the extrinsic dimensions of language use captured through the contextual variables of field, tenor, and mode (see Figure 5).

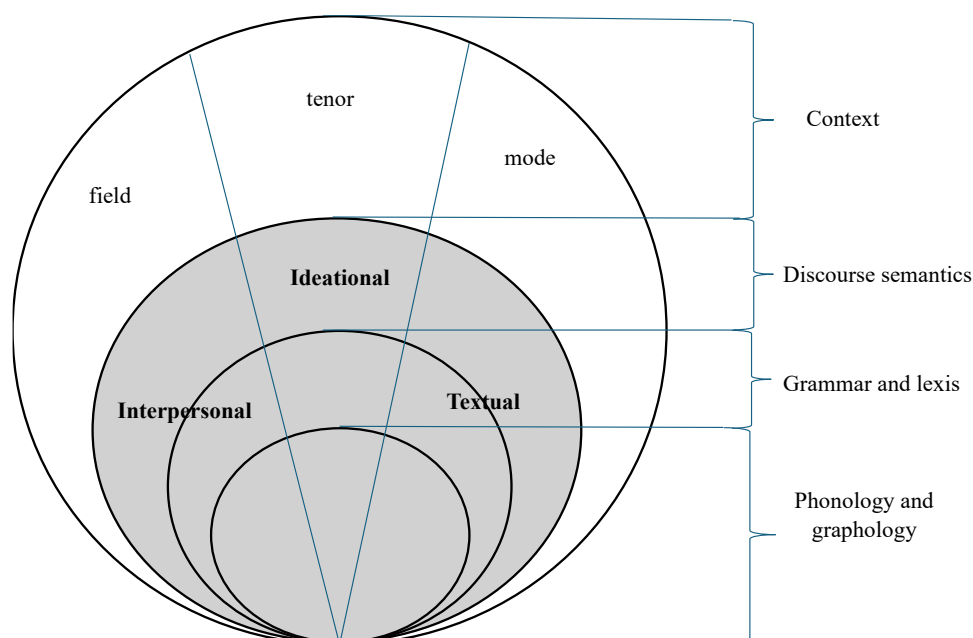


Figure 5: Language strata and metafunctions (adapted from Santosa, 2016, p. 48).

According to Halliday (1985), metafunctions are a universal feature of language and form the foundation of how meaning is constructed. Halliday and Matthiesen (2014) clarify that the term ‘metafunction’ is used to emphasise that function is embedded within the framework and is not external to language. Hasan (2011) further highlights their central role in shaping meaning in context. Hodge (2017) argues that the three metafunctions serve as a critical starting point for discourse analysis, as they guide how meaning is approached and interpreted.

The three metafunctions explain how language construes experience (ideational), enacts social relationships (interpersonal), and organises discourse (textual) while context shapes how these meanings are realised in specific social situations (Halliday & Matthiesen, 2014). In this respect, context is not seen a metafunction but as an interpretive framework that influences linguistic choices.

Since the present research examines how teachers and undergraduate students express evaluative meanings, convey ideologies, and position themselves in discourse, particular attention is given to the interpersonal metafunction. This metafunction examines language use

to enact social relationships, express attitudes, and construct identities and ideological positions (Martin & White, 2005). As such, the interpersonal metafunction offers the most relevant analytical foundation for examining evaluative stance and interpersonal meaning.

The following section introduces the interpersonal metafunction in more detail and outlines how it supports the analysis of teachers and students' evaluative language in this context.

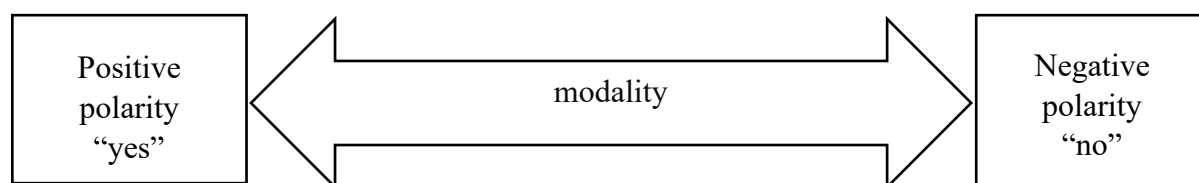
### 2.3.1 The Interpersonal Metafunction

The interpersonal metafunction is concerned with how individuals use language to enact social roles, express ideologies, and manage power dynamics within a specific social context (Martin & White, 2005). It examines linguistic choices that shape communicative roles and emphasises the dialogic nature of discourse, where meaning is co-constructed through interaction (Fawcett, 2011; Halliday, 1975). Halliday (2002) describes meaning making in this metafunction as an “intersubjective activity” (Halliday, 2002, p. 354), a process rooted in interaction between individuals (Halliday, 1975). The emphasis on interactions between individuals to study the negotiation of identities, meaning making, power relations, and ideologies (Martin & White, 2005) makes the interpersonal metafunction particularly important in discourse analysis.

In analysing discourse based on the interpersonal metafunction, Halliday and Matthiessen mention the system of mood as the most important interpersonal resource (Teruya, 2017). The grammatical system of mood offers a framework for studying the conversational flow and sequence in human interaction (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014; Matthiessen et al. 2008; Teruya 2007). Fawcett (2017) explains that the system of mood “covers the roles of the interactants in the act of communication” (Fawcett, 2017, p. 53), highlighting their joint function in enacting social roles and relationships.

Andersen (2017) links the grammatical system of mood to key speech functions realised through clause types and intonation (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). For Martin and White (2005) the grammatical system of mood is closely connected with the systems of modality and polarity, forming a network of choices that enable speakers to express attitudes, negotiate roles, and manage interpersonal meaning.

The connection between polarity and modality is demonstrated in Figure 6 with polarity being at the two opposing extremes of modality (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014):



*Figure 6: Polarity and modality (adapted from Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 176).*

The system of mood provides the structural resources for interaction, while modality shapes the speaker's stance and expresses the degrees of commitment or possibility. On the other hand, polarity is described as a duality that characterises all speech functions (Andersen, 2017) and can be categorised as either positive (yes) or negative (no).

Modality is realised on the lexicogrammatical level through modal verbs (e.g. can/could, must, should), modal adverbs (e.g. probably, certainly, surely, mostly) or adjectives (e.g. likely, certain). In contrast to polarity's duality, modality is subject to variation according to the function of the speech. Specifically, in the speech functions of statement and question, modality appears as modalisation and addresses probability and usuality (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Conversely, in offer and command, modality appears as modulation with obligation and inclination (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

Despite this analytical framework, conducting an in-depth study on the interpersonal metafunction in discourse is challenging and "cannot easily be expressed as configurations of discrete elements" (Halliday, 1979, p. 66). To put differently, although interpersonal meanings can be studied across the different strata, in order to focus on ideologies and evaluations in discourse, it is necessary to approach appraisal through discourse semantics (Martin & White, 2005), as presented in the subsequent section.

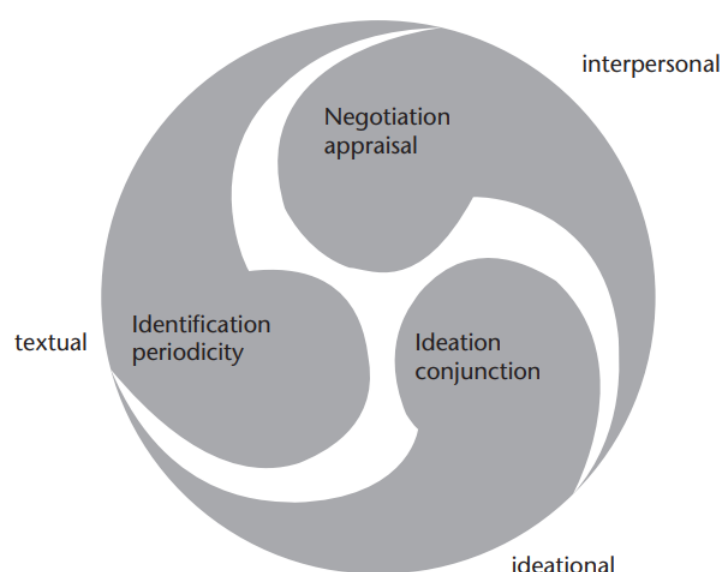
### 2.3.2 Discourse Semantics

Discourse semantics is concerned with how discourse is organised and how meaning evolves in social interaction. Discourse semantics goes beyond cohesive elements that link grammatical units; it constitutes a distinct level of organisation with its own structural properties (Martin, 2014). Within the architecture of SFL, discourse semantics is found between the stratum of lexicogrammar and context (see Figure 3). In this respect, discourse semantics reflects what

Hasan (2001) describes as a dynamic relationship between context and meaning, where “the elements of context activate the elements of the semantic level, and meta–redundantly those of the lexicogrammatical level” (Hasan, 2011, p. 10). This view highlights the significance of discourse semantics in capturing how language functions beyond the clause, particularly in constructing coherent, socially meaningful texts.

The study of discourse semantics is important for several reasons. Firstly, discourse semantics extends beyond the level of clause to facilitate a more profound comprehension of power relations and the negotiation of meaning and identities across discourse (Martin & Rose, 2007). Secondly, discourse semantics does not see clauses as isolated elements, but rather as components of a cohesive text. As an example, discourse semantics examines conversational sequences and the structure of arguments to better understand how individuals construct meaning and position themselves within a given context. Essentially, discourse semantics reveals the dynamics of social roles, interpersonal relationships, and power relations by analysing how individuals use language in their discursive practices within a given sociolinguistic context.

Martin (2014) proposes a framework for the organisation of discourse semantics that allows “to reinterpret from an interpersonal perspective resource that are experientially constituted in lexicogrammar (i.e. mental processes and states of affection)” (Martin, 2014, p. 19). In this framework, appraisal operates at the stratum of discourse semantics to establish interpersonal meanings, alongside negotiation (see Figure 7).



*Figure 7: Discourse semantics across the three metafunctions (Martin, 2014, p. 10).*

Negotiation is primarily concerned with managing interactions in discourse. It deals with questions about how individuals exchange ideas, adopt roles and position themselves in relation to each other (Martin, 1992). In contrast, appraisal provides the semantic resources for evaluating people, things, and processes, allowing individuals to express attitudes and evaluations (Martin & White, 2005). Together, these systems extend the interpersonal metafunction beyond the clause, offering tools for tracking individuals' stance and intersubjective positioning in discourse.

In this respect, discourse semantics, and particularly appraisal in the interpersonal metafunction, allows for a systematic exploration of how evaluation is grammatically realised and ideologically motivated (Martin & White, 2005). Importantly, appraisal provides an analytical lens to examine how teachers and undergraduate students evaluate and position themselves in relation to linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg. With that in mind, the following section introduces the appraisal framework in detail. It outlines its three subsystems, attitude, engagement, and graduation, and explains how these systems will be applied in the analysis of data for the present research.

## 2.4 The Appraisal Framework

Appraisal has been defined as an interpersonal system located at the stratum of discourse semantics and is an essential tool to investigate meaning in discourse (Martin & White, 2005). The appraisal framework was developed by Martin as part of the New South Wales Disadvantaged Schools Programme around the 1980s under the work of Sydney School (Martin & White, 2005). The framework arose from the need to address the different types of evaluations and specifically, for the study of attitudes in discourse (Martin, 2014).

As argued by Thompson and Hunston (2000), evaluation is of crucial importance in discourse as it fulfils three fundamental functions in language. Firstly, it reveals useful information about the individual's perspective and values. Secondly, it contributes to building and maintaining relationships between individuals, and thirdly, it provides a structure for discourse.

Context is another important component to discourse and appraisal because it influences the linguistic resources used to convey meanings and messages (Martin & Rose, 2008). The relationship between language and context has been discussed by Halliday (1978) and other scholars who view language as part of the social context and analyse discourse based on the SFL framework (Otéiza, 2017).

The appraisal framework also combines contextual and interpersonal dimensions by emphasising the dialogic nature of discourse. This dialogic perspective derives from Bakhtin's theory on interactions and their sociocultural dimension within discourse; it highlights how speakers align with or against other viewpoints in contextually situated communication (Otéiza, 2017). In recognition of the importance of interactions, the appraisal framework offers tools for examining how interpersonal meanings are negotiated in discourse, incorporating socially situated knowledge and personal perspectives (Otéiza, 2019). Therefore, the appraisal framework serves as a valuable lens for research concerned with lived experiences and subjective positioning.

The appraisal framework, as described in Martin and White (2005), comprises three interconnected systems: attitude, engagement, and graduation, which allow for the systematic study of how individuals use their linguistic resources to express experiences and make meaning in discourse (Martin & White, 2005; Otéiza, 2019). These systems provide a structured account of the semantic resources speakers use to evaluate emotions, make judgements, and assign value, as well as to amplify those evaluations and interact with other voices in discourse (Martin, 2000).

The appraisal framework is characterised by its dynamic nature, which continues to evolve in scholars' refinements through research that focuses on distinct areas of analysis. For example, Bednarek (2008) suggested an extension of the subsystem of affect, Hood (2010) extended the system of graduation, while Hao with Humphrey (2012), Don (2014) and Otéiza with Pinuer (2019) expand the subsystem of appreciation.

In consideration of the main objective of the present study, which is to examine how teachers and undergraduate students experience linguistic diversity in teaching and in learning at the University of Luxembourg, the appraisal framework serves as the most appropriate analytical tool. It constitutes a detailed and systematic framework to examine how individuals use language to evaluate their experiences and position themselves in relation to the institutional policies and the context. To maintain methodological consistency with prior research in higher education (e.g. Badklang & Srinon, 2018; Ngo & Unsworth, 2015), I apply the appraisal framework as appears in Martin and White (2005). In doing so, I prioritise the system of attitude, which has "a central position" (Wei et al., 2015, p. 236) in the appraisal framework. The analysis is then complemented with aspects from the systems of engagement and graduation, as outlined in the following sections.

### 2.4.1 Attitude

Delving into the appraisal framework, this section begins with the system of attitude, which addresses how individuals express feelings and evaluations in discourse. Attitude is further analysed in the three semantic areas of affect, judgement and appreciation. As demonstrated in Figure 8, affect is situated in the intersection of judgement and appreciation, which can be seen as means of expressing emotion “to socialize individuals into various uncommon sense communities of feeling” (Martin, 2000, p. 173).

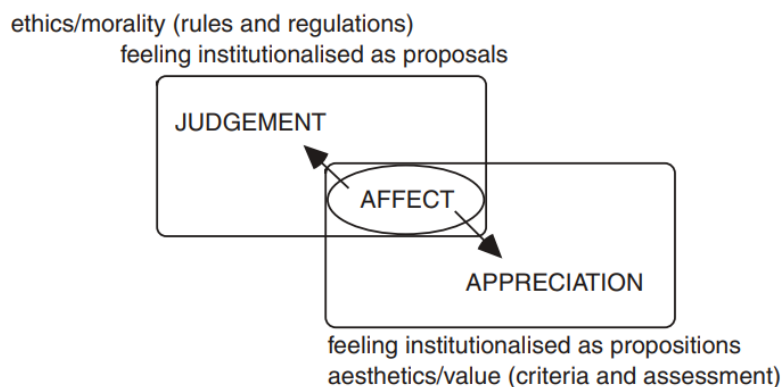


Figure 8: The relationship between affect, judgment, and appreciation (Martin & White, 2005, p. 45).

Within the appraisal framework, affect refers to the linguistic expression of positive or negative emotions and feelings in discourse (Hood, 2019). Martin and White (2005) describe affect as encompassing evaluative language to express emotional responses. These semantic resources are typically grouped into four affective domains that can be either positive or negative, and refer to feelings of un/happiness, dis/satisfaction, in/security, and dis/inclination (Martin & White, 2005). The four categories are summarised in Table 4, adapted from Martin and White (2005, p. 51):

Affect	Positive	Negative
dis/inclination	miss, long for	wary, fearful
un/happiness	cheerful, joyous, like, love	sad, melancholic, down, low
in/security	confident, comfortable, trusting	uneasy, anxious, surprised, astonished
dis/satisfaction	satisfied, pleased, impressed, charmed, absorbed	flat, frustrated, bored, fed up,

Table 4: Categories of affect (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 51).

In the following paragraphs, I provide illustrative constructed examples of the four categories of affect. In these examples instances of affect are highlighted in bold to emphasise appraisal.

According to Martin (2000), dis/inclination refers to “feelings related to future, as yet unrealized, states rather than present existing ones” (Martin, 2000, p.150); it is concerned with emotional responses to potential events. This category of affect includes expressions of willingness, desire, and eagerness, as well as reluctance, and fear. An example could be the sentence ‘I am **eager to/not interested** to take up more language courses’ which shows the positive or negative emotional desire toward taking up more language courses.

Un/happiness may be expressed through a range of positive or negative emotions, such as happiness, cheer, joy, excitement, misery, antipathy, sadness, loneliness. For instance, un/happiness is expressed in the following sentence as ‘I felt **happy/sad** after hearing to his news’. The words ‘happy’ and ‘sad’ reveal how the hypothetical speaker emotionally positioned themselves in relation to the news they received.

The category of in/security refers to emotional responses linked to feelings of confidence, assurance, insecurity, fear, uncertainty, nervousness. These emotions often relate to perceptions of control, stability, or trust. For example, a student may report ‘I am **confident/nervous** to attend the class in French’. This phrase highlights the emotional state of the individual tied to feelings of assurance or anxiety in attending a class in French.

Lastly, dis/satisfaction captures evaluations that show interest, pleasure, sense of accomplishment, enjoyment, frustration, disappointment, exhaustion (Martin & White, 2005). An example of dis/satisfaction could be the sentence ‘I am **pleased/frustrated** with my language skills in French’, in which the individual expresses their emotional response based on personal achievement or failure.

Beyond the expression of personal emotions captured by affect, appraisal also accounts for how individuals evaluate the behaviour of others based on social norms through the system of judgement (Martin, 2000). Judgement can be defined as an individual’s evaluation of another individual’s behaviour, which may be expressed as criticism or admiration (Hood, 2019). This system is concerned with the application of rules to feelings, and with the determination of appropriate behaviour (Martin, 2000). The system of judgment is a crucial component as it reveals important information about the individual’s system of values and perceptions of social expectations.

Judgement can be further divided into social esteem and social sanction (Martin & White, 2005). Social esteem includes judgment that is influenced by oral culture, by the esteem

of the community. In instances of social esteem, judgment accounts for how normal or un/usual an individual is perceived (normality), how in/capable they are seen (capability) and how ir/resolute or in/dependent (tenacity) they are perceived to be (Martin & White, 2005). In essence, normality evaluates to what extent someone's attitude is seen as typical or expected. Capacity evaluates whether someone is perceived to have the skills and capabilities, and tenacity looks at the individual's willingness and determination to act. The three categories are further presented in Table 5, adapted from Martin and White (2005, p. 53):

Social esteem	Positive (admire)	Negative (criticise)
normality (how special?)	lucky, normal, cool, predictable	unlucky, unpredictable, odd, eccentric, dated
capacity (how capable?)	powerful, fit, together, clever, balanced, competent, successful, productive	weak, dull, incompetent, naïve, inexperienced, unaccomplished
tenacity (how dependable?)	brave, cautious, careful, dependable, accommodating, flexible, adaptable, tireless, reliable	timid, distracted, unfaithful, stubborn, undependable, impatient

*Table 5: Judgement in social esteem (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 53).*

The categorisation for judgement is further illustrated in the following hypothetical examples, where the instances of appraisal have been put in bold to indicate how individuals evaluate other individuals' behaviour or character.

A first example is the phrase 'she is **always** calm in an emergency, it's **typical** of her'. This example reflects judgement of normality and evaluates the individual's behaviour as consistent with what is expected or typical in such situations. A judgement of capacity can be found in the phrase 'she is **capable/incapable** of writing in both languages', which evaluates the individual's level of skill or competence. Lastly, the sentence 'she is **eager/has no desire** to help others in class' conveys a judgement of tenacity, evaluating the person's willingness to offer support to others.

The second subcategory of judgement is social sanction. Social sanction relates to adherence to formal rules, codified regulations and questions of legality. Social sanction is further divided into veracity and propriety (Martin & White, 2005). Evaluations of veracity in judgment are concerned with a person's honesty or dishonesty, whereas propriety pertains to how ethical or unethical their behaviour is perceived to be (Otéiza, 2017). Veracity and propriety are presented in Table 6, adapted from Martin and White (2005, p. 53):

<b>Social sanction</b>	<b>Positive (praise)</b>	<b>Negative (condemn)</b>
veracity (truth: how honest?)	honest, direct, frank	dishonest, manipulative, blunt
propriety (ethics: how far beyond reproach?)	moral, ethical, fair, kind, caring, polite, respectful, altruistic, sensitive	immoral, evil, unfair, unjust, rude, selfish

*Table 6: Judgement in social sanction (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 53).*

Examples of social sanction include ethical evaluations of truthfulness and propriety. For instance, the sentence 'he is an **honest/dishonest** person' expresses judgement of veracity, assessing the perceived dis/honesty of the individual. An example conveying judgement of moral behaviour indicating propriety would be the sentence 'our teacher was **fair/unfair** in grading our assignments', which evaluates the teacher in relation to being fair and just.

The last category from the system of attitude is that of appreciation. According to Martin and White (2005), appreciation includes evaluations of products, phenomena, entities, and processes. Appreciation has been defined as the subsystem of appraisal that converts feelings into evaluations of worth (Martin, 2000). In this sense, the distinction between affect and appreciation lies in the nature of the concepts they represent. Affect is concerned with the evaluations of individuals' emotions, whereas appreciation is concerned with evaluations of more abstract concepts (White, 2020).

In appreciation, Martin and White (2005) distinguish between reaction, composition and social valuation (see Table 7). This means that appreciation is realised in evaluations that indicate the reaction of the individual on a process, entity, or product (reaction), as in the example 'the assignment was **interesting/uninspiring**'. Appreciation can also be realised through evaluations that refer to the degree of complexity that the process, product or entity may present to the individual (composition). An example of composition could be the phrase 'finding material in French was very **easy/complicated**'. Lastly, appreciation can be realised through evaluations that describe the idea of worth that the individual attributes to the process, entity, or product, as in the sentence 'adopting this new policy was certainly an **innovative move/waste** of resources'.

Appreciation	Positive	Negative
<u>reaction</u> did it grab my attention?  did I like it?	captivating, engaging, remarkable, notable, exciting  fine, good, beautiful, welcome, appealing	boring, predictable, monotonous, unremarkable  bad, repulsive, ugly,
<u>composition</u> did it hang together?  was it hard to follow?	balanced, harmonious, symmetrical, logical  simple, clear, precise, detailed	unbalanced, contradictory, uneven, irregular  unclear, simplistic, plain
<u>social valuation</u> was it worthwhile?	innovative, original, creative, unique, priceless, worthwhile, helpful, effective	shallow, insignificant, dated, fake, worthless, ineffective, common

Table 7: *Appreciation in attitude (adapted from Martin and White, 2005, p. 56).*

To summarise the above, the system of attitude consists of three main subsystems, namely affect, judgement, and appreciation. The three subsystems are further categorised to analyse different aspects of evaluation, with a focus on emotions (affect), moral or ethical qualities (judgement), and value or significance of processes and objects (appreciation). Each of these categories are explored through specific questions (Martin & White, 2005) that guide the analysis and help clarify how individuals evaluate their perceptions in different contexts. The system of attitude is illustrated in Figure 9:

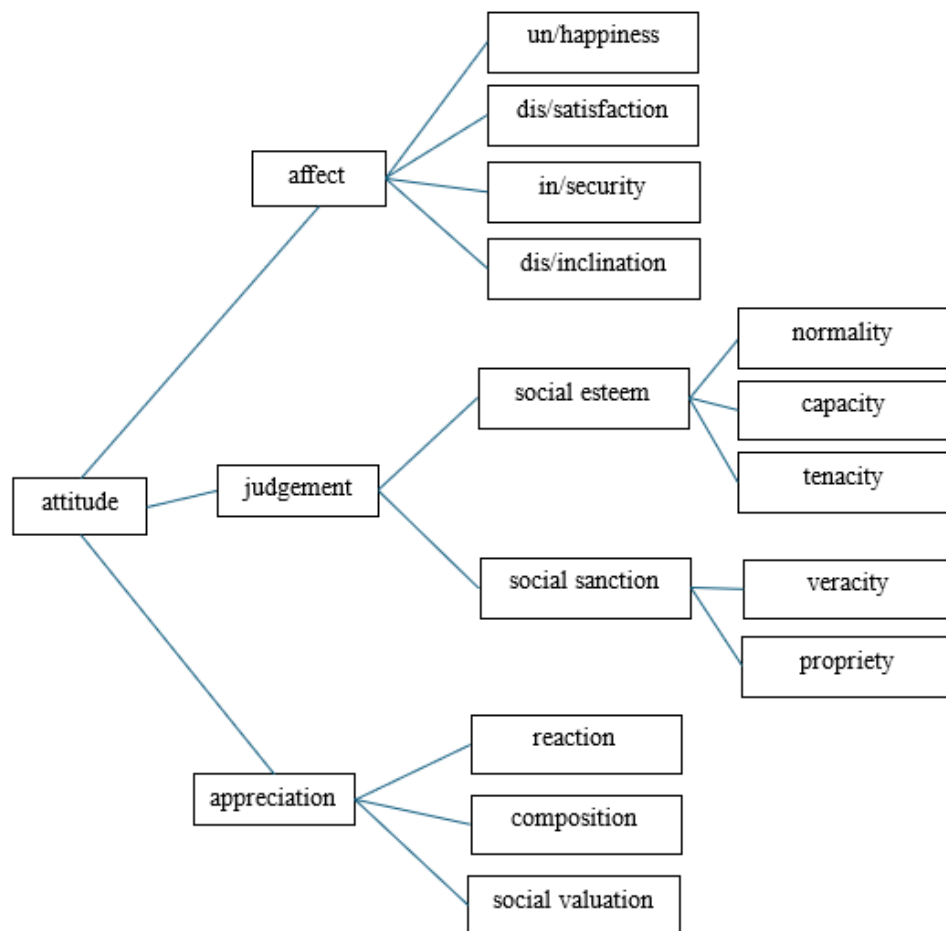


Figure 9: The system of attitude (adapted from Martin & White, 2005).

Distinguishing between the three subsystems of attitude allows for a more nuanced understanding of the nature of evaluations, as each subsystem reflects a distinct interpersonal orientation (Martin & White, 2005). For the present study, distinguishing between affect, judgement and appreciation is important because these three subsystems provide a basic framework to interpret evaluations in teachers and students' discourses. This level of categorisation helps clarify whether individuals express emotional responses, evaluate behaviour, or appraise practices and experiences, contributing to the understanding of

interpersonal positioning. At the same time, however, it is more meaningful for the present research to prioritise identifying the underlying attitude of individuals' evaluations, than breaking down the evaluations into the specific categories within the subsystems. Therefore, further expanding on the three subcategories will remain outside the scope of this thesis.

Another aspect relevant to this research is the distinction made by Martin and White (2005) between inscribed, or invoked appraisal, and evoked appraisal. Inscribed or invoked appraisal includes evaluations that are expressed explicitly through lexicogrammatical elements. On the other hand, evoked appraisal is more subtle, and evaluations appear through metaphors or other linguistic elements that indirectly show emotions. For the two categories, Martin (2000) writes that “inscribed affect is more [...] it is harder to resist or ignore; evoked affect on the other hand is more open” (Martin, 2000, p. 155). This distinction becomes important because it draws attention on how evaluative meanings are conveyed, either directly through explicit language or indirectly. In this study, being aware about the two types of appraisal helps uncover the evaluations expressed by teachers and students.

Evaluations may also be expressed through modality, which is the connecting point between appraisal and interpersonal meanings (e.g. Halliday, 1994; Martin, 1995). Modality may appear with the use of lexicogrammatical elements that express how likely or how obligatory something is (Martin & White, 2005), as well as through the use of modal verbs, adjectives or adverbs. In addition to linguistic elements that reflect the emotional state of the individual, evaluations can also be expressed through body language with paralinguistic or extralinguistic elements (Martin & White, 2005).

Extending the above, the system of attitude is closely associated with the systems of engagement and graduation (Martin & White, 2005), which are explored in the following sections.

### 2.4.2 Engagement

The system of engagement approaches instances of attitude in discourse through the dialogic perspective (Hood, 2019). Engagement is concerned with the external voices and positions that individuals bring in discourse (Otéiza, 2017). For the system of engagement, Martin and White (2005) write that it “provide[s] the means for the authorial voice to position itself with respect to, and hence to ‘engage’ with, the other voices and alternative positions construed as being in play in the current communicative context” (Martin & White, 2005, p. 94). Engagement complements the system of attitude by focusing on the text and the voices that appear in

discourse. It is concerned with the role of language in establishing relationships and reveals ideologies towards processes, ideas and individuals.

This dialogic view of discourse draws on Bakhtin's (1981) distinction between monoglossic and heteroglossic texts (Hood, 2019). Monoglossia refers to a text in which there is "no space for negotiation or alternate positions" (Hood, 2019, p. 394). Conversely, heteroglossic instances include an alternative voice and an additional position (Hood, 2019). This distinction is particularly relevant for the present study, as it enables an analysis of how participating teachers and students position themselves in relation to broader discourses and how they engage with alternative viewpoints.

For the system of engagement, the present study employs an analytical framework rooted in Martin and White's (2005) proposition. This analytical framework defines engagement as the act of positioning "one opinion in relation to another—by quoting or reporting, acknowledging a possibility, denying, countering, affirming and so on" (Martin, 2003, p. 174). In this respect, engagement enables the analysis of alternative viewpoints that may arise in discourse, providing a framework for considering how other voices are acknowledged, included, or excluded (Martin & White, 2005; White, 2003).

For example, the use of modal verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, together with changes in voice and roles in discourse, can serve as indicators of an individual's position and the monoglossic or heteroglossic nature of the discourse (Otéiza, 2019). Table 8 presents a set of indicative imagined examples of monoglossic and heteroglossic expressions in discourse. Instances of positioning appear in bold to illustrate how alternative voices are included or excluded in discourse:

Monoglossic	Heteroglossic
1. English <b>must be the</b> official language at the university.	3. <b>There are</b> both advantages and disadvantages in having multiple official languages at the university.
2. <b>I believe that</b> the university should have multiple official languages.	4. <b>Studies have shown</b> that having multiple official languages can hinder learning.

*Table 8: Examples of engagement.*

Examples in Table 8 illustrate how an individual can either express their acceptance of alternative voices or reject them. Example 1 places English as the single official language at the university in an assertive way, excluding all other perspectives. This reflects a monoglossic

stance, where only one position is presented, leaving no space for negotiation or dialogue. Similarly, in Example 2, the use of ‘I believe that’ reinforces the personal perspective, closing down alternative positions. Conversely, in Example 3 the individual acknowledges the existence of multiple perspectives, thereby opening up space for alternative voices. In the same vein, in Example 4, the individual engages with a range of studies, incorporating diverse perspectives into their discourse.

### 2.4.3 Graduation

The third and last system alongside attitude and engagement, is graduation. The system of graduation, “is concerned with gradability” (Martin & White, 2005, p. 37). In essence, the system of graduation deals with how weak or strong evaluations are in discourse (Otéiza, 2019). Alternatively, Martin and White (2005) describe graduation as “up–scaling and down–scaling” (Martin & White, 2005, p. 135).

The system of graduation comprises of two subsystems, force and focus. Force addresses the making of attitudinal meanings stronger or weaker, whereas focus addresses the manifestation of categories and the visibility of boundaries between these categories (Martin & White, 2005). As Martin and White (2005) explain, force “can operate over qualities, over processes, or over the verbal modalities of likelihood, usuality, inclination and obligation” (Martin & White, 2005, p. 140). By contrast, focus “has the effect of adjusting the strength of boundary between categories, constructing core and peripheral types of things” (Martin, 2003, p. 175). This suggests that focus is concerned with meanings that are predominantly categorised.

Graduation can be realised in a number of ways, primarily at the lexicogrammatical stratum. Focus, which refers to non–gradable meanings, is realised through the strengthening or softening of boundaries (Martin & White, 2005). The softening of boundaries, which can also be found in literature as ‘vague language’ (e.g. Channell, 1994) or ‘hedges’ (Lakoff, 1972), is visible in phrases expressions like “sort of” and “kind of” (Martin & White, 2005, p. 138). On the other hand, when focus is intensified, it marks an example as clearly representative or typical, as in the phrase “**true** leader” (Martin & White, 2005, p. 138). In this respect, focus is also concerned with how closely something follows or matches an expected prototype.

Regarding force and gradable meanings, graduation is realised through lexical items that are associated with measurable sizes (Martin & White, 2005). For example, in the phrases

‘**big** issue’, and ‘**many** solutions’, the adjectives in bold are indicative of the concepts of mass and number, respectively.

For graduation through force, Martin and White (2005) also use intensification with the potential for either isolating or infusing effects. The difference between the two subcategories lies in whether intensification is achieved through a single lexical item (isolating) or through the meaning of a word/phrase (infusing). According to Martin and White (2005), isolating intensifications include the use of adverbs, maximisers or modifiers, appearing in bold in the examples: ‘**somewhat** agree’, ‘**very** quickly’, as well as comparative or superlative forms like ‘**happier**’, ‘**more** interesting’. Isolating intensifications may also be expressed through lexical items with a figurative meaning, such as ‘**hot** topic’ or ‘very **clear**’. In contrast, infusing intensifications operate more implicitly by relying on the evaluative force inherent in certain lexical or grammatical choices (Martin & White, 2005). These may include emotionally or qualitatively charged expressions such as ‘**happy**’, ‘**interesting**’, modal words indicating frequency, certainty or possibility such as ‘**always**’, ‘**possible**’, and the use of repetition for emphasis, as in the phrase ‘we **talked and talked**’.

The system of graduation is illustrated in Table 9, placing evaluations in a continuum that ranges from low degree to high degree meanings:

Graduation	Low degree ←————→ High degree	
focus	kind of, sort of	true, real
force	tiny, small	large, huge

Table 9: Graduation in attitudinal meanings (adapted from Martin & White, 2005, p. 151).

The system of graduation completes the three systems of the appraisal framework. Collectively, attitude, engagement and graduation provide a systematic framework for examining how individuals express evaluations, adopt or exclude alternative perspectives and intensify meaning in discourse. These dimensions enable a profound examination of individuals’ perspectives, evaluations and stances, as expressed in their discourses.

This chapter has outlined the theoretical framework that underpins the present research, detailing the concepts and frameworks used to analyse policy documents as well as participating teachers and students’ discourses. The chapter started by introducing Cardno’s (2018) framework for policy document analysis, which is used to examine how institutional

ideologies around linguistic diversity are framed in policy documents of the University of Luxembourg. Following this, the chapter outlined reflexive thematic analysis, which is applied in two ways in the present research. First, reflexive thematic analysis is used to identify patterns and themes in institutional policy documents. Secondly, this analytical approach is used as an initial framework for analysing data from teachers and undergraduate students. The last part of this chapter drew on SFL, and more specifically on the appraisal framework. The appraisal framework, which is applied after the reflexive thematic analysis in data from teachers and students, aims to explore how individuals express their experiences, evaluations, and positions on linguistic diversity at the university. In doing so, it allows for a deeper understanding of the role that language plays in meaning making and the expression of ideologies.

Together, these theoretical and analytical approaches provide a comprehensive lens to explore how linguistic diversity is constructed, negotiated, and experienced in the multilingual University of Luxembourg. Building on the theoretical framework, the next chapter outlines the methodological design of the study.

### 3. Methodology

The third chapter of this thesis outlines the methodology of the study, including the research design, data collection methods, analytical approaches, and ethical considerations. The chapter begins by presenting the research questions as well as the interpretivist approach that guides the study. This part is followed by case study methodology with a focus on the University of Luxembourg, as the case of study for the present research.

In line with the overarching research design, I adopt a triangulation approach to data collection, explaining the rationale behind combining multiple sources and methods for data collection and analysis. I start this part of the chapter with policy documents. In the relevant sections, I discuss the criteria for their selection and analysis process. Five institutional policy documents are analysed using policy document analysis followed by reflexive thematic analysis. The reflexive thematic analysis section further delves into how the selected documents are interpreted thematically to reveal institutional discourses.

The next sections are dedicated to participating teachers and students and the empirical data collected from these groups. This part of the chapter starts with two critical aspects of the research process. Firstly, it outlines ethical considerations, including the procedures for obtaining informed consent, maintaining confidentiality, and adhering to data protection regulations. Secondly, the researcher's role is critically examined through a reflexive analysis of their positionality, prior experience, and potential influence on data collection and interpretation. This aligns with the interpretivist paradigm that underpins this study.

Subsequently, sections are dedicated to the methods used for data collection. Each method is addressed in turn: semistructured interviews with teachers, the online survey with undergraduate students and two follow-up focus group discussions with undergraduate students. For each method, the rationale, design, and implementation are explained in detail.

The last part of the Methodology chapter is concerned with the analytical approaches used for data from teachers and students. Specifically, data from the two groups of social actors is initially analysed with reflexive thematic analysis. This approach is complemented by an in-depth exploration of the data, which employs the appraisal framework from SFL, to explore the presence of evaluative language and stance. In the analysis of data from the online survey, closed-ended survey responses are presented through descriptive statistics and visualisations generated using Microsoft Excel.

### 3.1 Research Questions

The chapter begins with the set of research questions that have been instrumental in shaping the design and methodology of the present research. As Mason (2002) states, the research questions “are vehicles that you will rely upon to move you from your broad research interest to your specific research focus and project, and therefore their importance cannot be overstated” (Mason, 2002, p. 20).

In the present study, the research questions are informed by a combination of prior empirical research with existing literature to ensure that the questions “will be well-grounded in existing research” and that “there will be a coherence between the literature review and the rest of the thesis” (Andrews, 2003, p. 17–18). In developing the research questions, I conducted a review of both empirical studies and theoretical literature related to linguistic diversity in multilingual universities. Prior research pointed towards recurring themes, such as the tension between multilingual student populations and monolingually oriented pedagogical practices (e.g. Gayton et al., 2025; Nwachukwu et al., 2024). Regarding methodological approaches, prior research emphasised interviews and online surveys to gather data from specific stakeholder groups, such as teachers or students (e.g. Deroey et al., 2015; de Saint-Georges et al., 2020; Preece, 2019). Ultimately, the review of relevant research pointed to the lack of research that brings together institutional policies and teaching practices (Hu & Lei, 2014) and that draws on both institutional resources and the perspectives from stakeholders (Orduna-Nocito & Sánchez-García, 2022).

After identifying the gap in the existing literature, I proceeded with the selection of a suitable context to explore these matters. In that, the University of Luxembourg serves as an ideal case due to its distinct multilingual policy, which officially recognises English, French and German as working languages, alongside Luxembourgish, as the national language. Additionally, its increasingly growing international student body creates a rich, complex linguistic landscape, adding to questions concerning the intersection of language policy and practice.

The identification of the literature gap, together with careful consideration of the research context, informed the development of a theoretical framework tailored to address the aims of the study, as outlined in Chapter 2. These components have also been crucial to the formulation of the research questions. For example, studies that highlight the discrepancy between institutional policies and individual practices, combined with policy document analysis, which is grounded in critical discourse traditions (Cardno, 2018), have contributed to

the question on the institutional context and policy framework. Meanwhile, research on the importance of capturing social actors' perspectives on language use in higher education was brought together with the appraisal framework from SFL. This informed the development of questions designed to gather insights into how teachers and students experience, evaluate, and navigate multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the university.

Consequently, the research questions are formed as follows:

RQ1: What do policy documents reveal about the framework that guides teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity?

The first research question concerns selected institutional policy documents and aims to examine how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are formally addressed and positioned in the educational process at this university. The aim of this question is to identify the underlying principles, values, and strategies related to language use in this setting in order to understand how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are conceptualised at a policy level and how this may influence pedagogical practices and the classroom environment.

RQ2: How do teachers and undergraduate students experience multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg?

RQ2.1: What opportunities do teachers and undergraduate students report in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning?

RQ2.2: What challenges do teachers and undergraduate students report in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning?

RQ2.3: What teaching and learning practices do teachers and undergraduate students report using to address linguistic diversity?

The second set of research questions is addressed to teachers and undergraduate students and aims to explore their lived experiences regarding multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg. These questions focus on how teachers and undergraduate students navigate language use in the educational process and asks them to report the implications they identify as well as the pedagogical practices they adopt.

Starting from the two research questions, the present research aims to contribute to the relatively understudied field of higher education (Tight, 2018), with particular attention to

teaching and learning practices in multilingual educational contexts (Preece, 2019). In doing so, the research also engages with local-level language use and policy, drawing on insights from Llurda et al. (2015). According to Litosseliti (2010), research questions and objectives are closely connected to the research methods employed. Therefore, the next section introduces the research approach, providing a detailed description of how it informs the methodological choices.

## 3.2 Research Approach

Creswell (2014) defines research approaches as the “plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, and interpretation” (Creswell, 2014, p. 3). Previous research on linguistic diversity in higher education settings applies a variety of research approaches depending on the focus and scope of each study. For example, Holmen (2015) conducts literature review, starting from the new language strategy of the University of Copenhagen, to examine students’ experiences with languages in this setting. Somlata (2020) adopts a mixed methods design with semistructured interviews with staff and an online survey with students, to explore language policy, academic language use, and student success across two South African universities. Shirahata and Lahti (2021) employ a qualitative approach to investigate student language ideologies through policy document analysis from two universities in Finland and Japan.

These examples show that research in the field draws on a wide range of methodological approaches. In this study, however, I adopt a qualitative approach guided by an “inherently language-based analysis” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 243) with a focus on the linguistic resources individuals use to construct meaning (Martin & Rose, 2008). The decision to adopt a qualitative approach was primarily guided by the research aims. As posited by Given (2008), qualitative research is designed to explore the human aspect of a topic in depth, explaining how individuals see and experience the world. Flick (2014) further emphasises the value of qualitative methods in exploring “subjective meaning” (Flick, 2014, p. 542). In this research, the qualitative approach is consistent with the examination of policy texts as well as with individuals lived experiences and discourses, which are crucial to understanding the ideological base of language use (Thompson & Hunston, 2001).

The target population also supports the selection of a qualitative approach. According to Maxwell (2013), qualitative methods can be more flexible giving participating individuals the opportunity to express themselves better. Moreover, a qualitative approach to research goes

well with research methods that allow “to make sense of or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 3). Therefore, adopting a qualitative approach fits the aims of the present research as it allows for a closer exploration of how teachers and students experience and make sense of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process.

Additionally, the qualitative approach recognises the active role of the researcher in the research process. Scholars (e.g. Creswell, 2014; Hatch, 2002; Marshall & Rossman, 2011) highlight the interpretive and dynamic nature of qualitative research, in which the researcher engages in ongoing adaptation. To that, Leavy (2014) adds the importance of flexibility, reflexivity and openness in qualitative research, arguing that these features of the qualitative approach encourage researcher’s responsiveness and promote creativity “through a dialogue between theory and data” (Leavy, 2014, p. 30). These features are particularly relevant in the present study, which examines language use and ideologies. Furthermore, reflexivity is central to interpreting how institutional and individual discourses reflect, negotiate, and conceptualise linguistic diversity as it gives space to the researcher to critically examine their own positionality and role in the research process.

Grounded in this interpretive qualitative approach, the following section outlines the case study methodology adopted in this research and further elaborates on University of Luxembourg as the specific case to study.

### 3.2.1 The University of Luxembourg as a Case Study

Woods (1980) defines case study methodology as an intensive and systematic investigation of a single unit, individual, group, or institution, examined through multiple variables. Case study research is appropriate for the thorough investigation of “a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context” (Yin, 1984, p. 23). Yin (2009) further emphasises the value of case studies in offering rich insights into complex social phenomena. In this respect, case study methodology is particularly relevant for the present research, where the boundaries between the studied complex phenomenon, being linguistic diversity, and the context, being a multilingual university and its institutional language policies, are vague (Dul & Hak, 2008).

One of the significant advantages of the case study methodology lies in its ability to explore issues in depth and in context (Crowe et al., 2011) allowing for a more nuanced understanding of the process and the environment. This feature of case study methodology is especially relevant in the context of multilingual universities, as is the University of

Luxembourg, where institutional policies, individual experiences, and sociolinguistic practices are very closely connected.

Another advantageous characteristic of the case study methodology is that it facilitates the use of various data sources, such as interviews, documents, observations, surveys, allowing for a more comprehensive exploration of the studied phenomenon (Schoch, 2019). This multidimensional approach introduces a rich and holistic perspective, which is crucial in studying issues related to language use, ideology, and policy in higher education settings. However, a holistic and in-depth view of the examined issues (Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg, 1991; Gummesson, 1988) calls for focus on a single case or, in case of a comparative case study, on a small number of cases, all in their real-life context. Accordingly, the present research draws on the specific setting selected for this study, the University of Luxembourg, which offers an ideal context for addressing this research's questions.

The University of Luxembourg is situated in the multilingual Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, where French, German, and Luxembourgish serve as administrative languages, and with English playing an increasingly important role (Fehlen et al., 2021). Nevertheless, the 2021 report on linguistic diversity indicates that the population of individuals whose primary language is not one of the country's official has increased by 4% over the past decade, accounting for around 33% of the population (Fehlen et al., 2021). This group, commonly referred to as 'Nichtlandessprachler' (Fehlen et al., 2021, p. 4) or 'allophones', predominantly speaks Portuguese (15%), Italian (3%), and a range of other languages (10%), primarily Spanish, Arabic, and Dutch. Additionally, there has been a noticeable rise in the number of speakers from Bosnia–Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, and Serbia, collectively referred to as BCMS.

When it comes to public education, the system is distinctly multilingual with Luxembourgish used in preschool, German used as the main language for literacy and core subjects in primary school, and French being prominent, especially in secondary education<sup>12</sup>. The curriculum in public state schools is further enriched with English and optional languages, such as Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. Recently, following the pilot project « ALPHA – zesumme wuessen »<sup>13</sup>, the Ministry of Education has approved the change of curricula to allow parents to choose between the German and the French language for the alphabetisation of their

---

<sup>12</sup> Luxembourg in Luxembourg schools. Site du ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de l'Enfance et de la Jeunesse. (9 August 2024). Retrieved from: <https://men.public.lu/en/systeme-educatif/langues-ecole-luxembourgeoise.html>

<sup>13</sup> ALPHA zesumme wuessen. Le gouvernement du Grand-Duché de Luxembourg. <https://alpha.script.lu/fr>

children in public schools. Although this change marks an important development in language and educational policy at the national level, it does not directly concern the present study, as participating students who have been schooled in Luxembourg's public schools were educated prior to this reform and therefore, would have experienced the language model in place at the time.

Regarding higher education, the University of Luxembourg is the only public university within the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg and was established in 2003. The university was founded as part of the country's strategy to establish itself as a knowledge-based society on the basis of four existing institutions, namely the Centre Universitaire de Luxembourg, the Institut Supérieur de Technologie (IST), the Institut Supérieur d'Études et de Recherches Pédagogiques (ISERP) and the Institut d'Études Éducatives et Sociales (IEES). The university is composed of three Faculties, namely the Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM), the Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF) and the Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE). The university reflects the country's multilingual profile and multilingual identity; it officially recognises the use of English, French and German as working languages, alongside Luxembourgish, as the national language (Multilingualism Policy, 2020).

As a relatively young institution, the university's website includes its aspiration to be 'a University for Luxembourg and the World', with a mission that prioritises high quality education, innovative research, and socioeconomic and cultural impact on the national level. Additionally, the university's vision and mission can be encapsulated in the key words 'International. Interdisciplinary. Multilingual. Research Oriented'<sup>14</sup> used in the University of Luxembourg Facts and Figures (2023). These key words reflect the institution's commitment to promoting a globally connected academic environment through cross-disciplinary collaboration, embracing linguistic diversity, and advancing research excellence.

Examples of the university's vision and mission can be seen in its strong emphasis on collaboration and mobility of students and staff. In fact, for the undergraduate level of study, all programmes include a semester abroad in one of the partnering universities. Regarding internationalisation, the university's international outlook is reflected in its external recognition. According to the Facts and Figures document of 2023, the university was ranked fourth worldwide for its international outlook by the Times Higher Education (THE) World

---

<sup>14</sup> Facts & Figures. University of Luxembourg. (April 2023). Retrieved from: [https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/University\\_of\\_Luxembourg\\_facts\\_and\\_figures\\_2023.pdf](https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/University_of_Luxembourg_facts_and_figures_2023.pdf)

University Rankings. This recognition validates the university's growing role in the global stage.

To support its aim for multilingual education, the university offers language courses and language-related activities through the University's Language Centre<sup>15</sup> (ULLC). Alongside courses in the university's languages (French, German, English, Luxembourgish), the ULLC provides other languages, such as Italian and Portuguese across multiple levels. Beyond that, the ULLC promotes practical language use by organising language tandems, language cafés, writing consultations and multilingual events and activities.

The multilingual profile of the university is formally articulated in the official Multilingualism Policy. The university's Multilingualism Policy, which was adopted in 2020, establishes the institution's expectations regarding multilingualism. Through this document, the university emphasises the role of English as the lingua franca in academia and promotes the use of French, German and Luxembourgish as the administrative languages of the country. The use of languages is summarised in Figure 10, retrieved from the official document:

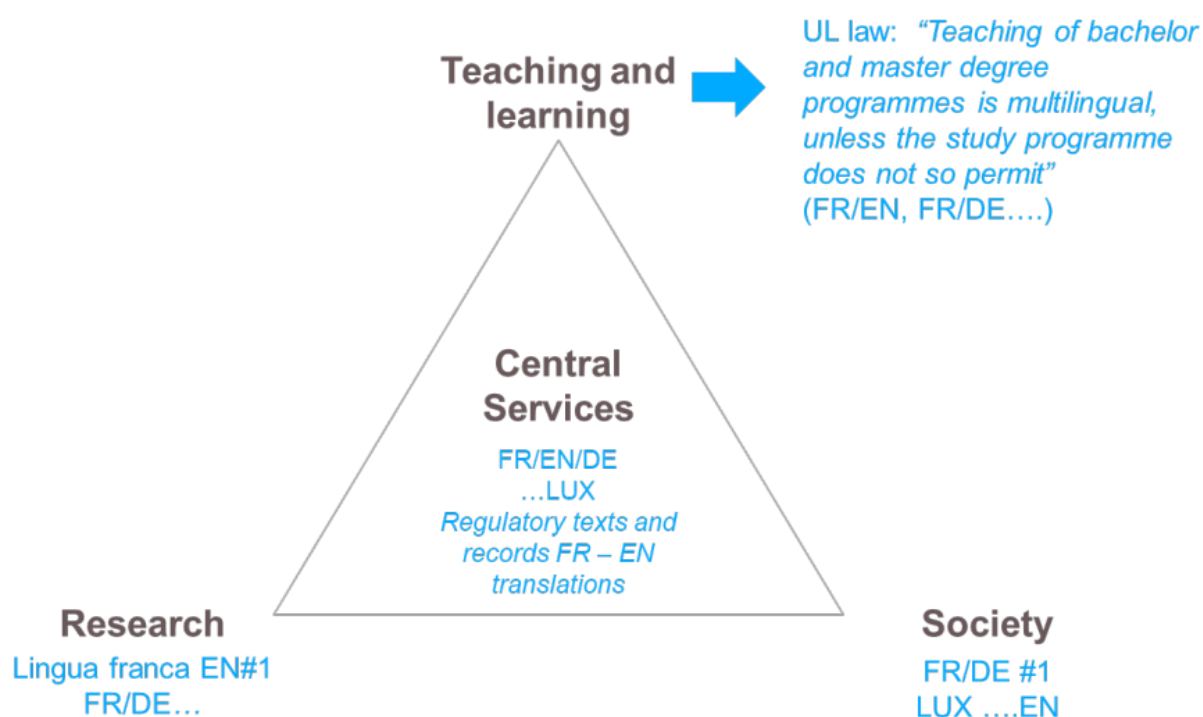


Figure 10: Multilingualism at the University of Luxembourg (Multilingualism Policy, 2020, p. 9).

<sup>15</sup> University of Luxembourg Language Centre. University of Luxembourg. Retrieved from: <https://www.uni.lu/en/education/language-centre/>

The next paragraphs shift the focus on the undergraduate level of study and the study programmes offered by the university. The data presented correspond to the academic year 2023–2024, during which data collection took place, providing a contextually grounded snapshot of the university’s multilingual environment. Specifically, based on the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate programmes, during the academic year of 2023–2024, the university offered 18 bachelor programmes in the following teaching languages:

	Bachelor programme/Faculty	English (EN)	French (FR)	German (DE)	Luxembourgish (LU)
	Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)				
1.	Medicine	10%	70%	20%	
2.	Life Sciences	35%	65%		
3.	Nursing	10%	70%	20%	
4.	Applied Information Technology	80%	20%		
5.	Computer Science	95%	5% (FR or DE)		
6.	Engineering	15%	15%	70%	
7.	Mathematics	75%	25%		
8.	Physics	75%	25%		
	Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)				
1.	Law	FR/EN (one optional course is offered in DE)			
2.	Accounting and Taxation	FR/EN			
3.	Management	FR/EN			
4.	Economics	FR/EN			
	Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)				
1.	Music Education	DE/EN/FR/LU			
2.	Animation	EN/FR			
3.	Social and Educational Sciences	FR/DE/EN			
4.	Psychology	DE/FR/EN			
5.	European Cultures	EN/FR/DE/LU			
6.	Educational Sciences	LU/FR/DE/EN			

*Table 10: Teaching language(s) per bachelor programme, based on the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate programmes.*

Table 10 illustrates the variety of teaching languages and language combinations across the different bachelor programmes. It is important to note however, that irrespective of the language(s) of instruction listed at the programme level, the teaching language(s) in individual courses may differ. For instance, the Bachelor in Mathematics mentions English and French as

teaching languages. However, a closer look at the course guide reveals variation at the course level. Indicatively, the course « Didactique de mathématiques » lists French as the teaching language while the course « Mathématiques expérimentales » lists both French and English as teaching languages.

In addition to the Multilingualism Policy and the multilingual study programmes, the highly multilingual profile of the university is also evident in the diversity of its members. The 2023 Facts and Figures document mentions around 6,000 students and 2,500 staff from 130 nationalities. According to an article in Luxembourg Times<sup>16</sup> this number places the University of Luxembourg in the first place among EU countries with the highest proportion of international students, and in the second place after Liechtenstein, when considering countries in the European Economic Area. At the undergraduate level of study, around half of the student body reported holding approximately 120 different national backgrounds.

Prior research at the university has examined aspects of multilingualism and linguistic diversity, with a focus on staff (Deroey et al., 2015), master's students (e.g. de Bres & Franziskus, 2014; de Saint-Georges et al., 2020) or doctoral students (e.g. Hofmann, 2020). Nonetheless, considering the lack of extensive research at the undergraduate level of study (the significance of which is highlighted further in the Literature Review chapter) combined with the university's commitment to multilingualism and internationalisation, make it an especially relevant and suitable setting to study how institutional language policies and linguistic diversity are operationalised and experienced by teachers and undergraduate students in the educational process.

### 3.2.2 Triangulation in Data Collection and Research Methods

Capturing how linguistic diversity is managed and experienced in the educational process at a multilingual higher education institution requires a multifaceted approach that takes into consideration institutional policies as well as the lived experiences of teachers and students. As Bardach (2009) points out, “in policy research, almost all likely sources of information, data, and ideas fall into two general types: documents and people” (Bardach, 2009, p. 69). Drawing on this approach, the present research combines an analysis of institutional language policy documents with data from teachers and undergraduate students, as outlined in Table 11:

---

<sup>16</sup> Foreign students in the majority. Luxembourg Times. (28 August 2025). Retrieved from: <https://www.luxtimes.lu/luxembourg/luxembourg-tops-eu-with-52-foreign-students-in-higher-education/85703242.html>

Policy documents	Social actors	
Policy documents	Teachers	Undergraduate students
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Loi du 27 juin 2018 (Law of the University)</li> <li>• Règlement d'ordre intérieur–ROI (Internal Regulation)</li> <li>• Annexe au règlement des études de l'Université du Luxembourg–Partie I : Programmes d'études menant au grade de bachelor (Appendix to the study regulations for the undergraduate level of study)</li> <li>• Charte Pédagogique (Pedagogical Charter)</li> <li>• Politique du multilinguisme (Multilingualism Policy)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Semistructured interviews</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Online survey</li> <li>• Focus group discussions</li> </ul>

*Table 11: Research methods for data collection.*

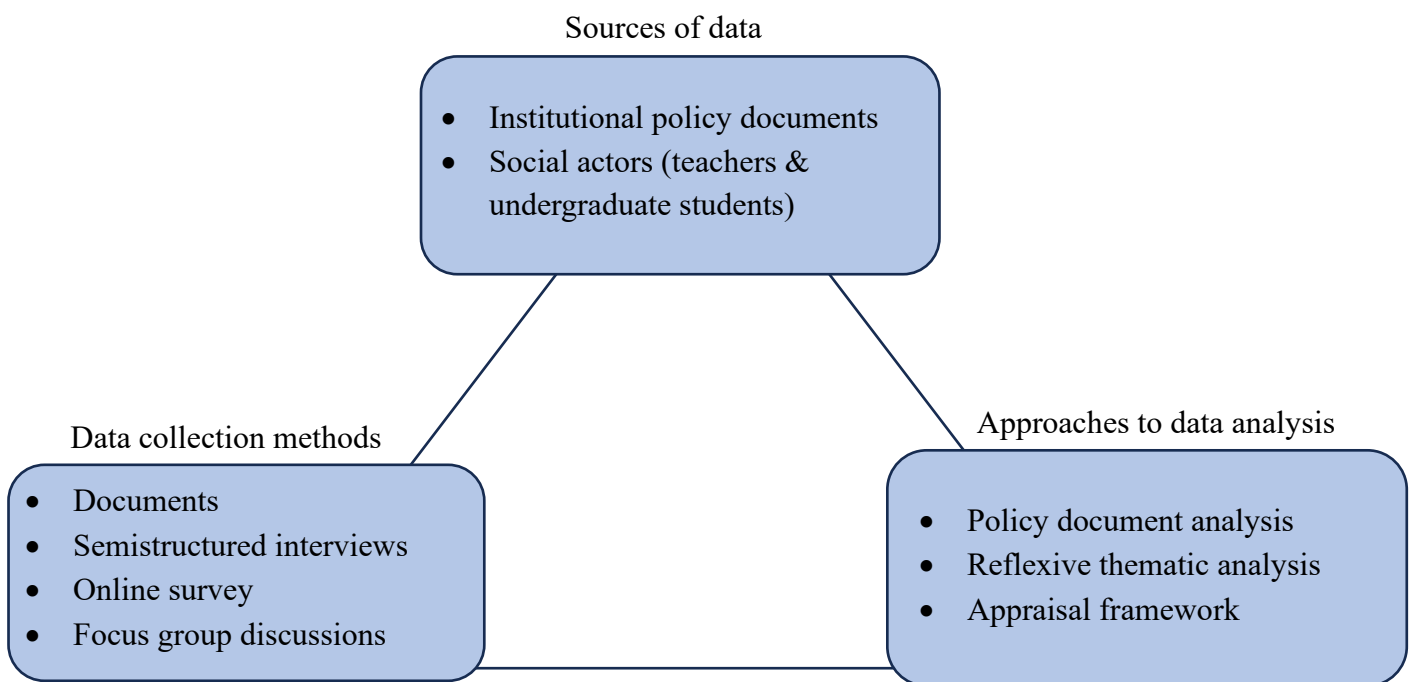
The use of different methods for data collection contributes to the triangulation of findings. Triangulation, derived from the geometric concept of a triangle, refers to the integration of “multiple theories, methods, observers and empirical materials, to produce a more accurate, comprehensive and objective representation of the object of study” (Silverman, 2011, p. 369). Denzin and Lincoln (2000) argue that triangulation is “a strategy that adds rigor, breadth, complexity, richness and depth to any enquiry” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 5), minimising bias, strengthening the reliability of the study, and consistence of findings (Bowen, 2009). Triangulation is also essential for gaining a deeper understanding of complex social phenomena, particularly those shaped by subjective experiences and multiple perspectives (Moisander & Valtonen, 2006).

In qualitative research, triangulation allows for the use of different methods to collect data for the same phenomenon, which usually has a high degree of complexity (Sántha & Malomsoki–Sántha, 2023). According to Denzin (1989), triangulation between methods can reveal new insights by addressing the same phenomenon from different angles. This approach to data collection is one of the most common triangulation applications and it adds to the validity of the study in two ways, either confirming or complementing the findings (Hennink, 2014).

The above points are particularly relevant to the present study, which examines how linguistic diversity is experienced and managed within a multilingual university. In response to the risk of missing critical dimensions through a single method approach, this research uses a multimethod design to data collection. In this study, triangulation across institutional policy documents, interviews with teachers, and an online survey together with focus group discussions with undergraduate students, allows for a multidimensional analysis of the research

questions and offers the potential to consider all perspectives on multilingualism and linguistic diversity in this academic context.

Triangulation in data collection is further enhanced by employing a variety of approaches to data analysis. Triangulation among both methods and approaches contributes to deeper engagement with the data, helping to reveal the complex ways in which multilingualism and linguistic diversity are experienced and negotiated within the university. Figure 11 illustrates how triangulation is operationalised in the present study:



*Figure 11: Triangulation in the present research.*

Overall, the use of different methods to collect and analyse data ensures the credibility and accuracy of the study. It helps obtain a more complete picture of the studied phenomenon and the context by incorporating a variety of perspectives, thereby contributing to the improved quality and depth of the findings.

The following section turns to policy documents, which is the first research method for data collection. It provides an overview of the selected documents; the criteria applied for their selection as well as the analytical approaches employed to examine how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are conceptualised and presented in institutional discourse.

### 3.3 Policy Documents

The first research method for data collection is documents. Although document analysis is a well-established method in qualitative research, it is not often used. Prior (2003) notes that “in most social scientific work documents are placed at the margins of consideration” (Prior, 2003, p. 4). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) observe that document analysis remains a relatively underused approach, which may explain the lack of extensive literature on research with documents (Tight, 2019).

Nonetheless, analysing policy documents is a common method for examining institutional ideologies surrounding language, as language policies can reflect broader language ideologies within a nation or institution (Clarke, 2020). Furthermore, policy texts contextualise the everyday experiences of university members and provide a structured view of the official framework on multilingualism. Prior (2003) asserts that “a university (any university) is in its documents rather than its building” (Prior, 2003, p. 60), emphasising the role of institutional policies in defining institutional identity and practice. Even though this view is overgeneralised, it shows the importance of institutional texts in shaping academic and administrative realities. In addition to these, institutional policy documents constitute a stable source of information. Unlike other methods for data collections, documents are fixed, existing texts (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). This means that the inclusion of documents in research, offers a complementary, but independent perspective that adds depth to the research and supports triangulation across data sources and methods.

In consideration of the aforementioned points, this research integrates documents as a valuable source of data. In the present research, the institutional policy documents examined are regarded as “text providing context” (Bowen, 2009, p. 29), serving to contextualise the empirical data collected from individuals. At the same time, institutional policy documents are also seen as analytical material in their own right, offering insight into how the institution constructs and positions linguistic diversity.

Notwithstanding the advantages of this method, document analysis has been subject to criticism on account of its alleged selectivity (Bowen, 2009). Such claims make the process of document selection a critical step in ensuring the credibility and relevance to the research. To address this concern, in the present research the documents are selected based on specific criteria that include the documents’ role in regulating the status of languages, relevance to language use in the educational process and reference to multilingualism and linguistic diversity.

After applying these criteria, the following policy documents are ultimately examined: 1) Loi du 27 juin 2018 portant organisation de l'Université du Luxembourg, 2) Règlement d'ordre intérieur–ROI (14/11/23), 3) Annexe au règlement des études–Partie I: Programmes d'études menant au grade de bachelor, 4) Charte pédagogique, and 5) Politique du multilinguisme (see Table 11). Each of these documents addresses specific dimensions of the research objectives. For example, the Law of the University is linked to institutional governance, the Pedagogical Charter reveals important information about the teaching framework and the Multilingualism Policy delineates the language use. Together these documents provide a comprehensive view of how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are framed at the University of Luxembourg.

The five documents were collected at the beginning of the winter semester 2023, concurrently with the data collection from teachers and undergraduate students. This approach was intended to ensure alignment between the specific versions of policy documents and the lived experiences of individuals across the same period of time. Collecting data simultaneously also allowed for a more accurate comparison between the content of the documents and actual practices (Creswell, 2006).

To conclude, the analysis of the aforementioned five policy documents provides this research with critical insights into the University of Luxembourg's institutional policies on multilingualism and linguistic diversity. Furthermore, it allows to examine aspects such as institutional policies to language use in the educational process, that may be omitted in interviews and focus groups. Ultimately, the analysis of institutional policy documents enriches the data set and strengthens the triangulation of findings by providing a richer context for interpreting the lived experiences of teachers and undergraduate students.

With that in mind, the next sections detail the process for the employment of policy document analysis and reflexive thematic analysis in the analysis of institutional policy documents. Throughout these sections I also explain how the two analytical approaches help examine the institutional perspectives on multilingualism and linguistic diversity.

### 3.3.1 Policy Document Analysis for Institutional Policy Documents

This section starts with the analysis of the five policy documents that are part of the data set for the present research, namely the Law of the University, the Internal Regulation (ROI), the Annex of the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study, the Pedagogical Charter and the Multilingualism Policy. These five documents are critically analysed to reveal

underlying ideologies and goals that shape language use within the university, offering a foundation for understanding how policy connects to the experiences of teachers and students in this multilingual university.

The five policy documents are examined in accordance with the hierarchical structure outlined in the university's internal regulations document (p. 7). Accordingly, documents are reviewed in the following order: first, the 2018 Law for the organisation of the university; second, the ROI; third, the Annex to the Study Regulations for Undergraduate Programmes, and finally the Pedagogical Charter and the Multilingualism Policy.

The analysis of these policy documents is initially guided by Cardno's (2018) framework for policy document analysis, which offers a structured and multidimensional perspective on policy texts. In reviewing these documents, particular attention is given to the ways in which multilingualism and linguistic diversity are framed and legitimised in each document. Each document is examined in French, which is the official binding version, to preserve the nuances of the institutional discourse. Furthermore, at this initial analysis, each of the documents is examined individually, using the following five levels proposed by Cardno (2018, p. 631): 1) the document production and location, 2) authorship and audience, 3) the policy context, 4) the policy text, and 5) the policy consequences. To address each of these levels in more depth, I also use the guiding questions by Cardno (2018) (see Table 3).

In total, Cardno's (2018) framework for policy document analysis offers valuable insights into how language ideologies are embedded within institutional policies. This foundational analysis is complemented by reflexive thematic analysis, which helps identify broader patterns and themes across the data set, allowing for a more nuanced interpretation of findings.

### 3.3.2 Reflexive Thematic Analysis of Institutional Policy Documents

As outlined in Figure 2, a five-step process for reflexive thematic analysis is employed for the analysis of institutional policy documents. For the first step, I review all documents using the qualitative data analysis software MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021), which supports the systematic reading and marking of important excerpts. This step serves to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the content and to identify excerpts pertinent to the research questions. In this first step, I highlight excerpts that appear to be of relevance to the study. In doing so, I give particular attention to sections that explicitly address language use, multilingualism and

diversity, together with more implicit references that may reflect underlying ideologies, or assumptions about linguistic diversity.

The second step involves a closer reading of the marked excerpts with the aim of identifying terms or phrases that are important and related to the research questions. In this step, I revisit the previously marked excerpts, and I identify key words that contain recurring ideas or significant meanings. As an indicative example, I take the following excerpt from the Multilingualism Policy of the University of Luxembourg:

(5) « En tant qu'université de recherche internationale, l'Université du Luxembourg (UL) considère le multilinguisme de sa communauté universitaire ainsi que son expertise multiculturelle comme des facteurs essentiels de son internationalisation académique » (Multilingualism Policy, 2020, p. 1).

In Example 5, the term 'internationalisation' is marked as a key word due to its repeated use and its ideological significance in reflecting the university's positioning on internationalisation.

The third step is about coding. In this step, I transform textual data into short words or phrases that describe the essence of the excerpt and relate it to the research questions. The key words derived from the second step are instrumental in the coding process, as they facilitate the selection of appropriate wording for codes (Naeem, et al., 2023). For instance, in Example 5, I assign the code 'internationalisation, multilingualism, multiculturalism'.

Table 12 includes a selection of indicative codes from the coding process, together with excerpts from the policy documents:

Excerpts from the policy documents	Codes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• « Grâce à l'origine multinationale de ses étudiants et de son personnel et à son affiliation à plusieurs grandes traditions académiques européennes, l'Université du Luxembourg offre un cadre éducatif multilingue et interculturel exceptionnel. Cette caractéristique représente à la fois une magnifique opportunité et un défi complexe. » (Charte pédagogique, p. 5)</li> <li>• « En tant qu'université de recherche internationale, l'Université du Luxembourg (UL) considère le multilinguisme de sa communauté universitaire ainsi que son expertise multiculturelle comme des facteurs essentiels de son internationalisation académique » (Politique du multilinguisme, 2020, p. 1)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Opportunities and challenges of multilingualism</li> <li>-Internationalisation, multilingualism, multiculturalism</li> <li>-University's multilingual profile</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Le Centre de langues de l'Université du Luxembourg (Règlement d'ordre intérieur de l'Université du Luxembourg, p. 25)</li> <li>• « Ils encouragent aussi les professeurs à innover et à toujours chercher de nouveaux moyens de rendre les connaissances accessibles à des groupes diversifiés d'étudiants, d'organiser des discussions fructueuses et respectueuses entre parties ayant des opinions divergentes, et de procéder à des évaluations qui sont équitables et acceptées par tous les étudiants. » (Charte pédagogique, p. 5)</li> <li>• « Le multilinguisme ci-après se réfère principalement à l'utilisation de ces langues dans la recherche, l'enseignement et l'administration. » (Politique du multilinguisme, p. 2)</li> <li>• « La maîtrise des langues suivantes au niveau indiqué du cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues (CECR) : a. Anglais (B2) ou b. Français (B2) » (Annexe au règlement des études de l'Université du Luxembourg)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Infrastructural support</li> <li>-Pedagogical practices</li> <li>-Language proficiency requirements</li> <li>-Multilingualism in research, teaching, and administration</li> <li>-Languages</li> </ul>

Table 12: Selection of indicative codes in the data from policy documents.

The coding process for policy documents was guided by a combination of inductive and deductive approaches. This approach led to two groups of codes which were formed based on the content and focus. At first, codes were generated inductively using key words and phrases previously marked as key words in the policy documents. In the first group of codes, inductive coding draws on references to multilingualism in different domains of the university as well as the university's description as multilingual and intercultural. The respective codes, 'Multilingualism in research, teaching, and administration' and 'University's multilingual profile', reflect the institution's positioning and highlight the complex reality of linguistic diversity. In this group of codes, the deductive approach added perspectives that pertain to language ideologies in language policy.

The second group of codes draw on excerpts that discuss supportive measures that the university has in place for multilingualism and linguistic diversity (e.g. the Language Centre), pedagogical practices (e.g. encouragement of teachers to employ innovative pedagogical practices in their teaching), policy requirements and the role of languages. In this group of codes, the deductive approach brought in literature on plurilingual pedagogies, language hierarchies and language policies.

After the coding process, I proceeded with the fourth step of reflexive thematic analysis, which is the development of themes across the data set. This step was carried out over three rounds to ensure thematic diversity and coherence across the policy documents. A more detailed view to the refinement of themes is outlined in Table 13. In this table, themes are presented in bold letters and are followed by their subthemes:

Round 1	Round 2	Round 3
<b>Multilingualism and diversity</b> Opportunities and challenges Definitions of diversity	<b>Language, multilingualism and diversity</b> Use of terms Opportunities and challenges	<b>1) Perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity</b> a. Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity b. Implications of multilingualism and diversity
<b>The university</b> Language policy and requirements Teaching practices Support structures	<b>Institutional structure and policy</b> Language use Language requirements Institutional support Specificities per field/discipline Teaching and learning practices Students' future career	<b>2) Institutional policy framework</b> a. Infrastructural support for language and diversity b. Learning objectives and future career c. Language roles in the educational process d. Language requirements e. Pedagogical practices
<b>Languages</b> English French German Luxembourgish Other		

*Table 13: Development of themes for policy documents.*

The development of themes for the policy documents followed three rounds (see Table 13). In the first round, the names of themes remained closed to the wording of documents and the codes. Consequently, themes in this round were general and called for further refinement. In the second round, themes moved from generic to more meaningful labels. For example, the specific languages that appeared as subthemes in the first round were renamed under the theme ‘Language use’ to represent the role of these languages more generally. Nonetheless, upon completion of Round 2, it became evident that themes did not fully reflect the coded excerpts. Precisely, although themes captured the general area of focus, they did not sufficiently represent the nuances that appeared in documents. This was particularly noticeable in excerpts that covered multiple themes, such as the excerpt « En tant qu’université de recherche internationale, l’Université du Luxembourg (UL) considère le multilinguisme de sa communauté universitaire ainsi que son expertise multiculturelle comme des facteurs essentiels de son internationalisation académique », which refers to the university’s profile but also reflects language ideologies through the terms ‘multicultural’ and ‘internationalisation’.

With that in mind and upon combining the inductive naming of themes with a deductive approach informed by relevant literature, the third and last round led to themes that are more analytical and represent the data more conceptually. For example, references to multilingualism and linguistic diversity were included under the theme ‘perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity’. Another example is the theme ‘opportunities and challenges’, which was renamed to ‘implications of multilingualism and diversity’. This last round was also important in ensuring cohesion across the policy documents.

Ultimately, Round 3 led to two broad thematic categories: 1) perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity, and 2) institutional policy framework. These two thematic categories and their subthemes reflect the main areas in which multilingualism and linguistic diversity are addressed across the selected policy documents. Table 14 provides a comprehensive overview of the themes and subthemes that emerged from the reflexive thematic analysis of the institutional policy documents, accompanied by their definitions and indicative examples from the data:

	Theme	Definition	Excerpt from data
1.	Perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity		
1.a.	Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity	Explores how the terms ‘language’, ‘multilingualism’, ‘linguistic diversity’, ‘diversity’, are defined, used, and reflected in the policy documents.	« Le multilinguisme ci-après se réfère principalement à l'utilisation de ces langues dans la recherche, l'enseignement et l'administration. » (Politique du multilinguisme, p. 2)
1.b.	Implications of multilingualism and diversity	Includes excerpts that frame multilingualism and diversity as either opportunities that enrich teaching and learning or as challenges that require institutional adaptations and management.	« Grâce à l'origine multinationale de ses étudiants et de son personnel et à son affiliation à plusieurs grandes traditions académiques européennes, l'Université du Luxembourg offre un cadre éducatif multilingue et interculturel exceptionnel. Cette caractéristique représente à la fois une magnifique opportunité et un défi complexe. » (Charte pédagogique, p. 5)
2.	Institutional policy framework		
2.a.	Infrastructural support for language and diversity	Includes references to institutional services that support language learning and diversity.	Le Centre de langues de l'Université du Luxembourg, the Learning Centre (Règlement d'ordre intérieur de l'Université du Luxembourg, p. 25)
2.b.	Learning objectives and future career	Focuses on multilingual and multicultural competencies and how these are described regarding students' academic development and future careers.	« Des compétences transdisciplinaires liées au raisonnement pluraliste, l'interdisciplinarité et le multilinguisme accompagnent les études de spécialisation et permettent d'ouvrir un vaste éventail de débouchés académiques et professionnels. » (Annexe au règlement des études de l'Université du Luxembourg, p. 23)

2.c.	Language roles in the educational process	Examines how named languages are positioned, what roles they have and how they are framed in the policy documents.	« Tandis que l'anglais reste une lingua franca dans de nombreuses disciplines à travers le monde, le français, l'allemand et le luxembourgeois sont les trois langues administratives du Grand-Duché. Chacune de ces quatre langues a un rôle particulier à l'Université, découlant de sa position en tant que langue académique, juridique ou nationale, du contexte de recherche disciplinaire ou des spécificités d'un programme d'enseignement. » (Politique du multilinguisme, p. 1)
2.d.	Language requirements	Reflects how policy documents establish language expectations for students and staff, admission requirements based on language proficiency, and designated language(s) of instruction, as well as other criteria related to language proficiency.	« La maîtrise des langues suivantes au niveau indiqué du cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues (CECR) : a. Anglais (B2) ou b. Français (B2) » (Annexe au règlement des études de l'Université du Luxembourg)
2.e.	Pedagogical practices	Includes excerpts in which policy texts refer to teaching and learning practices.	« Ils encouragent aussi les professeurs à innover et à toujours chercher de nouveaux moyens de rendre les connaissances accessibles à des groupes diversifiés d'étudiants, d'organiser des discussions fructueuses et respectueuses entre parties ayant des opinions divergentes, et de procéder à des évaluations qui sont équitables et acceptées par tous les étudiants. » (Charte pédagogique, p. 5)

Table 14: Themes from the analysis of policy documents with their definitions and examples.

As illustrated in Table 14, the first group of themes addresses the variety of perspectives and underlying assumptions related to language, multilingualism and diversity, as evidenced in institutional discourse. This thematic group captures how the concepts are framed, valued, and positioned within the university's policy documents. The first thematic group is further divided into two themes. The first theme, 'Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity', focuses on the implications of multilingualism and diversity, including how they are linked to institutional goals such as internationalisation and inclusion. The second theme examines the conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity, with an emphasis on how these terms are defined and interpreted within the documents.

The second thematic group, 'Institutional policy framework', is concerned with the ways in which multilingualism and linguistic diversity are embedded within the university's structural and regulatory frameworks, reflecting the university's commitment through institutional policies. This group is further divided into five themes, which illuminate the intersection of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in various dimensions of academic life, including infrastructural support for language and diversity, learning objectives, role of languages in the educational process, language requirements and pedagogical practices.

The identification and presentation of themes form the reflexive thematic analysis completes the examination of the five policy documents. Engaging with the policy texts using Cardno's (2018) policy document analysis framework, followed by reflexive thematic analysis, allowed a structural and interpretive approach. This analytical approach to policy documents enabled a more profound comprehension of how language-related ideologies and institutional priorities are constructed and articulated in policy discourse. Moreover, beginning with a systematic analysis of each document before moving to a reflexive thematic exploration enabled the identification of both explicit and implicit patterns, adding to the analytical depth of the study.

As document research is typically supplementary to other research methods (Morgan, 2022), this study also incorporates data from human participants, specifically, teachers and undergraduate students. Moving from the analysis of policy texts to the exploration of individual perspectives supports the triangulated research design, allowing for a more contextualised understanding of how institutional discourses on multilingualism and linguistic diversity are interpreted, negotiated and experienced by social actors within the educational process.

### 3.4 Social Actors-Teachers and Undergraduate Students

This part of the Methodology chapter presents the second group of data that draws on the perspectives and experiences of teachers and undergraduate students. This part is organised into four main sections, starting with the ethical considerations that guided the research process as well as the role of the researcher in collecting and interpreting data.

The second section focuses on teachers, outlining how semistructured interviews were used to collect data from this group. In this section, I explain why I chose semistructured interviews for data collection, how I developed the interview guide, how I invited teachers to participate, and what the participating teachers' profiles are. This section is followed by an overview of the research design and data collection methods used with student participants. This includes information on their profiles and outlines the design of the online survey and focus groups.

The final part of the chapter discusses the analytical approaches applied to the data collected from these two groups. These approaches refer to the analysis of data from semistructured interviews with teachers, as well as data from the online survey and focus group discussions with undergraduate students. The analysis begins with reflexive thematic analysis, used to identify patterns and themes across the interview data, open-ended survey responses, and focus group discussions. Excerpts from this data set are then analysed using the appraisal framework to explore the underlying ideologies towards multilingualism and linguistic diversity. Lastly, data derived from the closed-ended questions of the online survey is analysed using basic descriptive statistics to provide context to the primarily qualitative data.

As this research involves human participants, the first section addresses the ethical considerations and the role of the researcher. This first section explains how core ethical principles, such as informed consent, confidentiality, and respect for participating individual, were upheld throughout the research process. It also highlights how these principles informed the data collection methods and the approaches to analysis. Additionally, this section discusses the researcher's active role in the study, particularly in collecting and interpreting participating teachers and students' narratives. This is an important aspect of the study that requires continuous reflexivity in order to acknowledge and mitigate potential biases. In doing so, it considers how the researcher's positionality may have influenced interactions with participating individuals and the interpretation of data. This supports the idea that this critical reflection enhances the transparency of the research and reinforces the trustworthiness of its findings.

### 3.4.1 Ethical Considerations

As Hoffman (2014) points out, any research involving human participants must carefully and transparently address ethical issues. Given its direct engagement with human participants across a range of methods, including interviews, an online survey and focus groups, acquiring ethical approval is essential for this study. Within the University of Luxembourg, ethical issues are primarily addressed through two bodies: the Ethics Review Panel (ERP), which evaluates the ethical aspects of research projects to ensure scientific integrity, and the Data Protection Office (DPO), which ensures compliance with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR).

The first step in obtaining ethical approval for this study was the completion of the Registered Processing Activities (RPA) form with the university's DPO. The approved RPA (code RPA0000492) was initially authorised in April 2023 and finalised in November 2023 upon change of the legal officer. The RPA outlines all aspects of data processing, including the types of data collected, storage methods, confidentiality and security measures, as well as the conditions under which third-party access might be permitted.

The second step was to submit ethics applications to the ERP, separate for each data collection method: semistructured interviews, the online survey and focus groups (see Appendix 4). Each submission included a completed ethics form, the information notice (see Appendix 2.1 and 2.2), the DPO-approved data processing notice (see Appendix 5), and an informed consent form (see Appendix 3.1 and 3.2). This documentation ensured participating individuals would be fully informed about the study, their rights, and how their data would be used and protected.

The data collected from participating teachers and students in interviews, online surveys and focus groups relates to their teaching and learning experiences, language use and personal perspectives on multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process. While this content does not fall under the GDPR definition of 'sensitive data' (e.g. political opinions, religious or philosophical beliefs, health data), some personal data was collected for scheduling and conducting the data collection, such as names, university email addresses and audio recordings. Processing this data is justified under Article 6(1)(e) of the GDPR, which allows the use of data for tasks carried out in the public interest.

Regarding the storage of data, all data collected is securely stored on the university's internal network and access is strictly limited to the researcher. Physical copies of consent forms have been digitalised and will be destroyed using the shredders provided by the

university, upon completion of the project. Audio files are stored securely and are used solely for transcription and analysis; no unauthorised access is permitted at any stage.

Another point addressed in the DPO form concerns the use of third-party platforms for online data collection, the use of which introduces additional ethical considerations. In the present research, seven of the semistructured interviews and one of the focus group discussions were conducted via Webex (<https://web.webex.com/sign-in>), a platform based outside the European Union. To safeguard individuals' confidentiality, several protective measures were implemented. Firstly, access to the sessions were restricted to authenticated university accounts. Secondly, sessions were locked once all students had joined. Thirdly, all sessions were held in private meeting rooms while the screen sharing function had been exclusive to the researcher. Importantly, all audio recordings were made using an external secure device (OLYMPUS WS-853), rather than the platform's built-in recording function, to avoid any data being stored on third-party servers.

In contrast to the semistructured interviews and focus group discussions, the online questionnaire was administered using Lime survey (<https://www.limesurvey.org/>), a university's recommended and GDPR compliant platform. Furthermore, the survey was created and distributed using institutional login credentials, in accordance with the university data protection and research ethics guidelines. To annotate and code textual data, I used the student version of MAXQDA (<https://www.maxqda.com/>), which is a tool that does not automatically store or transmit data externally. Access to the software, including the license, was granted by the university. In the same vein, I use UAM CorpusTool (<http://www.corpustool.com/>) for the analysis of data using the appraisal framework. This tool, which functions entirely offline, requires the user to manually save the work and therefore, no data was shared, exported or stored online.

Throughout the study, ensuring the anonymity and confidentiality of human participants is a central ethical priority. For the online survey, anonymity was incorporated into the design of the tool, with all responses being anonymised at the point of collection. In practice, this means that no personally identifiable information was required to complete the survey. Upon completion of the survey, student respondents were pseudonymised using identifiers from Q1 to Q68, depending on the order of completing the survey.

In the semistructured interviews and focus group discussions, participating teachers' names were replaced with unique identifiers based again on the order of participation. Specifically, teachers who participated in the interviews were assigned codes ranging from T1 to T13, while students who took part in the focus groups were assigned codes S1 to S7. This

ensured confidentiality while maintaining the ability to trace responses throughout the analysis in a structured and consistent manner. To protect individuals' identities, the assigned codes are used consistently throughout the thesis. Furthermore, I use the pronoun 'they/them/their' as gender-neutral, to reduce the possibility of traceability or identification.

In addition to legal and institutional compliance, this research is conducted with sensitivity to the well-being and representation of participating individuals. For this purpose, the study drew on Whitney and Evered's (2022) Qualitative Distress Protocol to address potential emotional discomfort. The Triage Pathway was used to ensure the appropriate management of participating individuals exhibiting signs of distress during data collection. Although no such incidents occurred, participating individuals were informed in advance of their right to pause or withdraw from participation at any time. In terms of representativeness, the study adheres to the principles outlined by Hennink (2014) to ensure that individuals' voices are presented in a respectful and accurate manner. Audio recordings were manually transcribed with careful attention to accuracy and neutrality to ensure that individuals' voices are represented without introducing bias. Similarly, direct quotes have been incorporated into the analysis to ensure authenticity.

As part of the study's commitment to the ethical treatment of participating individuals and specifically in recognition of the contributions made by undergraduate students, each student who participated in both the online survey and the focus group discussion received a €10 voucher. These vouchers were funded through the doctoral student budget at the University of Luxembourg and were distributed through official university channels to ensure transparency and accountability in the process.

The aforementioned ethical considerations are closely aligned with the study's qualitative design and its underlying interpretivist paradigm. Within this paradigm, however, the researcher plays a central and active role in shaping the research process. Therefore, the following section explores this role in greater depth, examining how the researcher's background, positionality, and reflexive practice have influenced the collection and interpretation of data.

### 3.4.2 The Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher is a particularly important consideration in qualitative inquiry, especially in interpretivist paradigms. In such paradigms, researchers are active participants whose values, experiences and positionality inevitably shape the design of the study, the

collection of data analysis and the analysis. Within this paradigm, the researcher's subjectivity is not seen as a limitation but as an important element of the research process (Gray, 2004). Hesse-Biber (2011) further argues that acknowledging the researcher's influence enhances transparency and contributes to the integrity of the research process.

The present study is situated within an interpretivist framework and assumes that knowledge is socially constructed and that meaning is co-created through the interactions between researcher and participants. During these interactions, the researcher's role involves managing power dynamics. In order to address the inherent asymmetry of the research-participant relationship, I aimed to create an environment of mutual respect and openness, where participating individuals felt that their perspectives were valued. This included transparent communication about the study's purpose and ensuring that all participating individuals had opportunities to ask questions, clarify concerns, and withdraw at any stage (Androulakis et al., 2020). In parallel, during data collection, drawing on the Qualitative Research Distress Protocol (Whitney & Evered, 2022), I remained attentive to any signs of discomfort and highlighted individuals' right to pause or withdraw at any point.

Nevertheless, within this paradigm, the researcher's positionality is acknowledged and critically examined as a fundamental aspect of the entire research process. In line with the qualitative approach, the researcher's presence, interactional style and background are recognised as potential influences on participants' responses (Robson, 2002). This necessitates maintaining a continuous reflexive stance throughout the study.

A key dimension of this reflexivity involves interrogating one's own assumptions, prior experiences, and cultural or linguistic background. In my case, my previous professional experience as a primary school teacher gave me a stronger foundation for the understanding of the pedagogical context, classroom dynamics, and the challenges educators face in multilingual settings. This background enabled me to relate more easily to the concerns expressed by participating teachers and students, through a sense of mutual understanding and trust during the interviews and focus group discussions. It also enabled me to pick up on subtle references or implicit meanings in individuals' accounts, such as mentions of teaching practices, student engagement or institutional expectations.

At the same time, it was imperative to be aware of the risk of overidentifying with teachers and students, and of allowing prior knowledge to influence interpretations uncritically. This was also extended to the analysis phase, particularly in the use of the appraisal framework. As Martin (2000) observes, implementing this framework requires awareness of the researcher's interpretive lens, especially when identifying and annotating attitudinal language

and evaluations. To address this, I adopted a reflexive approach throughout the research process, regularly documenting my reflections. Particularly during data analysis, I frequently reviewed my interpretations and remained aware of how my positionality could shape the analysis. During reflexive thematic analysis, I cross-checked emerging codes and themes against the raw data to ensure that interpretations were grounded in individuals' actual words rather than filtered through my own professional experiences.

In addition to prior professional experience, my linguistic background had a significant impact on the design and interpretation of the study. Drawing upon my personal experience of using multiple languages and my prior academic experience in predominantly monolingual institutions, I took deliberate steps to avoid adopting a monolingual perspective. In practice, this meant designing interview and survey questions that did not assume a language hierarchy, and acknowledging code switching and translanguaging, as meaningful language practices. I also adapted the online survey to accommodate plurilingual respondents, drawing on insights from Marian (2023) regarding the cognitive and social dynamics of plurilingual individuals. Consequently, the questionnaire was offered in three of the university's languages (English, French and German), and students were encouraged to express themselves in whichever language or linguistic variety they felt most comfortable using. Regarding data analysis, I aimed at avoiding the monolingual perspective by remaining open to the diverse ways in which teachers and students reported their perspectives.

The above indicates the important and active role that the researcher plays at every stage of the present research, from data collection to interpretation. To ensure transparency, trustworthiness, and respect for teachers and students' voices, I adopted a critically reflexive and ethically aware approach. Having established the ethical considerations and delineated the researcher's role, the following sections describe the methods and procedures employed to collect and analyse data from social actors, starting with teachers.

### 3.4.3 Research Methods for Data Collection from Social Actors

#### 3.4.3.1 Semistructured Interviews with Teachers

Data from teachers derives from semistructured interviews, which help to elicit rich and contextualised information about individuals' experiences (Androulakis et al., 2017; Mears, 2009; Taherdoost, 2021). According to Leech (2009), the inherent flexibility of semistructured interviews allows questions to be modified during the interview process. This makes space for adjustments as well as for clarifications. In essence, this means that during the semistructured

interviews, the interviewer can introduce additional relevant topics based on the interviewee's responses, contributing to a more dynamic exchange (Ryan et al., 2009). This interactive process allows interviewees to more fully articulate their perspectives, leading to a deeper and more nuanced understanding of their experiences, beliefs, and interpretations (Edley & Litosseliti, 2010). The aforementioned features of semistructured interviews are of particular importance in a multilingual context like the University of Luxembourg, where the rephrasing or clarification of questions in response to individuals' needs helps to establish a safe space in which interviewees are able to express themselves, their experiences, and their perceived reality with greater freedom (Karatsareas, 2022).

Semistructured interviews are guided by a set of predefined questions, often referred to as an interview guide (de Marrais, 2004) or interview questions (Haukås & Tishakov, 2024). The purpose of the interview guide is to ensure that questions align with the research objectives and that the data collected can be compared and analysed systematically (Bryman, 2016). Preparing the semistructured interviews involves careful planning of the questions, which are the basis for the interviews (Karatsareas, 2022).

The initial interview guide in the present research included questions that could be categorised into three groups: 1) linguistic profile and teaching experience, 2) teaching practices, and 3) personal beliefs and reflections of linguistic diversity. The sequence is intentional, as it first aims to establish a foundational understanding of the interviewee's background and expertise, before moving into specific pedagogical practices, and ultimately, to the individuals' personal views on multilingualism and linguistic diversity. The order of the questions in the interview guide is designed to help interviewees feel more relaxed and provide context for their answers, to the more complex reflective, questions that will be asked as the interview progresses. Additionally, probing and follow-up questions, such as 'why do you say that?', 'what do you mean by that?', that are not part of the guide, are strategically employed throughout the interview (Taherdoost, 2021). Such questions encourage deeper exploration of the topics and to prompt interviewees to elaborate on key points.

To refine the interview questions and to assess their effectiveness and clarity (Rabionet, 2011), I conducted a pilot study with a small number of teachers in February and March 2023. This pilot study allowed to test the relevance of questions and ensured their appropriateness for the target population, thereby confirming their suitability for gathering meaningful data (Adams, 2015; Taherdoost, 2021).

To ensure a diverse and representative sample for the pilot interviews, I employed stratified sampling, a technique that divides the population into distinct subgroups, or strata,

based on specific characteristics relevant to the study (Creswell, 2014). Stratified sampling helps guarantee that each subgroup is adequately represented, which is crucial for obtaining a comprehensive understanding of teachers' perspectives on linguistic diversity in the educational process.

For the pilot interviews, the strata were defined by factors such as faculty, department, and teaching language(s). The list derived from data collected from the university's official website during the months of September and October 2022. For the next step, I selected potential teacher participants from each stratum proportionally, to minimise the risk of bias and enhance the generalisability of the findings to the broader population (Flick, 2018). A total of fifteen invitations were sent out, resulting in five online interviews. The interviewees, both men and women, represented various disciplines across the university's three faculties, as appears in Table 15. Of these, three exclusively taught at the master's level, and two taught in both the bachelor and master level.

	<b>Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)</b>	<b>Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)</b>	<b>Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Male</b>	1	2		3
<b>Female</b>	1		1	2
				<b>5</b>

*Table 15: Profile of teacher participants for the pilot study.*

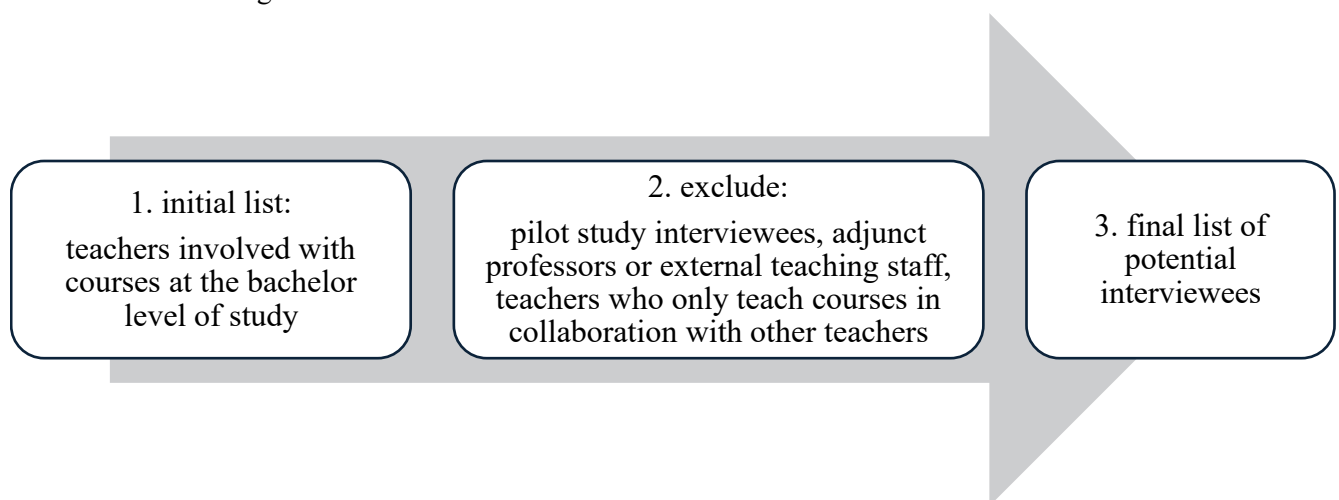
The results of the pilot interviews were valuable in refining the interview guide. The pilot interviews confirmed that the set of questions was appropriate for the target population, meaning that questions were comprehensible, facilitated a smooth discussion and that they addressed topics that were relevant to the research questions (Bolderston, 2012). At the same time, the pilot interviews revealed the importance of including questions about students' linguistic profiles and the integration of digital tools in teaching, as these topics emerged frequently. Pilot interviews also highlighted variations in language use across academic levels, particularly in master's programmes, where courses are predominantly delivered in English.

Based on insights gained from the pilot study, minor adjustments were made to enhance clarity and focus. The final set of questions, refined through this iterative process, comprises 19 questions organised into three groups: 1) questions on teacher participant's background, 2) language use teaching practices, and 3) experience with linguistic diversity at the University of Luxembourg (see Appendix 6.1). For the main study, the interview questions were initially

prepared in English. However, to ensure accessibility, the questions were also translated in French. This translation was carried out in collaboration with a French speaking colleague, who reviewed the wording and ensured the accuracy and appropriateness of the terminology.

The next question to address concerns the sample size. Qualitative research often presents challenges in determining an appropriate sample size (Bernard, 2013). Boddy (2016) suggests that the sample size should be context dependent and aligned with the research approach. To these, Morse (2000) adds “the scope of the study, the nature of the topic, the quality of the data, the study design” (Morse, 2000, p. 4). Taking these into account, I pursued with purposive or judgemental sampling. This method is particularly suited for studies that aim to explore specific relationships or compare distinct groups (Punch, 2009). It does not aim to provide “a miniature version of the population but only [...] to have the possibility of making inferences about the population based on the sample” (Sankoff, 1988, p. 900). In purposive or judgemental sampling, the selection of teacher participants is based on their relevance to the research aims, ensuring that the data collected is specific to the sociopolitical context and research questions (Sankoff, 1974).

Purposive or judgemental sampling is employed in this study in a three-step process, as illustrated in Figure 12:



*Figure 12: Steps for purposive or judgemental sampling in interviews with teachers.*

The three main steps for recruiting teachers were completed between April and May 2023. Firstly, I collected information about the teachers from the university’s official website. This information pertained to the undergraduate courses they taught and the teaching languages for these courses. Subsequently, I organised this information into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet, listing the teachers according to faculty and programme.

In the second step, I applied exclusion criteria to refine the initial list. Teachers who participated in the pilot interviews were excluded, as the pilot study had already provided valuable insights into the interview questions, with no significant changes made to the interview guide. Additionally, I excluded staff with whom I had previously collaborated or whose courses I had attended, to mitigate any potential bias. Adjunct professors and external teachers were also excluded, as their involvement with the university's policies and institutional culture may differ significantly from that of internal staff. I made this deliberate choice based on the idea that internal staff would best represent the university's policies and practices. Finally, teachers who were solely responsible for co-teaching courses were excluded. This criterion relates to the research aim of capturing the individual experiences of staff who are fully responsible for designing and giving at least one course.

After applying the aforementioned criteria, the third step of the process resulted in a list of 108 teachers. Table 16 provides a comprehensive overview of the number of teachers included in the Excel document, categorised by faculty and gender:

	<b>Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)</b>	<b>Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)</b>	<b>Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)</b>	<b>Total</b>
Female	3	10	19	<b>32</b>
Male	32	21	23	<b>76</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>108</b>

*Table 16: Distribution of potential teacher participants per faculty and gender.*

The individuals included in the list of potential teacher participants (see Table 16) are part of the larger group of teachers across the university. To better contextualise the group of potential teacher participants within the broader population of professors and assistant professors, official data from the Human Resources office for 2023 offers a detailed breakdown of the teachers per faculty and gender, presented in Table 17:

	<b>Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)</b>	<b>Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)</b>	<b>Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)</b>	<b>Total</b>
Female	12	21	42	<b>75</b>
Male	77	50	53	<b>180</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>255</b>

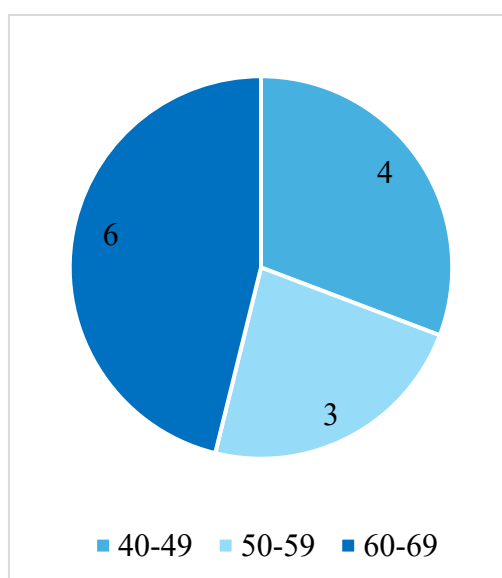
*Table 17: Distribution of teachers at the end of 2023, per faculty and gender.*

Once the list of potential teacher participants was finalised, I contacted each individual via the university's account, inviting them to take part in the research interviews. This process resulted in a final sample of 13 teachers, representing various disciplines, as illustrated in Table 18:

	<b>Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)</b>	<b>Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)</b>	<b>Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)</b>	<b>Total</b>
Female	1	1	3	<b>5</b>
Male	5	1	2	<b>8</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>13</b>

*Table 18: Distribution of participating teachers, per faculty and gender.*

As illustrated in Table 18, interviewees of the main study's interviews consist of both male and female, representing all faculties. Participating teachers span across a range of age demographics, with approximately 31% falling within the 40–49 age bracket, 23% between the ages of 50 and 59, and around 46% between the ages of 60 and 69. Figure 13 includes the number of teachers in each age group:



*Figure 13: Distribution of interviewees per age group.*

According to the official course curricula, these teachers deliver courses in a variety of designated teaching languages and language combinations. Six of them deliver courses with English among the designated teaching languages, nine teach in courses that include French, five include German and one course includes Luxembourgish among the designated teaching

languages. In fact, six of the interviewees teach exclusively in one language, another six use two languages across their courses, and one interviewee teaches a course in three languages. Among those teaching in a single language, three out of four are affiliated with the FSHE. In the FDEF, all interviewees mention courses either in English and/or French, while interviewees who give courses in the FSTM have English, German, and French among the designated teaching languages, with four out of six teacher participants teaching courses in two languages. Figure 14 illustrates how many times each of the university languages appears as designated teaching language in the courses delivered by participating teachers and whether it is in a monolingual, bilingual or trilingual course:

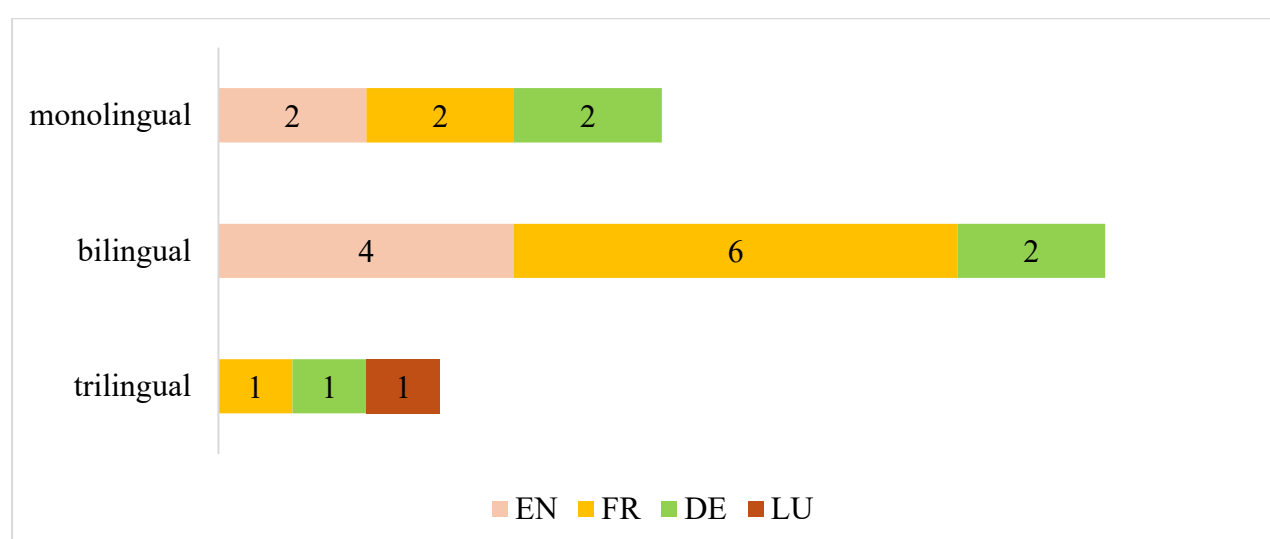


Figure 14: Frequency of teaching language per monolingual, bilingual or trilingual courses.

From Figure 14 it results that bilingual courses are the most common type of course delivered by interviewees. On the other hand, there is one course that appears to be trilingual in French, German and Luxembourgish. Based on the course curricula for the courses delivered by interviewees, French is the most common teaching language, appearing among the teaching languages for nine out of the 13 participating teachers.

Interviewees themselves have a wide range of linguistic backgrounds (see Figure 15 and Figure 16), from beginner to proficient language skills, with an average of five languages each, reflecting the multilingual profile of the university. Nine out of the 13 participating teachers report speaking and/or understanding all four of the university's languages (English, French, German, and Luxembourgish) to varying degrees. One interviewee reported two first languages, while two others have a first language that differs from the university's official languages. Nine teachers mention Luxembourgish as one of their languages, and of the four

who did not mention Luxembourgish, three are still proficient in the university's three other languages (English, French, German).

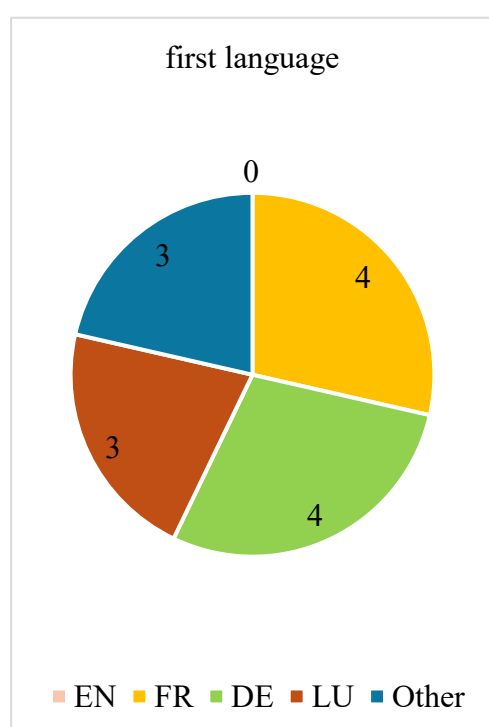


Figure 15: Distribution of first languages among participating teachers.

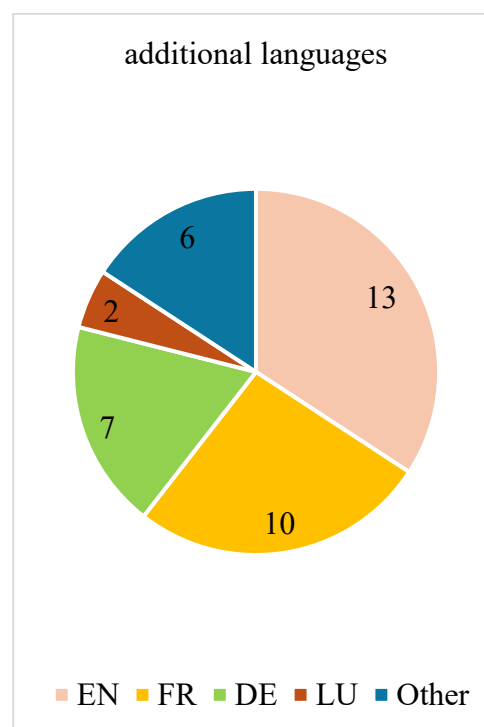


Figure 16: Distribution of additional languages among participating teachers.

Despite the overview provided in the previous paragraphs, I have deliberately avoided a detailed, one-to-one description of participating teachers' profiles. Due to the university's small size, it is relatively easy to identify individuals, particularly in certain disciplines. Providing such detailed descriptions could therefore compromise participant confidentiality. Therefore, I have chosen to present only aggregated data to ensure the privacy of everyone involved.

Following the receipt of favourable responses, the consent form (see Appendix 3.1) was disseminated. In order to maintain integrity, teachers did not receive the questions neither beforehand nor during the interview. Instead, I provided the research context through the information notice (see Appendix 2.1) and a brief introduction before each interview (Bolderston, 2012; Doody, 2013).

The interviews were conducted between end of June and end of September 2023. Five of the interviews were conducted in person, at the Maison du Savoir in Belval, in rooms booked through the university's dedicated platform. The remaining eight interviews were conducted

online via Webex, using the university's official credentials. The interviews ranged in duration from 30 minutes to one hour, with a total duration of 560 minutes. Following interviewees' preference, two of the interviews were conducted in French whereas the rest of the interviews were conducted in English. All interviews were audio recorded using the OLYMPUS WS-853 recording device. After each interview, the audio files were transferred to the university's laptop via the recorder's built-in USB port for secure storage and transcription. The transcription of all recordings was conducted manually using the Jefferson Transcription System (see Appendix 1) immediately after each interview.

Having completed the 13 interviews, I decided not to reissue the invitation, as no new insights had emerged from the data (Hennink et al., 2017). I considered this to be a critical point indicating that data saturation had been reached. Saturation indicates that sufficient data has been collected to provide comprehensive insights, and that collecting more data would not generate new codes or themes (Guest et al., 2006; O'Reilly & Parker, 2012). In the semistructured interviews, data saturation became apparent after the first 10 interviews, when recurring patterns concerning the multilingual profile of classrooms, the languages use, and differences in language use across faculties, as well as the shared challenges faced by teachers, emerged consistently in responses. These patterns suggested that the key themes relevant to the research questions had been adequately explored. Furthermore, the lack of new insights after the tenth interview led to the conclusion that conducting additional interviews would not significantly enhance the depth of the data. This decision aligns with the methodological understanding of qualitative research, which prioritises depth and thematic saturation over the mere accumulation of data (Given, 2008; Merriam, 1998). Consequently, the focus shifted from gathering new data to analysing and interpreting the patterns that had already emerged, and to the next phase of the research, which was the collection of data from undergraduate students.

Insights collected from semistructured interviews with teachers, particularly regarding language use and the implications of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching, provided valuable context for students' experiences and perspectives. With this in mind, I will turn to the process for collecting data from the second group of social actors, undergraduate students.

#### 3.4.3.2 Online Survey with Undergraduate Students

The second group of social actors comprises undergraduate students, whose perspectives and experiences with learning in this multilingual university environment are equally important to this research. The aim of data collection from this group was to capture how undergraduate

students navigate multilingualism and linguistic diversity in learning at the University of Luxembourg and the impact that it has on their learning experiences.

Data collection from the population of undergraduate students includes multiple steps. The process started by obtaining numerical information concerning the undergraduate student population. This information, obtained with the support of the Office of Statistics and Institutional Research, was crucial for initial insights into the student body and provided critical foundation for more informed and effective decision making.

The data presented in the following paragraphs corresponds to the winter semester of 2023, during which the data collection took place, to ensure that the analysis remains grounded in the actual institutional and linguistic landscape of the time. As indicated by the Student Registration Database, the number of students enrolled in bachelor's programmes for the winter semester of 2023 came to 3,266 of whom 1,870 were female and 1,396 male students. Of these, 101 students (60 female and 41 male students) were incoming students of exchange programmes from other universities. Additionally, of the total population, 1,099 students (605 female and 494 male) declared more than one nationality in their application.

To ensure clarity, student data is organised by faculty and classified by nationality following the hierarchy set by the Office of Statistics and Institutional Research: Luxembourg>Neighbouring countries>other EU–27 countries>Non–EU–27 countries. For each student, only the highest–ranking nationality within this hierarchy is reported. This means that in cases of dual nationality within the same category (e.g. Belgium and France), the first nationality listed in the records is used. This method assigns each student to a single nationality, as shown in Table 19, along with their gender (F=female, M=male).

	<b>Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)</b>	<b>Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)</b>	<b>Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)</b>	<b>Total</b>
EU–citizen	905 (334F & 571M)	950 (553F & 397M)	1,216 (880F & 336M)	<b>3,071</b> <b>(1,767F &amp; 1,304M)</b>
Non–EU citizen	109 (40F & 69M)	66 (45F & 21M)	20 (18F & 2M)	<b>195</b> <b>(103F &amp; 92M)</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,014</b> <b>(374F &amp; 640M)</b>	<b>1,016</b> <b>(598F &amp; 418M)</b>	<b>1,236</b> <b>(898F &amp; 338M)</b>	<b>3,266</b> <b>(1,870F &amp; 1,396M)</b>

*Table 19: Undergraduate students per Faculty and nationality (hierarchical).*

As demonstrated in Table 19, undergraduate students constitute a distinct group, with characteristics that differ from those of teachers. Notably, the student population for the winter semester of 2023 is significantly larger than that of teachers, both in size and diversity. In order to capture quantitative trends and qualitative insights more efficiently from this group, a mixed methods approach was adopted. This methodological choice also reflects the need to have depth and breadth in data collection, ensuring that the diversity of experiences and backgrounds among students is meaningfully represented. Consequently, the data collection methods employed in this study are an online survey and focus group discussions.

Online surveys have been recognised as an effective data collection method in social research (Holmes, 2023). In linguistics, online surveys have been identified as a particularly effective method for the collection of data on individuals' profiles, behaviours, values, attitudes, and beliefs (Dörnyei, 2007). Online surveys offer numerous advantages, including efficiency, convenience (Cohen et al., 2017), and anonymity, ensuring confidentiality (Patten, 2014). Furthermore, the option to complete the survey at one's own pace and time renders it a suitable choice for engaging large population, such as students.

Nevertheless, a gap remains in the literature regarding widely adopted instruments that are specifically designed to explore students' experiences of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in higher education. To address this gap and ensure alignment with the specific aims of the study, I developed a survey tailored to the research questions. This involved multiple steps, as I drew on the seven-step model outlined by Strachota et al. (2006). First, I reviewed relevant literature to identify the key concepts to be addressed. Specifically, I reviewed existing questionnaires that assess language attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours within educational contexts. To design the survey and enhance its reliability, I consulted existing validated instruments. This resulted in a focused, yet methodologically sound exploration of how students navigate and perceive linguistic diversity in this academic context.

The first questionnaire considered was the MultiBAP questionnaire, developed as part of the MultiLingual Spaces project (Källkvist et al., 2017). This tool is designed to elicit information about multilingualism in education, with a particular emphasis on language beliefs and practices in a classroom setting. In addition to the MultiBAP, elements were incorporated from the Multilingual Language Use Questionnaire (Cohn et al., 2013), to inform questions relating to students' language attitudes and language use. Items addressing perceptions of multilingualism in educational settings were also contributed by the Multilingual Classrooms Questionnaire (Mifsud & Petrova, 2017). To capture respondents' linguistic profiles in greater detail, I also adapted components from the LEAP-Q (Language Experience and Proficiency

Questionnaire), which was developed by Marian et al. (2007) to assesses language proficiency, dominance, and exposure across various contexts. This instrument was particularly useful for formulating questions related to participants' self-assessed language skills and everyday language practices. Drawing from these validated sources, enabled the survey to balance contextual specificity with established reliability.

The final survey (see Appendix 6.3) comprises six sections and 24 items and is intended to take approximately 30 minutes to complete while still providing sufficient data to ensure the validity of the results (Krosnick, 2018; Schleef, 2014). This version is designed to capture students' experiences and perspectives on multilingualism and linguistic diversity comprehensively. The order of the questions has also been carefully designed to enhance respondent engagement and the quality of responses. Items are grouped by theme, and each section begins with clear headings and brief descriptions to guide respondents through the survey. Important items are placed at the beginning of the survey to maintain respondents' attention, whereas demographic questions are found towards the end (Dörnyei, 2003; Schleef, 2014).

The survey begins with belief items that explore respondents' perceptions of linguistic diversity. It then moves on to behaviour items that focus on actual language use in specific contexts (Schleef, 2014). For instance, one behaviour-focused question asks: "From your experience as a student at the university of Luxembourg, which languages do you use and how often in each of the following situations?" To further explore students' perspectives, the survey includes opinion or attitude items (Meyburg & Metcalf, 2000). These items can be challenging to formulate as they deal with personal opinions and subjective experiences rather than objective facts. An example of an attitude item is: "What are the greatest opportunities that you identify in regard to the linguistic diversity, as a student in this multilingual university? If you want, you can give an example". The survey also includes knowledge items (Dillman, 1978) which ask students to self-assess their language proficiency in the following skills: listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, and writing. These skills are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The final section includes demographic items to gather basic information such as age and gender.

Table 20 outlines the structure of the survey, including the name of each section, a brief description, and the number of items it contains.

<b>Name of section</b>	<b>Brief description</b>	<b>Number of items</b>
Information notice and consent form	<i>Please read through the information notice concerning the processing of your responses and email address.</i>	0
Use of languages at the University of Luxembourg	<i>This group of questions is about the languages that you use as a student at the University of Luxembourg.</i>	6
Learning practices	<i>Questions in this section are about the practices and the strategies that you use as a student at the university of Luxembourg.</i>	2
Views on the linguistic diversity at the University	<i>In this group of questions, you are asked to share your opinion about the linguistic diversity as a student at this multilingual university.</i>	5
Linguistic profile	<i>This section contains questions about your language background; the languages you speak and understand. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers.</i>	3
Demographic questions	<i>This section includes questions that have to do with your demographic profile.</i>	4
Comments–Participation in focus group discussion	<i>In this last section you can share anything you find interesting or important for the present research. You are also invited to share your university's email address only if you are interested in further contributing to the project by participating in a short discussion with other students.</i>	2

*Table 20: Outline of the online survey for undergraduate students.*

The online survey was designed and hosted on Lime survey, which is a free, open–source online tool approved by the University of Luxembourg. The survey encompasses a range of items that are carefully designed to capture different dimensions of student experiences with linguistic diversity. Throughout the survey, a combination of open– and closed–ended items is used to ensure a balanced approach to data collection. Moreover, to maximise data quality and respondent engagement, I use a variety of question formats offered by the tool, including open–ended questions, multiple choice items, and fill–in–the–gap responses. This design aligns with insights from García (2009) and Marian (2023), who emphasise that plurilingual individuals often navigate and construct meaning through dynamic and flexible language use.

Open–ended items encourage respondents to express their views in their own words, allowing the collection of richer qualitative data, which might otherwise be overlooked, particularly on complex and nuanced topics. For instance, one such item poses the following question to respondents: ‘Use three words/phrases, in any language(s) you want, to describe

your experience in terms of the linguistic diversity as a student at this university. Why did you choose these words/phrases?’

Conversely, closed-ended questions use Likert scales to quantify attitudes and behaviours more systematically. When designing these items, I follow the recommendations of Cobern and Adams’ (2020), who advocate for the use of an even number of options to avoid neutral responses. For example, in the question ‘From your experience as a student at the university of Luxembourg, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?’ students can select one of the following options: I am not sure / strongly agree / agree / somewhat agree / disagree / strongly disagree. This structure enhances the reliability and interpretability of the data, allowing respondents to express varying degrees of agreement or uncertainty.

Beyond the question types, careful attention was given to the survey’s visual presentation, such as colour scheme, fonts and overall layout, to enhance readability and encourage participation. To make the survey more accessible and easier to understand, simplified language and clear formatting were prioritised.

The survey has been designed with the target group in mind, and in accordance with the recommendations set out by Rae and Parker (1997). As the target group consists of plurilingual undergraduate students, the survey is made available in English, French, and German. As all multilingual questionnaires “inevitably require translation of source language questionnaires into target languages at some point in the process” (Pan & Fond, 2010, p. 181), the original English version was first translated into French and German using DeepL. To ensure the accuracy and cultural appropriateness of these translations, a second review was conducted by a student assistant from the university’s Language Centre.

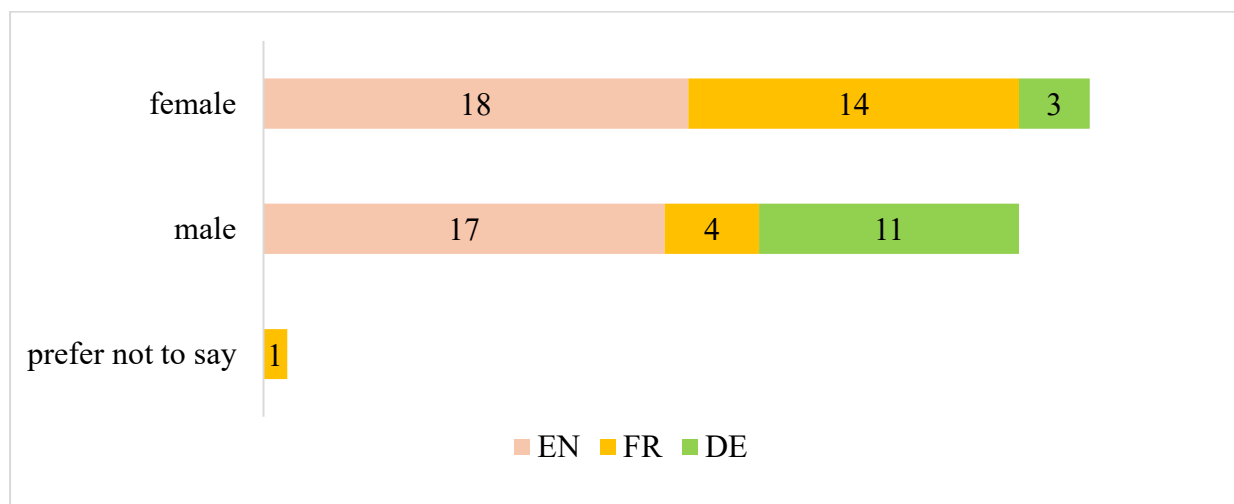
To protect respondents’ confidentiality, the survey settings in Lime survey have been adjusted to full anonymity. Additionally, an information notice is included at the beginning of the survey, to clearly outline the study’s aims and reassure respondents about the confidentiality of their responses. This notice is followed by a mandatory consent item, requiring respondents to confirm that they have read and agreed to the terms before proceeding.

The final stage of the survey development involves ensuring its reliability and construct validity. Construct validity “focuses directly on response–data variation among items to ascertain evidence that the proposed content categories actually reflect constructs” (Gable & Wolf, 1993, p. 101). To assess the validity of the instrument, and to identify potential issues with question clarity, language, or formatting, a pilot test was conducted in October 2023. The pilot study comprised six respondents, four of whom were undergraduate students at the University of Luxembourg. One student chose to respond in German, two in French version,

and three in English. Based on the feedback received, minor adjustments were made to improve the readability and clarity of questions, primarily in terms of wording of certain items and the overall layout.

To disseminate the final survey, I followed the university’s guidelines, ensuring proper distribution and compliance with institutional standards. A promotional poster was designed in collaboration with design specialists from the Department of Humanities to reach the target audience. The electronic version of the poster was distributed to participating teachers, study program administrators, and student associations, with a request to share it with undergraduate students. The poster was also posted in the student’s corner on Moodle, the university’s online learning platform. Additionally, physical copies were displayed on the Belval and Kirchberg campuses to ensure that both online and in-person students had access to the survey invitation. The main study’s online survey was launched in November 2023, with the survey period running until the end of the winter semester. Throughout this period, four reminder posts were created in Moodle to encourage participation.

By mid-February 2024, the survey had been accessed 220 times, and a total of 68 responses had been collected. Once the data collection through the online survey was complete, all responses were securely exported in PDF format for analysis. As shown in Figure 17, 35 students (18 female and 17 male) chose the English version, 19 students (14 female, four male and one prefer not to say) chose the French version and 14 students (three female and 11 male) chose the German version.



*Figure 17: Distribution of completed surveys by language version and gender.*

The majority of respondents (36 out of 68) are aged between 18 and 20 years old. Sixteen respondents are aged between 21 and 23 age range, nine are aged between 24 and 26 years old, two are aged between 27 and 29, and five respondents are aged above 30 or over. Respondents come from the three the three faculties of the university and are enrolled in a diverse range of undergraduate programmes. Specifically, 22 respondents (7 female and 15 male) are enrolled in a bachelor's programme at the FSTM, 24 of the respondents (19 female, 5 male and 1 prefer not to say) are enrolled at the FDEF and 21 of the respondents (9 female and 12 male) are enrolled at the FSHE. Figure 18 illustrates the distribution of respondents by age group and faculty:

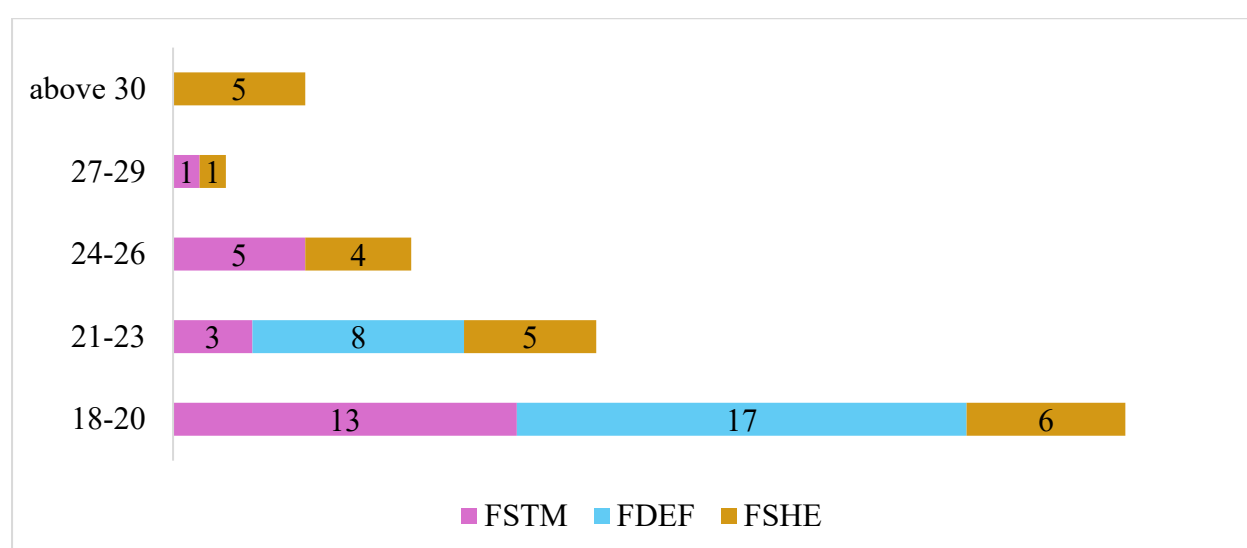
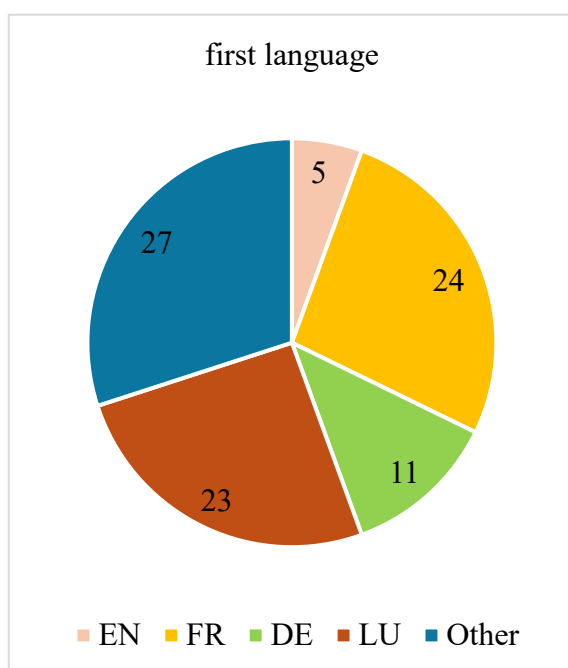


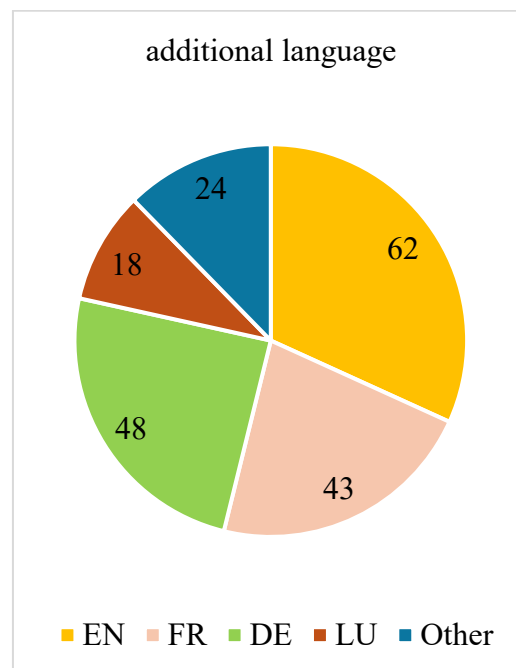
Figure 18: Respondents' profile by age group and faculty.

Student respondents' linguistic profile is also very diverse. On average, each respondent speaks and understands five languages, with varying levels of proficiency. Forty-eight out of 68 respondents reported speaking and understanding all four languages of the university (English, French, German, and Luxembourgish). Regarding their first languages, most respondents (41 out of the 68) listed a single language. Of these, 27 respondents listed one of the university's four languages as their first language. The most common of the other languages listed by respondents as their first languages were Portuguese (eight mentions) and Italian (five mentions). As additional languages, most respondents listed English (62 out of the 68), followed by German (48 out of the 68) and French (43 out of the 68). Regarding languages other than the four university languages, Spanish is mentioned by 13 respondents and Italian by 10 respondents.

Figure 19 and Figure 20 include the number of times each language is listed as first language and as additional language among respondents:



*Figure 19: Distribution of first languages among undergraduate respondents of the survey.*



*Figure 20: Distribution of additional languages among undergraduate respondents of the survey.*

Figure 15, Figure 16, Figure 19 and Figure 20 show that the linguistic profiles of the participating teachers and undergraduate students indicate a high degree of multilingualism. Specifically, around 70% of participating teachers and 60% of student respondents report speaking all four university's languages English, French, German and Luxembourgish. In addition to the university's four languages, a wide range of other languages are shared among the two groups, indicating the plurilingual profile of the community. For example, six out of the 13 participating teachers and 15 of the 68 respondents to the online survey mention Italian. Other languages shared by the two groups include Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch and Arabic. This overlap demonstrates a significant degree of commonality among languages spoken.

Overall, although the number of completed surveys represents only 2% of the undergraduate student population, the data collected, particularly from the open-ended items, offers meaningful insights into students' experiences. The richness of the responses significantly contributes to the overall understanding of the study's themes and aligns with the qualitative approach, which prioritises a deep, contextualised exploration of individuals' lived experiences over statistical generalisability. Furthermore, the findings from the online

questionnaire are consistent with those from the semistructured interviews, reinforcing the reliability and relevance of this data. In this respect, the depth and consistency obtained from survey data support the validity of findings. Therefore, relaunching the survey to increase the sample size would have conflicted with the principles of qualitative inquiry, which emphasise purposeful sampling and the interpretation of meaning over numerical representation (Patton, 2002).

In addition to providing rich data, the survey also served as a recruitment tool for undergraduate students to participate in focus group discussions. The next section outlines the design process for the focus groups, question guide and participating students' profile.

#### 3.4.3.3 Focus Groups with Undergraduate Students

The online survey is followed by focus group discussions, the second research method to collect data from undergraduate students. Focus groups are characterised as informal yet structured exchanges during which participants interact, share, and discuss their perspectives in a flexible and relaxed way (Brockman et al., 2010; Jayawardana & O'Donnell, 2009; Packer-Muti, 2010). This method for data collection is based on interaction, discussion, and participation of all members (Neville, 2007). Krueger and Casey (2000) state that the aim of focus group discussions is "not to infer but to understand, not to generalize but to determine the range, and not to make statements about the population but to provide insights about how people in the groups perceive a situation" (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 66). Focus group discussions "provide a social context for research" (Basnet, 2018, p. 83) that encourages interaction and contributes to shaping ideas and expressing opinions during the discussion in a group (Ritchie & Lewis, 2000). As such, focus groups add to the sense of belonging to a group, can increase participants' sense of cohesiveness and help them feel safe to share their perspectives (Vaughn et al., 1996).

The decision to include focus group discussions as one of the methods for data collection, was driven by methodological considerations as well as from contextual specificities. Focus groups are particularly well suited for undergraduate students, who tend to engage more openly when they feel part of a collective and when the environment encourages open, respectful dialogue (Ritchie & Lewis, 2000). Unlike individual interviews, focus groups create a dynamic space where students can interact based on each other's perspectives, allowing shared experiences and contrasting viewpoints to emerge (Guest et al., 2017). This interaction enriches the data and reveals social processes through which students interpret and make sense of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in their academic environment. These features of

focus groups align closely with the objectives of the present research, which seeks to capture the range of experiences from a relatively large group of individuals within a limited timeframe (Krueger & Casey, 2000). Precisely, the main aim of the focus groups in the present research is to gain a deeper understanding and comprehensive overview of teachers and students' experiences, drawing on insights already collected from the online survey and semistructured interviews.

To guide the discussions, a set of pre-prepared questions was developed (see Appendix 6.2) based on Krueger's (1998) principles for focus group design. These principles underscore the necessity for concise and straightforward questions that facilitate meaningful engagement and ensure that the discourse remains centred on the subjects that are relevant to the research questions. When developing the set of questions for the participating student, I paid particular attention to their profiles, including their linguistic background and field of study. This resulted to adjustments in the wording and phrasing of questions to enhance clarity and approachability, without compromising the depth or relevance of the content. At the same time, the structure and thematic focus of the focus group guide remained closely aligned with the interview guide used for the semistructured interviews with teachers. This deliberate structure allows for meaningful comparisons across the two groups, while the adaptations account for differences in perspectives and experiences (Flick et al., 2013). As in the semistructured interviews, probing questions were incorporated in the focus group discussions to encourage reflection and elaborate responses.

The focus group discussions comprised student respondents who, in the final section of the online survey, indicated their interest in participating in a focus group upon completion of the survey. This method of recruiting participants has been shown to promote randomisation and reduce bias, thereby ensuring a more representative sample from the larger student body (Krueger & Casey, 2000). Of the 17 students who initially expressed their interest, seven were ultimately available and willing to participate. An important question that arises concerns the optimal size for focus groups, a topic of ongoing debate among scholars (Basnet, 2018; Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Langford, Schoenfeld, & Izzo, 2002; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). To that, Krueger and Casey (2000) state that "a random sample of sufficient size will be an adequate substitute for surveying the entire population" (Krueger & Casey, 2000, p. 2000). However, given the qualitative nature of this research, the priority is to capture transferable insights rather than to generalise findings across the student body (Green & Thorogood, 2009).

With this in mind, the focus groups brought together a total of seven undergraduate students in total, divided into two groups. The first discussion group included three students,

one of whom was an incoming student, whereas the second group consisted of four students, including another incoming student. The number of students in both groups was small enough to enable each individual student to participate meaningfully, yet large enough to capture the diverse perspectives in the group (Morgan, 1996). This ensured that the participating students had enough time to express their views and elaborate on their experiences. The date and time of each focus group were finalised collaboratively with the participating students at the end of January 2024, based on their availability and preferences (Brockman et al., 2010; Jayawardana & O'Donnell, 2009; Packer-Muti, 2010).

In terms of the profiles and gender distribution of participating students', the groups include a total of four female and three male students. The groups also represent academic diversity across the university's faculties. Four students are enrolled in the FDEF, three of whom are studying law, and one is enrolled in the Bachelor in Economics. One student comes from the FSTM, pursuing a degree in engineering. The remaining two students are enrolled in FSHE, studying psychology and social educational sciences respectively. Students' varied ages contribute to the diversity of experiences discussed during the sessions. Three students are between the ages of 18 and 20, two are between 21 and 23, one student is between 24 and 26, and another student is over 30.

Figure 21 illustrates the distribution of participating students' age group and faculty:

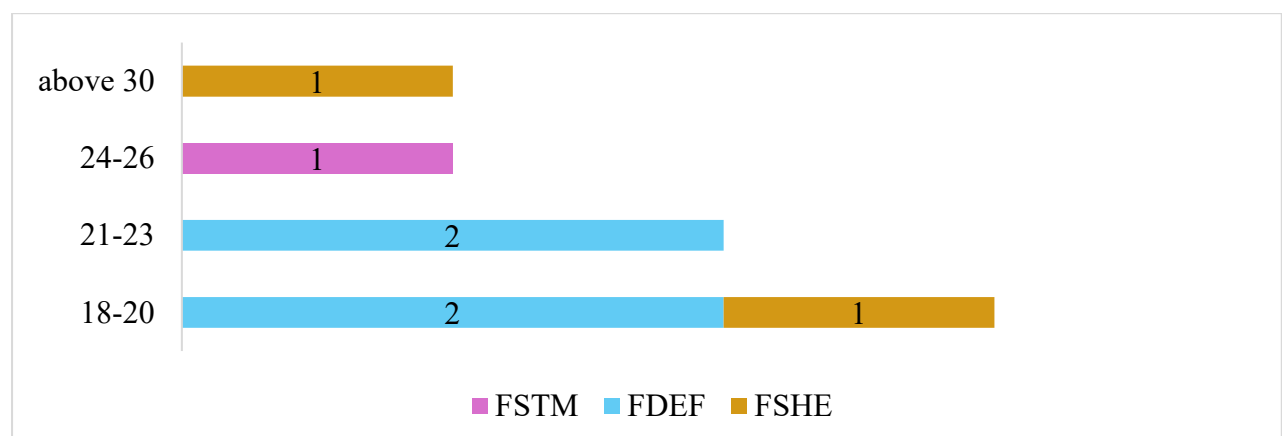


Figure 21: Distribution of participating students' profile in focus groups by age group and faculty.

The linguistic profile of students participating in the focus groups is also characterised by diversity. Although all students report a single first language, their linguistic backgrounds vary: two students report French as their first language, one reports Luxembourgish, and the remaining four indicate languages other than the four university ones. In terms of additional language knowledge, the range is equally diverse. Two students report knowing one additional

language, one student lists two additional languages, three students mention four additional languages, and one student reports knowledge of five additional languages.

Across these additional languages, English is cited most frequently (six mentions), followed by German (five mentions), French (four mentions), and Luxembourgish (two mentions). Other languages reported include Italian, Dutch, Spanish, and Martinican Creole, highlighting the rich linguistic repertoires that students bring in the academic environment. Notably, two students report speaking all four university languages, and one student speaks three of the university languages, specifically English, French, and German.

Figures 22 and 23 include the number of times each language is listed as first language and as additional language among participating students:

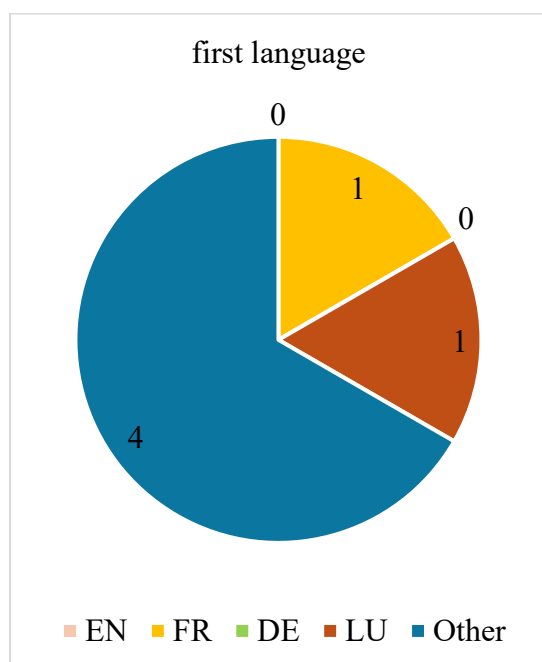


Figure 22: Distribution of first languages among student participants of the focus groups.

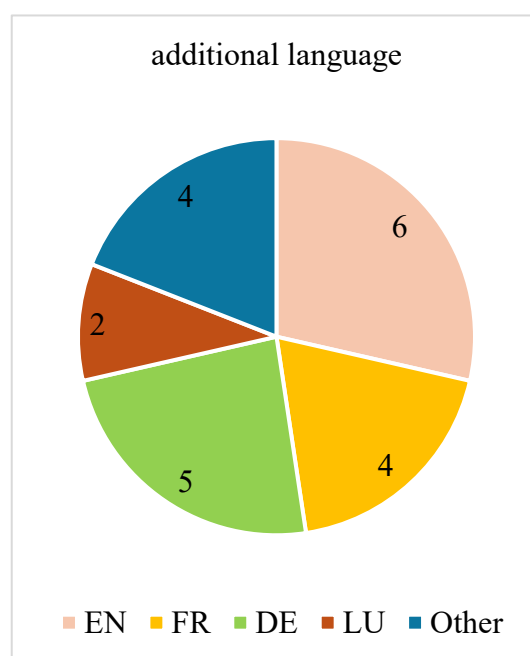


Figure 23: Distribution of additional languages among student participants of the focus groups.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, one of the aims of the focus groups was to bring together insights shared by teachers during the interviews and those shared by students in the online survey. To promote engagement and stimulate discussion, I created a PowerPoint presentation including carefully selected graphs and quotes from the two data sets. These graphs and quotes were selected to highlight the diversity of perspectives and the key themes that emerged from the two data sets. They also served as a starting point for dialogue.

The same presentation and set of questions were used in both sessions. However, both the presentation and the question guide were flexibly adapted in real time to suit the specific dynamics and flow of conversation of each group. This enabled more responsive facilitation, ensuring the most relevant prompts were used to guide the dialogue. Ultimately, although the first focus group discussion took place on site and the second was online, both discussions explored similar themes, suggesting that thematic saturation was achieved (Hennink, 2014).

To acknowledge the contribution of the participating students, each student received a €10 voucher at the end of the focus group discussions. Both discussions were audio recorded with the students' consent using the OLYMPUS WS-853 voice recorder. The first focus group discussion lasted approximately 100 minutes, while the second extended to around 160 minutes. Immediately after each session, the audio files were transferred to the university laptop via the recorder's built-in USB port. The recordings were then manually transcribed using the Jefferson Transcription System (see Appendix 1).

Focus group discussions complete the data collection process from the undergraduate student population. This method of data collection also complements the results of the online survey, offering a more contextualised and in-depth understanding of students' perspectives and lived experiences. Together, these two methods provide breadth and depth. The online survey captures general trends, while the group discussions provide richer, more nuanced insights.

In summary, the present research employs a variety of data collection methods involving teachers and undergraduate students. These methods include semistructured interviews, an online survey and focus group discussions. This methodological triangulation balances the individual perspectives elicited through the semistructured interviews and the online survey, with the collective, interactive dimension that emerges in focus groups. The next section outlines the approaches used to analyse data from the two groups of human participants, alongside the tools applied and how these contribute to the study's aims.

#### 3.4.4 Approaches to the Analysis of Data from Teachers and Undergraduate Students

The last section of the Methodology chapter comprises the analysis of data from teachers and undergraduate students. The data collected from these two groups is divided into two sets. The first set includes data from semistructured interviews with teachers, as well as the open-ended responses from the online survey and the focus group discussions with undergraduate students.

The second set includes students' responses to the closed-ended questions from the online survey (see Table 21).

<b>Data set 1</b>	<b>Data set 2</b>
Semistructured interviews Focus group discussions Open-ended survey questions	Closed-ended survey questions

*Table 21: Analysis of teachers and students' data by data set.*

Data set 1 allows for a more detailed exploration of teachers and students' experiences, perceptions, and language use, which aligns with the study's aim of generating contextualised and interpretive insights. As this research has a qualitative design, the primary emphasis is placed on the first data set. The second data set, which comprises of closed-ended survey questions, is used to provide useful background information, highlight general trends and contextualise and support the findings emerging from the first data set.

This part of the methodology chapter begins with the analysis of the Data set 1 using reflexive thematic analysis, followed by the appraisal framework. The next section outlines the digital tools that support the analytical process for the first data set, namely MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021) and the UAM CorpusTool (O'Donnell, 2012). The chapter ends with a brief overview of the analysis of the second data set. Rather than producing quantitative generalisations, data from this second data set serve to triangulate the findings and strengthen the validity of the qualitative insights.

#### 3.4.4.1 Reflexive Thematic Analysis of Data from Interviews, Focus Groups and Open-ended Survey Questions

As shown in Table 21, the first set of data comprises the data gathered from semistructured interviews with teachers, focus group discussions and open-ended survey questions with undergraduate students.

Data set 1 is initially analysed with reflexive thematic analysis, which is considered to be a versatile and flexible method for data analysis (Morgan, 2021) that fits with a variety of research designs (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Reflexive thematic analysis is the starting point for identifying patterns and key themes in the data set. In Data set 1, reflexive thematic analysis provides the basis for structuring the data into manageable units, allowing for a more profound interpretation in the next phase of analysis, using the appraisal framework.

This data set was analysed using reflexive thematic analysis, following the five-step process outlined in Figure 2. These five steps, which include the familiarisation with data, the identification of key words, the coding, and the finalising of themes, provide a rigorous framework for engaging with the data set.

I began the reflexive thematic analysis by familiarising myself with the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This involves reading the data set multiple times to get a better overview and deeper immersion in individuals' narratives. Particular attention is paid to sections where actors refer to their perspectives and experiences relating to language use, multilingualism, and linguistic diversity in the educational process.

As with the analysis of the policy documents, I used MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021) to carry out the coding process after familiarising myself with the data set. The software's colour coding and labelling features were instrumental in systematically organising the data and visually mapping recurring patterns. Using of MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021) also enabled me to identify and interpret emerging themes more clearly.

The development of codes and themes in data from teachers and students combined inductive and deductive approaches to ensure that themes remained primarily close to individuals' perspectives while also drawing on relevant theoretical and contextual knowledge. In practice, this meant that the coding process was largely inductive, focusing on the words and expressions used by teachers and students. Meanwhile, the deductive dimension provided an analytical framework for identifying meaningful aspects in light of existing literature on multilingualism, linguistic diversity and language policy in higher education. This combined approach helped identify relevant patterns in relation to prior research and ensured that the themes reflected the lived experience of individuals.

The four groups of codes are included in Table 22, together with excerpts from the data:

Excerpts from data	Codes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• German is not part of our course but it's important as well because we live in Luxembourg</li> <li>• Luxembourg is known for its diversity in terms of the culture people in the society</li> <li>• Portuguese is important for the society because there's a lot of Portuguese in Luxembourg</li> <li>• In the canteen that you these Indian and Chinese people I only see there nowhere else in Luxembourg</li> </ul>	National and local (university) context Migrant population/Allophones
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• in Luxembourg the issue of multilingualism is always going to be important</li> <li>• so at some point it's getting to a mix which is it could be horrible because you're interpreting German text in</li> <li>• English in comparison to a French law to a law which is written in French can be a mess</li> </ul>	Language as resource vs problem Multilingualism as normal, excellence Diversity as opportunity/challenge
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It was important for me to:: to do this interview with you because I personally I think it's very important research that you're doing</li> <li>• I don't know what they are using they can use, perhaps DeepL↑ which is not that bad, why not</li> <li>• if we say it's going to be in English, let's just do it in French, because the majority wants it, do as promised</li> </ul>	Expectations/interest for the present research Tools for translation, AI for cheating Institutional policy vs lived experiences Practices: Peer learning, students' backgrounds, translations, use of simple language
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• there is still a dominant language</li> <li>• English is just the lingua franca for like all those hard sciences</li> <li>• French-very important German-very important, Luxembourgish, of course, and Portuguese, eh okay, maybe</li> <li>• I think that the University of Luxembourg insists on multilingualism for very good reasons but then we are left alone</li> </ul>	International and multilingual nature Language hierarchies English as dominant/global Englishes Language profile of staff and students Need for training/support Specific languages per discipline Special terminology per discipline University's language policy (not known by everyone)

Table 22: Codes in the data from teachers and students

More specifically, the coding process started with the identification of recurring words, phrases and ideas (see Table 22). For example, participating teachers and students frequently refer to the national and societal context regarding the use of language. Such excerpts were initially coded as ‘national and local (university) context’, ‘importance of national language’, and ‘migrant population’. From a deductive perspective, these codes resonate with Luxembourg’s multilingual profile and broader context.

The second cluster of codes pertains to teachers and students’ conceptualisations of multilingualism and linguistic diversity. Phrases such as “in Luxembourg the issue of multilingualism is always going to be important” and “at some point it’s getting to a mix which could be horrible because you’re interpreting German text in English in comparison to a French law” position multilingualism as a resource and a challenge. These excerpts led to the codes ‘language as a resource vs a problem’, ‘multilingualism as normal, excellence’ and ‘diversity as opportunity and a challenge’. Here, the deductive approach adds the dimension of language roles and statuses as well as language hierarchies.

The third set of codes captures teachers and students’ reflections on their own practices, experiences, and the present research. Under this set, excerpts such as “I don’t know what they are using they can use perhaps DeepL which is not that bad”, and “you can ask the professor to repeat↑ and:: and people will do that↑ and they will try to simplify it”, were coded as use of tools and applications, teaching and learning practices, institutional policy and lived experiences, and expectations and interests relating to the present research. Deductive insights add on the plurilingual pedagogies and institutional policy, combined with the lived experiences of teachers and students.

The last group of codes includes excerpts that pertain to the university and its policy framework. Comments from teachers and students on languages (e.g. “there is still a dominant language”, “English is just the lingua franca for all those hard sciences”) were coded regarding the profile of the university, the language hierarchies, the dominance of English, the languages per discipline and institutional language policy. In this group of codes, the deductive approach points to research on institutional policy and debates about language use in higher education.

The coding process was followed by the development of themes. This step included four rounds of refinement before the themes were finalised. Specifically, the themes evolved from broader categories into a more coherent thematic framework, as demonstrated in Table 23. The main themes are presented in bold, with the subthemes listed beneath them:

Round 1	Round 2	Round 3	Round 4-final themes
<b>Luxembourg</b> Luxembourgish	<b>Language policy</b>	<b>National and social context</b>	<b>1) Societal and national context</b>
<b>Use of terms</b> Multilingualism Linguistic diversity Language Culture	<b>Language use</b> In class Teaching practices Use of sources/tools	<b>Linguistic diversity: perspectives and definitions</b> Perspectives on languages/multilingualism/diversity Challenges and opportunities Use of terms/definitions	<b>2) Perspectives on languages, multilingualism, and diversity</b> a. Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity b. Implications of multilingualism and diversity
<b>Linguistic diversity</b> Definition Attitude to languages Feelings Use of tools/apps AI Sense of belonging Challenges Support Opportunities	<b>Linguistic diversity</b> Challenges Opportunities	<b>Participating teachers and students</b> Reflections on the research Use of tools/apps Teaching practices Language profile	<b>3) Participating teachers and students</b> a. Reflections on the present research b. Use of tools/apps/AI c. Pedagogical practices and strategies d. Linguistic repertoire and profile
<b>Teachers and students</b> Use of apps/tools Teachers Teaching Research Learning Students	<b>Background</b> Teachers Students	<b>Institutional policy framework</b> The university Individuals' profile Suggestions to support languages/diversity Specificities per field Students' future career Language use Language policy and requirements	<b>4) Institutional identity and structure</b> a. University members' profile b. Infrastructural support for language and diversity c. Specificities per discipline d. Learning objectives and future career e. Language use f. Language policy and requirements

Reference to nationality	Role of languages English French German Luxembourgish Other		
--------------------------	--	--	--

Table 23: Development of themes for Data set 1.

The first round focused on a broad interpretation of codes. The themes that emerged in this round were based on words that frequently appeared in the data. In the second round, I moved away from initially descriptive labelling of themes towards broader themes. Language use and language policy emerged as two distinct themes in this round, and references to specific languages were also grouped under the theme ‘Role of languages’. However, it became evident during this round that coded excerpts frequently overlapped across multiple themes. This overlap indicated that the thematic structure was unclear and that the themes were too broad. This resulted in a third round of refining the themes.

In Round 3, I started to organise themes at a more conceptual level, considering both inductive and deductive perspectives. Broader categories were identified in this round (e.g. ‘national and social’ context instead of ‘Luxembourg’ in Round 1). Several subcategories were identified within most of these categories to capture the various aspects that appeared in the data. This round was important for collapsing overlapping categories (e.g. themes ‘Language use in class’ and ‘Role of languages’), separating ideas (e.g. from ‘Linguistic diversities—opportunities, challenges’ to ‘Linguistic diversity: perspectives and definitions’), and identifying connections between individuals’ experiences, language ideologies, and institutional structures.

The final stage of refining the themes resulted in four overarching themes, each representing a distinct aspect of the multilingual university context. This process also ensured consistency of the final themes across the various sources in Data set 1, thereby reinforcing their relevance and credibility within the broader context of the research. To strengthen the analysis further, these themes were systematically reviewed and harmonised before being aligned with the themes identified in the policy documents (see Table 14). Aligning themes from the two data sets enhances the overall coherence of the analysis, facilitates meaningful comparisons between different sources and supports methodological triangulation. Importantly, this process helped to focus the analysis on the most relevant aspects of the data for the research questions (Ahmed et al., 2025).

Table 24 provides a comprehensive overview of the themes that emerged from the analysis of the interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus groups discussions, accompanied by their definition and indicative examples from the data:

	Theme	Definition	Example from data
1.	Societal and national context	References to Luxembourg's broader societal and national context.	"well obviously university is multilingual it normally is especially in a country like Luxembourg" (T7)
2.	Perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity		
2.a.	Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity	Explores how terms such as 'multilingualism', 'linguistic diversity', 'diversity', are defined, used, and reflected in the policy documents.	"so for me linguistic diversity would then be I think that you have students and sometimes also potentially staff that have different preferred languages" (T4)
2.b.	Implications of multilingualism and diversity	Includes excerpts in which participating teachers and students link multilingualism and diversity to opportunities and challenges, showing how the two concepts are framed as an asset that enriches teaching and learning and/or as a challenge that requires institutional management and adaptations.	"I think it also provides more respect towards people and it decreases the rate of like discrimination or racism or even like because you're exposed so you just can't be by your own you need to mix up with people" (S2)
3.	Participating teachers and students		
3.a.	Reflections on research process	Excerpts in which teachers and students comment on the present research.	"I think it's very important research that you're doing and that's why it was important for me to take to set this time aside" (T8)
3.b.	Use of tools/apps/AI	Focuses on tools, applications, and AI, and to what extent, teachers and students use them in teaching/learning.	"I myself use only translation apps" (T6)

3.c.	Pedagogical practices and strategies	Includes excerpts in which teachers and students refer to teaching or learning approaches and practices.	“parce que j'avais peu d'étudiants dans mon cours et les étudiants m'ont aidé aussi à traduire et j'ai fait ce cours en anglais alors à l'improviste” (T9)
3.d.	Linguistic repertoire and profile	Includes information about the profile of the participating teacher/student, prior experiences, role at the university, level of study, language skills in the different languages.	“I lived abroad I lived in Italy because I'm of Italian descent let's say and I studied in Italy for some time before the covid pandemic” (S5)
4.	Institutional identity and structure		
4.a.	University members' profile	Excerpts referencing the profile of university members, individuals who do not participate in the study but who are mentioned by participating individuals as an element that influences the institution and linguistic diversity.	“But during the recruitment of more international and more high–outstanding researchers this criteria was a little bit put in the last line” (T2)
4.b.	Infrastructural support for language and diversity	References to the set of systems or facilities that are already in place, or it is suggested that they are in place to support the needs of individuals in terms of languages.	“so maybe they could they don't know how to make a lesson with this diversity and maybe it will be great for them to learn how sorry peut être ils devraient apprendre comment comment gérer plusieurs nationalités en même temps plusieurs cultures” (S3)
4.c.	Specificities per discipline	Includes the differences in language use or specificities that have to do with terminology and the field.	“law is national so what you're teaching is French law plus English law plus German law and therefore materials on French law will essentially be in French and rarely translated” (T5)
4.d.	Learning objectives and future career	Focuses on multilingual and multicultural competencies and how these are described for students' academic development and future careers.	“they have to speak French, German at a certain level because it's a way of selecting them so that they will be able to interact with the patients in Luxembourg” (T10)

4.e.	Language use	Reflects which language(s) is/are used and when/for which situation, how are languages used, what is the status of each language mentioned.	“and when it comes to discussing with administration it's more French and English a on more or less an equal footing” (T1)
4.f.	Language policy and requirements	Includes an obligatory element; it includes excerpts with mentions to the language policy and programme requirements.	“it’s a matter of choice by the course directors and by the people who have designed the entire degree” (T5)

*Table 24: Themes and subthemes from interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus group discussions (Data set 1).*

Reflexive thematic analysis of data from semistructured interviews, focus group discussions and open-ended survey questions, provides a more detailed examination and a comprehensive overview of patterns and themes in the first data set. To gain a deeper understanding of how which teachers and students express emotions, make judgments, and position themselves and others in discourse, reflexive thematic analysis is followed by an analysis guided by the appraisal framework. The subsequent section delineates the application of the appraisal framework, which allows for a more nuanced interpretation of social actors' stance, the intensity of their expressions and how they negotiate meaning.

#### 3.4.4.2 Applying the Appraisal Framework to Data from Interviews, Focus Groups and Open-ended Survey Questions

The appraisal framework is applied to data from Data set 1 as a method of interpreting data, rather than confining utterances to categories. This means that instead of simply placing each utterance into one of the fixed categories, I use the framework to explore the underlying meanings, emotions, and articulated by teachers and students through language, using the framework's systems and subsystems as a guiding lens.

The analysis begins at the clause level, which is the primary unit of analysis in Systemic Functional Linguistics (Cordeiro, 2018) and is considered the smallest and most manageable linguistic unit where evaluation occurs (Martin & White, 2005). Starting at the clause level allows for a closer examination of lexicogrammatical features such as modality, intensification and stance, which are crucial for understanding how evaluative meaning is constructed. At the lexicogrammatical level, word and phrase choices are examined for their evaluative meanings they carry and the ideological stances they reflect.

Even though an analysis at the clause level and the lexicogrammatical stratum is essential, evaluative meaning often extends beyond individual clauses (Martin, 2014). Appraisal is frequently developed across larger stretches of discourse. Beyond vocabulary, the structure of discourse including word order, repetition, and the use of connectors, is also analysed to understand how individuals frame their arguments. Moreover, graphophonological elements, such as intonation, rhythm, and pitch in data from interviews and focus groups, or punctuation in written responses from the open-ended questions of the survey, are considered as additional indicators of

evaluation. Thompson and Hunston (2000) also argue that paralinguistic elements to convey information about an individual's ideologies, opinions, feelings and values.

Taking the above into account, the analysis moves between the clause-level and broader discourse structures for a more nuanced and contextually grounded interpretation of how participating teachers and students express attitudes and position themselves within this multilingual setting. When annotating, I follow the approach outlined by Fuoli and Hommerberg (2015), who emphasise that annotation should focus on instances that are relevant and meaningful to the specific research questions. The annotated units of speech, or markables as Taboada et al. (2014) refer to them, include not only the lexical items but also graphophonological and paralinguistic elements that contribute to the evaluative meaning. As such, the markables in the data from teachers and students consist exclusively of units that carry evaluative significance, revealing individuals' ideological stances on language, its role, and language use at the University of Luxembourg.

For the initial annotation of this data set, I use the version 6.2 of the UAM CorpusTool (O'Donnell, 2012). This qualitative annotation tool that is designed based on the appraisal framework to support a multilayered analysis and detailed examination of evaluative language and positioning in discourse. The level of detail it offers contributes to a more nuanced interpretation of meaning (Baker, 2006) and adds a critical discourse perspective that situates language use in broader ideological and institutional contexts (van Dijk, 2001).

To align the tool with the objectives of the study, I adjusted the default appraisal annotation scheme that was incorporated within the tool. The adjustments were made to better reflect the specific evaluative patterns and discursive strategies in the data set, and to focus on the most relevant components of the appraisal system for this research.

The modified annotation scheme is illustrated in Figure 24, which is a screenshot from the tool:

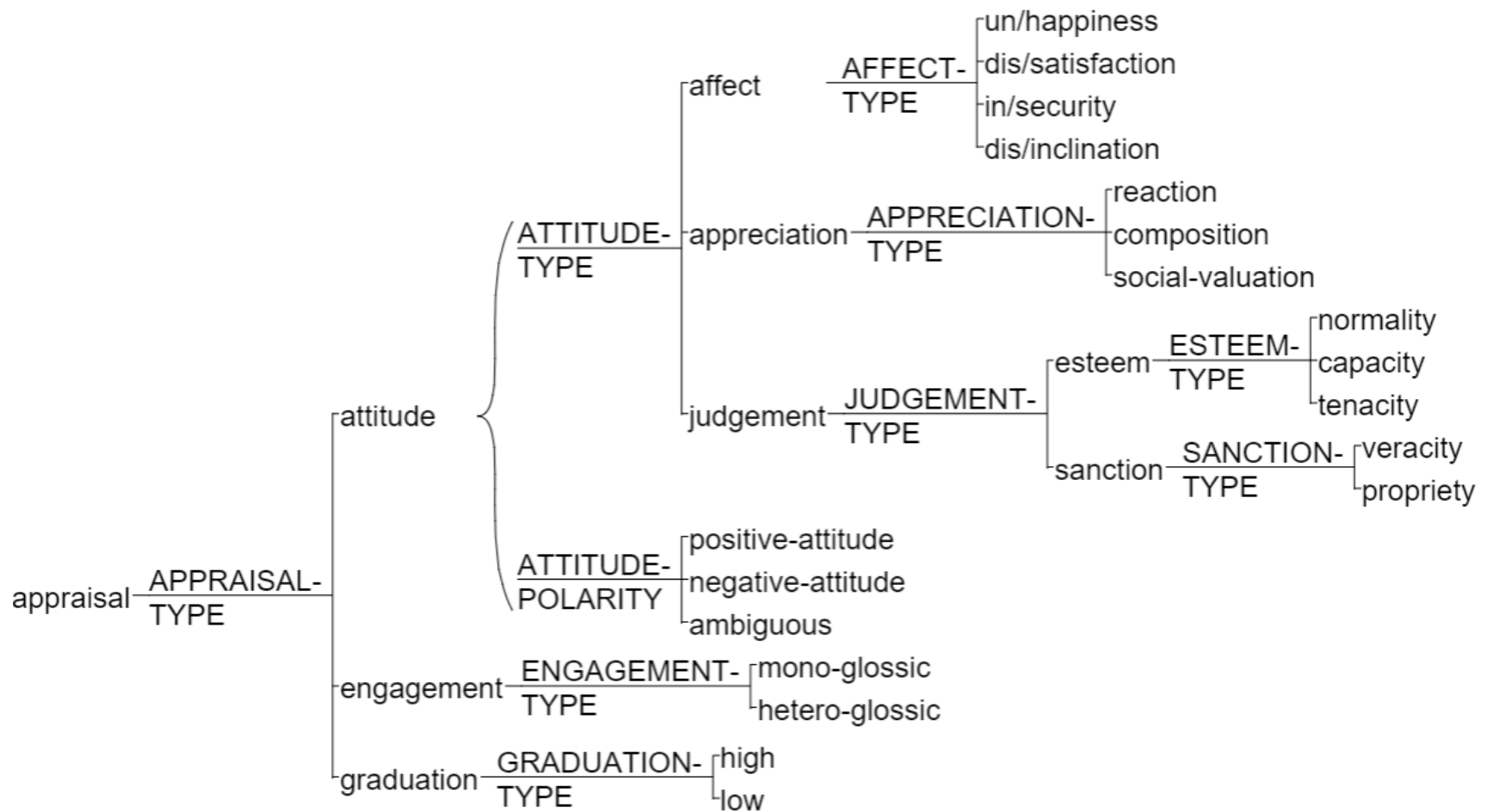


Figure 24: Annotation scheme, screenshot from the UAM CorpusTool.

In applying the appraisal framework, the analysis focuses primarily on the system of attitude, and more specifically, the subcategories of affect, judgement, and appreciation, as shown in Figure 24. Expressions of attitude are particularly important in the present research as they provide a basic framework to interpret evaluations in individuals' discourses. Therefore, markables are explored and annotated based on these subsystems. At the same time, while recognising the value of distinguishing further between the subsystems of affect, judgement, and appreciation, it is more relevant to the present research to identify the broader type of attitude evaluations, rather than apply each subsystem in detail. To provide a more comprehensive picture of evaluative language and complement the system of attitude, the analysis also incorporates the systems of engagement and graduation. Together with attitude, these systems form a holistic model of appraisal (Martin & White, 2005).

With that in mind, the following paragraphs serve as an annotation manual inspired by the work of Fuoli and Hommerberg (2015), and outline the process of annotating data from interviews, focus groups and open-ended survey questions. Importantly, most of this data is in English language. However, data in French, German or Luxembourgish is not translated into English and is annotated using the same systems, subsystems and subcategories that are described below. Moreover, in the examples presented below, the evaluative meaning is highlighted in bold to draw attention to the relevant appraisal feature.

The first subsystem examined is affect, which falls under attitude. Affect includes all expressions conveying a positive or negative emotion. In this analysis, these expressions are usually categorised as one of the following: un/happiness, dis/satisfaction, in/security, and dis/inclination, based on the classification proposed by Martin and White (2005). Dis/satisfaction pertains to expressions of emotional evaluation, where the individual conveys a sense of approval or disapproval. Units annotated under dis/satisfaction may reflect feelings such as boredom, pleasure, satisfaction, anger, or dissatisfaction. An example from data is the sentence "it could always also **be very nice to** stay monolingual", which conveys the teacher's satisfaction at staying monolingual. In/security encompasses expressions of emotional stability or instability. It includes units that refer to feelings of peace, anxiety, confidence, unease, surprise, or stress, such as the phrase "**I am not sure**". Un/happiness captures emotional states related to happiness or unhappiness. Markable units under un/happiness may involve feelings such as sadness, joy,

heartbreak, depression, love, or a general sense of emotional highs or lows. For example, teacher T2 expresses concern regarding the dominance of English despite the multilingual character of the university in the phrase “this criteria was:: was was was never was:: a little bit:: **put in the last line**”. Lastly, dis/ inclination refers to emotional expressions related to desire, particularly in relation to past or future events. It includes sentiments such as missing someone or something or looking forward to an event. An example of this category is the phrase “I **miss** a little bit”.

As demonstrated by the previous examples, the classification of affect focuses on words or phrases that explicitly describe a positive or negative emotions or desires. These may be single words, such as the verb ‘miss’, or short phrases, such as ‘put in the last line’. In certain instances of markables, units of affect may appear as part of someone else’s words that the individual chooses to quote. For example, in the phrase “**they** feel invaded” the teacher talks on behalf of a social group yet what she explains carries an evaluation. Even though the evaluative language is attributed to someone else in such cases, it still reflects an emotional context relevant to the individual’s narrative. Therefore, such instances are annotated accordingly, as they contribute to the individual’s overall discourse.

Judgement, the second subcategory of attitude, includes the units in which the individual evaluates the behaviour of another individual based on a system of social values, norms, and expectations (Martin & White, 2005). In the data from interviews, there are excerpts in which teachers talk about the University of Luxembourg or for a process attributing human substance or characteristics to it by referring to it with its name or using a pronoun when talking about it. In such cases, even though the individual does not evaluate an individual, the markables are annotated under the system of judgement. On the contrary, units that evaluate objects, abstract concepts and procedures are not classified as judgement.

Judgement markables fall in two categories namely social esteem and social sanction. Markables of social esteem refer to the moral aspect whereas markables of social sanction cover the legal aspect of the appraised behaviour (Martin & White, 2005). Markables that are coded as esteem, can be annotated as normality, capacity or tenacity, whereas markables under sanction can be annotated as either veracity or propriety. The category of normality relates to how normal, usual, special or odd the qualities of the individual are perceived and involves evaluations of typical or atypical behaviour in the given context. Annotations for normality capture these perceptions of

being standard or exceptional, as in the example from teacher T3 « ils préfèrent parler avec leur avec la langue maternelle c'est **normal** » who evaluates the behaviour of students regarding their preference to speak in their mother language. Capacity addresses perceptions of an individual's competence and ability to accomplish tasks. Units annotated under this category typically focus on evaluations of how capable or incapable the person is seen to be. Capacity includes judgements of competence, skill, potential, or the lack of thereof. In the example “they **CANNOT** get rid of this” the teacher evaluates students' lack of potential to use the French language without influence from the German language. The last subcategory of social esteem is tenacity. Tenacity refers to the extent to which an individual is perceived as resolute, determined, or persistent. It involves evaluating someone's degree of independence, reliability, focus, and perseverance in their actions. Units in this category describe whether the person is seen as (un)focused, (in)dependent, (un)reliable, or determined, as in the example “**I didn't pay attention**”.

In social sanction, veracity pertains to judgements about an individual's honesty or truthfulness. Veracity includes appraisal of how truthful someone is in their behaviour and statements. This category captures evaluations about honesty but also more subtle cues indicating truthfulness or dishonesty. For example, the phrase “they are **too honest** to use that” serves as an evaluation of students' behaviour in using AI for their assignments. Propriety, the second subcategory under social sanction and last category for judgement, is concerned with evaluations of the ethicality of an individual's behaviour. This subcategory focuses on whether actions, statements, or attitudes are perceived as acceptable or inappropriate in a social or institutional context. For example, the phrase “so except for the Luxembourgistik students they **have to** write in Luxembourgish”, shows an obligatory behaviour, the norm for students of this programme.

In general, markables under judgement in data explicitly refer to a positive or negative evaluation of colleagues, members of the university, or other individuals. As with affect, judgement is also be identified in the transcriptions through single words, such as ‘honest’ or phrases such as ‘didn't pay attention’.

In contrast to judgement, the subsystem of appreciation includes emotions and evaluations of abstract concepts, processes, policies, things, and products (Martin & White, 2005). Markables under appreciation can be labelled as reaction, composition or social valuation. The subcategory of reaction focuses on the interpersonal significance of an appraised element, how an individual

perceives its quality and the impact it has on them. This includes the emotional or cognitive responses that an individual has towards a person, process, or object, and reflects the extent to which it has captured the person's attention. Reaction is concerned not just with the evaluation of the element itself but also with the individual's engagement with it. For example, with the phrase “**how** can I hear this” teacher T11 expresses significant emotional reaction to other people's opinions on a specific issue, indicating the strong impact this had. Composition refers to the evaluation of internal structure or balance of a process, object, or situation. It involves judgements about the complexity of the component parts and how well they are integrated or balanced. This subcategory of appreciation focuses on the perceived organisation or arrangement of elements involved and whether they are considered simple or challenging. In the example “it's **tough** it's **tiring**”, the teacher is reflecting on the complexity of teaching in a multilingual environment. The third and last subcategory of appreciation, social valuation, involves judgements about the worth of something in the context of its broader social implications. It reflects how much importance an individual attributes to an item or process, based on its perceived social relevance or the benefits it brings to a group or community. The phrase “a **stupid** example” constitutes an example in which the teacher evaluates the social value of the example she mentions regarding students' mistakes. According to them, this example is lacking social significance. The system of engagement considers how speakers align with or distance themselves from other voices in discourse. In the analysis of data, excerpts are characterised as either monoglossic or heteroglossic (see Figure 25). To determine the appropriate category in the engagement system between monoglossic or heteroglossic, particular attention is given to linguistic markers that signal stance and dialogic positioning. Monoglossic expressions are identified through phrases that emphasise the speaker's personal voice, such as ‘for me’, ‘to me’, ‘I personally think/believe’ (monoglossic) which reflect a closed dialogic space with no explicit reference to alternatives. For example, the excerpt from teacher T7 “I believe most of our bachelor programmes, [are] at least bilingual”, reflects a monoglossic stance, where the teacher does not leave space for alternative perspectives (‘I believe’).

In contrast, heteroglossic engagement is identified through phrases that indicate other voices or perspectives in discourse, such as ‘he/she/they said that’ (heteroglossic), which explicitly voice the presence of additional viewpoints in discourse. Changes in personal pronouns,

particularly from ‘I’ to ‘we’ or ‘you’, are also considered as indicators of heteroglossia, as such shifts often reflect a shift in agency and an inclusion of collective or external perspectives. Additionally, instances where individuals mimic or adopt another individual’s voice during their speech, through quoted or paraphrased expressions, are categorised as heteroglossic. These instances demonstrate the incorporation of alternative voices and contribute to the individual’s positioning within a broader discursive context. For example, the excerpt from teacher T5 “they show up to you saying ‘ah professor is so hard for me in English’”, demonstrates heteroglossic engagement, as the speaker incorporates and responds to alternative perspectives in their discourse.

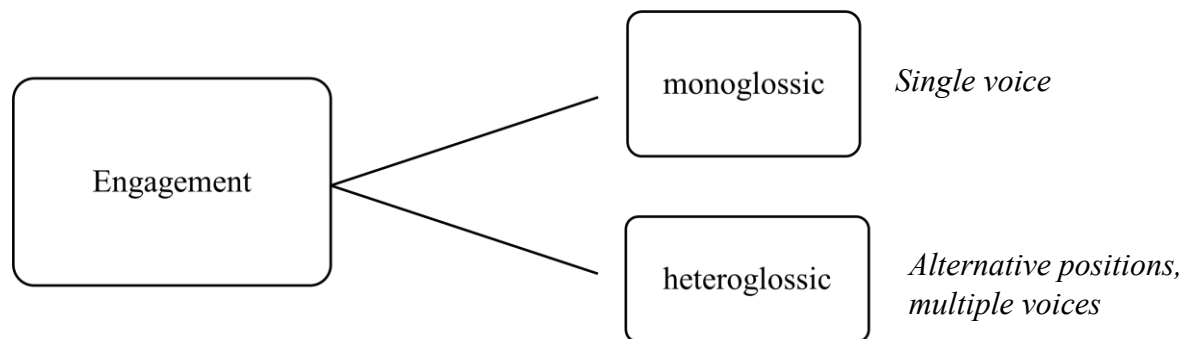
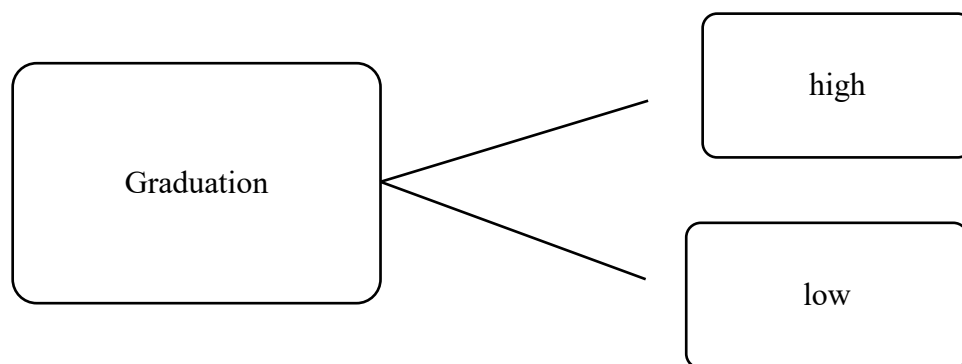


Figure 25: The system of engagement as applied in the analysis of data from interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus groups.

The third system that completes this appraisal framework analysis is graduation. In the transcribed interviews, graduation is predominantly indicated on the level of word. In particular, intensifying adjectives, adverbs, maximisers or modifiers which serve to emphasise or downplay the meaning of the accompanying noun or phrase, are annotated based on the degree of evaluation they express. Intensifying words are assigned a high or low rating depending on how strongly they convey an evaluative meaning. For example, in the phrases “if it’s **too** much”, “he will speak a **very nice** French” the emboldened words indicate a high degree of intensity. Intensifications may also be expressed through the use of comparative form, such as “the level is **lower** than before” or

through lexical items with a figurative meaning, as in the example “the level of French is somehow **contaminated**”. In the present research, I apply the system of graduation in a simplified form, as illustrated in Figure 26, focusing on a binary distinction between high and low graduation.

This simplified categorisation allows to focus on whether evaluations are highly or minimally intensified providing a clear and meaningful basis for interpretation. It is a deliberate choice that facilitates a clear and consistent analysis of how participating individuals scale their evaluations without overcomplicating the framework. At the same time, such an approach aligns with the study’s objectives and ensures analytical consistency across the data set.



*Figure 26: The system of graduation applied in the present research.*

Despite of the aforementioned categories of the appraisal framework, there were cases in which a markable remained ambiguous. In these cases, the markable was provisionally annotated under all potentially relevant categories, with the intention of revisiting it later for clarification. Such ambiguities were more common in the initial stages, but annotation became clearer as the process progressed. Throughout the process, I aimed for consistency and flexibility and documented my thoughts and uncertainties.

During annotation process, I exported annotated in XML format. Once the first round of annotations in the UAM CorpusTool was complete, I converted the XML files into Word documents for review and further interpretation. Subsequently, annotated instances were

transferred into three separate Excel spreadsheets: one for the semistructured interviews, one for the open-ended survey questions and one for the focus group discussions.

The structure of these spreadsheets draws inspiration from Martin and White (2005, p. 232), particularly their table providing an overview of meta-relations. Based on this table, the first column of each spreadsheet contains excerpts from the data, while subsequent columns contain the instantiations in which evaluation is found, as well as the systems of the framework. The final column contains personal comments providing contextual information and explaining interpretive decisions made during annotation, when necessary. Table 25 is a brief excerpt from teacher T7's spreadsheet:

Text	Instantiation	Primary target of evaluation	Attitude	Engagement	Graduation	Polarity	Comment
okay interesting yeah interesting↓	interesting	the present research	appreciation;reaction		high	positive	Repetition of word
I I'm interested	I'm interested		affect;dis/inclination	monoglossic		positive	Expressing his interest in participating in the present research

*Table 25: Excerpt from the annotated spreadsheet of the interview with teacher T7.*

To conclude, the first data set, which comprises of data from semistructured interviews, focus groups and open-ended survey questions, is analysed following a two-phase process. First, the reflexive thematic analysis organises the data into meaningful categories and themes. This is followed by applying the appraisal framework, which provides a deeper interpretive understanding of how participating teachers and students use language to express evaluations and underlying meanings. These two complementary analytical approaches provide comprehensive insight into the research questions.

The next section focuses on Data set 2, outlining the approach used to analyse the closed-ended questions through descriptive statistics, in order to identify patterns and trends in students' responses.

#### 3.4.4.3 Analysis of the Closed-Ended Survey Questions

A total of 68 completed questionnaires were collected at the end of the 2023–2024 winter semester through the Lime Survey platform. These responses were exported as PDF files and inserted manually into a Microsoft Excel document. This Excel workbook consists of multiple worksheets designed to provide a structured framework for analysis.

The first spreadsheet of this document provides a synopsis of the entire data set. It comprises all the items in the questionnaire, alongside the responses provided by each respondent. The spreadsheet has 97 rows and 69 columns; each row corresponds to a survey item and each column represents a respondent. Where questions comprise subitems, such as those employing a Likert scale, each subquestion is enumerated as a separate row. Individual responses are recorded in the corresponding cells under each respondent's column, as shown in Table 26, where Q1, Q2, and Q3 represent the respondent's code:

Items	Q1	Q2	Q3
From your experience as a student at the university of Luxembourg, which languages do you use and how often in each of the following situations? (You can complete with more than one language(s))			
studying at home	always English	always Luxembourgish	always English
addressing a professor during a class	always English	always English	sometimes Luxembourgish, often English

*Table 26: Example from the Excel document of closed-ended survey questions.*

This Excel document contains a total of five sheets. To support the various stages of processing and analysing the data, I created four additional spreadsheets and organised the data into thematic, as demonstrated in Table 27. This categorisation improves the structure and readability of the data set, making it easier to conduct focused analysis and interpretation. Separating related items into different spreadsheets also helps identify patterns within sections of the questionnaire, which is useful for analysing responses relating to specific topics.

Demographics	Language use	Learning practices	Views on languages/linguistic diversity
First language(s)	Percentage of exposure to languages at the university	How helpful the individual finds the given practices	To what extent does the individual agree with given statements
Other language(s) the individual speaks and understands	Which languages/how often in different situations at the university		Three words/phrases, to describe individual experience with linguistic diversity at the university
Language skills based on the CEFR	Mixing languages		Challenges/opportunities with linguistic diversity
Age group			Complete with the preferred language(s)
Gender			
Bachelor programme			
Incoming student?			

*Table 27: Question groups per Excel sheet.*

As this research takes a qualitative approach, which is more closely aligned with the research objectives and questions, data from closed-ended survey questions is not subject to detailed statistical analysis. Instead, basic quantitative analysis of the closed-ended questions is undertaken to provide contextual insights and support the interpretation of the findings from the semistructured interviews, focus group discussions, and open-ended survey questions. In particular, Excel is used to generate descriptive charts and graphs to present key information about respondents' demographic backgrounds, language use in this context, and learning practices. Items presented in the data analysis chapter are selected based on their ability to enrich the findings' richness and interpretive depth, as well as their relevance to the study's central themes.

Overall, the approach to analysing the data collected from teachers and students reflects its mixed nature. Initially, data from semistructured interviews with teachers, together with focus group discussions and open-ended survey questions with undergraduate students, undergo reflexive thematic analysis supported by the appraisal framework to explore evaluative language in depth. Conversely, data derived from closed-ended survey questions is used descriptively, primarily to provide contextual insights through visual representations such as charts and graphs. This integrated approach provides a more nuanced understanding of social actors' experiences, while remaining consistent with the qualitative orientation of the study.

Having outlined the study's methodological framework, including its research design, ethical considerations, researcher role, data collection, and analytical approaches, the next chapter focuses on presenting the findings. The chapter begins with the analysis of policy documents, employing a combination of policy document analysis and reflexive thematic analysis to explore the institutional framework and positioning. It then turns to data collected from teachers and undergraduate students. The analytical approaches used provide an in-depth understanding of the institutional and educational context, as framed by institutional policy documents and as experienced by individuals.

## 4. Data Analysis

The Data Analysis chapter provides a thorough examination of the collected data, offering insights into linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg. To address the research questions, the analysis draws on institutional policy documents, semistructured interviews with teachers, as well as an online survey and focus group discussions with undergraduate students.

The Data Analysis chapter is organised into two main parts, as appears in Figure 27:

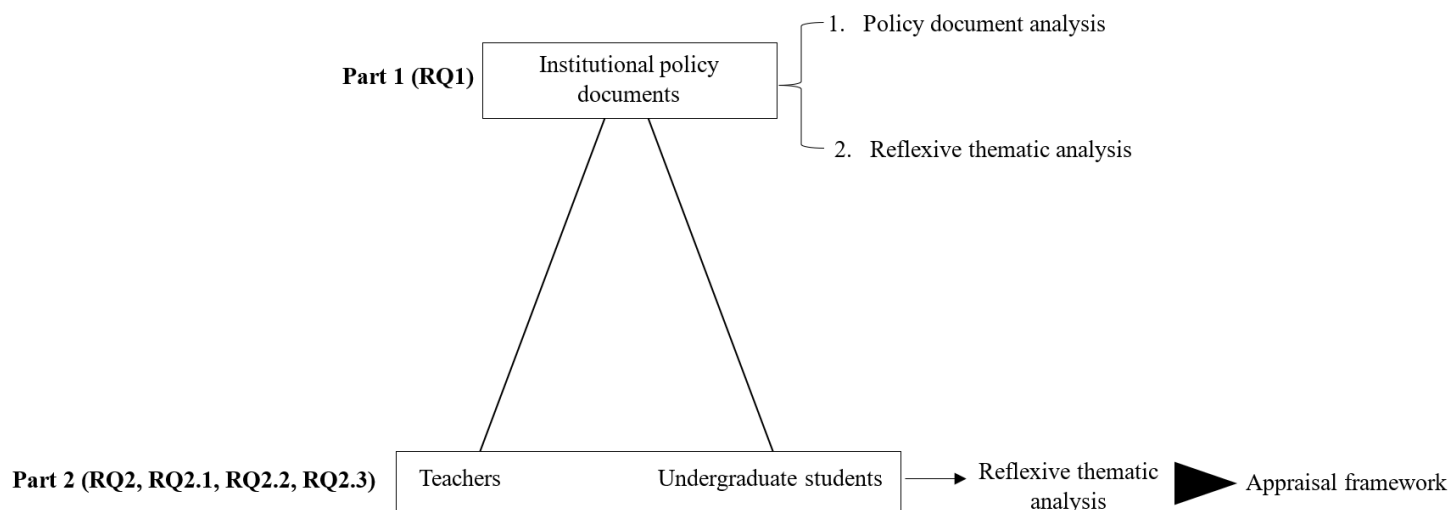


Figure 27: Structure of the Data Analysis chapter.

Figure 27, which resembles a triangle, does not imply any hierarchy among its three corners. Instead, its three connected sides, which represent policy documents, teachers and undergraduate students, illustrate the relationships and interdependencies between the corners. Figure 27 can also be interpreted as having two levels: one for institutional policy documents and the second for teachers and students. These two levels correspond to the two parts of the Data Analysis chapter.

The first part of this chapter focuses on policy documents and addresses the first research question, which investigates how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are framed at the university level. The second part of the chapter shifts the focus to individuals, namely teachers and students. Teachers, who serve as a bridge between institutional policy and student experience, offer practical insights into how multilingualism is interpreted and operationalised in classroom practices. Students, as the recipients of these practices and the broader institutional framework,

provide valuable perspectives into how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are experienced and negotiated from their point of view. Given the interdependent nature of the roles of teachers and students, their perspectives are presented together in the second part of the chapter, providing a comprehensive overview into the educational process. Nevertheless, their differing roles within this process are also considered to ensure the specificity of each perspective is preserved.

Therefore, the chapter begins by addressing the first research question:

RQ1: What do policy documents reveal about the framework that guides teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity?

To address this research question and to establish a foundational understanding of the institutional discourse on linguistic diversity, five policy documents are analysed using Cardno's (2018) policy document analysis. This framework enables a deeper examination of each document's purpose, context and implications. Following policy document analysis, reflexive thematic analysis is applied to all documents collectively, to explore recurring themes related to language use, language requirements, and language roles in the educational process at the University of Luxembourg. This part is organised into subsections around key themes, with original excerpts from the documents included to illustrate and clarify the points made. In total, the stepwise analytical approach allows to move from document-specific insights to a broader thematic understanding of institutional discourse.

The second part of the Data Analysis chapter is concerned with the second research question and its subquestions:

RQ2: How do teachers and undergraduate students experience multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg?

RQ2.1: What opportunities do teachers and undergraduate students report in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning?

RQ2.2: What challenges do teachers and undergraduate students report in relation to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning?

RQ2.3: What teaching and learning practices do teachers and undergraduate students report using to address linguistic diversity?

To address these research questions and explore how the two groups, teachers and students, perceive and respond to multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the University of Luxembourg, the analysis draws on data from semistructured interviews, an online survey, and focus group discussions.

In this second part, reflexive thematic analysis is used to identify patterns in data. As with policy documents, themes relevant to the research questions guide the overall structure of the sections. Within each section, I include excerpts that are particularly representative, insightful and illustrative of these patterns, selected to highlight critical perspectives and deepen understanding. These excerpts are accompanied by comments based on the analysis conducted using the appraisal framework, to further explore how teachers and students evaluate their experiences, express attitudes, and construct ideologies related to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning.

Overall, the combination and sequence of analytical approaches provide a comprehensive account of how teachers and students experience and negotiate multilingualism and linguistic diversity, contributing to a deeper and contextualised understanding of how institutional multilingualism and linguistic diversity are framed, implemented and experienced in the educational process.

## 4.1 Policy Documents

Five institutional policy documents are analysed to explore the policy framework that shapes teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg in relation to linguistic diversity. These documents were produced for distinct purposes and span different time periods. For the analysis, the five documents are examined in the hierarchical order established in the university's legal framework (University Law, 2023, p. 7). Therefore, the analysis begins with the amended Loi du 27 juin 2018 portant organisation de l' Université du Luxembourg (Law of the University, 2018), followed by the Règlement d'ordre intérieur (ROI, 2023). Next is the Annex of Study Regulations for the academic year 2023–2024, and lastly the Charte pédagogique (Pedagogical Charter, 2018)

and the Politique du multilinguisme (Multilingualism Policy, 2020). For the analysis of the five documents, I review the official French version of each document, in accordance with institutional guidelines (Article 4, Internal Rules and Regulations).

The Law of the University is the legal document that establishes the university's organisational structure and academic mission. The original law was enacted in August 2003 under the Higher Education Act 12, which legally founded the institution. A revised version of this law was adopted in June 2018 and further updated in 2023 to include developments in governance, pedagogy, and language policy. The Annex for Study Regulations was also updated and released in October 2023, followed shortly by the ministerial approval of the ROI in November 2023. The Pedagogical Charter was launched in July 2018 following the establishment of a working group created under Article 5 of the Contrat d'établissement pluriannuel 2014–17; the multiyear agreement with the government which defines the objectives to be achieved during the specific timeframe<sup>17</sup>. In 2019, a separate working group, initiated by the rector and vice-rector of academic affairs, was tasked with formulating a comprehensive Multilingualism Policy. This policy document was finalised and adopted in 2020. From the above, it becomes evident that the latest version of the university's law was introduced after the Pedagogical Charter and the Multilingualism Policy. This suggests that the law may have taken into account the policies that were already in place. However, it also implies that the university's Pedagogical Charter and Multilingualism Policy may require alignment with the newly introduced legal standards or requirements.

In this chronological context, it is interesting to get an overview of the political landscape, which plays a key role in shaping the institutional policy. Claude Meisch, the Minister of Higher Education and Research, occupied this position for 10 years, from 2013 to 2023, ensuring continuity of policy at the national level. During this time, the university underwent a series of leadership transitions, with the following individuals serving as rector: Rolf Tarrach (until 2014), Rainer Klump (2014–2017), and Stéphane Pallage (2018–2023). The shifts in institutional leadership may indicate potential changes in policy direction and institutional priorities.

---

<sup>17</sup> Conventions pluriannuelles et contrats d'établissements. Ministry of Research and Higher Education. (30 June 2025). Retrieved from: [Conventions pluriannuelles et contrats d'établissements - Ministry of Research and Higher Education - The Luxembourg Government](#)

Figure 28 illustrates the above information on political and institutional developments, alongside the publication dates of the five documents under analysis:

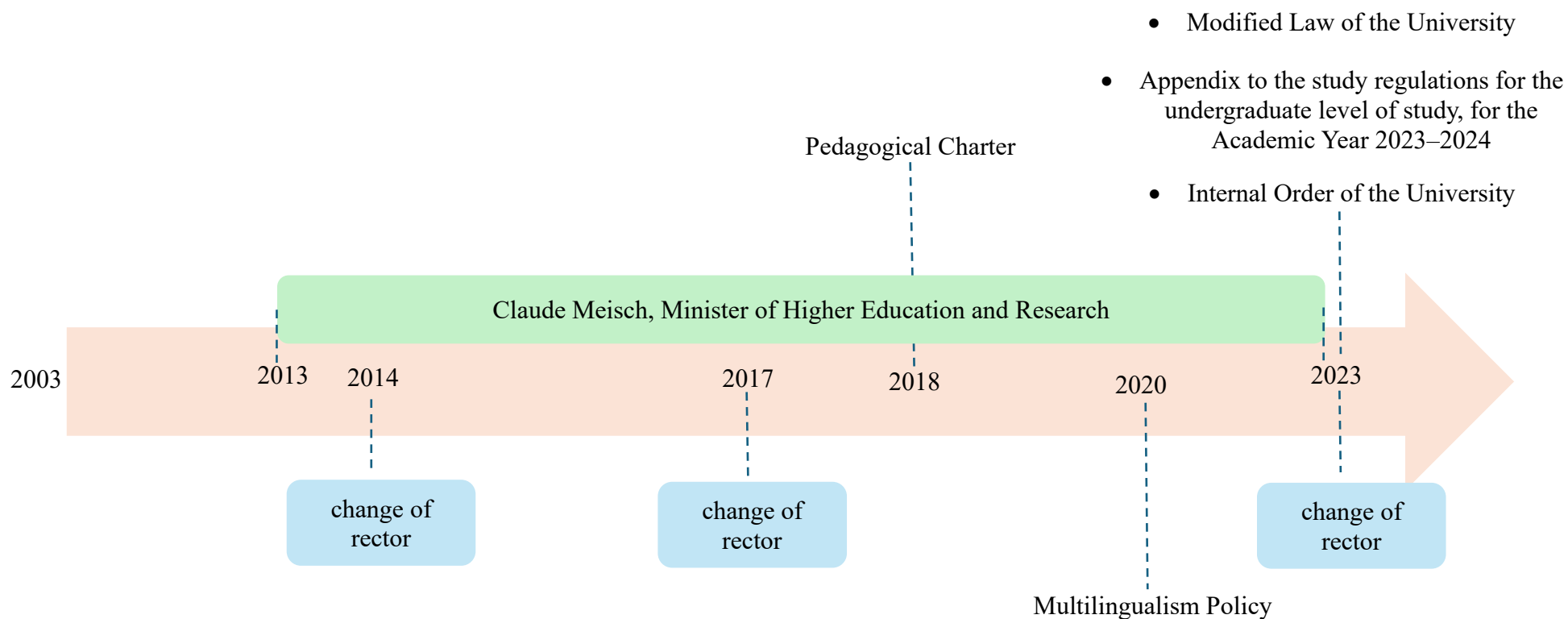


Figure 28: Timeline of rector appointments and the five approved documents.

#### 4.1.1 Insights from Policy document Analysis

The five policy documents are initially analysed using Cardno's (2018) five axes of policy analysis, which provide a structured framework for unpacking the formal characteristics and broader implications of each document. Rather than organising the analysis of each document around the specific questions from the framework, each section is presented as a fluid narrative to enable a more cohesive and nuanced interpretation of the policy documents. To complement this, the main points relating to each of the five axes are summarised in Table 28 for each document, thereby enhancing the clarity, flow, and overall readability of the analysis.

	<b>Loi modifiée du 27 juin 2018 ayant pour objet l'organisation de l'Université du Luxembourg</b>	<b>Règlement d'ordre intérieur de l'Université du Luxembourg (ROI)</b>	<b>Règlement des études : Annexe au règlement des études – programmes de bachelor</b>	<b>Charte pédagogique</b>	<b>Politique du Multilinguisme</b>
Document production and location	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 15 September 2023</li> <li>• Official website of the university, under 'University Act and By-Laws'</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 14 November 2023</li> <li>• Official website of the university, under 'University Act and By-Laws'</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17 October 2023</li> <li>• Updated version on the official website of the university, under 'University Act and By-Laws', previous versions on staff's intranet</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 20 July 2018</li> <li>• Official website of the university, under 'Studies and Research'</li> <li>• Comprehensive framework for teaching and learning at the university</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 28 May 2020</li> <li>• Official website of the university, under 'Policies'</li> <li>• Framework that actively promotes multilingualism across various areas of the university</li> </ul>
Authorship and audience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Shared authorship between the Council of State and the Chamber of Deputies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Produced by the Board of Governors with the contribution of the Rector and voted by the University Council and Staff Delegation → heterogeneous profile of the bodies adds to the depth of the policy</li> <li>• Approved by the same minister as the law → enhanced collaboration with government bodies and leading academic figures</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Prepared by the rector, advised by the University Council, approved by the Minister of Higher Education and Research</li> <li>• Same University Council and minister as the ROI but different rector → relevant to the university's reality and strengthens the link between the documents, different</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Put together by faculty members in collaboration with the Ministry of Higher Education and Research, approved by the rector and the vice-rector for academic affairs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Produced by a working group formed by the rector and headed by the vice-rector, discussed and reviewed during the strategic retreat on September 13, 2019.</li> <li>• The decision-making body for this document was the Board of Governors of the university.</li> </ul>

			<p>perspective to the process</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Addressed to administrative staff, teachers and students</li> </ul>		
Policy context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introduces broader institutional reforms→ most changes concern the medical field, COVID–19 as potential driving force</li> <li>• Values relating to the university’s international profile, collaborations, excellence in teaching and research, innovation</li> <li>• No contradictory values, but omissions that create a mismatch between political discourse and institutional legislation (e.g. minimal or no reference to digital education, curriculum internationalisation, diversity, multilingualism)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Updated version so that it is in accordance with the updated law</li> <li>• Similar values to the ones included in the law</li> <li>• No mention of multilingualism (but references the University’s Language Centre), diversity is only mentioned in relation to recruitment commissions</li> <li>• Includes references that directly link the ROI to the Law of the University</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provides the specific framework for the organisation of studies and diplomas at the university</li> <li>• Articles and practices that align with the values put forth by the law (e.g. mandatory semester abroad for students, importance of research)</li> <li>• Reference to inclusion and accommodating students’ needs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Values that reflect the law: quality education, interactive and research–based learning, importance of digital technologies</li> <li>• Explicit reference to multilingualism as beneficial and challenging—at odds with the broader national and institutional policy framework that promote inclusivity and respect</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Values that are consistent with the Law of the University and the ROI: research, international outlook, inclusivity, collaboration with other institutions, exchange, respect, openness</li> </ul>
Policy text	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 61 articles, divided into six categories</li> <li>• Logical sequence→ from university’s role and mission to specific bodies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 445 paragraphs divided into eight sections,</li> <li>• In–text elements of its development by linking sections to specific</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 34 pages long, is divided into nine chapters</li> <li>• 101 pages and divided into 23 sections</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No indication of its development or construction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Practical guidelines on how multilingualism should be implemented as well as guidance for</li> </ul>

	<p>and individuals, and to articles the relationship between the university and the government</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Direct mention to articles which have been modified</li> </ul>	<p>articles of the laws in force</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explicit guidelines that are derived from the Law of the University, and provide a comprehensive description of the practices to be followed</li> </ul>	<p>(Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explicitly mentions the laws that have guided this document's articles</li> <li>• Provides a comprehensive overview of potential scenarios and offers practical guidelines for each of them</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Five pages, includes six short sections</li> </ul>	<p>practice within the different policy aspects</p>
Policy consequences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Article 57 on the monitoring of the document, no explicit reference to the frequency or manner of reviewing the policy document</li> <li>• Produced to address the national strategy with an emphasis on innovation, high quality and exchange</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Does not address monitoring</li> <li>• Focus on the micro-level, detailed guidelines for the internal functioning of bodies, components and staff</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No mention to monitoring or reviewing of it (the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study is only relevant to the 2023–2024 academic year)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No mention to a review mechanism, but suggests that its effectiveness should be assessed based on educational outcomes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Definitions, scope and field of application of the university's language policy</li> <li>• Implementation: University's Language Centre,</li> <li>• Monitoring: vice-rector for academic and student affairs, a report on its implementation to be produced every two years</li> </ul>

*Table 28: Overview of key aspects per axis from the policy document analysis.*

#### 4.1.1.1 Loi modifiée du 27 juin 2018 ayant pour objet l'organisation de l'Université du Luxembourg

The revised version of the Law of 27 June 2018 entered into force on 15 September 2023. This law serves as the primary legal instrument organising the university's mission, objectives, and organisation. The revised version is considered to be as one of the most important amendments as it highlights the autonomous nature of the university and includes articles on its research role and its position in the European higher education area.

The original French version of the law can be found in the official website of the university, under 'University Act and By-Laws'. The uploaded document is in PDF format, making it easy to download, save and print. Although the university's official website only includes the latest approved version of document, previous versions can be found on the university's intranet or in the official Journal of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg.

The document examined was approved by the then Grand Duke of Luxembourg, Henri, and it was reviewed by the Council of State with the consent of the Chamber of Deputies. In Luxembourg, the Council of the State consists of 21 members, including judges, constitutional experts, and other professionals with expertise in the legal field, who are appointed by the Grand Duke. The Council of the State<sup>18</sup> provides the government with support and advice on legal matters, reviews legal documents, and ensures that the legal system respects the principles of democracy and human rights while remaining impartial.

The Council of State and the Chamber of Deputies share authorship of this document. Although the Grand Duke appoints the members of the Council of State, the Chamber of Deputies plays a central role in ensuring that the process remains fair and representative of public interests as an elected body. Elected by citizens, the Chamber of Deputies comprises 60 members. From 2018 until October 2023<sup>19</sup> the government was formed through a centrist coalition between the Democratic Party (Demokratesch Partei, DP), the Luxembourg Socialist Workers' Parti (Lëtzebuerger Sozialistesche Aarbechterpartei, LSAP) and the Greens (Déi Gréng). This coalition's agenda encompassed a range of aspects. Specifically, DP prioritised economic development, social reform and digital innovation. The LSAP prioritised reducing inequality, enhancing public health

---

<sup>18</sup> The Council of State. (10 January 2020). Retrieved from: <https://luxembourg.public.lu/en/society-and-culture/political-system/conseil-etat.html>

<sup>19</sup> The formation of the 2018 government. The Luxembourg government. (15 November 2023). Retrieved from: <https://gouvernement.lu/en/dossiers/2018/formation-gouvernement-2018.html>

and promoting labour rights. Lastly, the Greens played an important role in legislation relating to climate change, energy transition and environmental protection. In this coalition, Grand Duke Henri appointed Xavier Bettel, a member of the DP, as Prime Minister. The deputies of the Chamber of Deputies chose Fernand Etgen, also a member of the DP party, as president.

Given the DP's central role in government, their political priorities and vision could significantly influence the direction of the university's policies, potentially affecting areas such as funding and programs that promote innovation and technology. Indeed, with regard to the university, the government's agenda included goals to improve the ranking of the university, broaden its international outlook and focus on innovative research. During this time, the government increased the university's funding for research, infrastructure and student services. To enhance the university's international outlook, the government encouraged international partnerships and academic staff mobility, as well as the establishment of interdisciplinary centres to reinforce its role as a global hub. Moreover, to make the university more accessible and inclusive, the government recommended implementing relevant policies.

The modified law document includes 61 articles that are divided into the following six categories: 1) the status, mission and role of the university, 2) the bodies and components of the university, 3) university staff, 4) organisation of teaching and research, 5) quality assurance and evaluation, and 6) relation to the government, funding and financial management. The document is structured in a logical sequence. It starts with the university's role and mission, moves on to specific bodies and individuals, and concludes with articles that refer to quality assessment and the relationship between the university and the government. This structure establishes the overarching framework and context for the institution's profile, paving the way for a more detailed examination of specific components.

Furthermore, the text provides evidence of legal development by indicating which excerpts which were introduced in either the Law of 9 August 2018 or the Law of 21 July 2023. The updated version of the policy text includes modifications of existing laws and regulations that come from the Code du travail, the Law of 28 October 2016 on the recognition of professional qualifications, the modified Law of 27 June 2018 on the organisation of the University of Luxembourg and the Law of 31 July 2020 on the organisation of the medical studies at the University of Luxembourg.

The changes to the 2023 version of the document are listed in Table 29:

<b>Article 1</b> , (Définitions)
<b>Article 6</b> , paragraphe 16 and 17 (Composition et fonctionnement du conseil de gouvernance)
<b>Article 7</b> , paragraphe 1 (Attributions du recteur)
<b>Article 31</b> , paragraphe 2 (Principes de mise en œuvre)
<b>Article 32</b> , paragraphe 1 (Accès aux études)
<b>Article 36</b> , paragraphes 6 and 10 (Modalités d'évaluation et modalités d'attribution des grades de bachelor et de master et du diplôme d'études spécialisées en médecine)
<b>Article 37</b> , paragraphe 8 (Organisation des études menant au grade de docteur et modalités d'attribution du grade de docteur)

*Table 29: Articles Modified in the 2023 Version of the Law on the Organisation of the University of Luxembourg.*

Precisely, the modified Law of 2023 includes a monthly allowance for the Government Commissioner and a per– hour attendance fee for each meeting of the Government Board (Article 6) as well as a change in the responsibilities of the rector and the deletion or maintenance of diplomas (Article 7). Moreover, this version of the law sets a more detailed framework for the recognition of the title of Doctor of Medicine (Article 31), the ECTS credits (Article 37), diploma supplement requirements (Article 37) and individuals' information that need to be communicated with the ministry after obtaining the diploma (Article 36). Lastly, this updated law clarifies that access to specialised nursing studies is reserved for individuals who are authorised to practice nursing (Article 32).

From the above, it can be concluded that the changes in this policy document mostly concern studies in the field of medicine, concentrating on healthcare training. This focus on medicine studies is important to be interpreted in the broader post–pandemic landscape. The COVID–19 pandemic revealed structural weaknesses in Luxembourg's healthcare system, especially the shortage of medical professionals<sup>20</sup>. With a very low number of doctors compared

---

<sup>20</sup> Lair Hillion, M. (2019). *État des lieux des professions médicales et des professions de santé au Luxembourg*. Retrieved from: [Workforce in the Luxembourg healthcare sector: A system up against the wall - THE BLOG](#).

to the number of residents<sup>21</sup>, and with a large percentage of the medical professionals living in neighbouring countries, the pandemic and the lockdowns could have been the driving forces behind the changes in the updated law. This could also provide an explanation for the fact that, despite the government's agenda including points relating to the university's ranking and its role as a global hub, the modified law does not address these points. Broader institutional reforms, such as digital education and curriculum internationalisation are absent resulting in a marked mismatch between political discourse and legislation.

On the national level, Luxembourg launched the National Research and Innovation Strategy in 2020. Based on four axes, namely industrial transformation and services, sustainable and responsible development, personalised healthcare and 21st century education, the strategy aims to transform Luxembourg into a sustainable, diverse and digitalised knowledge centre in Europe. The Law of the University appears to be aligned with these objectives, as its fundamental values encompass innovation, excellence and research (Article 3). These values are promoted through collaboration with other institutions, staff mobility, high quality research and academic excellence, which are subject to regular evaluation. Lastly, the 2023 version of the Law of the University also reflects the importance of healthcare, given that the majority of the modified articles relate to the medical profession.

However, diversity and multilingualism, two important pillars for the Grand Duchy, are minimally addressed in this policy document. Although the strategy plan states that “science, research and innovation sector must [...] educate and attract the talents that a knowledge society needs, while valuing diversity” (Ministry of Higher Education and Research, 2020, p. 9) the law only refers to the mission of the university « de contribuer au développement social, culturel et économique du Luxembourg » (Law of the University, 2018, p. 3). The legal text itself refers to multilingualism in Article 31, paragraph 6, in the context of teaching at the bachelor's and master's levels. In this regard, the multilingual nature of teaching is to be expected with the exception of circumstances where « le programme d'études ne le permet pas » (Law of the University, 2018, p. 18). Similarly, although diversity and inclusion, are central to the National Research and

---

<sup>21</sup> *First steps towards overcoming staff shortages*. (2020). Retrieved from: <https://today.rtl.lu/news/luxembourg/a/1581243.html>.

Innovation Strategy (2020), they are largely absent from the legal text. These omissions suggest tensions between national policy aspirations and institutional legislation.

On the local level, the university has adopted a four-year plan (2022–2025) addressing three main domains: 1) sustainable and societal development, 2) medicine and health, and 3) digital transformation. Of these three pillars, the updated version of the 2023 Law only addresses medicine and health in relevant articles. This means that the university's vision to provide a diverse and inclusive learning environment, is not reflected in the law adding to the discrepancy between the national and local policies.

In response to Cardno's (2018) question about potential sources of tension, the Law of the University does not appear to present any such values. Article 1 defines key terms and establishes the foundational framework for the entire document. The text is crafted with a level of flexibility that allows for contextual interpretation, enhancing its adaptability. An example of this can be found in Article 31, paragraph 6, which discusses multilingual programmes and includes the phrase « sauf dans les cas où le programme d'études ne le permet pas ». This clause leaves room for adjustments, depending on the specific nature and goals of each programme.

With regard to the educational process, the policy document acknowledges the importance of quality teaching (Article 3) and innovation in research (Article 49) through the inclusion of relevant articles. The policy document also emphasises high quality research and teaching as integral components of academic endeavours. Furthermore, the Law of the University underscores the interconnected nature of the two areas, teaching and research, by always referring to them together.

The final point in Cardno's (2018) framework relates to monitoring the policy. As outlined in Article 57, the government is responsible for appointing a certified auditor who will verify the university's annual report, providing an evaluation of the policy. Although there is no explicit reference to the frequency or manner of reviewing the policy document, the university is required to submit regular reports on its performance, financial management and output, to the government.

Overall, this document provides a comprehensive legal framework for the organisation and functioning of the University of Luxembourg. Its overarching objective is to address the national strategy with an emphasis on innovation, high quality and exchange.

#### 4.1.1.2 Règlement d'ordre intérieur de l'Université du Luxembourg (ROI)

The second document that is part of this data set is the Internal Law of the University of Luxembourg (ROI). This document was created on the 14th of November 2023, after the modified law entered into force (in September 2023), to provide a clarified framework for the implementation and the terms used in the 2023 version of the law. This document includes « sujets d'importance organisationnelle supérieure » and replaces the previous version of the 3 December 2019. The ROI was issued upon order of the Minister of Higher Education and Research to approve the following amendments: the modified law of 2018 for the organisation of the university, and especially Article 5 (paragraphs 2 and 3), the ministerial decrees of the 3 December 2019 and that of the 6 July 2023 approving the rules of procedure of the university.

As with the Law of the University, the original French version of the ROI can be found at the official website of the university, under 'Official documents' and specifically under 'University Act and By-Laws'. The document is in PDF format and can be downloaded and saved. This document has now been replaced with the new version of the ROI, but previous versions can be accessed by staff on the university's intranet or in the official Journal of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg.

As mentioned in the introduction of the policy document, the ROI is produced by the Board of Governors with the contribution of the Rector. In this document, the Board of Governors is responsible for elaborating on and deciding on the university's strategy and policies. The Board of Governors comprises of 13 members, 11 of whom are nominated by the government and the remaining two by the Board of Governors itself, based on criteria outlined in the Law of the University (Article 6). Nine out of the 11 members that the government puts forward, are suggested directly by the Minister of Higher Education and Research. The Board of Governors is complemented with the Chair of the Staff Delegation and the Chair of the Student Delegation.

At the time of the modified ROI document, and until the end of November 2023, the Board of Governors consisted of 7 female and 6 male members<sup>22</sup>. Specifically, the Board of Governors consisted of five professors from other universities—Cambridge, Iceland, Paris, Trier, Utrecht—two professors from the University of Luxembourg, four leading figures (directors and CEOs in

---

<sup>22</sup> Rapport d'activités 2023. Conseil de gouvernance. University of Luxembourg. Retrieved from: <https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/11/2024/06/Rapport-dactivites-du-Conseil-de-gouvernance-2023.pdf>

different associations in Luxembourg), the Chair of the Staff Delegation and the Chair of the Student Delegation. The Rector of the university at the time, Stephane Pallage, also participated in developing the ROI document. From that, it results that the composition of the Board of Governors is dominated by the government, with significant influence from the Minister of Higher Education and Research, although it also includes staff and student representation. Nonetheless, the Board's structure ensures multiple perspectives are included, combining academic expertise from local and international universities with practical insights from professionals in various sectors in Luxembourg.

The University Council and Staff Delegation also play an important role for the development of the ROI. As of 1 November 2023, the University Council consists of 40 members, 24 of which are voting members and 16 non-voting members with advisory capacity. Voting members include: four members per faculty (two elected by professors and the other two elected by assistant researchers), four members elected by the interdisciplinary centres' professors and assistant researchers, two members elected by the administrative, finance and technical staff and six members elected by student delegation. The 16 non-voting members include: the rector and three vice-rectors, the deans from the three faculties, one member appointed by the staff delegation, four directors of interdisciplinary centres, and four other members that include the General Secretary of the Board of Governors, the Gender Delegate, the Inclusion Officer and the Director of Administration and Finance.

The heterogeneous profile of the two bodies adds to the depth of the policy document. Members external to the institution may offer a broader perspective, share practices and examples from their context and ensure compliance with industry standards. Furthermore, this external perspective increases transparency and makes the document more accountable beyond the university itself. Conversely, an internal view ensures that policy aligns with the existing structure and more closely reflects reality. Internal staff may also be better able to identify needs related to daily practice and the university's culture.

This version of the ROI document was signed in November 2023, less than a month after the new government was appointed. Despite this political transition, the ROI was approved by Claude Meisch, the Minister of Higher Education and Research, who has held this position since 2013. His continued involvement suggests long-lasting experience with the university's legal and

policy frameworks. This continuity may have enhanced collaboration with government bodies and leading academic figures, facilitating discussions and negotiations on the legal framework. It may also have resulted to the establishment of stronger relations and sense of trust between the stakeholders.

In terms of the policy context, as set out in Cardno's (2018) framework, the document was created to replace the previous ROI document of 3 December 2019, following the modified version of the University Law. In other words, the main objective of the updated ROI is to align the university's internal regulations with the updated legislation. The objectives of this document are articulated in the first page, with Articles 1 and 2 stipulating the approval of the current version and the withdrawal of the previous version.

The document comprises of 445 paragraphs that are divided into sections and chapters and grouped under the following eight titles: 1) bodies of the university, 2) components of the university, 3) university staff, 4) research, 5) commissions within the university, 6) student delegation, 7) delegation of authority and signatures, 8) university resources. This document does not consider the bigger picture of the role and function of the university in the country. Instead, it focuses on the specific bodies and individuals that make up the institution at the micro-level.

The document is 48 pages in length and incorporates in-text elements of its development by linking sections to specific articles of the law in force. This provides a clear indication of the sections of the document that have been updated and the specific article that applies in each instance. Additionally, the ROI includes explanatory below each section that detail how the articles apply within the context of the university. Consequently, the document establishes a clear and systematic connection between the University Law and the ROI. For example, the opening section of the first chapter of the ROI, concerning the Board of Governors, references Article 5 of the University Law. Similarly, the first section of the second chapter, which covers the rector's nomination, cites Article 8 from the amended Law of the University (2018). Each reference is followed by paragraphs that translate the legal framework into institutional procedures, specifying guidelines and timeframes for implementation. Overall, references to the law ground the ROI within existing legislation, thereby reinforcing its relevance and coherence.

This policy document places emphasis on policy aspects by means of repetition and enumeration. For instance, in the second section on the components of the university (paragraphs

106–12 concerning the responsibilities of the dean, p. 17), the document starts with an excerpt from the law to highlight the part that the ROI intends to address. Providing the direct excerpt serves to reinforce the legitimacy of the paragraphs included in the text. Subsequently, paragraph 108 includes a comprehensive list of the various tasks for which the dean is responsible. This ensures that each responsibility is clearly stated.

The values that the ROI puts forward are very similar to those set out in the amended University Law of 2023. Specifically, the ROI promotes collaborations and internationalisation of the university through its staff (e.g. paragraphs 262, 342), as part of the university's strategic plan (e.g. paragraph 147). The ROI also values high quality in research and teaching (e.g. paragraphs 108, 147). These values are supported by offices and services (e.g. Bureau des relations internationales, Bureau d'assurance de la qualité de l'enseignement) which are also listed in the document (p. 24–25). The respective articles are associated with the university's strategy, which aspires to align with the national strategy for the 21st century education, providing quality teaching in a diverse community of teachers and students.

As with the Law of the University, the ROI does not explicitly mention multilingualism at the university level. However, the ROI does mention the Language Centre in the context of supporting language learning. Diversity is also mentioned, but only in relation to the obligation of recruitment commissions to respect the diversity of countries from which their members come (« La composition des commissions de recrutement vise à respecter la diversité des pays de provenance de ses membres », p. 30). Regarding the monitoring of the policy document, despite of the apparent prioritisation of evaluation and assessment in the 2023 version of the Law of the University, the ROI does not address this point.

Overall, this policy document, is intended to provide a framework for the internal organisation of the university. The focus of this document is the micro-level of the institution, and it includes detailed guidelines concerning the internal functioning of bodies, components and staff.

#### 4.1.1.3 Règlement des études : Annexe au règlement des études – programmes de bachelor

The next document to be examined is the Règlement des études (RE). The RE document is intended for those who are involved in the educational process, namely academic and administrative staff, and students. It is produced to provide the specific framework for the

organisation of studies and diplomas at the university. It outlines the processes for admission, enrolment, evaluation, and organisation of studies in a way that could also serve as a reference document for external stakeholders, such as other educational institutions. The document was updated to reflect the amended University Law approved in September 2018, and especially Article 5, paragraphs 2 and 3, and to replace the previous version of the RE and its appendices issued in September and December 2021, respectively. Essentially, the document offers an updated and legally consistent structure for the university's functioning.

The examined version of the RE has been approved by Claude Meisch, the Minister of Higher Education and Research, in September 2022 and has been incorporated into both the official website and the official Journal of the Grand Duchy. While this version of the RE includes the appendices for the 2022–2023 academic year, the same minister reviewed and approved an updated version of the appendices for the 2023–2024 academic year in October 2023.

The RE document is prepared by the rector and advised by the University Council before being approved by the Minister of Higher Education and Research. When the RE document was last updated, the University Council had the same structure as that described in the updated version of the ROI. Having the same people for the preparation of the RE and the ROI documents, and incorporating the University Council's internal perspective, ensures that the RE is relevant to the university's reality and strengthens the link between the two documents.

However, although the structure of the University's Council remained the same, the rector who elaborated on the RE is different from the one who worked on the updated Appendix for the undergraduate level of study for the 2023–2024 academic year. This change in rectors brings a different perspective to the process and can serve as an additional level of oversight. At the same time, this change may also result in discrepancies between the RE document and the appendices.

Potential discrepancies between the two documents could be mitigated by the fact that the minister who approved the RE in 2022 also approved the revised version of the appendices. Having the same minister approve the RE and the amended Law of the University in 2018 and 2023, as well as the revised ROI, may ensure a consistent and coherent legal framework. This continuity also serves to reinforce alignment with the government's policy direction, promoting clarity across documentation. Furthermore, having the same minister approve these documents demonstrates an

understanding of the legal and policy environment as a whole, and makes it easier to integrate associated policies and take a more cohesive approach to governance.

The original, French version, of the approved RE document can be accessed on the official website of the university, under ‘University Act and By-Laws’. As is the case with the Law of the University and the ROI, the RE and the Appendix have been replaced with the newest versions. Nonetheless, previous versions of them are available to staff members on intranet, or to the general public through the Journal of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg.

The policy text is 34 pages long and is divided into nine chapters, addressing the following: 1) admission to studies, 2) enrolment, 3) progress of studies, 4) evaluation, 5) doctoral studies, 6) certification–issue of diploma, 7) students with special educational needs, 8) organisation of studies, 9) specialised studies in medicine. The document includes indications of its development by explicitly mentioning the laws that have guided some of the document’s articles (e.g. Article 73, p. 28). As with the previous documents examined, reference to specific versions of laws makes clearer the connections between updated laws and this document’s articles.

The RE document includes specific guidelines that outline how legal requirements are to be put in place. A case point is Article 2 on Access to Study Programmes. Article 2 refers to other articles from the Law of the University and cites paragraphs that provide the legal basis for the admission of students. The RE document also introduces a practical dimension with guidelines under articles that cover multiple possibilities. Indicatively, the RE enumerates all possible options for the extension of studies in Article 11, along with the requisite number of ECTS credits, contingent on the study programme. Similarly, Article 33 about the « Conditions de participation à l’évaluation », includes guidelines for the participation of students in exams as well as the procedures to follow when these conditions are not met. All in all, the text provides a comprehensive overview of potential scenarios and offers detailed guidelines for each of them, answering to Cardno’s (2018) question of whether there are procedures that provide guidance for practice.

The document policy does not explicitly mention or refer to the guiding values of the policy. However, as with the Law of the University, the RE document includes articles that reflect and align with national aims. For example, Articles 25–29 for mobility and student exchange set the framework for exchange programmes and are consistent with the government’s policy for

openness and collaboration with other institutions. Relevant to points for mobility and exchange are Articles 44 and 56 that mention the international dimension. Specifically, Article 44 sets the framework for doctoral students, emphasising the importance of contributing at both national and international levels. It also stresses the need for research that is original and contributes « à l'avancement des connaissances scientifiques en développant un ensemble de travaux substantiels ». This article reflects the government's commitment to maintaining high standards of quality and excellence. The concept of excellence is further echoed in the first Appendix of the RE document, which focuses on students' right to a quality education. It underscores the university's responsibility to provide quality teaching and a supportive environment for students. Research is another shared value between the national and institutional policies. The importance of research is emphasised in several articles, such as Article 48, which establishes research as an integral part of academic studies, and Article 78, which highlights its role as a key component of the specialised medicine study programme. In a similar vein, Article 29 refers to incoming students aligning with the government's aim to transform the university into a knowledge hub.

One of the values that is repeatedly mentioned in government's policies, pertains to inclusivity, particularly in terms of accommodating students' needs. In contrary to the previous policy documents examined, inclusivity is reflected in various parts of the RE document. A characteristic example is the RE's chapter dedicated to amenities for students with special educational needs (Chapter 7). This chapter delineates the university's mission and the range of potential arrangements that could be made available to students with special educational needs. The RE document also includes a charter for students (Annexe I—Charte des usagers), which lists the rights of students at the University of Luxembourg and delineates the responsibilities of the university to accommodate these rights.

With regard to language, the RE encompasses articles that stipulate the languages to be used in evaluations (Article 37), in doctoral studies for the thesis and defence (Article 51), and in the context of official diplomas and diploma supplements (Articles 59 and 61). In more detail, Article 59 concerns the administrative languages of Luxembourg, while Article 51 names German, English, and French as the languages in which a thesis should be written. These provisions reflect a multilingual approach to academic evaluation, consistent with the university's multilingual

context. As far as teaching language(s) are concerned, Articles 37 and 61 prioritise the language(s) of the course as established in each study programme.

The RE document is accompanied by four parts each corresponding to a different study levels: 1) programmes de bachelor, 2) programmes de master, 3) programmes de doctorat, and 4) programmes de diplôme d'études spécialisées en médecine. These parts include detailed information about teaching language(s). As the present research focuses on the level of bachelor studies, only the first part is examined, namely the Appendix to the Study Regulations, Partie I: Programmes d'études menant au grade de bachelor, for the academic year 2023–2024.

The Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study, spanning 101 pages and divided into 23 sections, details a range of programmes, including the Bachelor en Formation Pédagogique, and the Bachelor of Applied Information Technology–Continuing Education Programme. According to the official website of the university, the two programmes are intended for professionals who already hold a bachelor's degree in the field and are seeking further expertise through lifelong learning opportunities. Consequently, the two programmes, the Bachelor en Formation Pédagogique, and the Bachelor of Applied Information Technology–Continuing Education Programme, are not counted among the 18 bachelor programmes offered during the academic year 2023–2024.

Of the 18 programmes, eight are bilingual, seven are trilingual and three are quadrilingual. In addition to the provisional instruction in multiple languages, three of the study programmes are conducted together with other European universities whereas all programmes include a mandatory semester abroad. Based on the learning objectives of each programme, the majority of bachelor programmes focus on developing professional skills that encourage collaboration in multilingual and diverse environments (see Table 32). These last points show that the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study is consistent with the national and local strategy, particularly the fourth pillar of the national strategy for 21st century education, which emphasises “learning in a multilingual and diverse society” (p. 21), as well as collaboration, exchange, internationalisation and multilingualism.

This Appendix document follows the same structure across all programmes. Each section begins with an outline of the programme's content, objectives, and intended learning outcomes. It then addresses entry requirements, including language proficiency according to the CEFR, and the

programme's organisational structure. Each section concludes with a detailed list of the modules and the teaching language(s) designated for each of them.

In total, the RE document aims to establish a framework for studies at the University of Luxembourg. It outlines the conditions for student admission to programmes, the requirements for earning a diploma, the rights and responsibilities of students and the institution, and the overall organisation of studying at this university. Regarding their monitoring, the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study, as well as the other three appendices, specify their relevance to the 2023–2024 academic year, suggesting that a revised version will be introduced for the following year. In contrast, the RE document does not foresee any process for its review or monitoring. Lastly, neither of the documents address their implications.

<b>Bachelor programme</b>	<b>Teaching languages</b> English (EN), French (FR), German (DE), Luxembourgish (LU)	<b>Entry language requirements</b> And proficiency level based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)	<b>Objectifs et acquis d'apprentissage</b> Au terme du programme, le titulaire d'un diplôme est capable de:	<b>Comments</b>
<u>Faculty of Science, Technology and Medicine (FSTM)</u>				
Bachelor en Sciences de la vie	EN, FR	EN (B2), FR (B2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>présenter et communiquer clairement des concepts du domaine des sciences de la vie ou autres, par écrit ou par oral, en français ou en anglais, en s'aidant si besoin des outils informatiques et électroniques actuels</li> </ul>	
Bachelor en Physique	EN, FR	EN (B2), FR (B1)	—	First year of studies takes place at the Université de Lorraine in Nancy (France)
Bachelor en Mathématiques	FR, EN	FR (B2), EN (B1)	—	Le cinquième semestre est un semestre de mobilité, permettant à l'étudiant du Bachelor en Mathématiques de valoriser son cursus universitaire, de suivre des cours spécifiques non forcément proposés au Luxembourg, ou encore de découvrir un environnement et une culture différent
Bachelor en Informatique appliquée	EN, FR	EN (B2), FR (B1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>s'exprimer en français et en anglais, à l'écrit comme à l'oral, dans un contexte de travail dans le domaine informatique en équipe et en interaction avec des interlocuteurs de culture et de background technique divers</li> </ul>	
Bachelor en Science informatique	EN, FR, DE	EN (B2)	—	
Bachelor en Ingénierie	DE, FR, EN	DE (B2), FR (B1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>travailler dans un environnement international et multilingue</li> </ul>	Civil Engineering and Management in Europe: part of a joint study program of the DFHI/ISFATES (Deutsch–Französisches Hochschulinstitut, Institut Supérieur Franco–Allemand de

				Techniques, Economics and Sciences)
Bachelor en Médecine	FR, DE (certain classes are given in English)	FR (C1), DE (C1), EN (B2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>communiquer de façon structurée avec les différentes catégories d'interlocuteurs</li> </ul>	After completion of the 3 <sup>rd</sup> year of studies France has agreed to host up to 25 candidates at the universities of Strasbourg, Nancy and Paris 5. Belgium has also committed to welcoming 8 candidates at master's level
Bachelor en Sciences infirmières: – Spécialité: Infirmier en anesthésie et réanimation – Spécialité: Assistant technique médical de chirurgie – Spécialité: Infirmier en pédiatrie – Spécialité: Infirmier psychiatrique	FR, DE, EN	FR (B2), EN (A2), DE (B2)– For students who do not have the required level of German on admission, achieving B2 proficiency during the course is a graduation requirement	—	
	<u>Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance (FDEF)</u>			
Bachelor en Sciences économiques	EN, FR	EN (B2), FR (B2)	—	
Bachelor en Comptabilité et Fiscalité	FR, EN	FR (B2), EN (B2)	—	
Bachelor en Gestion	FR, EN	EN (B1), FR (B2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>maîtrise l'expression écrite et orale en langue française et anglaise</li> </ul>	
Bachelor en Droit	FR (80%), EN (20%) (one optional course is offered in DE)	EN (B2), FR (B2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>travailler et dialoguer avec des juristes de différents pays du monde en français et en anglais</li> </ul>	
	<u>Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences (FSHE)</u>			
Bachelor en Sciences de l'éducation	LU, FR, DE, EN	Reading comprehension and language test in French, German, Luxembourgish and English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>apprendre à enseigner dans des milieux plurilingues et multiculturels</li> </ul>	Le programme met l'accent sur la diversité des itinéraires individuels et culturels

Bachelor en Enseignement musical	DE, EN, FR, LU	EN (C1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• apprendre à enseigner dans des milieux plurilingues et multiculturels</li> </ul>	Le programme met l'accent sur la diversité des itinéraires individuels et culturels
Bachelor en Dessin d'animation	FR, EN	EN (B2) or FR (B2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• collaborer au sein d'équipes pluridisciplinaires et multiculturelles</li> </ul>	
Bachelor en Cultures Européennes	EN, FR, DE  LU-Courses and seminars in Luxembourgish Language Science and Literature are mainly taught in Luxembourgish. Some optional courses may be taught in other languages (e.g. Portuguese or Italian)	EN (C1), FR (as second language: B2; as third language: A2), DE (as second language: B2; as third language: A2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• s'exprimer avec aisance, à l'oral et par écrit, dans un environnement plurilingue et interculturel (Sciences du langage et littérature anglophones)</li> <li>• exploiter un bagage plurilingue et interculturel, grâce à un perfectionnement dans d'autres langues vivantes et littératures (Etudes françaises)</li> <li>• s'approprier et de mettre en pratique des processus d'interaction dans des contextes multilingues (Sciences du langage et littérature germanophones)</li> <li>• mettre à profit les connaissances théoriques, les sources et les méthodologies de la recherche en (socio-)linguistique et en études littéraires afin de formuler des argumentations cohérentes sur la langue, la culture et la littérature plurilingue luxembourgeoises et de réaliser des projets académiques ou professionnels (Sciences du langage et littérature luxembourgeoises)</li> </ul>	Des compétences transdisciplinaires liées au raisonnement pluraliste, l'interdisciplinarité et le multilinguisme accompagnent les études de spécialisation et permettent d'ouvrir un vaste éventail de débouchés académiques et professionnels
Bachelor en Psychologie	DE, FR, EN	DE (C1), EN (B2), FR (B2)	—	
Bachelor en Sciences sociales et éducatives	FR, DE	DE (C1), FR (C1), EN (B2)	—	

*Table 30: Official teaching languages and entry requirements per bachelor programme according to the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study.*

#### 4.1.1.4 Charte pédagogique

According to the ROI, charters rank below laws in the hierarchy of policy documents. Therefore, the analysis continues with the Pedagogical Charter, specifically Version 1, published in 2018. The official document of the Pedagogical Charter is listed alongside other university documents and can be accessed on the website under ‘Studies and Research’. As with the other policy documents, the French version is considered to be the binding one, though unlike the previous legal documents, an English translation of it is available on the website. The document is provided in PDF format, making it easier to download, save and print.

The Pedagogical Charter sets out the “educational mission statement of the University of Luxembourg”. This document encompasses the core values of the university and its community and aims to establish a framework that promotes diversity in teaching and learning. The Pedagogical Charter has two overarching objectives. Firstly, it establishes a comprehensive framework for teaching and learning at the university. Secondly, it seeks to initiate a constructive dialogue on relevant matters. The charter reinforces the university’s commitment to promoting an inclusive and dynamic environment characterised by mutual respect and it serves as a reference point providing guidelines for effective teaching and learning in a diverse academic environment.

The Pedagogical Charter is the outcome of a months-long project that started in 2017, produced by a group of faculty members, in collaboration with the Ministry of Higher Education and Research. This collective work brings together expertise from various fields, enriching the document with different perspectives on academic practices. As a product of university staff efforts, the document reflects the institution’s mission and may be seen as a sign of greater staff involvement in shaping its goals. Faculty members, given their engagement with students and the learning process, are able to bring a more practical dimension to the document, ensuring it is grounded in the realities of academic life.

This first version of the document, which remains in force, was published by the rectorate and the vice-rector for academic affairs as part of the educational strategy of the university. The Pedagogical Charter was formally approved by the then-rector, Stephane Pallage, and the Vice-Rector for academic affairs, Romain Martin. The document was officially ratified on 20 July 2018, less than a month after the Law of the University underwent significant modification on 27 June 2018. This placed the document in a transitional period between the revision of the law and its official implementation, which came into force on 1 August 2018.

At the time of the approval of the Pedagogical Charter, Claude Meisch was the Minister of Higher Education and Research, a position he had held since 2013. As mentioned previously, having a consistent minister throughout the duration of the Contrat Pluriannuel between the government and the university (Contrat d'Etablissement Pluriannuel 2014–17), and beyond the initiation of the Pedagogical Charter, facilitates discussions and negotiations, and ensures stability and continuity of the legal framework.

The Pedagogical Charter represents the institution's commitment to providing “an innovative and open education dedicated to the success of all students” (Article 5), as stated in the Contrat d'Etablissement Pluriannuel 2014–17. Nevertheless, the document carries the risk of a narrow scope, potentially reflecting a limited perspective that prioritises the concerns of teachers and marginalises students' voices. This risk can be mitigated by actively incorporating diverse viewpoints. As highlighted in the foreword by the working group, the objective is to initiate an ongoing discussion, inspire and promote a “university-wide dialogue” (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 2), demonstrating the intention to maintain the document's flexibility, dynamism and inclusivity.

In terms of the structure of the text, there is no indication of how this document was developed or constructed. The document is five pages in length. It includes a front page, a foreword and six short sections: one on the document per se, and five on learning at the University of Luxembourg. These five sections describe the notion of learning as interactive, research-based, oriented and oriented towards students' autonomy. Learning is also characterised as multilingual and international, with an important role for feedback and dialogue. Precisely, the document characterises learning as an interactive process that considers students' diverse backgrounds and is closely connected to their future careers. It also considers digital technologies to be a crucial part of the educational process. Moreover, the charter underscores the significance of research, to which students are introduced from the undergraduate level of study and exposed throughout their academic journey. Finally, in contrast to the University's Law and the ROI, the charter explicitly references multilingualism through learning in a “multilingual and intercultural academic environment” (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 5) for respect, openness and critical thinking.

These five sections on learning reflect the charter's underpinning values for quality education to which the university's community is committed. An indicative example comes from mentions to inclusivity and respect for students' backgrounds. In order to take advantage of the wide range of backgrounds present at this academic context, the charter calls for the implementation of open, flexible curricula that span multiple disciplines. Another example

pertains to the multilingual profile of the university. The charter makes it clear that students' linguistic competencies and cultural understanding are to be considered integral components of curricula, representing « la marque distinctive de l'enseignement » (Charte Pédagogique, 2018, p. 5).

Despite of the value attributed to multilingualism and diversity, the charter presents contradictory views on them, echoing the government's strategic plan. The government's strategic plan refers to multilingual education as « un des atouts majeurs de l'enseignement luxembourgeois » (Programme gouvernemental, 2013, p. 109) and describes it as the biggest challenge that the educational system faces. In a similar vein, the university's Pedagogical Charter acknowledges diversity among staff and students as “a tremendous opportunity and a complex challenge” (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 5). However, these contrasting perspectives on multilingualism appear to be at odds with the broader national and institutional policy framework aimed to promote inclusivity and respect, thereby raising questions about how these challenges are managed in the pursuit of excellence.

Lastly, despite not explicitly mentioning a review mechanism, the charter suggests that its effectiveness should be assessed based on educational outcomes. In other words, while it does not specify how the text itself should be reviewed, it emphasises that success is measured by the outcomes. This implies an outcome-based approach to evaluating institutional policies, which could restrict the potential for improving language policies and accountability.

#### 4.1.1.5 Politique du Multilinguisme

The last document that is examined for this research is the university's Multilingualism Policy. The Multilingualism Policy presents the definitions, scope and field of application of the university's language policy, as well as the ways in which multilingualism is to be put into practice at the university. The purpose of the document is to establish a framework that actively promotes multilingualism across various areas of the university. It offers a comprehensive approach that encompasses language use in education, research, administration, management, as well as academic and research staff.

The document was produced between January and March 2019 by a working group formed by the rector and headed by the then Vice-rector, Romain Martin. The document was also discussed and reviewed during the strategic retreat on September 13, 2019. The decision-making body for this document was the university's Board of Governors. The participation and feedback from the Board of Governors, the rectorate, the director of administration and finance,

as well as deans and directors, adds to the legitimacy of the document as these bodies reflect a broad range of institutional perspectives and expertise.

The document was published in May 2020 and entered into force with immediate effect. At the time of approval of this document, the Board of Governors comprised of the same 11 members that approved the ROI in 2023, with a change in the staff and students' representatives. As with the Board of Governors, the rector and vice-rector remained the same for the ROI, the Pedagogical Charter and the Multilingualism Policy. This continuity ensures that the legal framework and vision of the university align with the institution's educational and language policy. At the same time, it creates a harmonised framework that enhances the university's identity and minimises conflicting views.

The official document of the Multilingualism Policy can be accessed in the official website of the university under 'Policies'. The document is available in PDF format in English and in French. Although German is listed among the official languages of the university, a German version of this document is not available. The Multilingualism Policy is 11 pages in length and includes a front page, and a table of contents. The document starts with the preamble, followed by a statement of its purpose and the guiding principles for its implementation. It continues with a table defining key terms used throughout the document, such as 'academic and research staff', 'lingua franca', and 'multilingualism'. The next part of the document provides a detailed exposition of the policy's scope and application, delineating the specific policy domains that are addressed within the document. Further down, the document provides an overview of its implementation and monitoring. At the end of the document, there are two lists that provide a connection between the Multilingualism Policy to other policies and guidelines of the university. The document is supplemented by two appendices. The first appendix provides a detailed exposition of the Multilingualism Policy in the form of a triangle (see Figure 10) and Appendix II presents a set of regulations to monitor language criteria for recruitments.

The text provides specific practical guidelines on how multilingualism should be implemented. For example, in the context of teaching and learning, the Multilingualism Policy stipulates that in a bilingual or multilingual study programme, a minimum of 20% of the ECTS credits must be obtained through courses conducted in each of the instructional languages. The Multilingualism Policy also provides guidance for practice within the different policy aspects. To illustrate this point, the Multilingualism Policy differentiates between administrative documents, meetings, marketing and communication, and staff.

The values underpinning this policy document are those of inclusion and openness. When producing this document, the working group considered the University of Luxembourg's multilingual profile to be a reflection of the country's identity and values. As a result, multilingualism is presented as a valuable resource, and diversity is presented as an asset, both of which enrich the educational process and research. The document also highlights the importance of research, international outlook and support for staff and students, as well as inclusivity, and collaboration with other institutions. These values are consistent with the Law of the University and the ROI.

To emphasise the most significant aspects of practice that are encompassed by the Multilingualism Policy, the text employs clear distinctions between policy aspects and includes visual representations of them. In addition to that, the document incorporates titles and subtitles for each policy aspect, with further distinctions made to all categories and subcategories. Indicatively, under "Academic Staff and Research" the text distinguishes between "workforce planning, recruitment, and promotion" (Multilingualism Policy, 2020, p. 6–7). This categorisation organises the complex policy aspects into smaller, more manageable areas of interest, facilitating a focused approach to each area. Lastly, the visual representation of the Multilingual Policy in Appendix I (see Figure 10) draws attention to the most important aspects of the document in a simplified manner.

Regarding policy consequences, the Multilingualism Policy comprises a section on its implementation and monitoring. The document states that the University's Language Centre (ULLC) is responsible for implementing the policy, focusing on measures to help university members navigate the multilingual academic environment. While the ULLC oversees the Multilingualism Policy, its detailed implementation falls to the departments, faculties, and interdisciplinary centres. Additionally, unlike the previous policy documents which do not include such detailed provisions, the Multilingualism Policy specifies that the vice-rector for academic and student affairs is responsible for monitoring the policy, with a report on its implementation to be produced every two years.

#### 4.1.2 Thematic Insights from Policy Documents

Policy document analysis, applied to each document separately, offers critical insights into the educational framework of the University of Luxembourg and reveals the key values and principles that shape teaching and learning. From the application of Cardno's (2018) analytical framework it results that references to multilingualism and diversity are limited. Most of the

explicit references appear in the Pedagogical Charter as guiding values and in the Multilingualism Policy in the form of general guidelines. More practically, the university's multilingual profile becomes apparent in the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study, which includes detailed information on teaching languages and entry requirements.

In the present section, I shift from examining each document separately and adopt a more comprehensive approach, analysing the five documents collectively in terms of their interconnectedness and their combined impact on the university's educational framework. The analysis continues to focus on the first research question (RQ1), examining how these documents frame multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process.

After applying reflexive thematic analysis, two main themes emerged: 1) perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity and the 2) institutional policy framework. These themes are further analysed into subthemes that reveal patterns relating to the educational process, the university's identity, and educational practices.

In more detail, the coding process in MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021) resulted in 168 colour-coded segments across the five documents. The distribution and frequency of coded segments per theme are presented in Table 31:

Themes	Number of coded segments	
1.Perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity	8	10%
1.a. Implications of multilingualism and diversity	1	
1.b Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity	7	
2.Institutional policy framework	7	90%
2.a. Infrastructural support for language and diversity	3	
2.b. Learning objectives and future career	19	
2.c. Language roles in the educational process	2	
2.d. Language requirements	118	
2.e. Pedagogical practices	3	

Table 31: Themes from the reflexive thematic analysis of the five policy documents.

The majority of coded segments in policy documents pertain to the institutional policy framework, with language requirements as the predominating subtheme (see Table 31). Precisely, 118 coded segments relate to language requirements, the majority of which are drawn

from the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study. The second most prevalent theme pertains to learning objectives and students' future career with 19 coded segments. The majority of the coded segments in this theme are also derived from the policy document annexed to the bachelor's degree programme, which suggests an emphasis placed on aligning educational objectives with professional career aspirations. According to Table 31, the distribution of coded segments confirms the limited mentions to multilingualism and linguistic diversity, as very few segments were coded under the theme 'Perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity' compared to the theme 'Institutional policy framework'. Moreover, most coded segments relate to language and learning objectives, all of which originate from a single document that details these aspects for each programme.

Table 32 includes a more detailed distribution of coded segments per document:

<b>Institutional policy document</b>	<b>Coded segments</b>
Loi du 27 juin 2018 (Law of the University)	2
Règlement d'ordre intérieur–ROI (Internal Regulation)	2
Annexe au règlement des études de l'Université du Luxembourg (Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study)	130
Charte Pédagogique (Pedagogical Charter)	11
Politique du multilinguisme (Multilingualism Policy)	23

*Table 32: Distribution of coded segments per document.*

As illustrated in Table 32, the majority of the coded segments are found in the Appendix to the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study, with 106 out of the 130 coded segments pertaining to the subtheme 'language requirements'. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the high number of coded segments is due to the fact that the Appendix to the Study Regulations specifies the learning objectives, official teaching language(s) and language requirements for each bachelor programme individually and are coded individually.

Conversely, according to Table 32, the Law of the University and the ROI each contain two coded segments. Precisely, the Law of the University includes one segment under the theme 'institutional policy framework' and a second one under 'language requirements'. Similarly, the RE document includes one coded segment on 'language use' and another coded segment under 'infrastructural support for language and diversity'. The limited references to language and linguistic diversity in the two legal documents indicate a relatively narrow institutional focus on these matters at the policy level.

In contrast to the Law of the University and the ROI, the Pedagogical Charter and the Multilingualism Policy feature more extensive references to linguistic diversity and multilingualism. Specifically, the Pedagogical Charter includes 11 coded segments across the theme and subthemes ‘institutional policy framework’, ‘perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity’, and ‘pedagogical practices’. The Multilingualism Policy includes 23 coded segments, primarily under ‘institutional policy framework’ and ‘perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity’, with most coded segments linked to ‘language requirements’. This distribution reflects a more developed institutional perspective on multilingualism, particularly concerning the university’s strategic positioning and educational practices.

Considering the frequency of coded segments within each theme, and guided by the research questions, the thematic analysis’ report from the five policy documents is structured around three sections. The report begins with an exploration of how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are portrayed in the documents with excerpts from the themes ‘perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity’ and its subthemes on implications and conceptualisations. The first section examines how the institution positions itself ideologically in relation to language, multilingualism and diversity, and outlines the university’s broader orientation toward inclusion and multilingualism. Relevant excerpts reveal the values, priorities and frameworks that underpin the university’s discourses on multilingualism and linguistic diversity.

Subsequently, the report focuses on how language is framed within the educational process, as both a requirement and an objective, through excerpts from the theme and subthemes ‘institutional policy framework’, ‘learning objectives and future career’, ‘language roles in the educational process’, and ‘language requirements’. This second section explores how language is regulated in the educational process, providing the institutional context for language use by teachers and students in programmes and courses. Examining the aforementioned theme and subthemes together contributes to understanding the role of language as both a medium of instruction and a strategic element in teaching and learning.

The last section of the report draws on the subthemes ‘infrastructural support for language and diversity’ and ‘pedagogical practices’. This section turns to the strategies and measures intended to support the university’s multilingual objectives, as outlined in the examined policy documents. It refers to institutional policies, resources and programmes designed to promote linguistic diversity and facilitate multilingual practices.

Following this sequence, the report presents themes and subthemes in an order that reflects a progression from broad institutional orientations towards multilingualism and linguistic diversity, to more specific frameworks of language use, and concrete policy measures. This structure ensures a transition from ideological positioning to practical implementation, offering a comprehensive view of how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are conceptualised, operationalised and supported within the institution.

#### 4.1.2.1 Perspectives on Language, Multilingualism, and Diversity in Institutional Policy

As a public university in a multilingual country, the University of Luxembourg recognises the importance of multilingualism in its educational framework. Across the five policy documents, multilingualism is positioned as a defining institutional value, closely linked to educational quality and academic excellence. This first section of the reflexive thematic analysis draws on excerpts from the university's policy documents to explore how multilingualism is embedded in the educational process, as they derive from the theme 'perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity' and its subthemes.

The university's approach prioritises multilingualism as a central feature of its study programmes, framing it as a key part of its pedagogical strategy and mission. The Law of the University sets out the university's role in contributing to the country's social cultural, and economic development. It frames multilingual education as a reflection of Luxembourg's national identity and a strategic value for the university's development. The same document explicitly establishes multilingualism as the default mode of instruction in Article 31, paragraph 6 (« l'enseignement des programmes de formation menant aux grades de bachelor et de master est multilingue, sauf dans les cas où le programme d'études ne le permet pas », Loi du 27 juin 2018, p. 18).

The importance of multilingualism appears in the Pedagogical Charter, this time with a focus on pedagogical considerations. The Pedagogical Charter describes multilingual classes as boosting students' critical thinking, inspiration and innovation. According to this document, the diverse profiles of university members alongside the university's distinct character form a "unique multilingual and intercultural academic environment" (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 5). In fact, the document characterises collaborative learning in such a diverse environment as "particularly enriching" (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 3), especially among students with diverse backgrounds, interests and experiences.

The Multilingualism Policy reinforces the importance of multilingualism as an integral part of the institution's identity. In the respective document, multilingualism is described as a

“hallmark” of the institution (Multilingualism Policy, 2020, p. 2), reflecting the university’s strong emphasis. Grounded in Luxembourg’s multilingual context and shaped by various European academic traditions, the policy presents this diversity as a valuable resource for the educational process. It also frames multilingual and intercultural skills as essential to the university’s international outlook and as crucial for enhancing the local and global employability of its graduates.

In parallel to the importance attributed to multilingualism and diversity, institutional policy documents acknowledge the inherent challenges that they can pose to the educational process. Among the five policy documents examined, the Pedagogical Charter stands out as the only document that explicitly addresses such challenges by describing this multilingual environment « à la fois une magnifique opportunité et un défi complexe » (Charte Pédagogique, 2018, p. 5). In particular, the Pedagogical Charter identifies the difficulty of conveying academic concepts and knowledge across multiple languages as a key challenge. According to the document, communicating complex ideas in a multilingual context requires more than translation, as differences in communicative styles, worldviews, academic practices and cultures are also brought to the fore.

These challenges are not limited to multilingual programmes; they also persist in monolingual English-only programmes offered at the university. Although English-only programmes are often perceived as more accessible due to the international status of English, the Pedagogical Charter explains that complexities inherent in a linguistically and culturally diverse environment, such as that of the University of Luxembourg, persist. According to the document, this happens because the diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds of teachers and students can still hinder communication and understanding.

The framing of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in institutional policy documents underscores their central role in the university’s mission and identity. At the same time, it becomes evident that addressing the challenges of communication and understanding in the educational process requires recognition of diverse backgrounds and thoughtful pedagogical adaptations, as well as specific measures to meet the needs of the university’s community.

Taking this into consideration, the next section delves into the language requirements and objectives, offering insights into the university’s expectations and regulations regarding language use in specific programmes and courses.

#### 4.1.2.2 Language Requirements, Learning Objectives, and Language Roles in Institutional Documents

As mentioned in the previous section, the Law of the University mandates the use of multiple languages in the educational process at the bachelor and master level of study. However, with a closer look in the university's policy framework, languages appear to have different roles and statuses. According to the Multilingualism Policy, French and German serve as administrative languages, English functions as the *lingua franca* in academia and Luxembourgish is recognised as the national language.

The Multilingualism Policy visually represents a hierarchy of languages across different domains (see Figure 10), with Luxembourgish usually appearing after other languages. For example, in central services, the language order is indicated by the abbreviation “FR/EN/DE...LUX”, where French, English, and German are prioritised and Luxembourgish appears last. The ellipsis (“...”) here signifies that Luxembourgish follows the preceding languages, marking its position at the end of the hierarchy. In research, English is identified as the primary language (“EN#1”), with French and German following (“FR/DE...”). Here, Luxembourgish is placed after French and German but before English. The ellipsis indicates that English is the last language in the ordering and that Luxembourgish occupies a middle place.

In the educational process, following the legal requirements for multilingualism, all programmes include a minimum of two teaching languages. The selection of teaching languages for a study programme is influenced by the needs of the job market and the specific academic discipline (Multilingualism Policy, 2020). Within each programme, courses are assigned one or more of the programme's teaching languages. These languages may include any of those designated languages. Therefore, not all courses are taught in the same language(s), as the language(s) can vary across courses.

One such example can be seen in the Bachelor of Psychology, which lists German, French, and English as the languages of instruction. However, a closer look at the study plan reveals that the language of instruction for the mandatory course « Biopsychologie » is German. In contrast, the mandatory course « Psychologie de la personnalité et différentielle » is to be taught in both German and French, while « Méthodologie de recherche » lists all three languages (German, French, English) as its languages of instruction (see Table 33).

Course title	Teaching language(s)
Module obligatoire A1 : Psychologie générale (Allgemeine Psychologie)	DE, FR
Module obligatoire A2 : Psychologie sociale (Sozialpsychologie)	DE
Module obligatoire A4 : Psychologie de la personnalité et différentielle (Persönlichkeits- und Differentielle Psychologie)	FR
Module obligatoire B3 : Méthodes expérimentales (Experimentalmethodik)	DE, FR, EN
Module optionnel E3 : Autres champs d'application (Weitere Anwendungsfelder)	EN, FR

*Table 33: Teaching languages per course, example from the Bachelor of Psychology.*

Although different courses within a single programme may have distinct designated languages of instruction, the multilingual approach is attained by requiring students to obtain at least 20% of the ECTS credits in each language of instruction (Multilingualism Policy, 2020). In addition to that, language-related objectives are integrated into the learning objectives of study programmes, aligning multilingualism with students' future career prospects (see Table 30). Notably, 10 out of the 18 study programmes include at least one learning objective that is focused on preparing students for their future careers. These objectives emphasise the ability to communicate ideas, express oneself in professional settings, engage in discussions in specific languages, and collaborate within multilingual teams. Indicatively, one of the learning objectives of the Bachelor in Law is for students to be able to work and communicate with colleagues from around the world in French and English. Similarly, the bachelor programme in accounting and finance requires students to be able to prepare and present accounting documents in a multilingual context. The Bachelor of Educational Sciences and the Bachelor en Enseignement Musical place a strong emphasis on equipping students with the skills to teach using plurilingual and multicultural approaches, thereby preparing future teachers to integrate such practices into their own teaching.

The aforementioned objectives are listed separately for each bachelor programme, under the section « Contenu, objectifs et acquis d'apprentissage » as competencies that graduates are expected to have acquired upon completion of the respective programme. The naming of this section suggests an approach oriented towards the outcome, with a strong emphasis on equipping students for their future professional roles. In other words, the focus is placed on what graduates will be able to achieve rather on their individual experiences.

Unlike the Appendix of the Study Regulations, which prioritises formal requirements, the Pedagogical Charter highlights the university's strength in its diverse disciplinary and academic cultures (« forte de sa diversité de cultures disciplinaires et académiques »,

Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 3), presenting this diversity as a source of pride and a key asset in fulfilling its mission. This document often personifies the university, emphasising its role in promoting an environment in which this diversity supports learning and growth through flexible curricula that accommodate student diversity. According to the Pedagogical Charter, study programmes are designed to enable students to develop expertise in a field as well as to encourage critical thinking and reflection on their personal aspirations and societal needs. In this respect, the university's ultimate aim is to make students "positive agents of change, who can foster social dialogue, across cultural differences, or negotiate economic or political relations" (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 5).

Language requirements specified for each bachelor programme are found in the 'Access and Admission' section of the Appendix of the Study Regulations. That section outlines the language proficiency levels that applicants must meet in order to be eligible for admission (see Table 30). Assessed based on the CEFR, the required levels vary by programme, ranging from A2 to C1. Importantly, A2 proficiency is only required in the Bachelor of European Cultures for the third language in each strand and in the Bachelor in Nursing, for English as the third language. By contrast, candidates for the Bachelor in Psychology must demonstrate C1 proficiency in German, while those in the Bachelor in European Cultures need C1 proficiency in the language corresponding to their chosen strand. The same level of proficiency is required for English in the Bachelor en Enseignement musical, while the Bachelor in Educational Sciences and the Bachelor in Medicine both require C1 proficiency in German and French.

When it comes to B1 and B2 proficiency levels, the requirements primarily focus on English and French. For example, the Bachelor in Management, as well as the bachelor programmes in Physics, Mathematics, and Applied Informatics, require B2 proficiency in English and B1 proficiency in French. For the Bachelor of Engineering, B2 proficiency in German and B1 proficiency in French are required. For the Philosophy strand of the Bachelor in European Cultures, B1 proficiency is required in one of the three languages (English, French, or German). These varied requirements reflect the diverse linguistic demands of each programme, ensuring that students are equipped with the necessary language skills for their academic and professional success.

Nonetheless, some programmes, such as the Bachelor of Nursing, have exceptions regarding language proficiency. According to the relevant section in the Appendix of the Study Regulations, students who do not meet the required level of language proficiency at the time of application must achieve it before completing the programme in order to successfully complete it and obtain their degree.

On the same matter, the Multilingualism Policy clearly defines the language qualifications expected of teachers. During the recruitment process, the policy emphasises the importance of being aware of the university's multilingual profile. According to the relevant excerpt teachers « doit maîtriser la langue anglaise » (Politique du multilinguisme, 2020, p. 5) as well as proficiency in either French or German. The same document also encourages teachers to learn a third language and provides access to language courses to support this objective. These requirements ensure that the teachers' profiles reflect the university's multilingual character.

The aforementioned language requirements for students and teachers also reflect the distinct roles assigned to the university's four working languages. These roles are shaped by the status of each language, as national, legal, or academic, as well as by the disciplinary focus of a programme (Multilingualism Policy, 2020). Beyond these four languages, the Bachelor in European Cultures is the only one referencing Portuguese and Italian as examples of languages that could be included within courses. The focus on the four university languages is also evident in the languages used for teaching. French is included in all 18 programmes, English in 16 and German in nine. Luxembourgish is included among the teaching languages in programmes related to education (Bachelor in Educational Sciences and Bachelor en Enseignement Musicale) and in the Luxembourgish strand of the Bachelor in European Cultures.

A dual approach is found among policy documents regarding language requirements. The Appendix of the Study regulations and the Multilingualism Policy adopt a more prescriptive stance, naming languages and specifying proficiency levels. On the other hand, the Pedagogical Charter adopts a broader, more institution centred perspective. It presents the university as an active agent and characterises the learning environment as inherently multilingual and international. Rather than naming specific languages, the Pedagogical Charter refers more generally to bilingual and multilingual study programmes, highlighting diversity and multilingualism as defining features of the university's profile and mission. However, there is one exception in this document where English is referred to as « la langue internationale des sciences » (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 5), subtly acknowledging its dominant role in global academic discourse.

The contrast between formal requirements and broader institutional values suggests that languages at the University of Luxembourg are both admission criteria and crucial components of its identity and pedagogical approach. Considering the importance that policy documents place on multilingualism and diversity, the last section further explores the institutional measures taken to support the two.

#### 4.1.2.3 Institutional Measures to Support Multilingualism and Linguistic Diversity

Multilingualism and diversity are consistently presented as fundamental to the university's mission and identity across the policy documents examined. In fact, the Multilingualism Policy explicitly states that multilingualism « doit promouvoir l'inclusion » (Politique du multilinguisme, 2020, p. 1), reinforcing its role as a pedagogical and social commitment. To promote multilingualism and diversity, the institutional policy documents outline a range of measures aimed at supporting staff and students. Such measures include, among others, courses in multiple languages, targeted support services, and flexible curricula. These initiatives will be further explored in the next paragraphs through excerpts from the subthemes 'Infrastructural support for language and diversity' and 'Pedagogical practices'.

As set out in the Appendix to the Study Regulations, all bachelor programmes at the university are either bilingual or multilingual (see Table 30). To enhance students' linguistic skills and intercultural competence, all bachelor programmes incorporate a mandatory semester abroad, broadening students' exposures to different linguistic and academic environments. This multilingual approach is further strengthened through collaborative partnerships with neighbouring universities. For example, the Bachelor in Physics is offered jointly with the University of Lorraine in Nancy and Saarland University in Germany.

Additionally, study programmes are designed to accommodate language proficiency by allowing students to select courses based on the teaching languages. According to the Multilingualism Policy, students must earn at least 20% of their ECTS credits in each of the programme's designated teaching languages. This ensures that students actively engage with multiple teaching languages throughout their studies potentially developing stronger multilingual skills in the process. At the same time, it gives students the option to choose courses based on their language preferences.

Regarding teachers, the Pedagogical Charter encourages them "to innovate and find ever-new ways of making knowledge accessible to diverse groups of students" (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 5). This call for innovation highlights the critical need for teachers to adapt their instructional approaches in response to the varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds present in the classroom. Specifically, the Pedagogical Charter underscores the importance of flexible curricula that encourage interdisciplinarity, cross-disciplinarity and engagement with "local stakeholders" (Pedagogical Charter, 2018, p. 4), also ensuring the university's relevance with its national context. In addition to these, the Pedagogical Charter recognises the benefits of collaboration and peer learning, particularly among individuals with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Through such practices, the Pedagogical Charter aims to promote

exchange and dialogue and ensure that diversity becomes a strength rather than a barrier to academic success.

Beyond pedagogical practices, the university provides resources to help teachers and students navigate this multilingual academic environment. Mentioned in the ROI, the University of Luxembourg Language Centre (ULLC) holds primary responsibility for providing support for the learning of languages. In this context, the ULLC offers academic language courses in the four university languages as well as some other languages, such as Italian and Portuguese. Some of these language courses are integrated into study programmes allowing students to obtain ECTS credits upon successful completion. Additionally, the ULLC collaborates with the National Institute of Languages (INLL) to offer general language courses to teachers and students, further enhancing linguistic proficiency.

The measures outlined above further demonstrate the university's framing of multilingualism as a core element of its institutional identity, alongside attempts to address the challenges it presents. From the five documents examined, the Pedagogical Charter stands out for its emphasis on diversity, exchange, and interaction, promoting inclusive and innovative teaching practices. This document is grounded on broad educational principles such as respect, innovation, dialogue, and exchange, framing learning at this university as a collaborative and dynamic process.

Nevertheless, while the Pedagogical Charter encourages inclusive teaching practices and promotes concepts like collaboration and innovation, these remain abstract. Moreover, the pedagogical vision it articulates is not consistently found across the other policy documents analysed, which tend to assign single languages to particular functions. Unlike those documents, which outline language requirements for academic programmes, the Pedagogical Charter offers little concrete guidance on how teachers should translate its principles into practices.

This duality raises questions about the coherence and applicability of the university's multilingual vision. Furthermore, the absence of mechanisms for the systematic review or revision of the documents raises questions regarding their adaptability in this evolving academic context. Taken together, these gaps point to the need for further investigation into how the university's community perceives and operationalises multilingualism, particularly in relation to the lived experiences of teachers and students in the educational process.

With that in mind, the next part of the Data Analysis chapter will draw on insights from teachers and students to shed light on the impact of the university's language policy framework.

## 4.2 Teachers and Students' Perspectives

The second part of the Data analysis chapter turns to the educational process examining data collected from teachers and undergraduate students. This section addresses the second research question with its subquestions focusing on teachers and students' experiences with multilingualism and linguistic diversity, as well as the practices they employ in the educational process at the University of Luxembourg.

This part of the analysis draws on data from 13 semistructured interviews with teachers, complemented by insights from undergraduate students collected through an online survey and two focus group discussions. A total of 68 students from the three faculties of the university completed the online survey and seven of these respondents participated in the focus groups, providing deeper personal experiences and perspectives on selected survey topics. Data is analysed using reflexive thematic analysis to identify recurring patterns. Selected excerpts, chosen for their richness and relevance, are presented alongside analytical comments based on the appraisal framework, to allow for a deeper exploration of how teachers and students evaluate their experiences, express their attitudes, and construct their ideologies relating to multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning. This part of the Data analysis chapter is structured around the identified themes and subthemes and is grounded in the analytical approaches.

The sections also include quotes and examples from the data to illustrate key points. These excerpts are presented in the original language and are included in double quotation marks to distinguish them from the rest of the text. In order to preserve the accuracy and authenticity of individuals' utterances, excerpts are included as collected in terms of the spelling, wording and punctuation "even if the source is incorrect" (APA, 2020, p. 287) and with the transcription symbols. If grammatical or lexical irregularities affect the clarity of the message, a correction is provided in square brackets. I also use square brackets to insert words that clarify the text and are considered essential for understanding it, but which do not originate from the individuals quoted.

Throughout this part, I primarily use the terms 'teachers' and 'students' to distinguish between the two groups. To make the distinction clearer, I refer to students who completed the online survey as 'respondents'. As explained in the Methodology chapter, teacher participants are labelled with 'T' followed by their interview code number (e.g. T1). Similarly, student participants in the focus groups are labelled as 'S' followed by their code number (e.g. S1). Lastly, respondents to the survey are labelled as 'Q', followed by their questionnaire code

number indicating the order in which they completed the questionnaire. In order to respect confidentiality and given the small size of the institution, I use the personal pronouns ‘they/them/their’ throughout the analysis. This ensures anonymity, emphasising that the focus of the analysis is on the content of what individuals say rather than their gender.

#### 4.2.1 Insights from Teachers and Undergraduate Students

Data from teachers and undergraduate students was initially analysed using reflexive thematic analysis. This analysis, which was conducted on data collected from the semistructured interviews, the open-ended survey questions and the focus group discussions, resulted in the following four overarching themes: 1) societal and national context, 2) perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity, 3) participating teachers and students, and 4) institutional identity and structure. Some of these themes have been further divided into more specific subthemes, that reflect patterns, experiences, and perspectives relating to the research questions.

The coding process for this data set resulted in 2,289 coded segments. Table 34 presents the distribution and frequency of coded segments across each research method for data collection and thematic category:

Theme	Interviews	Open-ended survey questions	Focus groups	Total	
1.Societal and national context	50	6	29	85	4%
2. Perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity					
2.a. Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity	287	87	113	487	32%
2.b. Implications of multilingualism and diversity	84	139	23	246	
3. Participating teachers and students					
3.a. Reflections on the present research	39	1	4	44	28%
3.b. Use of tools/apps/AI	57	0	21	78	
3.c. Pedagogical practices and strategies	131	2	60	193	
3.d. Linguistic repertoire and profile	218	36	73	327	
4. Institutional identity and structure	33	14	13	60	36%
4.a. University members' profile	142	10	32	184	
4.b. Infrastructural support for language and diversity	43	8	44	95	
4.c. Specificities per discipline	73	2	21	96	
4.d. Learning objectives and future career	24	14	13	51	
4.e. Language use	191	26	33	250	
4.f. Language policy and requirements	77	1	15	93	

Table 34: Distribution of coded segments in interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus groups.

As illustrated in Table 34, the subtheme ‘conceptualisations of language, multilingualism and diversity’ is predominant, accounting for 487 coded segments across the data set. The second most coded segments pertain to the linguistic repertoire and profile of the participating teachers and students, with a total of 327 coded segments. The subthemes ‘language use’ and ‘implications of multilingualism and diversity’ are addressed in 250 and 246 coded segments, respectively.

When considered within the broader context, the segments of text with the highest number of assigned codes are those classified under the theme of ‘institutional identity and structure’, accounting for 36% of the data. The second most frequently coded category is ‘perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity’, which accounts for 32% of the data.

This distribution is visually represented in the code portraits of Figure 29, Figure 30, and Figure 31, which were generated by MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021). Each portrait comprises 1,600 small squares that offer a visual overview of the distribution of themes across each data set. Each square represents a portion of the coded text; segments that were not coded are excluded from these visualisations. The squares reflect the sequence and frequency of the coded passages within the text. The portraits are read horizontally, from left to right, with each square representing a portion of the coded text. When multiple codes overlap in the same segment, MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021) automatically blends their colours, creating shades such as purple from overlapping blue and pink codes.



Figure 29: Code portrait of the semistructured interviews, produced in MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021).

The code portrait for the semistructured interviews with teachers (Figure 29) provides a visual summary of the thematic distribution across the full data set. Figure 29 combines all 13 interviews into one representation to identify patterns and tensions within this group as a whole. The largest part of the portrait, accounting for approximately 40% of the of the 1,449 coded segments, is made up of green coded segments representing the theme ‘Institutional identity and structure’. This theme, which contains the most subthemes, is spread across the portrait, indicating its relevance throughout nearly all interviews.

The second most prominent theme, ‘Participating teachers and students’, is marked in orange and comprises around 30% of the portrait. The pink theme ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity’, covers around 26% of the portrait. Although this theme only includes two subthemes, one of these is the subtheme ‘Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism and diversity’, which contains the highest number of coded segments (287).

Lastly, the blue coded segments of the ‘Societal and national context’ theme are less frequent, with only 50 coded segments in total. However, the majority of these blue segments appear prominently in an interview that extensively covers the Luxembourgish context, resulting in a cluster of blue squares.

Figure 29 also shows frequent overlap between pink and green coded segments, and occasionally with blue ones. This reflects the interconnectedness of teachers’ perceptions of language, multilingualism, and diversity, with discussions around the institution. Conversely, orange segments tend to be distinct from the green ones, suggesting that teachers mostly speak separately about personal experiences and institutional matters.



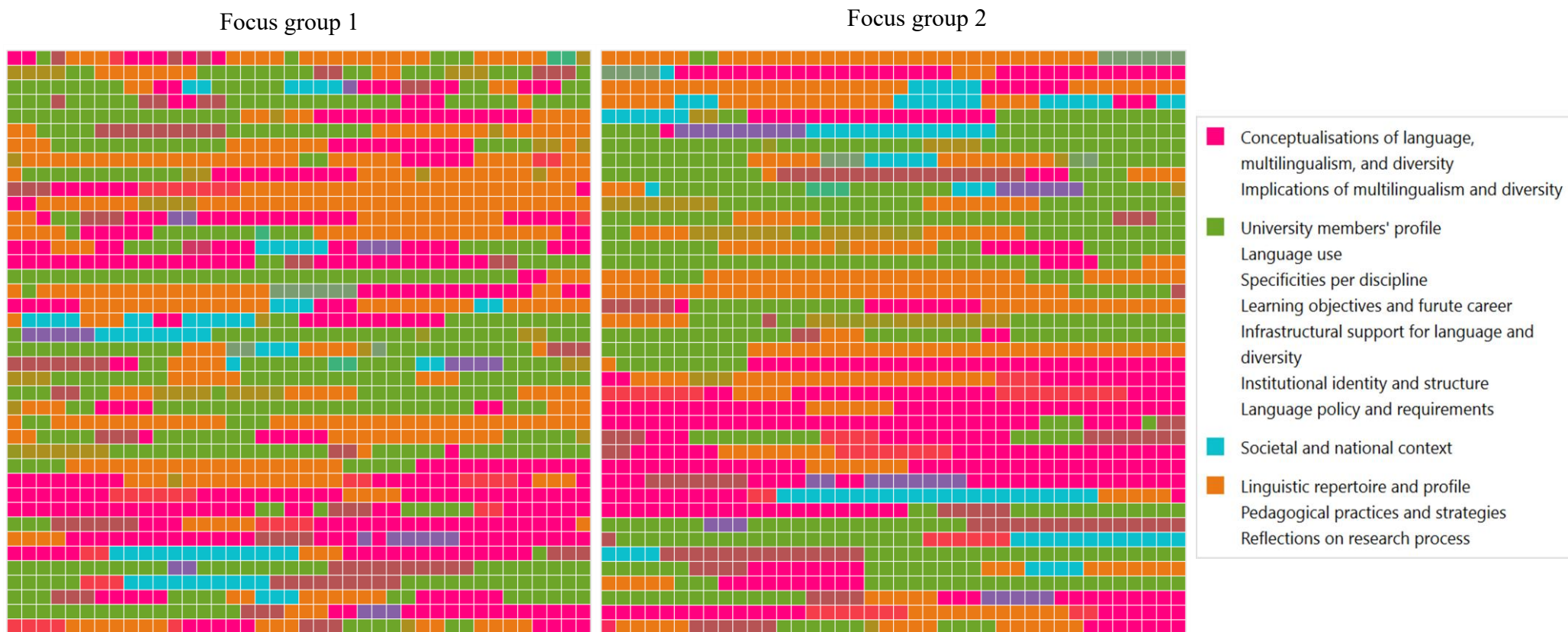
Figure 30: Code portrait of the open-ended survey questions, produced in MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021).

Figure 30 shows the coded segments derived from the open-ended survey responses. The portrait reveals a clear separation of themes, with minimal overlap between coded segments, and each colour largely appearing in distinct sections. This pattern reflects the open-ended questions included in the data set, which asked students to describe the institution using three words, to share additional comments, and to discuss the opportunities and challenges they may face.

Consequently, the theme ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity’, coded in pink, dominates the portrait, accounting for around 65% of the coded segments (226 out of the 346). These responses typically address students’ views and attitudes towards linguistic diversity, as well as their experiences at the university.

The second most frequent theme is ‘Institutional identity and structure’, coded in green, which includes 75 segments and is mainly linked to responses on language use, and learning objectives, as well as references to the profiles of other university members. Green segments are found in two areas: in the middle of the portrait, where students responded to the ‘three words/phrases’ question, and at the end, where respondents provided additional comments, often reflecting on broader issues related to language use at the university.

The theme ‘Participating teachers and students’, coded in orange, accounts for 11% of the portrait and reflects respondents’ linguistic profiles. The least frequent segments are the blue ones, from the theme ‘Societal and national context’, making up only 2% of the portrait and appearing in the responses of five individuals. Blue segments usually overlap with pink ones and express personal opinions on the influence of language and language use in the Luxembourgish context. By contrast, the limited instances of overlap between pink and green segments imply that certain respondents associate personal perceptions with structural or institutional aspects of language use. This highlights the connection between individual experience and broader policy or institutional identity.



*Figure 31: Code portraits of the focus groups, produced in MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021).*

The last portrait in Figure 31 presents the coded segments from the two focus group discussions. This portrait reveals two patterns, reflecting variations in the direction and dynamics of the conversations across the two groups. The portrait document for the first focus group, is dominated by green and orange coded segments, representing the themes ‘Institutional identity and structure’ and ‘Participating teachers and students’ respectively. This suggests that the discussion in this group centred on language in the institutional context, language policies, and disciplinary practices. It also considered how students’ own linguistic profiles and repertoires shape their learning experiences.

In contrast, the portrait of the second focus group is dominated by green and pink coded segments. This indicates a shift in focus towards ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity’, alongside the theme ‘Institutional identity and structure’. This shows how the students in the two groups approached the discussion differently, with the first group focusing more on personal experiences and linguistic backgrounds and the second one engaging more critically with broader ideological and conceptual perceptions of multilingualism and language use.

The blue theme ‘Societal and national context’ is relatively minor overall, accounting for just 6% of the coded segments. However, this theme appears more prominently in the second focus group. This may be explained as two of the four students in that group identify as Luxembourgers and explicitly discuss the national language and its influence on university life.

Overall, Figure 31 shows that data from the two focus groups has a balanced thematic distribution. The green theme ‘Institutional identity and structure’ comprises 35% of the coded segments. The theme ‘Participating teachers and students’, in orange, comprises 32% of the portrait, while the theme ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism and identity’, in pink, accounts for 28%. Notably, the subtheme ‘Conceptualisations of language, multilingualism, and diversity’ contains the highest number of coded segments (113 out of 494) across the entire portrait, suggesting a significant amount of reflective and evaluative discussion among students regarding their engagement with issues of language and diversity. Moreover, the limited overlap between themes, primarily between the green and pink coded segments, indicates that students’ ideological and conceptual reflections on language frequently arise in relation to institutional structures, rather than in connection to their personal linguistic profiles. This points to an understanding of multilingualism and linguistic diversity as not only a personal reality, but also as something shaped and framed by institutional and sociopolitical structures.

Across the three portraits (Figure 29, Figure 30, and Figure 31), patterns emerge that reflect the nature of data sources and the dynamics of individual’s engagement. Precisely, the

portrait derived from the semistructured interviews with teachers (Figure 29) reveals a broad thematic distribution, with coded segments spread throughout the document. This implies that each teacher emphasised different aspects of the topic in their responses. In contrast, the portrait derived from the open-ended survey questions (Figure 30) shows a strong dominance of pink coded segments under the theme ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism, and diversity’. This pattern is influenced by the survey items, which asked students to explicitly reflect on their experiences, challenges, and views, demonstrating a clear alignment between responses and the structure of the survey questions. The code portrait forms the focus groups (Figure 31) presents a different pattern. Figure 31 shows that themes appear to be concentrated in distinct sections, suggesting that group dynamics and the flow of discussion shaped the emergence and dominance of particular themes. The colour transitions across the portrait reflect the progression of the discussion, with students building on each other’s ideas. This portrait highlights how the interactive format of focus groups can influence engagement with certain topics, which are often shaped by shared experiences or differing perspectives.

Despite of the different patterns observed across the code portraits, a recurrent overlap between the themes ‘Institutional identity and structure’ marked in green and the theme ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity’ marked in pink, suggests a possible connection between how individuals conceptualise language, multilingualism and diversity and how they perceive the institutional context. This overlap may indicate that individual perspectives are not formed in isolation, but they are partly shaped by policy structures and institutional frameworks.

Although informative for the analysis, the code portraits of the three data sets do not fully capture individuals’ narratives and are better understood alongside a more detailed qualitative interpretation. I therefore proceed with the analysis of this data set using the themes that emerged through reflexive thematic analysis.

The analysis of the data is organised into four sections, which are guided by the themes that emerged from the reflexive thematic analysis. The first section explores how language is used in different fields and disciplines, the relationship between these language choices, learning objectives and students’ future career, and the influence of institutional policies on decisions regarding the language of instruction. Drawing primarily from the theme ‘Institutional identity and structure’, and particularly the subthemes ‘Specificities per discipline’, ‘Learning objectives and future career’, ‘Language use’, and ‘Language policy and requirements’, this section addresses the overarching Research Question 2 (RQ2) concerning the experience of teachers and students in this multilingual academic context more broadly.

While the main focus remains on institutional and pedagogical dynamics, excerpts from the theme ‘Societal and national context’ are also included where relevant to illustrate how broader societal factors occasionally influence individuals’ perspectives on language use within the university.

The second section, ‘Teaching and Learning Practices in Linguistically Diverse Classrooms’ shifts to the reported teaching and learning practices and strategies that teachers and students use to navigate the multilingual environment. This section includes excerpts from the subthemes ‘Pedagogical practices’ and ‘Use of tools/apps/AI’ to explore how individuals adapt their teaching and learning through linguistic, instructional, and technological strategies.

The chapter moves on to consider the implications of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process. Drawing on excerpts related to teachers and students’ perspectives on multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process, this section explores the implications of these phenomena. Based on the themes ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity’ and its subthemes, as well as on the theme ‘Reflections on the present research, this section explores how linguistic diversity is perceived, opportunities and challenges it presents, and its influence on teaching and learning. The findings from this section address research questions RQ2.1 and RQ2.2, which examine the opportunities and challenges reported by participating teachers and students.

The last section addresses teachers and students’ reflections on the institutional support available for managing multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the university. Drawing on the theme ‘Infrastructural support for language and diversity’, the section explores the measures and the suggestions put forward by teachers and students to improve the university’s support for linguistic diversity in teaching and learning.

Excerpts under the themes ‘University members’ profile’ and ‘Linguistic repertoire and profile’ are excluded from the main analysis, since they focus primarily on issues that lie outside the immediate scope of the educational process at the university. Specifically, the theme ‘University members’ profile’ includes reflections on interpersonal relationships with colleagues or professional groups to which individuals belong; it does not directly address the dynamics of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning. Similarly, the theme ‘Linguistic repertoire and profile’ contains accounts of participating individuals’ personal linguistic backgrounds. This subtheme is not covered in depth in the aforementioned sections; however, references to individuals’ linguistic profiles are selectively integrated where necessary to contextualise their perspectives and experiences relating to language use, policy or pedagogical practices. This ensures that the analysis remains focused on the institutional,

pedagogical and personal aspects of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in this academic setting.

As mentioned in the beginning of the Data Analysis chapter, this part includes selected excerpts that are relevant for exploring how individuals engage with multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg. The excerpts are accompanied by analytical comments informed by the appraisal framework, which allow to further explore how teachers and students evaluate their experiences and express attitudes towards multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning. To provide a broader view of the data, each section includes a comprehensive table mapping appraisal in excerpts relevant to the corresponding themes. These tables categorise individuals' expressions of attitude, specifically focusing on affect, judgement, and appreciation, as well as engagement and graduation in their discourse.

Lastly, to complement the analysis, the sections include graphs and statistical data. The visualisations and percentages presented are based on data from participating teachers and students. As such, they are not intended to be representative of the wider population and should not be interpreted as generalisable findings or normative claims. Instead, they provide insight into the specific profiles and perceptions of this small group of teachers and students and should be understood as contextual rather than definitive.

#### 4.2.1.1 “I want to understand better the reality in which I work”–Language Reality in Teaching and Learning at the University of Luxembourg

The first section of the data analysis starts with a comment made by one of the teachers, who expresses the desire to understand the linguistic environment at the university. This section draws on excerpts from the theme ‘Institutional identity and structure’ and subthemes ‘Specificities per discipline’, ‘Learning objectives and future career’, ‘Language use’, and ‘Language policy and requirements’ to examine the use of language across various academic disciplines, with a particular focus on the selection of languages, the frequency of their use, the factors that influence these decisions, and the alignment of language use with course curricula.

In addressing questions about the language(s) used in instruction, the majority of teachers (eight out of the 13) place a high priority on the requirements of the specific discipline and the audience. In fact, teachers frequently attribute their choice of language in lectures to the teaching material. An example of this can be seen in the interview with teacher T2, who, throughout the interview, emphasises the importance of aligning the teaching language(s) with the primary resources and course content. They use the phrase “linked to the source” to describe

the teaching language. In this case, German is mostly used because the approach to energy efficiency and building in Luxembourg is German-based.

Teacher T13, who teaches in computer studies, states that “teaching is definitely English” which is “the standard language more or less”. Even though “here and there [in computer studies they] have courses in French or German [...] ninety nine percent is English because the terminology is in English”. The two phrases reflect an evaluative stance about the necessity of English in computer science. This teacher highly graduates the use of English in teaching which they present as undebatable using the adverb ‘definitely’. They also attribute the almost absolute (‘ninety nine percent’) use of English over French and German in the field of computer science to practical reasons and the existence of established terminology in English.

The experience of teacher T1, teaching at the Bachelor of Physics, is very similar. According to them, “during the courses it’s really only English” with “the textbook the notes the lecture notes the exercises and everything” in English because this is “the general language in [the] field”. This teacher uses the phrase ‘really only’ and enumerates the various course materials, thereby articulating a strong monoglossic perspective that leaves no room for alternative interpretations. Their perspective also establishes English as the dominant language in the field.

Teaching in the strand of philosophy, at the Bachelor of European Cultures, teacher T4 shares their challenging experience to find material in French. Even though the course “was meant to be taught in English” following the course curriculum, this teacher shares their “hope” to have material in both English and French. This shows a highly graduated positive evaluation on their desire to include bilingual sources. However, teacher T4 expresses their disappointment with the phrase “that didn’t work out” as they “actually couldn’t find the literature in French”. This challenge led them to using “English for active teaching” which suggests a practical but not ideal solution that made them follow a more pragmatic approach.

Other teachers connect the teaching language(s) to the importance of effective classroom communication and ensuring that students fully understand the content. Views on prioritising audience and effective communication, are primarily expressed by teachers affiliated with the FSTM (five out of eight). Notably, four out of the five are in the 60–69 age group and have been at the university since its very beginnings, in 2003, suggesting that a long career at the university may have influenced their point of view. Additionally, two out of the eight teachers who prioritise students’ understanding and adjust their language use according

to the audience are affiliated with the FSHE, one of whom has also been at the university since 2003.

In Example 6, teacher T9 prioritises the audience and appears to be flexible by using language « au fur et à mesure ». Precisely, this teacher states that:

(6) « je verrai la population de des cours↑ s'il s'agit seulement de luxembourgeois↑ je verrai en luxembourgeois s'il y a un allemand↑ OU quelqu'un qui comprenne l'allemand↑ et pas le luxembourgeois je le ferai en allemand↑ s'il y a quelqu'un qui comprenne seulement le français↑ je le ferai en français↑ et :: si il y a les français ET l'allemand ou quelqu'un ne comprend pas la langue de l'autre je le ferais en anglais↓ ».

In Example 6 from teacher T9, the use of first-person singular leaves out alternative perspectives and focuses on the person's own approach to language choice in teaching. The repeated use of « je verrai » and « je ferai » functions as an intensifier that strengthens the individual's point. Additionally, the use of the conditional « si » is associated with the individual's flexibility and willingness to adapt to the audience. Finally, the ordering of languages with Luxembourgish being the first and English being the last one, shows the openness and adaptability of the teacher who will use English even though it is framed as the last option.

Similarly, teacher T3 relates language use in their engineering courses to the characteristics of the audience. During the interview, teacher T3 repeats twice that « tout dépend des étudiants ». The use of « tout dépend » implies that language use in their courses is highly dependent on the context and that there exists no overarching framework or structure to govern language use. The uncertainty of the situation is intensified in the phrase « c'est vraiment imprévisible », with the use of « vraiment » that also evaluates the situation.

Teacher T4 agrees with the above views, explaining that effective communication is more important than language proficiency (“we are not a language program↓ so you (.) for US the important thing is that you would be able to express yourself clearly↑ the thoughts that you have on the political science aspects”). This excerpt by teacher T4 constitutes judgement to the nature of their discipline, political science, by emphasising that the primary goal is not language proficiency but the ability to communicate effectively thoughts on the subject matter. Furthermore, this teacher highly values students' ability to articulate their ideas clearly, prioritising content understanding.

Teacher T7 also highlights the importance of subject knowledge over linguistic skills (“I’m not testing the linguistic SKILLS↑ I’m testing that knowledge in cellar biology so I’m fine with:: testing in in another language as long as I understand it”). This teacher distinguishes the objectives of their courses from language skills and make clear that language skills are not part of the students’ assessment. With this phrase, teacher T7 positively evaluates subject knowledge in cellar biology over language use.

On the other hand, the four teachers T1, T5, T6, and T11 prioritise the ‘correct’ use of language and adherence to the institutional language policy. These four teachers come from a diverse range of faculties and age groups. Of these, two are affiliated with the FSHE, where they teach in philology, one specialising in German and the other in French. The remaining two are affiliated with the FSTM and the FDEF. Three out of the four teachers are male, and all of them report at least one of the university’s official languages as one of their first languages.

For example, teacher T1 mentions that they prefer to use the language in which they are more comfortable so that “the science [is not] polluted by grammatical mistakes”. In this excerpt, teacher T1 adopts a monoglossic perspective to expresses disinclination towards grammatical errors. Their reference to polluting the message constitutes appreciation for correct use of language when teaching. The choice of words such as ‘polluted’ and ‘spoil’ intensifies their evaluation on grammatical correctness and highly graduate the negative consequences that errors can generate.

For teacher T6, institutional policies play a significant role in determining the language use in class (“now we are in a[n] official course environment↑ and that MEANS Luxembourg off German on”). Individual’s evaluative resources realise judgment of propriety referring to the proper or obligatory switch of languages adhering to the institutional framework (“official course environment”), with the shift to German assigning institutional value to this language. The emphasis placed on ‘means’ as well as the use of ‘on’ and ‘off’ act as intensifiers that imply an automatic switch due to official policies. The same teacher also places strong importance on the use of German, as the official language, by repeating ‘always’ (“the assignments a::re in this process always in german↑ and also the the:: the course language always↑ always in german↑”). This repetition serves to emphasise the consistency and exclusivity in the use of German in their teaching.

Drawing from their personal experience, teacher T10 refers to regulations that stipulate French as the required language of instruction (“by definition due to the due to the regulations that we have at the bachelor of medicine↓”). The tone of their statement remains neutral, yet the use of the phrase ‘by definition’ functions as an intensifier, emphasising the mandatory and

official nature of the language requirement. The appraisal to French language conveys a sense of certainty and authority, positioning the use of French as a non–negotiable standard that derives from the formal policy.

Regarding the teaching language(s), the online survey asked students to what degree they agree with the statement that only the languages listed in course curricula are used in the classroom. To that, over half of the respondents indicated that they agree or strongly agree with the statement, while approximately 25% express disagreement or strong disagreement, as illustrated in Figure 32:

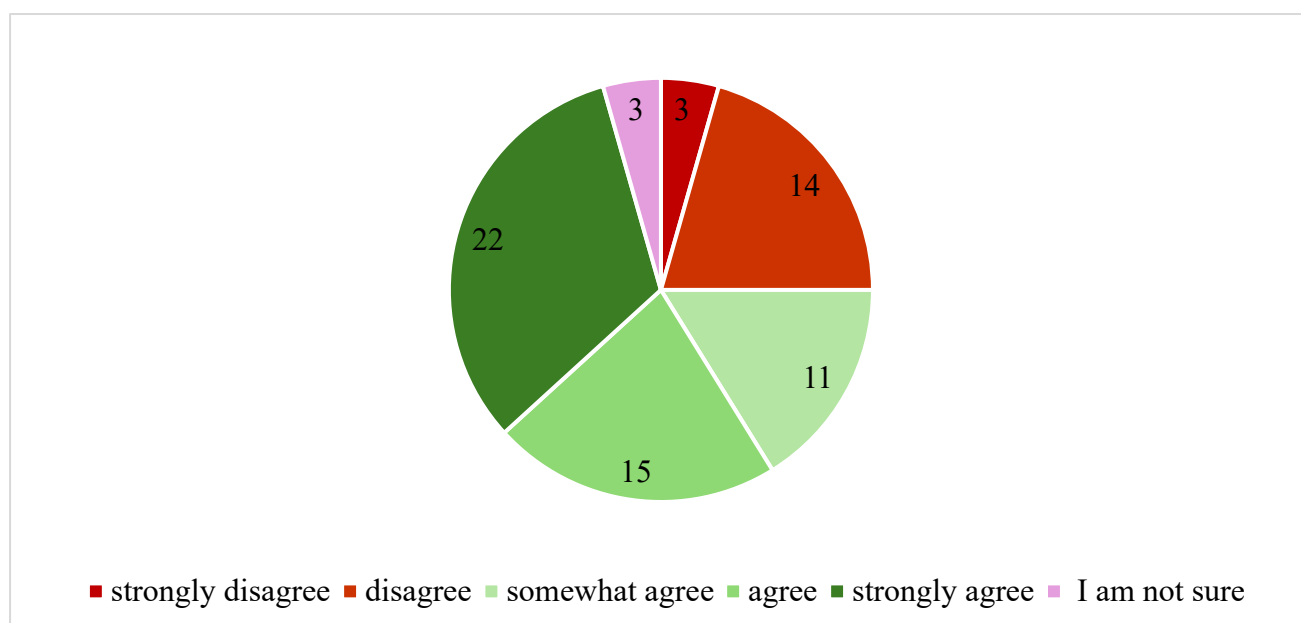


Figure 32: Distribution of responses to question about use of teaching language in class.

The distribution of respondents who express agreement or strong agreement with the statement is found to be uniform across the three faculties. Among these 37 students, 24 are aged between 18 and 20, and the majority (22 out of 37) identify as female. In contrast, those who express disagreement or strong disagreement with the statement, are equally represented among both genders, with seven of the 17 respondents being aged between 18 and 20.

In contrary to the survey responses (see Figure 32), students in the focus groups explain that language choice in lectures depends on teachers. Specifically, in the second focus group discussion, student S5 states that “randomly depending on the professor obviously you have okay this and this and this lecture are in french and this lecture is in English”. Engineering student S5, expresses their uncertainty regarding language use in different courses depending on teachers’ profile and preference. The use of ‘randomly’ serves as judgement resource to the

lack of a consistent and formal framework for language use in class. The use of ‘obviously’ functions as high graduation to the fact that teachers’ profile determines the language of the course. Moreover, this example from student S5 includes an analogy of three lectures in French to one in English, implying that that French is used more in courses than English.

Similar to student’s S5, is the experience of student S1. In the first focus group discussion, student S1 talks about a professor who “has a presentation in French but that course should be in English but he decided to teach in French because he told us that he was lazy to translate the ((S1, S2, S3 laugh)) presentation”. This excerpt includes information about the use of language in this course and reveals teacher’s attitude to the use of multiple languages at the university. This student draws on this course curriculum (“that course should be in English”) to negatively evaluate the teacher’s responsibility and professionalism. This negative judgment is highly graduated with the use of ‘lazy’. The judgement is also stressed with the other students’ laugh. The reaction of students S2 and S3 could indicate sarcasm to the example shared by student S1.

Agreeing with the above, law student S2 explains that language use in class “really DOES depend on them ((teachers)) [...] it also depends on the way they understand the policy”. In this excerpt, student S2 appears to be certain about the statement which they underline with the use of ‘really’ and the emphasis on ‘does’. This excerpt from student S2 includes judgement about language use in lectures as well as dissatisfaction for the lack of a harmonised and universal approach to language use. Student S2 also negatively evaluates the policy implying that its openness to different interpretations makes it less effective.

An exception to these views comes from student S3 during the first focus group. Student S3 recalls an example from a course that was also attended by an English-speaking exchange student. In this example, the teacher never used English but “did the class in English for this one girl [...] and that’s really adapting to the public (h)”. In this excerpt, the student appears critical and employs evaluative resources that constitute negative judgement of the change of language for this one student. The student also appears to be sarcastic and laughs at the end of the excerpt, expressing disapproval about the decision. The contrast between ‘this one girl’ and ‘adapting to the public’ highly graduates this disapproval and could imply that they find the situation illogical.

The language reality in courses is negatively appraised by respondents in the online survey. Specifically, Example 7 from respondent Q66, student of the German strand of the Bachelor in European Cultures, includes evaluative resources of negative judgement for teachers who change teaching languages to respond to fellow students’ complaints:

- (7) „Ich hatte einen Deutsch–Englischkurs gewählt, aber viele Studenten waren aus den English–studies. Diese haben sich dann darüber beschwert, dass zwei der Stunden auf Deutsch gehalten wurden, obwohl das in der Kursbeschreibung angegeben war. Die Seminare wurden daraufhin fast nur auf Englisch gehalten, obwohl es der Kursbeschreibung widersprach“.

In Example 7, respondent Q66 appears dissatisfied and frustrated, and talks about the change of language as an arbitrary choice and a failure to follow the official curriculum. In this example, repetition of the course description („Kursbeschreibung“) as well as the use of „widersprach“ realise negative affect for the inconsistency between the courses. The excerpt also suggests the importance that following the course description has for them.

As in the above example, the use of languages in courses is characterised with “inconsistency” by a computer science student, respondent Q3. A similar example comes from questionnaire Q10 of a student of the French strand from the Bachelor in European Cultures who writes about professors « qui parlaient soudainement en luxembourgeois alors que ce n'est même pas la langue de notre cours ». In this example, the student appears surprised and frustrated with the use of language which differed from the teaching language. Additionally, the use of « n'est même pas » introduces highly graduated negative judgement to teachers' use of language. In this context, the student appears connected with the course (use of first–person possessive form « notre ») and the use Luxembourgish is framed as invading and disrupting the space.

Language use is outlined in students' responses in the online survey. Precisely, students were asked about the frequency of language use across various classroom contexts, including lectures, interactions with professors, oral presentations, writing assignments, and final exams. To answer this question, students were asked to rate how often they use each language in these situations, on a scale ranging from ‘rarely’ to ‘always’. The results are illustrated in Figure 33:

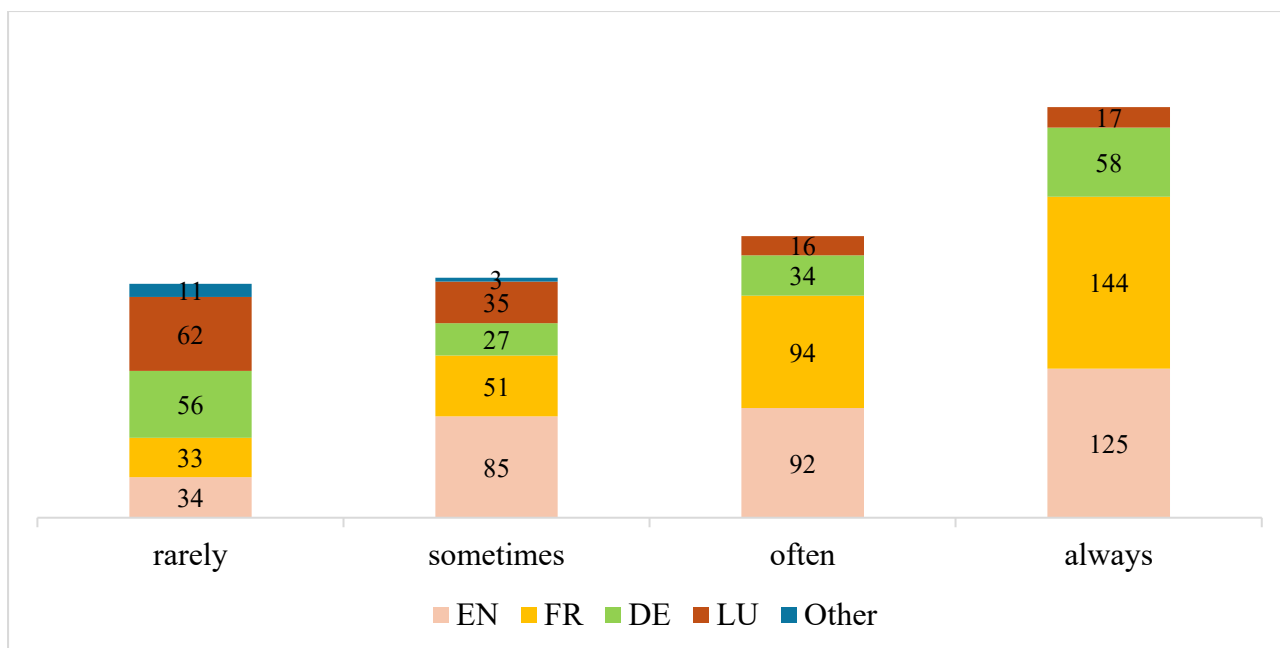


Figure 33: Distribution of students' responses on the frequency and languages they use in the educational process.

Students' responses reveal a tendency for English and French. Specifically, around 45% of respondents indicate that they primarily use English and French in the aforementioned situations, with English and French appearing in approximately 80% of the responses. Among respondents, a total of 20 students reports consistent use of English in their academic pursuits. Of these 20 students, 14 are enrolled in a bachelor's programme at the FSTM, two students are enrolled in a bachelor's programme at the FDEF, and four students are enrolled in a bachelor's programme at the FSHE. Conversely, four students from the FSTM, 15 students from the FDEF, and three students from the FSHE report consistent use of French. It is noteworthy that eight students from the FDEF indicate consistent use of both English and French.

In the same question, German appears in 17% of responses. However, German is identified, along with Luxembourgish, as the language that is rarely used in approximately 64% of the cases. Notwithstanding this general tendency, a small number of students report consistent use of German across various classroom contexts. This group comprises two students from the FSTM and seven students from the FSHE.

Teachers and students' experiences with language use in the educational process reveals important information about the roles and status of languages at the University of Luxembourg, suggesting the presence of hierarchies and imbalances. According to teachers, the roles and statuses of languages in their courses vary depending on the field of study. Notably, nine out of the 13 participating teachers, emphasise the importance of English in academia. Seven teachers

discuss the role and status of French, while German appears in five interviews. Luxembourgish, on the other hand, appears to be a subject of conflicting opinions, as seven of the participating teachers make contradictory points on its status. Other languages, including Portuguese, Spanish, Italian and Arabic, are also mentioned in the interviews, but they are often framed as less significant compared to English, French, German and Luxembourgish.

Similarly, in focus groups and open-ended survey questions, undergraduate students associate different roles to the languages used in the educational process. In data from this group, English appears to be “the most important language here at the university” (student S2) but is often mentioned alongside French, which is the language mostly used in administration (Q34 “the administration does not function in any language other than French”). German and Luxembourgish appear to be comparable in terms of their use, but their respective roles suggest notable distinctions. German is predominantly associated with specific academic disciplines, whereas Luxembourgish is primarily linked to informal, oral interactions. Furthermore, the data collected from students reveal that other languages, principally Italian, appear with significantly less frequency and when mentioned, they are mostly associated with the students’ linguistic profiles.

The frequency with which the relevant words appear in the data can also be considered as an indication of the imbalance to the different roles assigned to languages, as illustrated in Table 35:

	Teachers	Undergraduate students	
	semistructured interviews	focus groups	open-ended survey questions
English	<b>629</b>	160	28
French	592	<b>179</b>	<b>38</b>
German	324	100	23
Luxembourgish	159	53	10
Portuguese	47	6	0
Spanish	23	0	0
Italian	44	17	2

Table 35: Word frequency per language and data set (adapted from MAXQDA).

According to Table 35, English appears to be the language that is mentioned the most by teachers in semistructured interviews. English is also referred to as the “main language” in academia and the “language of the research community” (teacher T2). In expressing this view,

teacher T2 uses evaluative resources that convey normality establishing English as the prevailing language in the field. The use of the term ‘main’ contributes to high graduation for the role and status of the English language.

In a similar manner, teacher T8 offers a highly graduated evaluation of English as “becoming the dominant” language, expressing a high degree of certainty regarding this assertion (“no doubt about it”). These phrases also establish the normal status and power that goes with English. Indeed, the term ‘dominant’ itself shows a high degree of prevalence, superiority and sense of control over others. The initial phrase uses ‘becoming’, which suggests gradual evolution of the situation and an eventual predominance of English. The aforementioned statement is reinforced by the phrase ‘no doubt about it’, which shows the teacher’s certainty and confidence regarding the issue.

For teacher T1, the predominance of English in the field of physics makes it impossible to pursue a career in the subject without proficient English language skills (“I’m saying for physics is that if you want to get a career in physics↑ you HAVE to speak english there’s just no other way around it↓”). In their statement, teacher T1 establishes a strong link between English proficiency and professional accomplishment. With their phrasing, teacher T1 expresses their personal perspective as an indisputable fact. The emphasis placed on ‘have’ in this excerpt adds to the intensity of the phrase and serves to reinforce this teacher’s argument.

The dominance of English is explained by teachers in various ways. Teacher T12, maintains a very positive stance towards English when it comes to finding sources (“it’s no no problem at all to find sources in english↓”). In this phrase, teacher T12 describes the easiness and accessibility that goes with the English language when it comes to finding sources. The use of ‘at all’ suggests low graduation that goes with ‘no problem’ making the statement stronger and reassuring regarding any difficulties.

Teacher T10 expresses similar positive reaction to the accessibility of English material (“if you take the book in physiology in english↑ it’s something that is much cheaper than the one in french↓”). The word ‘cheaper’ indicates the teacher’s preference to English material, in terms of price, with ‘much’ intensifying the price comparison and adding to the difference of cost between the different versions.

In addition to the dominance and accessibility of English, teacher T8 appraises English as “becoming our second mother tongue”. The evaluative resources used in this phrase realise positive attitude to the shift of English becoming more important. With the use of ‘mother tongue’ this teacher expresses a strong connotation about individuals’ connection to language with an emotional dimension to it. The use of ‘second’ refers to the growing significance of

English that goes very close to the mother tongue. As in the previous paragraph and the example from teacher T10, ‘becoming’ expresses an evolving situation.

Talking about the different languages that staff and students speak at the university, teacher T13 comments on the role of English as “the intersection of all these languages↓”. In this phrase, the teacher reveals their positive attitude to this role of English at the university. Specifically, teacher T13’s lexical choices realise positive appreciation of the richness of languages that exist in the context and to the importance of English as the ‘intersection’. With the phrase ‘all these languages’, this teacher includes all languages with no distinctions, highly graduating their statement.

Although English is the second most frequently mentioned language in students’ data set, student S2 says that “for me it’s like the most important language here at the university”. This excerpt conveys positive evaluation of the role of English, indicating that it holds significant value in the university context. The use of the superlative ‘most’ intensifies the speaker’s valuation of English and shows a high degree of importance. It also conveys highly graduated appreciation for English, as the ‘most important language’, showing its prominence. In addition to these, the use of ‘for me’ constitutes monoglossic engagement showing that the student does not generalise this view but rather that this claim is their personal point of view.

On the contrary, the wide use of English is negatively appraised by maths student, respondent Q14. This student starts with negative appreciation implying an excessive presence of English at the university (“too much of English”). The use of the intensifier ‘too much’ realises disinclination and dissatisfaction to the dominance of English. This view is followed by their second point that “French is underestimated”, implying a correlation between the two. This second phrase suggests that French is not given the value or recognition it deserves, which can also construct negative judgement of the institution. At the same time, the student expresses their appreciation for the social valuation of French. The verb ‘underestimated’ indicates a highly graduated downscaling of the importance of French language. The two phrases show student’s evaluation to the linguistic reality at the university, with English being overly dominant while French is marginalised.

This view of French is reflected in the data from teachers. Compared to English, teacher T8 supports that French is at a loss (“<french mostly is losing I think over english↓>”). This phrasing realises the teacher’s disinclination over the shift that is taking place. The use of ‘is losing’ describes an evolving situation that conveys negative reaction to the situation. The use of ‘mostly’ functions as a modifier to the intensity of the claim and shows that French is losing over English but not in an absolute way. Together with the word ‘mostly’, the phrase ‘I think’

reveals teacher's uncertainty over the situation and implies that it is a personal opinion rather than a fact. Additionally, the slower pace of the excerpt indicates emphasis on its importance.

Teacher T4 expresses their disinclination to French language's status through the phrase "french as a kind of softer second language ehm:: for assignments↓". The use of 'softer' implies the low value that is attributed to the language and the emphasis placed on it is linked to the significance that this teacher attributes to this status. In the same vein, 'second' describes the importance of French in this context as inferior. Considering the extensive use of 'kind of' throughout the interview, it could be seen as an indicator of this teacher's uncertainty who does not present this view as a fact but part of their perspective.

In contrary to the declining status of French reported by some, French is strongly appraised by teachers T2, T4 and T5 as the "legal language in Luxembourg". This phrase constitutes an expression of a fact according to which French's authority is framed as normal. This reference to French also adds to the strong role and official status of the language.

In the field of education, teacher T11 evaluates French language in a different way. Specifically, in their interview, teacher T11 describes French as tainted and only acceptable due to the official policy and demands for the specific programme (the level of french↑ is <somehow contaminated by the german> or luxembourgish language↓), "french is accepted because it's official language↑ and they have to make an education↑ [...] they need french there is a:: ah↑ a lack of↓"). Teacher T11's phrasing constructs disinclination towards the influence of German and Luxembourgish on French. The use of 'somehow' reveals a degree of uncertainty. In the same phrase, the use of 'contaminated' conveys negative judgement for the influence of the two languages on French and a high graduation of this influence. What is more, 'contaminated' implies that French language does not function properly due to its current state. In the second phrase, the same teacher evaluates French as a language that is imposed. The phrase 'French is accepted' shows a pragmatic approach for the use of French in this context realises the individual's negative affect for the factors that determine this choice. However, teacher T11 argues for the necessity of French by referring to the official status of language as well as the "lack of teachers". The use of 'lack' together with 'need' highly graduate their point.

Unlike French, German is phrased to be in an increase compared to its previous status. As teacher T7 explains, in previous decades, the relation of German to the Second World War prevented people from speaking it ("german was in in my time not a very popular language↑", "which had an impact on on my generation↓ we we didn't feel that comfortable in in germany↑"). This teacher maintains a monoglossic stance in both phrases and emphasises the distance between the past and the current generation, with the use of 'my generation' and 'my

time'. By characterising German language as 'not a very popular', teacher T7 constructs negative affect towards the popularity of the language. The use of 'very' in this phrase lowers the graduation of the phrase and implies that the language is somewhat popular. In the second phrase, teacher T7 expresses the discomfort that people have experienced in the past with using German. In this excerpt, the use of 'that' lowers the graduation of the phrase and gives it a more neutral tone.

Teachers also comment on the status of the German language at the university, which they associate with both specific scientific fields and students' future career. For example, teacher T8 expresses a strong view on German being a scientific language ("german IS an academic and scientific language↑ and so is french↑"). By choosing the lexical items 'academic' and 'scientific' for German, this teacher realises positive appreciation of its status, construing it as a legitimate language. Teacher T8 puts German on the same level as French when it comes to their academic status, with the use of 'and so is'. Lastly, the use and emphasis of 'is' adds a reassuring tone to the phrase and shows individual's certainty.

According to teacher T2, civil engineering is "mostly linked to german language and german norms". For teacher T10, students studying medicine "have to learn also the German version of anatomy because if they are going to work in germany they have to understand how they are going to interact with their counterparts". The second example, with the repetitive use of 'have to', is expressed as a fact and introduces highly graduated judgement of students' obligation to learn and use German in their field. This phrase implies the necessity of German in anatomy and an appreciation of the importance of considering the local context and stakeholders.

In contrast, teacher T6's lexical choices construct negative affect for the gradually declining role of German at the university ("all these smaller languages like german ((smiles)) like fading away in in the scientific field↓"). The use of 'smaller' realises the teacher's personal evaluation of German language's status, conveying a sense of reduced significance. This positive expression, marked by the teacher's smile, contrasts with expression 'fading away', which implies a gradual decline in the language's status and relevance, articulated through a subtle tone.

On students' side, German is appraised for its official status, being the language of instruction in disciplines such as engineering and psychology. A relevant example comes from psychology student S4 who comments on the bachelor's welcome day and the exclusive use of German ("nothing it was german german german and again german"). In this excerpt, the repetition of the word 'German' four times realises a strong negative attitude on the part of the

student. This repetition functions as an intensifier, amplifies the perception of linguistic dominance and constructs disinclination. In addition to that, the use of ‘nothing’ at the beginning of the phrase is indicative of student’s frustration with the exclusive use of this language, in which they are not proficient. In this excerpt, the student adopts a monoglossic stance, leaving out alternative voices and maintaining a strong personal viewpoint.

In another example, the Luxembourgish language is framed as less visible and present at the university, eliciting negative affect from teacher T11 (“>well there is also Luxembourgish< but <I don’t find it as present (h)> at university definitely not↓”). In this phrase, teacher T11 shares their individual experience and personal stance, with the use of ‘definitely not’ strengthening their point and expressing certainty. The change of pace during the phrase places emphasis on the absence of Luxembourgish in the context of the university. Moreover, the teacher’s laugh in the middle of the phrase can be considered as an expression of sarcasm for the fact that the national language of the country is not so prominent at the university.

At the same time, teacher T8 who is teaching at the strand of Luxembourgish Language Science and Literature, positively evaluates the importance of Luxembourgish (“Luxembourgish as a scientific language”). Using the adjective ‘scientific’ to characterise the language, teacher T8 evaluates the important status of the language which they distinguish from other languages.

However, a paradox comes up regarding the Luxembourgish language in interviews with teachers T2, T7, and T8. Teacher T7 refers to ‘parallel worlds’, as follows:

- (8) “we have a dual society in luxembourg one speaking luxembourgish↑ and the other one not speaking luxembourgish↓ and they don't meet ((sounds astonished)) they are just they exist in parallel universes (h)”.

In their interview, teacher T7 repeatedly expresses frustration, disappointment and surprise about the dual society that exists, depending on the knowledge or not, of Luxembourgish. With the use of ‘dual society’ and ‘parallel universes’ this teacher evaluates negatively the reality that is divided into two distinct spaces leading to an important social issue. The phrase is highly graduated with the use of ‘parallel’ and ‘don’t meet’ to showcase the lack of interaction. The contrast between the two groups is also enforced with the use of ‘speaking’ and ‘not speaking’.

In contrary to the above view, teacher T2 talks about Luxembourgish as “a point of contact” between French and German. This phrasing realises positive appreciation for Luxembourgish, indicating that teacher T2 values Luxembourgish as a useful language that allows connection and encourages exchange between French and German. The open and flexible nature of Luxembourgish is also appraised by teacher T8. Teaching at the strand of Luxembourgish Language and Literature, teacher T8 constructs a positive appreciation for the adaptable and dynamic nature of the language (“luxembourgish IS a language that constantly borrows from other languages”). The use of ‘constant’ shows high graduation and is connected to the dynamic process of borrowing. The emphasis placed on ‘is’ gives an assertive tone to the phrase and strengthens this teacher’s point.

The same teacher T8 refers to the ongoing process of developing Luxembourgish philology (“we are building up luxembourgish here as a philology”). The phrasing realises appreciation towards Luxembourgish as a language that is worthy of academic status. By using ‘we’ the teacher brings in other voices giving the sense of community that is actively working towards a common aim. Finally, the use of ‘building up’ implies the hard work that is put in place, starting from the bottom and moving upwards.

For student S4, German and Luxembourgish are “kind of roughly the s::ame ((sounds insecure)) as a presence just in a different way”. However, Luxembourgish language in students’ data is frequently associated with oral interactions and appears to have a more informal status at the university. Student S1 shares their experience that “luxembourgish is only spoken like it’s not the official official one”. This excerpt realises a negative appreciation of the Luxembourgish language’s status in practice, as expressed by the student. The use of ‘only spoken’ shows that the language is used in specific instances, thereby diminishing its perceived value and function. The repetition of ‘official’ places emphasis on the student’s point, implying that in practice, Luxembourgish does not function as a dominant or authoritative language. The use of ‘in my experience’ serves as monoglossic engagement and indicates that this observation is derived from the student’s personal experience and thus represents their individual perspective.

However, student S2 notes that the Luxembourgish language “it’s like a pass”, it is necessary for people “to work here↑” and that if the university “want people to stay here we also need to provide them a tool to speak”. For this student, the Luxembourgish language has a practical significance and is a necessary resource for professional integration. In the excerpt, the value of Luxembourgish is evaluated positively as helpful and important. The use of the

conditional ‘if’ constitutes judgement for the responsibility of the university to ensure the inclusion of students by supporting them with learning the language.

In addition to English, French, German and Luxembourgish, six of the teachers refer to other languages that come up during their lectures. Teacher T6’s phrase construct a negative judgement of the Portuguese language’s status at the university (“I’ve had always the impression that ehm:: portuguese is like a little bit a superfluous language↑ in in these discussions↑”). In this phrase, teacher T6 evaluates Portuguese as unnecessary with the use of ‘superfluous’. The use of ‘a little bit’ reduces the graduation of the phrase whereas the use of ‘always’ presents their observation as persisting and continuing. The use of first singular person represents their voice and personal stance, leaving out alternative perspectives.

Italian is mentioned by one of the teachers as the language that is used among students of Italian origin at the programme they teach. Precisely, teacher T4 constructs a positive evaluation of the group of Italian students (“we are quite popular with the italians traditionally (h)”). The use of ‘quite popular’ indicates a positive connotation between the programme and the specific group but not to a high degree. By using ‘traditionally’, this teacher implies a long-lasting relationship between the programme and the group of students with this repeating preference showing mutual respect and trust. Moreover, the use of first plural person reflects the collective experience of the programme’s community.

More broadly, data from teachers and students reveal a tension between the university’s multilingual identity and the linguistic realities experienced by students in classrooms. Although institutional communications and policies emphasise multilingualism as a defining characteristic of the university, student participants describe a predominantly monolingual approach in day-to-day educational practices. This discrepancy appears to be at odds with some of individuals’ profiles, suggesting possible tensions between their backgrounds and the expected norms.

One such example comes from student S5 who self-identifies as a Luxembourger and has followed the Luxembourgish education. Student S5 reflects on their language practices stating that “I can never speak only one there will always be one or two or three words at least or a part of the sentence in one language or in the other one↓”. Lexical choices in their comment realises strong affective stance toward their plurilingual identity. The use of ‘never’ suggests that this language practice is unavoidable to them and that switching is intrinsic to their way of expressing themselves. Additionally, the phrasing ‘one or two or three words’ together with ‘at least’ emphasise the fluidity and the complexity of the language practice, conveying appreciation of the dynamic nature of their plurilingualism. On an implicit level, this excerpt

constructs judgement of institutional norms, challenging the monolingual paradigm followed in the educational process.

The multilingual profile of the university is also a matter of conflict for student S4, who states that even though the University of Luxembourg “said that it is multilingual”, this “actually [is] not true it’s more German language”. In their phrase, student S4 personifies the university and attributes to it the characteristic of talking using the verb ‘said’. The personification of the university constitutes heteroglossic engagement as the institution appears to have its own voice, asserting its multilingual identity. This serves to reinforce the connection between interlocutors and the institution, while also incorporating the voice of the university. The same student evaluates the university negatively, questioning its veracity by claiming that what it says is ‘not true’. The student also contradicts the claim with the use of ‘but actually’, which constitutes high graduation of student’s certainty. To strengthen their argument, student S4 refers to the imbalance with “more German language” which downplays the university’s multilingual character. In this phrase, the use of ‘more’ suggests that the university is not exclusively German, but rather that German language is more dominant than other languages. Overall, the excerpt conveys student’s negative evaluation to the institution’s credibility and downplays the linguistic diversity that is claimed by the university.

Reflecting on the broader language reality at the university, teacher T9 states that they do not notice the linguistic diversity at all at the university (« je ne constate je ne constate PAS la diversité linguistique à l’université↓ je constate une singularité qui est eh :: dirigée vers l’anglais↑ »). With this phrase, teacher T9 expresses strong dissatisfaction regarding the absence of linguistic diversity at the university. The phrase is highly graduated with negative appreciation for the use of English that seems to dominate the context. Additionally, the emphasis placed on negation strengthens the individual’s perception that there is no linguistic diversity at the university. Lastly, the use of first-singular person in a normative way makes the statement a personal observation and opinion, leaving out other perspectives.

The evaluative discourse around the language reality at the university differs among the data from the two groups of human participants (see Table 36). Although both groups engage critically with the university’s multilingual identity, teachers adopt a more authoritative stance, while students’ data include high graduated judgment for the inconsistencies in language use and language policies.

On the one hand, discourses around institutional language policy reveal strong evaluative stance among teachers. Teachers refer to language requirements as externally

imposed (e.g. “by definition due to the regulations we have”). These statements realise high graduation and monoglossic engagement, presenting policy as fixed and absolute. At the same time, excerpts express judgement of the effectiveness and consequences of these policies, as in the example of teacher T11, who critiques the contamination of French by other languages. Other teachers express concern about inequities in how language status affects language use in the educational process, pointing to implicit institutional judgement.

Teachers use affective lexical items to convey desires and preferences, as seen in the example “I want to use a language I’m really comfortable with” from teacher T1. This excerpt conveys positive affect and demonstrates the teacher’s preference in language use, which is influenced by their sense of confidence. In contrary, teacher T12 says that “I don’t want that English becomes our language”, conveying negative affect and a manifestation of resistance or discomfort with perceived language dominance.

When it comes to language choice and use, there are examples from teachers who positively evaluate students’ language choices as attentive and deliberate. For example, teacher T4 mentions that “because they know that I’m German so then they will also use of course these languages like Luxembourgish or German”, suggesting that students make language choices based on the teacher’s linguistic background. Similarly, teacher T11 states that “my Luxembourgish student they know that I understand them so they will not speak bad about me during the interval”. In this example, students are framed as capable but also cautious and respectful. This realises positive judgement of propriety, highlighting students’ awareness and considerate behaviour.

Normality, as the subcategory of judgement, appears in teachers’ data, pertaining to deliberate choice of language by students. Normality often appears in mentions to, or in descriptions of others and in relation to origin and nationality, as a way to explain or justify language preferences and behaviours. For example, teacher T2 says about students that “normally when they come from (.) bachelor level and they come from:: the:: Luxembourgish schools they are at least able to work in French and in German↑”. This example evaluates the bilingual competence of students who have been through the Luxembourgish schools, as an expected and standard outcome. In another example, teacher T11 distinguishes between different profiles of students “these Luxembourgish together↑ which are more German speaking Luxembourgish↑ or OR which are Luxembourgish but NOT from Portuguese origin↑ the real↑ and then the French”. In this excerpt, the teacher suggests that speaking German and not being of Portuguese origin align more closely with an authentic Luxembourgish identity,

realising normality. Moreover, this excerpt shows how language choice is an indication of legitimacy that contributes to hierarchise the national background and language use.

Some teachers also reflect on the symbolic and emotional dimensions of language. Positive evaluations such as French as the ‘legal language’, Luxembourgish as ‘useful’, and recognition of English as the ‘intersection of all these languages’ realise appreciation for the richness of the linguistic reality. However, there are evaluations that convey disinclinations toward other languages that are perceived as less relevant, such as Portuguese, or a sense of loss concerning the role of German in academic contexts. Teachers’ evaluative discourses regarding the language reality at the university are expressed through affect, which is reflected as disappointment and nostalgia, as appreciation for the richness of languages and cultures and as judgement of institutional decisions.

In evaluating language use in teaching, teacher T2 talks about the importance of using the “right word in the right languages” to introduce course content. Excerpts from the interview with this teacher often realise instances of reaction and social valuation regarding the correct use of language. This teacher emphasises the need for precise and accurate terminology, mentioning it eight times throughout the interview.

At the same time, teachers’ lexical choices realise appreciation, and specifically reaction, when making comments on the quality of language use in connection with students’ academic performance. For example, teacher T12 mentions that students’ “writing is not particularly good and the language MIGHT be a factor there”, indicating that language difficulties may have a negative impact on students’ outcomes.

Social valuation in data from teachers is realised in evaluative resources relating to language hierarchies. A relevant example comes from the interview with teacher T6 who ranks languages saying that “French (.) very important↑ German (.) very important↑ Luxembourgish of course and Portuguese (.) eh okay maybe↓”. This ranking reflects a hierarchy that frames the university’s languages as very important compared to Portuguese. According to teachers, English is also highly appraised and very significant in the context of the university. In their interview, teacher T8 explains that “English is becoming a VERY important academic language for ALL of us” and “more and more DOMINANT” at the university.

On the other hand, students’ evaluative resources primarily include judgement of teachers’ decisions and dissatisfaction with policy implementation. Students’ lexical choices frequently convey negative judgement for language shifts that come in contrast with the course curricula, as reported in examples when teachers switch to languages other than the teaching language(s). These evaluations are typically highly graduated (e.g. “lazy to translate”, “nothing

it was german german german and again german”) and assign responsibility and blame. This framing suggests that students perceive a lack of coherence and transparency in language policies, and their evaluations realise judgements that often reflect broader concerns about institutional inconsistency and arbitrariness.

Students also use affective language to express desire and preferences in language use as well as feelings of fear, stress, annoyance, exclusion, and upset alongside feelings of joy and satisfaction for studying at this multilingual context. Student participants often express dis/inclination regarding language use in the educational process. Student participant S1 expresses a preference, stating that “I prefer using my home language. Conversely, student participant S2 reveals their preference to using English even though it is not their strongest language (“I prefer even if like English is not my best language”). Respondent Q32 expresses disinclination toward language use at the university, with the phrase “I don’t like it when it gets confusing”.

Other students express annoyance and dissatisfaction with the language expectations. For example, student S2 remarks that “in France nobody ask you ‘do you speak German’↑ they only speak ask you ‘do you speak English’↑ maybe but most people just speak one language”, expressing frustration with the complexity of multilingual demands. In this multilingual setting, student S7 expresses annoyance for the use of a single language (“nothing it was German German German and again German”). For other students, the dominance of a single language can also be upsetting, as is the case with respondent Q12 who comments that „meist auf Englisch was ich Schade finde“.

Regarding language choice in the educational process, students make judgements about the appropriateness of teachers’ decisions and their alignment with institutional norms and student needs. An example comes from student S4 who explains that “it really does depend on them it also depends on the way they understand the policy”, suggesting that language use in the classroom is often dependent on teachers and their understanding of the policy. In this respect, teachers are framed as unfair, lacking transparency and not adhering to the policy.

In this context, students also express views on the importance or usefulness of languages and their experience of studying at the University of Luxembourg. Student S2 states that “English for me it's like the most important language here at university” whereas student S4 says that “German is still present in the course materials” and Luxembourgish mostly appears in informal oral exchanges. These examples assign different levels and value to the different languages, with English being the most dominant one.

Furthermore, students often engage in heteroglossic discourse referencing institutional claims that they do not consider to be accurate (e.g. the university “said that it is multilingual” but this “actually [is] not true”). Such examples create a discursive tension between the institution and student experience, with the latter often positioned as exposing a mismatch between the institutional policy and actual practice. Students engage in heteroglossic discourse using quotations, contrastive phrasing, and indirect speech, which often indicate their distancing from the institutional narrative.

When it comes to the use of different languages, students maintain an affective tone with expressions of frustration, surprise, or disappointment, that shows their personal investment. French in particular, is often described as undervalued, with its presence being framed as a source of frustration. At the same time, students express pragmatic evaluations of language use especially when discussing access to resources and future career. Nonetheless, students emphasise the plurilingual identity and complexity of navigating multiple languages at the university. Some students describe their linguistic practices as inherent (e.g. “I can never speak only one [language]”) conveying positive affect regarding such language practices and demonstrating positive appreciation for plurilingual competence, which comes in contrast to monolingual institutional policies.

The two groups of human participants problematise the gap between institutional discourse and lived multilingual realities, by adopting different positionalities. Teachers often construct evaluations with reference to disciplinary norms, institutional policies and field specificities primarily realising these evaluations through judgement and appreciation, with a tendency toward monoglossic discourse to articulate norms or express certainty. Conversely, students being at the receiving end of these policies, express themselves through evaluative discourses that foreground dissatisfaction, inconsistency, and exclusion, often using heteroglossic discourses that question institutional narratives. However, both teachers and students’ evaluative patterns illustrate different orientations to the monolingual institutional paradigm and their lived plurilingual practices.

Table 36 summarises teachers and students’ evaluations regarding the language reality in the educational process, categorised by system and subsystem of the appraisal framework. The table includes distinguishes between positive and negative evaluations and provides illustrative examples from the entire data set.

	Attitude			Engagement		Graduation	
	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	Monoglossic	Heteroglossic	High	Low
Teachers	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>preferences to language use</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through verbs (e.g. “Germanophones prefer English”, “I LOVE English”), adjectives (e.g. “I’m always impressed”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>discomfort, resistance to language dominance</li> <li>dissatisfaction with the dominance of English</li> <li>disappointment, nostalgia, disinclination for the status of certain languages</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>students as capable, cautious and respectful</li> <li>students’ obligation to use specific language(s)</li> <li>teachers’ flexibility, adherence to policies</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through modal verbs (e.g. “have to learn”), conditional (e.g. « je verrai la population »), adjectives (e.g. “I’m very lenient”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>institutional decisions that negatively impact the status of languages</li> <li>teachers and students’ language competencies</li> <li>effectiveness of language policies</li> </ul>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>students’ language choices as attentive and deliberate</li> <li>rich linguistic reality</li> <li>languages’ status</li> <li>importance of language correctness, precision, accuracy</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “legal”, “official”), nouns (e.g. “intersection”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>impact of language proficiency on students’ learning</li> <li>quality of students’ outcomes</li> <li>languages’ status and role</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “smaller languages”,</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>language policies as externally imposed</li> <li>expression of certainty</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through modal verbs (e.g. “have to”), discourse markers that frame policy as non–negotiable (e.g. “by definition”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>examples of in class instructions to students</li> <li>uncertainty regarding language policy requirements</li> <li>observations on language use</li> <li>use and status of languages</li> </ul> <p>Realised through direct quotations (e.g. “you tell them ‘well you know it’s written everywhere it’s a bilingual program’”), tentative language (e.g. “maybe”), subjectivity (e.g. “I think”), use of first–person plural (e.g. “we decided”), generalisations (e.g. “a number of people told”), mention of renowned writers (e.g. « la langue de Shakespeare ou de Hemingway n'est pas une langue stupide »)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>institutional policy as absolute</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through modal verbs (e.g. “have to”), adverbs (e.g. “contaminated”, “polluted”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>low number of students of certain nationalities</li> <li>limited use of certain languages</li> </ul> <p>Realised through quantifiers (e.g. “a FEW examples but almost none”, “very limited sources”, “quite monolingual”)</p>

	level through adjectives (e.g. “not very popular”), verbs (e.g. “fading away”), adverbs (e.g. “contaminated”)	Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “they are lost”), conditional (e.g. “if the university “want people to stay here we also need to provide them a tool to speak”)	“superfluous”), verbs with negative connotations (e.g. “polluted”, “spoiled”)				
Students	<u>Positive</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>happy, proud of their plurilingual profile</li> <li>desire and preferences in language use</li> <li>joy and satisfaction for studying at this multilingual context</li> </ul> Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through verbs (e.g. “I enjoy being surrounded by and speaking English as well as German and Luxembourgish”, “I like being reminded that I speak and understand so many languages”), adjectives	<u>Positive</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>language competencies</li> <li>students as accommodating, flexible, respectful, mindful</li> </ul> Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through verbs that imply skills (e.g. “everyone knows English”), verbs that show language practices (e.g. “we always switch and adapt”), phrasing that shows students’ sensitivity (e.g. “if we just neglect a language then people who have come for this they are going to be disadvantaged”)	<u>Positive</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>praise for plurilingual identity</li> <li>value of certain languages</li> </ul> Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “official language”, “important”), metaphors (e.g. “like a pass”), discursive structures that frame plurilingual identity as important  <u>Negative</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>value of certain languages</li> <li>imbalances in language use</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>present personal experience on language use</li> </ul> Realised through phrases with the use of first-person (e.g. “for me”, “from my experience”, “how I lived the situation”)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>contradictions within the institution’s policy and actual practices</li> </ul> Realised through direct quotations, contrastive phrasing and indirect speech (e.g. “the university said but it is not true”)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>frustration and inconsistencies between institutional policy and language practices</li> </ul> Realised through intensifiers (e.g. ‘nothing but’), adjectives (e.g. “lazy”), repetitions (e.g. “german german german and again german”)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>language skills</li> <li>limited use of language</li> </ul> Realised through limiting words (e.g. “he only speaks English”, “Luxembourgish is only spoken”), adverbs (e.g. “pretty different compared to my mother language”)

<p>(e.g. “fascinating”, “amazing”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>frustration and disappointment for language use that conflicts with course curricula</li> <li>fear, stress, annoyance, exclusion, and upset for language expectations and dominance of certain languages</li> </ul> <p>Realised through the use of intensifiers (e.g. « même pas »), subordinate clauses (e.g. „Die Seminare wurden daraufhin fast nur auf Englisch gehalten, obwohl es der Kursbeschreibung widersprach“), irony (e.g. laughs that contradict with the content)</p>	<p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers’ inconsistencies in language use</li> <li>teachers as unfair, lacking transparency and not adhering to the policy</li> <li>criticism for institutional policies as arbitrary and inadequate</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through the use of intensifiers (e.g. « soudainement »), adverbs (e.g. “randomly depending on the professor”), adjectives (e.g. “lazy”)</p>	<p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through intensifiers (e.g. “too much of English”), repetitions (e.g. “it’s German German German”), characterisations with negative connotations (e.g. “Anglosfera”, „Dumpf“)</p>				
---	--	---	--	--	--	--

Table 36: Realisation of evaluations regarding language reality in the educational process.

#### 4.2.1.2 Teaching and Learning Practices in Linguistically Diverse Classrooms

The linguistically diverse reality of the university is reflected in class practices. Drawing on the themes ‘Pedagogical practices’ and ‘Use of tools/AI/apps’, this section further explores teaching and learning practices, as reported by teachers and students, to navigate the complexities of the multilingual academic environment. It also examines how students evaluate the effectiveness of some of these practices in enhancing their learning experience.

The analysis of data from teachers and students reveals overlapping yet distinct perspectives on teaching and learning practices the classroom (see Table 37). Teachers predominantly use simplified language and translations to facilitate students’ understanding of content. On the other hand, students highlight the role of peer support, translation tools, and their first languages in navigating content. The reported teaching and learning practices seem to be influenced by individuals’ perspectives on effective communication, language accuracy, and institutional language policies.

Teachers	Students
Translation	Translation
Use of multiple languages	Use of multiple languages
Simplified language	Peer support
Visual aids	First language(s)
Repeat notions, terms, concepts	
Students’ background/prior experiences	
Corrections in language use	

Table 37: List of practices reported by teachers and students.

In their interviews, 10 out of the 13 teachers, report practices to enhance students’ understanding of content, irrespective of whether they prioritise effective communication or adherence to language policy. These include repetitions (e.g. T13 “I repeat my sentences when it’s necessary”), the use of visual aids (e.g. T1 “in physics and mathematics [...] we can make plenty of sketches↑”), and the use of simplified language.

On the use of simplified language, teacher T4 comments on the adjustments they make to accommodate students’ diverse linguistic profiles (“<so I naturally use a more simple language normally> with the technical terms in it↑ which I then explained but not with like a very:: you know flowery style↓”). In the example, teacher T4’s phrasing creates a contrast between simple and complex use of language. The teacher’s lexical choices convey their strong preference and positive appreciation for simple language. The words ‘naturally’ and ‘normally’

suggest confidence, indicating that the teacher is comfortable using simple language. Additionally, the teaching process they describe (introducing technical terms and then explaining them in simple language) shows the value they place on making content accessible to students.

The use of simple language is also mentioned by the psychology student S6. This student talks about one of their teachers who sometimes gives explanations “in simpler words”. In this example from the student, the teacher insisted on the importance of knowing French and used “easier French” after students repeatedly asked for translations in another language. This student reinforces the value of simplified French by repeating the phrase. As a French speaking student who negatively evaluates the extensive use of German in the Bachelor of Psychology, the repetition of ‘French’ implies the student’s positive attitude towards its use. Moreover, this student positively evaluates the teachers’ efforts to use simplified French in order to support students with the language.

Another practice mentioned by teachers is the use of multiple languages in the educational process. To that, seven out of the 13 teachers report that, while they may draw on different languages, they do not mix or switch languages during instruction; instead, they keep the linguistic codes distinct. These seven teachers, representing both female and male staff across all faculties and age groups, indicate having one of the university’s official languages among their first languages. In contrast, teachers T3, T8 and T10 report that they engage in language mixing to varying degrees. Two of these teachers are affiliated with the FSTM, while one is affiliated with the FSHE. Of the FSTM teachers, one (aged 40–49) expressed enthusiasm about mixing languages in teaching, while the other (aged 60–69) identified language mixing as one of the challenges in teaching within this multilingual environment. Teacher T8, affiliated with the FSHE, mentions that although their course materials feature considerable language mixing, classroom discussions are predominantly in Luxembourgish.

Nonetheless, teacher T10’s phrasing constructs strong negative evaluation about the use of multiple languages in teaching (“at some point it's getting to a mix which is it could be horrible↓ [...] can be a mess”). In their phrase, they use ‘horrible’ and ‘mess’ to show their distress and disapproval of the situation. The two words realise negative appreciation and highly graduate the situation. At the same time, the use of ‘could be horrible’ and ‘can be a mess’ lower the intensity of the statement and reveal uncertainty. In addition to that, the use of ‘could’ and ‘can’ implies that the situation could escalate further, or that there could be alternative outcomes, revealing this teacher’s emotions of concern and uncertainty.

Students' views on teachers switching between the university's languages, as shown in Table 38, indicate that the majority of respondents are either neutral (40%) or do not find this practice helpful (13%). Among these 36 students, 20 of them are in the 18–20 age group, and 12 of the 36 report that at least one of their first languages differs from the university's official ones. In contrast, 19 students (28%) find it very helpful when teachers switch between languages in lectures. These students are aged between 18 and 26, and less than half of them (42%) report that one of their first languages differs from the university's official languages.

An exception to this, is a respondent who uses evaluative resources to expresses strong negative evaluation with frustration for teachers' inability to meet students' language practices, especially "Luxembourgish nationals or residents" ("The teachers not being able to understand the students (mostly luxembourgish nationals or residents) multiple–languages–at–the–same–time type of linguistic structure"). In this excerpt, the student uses hyphenation between six words to describe the simultaneous use of language by students. This structure realises negative appreciation of the multilingual reality at the university and represents the complexity of this use of language. The excerpt from this student constructs negative judgement for teachers' competency to navigate and teach in this environment.

	How helpful do students find it when teachers switch between the university's languages during the class?												
	Faculty			Gender			Age group					Language(s) mentioned among students' first language(s)	
	FSTM	FDEF	FSHE	F	M	Prefer not to say	18–20	21–23	24–26	27–29	Above 30	Other	University's languages
Not at all helpful	6 (67%)	2 (22%)	1 (11%)	4 (44%)	5 (56%)		6 (67%)		2 (22%)		1 (11%)	45%	55%
Neutral	5 (19%)	13 (48%)	9 (33%)	15 (55%)	11 (41%)	1 (4%)	14 (52%)	8 (30%)	1 (4%)	2 (7%)	2 (7%)	18%	82%
Very helpful	5 (26%)	7 (37%)	7 (37%)	9 (47%)	10 (53%)		9 (47%)	6 (32%)	4 (21%)			31%	69%
Not applicable/I do not use this practice	6 (46%)	3 (23%)	4 (31%)	7 (54%)	6 (46%)		7 (55%)	2 (15%)	2 (15%)		2 (15%)	57%	43%

Table 38: Students' views on how helpful they find it when teachers switch between the university's languages during the lectures.

Despite of their differing views on how helpful it is when teachers switch between the university's languages during class (see Table 38), students strongly favour the ability to mix or switch languages themselves during the course. This practice is highly favoured by respondents in the online survey. Approximately 62% of respondents indicate that they find this practice very useful in class. These respondents, who represent all faculties and age groups, speak on average, four languages, with 17 out of 43 noting that at least one of their first languages differs from the university's official languages.

Students' responses to language practices about mixing languages in the classroom largely align with their view that students should be encouraged to use multiple languages during the courses (see Figures 34 and 35). The results of the survey indicate that more than half of the respondents (52%) agree with this statement, while 28% disagree. A notable division emerges with regard to the potential challenges of employing multiple languages in classrooms. Around 45% of respondents express concern that this practice could lead to confusion, while 19% disagree with this view.

Students should be encouraged to use multiple languages during the course.

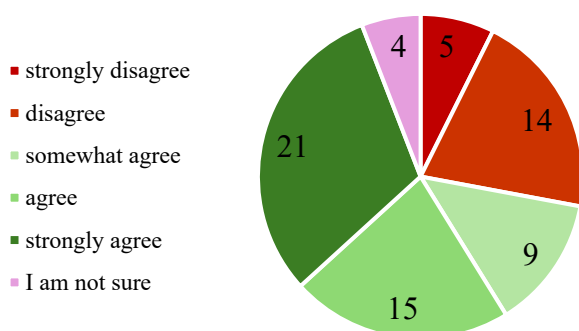


Figure 34: Distribution of responses to question about the use of multiple languages in class.

Using multiple languages to courses can cause confusion to university students.

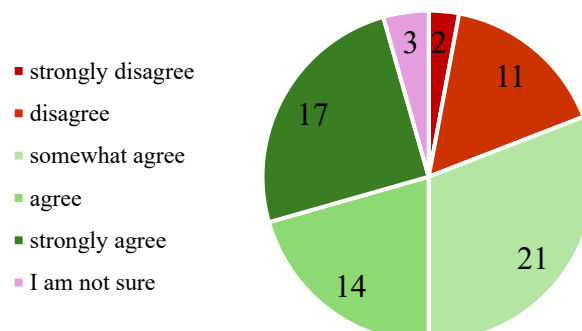


Figure 35: Distribution of responses to question about confusion caused with the use of multiple languages in class.

Alongside the use of multiple languages, and in order to facilitate students' understanding of content, teachers T3, T5, T6, T7, T12, and T13 report using translation. There is no clear gender bias in the group (three male and two female). Most examples involve

teachers providing translations to students, either by speaking directly or offering materials in different languages. These teachers come from three faculties: two from FSTM, two from FDEF, and one from FSHE. Most are between 50 and 59 years old, and their years of experience at the university vary, adding to the heterogeneity of the group.

A relevant example comes from the interview with teacher T7. This teacher provides material in multiple languages and translates terms or explains concepts in another university language to help students follow along (“I explained something in German on top of what I’ve been teaching in French”). In this excerpt, teacher T7 reports using French as the primary teaching language but translates their teaching into German. Teacher T7 views the use of both languages as beneficial for student comprehension and evaluates in a positive way the extra effort they put into teaching. In the excerpt, the use of the first-person singular emphasises the personal nature of the excerpt. Furthermore, the verb ‘explained’ indicates a focus on clarity and detail in teaching, and the verb tenses show the difference between the continuous use of French and the occasional use of German.

In another example, teacher T13 describes how students with a common language help each other by translating during class, showing that translation is not only initiated by teachers. This is illustrated in the following excerpt:

- (9) “Principally I don't care↑ I mean if someone wants to ask in in in french↑ then maybe the neighbour says ‘oh by the way mister ((says his surname)) he meant this one’ yeah↑ so then have let's say a communication among the students which is also good eh↑ so I’m I’m I don't care I must say↓ so eh:: I’m open for this so uhm::↓”.

In this excerpt, the teacher initially frames their view as indifference (‘I don’t care’) but also expresses approval and openness (‘I’m open for this’) conveying positive evaluation for peer communication. In this excerpt, teacher T13 presents an example from the actual practice by bringing in a student’s voice. The illustration of the scenario strengthens the point and implies the collaborative and supportive environment in their class. Positive appreciation for students’ exchange is realised with the use of ‘among’. Lastly, the use of ‘maybe’ indicates the individual’s spontaneity and shows that the scenario they describe is hypothetical.

Translating is also one of the most common practices among participating students. Students report that it is very common for them to translate from the teaching language(s) to another language(s), usually their first language(s). In the first focus group discussion, student S3 recalls an example from a class that was conducted in French. During this class, students

used DeepL to translate “the whole text [...] because it was too difficult for them to read in English”. Throughout this focus group, the same student emphasises the value of bilingual courses for improving their English. In this excerpt, the student agrees with the classmates’ choice to use an online translation tool due to their English skills. The use of ‘too difficult’ highlights the challenge that their classmates face with reading English texts, and the use of ‘classmates’ suggests that this is a shared challenge among them.

In addition to DeepL, students mention other applications they use, such as Grammarly, LEO, Reverso and Google Translate, to find a word or correct their written production. When it comes to dictionaries, student S2 explains that they prefer to “use textbooks because sometimes the dictionaries give you a literate meaning [...] they don't give you the LEGAL meaning”. In this excerpt, student S2 expresses their personal opinion and dissatisfaction with the use of dictionaries. Moreover, as a law student, S2 emphasises ‘legal meaning’ to show that they consider the use of specialised legal textbooks very important.

Students also refer to receiving help from peers when it comes to language, echoing teachers’ observations. The following example is from student S5 and their experience with Portuguese classmates who “speak Portuguese between them to explain different topics [...] even though none of (the) classes were in Portuguese”. In this example, student S5 appears supportive with the use of Portuguese among their peers in class and their use of evaluative resources conveys positive affect. The phrase ‘between them’ shows that student S5 is referring to multiple students collectively. The student also explains why they are using a language other than the teaching language in class (“to explain different topics”) setting the framework for the use of Portuguese. Their experience represents an example of collaborative learning that S5 evaluates positively and finds that it facilitates learning.

On the other hand, student S2 shares their concerns about collaborative learning saying that “a problem you don’t always have people around you (h)”. In the excerpt, student S2’ lexical choices express negative affect and concern over the strategy of peer learning. Furthermore, the laugh at the end of the phrase could indicate sarcasm or show that the student maintains a light-hearted stance to the problem to downgrade it. Using the second person suggests that the student is distancing themselves from the problem, although it may also imply that the matter is of direct concern to them and that they are choosing to present it in a cheerful way. Overall, student S2 has misgivings about this strategy, which only works under certain conditions.

Despite the emphasis placed on the use of multiple languages and translations, teacher T2 addresses the need to go beyond these practices in such multilingual classrooms. Indicative

examples of alternative practices include acknowledging and incorporating students' cultural backgrounds in their teaching. Two such examples come from the interviews with teacher T2, affiliated with the FSTM, and teacher T11 from the FSHE. Both teachers, who are aged between 60–69, bring students' linguistic backgrounds into the educational process in different ways. The following excerpt from teacher T2 indicates the value that they attribute to using students' experiences and knowledge in teaching and how these shape the teaching process:

- (10) “you have also to approach to say what do you understand<sup>↑</sup> and sometimes the understanding is linked to the process how this is done [...] it's not it's not only the language but it's the process which is behind or what you would like to describe<sup>↑</sup> [...] then the contents are quite otherwise and then I must explain it in another way<sup>↓</sup>”.

Evaluative resources in this excerpt realise positive affect and teacher's desire to get deeper understanding of processes as students have experienced or know them. This teacher's approach invites students to share their perspectives, encouraging their active participation in the process. The use of the second person goes further than self-reflection to involve the reader in the process. Together with that, the use of 'have to' implies a requirement and gives the excerpt an instructive tone. As a last step, teacher T2's lexical choices realise highly graduated judgment as obligation ('must') to modify their teaching based on what students share. Even if the content differs from the teacher's expectation, they appear to be flexible and to highly value students' perspectives by incorporating it in their teaching.

Teacher T8 also talks about acknowledging students' profile in teaching. However, as teacher T8 explains, both classes they teach at the Luxembourgish strand are in Luxembourgish, which is “a language that is to some extent extremely exclusive” due to the low number of people speaking it. Teacher T8 “find[s] that a shame because we have a VERY international student population”, including incoming students, who ‘we are excluding’ by sticking to this language. Lexical choice in this excerpt, and specifically the verb ‘exclude’ and the adjective ‘extremely exclusive’, convey strong negative judgement of institutional practices and indicate the ethical problem of limiting access to knowledge due to the use of Luxembourgish. The judgement is reinforced with intensifiers as well as the emphasis placed on ‘very’. Overall, teacher T8 expresses concern and regret with the exclusion of parts of student population, which is appreciated as ‘very international’.

Student S5 mentions examples of teachers who acknowledge students' background in class through the use of first languages, primarily for assignments and material. During the

focus group discussion, student S5 recalls the example of a teacher who “knows that the majority of students are Luxembourgers so he also learned a few words” and then used in teaching to support students’ learning of concepts. Lexical choice in this excerpt realise positive attitude towards this teaching practice. In the excerpt, the student makes clear that the teacher got to know students’ background and learned words in order to use them to support students’ learning. With ‘also’ student S5 implies the effort put from both teacher and students in the educational process whereas the use of ‘a few words’ refers to the effort put by the teacher, which the student positively evaluates and sees as thoughtful.

Students share their thoughts on the importance of using their linguistic backgrounds, especially their first language(s), in the learning process, as illustrated in Figure 36. When asked about the use of their first language(s) in academic tasks, such as group activities during the course, writing key words when studying a new concept, for visual representation in notes, making an outline before a written assignment, and discussing with fellow students, approximately 45% of respondents indicated that using their first language(s) during the course is very beneficial for their learning.

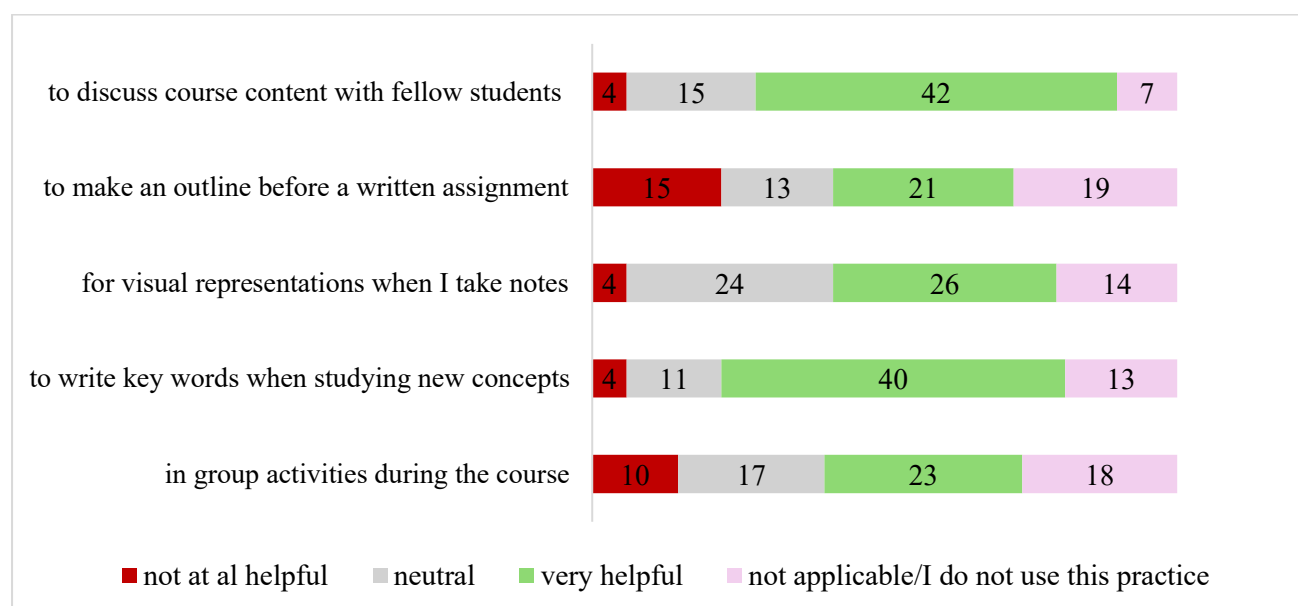


Figure 36: Distribution of students' responses on the usefulness of using their first language(s) for the different purposes.

It is important to note that among these respondents, around 75% report that at least one first language that is among the university’s languages. Specifically, of these respondents, 32% list French among their first language(s), while approximately 23% report Luxembourgish

among their first language(s). Within respondents who find the use of first language(s) very helpful, 62% identify as female, and approximately 60% of the group are between the ages of 18 and 20.

Table 39 provides a detailed breakdown of students' responses to questions about their use of first language(s) in group activities during the course, to write key words when studying new concepts, for visual representation in their notes, to make an outline before written assignments, and to discuss with fellow students. To provide a comprehensive overview, the average response across the subquestions has been calculated. These responses have then been categorised by faculty, gender, age group and first language(s).

	Use of first language(s) in group activities during the course, to write key words when studying a new concept, for visual representation in notes, to make an outline before a written assignment, to discuss with fellow students												
	Faculty			Gender			Age group					Language(s) mentioned among students' first language(s)	
	FSTM	FDEF	FSHE	F	M	Prefer not to say	18–20	21–23	24–26	27–29	Above 30	Other	UniLu languages
Not at all helpful	51%	27%	23%	38%	62%		46%	30%	19%		5%	39%	61%
Neutral	41%	26%	33%	30%	69%	1%	51%	21%	19%	3%	6%	23%	77%
Very helpful	23%	45%	32%	63%	36%	1%	61%	21%	9%	3%	6%	25%	75%
Not applicable/I do not use this practice	32%	37%	31%	59%	38%	3%	42%	28%	13%	6%	11%	48%	52%

*Table 39: Distribution of students' responses to questions about the use of first language(s), per faculty, gender, age group, and first language(s).*

Building on the consideration of students' backgrounds, teachers T8 and T11 specifically refer to students' fields of study. Both teachers, who teach in language related programmes (French and Luxembourgish respectively), describe the specific accommodations they make for incoming students and students from other strands, acknowledging the varying levels of linguistic and academic preparedness. In their interview, teacher T8 thinks that teaching in a multilingual class is linked to adjustments and flexibility:

- (11) "I can be strict with some students that I have to↑ like my students from the luxembourgistik la– ehm bachelor↑ but the other students from ehm:: we're debating texts we're not debating language↓ and since we're debating text I think language wise we have to be flexible↓".

In the above excerpt, teacher T8 appears to be strict ('I can be strict') with students of the Luxembourgish programme but also flexible and accommodating students from other strands who attend their lectures ('we have to be flexible'). In this excerpt, the teacher presents a contrast between two groups of students and the different approach they use for each group, implying adaptability and capability to cater the requirements for both groups. While explaining the rationale, teacher T8 changes from singular to plural first-person. The use of first-person singular puts all focus on the teacher as the person responsible for the teaching process, whereas the use of 'we' indicates a shared responsibility and makes them part of a community. The use of 'have to' highly graduates their point and stresses the obligation to follow these principles when teaching the specific groups. By using 'since' the teacher expresses the causal relationship between the need for flexibility and the focus on the course.

In teachers' data, acknowledging students' profiles includes setting expectations for language use in teaching practices. An example appears in an interview with teacher T11, who says that in contrary to their colleagues, they focus on the correct use of language, especially grammar, and provide students with explicit feedback ("I always correct with a:: a grammatical correct [...] I underline and in the margin I explain why it's incorrect"). In their interview, teacher T11 highly values the appropriate use of language and appears determined to correct students with the aim to perfect their written French. The teacher's approach is supportive, emphasising the value they place on guiding students toward the correct language format. The excerpt outlines how the teacher provides feedback, with a focus on grammar. The use of first-person singular throughout the excerpt indicates that it reflects the teacher's personal

experience and perspective. It also suggests a teacher centred approach, as the teacher takes responsibility for providing feedback and making corrections.

To the use of language, student S2 recalls the case of a Luxembourgish student who, when speaking in French, they “made a mistake and their teacher just told him ‘no no you you can't be me speak like that’”. By mentioning the nationality, student S2 constructs highly graduated positive evaluation and appreciation for the other student’s level of French (“he's like Luxembourgish so he speaks very well French”). This phrase comes into contrast with the mistake that the student made in class. This mistake was then negatively evaluated by the teacher who expressed disapproval for the language use by the student. The teacher in this excerpt is described as having an authoritative stance, pointing out that the student cannot use language in this way, and implying an intention to correct student’s use of language. In this excerpt, student S2 includes the teacher’s voice to make the point stronger and to distinguish between them and the teacher’s perspective. Overall, this example shows this teacher’s expectation to use language in a certain way that is considered to be correct, with any deviation from it being unacceptable.

The practices reported by the two groups of individuals throughout this section reflect their different roles and perspectives within the educational process (see Table 40). In talking about their teaching practices, teachers appear to be confident, responsible and flexible. In doing so, teachers use expressions such as ‘naturally’ and ‘normally’ to convey confidence and comfort in their approaches.

Teachers’ evaluative resources realise positive affect in instances that pertain to students’ emotional responses to inclusive teaching practices or to evaluate students’ reactions when provided with material in a language they are comfortable with. For example, teacher T6 reports that “some of the students are French so I think they are happy to have the French text”. In this example, ‘happy’ conveys positive affect for students’ feelings when materials align with their linguistic profiles. Another example comes from teacher T7 whose brief adjustment of the teaching language to provide clarification, results to students’ satisfaction and happiness (“That is that what you have called so and so in German' and 'ah okay' they're happy eh:: and then I returned back to:: to French”).

Other examples of positive affect come from teachers’ evaluative resources that express feelings of satisfaction and joy in response to available multilingual resources. For example, teacher T2 states that together with their colleague, “we are really happy to have a:: literature book which is done in two languages it exists in German and in English”. Resources that realise

positive affect in data from teachers indicate the importance of being responsive and flexible to students' linguistic repertoires and to have access to multilingual resources that encourage inclusive practices.

In contrary, negative affect in teacher's data set is realised through lexical items and phrases that express feelings of discomfort, sadness, or concern. In the relevant excerpts, evaluative resources show how linguistic practices evoke feelings of distress or unease among teachers, especially when they result in exclusion or challenge to identities. For instance, teacher T8 expresses unhappiness and dissatisfaction with the idea of excluding students during instruction conducted in Luxembourgish, conveying this sentiment through the statement "I find that a shame". Teacher T8 also articulates concerns regarding the university's linguistic identity, stating that "from a more institutional point of view [...] with a worried eye".

Teachers also evaluate their own practices using judgement resources, coming across either as flexible, adaptable and accommodating or as adhering to the regulations. In aligning with institutional norms and students' needs, students' evaluative resources realise judgements of propriety framing teachers as law abiding and highly responsible for determining the teaching language(s). In relevant excerpts, teachers are positively evaluated for being open, respectful and allowing diverse cultures. For example, teacher T3 explains that « il y a un étudiant qui ne maîtrise pas les nuances en français, donc on lui a proposé d'allimencer en anglais et il répond en anglaise ». In this example, the teacher is framed as sensitive and fair and their suggestion to the student reflects positive judgement of propriety and capacity. In an example from teacher T11, students "can choose a comparative literature corpus they can choose their own culture", indicating an approach that values autonomy, inclusion and cultural respect.

Another important pattern in teachers' evaluative discourses is the way teachers express obligation and responsibility. Teachers' repeated use of modal verbs such as 'have to' and 'must' convey highly graduated judgement to highlight the effect of certain teaching principles. In these cases, modal verbs function as intensifiers, suggesting that some teaching practices are necessary. To that, the use of causal connections such as 'since' further reinforces the justification for flexibility, showing an awareness of the dynamic and responsive nature of the teaching process. These constructions combine appreciation of student input, judgement of teachers' own professional obligations, and graduation.

Students use judgement resources to evaluate teachers and their practices in the educational process. Student S2 draws on the example from their experience when a fellow student "made a a mistake and their teacher just↓ told him↓ 'no no you you can't be me speak

like that”’. Student S7 talked about a teacher who says that “you have to put in English and if it's not in if it's not in English I'm going to take a point off your grade”. Lexical choices in these examples realise negative judgement of teachers as being strict and inflexible. Examples of teachers adapting to students are mentioned as exceptional and in rare cases, as is the example from student participant S6 “the main teacher who had most of all class he did the class then in English for this one girl”. In this excerpt, the teacher comes across as accommodating and caring, but when examined together with the previous examples, teachers’ propriety is questioned due to the disconnect between the institution’s multilingual ideals and the aforementioned teaching practices.

Judgement is also realised in students’ excerpts in which they evaluate teachers’ linguistic clarity and ability to communicate effectively in the classroom. Student S5 recalls the example of a teacher who “usually he tries to concentrate and speak that normal neutral German but sometimes his accent comes across and I don't get anything what he's saying”. In this excerpt, the student evaluates positively the effort of the teacher but also refers to his inability to understand his accent which results in a negative evaluation of capacity. Another similar example comes from the response of Q21 who writes that one of the biggest challenges is “Being able to understand the teacher or the assistant, the teachers being able to understand the students and their multiple–languages–at–the–same–time”. This example suggests that both teachers and students are responsible for effective communication. However, specifically for teachers, evaluation of judgement suggests that they have to be understandable, regardless of their language profile, and that they must be receptive and capable of understanding students and their linguistic repertoires.

In contrast, students are evaluated positively for their tenacity and propriety regarding peer interactions. Student S2 mentions that students who are proficient or confident using a language with those who are less proficient (“just translate or we share the translation”). Another example comes in the response of student Q10 who explains that « je pose des questions à mes camarades, et ils sont tous relativement sympathiques et me donnent en général une brève traduction de ce qui vient d'être dit ». Similar sentiment is shared by teachers, such as in teacher T13’s example where a student’s “neighbour which was her her friend she asked me for her” who did not speak the teaching language. In these examples, students come across as supportive, and caring, willing to help their colleagues by translating the course content.

Regarding the category of appreciation, a dominant pattern in the data is the consistent evaluation of positive appreciation for accessible and student–centred teaching. Specifically, simplified language is valued positively, reflecting appreciation of simplicity and framed as an

effective pedagogical choice. A recurring element in the data is the personalised expression of teaching practices through the consistent use of the first-person singular. Phrases such as ‘I explained’ foreground the teacher’s agency and reflect their personal investment in the teaching process. A similar example comes from teaching practices that focus on grammar and correct use of language. In these examples, the use of first-person singular positions the teacher as the central figure and conveys judgement of the teacher’s role and appreciation of their task. Nonetheless, some teachers reference student voices and peer communication as valuable learning experiences. The inclusion of students’ perspectives within the teacher’s narrative strengthens the evaluation, allowing the teachers to position themselves within a broader community of practice.

Teachers use heteroglossic resources to make their point clearer, often by incorporating direct speech or short dialogues that reflect the voice of others. One of the examples comes from the interview with teacher T2 who voices his in-class instruction to demonstrate how he uses terms from other languages to facilitate students’ understanding (“this is the right expression for that and when you learn this is that”). Another common heteroglossic resource is teacher T5’s imitation of students’ voice in direct speech “they show up to you saying ‘ah professor is so hard for me in English’”, to communicate their challenges. In addition to voicing own and students’ perspectives, teachers adopt the voice of the institution regarding language policy expectations. In the example from teacher T12 “you’re supposed to teach in English↑ you’re supposed to teach in French↑ your students will be able to understand you because those are the requirements↑ and they should know that when they apply so good luck”, the teacher describes the policy expectations while making the distance between themselves and the policy clear.

At the same time, there is a shift in engagement depending on the degree of responsibility the teacher wants to share or assume. While the first-person singular dominates the statements, there are excerpts in which teachers shift to ‘we’ to mark collective identity and shared pedagogical values. The shift from first-person singular to first-person plural reflects how teachers change from individual expertise to shared responsibility of teaching.

Overall, data from teachers demonstrate a consistently positive evaluative stance toward teaching practices that prioritise accessibility, clarity, collaboration, and responsiveness to students. Evaluations are most realised through appreciation, particularly of teaching methods and classroom interactions, and through judgement of the teacher’s own responsibilities (see Table 40). Evaluations are frequently intensified through graduations, especially when teachers emphasise the necessity of adapting to students or maintaining high

standards of clarity and correctness. Engagement is generally monoglossic but shifts to heteroglossic in excerpts of hypothetical reflection or emotional uncertainty.

Regarding students' perspectives, the analysis of student discourse reveals a complex and often critical engagement with learning in this multilingual context. Students' use of evaluative language reflects their struggles, frustrations, and occasional appreciation for the pedagogical practices they encounter. Precisely, students' evaluative resources convey positive appreciation for specific teaching practices, particularly those that aim to simplify language use in class. For example, the use of words such as 'helpful' realise positive evaluation of teaching practices that are student centred.

Students also evaluate classroom practices related to peer learning. Although they acknowledge the potential benefits of collaborative learning, there is a student who expresses concern and uses affective resources that convey negative polarity. Similarly, students appear dissatisfied and report negative judgement from teachers, particularly when their language use does not meet academic standards. In the relevant example from student S2 the teacher appears to hold an authoritative role, positioning the student in a subordinate position. The inclusion of teacher's voice in such statements often serves to reinforce the power dynamics within the classroom, drawing attention to the teacher's authority in shaping linguistic standards.

Less heteroglossic instances are found in the data from students. A common pattern in these instances is students voicing teachers in examples of students being corrected or guided to reflect the language reality and expectations in the educational process. One such example is the excerpt from student S4 "the professor told him basically 'you should really learn English'". In other cases, students recall fellow students' practices in classroom interactions, as is the example from S6 "the student they said 'we don't understand can you say it in another language'". In addition to these, there is the case of student Q10 who uses the quote « Un livre n'est jamais traduit, il est emporté dans une autre langue » by Marguerite Duras, a well-known literary figure, to support their point about how their thoughts shift as they switch between languages.

Table 40 offers an outline of teachers and students' evaluations regarding teaching and learning practices in multilingual classrooms. The table categorises evaluations per system and subsystem, following the appraisal framework. It also distinguishes between positive and negative evaluations and provides illustrative examples from the data set.

	Attitude			Engagement		Graduation	
	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	Monoglossic	Heteroglossic	High	Low
Teachers	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>interest, satisfaction and joy for multilingual resources</li> <li>student response to use of simplified language, multilingual resources</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “happy”, “it’s really nice to hear them speak Portuguese”), conditional (e.g. “I would like to know”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>concern, distress, dissatisfaction for language practices that exclude students</li> </ul> <p>Realised through emotionally loaded phrases (e.g. “I find that a shame”), figurative</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers’ responsibility and professionalism</li> <li>teachers as flexible, sensitive, fair adaptable and accommodating, adhering to the regulations</li> <li>students as tireless, supportive, caring, willing to help their peers</li> </ul> <p>Realised through modality (e.g. “a lot of students WOULD like to also you know to write better”), adjectives (e.g. “we have to be flexible”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers’ and students’ language proficiency</li> </ul> <p>Realised through metaphorical expressions (e.g. “if I try to speak it it's going to be bumpy”)</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teaching practices and classroom dynamics that make teaching more inclusive and student centred</li> <li>use of simplified language, peer communication</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “easier”, “really very helpful”, “more simple language”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>challenging teaching environment</li> </ul> <p>Realised through figurative phrases (e.g. “mind fuck”), adjectives (e.g. “difficult”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>voicing themselves to exemplify their teaching practices</li> <li>statements that confirm how the language policies influence their practices</li> </ul> <p>Realised using first person (e.g. « à mon expérience », “I say”), statements (e.g. “experience shows”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>direct quotes from students that exemplify teachers’ practices</li> <li>other colleagues’ sayings</li> </ul> <p>Realised through direct quotations (e.g. “my colleagues say ‘you are crazy’”, “she said are ‘these functions completely otherwise in Dubai↑”, « ils me demandent peut être »)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>challenge in using certain teaching practices</li> <li>adapting to students or maintaining high standards of clarity and correctness</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “crazy”), emphasis on words (e.g. “I would NEVER ask them to come up with the Luxembourgish term”), superlative in adjectives (e.g. “best literature”)</p>	<p>(few instances of low graduation under relevant excerpts)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to describe teaching practices</li> </ul> <p>Realised through quantifiers (e.g. “a bit of combination of both”), downtowners (e.g. “I just explain them”, “just an open discussion”)</p>

	speech (e.g. “a worried eye”)						
Students	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>satisfaction, happiness for use of simplified language, teaching practices that make the content more accessible</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “helpful”, “easier French”), verbs that show preference (e.g. “most Luxembourgers would prefer to have just one language”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>concern, distress, frustration when reading texts in languages in which they have limited language proficiency</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “hard”),</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers as law abiding</li> <li>few cases of teachers framed as caring and accommodating</li> <li>fellow students as caring, respectful</li> </ul> <p>Realised through verbs and phrases that indicate competency (e.g. can, able to), use of indirect speech (“the student ask the teacher whether they can write the assignment in English”), verbs that refer to permitting behaviour (e.g. “sometime the professor will allow us”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teacher competency and authority</li> <li>teachers as strict and inflexible</li> </ul> <p>Realised through contradictions (e.g. “some</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>use of multiple languages in learning</li> <li>teaching practices such as the use of simple language</li> <li>collaborative learning</li> <li>tools, applications as learning aids</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “they simply have their courses in English and that’s easy”, “deepl [...] kind of a good translator”, “Fun (its nice to be able to use most languages i speak”</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>educational material in certain languages</li> <li>doing tasks in certain languages</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “tricky”, “that was very weird”,</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>own agency and responsibility in the educational process</li> <li>personal experience with learning at the university</li> <li>student’s active engagement</li> </ul> <p>Realised using first person singular (e.g. “for me”, “in my opinion”)</p>	<p>(few heteroglossic instances)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>quote teachers and peers to describe their roles in the educational process and students’ positioning as participants in the learning process</li> </ul> <p>Realised through direct quotations (e.g. “teacher said ‘that’s in English and that’s it’”, “one of my teachers say ‘you have to put it in English’”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>level of difficulty depending on the language use for tasks or educational material</li> </ul> <p>Realised through intensifiers (e.g. “too difficult”), hyperbole, quantification (e.g. “it’s seventy thousand times easier to:: for me”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>practices that students report to make learning less challenging the multilingual classroom</li> </ul> <p>Realised through quantifiers (e.g. “a little bit difficulty”), limiting words (e.g. “just having one or two words you know in that one language”)</p>

	nouns (e.g. “problem”), direct speech (e.g. “then people are scared like ‘oh no I don't know English’”)	professor they has a presentation in French↑ but that course should be in English↑”), direct speech (e.g. “they made a a mistake and their teacher just↓ told him ‘no no you you can't be me speak like that’”)	“they found it very hard to uh to write in French”)				
--	---	---	--	--	--	--	--

*Table 40: Realisation of evaluations regarding teaching and learning practices in multilingual classrooms.*

#### 4.2.1.3 Implications of Multilingualism and Linguistic Diversity in the Educational Process

In this multilingual context, teachers and students relate multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process to advantages and pitfalls. Drawing on excerpts from the theme ‘Perspectives on language, multilingualism and diversity’ and its subthemes, this section presents teachers and students’ framing of multilingualism and linguistic diversity either as an asset or as a challenge that needs to be addressed. The section also explores how individuals’ profiles appear to have shaped their perceptions of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at this university. The data indicates that factors such as age, gender, linguistic background, and academic field may influence individuals’ responses to questions about linguistic diversity in the educational process. Nevertheless, as previously mentioned, these insights reflect the profiles of this limited sample and should not be interpreted as implying any stereotypes or generalisations.

Starting with teachers, Figure 37 offers a visual representation of the relationship between the demographic variables (gender, linguistic profile, faculty and age group) and individuals’ perceptions of linguistic diversity:

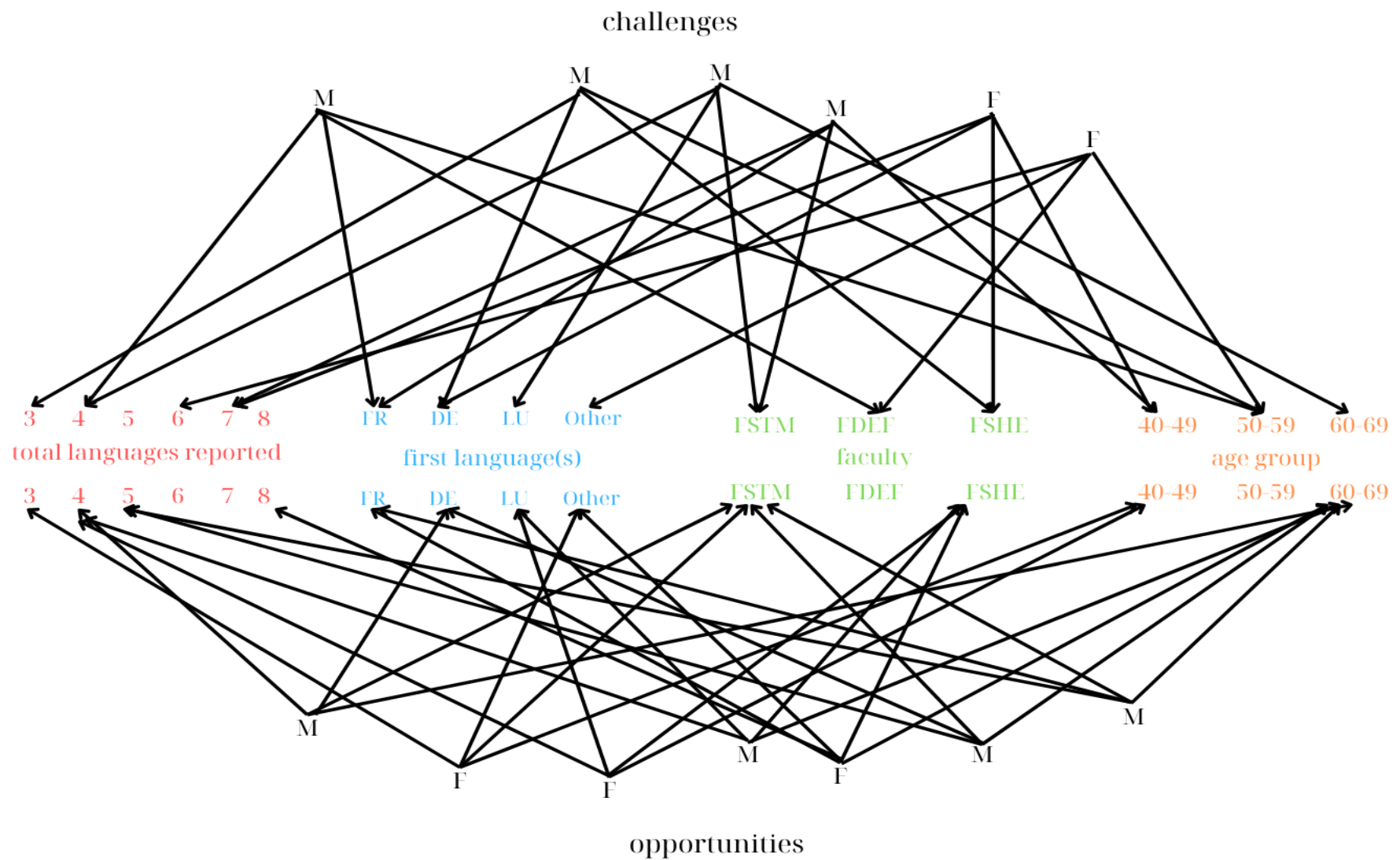


Figure 37: Visual representation of demographic variables and teachers' perceptions of linguistic diversity, made in Canva.

Figure 37 shows that seven out of the 13 teachers focus on opportunities in this multilingual context, whereas six of the teachers primarily discuss challenges that they associate with teaching in this setting. With regard to gender patterns and perspectives on linguistic diversity, the data collected from teachers appears to be balanced. Two out of the four female teachers express strong support for linguistic diversity, often highlighting its value at the university. The other two primarily focus on the challenges faced in teaching. Male teachers also adopt a dual stance, offering both supportive and critical remarks, particularly with regard to pedagogical challenges and language barriers in understanding and expressing.

Teachers' perspectives are also examined regarding the academic disciplines and linguistic profiles. As is the case with gender, no consistent or conclusive patterns emerge among this group. The distribution of teachers who predominantly express positive views is found to be equally balanced between the FSTM and the FSHE. Notably, none of the teachers affiliated with the FDEF makes explicit reference to opportunities in this context. Regarding their linguistic profile, teachers of this group reflect linguistic diversity of the institution, with first languages including German (two teachers), Luxembourgish (two teachers), Arabic, French and Dutch. These teachers also speak a range of other languages, with a total of between three and eight languages spoken by each teacher. In contrast, teachers who primarily emphasise challenges are drawn from all three faculties and represent diverse linguistic backgrounds. Their first languages include French, German, Luxembourgish, and Portuguese, and they report speaking between three and seven languages in total. Despite the variation in academic affiliation and linguistic background, no clear correlation emerges between these factors and teachers' perceptions.

On the contrary, age appears to be a notable factor in teachers' perceptions of linguistic diversity. Most of the teachers who emphasise the opportunities associated with linguistic diversity (five out of seven) fall within the 60–69 age group. Notably, all four teachers within this age group joined the University of Luxembourg at its inception in 2003, indicating that their more favourable attitude may be influenced by their extensive professional experience and their prolonged involvement with the institution's evolving multilingual environment. Conversely, teachers in the 40–49 age group exhibit a more balanced perspective, with some emphasising the advantages, while others highlighting the challenges. At the same time, all three teachers aged 50–59 primarily concentrate on the challenges. The teachers of this last group have varying degrees of experience working at the university, ranging from six to 22 years, suggesting that the length of their tenure may not fully account for their perspectives. Overall, the above patterns indicate that the perceptions held by teachers regarding linguistic



include: “easy” and “fun” (four times each), “difficult”, “good/nice”, and “motivating” and “practical” (three times each). In students’ responses, 47 out of the 164 words convey strong positive evaluations of the context and the situation (e.g. “educating”, “amusing”, “wonderful”, “interesting”) whereas 25 of them convey strong negative evaluations (e.g. “challenging”, “confusing”, “dull”, “messy”).

Half of the respondents (eight out of the 16) who primarily highlight challenges related to linguistic diversity are enrolled in the FSTM. On the other hand, students who prioritise the benefits of linguistic diversity are predominantly enrolled in the FDEF, accounting for 11 out of the 27. Furthermore, of the 23 students who mention both opportunities and challenges to a similar extent, nearly half of them (10 out of the 23) are enrolled in the FDEF. These findings imply that while the affiliation of teachers does not appear to have a significant impact on their perspectives on multilingualism and diversity, it may be more influential in shaping students’ views. Specifically, FSTM students are more likely to perceive linguistic diversity as a challenge, while those in FDEF are more likely to recognise its benefits or adopt a more balanced perspective.

Additionally, unlike teachers, a gendered pattern emerges among undergraduate students in their perceptions of linguistic diversity. Specifically, 16 out of the 34 female students adopt a neutral position, while 13 out of the 31 male students emphasise the challenges associated with linguistic diversity. These findings suggest that gender may influence how students experience and interpret linguistic diversity, with male respondents tending to focus more on the challenges, while female respondents tending to adopt a more neutral position.

Regarding their linguistic profiles, respondents who primarily focus on the challenges represent a diverse group. Twelve out of these 16 students report having at least one first language that is among the university’s official languages. Precisely, their first languages include Portuguese, French, Italian, and Spanish, with the majority identifying Luxembourgish as their first language (10 out of the 16). This group of students, reports speaking between three and six languages, with most of the respondents indicating a total of five languages (six out of the 16). Conversely, students who focus on the opportunities, have a slightly different profile. The majority of these students, 18 out of the 27, mention at least one first language that is among the four university languages while 11 of them report French among their first language(s).

Figure 39 shows the distribution of students’ perceptions of linguistic diversity categorised by age group and faculty. Overall, the data indicates that younger age groups, particularly those aged 18–23 years of age, have a predominantly neutral or positive stance

towards linguistic diversity. Specifically, the majority of students aged 18–20, as well as nearly all students aged 21–23 (15 out of 16), expressed either positive or neutral views on linguistic diversity at this university. A more divided response emerges in the 24–26 age group, where half of the students (3 out of 6) hold positive or neutral views. At the same time, the data reveals a shift among older students. Although both students in the 27–29 age range maintain positive views, a contrast is observed among students aged 30 and above. In this group, the majority (3 out of 5) express negative perceptions toward linguistic diversity. Nonetheless, the findings suggest that perceptions of linguistic diversity are not uniform among the different age groups and may be influenced by other factors.

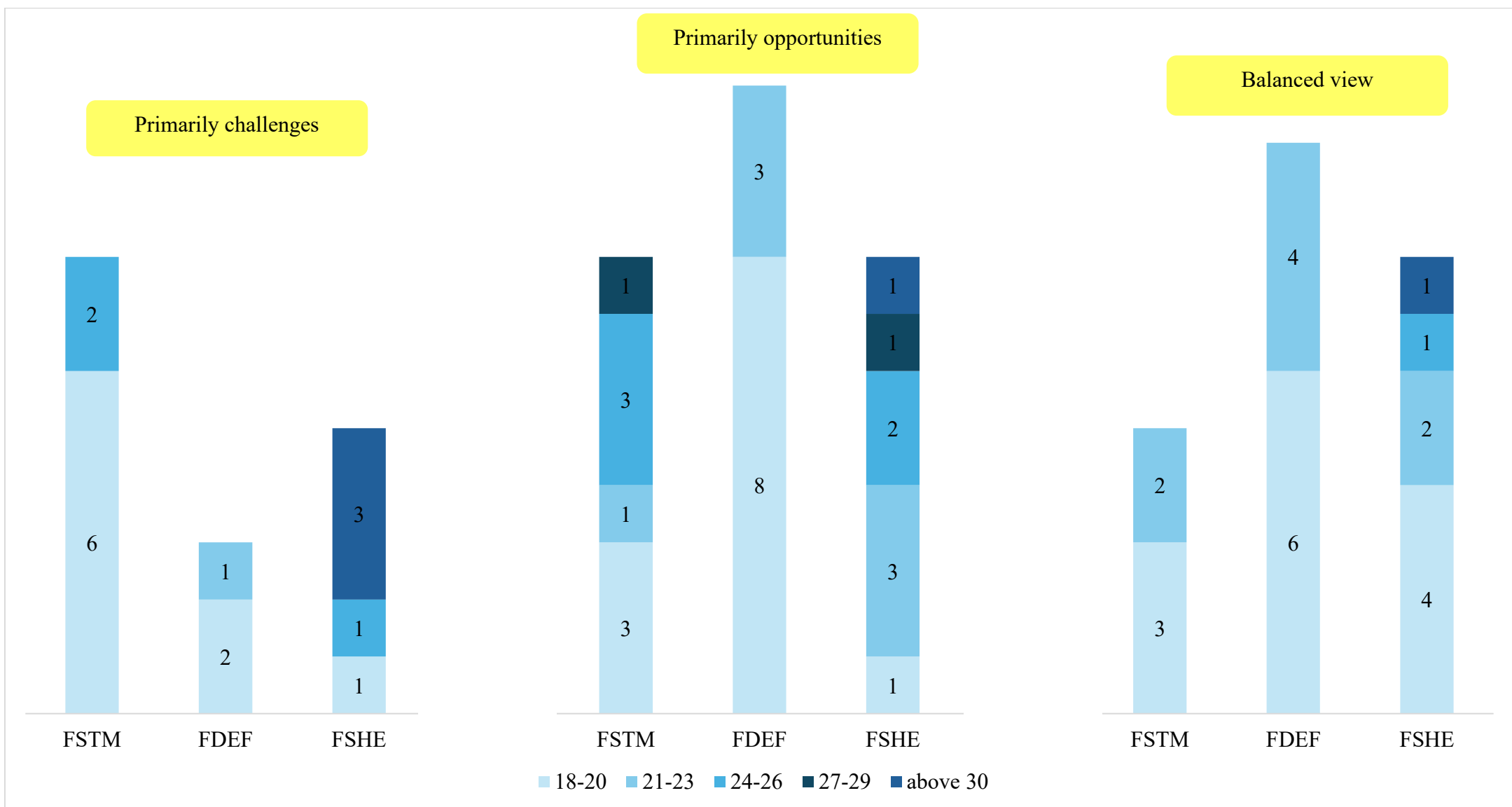


Figure 39: Distribution of students' perception to the implications of linguistic diversity.

The opportunities associated with linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at this university, as expressed by teachers and undergraduate students, can be categorised into professional and personal.

Teachers T1 and T7 highlight the advantages of linguistic diversity in terms of professional development and its potential benefits for students' future careers. Indicatively, for teacher T1 linguistic diversity “looks very good on the CV” whereas teacher T7 finds that linguistic diversity is “an added value” for graduates. In the first excerpt, teacher T1's lexical choices realise strong positive evaluation for linguistic diversity. The phrase also conveys appreciation for the value that linguistic diversity adds to the CV. The use of ‘very’ intensifies the positive evaluation of linguistic diversity and adds to its value. Additionally, the verb ‘looks’ implies an external perspective; it shows that this evaluation of linguistic diversity is based on how it is seen by others. Overall, this teacher adopts a positive stance to linguistic diversity believing that it adds value to the CV and may also add value to an individual's professional life.

Teacher T7's perspective aligns closely with the view of teacher T1, who positively evaluates the idea of being multilingual, especially for the graduate (“is it interesting for the graduate to be multilingual↑ definitely definitely it's eh:: of course↓”). This teacher starts the phrase with high intonation, posing a rhetorical question that introduces judgment to the value of linguistic diversity for graduates. As a response to the initial rhetorical question, this teacher repeatedly uses ‘definitely’ together with ‘of course’ to show their strong point leaving out alternative perspectives. High graduation and the structure of this phrase show that teacher T7 highly values multilingualism and implies that their certainty to the statement. With this phrase, teacher T7 expresses their strong positive evaluation for linguistic diversity and implies advantages for both the professional and personal development of the individual.

Students also refer to benefits of studying in this multilingual setting for their future career. Specifically, students refer to learning in this multilingual context as a skill that prepares them for their career in Luxembourg and abroad (e.g. “great preparation for our futures”, “preparation for a multilingual workspace”) and as an asset for their professional development (e.g. „für bessere Berufschancen“, “helpful for work”). In these responses, students reference the future and conceptualise linguistic diversity as an investment that will pay off with benefits on their professional career.

Student S3 shares a similar view during the first focus group. According to them, being a student in this multilingual environment opens up possibilities to work around the world (« ça permet de travailler pas que dans l'union européenne mais plus de possibilités de travailler

dans le monde entier »). The lexical choices of this student convey positive judgement about the fact that studying in this context allows them to work all over the world, highly appreciating the global level. From a professional point of view, the student evaluates the multilingual character of the university as beneficial. The use of « pas que » introduces the limitations of the European Union that can be overcome by studying in this multilingual environment.

Personal benefits represent the second category of opportunities that teachers and students associate with linguistic diversity at the university. Teachers are of the opinion that linguistic diversity contributes to the development of skills, including openness, cultural enrichment, and flexibility. Indicatively, teacher T3 expresses their strong positive evaluation about the use of multiple languages at the university by referring to it as a « richesse » and as « génial » nine times in total throughout the interview. Teacher T13 also thinks that diversity is “a cultural enrichment”. Their phrasing conveys positive attitude towards linguistic diversity and implies a valuable and beneficial process that significantly contributes to cultures. The use of the word ‘enrichment’, just as teacher T3 uses « richesse », realises positive appreciation of the situation and constitutes high graduation in both phrases.

Another relevant example comes from teacher T2 who attributes openness to linguistic diversity (“you are much more you are much more:: open↓”) in contrast to colleagues working in monoglossic environments (“they are a little bit less open↓”). The repetition of “much more open” intensifies the positive appraisal of openness, framing it as a highly valued quality. On the other hand, with the use of ‘less open’ to describe colleagues in monoglossic universities, teacher T2 suggests disapproval, suggesting that a lack of exposure to linguistic diversity at the university limits professional and personal growth.

Students also connect opportunities of linguistic diversity to personal development. In their responses, students describe studying in this multilingual university as “an important life skill” that helps them develop their language skills (« le renforcement des capacités linguistiques »), motivates them to learn new ones (« avoir la possibilité d'apprendre/découvrir de nouvelles langues ») and increases their confidence („Ich sehe darin die Chance mehrere in Sprachen gleichzeitig besser und selbstbewusster zu werden“). Evaluative resources in these excerpts convey positive affect with feelings of willingness and excitement as well as strong positive attitude towards learning new languages.

An indicative example comes from a student of the French strand of the Bachelor in European Cultures, who expresses feelings of enthusiasm and excitement on the matter (« C'est l'une des opportunités qui m'attire le plus durant ma scolarité, que de pouvoir évoluer dans un espace polyphonique »). In this example, the student associates studying in this multilingual

university with personal development and progress, which they highly value. The use of « m'attiraie » realises appreciation reaction and enhances their positive evaluation to studying in such a multilingual context that appeals to them and captures their attention. Additionally, the use of « polyphonique » to describe the context suggests a diversity and richness of voices. In their response, this kind of environment is positively regarded as motivating, stimulating, and beneficial.

When it comes to openness and communication, students talk about “diving into foreign cultures”, “broaden your horizons by being in contact with many different cultures”, « se sentir libre d'utiliser la langue qu'on souhaite pour s'exprimer ». A student from the English strand of the Bachelor in European Cultures writes about “an immense asset to be able to collect information in various languages often holding different viewpoints on a certain topic or shedding light on it from a new angle”. In this excerpt, being able to consider different viewpoints is framed very positively and important by the student. The phrase “shedding light on it from a new angle” adds to the positive evaluation of the environment, shows the student’s curiosity and willingness to discover and implies that studying in this environment enables them to gain new perspectives.

The notion of ‘openness’ is further elaborated upon by student S2, who refers to the setting as adding “more respect towards people and decrease the rate of discrimination”. During the focus group discussion, student S2 positively evaluates the shift toward more respectful and inclusive behaviour. In this excerpt, the student appears supportive of the multilingual context and emphasises the connection between linguistic diversity and a respectful environment. By referring to increased respect and reduced discrimination, student S2 suggests a positive correlation between these values and studying in a multilingual setting.

Students also mention „Die Chance sich mit dasf jedem unterhalten zu können “. In their responses, they write about the ability to “talk to everyone” and the easiness to “communicate with other students” as opportunities of this multilingual context. Evaluative resources in these examples realise positive affect and also positively appreciate interactions with their peers, showcasing the excitement and potential they associate with studying in this multilingual environment. The relevant excerpts indicate that students particularly value the opportunity to connect with others, which they see as one of the advantages of such an environment.

In contrast to the aforementioned benefits, teachers and students report challenges in the educational process that they associate with multilingualism and linguistic diversity. Precisely, teachers connect linguistic diversity to complexity, lack of precision, fatigue,

insecurity, and confusion. In doing so, teachers frame language as a problem (e.g. T5 “in the US they don’t have the problem of language”), as a feature that causes chaos (e.g. T10 “at some point it’s getting to a mix which could be horrible [...] can be a mess”) and adds complexity (e.g. T12 “what I’m demanding from them is already quite a bit↓ [...] and on top of that you have the language↓”).

Teachers attribute challenges to students’ language skills. For example, teacher T7 states that “if you do not use at this sufficiently high level the languages being used within a program↑ that gets difficult↑”. With this phrase, teacher T7 expresses negative emotions that have to do with language skills in programmes and concern for students not meeting the required language level in a programme (‘that gets difficult’). The phrasing also conveys judgement of students’ capabilities, which when are not in a high enough level, lead to difficulties. This part of the excerpt implies that a high level of language proficiency contributes to avoiding difficulties and leads to success. In this phrase, teacher T7 adopts a monoglossic view by including a single viewpoint. At the same time, the use of second person actively involves the listener to follow the same perspective.

Another challenge reported by teachers T2, T6, and T10 is maintaining precision. Teaching in several languages is very challenging, according to teacher T6, because “it’s much more difficult↑ ehm to be:: to have like the same precision↑ ehm:: and ehm:: in than in in my↓ in my language of course↑”. Although they describe the experience as ‘great’, teachers’ evaluative resources also express strong negative attitude about using multiple languages in teaching, framing it as impeding precision. In this excerpt, the phrase ‘much more difficult’ highlights the significant challenge of achieving precision, and the ‘same precision’ underscores the exacting standard of accuracy they expect. The comparison that teacher T6 makes to their language (“MY language”) reflects a deep emotional connection, amplifying the distance they perceive between their language and the others.

For students, linguistic diversity at the university “is overwhelming because of the other languages because the university is already difficult without having the level of language” (student S5). In this excerpt, student S5 negatively evaluates linguistic diversity as a factor that makes learning at the university challenging and difficult to manage. The repetition of the linguistic factor emphasises the role of language in adding difficulty to the context. Furthermore, the use of ‘overwhelming’ implies an emotional load for students who have to manage both the level of the university and the level of languages.

Agreeing with teachers’ perspective, nine of the respondents in the online survey add the language level as an important factor that can hinder learning in this context. Three of the

respondents describe linguistic diversity at the university as “overwhelming” and “annoying”, while one of the respondents characterises the use of multiple languages in the educational process as “a waste of time and energy”.

Similarly, in both the online survey and focus group discussions, students mention challenges in finding the right words, in following discussions in different languages, in understanding others, and in connecting and interacting with people. Among students who do not speak nor understand Luxembourgish (11 out of the 28) the most common challenges are « la barrière de la langue », that is associated with the struggle to keep up in conversations and adapting in this multilingual context. For students who speak and understand Luxembourgish, the issue that arises concerns precision and accuracy (“correctly translating technical terms into the two languages of the course”), a challenge also mentioned by teachers.

Additionally, students report a link between their experiences of studying at this multilingual university and their feelings of insecurity. In the online survey, six of the respondents address the challenge of not knowing which languages to use each time. Although these respondents speak and understand five languages on average, including Luxembourgish, French and German, “the only real challenge” for them is to “know what language to use in order to talk to people”. In this example, the student expresses a strong evaluation of the difficulty to decide on which language to use with people. This student speaks and understands five languages but choosing which one to use to talk to people seems to be a big issue for them. From their response it results that although they highly value language in interactions with others, the choice of the appropriate language remains challenging. The use of ‘only’ and ‘real’ imply that the student identifies more challenges but the one they mention is the most significant one. Overall, the student appears uncertain, concerned and insecure on the matter.

The same challenge is reported by a different student during the focus group discussion. Student S2 expresses feelings of discomfort, frustration and fatigue about the choice of language, with their lexical choices realising strong negative affect (“we are always struggling who what I’m going to speak”). This student, who speaks and understands five languages, reports the constant challenge (“always”) of choosing the language to speak. The use of ‘always’ strengthens this student’s point and shows that it is an ongoing and persisting issue. The use of ‘who’ and ‘what’ imply confusion which, together with ‘struggling’, frame the student as lost and overwhelmed in deciding the language to use. Lastly, with the use of first person, the student expresses their personal experience which seems to be shared among a bigger group of people (‘we are’).

In addition to feelings of insecurity, nine students report low self-esteem, shame and marginalisation. These students express feelings of loneliness, exclusion, and stress and use evaluative resources that convey strong negative affect regarding language use at the university. Precisely, they refer to linguistic diversity at the university as “alienating”, resulting to people feeling “alone” and “excluded”. Another student characterises linguistic diversity at the university as “ostracizing”. The choice of word conveys strong negative judgment for the exclusion of people due to language (“when you’re less fluent in a language you tend to shy away from talking to people, or vice versa people tend to shy away from you because of the language barrier”). Their response highlights language as a factor that can lead to avoiding interactions and experiencing social isolation. In the excerpt, the student appears to be certain in presenting the consequences of language barrier, which appears as an unavoidable fact and a tendency. Furthermore, the use of second person directly engages the reader and represents a collective and generally shared experience.

Despite of the challenges associated with linguistic diversity, teacher T10 emphasises that exploiting the benefits of linguistic diversity is “a question of finding the way of interacting with students to the best opportunities”. Here, teacher T10 adopts an optimistic stance focusing on the ‘best’ way to interact with students. The phrase ‘to the best opportunities’ conveys appreciation of the process of finding meaningful and efficient ways to optimise the interaction between the two parties. In this context, ‘best’ stresses the importance of finding the most effective way, which also puts additional weight on the effort and the outcome. This excerpt from teacher T10 reflects some of the points mentioned by other teachers, this time reframing the question and focusing on ways forward. The excerpt implies that linguistic diversity can result in challenges and increase the distance between teachers and students.

The coexistence of positive and negative affective resources in the data from teachers and students highlights the complexity of the university’s multilingual environment. Some individuals describe feeling impressed, satisfied or proud to study at this multilingual setting, while others express feelings of stress, frustration or exclusion. Individuals’ affective reactions demonstrate that linguistic diversity can be inspiring but also challenging.

Precisely, teachers position multilingualism as a pedagogical asset and as an essential component of personal and professional growth. This group of participants employs positive appreciation to describe multilingualism as something that “adds value to the CV”, expressing practical and professional benefits. Alongside the professional aspect, teachers positively evaluate the interpersonal qualities associated with the multilingual context, particularly

openness. This view is supported by teachers' disapproval of the lack of exposure to linguistic diversity in institutional settings, which is presented as limiting (e.g. teacher T2 "they are a little bit less open"). Positive appreciation of the multilingual context is also realised through emotionally rich language that describes linguistic diversity as "a cultural enrichment" or « richesse ». This framing constructs multilingualism and linguistic diversity as both functional and culturally valuable.

The four languages at the university are described by teacher T11 as "really unique in the world↓" and "as an added value" by teacher T1. Nonetheless, teachers refer to challenges that they face in teaching multilingual classrooms. Indicatively, teacher T2 mentions that "I have also done my slides in English (.) and this was a:: very HARD eh work which was not done in one semester". Teacher T12 talks about the demanding context saying that "what I'm demanding from them [students] is already quite a bit in terms of getting used to a different way of thinking↑ a different way of reasoning↑ AND on top of that you have the language". The two examples present some of the language-related challenges that teachers identify and evaluate the effort, complexity and adaptability required in teaching at this multilingual context.

In comparing teachers with students' discourses, shared values arise. These values primarily relate to the importance of multilingualism and linguistic diversity for global competence and inclusivity although differences emerge in the expression of affect and positioning of individuals. The majority of student participants describe studying in this environment as beneficial, "stimulating", and "motivating", and emphasise how the university's multilingual character supports their development and future career. Indicatively, student S4's use of evaluative resources introduces positive judgement. Their phrasing evaluates their ability to work internationally as a result of studying at this university.

Students appear to often be impressed by the university's rich linguistic diversity and satisfaction with their own linguistic abilities. For example, student S6 talks about how "here I'm always very impressed by all these nationalities". Another student, respondent Q10, describes their experience as « l'une des opportunités qui m'attire le plus durant ma scolarité, que de pouvoir évoluer dans un espace polyphonique », expressing enthusiasm and pride. Same feelings are conveyed by respondent Q32 who writes that "I like being reminded that I speak and understand so many languages", revealing a confident and positive evaluation of self that comes from their linguistic competences.

At the same time, student participants express insecurity, especially when reflecting on their own experiences within the multilingual university setting. The contrast becomes more

visible in lexical choices, as words like ‘maybe’, ‘not sure’, and ‘I guess’ appearing frequently in students’ data, while expressions of certainty such as ‘certainly’ and ‘definitely’, which appear frequently in the interviews with teachers, are almost entirely absent in the students’ data set. This pattern in students’ data suggests a cautious and tentative evaluative stance among students, who often frame their view as partial or open to correction. For example, student S2 explains that their view on adapting to people’s preferred language “maybe is” their “European view” (“maybe this is my like European view I don’t know what people from other countries have experienced”). Similarly, student S5 states that “I guess it is overwhelming because of that of the other languages”, showing uncertainty and insecurity.

Like the response of student Q32, a lot of students express feelings of anxiety, fear, and frustration when navigating this multilingual environment. A relevant example comes from student S6 who makes the observation that “the young students they were very scared to express themselves”, highlighting the emotional barriers faced by less confident speakers. Similar sentiment is expressed by respondent Q68, who writes, that “it frightens how I can communicate to achieve my needs”, expressing the stress and uncertainty associated with language use in this multilingual setting.

Students’ evaluative resources realise appreciation, especially composition, as they describe the multilingual context as confusing and difficult to navigate. One of the examples comes in the response from student Q21 who writes that “doing the lectures in one language and the exercises in a different one while the student speaks different languages at the same type is not an ideal atmosphere”, implying the challenge of using multiple languages.

On the whole, students place higher value on interpersonal interaction, often expressing pleasure in the opportunities for peer interaction alongside feelings of stress and fear. In contrast, teachers’ discourses tend to connect multilingualism and linguistic diversity to academic and professional excellence, stressing the instrumental or ideological value of multilingualism and linguistic diversity. Another difference observed in evaluations from the two groups is that teachers’ perspectives tend to rely on monoglossic engagement while students adopt heteroglossic engagement and modal verbs that leave space for alternative interpretations.

Table 41 includes the total of evaluative resources used by teachers and students to talk about opportunities and challenges with multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the university:

	Attitude			Engagement		Graduation	
	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	Monoglossic	Heteroglossic	High	Low
Teachers	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>security, self–confidence towards multilingualism and linguistic diversity as an opportunity for growth and enrichment satisfaction and joy for multilingual resources</li> </ul> <p>Realised through the use of emotional and metaphorical language (e.g. “cultural enrichment”), verbs (e.g. “I like this”, “I love languages”), contradictions (e.g. « une capacite d'apprendre des langues que j'ai jamais cru eh↑ pour moi »)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>frustration, unease with the presence of multiple languages</li> <li>disinclination for the dominance of certain languages</li> </ul>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers and students’ plurilingual profiles</li> <li>teachers and students being brave, open, tireless, willing to learn and evolve</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “open”), contrasts (e.g. colleagues teaching in monolingual environments are “are a little bit less open”), characterisations of students (e.g. “students haven't become LESS multilingual”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>institutions and environments that are not multilingual</li> <li>individuals’ linguistic capacities</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through verbs (e.g. “are not able to”, « ils peuvent pas »)</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>multilingualism and linguistic diversity as pedagogical assets, resource for professional development and important to cultural openness</li> </ul> <p>Realised through phrases that reflect pragmatic benefits (e.g. “adds value”), adjectives (e.g. “good idea”), metaphorical use of language that implies the value of it (e.g. « richesse », “opportunities”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>multilingualism and linguistic diversity as cognitive load, challenging for organising and giving classes</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “hard work”), nouns that have negative meaning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to present their experience and beliefs in relation to the implications of multilingualism and linguistic diversity</li> </ul> <p>Realised through the use of first–person singular (e.g. “for me”, “my point of view”), rhetorical question with immediate strong affirmation (e.g. “is it interesting for the graduate to be multilingual↑ definitely”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>challenges faced by students</li> </ul> <p>Realised through direct quotations (e.g. “they say 'I can't express myself'↑”) I say 'say it in this language'↓”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>value and challenges of multilingualism and linguistic diversity</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through words that have an inherently strong meaning (e.g. “definitely”, “mess”, “horrible”, « genial »)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>challenges with teaching in multilingual classrooms</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through quantifiers (e.g. « un peu difficile pour moi pour eh :: pour enseigner en anglais », “bothers me a little”, “I’m quite happy”)</p>

	Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “overwhelming”), verbs (e.g. “I miss this”, “I don’t want that English becomes our language”)		(e.g. “confusion”, “danger”, “misunderstanding”)				
Students	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>excitement, pleasure, satisfaction in navigating the multilingual context</li> </ul> <p>Realised through phrases that express feelings of excitement (e.g. « se sentir libre », “I’m always very impressed”, « l’une des opportunités qui m’attire le plus »), metaphorical phrases (e.g. “broaden your horizons”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>feelings of fear, distress regarding studying in this multilingual context</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through phrases (e.g. “you</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>university’s effectiveness in supporting students</li> <li>students as competent, adaptable</li> </ul> <p>Realised implicitly through phrases that frame the university as supportive students in their future career (e.g. “great preparation for our futures”), justificatory clauses (e.g. “I do progress”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers’ linguistic competencies that have a negative impact on students’ learning</li> <li>students as inflexible, not experienced with the multilingual reality</li> </ul>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>academic and socioemotional benefits of studying in this multilingual context</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “inclusive”, “stimulating”, “motivating”), nouns with positive meaning (e.g. « possibilité »), phrasing that indicates the positive influence of multilingualism and linguistic diversity (e.g. “adds value”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>challenging academic environment</li> <li>difficulty in finding the right words, in following discussions in different languages, in</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>own voice in navigating the context</li> <li>own experience with studying in this context</li> </ul> <p>Realised through the use of first-person (e.g. “one of the problems for me”, „bei mir“, “that’s how I lived it”)</p>	<p>(not many heteroglossic instances)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to bring in other students’ experiences</li> <li>inner dialogue put in a generic way</li> </ul> <p>Realised through direct quotes (e.g. “I also had some eh:: comrade to say ‘oh no it’s too difficult’”), change of person from first to second (e.g. “you tell to yourself ‘oh I I don’t understand everything he’s saying in that language”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>challenges with studying at this multilingual context</li> <li>abundance of opportunities available to students</li> </ul> <p>Realised through intensifiers and phrases that strengthen the value, impact and challenges with multilingualism and linguistic diversity (e.g. « monde entier », “always struggling”, “frightened”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>downplay challenges that come with studying at this multilingual setting</li> </ul> <p>Realised through quantifiers (e.g. “they have a little bit difficulty”, “they are small enough to not be too anxiety”) and downtoners (e.g. “it’s easier when it’s only one language”)</p>

	<p>never know what language to speak”) and verbs (e.g. “struggling”, “scared”, « Au début cela m'effrayait », „Man ist von vielem ausgeschlossen“) that express feelings of distress</p>	<p>Realised through phrases that frame teachers as inflexible (e.g. “The teaching staff not being able to understand the students”, “his accent comes across and I don't get anything what he's saying”, “he can translate literally and not not take the context”)</p>	<p>understanding others, and in connecting and interacting with people</p> <p>Realised through nouns (e.g. “challenge”, “difficulties”), metaphorical expressions (e.g. « barrière de la langue »)</p>				
--	--	---	--	--	--	--	--

*Table 41: Realisation of evaluations regarding the implications of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process.*

4.2.1.4 “I think that the university of Luxembourg insists on multilingualism for very good reasons but then we are left alone” –Supporting University Members in Navigating Linguistic Diversity

Throughout the interviews, open-ended survey questions and focus groups, teachers and students share their suggestions in response to questions on how to effectively navigate linguistic diversity within this multilingual academic environment. Their recommendations are organised into three overarching categories (see Table 42). The first category focuses on institutional level measures that the university could apply to address challenges. The second category includes individuals’ suggestions on the level of teachers, and the third category relates to students and addresses their profiles and involvement in the learning process.

	Measures put forth by participating teachers and students		
	At the institutional level	At the level of teachers	At the level of students
Teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Appointing a designated advisor to guide teachers on relevant matters</li> <li>• <u>Offer professional development opportunities</u></li> <li>• Establish an institution responsible for managing translations</li> <li>• Improve the visibility and accessibility of existing resources</li> <li>• Support staff wellbeing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <u>Invest on linguistic profile</u></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language readiness before joining the university</li> </ul>
Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Offer courses that support students’ language skills</li> <li>• <u>Offer professional development opportunities</u></li> <li>• Offer programmes in multiple languages, with each course delivered in a single language</li> <li>• Ensure consistency in the use of teaching language according to course curriculum</li> <li>• Allow students to choose language (especially in exams)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <u>Invest linguistic profile</u></li> <li>• Provide multilingual resources in courses</li> </ul>	

Table 42: Overview of the recommendations put forward by teachers and students.

On the university level, nine out of the 13 teachers make suggestions that require action from the part of the university. Notably, in their interview, teacher T12 talks about how “the University of Luxembourg insists on multilingualism for VERY good reasons but then we ((teachers)) are left alone”. Lexical choices in this excerpt realise highly graduated positive reaction to the university’s policy towards multilingualism. The use of ‘insist’ and the

emphasised ‘very’ strengthen the point and convey strong positive judgement to the university’s policy. At the same time, this teacher uses first–person plural to show that their statement represents a shared experience and that teachers collectively feel abandoned and disapprove of the lack of support from the university.

Teacher’s T12 point includes two suggestions. Firstly, they consider “amazingly helpful” having “a person that could advise us ((teachers))” with teaching in a multilingual classroom. In this excerpt, the teacher continues with first–person plural and the sense of community, to express a desire to have someone capable and specialised as an advisor. The use of ‘could’ indicates a degree of uncertainty from the part of the teacher but also implies the capacity of the person in interest. Secondly, teacher T12 suggests a training that would pay “some more attention to multilingualism to how it ACTUALLY functions or not”. This phrasing conveys teacher’s judgement to the need for a pragmatic initiative that would bridge the discrepancy between the university’s expectations and the reality with multilingualism. The emphasis on ‘actually’ reflects the teacher’s distrust about the understanding of multilingualism in place. Moreover, by using ‘ some more attention’ this teacher implies a desire and the need to further train on these matters.

Similar to the second point by teacher T12 is the suggestion shared by teacher T13. Drawing on previous experience with media training offered by the university, this teacher considers a training on linguistic diversity in teaching to be “valuable”. The choice of the word ‘valuable’ conveys positive emotional reaction and strong appreciation for such a training. In this excerpt, the use of ‘I think’ reflects the teacher’s personal perspective, based on their prior experience.

Teacher T9 recommends translations as a supportive measure by the university. For this teacher, translations are an essential part of living in Luxembourg (« qu'on on vit au FOCUS des traductions ») and the importance of this measure can be seen in their recommendation for the creation of a translation institution:

- (12) « il faudrait prévoir quand même en ce qui concerne les quatre langues de voir un institut qui se voue à la traduction de de textes↑ ça c'est je pense pour le pour le futur an important tool ((sounds astonished)) pour faciliter la recherche et pour faciliter aussi la maitrise des langues ((sounds astonished)) ».

In their suggestion, teacher T9 expresses a highly graduated (« quand même ») judgement that addresses the necessity to establish this kind of institution at the university. To

express their suggestion, teacher T9 uses third-person singular, which constitutes subjunctive mood that expresses wish or a suggestion. Modality in this excerpt is also expressed with the use of « je pense ». In this phrase, the use of « faciliter » together with ‘important tool’ realise highly graduated positive appreciation to the institute’s role. To prove their point and make the statement stronger, this teacher also switches from French to English during this excerpt. By using first-person singular, teacher T9 makes clear that this is their personal opinion.

On the other hand, teacher T8 emphasises the need for structural changes to enhance the visibility and accessibility of already existing resources. Specifically, teacher T8 finds that at the university “we already have so many things that ARE in place” but “it’s not structurally very visible”. In this excerpt, teacher T8 positively evaluates the existence of measures to support linguistic diversity at the university. The phrasing conveys highly graduated positive appreciation of the level of measures with the use of ‘so many things’. The emphasis on ‘are’ also strengthens the point and makes it assertive. In contrary to that, the second excerpt conveys low graduated criticism to the way that university’s measures are shared among members, implying that there exists some way, but it needs to be further enhanced. The use of ‘structurally’ realises negative appreciation to the way these measures are being shared. Lastly, by using first-person plural, teacher T8 sees themselves as part of a community that shares responsibility over this.

Despite of the different facilities that may be offered, teacher T11 argues that there need to be more radical changes. According to them, teachers “cannot do something at a level of students if the STAFF is not hundred percent okay”. This teacher uses first-person plural and includes themselves in a bigger community that shares responsibility. Teacher T11’s phrasing realises highly graduated appreciation of the conditions for staff with the use of ‘a hundred percent’ to show that these conditions need to be excellent and at the absolute level. The use of ‘if’ introduces a conjunction that implies the conditions that need to be in place (staff being “a hundred percent okay”). According to teacher T11, teachers are incapable of acting further unless some circumstances are taken care of. To illustrate the point, teacher T11 provides the example of a colleague who, from what they believe, does not enjoy the same status at the university. Teacher T11 attributes this disparity to the colleague’s background and language profile, thereby raising issues of justice that are associated with linguistic diversity.

On the institutional level, students’ recommendations include: 1) courses that would support students with their language skills, 2) courses offered in multiple languages, but each course delivered in a single language each time, and 3) consistency with teaching languages based on curricula. In the first category, one of the respondents puts forward a series of

specialised courses that are designed to enhance the understanding of academic texts in multiple languages („Man sollte Kurse haben, wo man wissenschaftliche Texte in verschiedenen Sprachen liest und einem geholfen wird sie zu verstehen“). This example highlights the student’s strong recommendation (use of ‘should’) for reading comprehension courses. This respondent’s evaluative resources express positive affect and desire for such courses, framing them as necessary and beneficial. They specifically mention academic texts, highlighting their complexity as a barrier to understanding. Their recommendation focuses on a course designed to improve reading comprehension. The use of the word ‘read’ emphasises the passive skills of understanding written texts. By using an indefinite pronoun, the student presents this need as common among many students. They also suggest including texts in multiple languages, making the course more inclusive.

Another recommendation is put forward by student S5 during the focus group discussion. This student recommends the use of a single language per programme, whilst simultaneously offering the same programme in multiple languages:

- (13) “if you still want to be that multilingual university [...] you just say ‘all the people who want to study let's say I don't know psychology you have psychology German and psychology French’ ((whistles and shows two directions with hands)) and you do all your lecture in French or all your lecture in in in German”.

In this excerpt, student S5 appears to be sceptical about the university’s multilingual character, beginning with the conditional ‘if’. The use of second person suggests the speaker is distancing themselves from the suggestion and the responsibilities associated with it. The conditional presents a hypothetical scenario, based on the university’s decision to adopt multilingualism. The university is personified as needing to make a choice regarding its multilingual status. The student makes a strong and structured recommendation with keeping languages separate to the university, in case it decides to pursue this multilingual approach. Their phrasing realises strong appreciation for maintaining distinct languages, which is reinforced by a gesture that emphasises the point.

Instead of using a single language in teaching, students S2 and S3 recommend the flexibility to choose between languages in exams. According to student S3, being able to write an exam in one of the university languages that is different than the teaching language(s), can help reduce stress (“in exam it's exam so we can be stress so maybe it's good to have some exam in English and French”). This student, who follows the bilingual programme Bachelor in

Economics, emphasises the context of exams and expresses strong affect about the stress that goes with it. Although the student emphasises the pressure coming from exams, they appear uncertain in this recommendation (use of ‘can’ and ‘maybe’). Except of the student’s insecurity, the use of the two modals implies that there are other possible solutions other than these two. Overall, this suggestion reflects understanding of this stressful condition, with the lexical choices used in the excerpt realising high appreciation. The use of first–person plural represents a shared experience and strengthens the student’s view.

The third point raised by students has to do with consistency between teaching language in curricula and language use in class. In the online survey, one of the respondents writes about how „Das Verwenden von Sprachen, welche nicht im Unterrichtsplan angegeben sind, kann manchen Studenten zum Verhängnis werden“. In their response, student’s evaluative resources convey strong negative appreciation of the consequences of language change in class. According to them, using a language, which is different from the one that appears in the course curriculum has extreme negative implications on some students. The use of third person adds to the formal tone of the phrase which suggests a warning. Moreover, the use of ‘can’ supports the claim and highly graduates the consequences.

Inconsistency with use of languages in teaching is brought up by student S2 during the focus group discussion. The suggestion on that is to “do as promised” meaning to follow the language that is indicated in the course curriculum. In both examples, students highly value and positively evaluate the importance of the course curriculum which for them, constitutes a commitment with consequences.

On the level of teachers, T1, T2, T3, T7, T8, and T13 primarily recommend investing on teachers’ linguistic profiles. Indicatively, teacher T7 supports that “since we are multi::–multilingual university I believe we should be able to BE multilingual as teachers↓”. In their phrase, teacher T7’s lexical choices realise judgement and construct a strong evaluation of teachers’ obligation to be multilingual. Starting the statement with ‘since’, this teacher shows the causal relationship between the university’s and teachers’ language profiles, but the phrasing implies a prerequisite rather than a consequence. The use of ‘should’ together with ‘I believe’ shows that the statement is a personal belief framed as imperative, which they consider to be a requirement for university teachers.

Regarding teachers’ linguistic profiles, teacher T13 proposes the implementation of online courses to be administered by the university (« je préfère peut être là si l’Université elle peut faire un façon pour les profs et proposer des cours en ligne là pour nous »). This teacher’s suggestion is expressed as a strong personal preference and reveals some degree of uncertainty.

The use of « faire un façon » prior to the suggestion, shows that this teacher only addresses one of the possibilities, that is their preferred one, but that there could be more. The statement indirectly addresses the university and reveals the individual's implicit expectation to the university.

Students' recommendations to teachers primarily concern their ability to use multiple languages as well as the provision of further training. Students' suggestions, however, indicate underlying tensions that relate to the differing perspectives of students on plurilingual pedagogies and linguistic diversity in the educational process.

Precisely, during the focus group discussion, student S4 expresses an indirect recommendation regarding course materials (“in an ideal world course materials would be available in all the relevant languages”). The excerpt conveys strong affect and desire for educational material in the different teaching languages. The use of ‘ideal world’ refers to student's perfect scenario that differs from the current lived reality. In this phrase, the student appears optimistic but also highly appraises the degree of difficulty. The use of ‘would’ complements the conditional, introduces the consequence of the imaginary scenario and expresses student's inclination. Lastly, reference to ‘all relevant languages’ suggests the adaptation of educational material to official requirements and to students in order to make it inclusive and meaningful.

For teachers, student S1 recommends further training on teaching in multilingual contexts. According to student S1, teachers “should learn both theoretical and practical lessons” in a workshop that would also include formal feedback (“score and grade for the professor to follow-up that they go on the right track or not”). This student puts forward a proposal for training addressed to teachers, comparable to a university course, combining theoretical knowledge, practical application, and performance assessment. The recommendation reflects the student's thoughtful and supportive attitude towards teachers. Student S1 outlines a structured training approach that balances theory with feedback, crucial for skill development. The use of ‘should’ suggests confidence in the recommendation, though it remains advisory. The use of ‘should’ implies student's confidence of their suggestion that remains a recommendation. Additionally, the use of third person indicates the student's distance from the group being addressed.

The third category of recommendations, which considers the level of students, is only present in data from teachers. Teachers T5 and T7 stress students' responsibility when it comes to language readiness before joining the university. Specifically, teacher T7 states that “it's up to the students to be able at eh:: when they come here to be sufficiently fluent in these languages

to be able to follow↓”. In their suggestion, teacher T7 distances themselves from students and places all responsibility on them. Teacher T7 evaluates the level of language that students are expected to have (‘sufficiently fluent’). Fluency is highly valued as a prerequisite to join and to successfully attend the university. The phrase ‘up to the students’ shows a strong point made by this individual and leaves no room for negotiation. Finally, this teacher adopts an instructive and assertive tone, emphasising that students must take all necessary steps to meet this requirement.

In talking about support measures in navigating linguistic diversity, teachers use evaluative resources that realise judgement of institutional policy and appreciation of resources, training, and support mechanisms. Indicatively, the phrase of teacher T12 “we are left alone” conveys negative judgement of university support structures and positive affect related to teachers’ desire for support. Teachers also use the modal verbs ‘should’ and ‘could’ to express obligation and possibility for support systems on the university’s level. For instance, teacher T12 suggests “a person that could advise” and guide teachers on issues relevant to linguistic diversity.

Further in their interview, teacher T12 appears sceptical for existing support measures and implies the misalignment between the university’s policy and the reality (e.g. “some more attention to how it ACTUALLY function”). The use of code-switching (e.g. « ça c'est je pense pour le pour le futur an important tool ») by teacher T9 can be interpreted as dissatisfaction to the current support measures by the university. The discrepancy between policy and practice, framed as distrust to the university’s policy, can also be seen in changes from first person singular to first person plural. This monoglossic stance strengthens the legitimacy of teachers’ views and positions teachers as members of a bigger community. Another common feature across data from teachers is high graduation through intensifiers such as ‘very’, maximisers (e.g. “a hundred percent”) and emphasis on words (e.g. “ARE”).

Students tend to use evaluative resources that realise affect and appreciation. Specifically, students’ lexical choices convey positive affect toward support measures such as reading comprehension courses, inclusion of educational materials in multiple languages and the adaptation of teaching to linguistic diversity.

In making suggestions for supportive measures, students appear to be thoughtful of teachers. Their recommendations are sometimes expressed as prioritising teachers’ comfort. For example, student S1 proposes a training on relevant matters addressed to teachers, evaluating teacher development through judgement and appreciation.

However, students' evaluations usually include modal verbs (e.g. „sollte“), conditional forms (“e.g. would”) or are presented as imaginary scenarios (e.g. “if you still want to be”, “in an ideal world”). This use of language by students moderates graduation, reflects a more cautious evaluative style and ultimately suggests the careful stance that students adopt. The use of such structures also means that students engage in more dialogic strategies compared to teachers, leaving room for other perspectives. Even when they appear critical to institutional practices (e.g. when talking about consistency in languages based on curricula), students tend to frame their arguments as observations or concerns rather than as criticisms.

Table 43 illustrates how each group of individuals use evaluative resources to talk about supportive measures for linguistic diversity in the educational process. The table includes all systems and subsystems of the appraisal framework, with examples from the entire data set.

	Attitude			Engagement		Graduation	
	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation	Monoglossic	Heteroglossic	High	Low
Teachers	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>desire for supportive measures, professional development</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “I think it's interesting”, “could be good to have this kind of training”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>frustration, dissatisfaction, disinclination for current supportive measures or lack of them</li> <li>insecure about measures to suggest</li> </ul> <p>Realised through metaphorical phrases (e.g. “we are left alone”), repetition of phrase (e.g. “they think they assume it's done already↓ it's not done”), phrasing that</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers as responsible, competent, active</li> <li>university’s obligation to support its members</li> </ul> <p>Realised through phrasing that implies individuals’ capacity (e.g. “we all just rely on (h) on ourselves”), use of modal verbs (e.g. “a person that could advise us”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>the university as ignorant</li> </ul> <p>Realised through phrases that indicate neglect (e.g. “left alone”), ignorance (e.g. “some more attention to multilingualism to</p>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>importance of having access to multilingual resources, professional development and support mechanisms</li> <li>tools and sources that are helpful, easy to use, of good quality</li> </ul> <p>Realised on the lexicogrammatical level through adjectives (e.g. “important tool”, “amazingly helpful”, “something simple”, “good translation tool”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>lack of measures that prevents action</li> </ul> <p>Realised through phrases that imply the necessity of measures (e.g. “cannot do something at a level of students if the STAFF is not hundred percent okay”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>personal experience and expression of preferences in suggesting supportive measures</li> </ul> <p>Realised using first person (e.g. “in my experience”) and phrasing that adds to the assertive tone and authoritative stance (e.g. “it’s the way to help people”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>insecurity in suggesting supportive measures</li> </ul> <p>Realised through modality (e.g. “maybe new models↑ or just small things↑ that can be changed↑”), phrases that soften the statement to leave room for alternatives (“I think”, “something else”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>urgency of employing supportive measures</li> <li>abundance of supportive measures</li> </ul> <p>Realised through intensifiers (e.g. “all the opportunities that there are”), maximisers (e.g. “we cannot do something at a level of students if the (.) if the the STAFF is not hundred percent okay”) and emphasis on words (e.g. “a TRAINING in the mastery of the language”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reluctance in suggesting supportive measures</li> </ul> <p>Realised through modality (e.g. “maybe new models↑”), downtoners (e.g. “just small things”, “just as simple as this”)</p>

	expresses a wish (e.g. “I wish we we could we we there was more”), modal verbs (e.g. “maybe new models↑ or just small things↑ that can be changed↑”)	how it ACTUALLY functions”, “not structurally very visible”)					
Students	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>desires and hopes regarding measures that would help learning in this context,</li> </ul> <p>Realised through phrases that imply the desire of the person (e.g. “it’s good to have some exam in English and French”), conditional (e.g. “in an ideal world”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>frustration, dissatisfaction, disinclination for current supportive measures or lack of them</li> <li>insecure about measures to suggest</li> </ul>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>University as caring, accommodating</li> <li>Students as thoughtful of teachers</li> </ul> <p>Realised through phrasing that frames the university as caring (e.g. « L’université donne une opportunité aux étudiants »), modal verbs as suggestions (e.g. “should”, “could”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers as inflexible, strict</li> <li>students having limited influence</li> </ul>	<p><u>Positive</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>importance of support structures, multilingual study materials, professional development</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “important”, “ideal”), verbs (e.g. “that would help a lot”)</p> <p><u>Negative</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>challenge of coming up with suggestions for supporting measures</li> <li>little importance of multilingual courses</li> </ul> <p>Realised through adjectives (e.g. “it’s very tricky”), idiomatic expression to decrease the value of multilingual courses (e.g. “it won’t take it away that</p>	<p>(few examples of monoglossic instances in making relevant suggestions)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>personal opinion, suggestions for supportive measures</li> </ul> <p>Realised through using first person (e.g. “I don’t know”, “I don’t have actual suggestions”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>suggestions for supportive measures but implying uncertainty, show reluctance</li> </ul> <p>Realised through using third person (e.g. „Man „sollte“), modal verbs (e.g. “would”), imaginary scenarios to engage more dialogically (e.g. “I don’t know if it depends on ehm:: the hierarchy let’s say”, “in an ideal world”)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>teachers’ obligation to support students</li> </ul> <p>Realised through conditional (e.g. « Les professeurs devraient nous laisser le choix de la langue »)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>in suggesting supportive measures</li> </ul> <p>Realised through conditional (e.g. “if that can help”), downtowners (e.g. “just give the lecture”), modality (e.g. “course materials would be available”)</p>

	Realised through phrases that show insecurity (e.g. “I don’t know”), modality (e.g. “it would be nice”, “should”)	Realised through modality that expresses obligation (e.g. « Les professeurs devraient nous laisser le choix »), conditional (e.g. “the students would also be let's say able to choose”)	probably a lot of the students will be able to speak multiple languages”)				
--	---	--	---	--	--	--	--

*Table 43: Realisations of evaluations regarding the university’s support in navigating linguistic diversity.*

The analysis of policy documents alongside the views of teachers and undergraduate students has revealed a complex reality regarding multilingualism and linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at the University of Luxembourg. In this academic context, multilingualism and linguistic diversity are presented as defining features of the university's identity and fundamental principles linked to academic excellence. The policy documents examined demonstrate the university's dedication to promoting multilingualism. However, the lived experiences of teachers and students reveal opportunities and challenges involved in implementing this commitment within the educational process.

More specifically, analysis of data from teachers and undergraduate students shows that multilingualism and linguistic diversity are interpreted, experienced and navigated differently depending on disciplinary context and individuals' demographic backgrounds. These factors influence how languages are used, valued, and integrated into teaching practices. The findings also reflect a desire among participating actors to better understand and respond to linguistic realities in the educational process. Their insights highlight the importance of aligning policy with practice, adopting plurilingual pedagogical practices, and providing institutional support.

The next chapter draws on the findings and provides a discussion of the most prevalent issues that emerge from the analysis in relation to the research questions, with the aim of contextualising the findings within the existing literature.

## 5. Discussion

The analysis of institutional policy documents alongside teachers' and students' experiences, lead to comprehensive insights into the role of institutional multilingualism and linguistic diversity in the educational process, and their implications. The data shows that multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the University of Luxembourg reflect the country's profile and are seen as assets that align with the university's values and policy.

More broadly, institutional policy documents specifically recognise multilingualism as part of the university's identity and a means of promoting inclusivity. However, the Pedagogical Charter refers to multilingualism as a challenge, associating it with difficulties in the educational process. The dual perspective of multilingualism and linguistic diversity is echoed in the views of teachers and students. While acknowledging the importance of multilingualism and linguistic diversity, teachers and students also identify areas that require support, adaptations and improvement. Their experiences provide valuable insights into the impact of the university's language policies and the opportunities and challenges of teaching and learning in this multilingual higher education setting.

This chapter brings together data from policy documents, teachers and undergraduate students, and discusses the key findings in light of the research objectives and relevant literature. The chapter begins with a discussion of multilingualism and diversity as core values for excellence, both within the institutional policies of the research setting and within the broader academic context. It then turns to the role and impact of policy documents on the educational process, identifying areas where more effort is needed to support multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the institutional level.

Despite the importance attributed to multilingualism and linguistic diversity, data also raises issues concerning language hierarchies, which create a discrepancy between institutional language policies and educational practices. Consequently, the third section of the chapter explores the role of language in the educational process, analysing how institutional multilingualism affects language hierarchies and language dynamics. Considering the impact of these dynamics on individual identities, the subsequent section turns to opportunities and challenges that arise in multilingual classrooms underscoring the need for more responsive and inclusive pedagogical practices. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the application of various analytical frameworks to data from teachers and students, with an emphasis on the appraisal framework.

## 5.1 Multilingualism and Diversity as Core Values for Excellence

Multilingualism and diversity are increasingly recognised as assets in higher education, linked to the development of important skills such as metalinguistic awareness (Dolas et al., 2022), academic success (e.g. Cummins, 2021; Thomas & Collier, 2012), and flexibility (Greve et al., 2024). Other studies have shown that multilingualism contributes to students' emotional and social development, as well as to their cultural awareness (García & Wei, 2014). Coleman (2006) also notes that universities that embed multilingualism as part of their values attract a more diverse student population that enhances international exchanges and collaborations.

At the University of Luxembourg, multilingualism and diversity are not merely practical considerations; they form an integral to the university's identity (Huemer, 2017). From the university's perspective, promoting multilingualism and diversity is seen as a strategic move. Institutional policy documents, particularly the Pedagogical Charter and the Multilingualism Policy, present multilingualism and diversity as crucial to its profile and vision for competitiveness and internationalisation. These documents reflect the university's aspiration for diversity through multilingualism, while also contributing to its aims of providing inclusive, quality education and academic excellence. The same view of multilingualism and diversity is reflected in data from teachers and undergraduate students. According to teachers and students, multilingualism and diversity are associated with excellence, career opportunities, openness, and participation.

However, promoting this multilingual profile reveals that a single language predominates in the educational process, thereby reinforcing a monolingual paradigm. According to the Appendix of the Study Regulations for the undergraduate level of study, although all programmes are either bilingual or multilingual, a significant proportion of courses within these programmes are delivered exclusively in one language. Teachers and students also report the routine use of a single language in the educational process, which frequently deviates from the officially designated teaching language. This indicates an institutional norm that is more closely aligned with monolingual practices than with the university's stated commitment to multilingualism and inclusion. Such a policy framework reflects a view of languages as fixed and separate, rather than as dynamic and interconnected resources that enrich the learning experience (Canagarajah & Liyanage, 2012).

This pattern is also indicative of linguistic prioritisation of certain languages, which can reinforce existing hierarchies within the academic space. Although the Multilingualism Policy recognises English, French and German as official languages and Luxembourgish as the

national language, the extensive use of selected languages, primarily English and French, entails the risk of alienating individuals whose linguistic repertoires differ from these norms. Furthermore, these hierarchies undermine the inclusivity that multilingualism and diversity represent and can hinder epistemic justice by restricting engagement with knowledge systems and sources (Gajo & Berthoud, 2020). To these, Piller (2016) adds that monolingual pedagogical approaches in multilingual contexts tend to privilege dominant languages, reinforcing linguistic hierarchies. In contrast, a plurilingual approach, one that values individuals' flexible use linguistic resources, can help address these imbalances and promote epistemic justice.

In this context, it is crucial to acknowledge the role that institutional and individual language ideologies play in shaping the conception and implementation of multilingualism. These ideologies influence practices, and are interconnected, often reinforcing existing hierarchies and assumptions about language. This highlights the need to rethink multilingualism and linguistic diversity in ways that reflect the lived experiences of this academic community. This requires moving beyond the monolingual paradigm to adopt flexible plurilingual approaches that align with the university's multilingual aspirations, promoting inclusion and equitable access to education.

## 5.2 Addressing the Gap Between Language Policy and Language Reality in Classrooms

The differences between institutional policy and individual practice become particularly apparent when examined in greater detail. The second section of the Discussion chapter therefore draws on data that provide insights into the impact of institutional language policies on actual language use and practices in classrooms. This section highlights the disconnect that can arise between institutional policy and everyday teaching and learning practices and explores how policy documents influence pedagogical decisions. It also identifies areas where additional measures are needed to promote diversity and multilingualism. These findings are contextualised by relevant literature on the impact of language policies on the educational process as well as effective practices in multilingual classrooms.

Educational institutions have been greatly concerned with addressing and implementing language policies in managing multilingualism (Lindström, 2012). Such policies demonstrate that institutions consider both the local and global contexts in which they operate (Stromquist, 2002). The primary sources of information on multilingualism at the University

of Luxembourg are the Multilingualism Policy and the Pedagogical Charter. These documents represent multilingualism as a significant feature of the university in national and international contexts, thereby enriching the academic experience of teachers and students.

However, the impact of these policies on teaching and learning practices requires closer examination. The aforementioned two policy documents embed multilingualism in the educational process to support inclusion and linguistic diversity. These policy documents envision the implementation of multilingualism through bilingual and multilingual study programmes based on intercultural curricula. Specifically, the Multilingualism Policy states that the selection of teaching languages depends on the specific field of study and job market demands. The Pedagogical Charter refers to the expectations for teachers and students to translate across languages, concepts and paradigms. The same document also requires teachers to find ways to accommodate diversity in the classroom and meet students' needs.

Nevertheless, implementing multilingualism is often more complex in practice. Data from teachers shows that, although most are aware of and acknowledge the university's language policy, there is some ambiguity in its application. Some participating teachers interpret the policy as requiring the use of multiple languages during instruction, the provision of material in all of the university's languages and allowing students to choose their preferred language for assignments and exams. This group of teachers tends to demonstrate more flexible and inclusive language practices. They report selecting the language of instruction based on the linguistic profiles of the majority of students, as well as translating key concepts to support understanding across the different university languages. Other teachers emphasise the consistent use of the teaching language throughout the course, highlighting the specific linguistic demands of their academic fields. This group cites several reasons for maintaining monolingual instruction, including promoting linguistic proficiency in the teaching language, which they deem a prerequisite for success in the respective fields of study, adhering to official language policies, and the lack of guidance on the practical integration of multiple languages in teaching.

Students have commented on the inconsistency in language use across different courses and between teachers. For instance, students have referred to cases where the course curriculum specifies a particular language for teaching, but a different language is used in class. Students' experiences with regard to language use in instruction contradict those of teachers. Indeed, while teachers express support for adapting the teaching language(s) based on students' profiles, students note that they often need to adapt to the profile of the teacher. Another

example comes from students who explain that, despite of the university's multilingual character, one language (typically English or French) predominates over the others.

The lived experiences of teachers and students regarding language use in courses reveal a disconnect between the university's language policy and its actual implementation. Although the University of Luxembourg presents itself as multilingual and its policies promote multilingualism, participating teachers and students often report language practices that predominantly rely on a single language. Such use of language is indicative of the "narrow" (Mbulungeni, 2018, p. 504) definition of multilingual universities, where institutional language policies are limited to a model of parallel multilingualism using separate languages for distinct functions (Dafouz & Smit, 2014). These predominantly monolingual practices diverge from fluid multilingual realities present in the context (e.g. Androulakis et al., 2015; Gorter & Cenoz, 2017; Iakovou et al., 2023) and overlook individuals' plurilingual profiles.

This understanding of linguistic diversity becomes problematic when situated in a highly diverse setting, as is the University of Luxembourg, where individuals bring complex linguistic repertoires shaped by their diverse cultural and educational backgrounds. In such contexts, drawing clear boundaries between languages becomes challenging, and potentially, conceptually limiting. Although terms like multilingualism are still relevant as they reveal how language is officially framed and operationalised in policies, they do not fully capture complexity of language use (Conceição, 2020).

In response to these points, Conceição (2020) emphasises the need for clear, strategically designed language policies that actively promote linguistic diversity. Duarte (2022) discusses such policies, examining the implications of implementing plurilingual language policies at the University of Groningen. The findings conclude that plurilingual policies have many benefits, including enabling students to use all their linguistic resources, promoting openness, alternative perspectives and new ways of thinking (Duarte, 2022; Yanaprasart & Lüdi, 2017). In the same direction, Corino et al. (2025) describe UNITA's strategy for addressing linguistic diversity, including the steps taken to design curricula that embrace plurilingual practices, particularly using intercomprehension.

Collectively, the findings call for more flexible conceptual frameworks that can capture the linguistic complexity and diversity, especially at multilingual universities such as the University of Luxembourg. Adopting plurilingual policy frameworks is essential in order to address the deeper structural issues of linguistic inequality and the marginalisation of populations and languages. With that in mind, the following section explores how these

hierarchies are observed within the university and how they influence access, inclusion, and identity.

### 5.3 The Roles and Status of Languages in Teaching and Learning at the University of Luxembourg

The discrepancy between institutional language policies and actual practices highlights tensions within multilingual higher education institutions. One such tension, as Lindström (2012), points out, is the challenge faced by European universities in balancing regional multilingualism with the pressures to conform to global academic standards. Language plays a crucial role in these tensions as it influences the content of teaching and the transmission of knowledge. It also affirms diversity and determines who is included and excluded from the educational process and how individuals perceive themselves in these academic spaces (le Cordeur, 2013).

As explored in the first section of the Discussion chapter, despite of the increasing importance of multilingualism at a broader level (Iakovou et al., 2023), institutional language policies often remain limited to an underlying “monolingual mindset” (Lo Bianco & Aronin, 2020, p. 4). Such policies are often influenced by ideologies that categorise some languages as “strong” and others as “weak” (Kubota, 2016; Tsioli & Androulakis, 2024, p. 1432), reinforcing language hierarchies that sustain persisting linguistic inequalities (Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson, 1996). Piller (2016) further argues that monolingual academic practices tend to perpetuate linguistic inequalities by favouring dominant languages and marginalising speakers of less powerful languages, limiting their meaningful participation in academic discourse. This dynamic also raises critical questions about linguistic (human) rights, which are fundamental to inclusive education (Tsioli & Androulakis, 2014).

At the University of Luxembourg, language hierarchies have been evident since the establishment of the University’s Language Centre (ULLC), when German was the least present language of instruction, compared to English and French (Huemer, 2017). These dynamics are reflected in institutional documents. According to the Multilingualism Policy, each language occupies a distinct role depending on the institutional domain (see Figure 10) with symbols used in the visual representation of the policy to clarify the ranking of the languages. Specifically, ‘#1’ highlights the dominant language in a given domain (e.g. “Research lingua franca EN#1”) whereas an ellipsis typically suggests that some languages may be omitted or that the list continues beyond what is explicitly shown (e.g. “Central

Services FR/EN/DE...LUX”). In this case, since the Multilingualism Policy document does not reference any additional languages beyond those listed, the ellipsis is best understood as indicating the relative positioning of languages, usually marking that the last language occupies a subordinate position in the hierarchy. This visual hierarchy effectively highlights the distinct status and functional roles assigned to each language in various institutional domains, reflecting their prioritised use in administration, research, teaching and learning and central services.

The presence of hierarchical language dynamics is reflected in the experiences of teachers and students. Precisely, they report that languages within the university are often perceived as unequal, which shapes language practices. According to these accounts, English and French are widely used throughout the educational process, often at the expense of German and Luxembourgish. Meanwhile, languages other than the four university ones rarely appear.

Teachers and students attribute the extensive use of English at this university to two main factors: its international orientation and the diverse linguistic backgrounds of its faculty and student body. In the data, English is often framed as a neutral and practical choice that facilitates effective and inclusive communication within this multilingual context. At the same time, literature shows that internationalisation (e.g. Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Gazzola, 2017) is often constrained to the use of English. However, Preisler et al. (2011) argue that instead of limiting language use to English, internationalisation should actually embrace linguistic diversity.

For the French language, Fehlen (2013) writes that it has undergone significant transition in Luxembourg, evolving from a prestigious language to the primary means of communication in institutional affairs. This shift mirrors the broader societal role of French, which continues to dominate legal and governmental contexts (Küpper & Sieburg, 2020). In the data, French is consistently framed as both the legal language and the primary language of administration. Consequently, French remains the key language for legal studies, administration, and official documentation within the university. This positioning indicates the continued high status of French language as a functional and symbolic language at the university. At the same time, however, teachers and students perceive French as being in decline, increasingly overshadowed by the influence of other languages, particularly English. This view is similar to that of the Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie, which states that French is losing the battle against English in higher education.

Contrary to literature that discusses the decreasing importance of German language in academia (Roche, 2012), participating teachers and students comment on its increasing prevalence. The two groups have noted that German is becoming more popular, particularly

among individuals who have completed their schooling in the Luxembourgish system. Huemer (2017) observes that many Luxembourgish students opt for German over French, especially for written tasks, “as they reportedly feel more confident in German” (Huemer, 2017, p. 104). This preference can be explained by the fact that German has traditionally been used for literacy and instruction in the Luxembourgish education system (Küpper & Sieburg, 2020), aligning with Goethe University’s assertion that the German language remains closely connected to German speaking student populations. This point will soon be called into question as the public educational system in Luxembourg is evolving to allow parents to choose between German and French for their children’s alphabetisation. Nevertheless, the students involved in this study were taught under an earlier model where German was predominantly used for literacy development<sup>23</sup>.

In this language hierarchy at the university, the Luxembourgish language is characterised by a multifaceted status, being predominantly used in oral and informal interactions (Gilles et al., 2010), while also serving as the national language (Sieburg, 2013). Despite the measures taken to promote the language, as described in the Literature Review chapter, data shows that teachers and students advocate for its expanded use, consistently calling for greater visibility and development of Luxembourgish as an academic language. This finding contributes to the reinforcement of existing language hierarchies and draws attention to the limited role of the Luxembourgish language at the university, mostly in informal contexts.

This institutional hierarchy contrasts with the broader societal context, in which Luxembourgish carries higher social prestige and is closely associated with higher status employment and integration opportunities. Adding to the role of Luxembourgish, the government officially established the Dag vun der Lëtzebuurger Sprooch (Day of the Luxembourgish Language)<sup>24</sup> for the first time this year, to be celebrated on the same day as the European Day of Languages (26 September). This deliberate overlap, as explicitly stated in the government’s announcement, serves a dual purpose. Firstly, it aims to raise the profile of Luxembourgish as the national language. The second aim is to encourage broader reflection on Luxembourg’s multilingual context. Linked to a wider European framework, this national

---

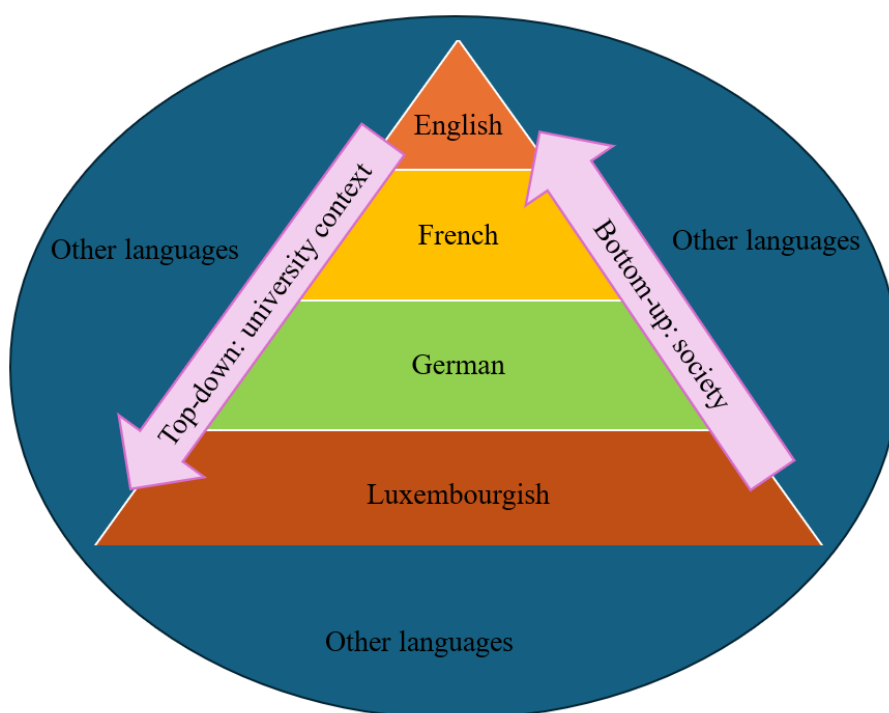
<sup>23</sup> Feu vert pour « ALPHA – zesumme wuessen ». Site du ministère de l’Éducation nationale, de l’Enfance et de la Jeunesse. (11 July 2025). Retrieved from: <https://men.public.lu/fr/actualites/communiqués-conference-presse/2025/07/11-projet-alpha-fr.html>

<sup>24</sup> Dag vun der Lëtzebuurger Sprooch - Day of the Luxembourgish Language. The Luxembourg government. (24 September 2025). Retrieved from: [https://gouvernement.lu/en/actualites/agenda.gouv2024\\_mcult%2Ben%2Bdossiers%2B2025%2Bdag-vun-der-letzebuurger-sprooch.html](https://gouvernement.lu/en/actualites/agenda.gouv2024_mcult%2Ben%2Bdossiers%2B2025%2Bdag-vun-der-letzebuurger-sprooch.html)

celebration adds to the coexistence of national identity and multilingualism. It demonstrates an institutional commitment to affirming the cultural and symbolic importance of Luxembourgish, while potentially addressing concerns about its limited use in formal and academic domains.

Languages beyond the four university ones receive limited mention in institutional documents. In fact, none of the policy documents examined reference these additional languages, except for the Pedagogical Charter, which implicitly recognises the variety of languages present in students' linguistic profiles by acknowledging the diversity of the university community. From teachers' perspective, other languages are often associated with specific student groups and linked to their cultural identities (e.g. Italian among Italian students). However, only a small number of teachers report actively incorporating these languages into their teaching practices. Similarly, when students mention other languages, it is usually because they are their first languages, which they may occasionally use to take notes or make connections while studying, but they rarely use them openly in classroom interaction.

The above paragraphs introduce a dual language hierarchy, which is illustrated in the form of a pyramid in Figure 40. Rather than providing an exhaustive depiction of the language reality, this pyramid aims to reflect institutional priorities and the differing status of languages within the university and the broader, national context.



*Figure 40: The hierarchy of languages within the local and the national context.*

The visual representation of language hierarchies can be interpreted in two complementary ways, depending on the perspective through which Figure 40 is viewed. From the university's perspective, the pyramid can be read top-down, reflecting an institutional prioritisation of English, which is positioned as the dominant language. In contrast, from a societal perspective, the pyramid can be interpreted from the bottom up, with Luxembourgish, the national language, rising in importance. From this perspective, Luxembourgish holds strong symbolic and cultural value, closely tied to national identity. At the same time, Luxembourgish enjoys high prestige in the broader social context, where it is often considered a marker of integration and linked to better job positions. However, despite this social significance, Luxembourgish remains underrepresented in the university's policy framework. Its limited presence in academic and administrative domains reveals a disconnect between institutional language policies and the value attached to the language.

Another important point illustrated by Figure 40 is that the diverse linguistic repertoires of individuals are secondary from both perspectives. Beneath the languages explicitly recognised in university policy and planning documents, a wide range of other languages are spoken by teachers and students. Although largely invisible in university discourse, these languages play a significant role in the daily lives of the wider community. As mentioned in Section 3.2.1 regarding the University of Luxembourg, approximately 33% of the population are allophones. Figure 40 depicts these languages as underlying, peripheral elements that are not explicitly represented, but are very much present in the university and societal context. The university indirectly acknowledges the presence of these languages through references to 'diversity' and 'multilingualism' in the Pedagogical Charter. This indirectness signals more of a symbolic recognition, reflecting a gap between the institution's discourse on multilingualism and its actual practices. Consequently, the linguistic repertoires of a significant proportion of the university community remain underused and unacknowledged, consistent with prior research on "unseen" languages (Darling, 2024, p. 1451).

These findings also align with prior research showing that, although teachers are aware of the linguistic diversity among their students, the linguistic resources these students bring to the classroom are often overlooked or undervalued within the institution (e.g. Darling, 2024; Kaufhold & Wennerberg, 2020). As Darling and Dervin (2023) note, universities may sometimes highlight linguistic diversity for marketing or branding purposes, yet students' linguistic resources remain marginalised. This contradiction adds to the disconnect between individual linguistic realities, institutional policies, and language hierarchies.

In addition to these, teachers and students report the impact of language hierarchies on self-perception and identities. Those who are more proficient in dominant languages, particularly English and French, report feeling privileged while those with limited proficiency in these languages may feel marginalised. The findings also demonstrate that language plays a more significant role in the educational process than merely facilitating communication. In fact, language is socially and politically charged, impacting knowledge, participation, and power. Some participating teachers report feeling privileged because of the languages they speak, while others neglect parts of their linguistic repertoire to conform to the linguistic reality of the university. Similar examples come from the group of undergraduate students. Students report that those who do not speak one or more of the languages they consider prestigious languages, primarily Luxembourgish and French, may feel excluded in certain social and academic situations. This finding reflects broader research indicating that language hierarchies can result in the marginalisation of certain groups and reinforce social inequalities in universities (Wolfram & Dunstan, 2021).

Teachers and students' experiences in relation to feelings of privilege or exclusion show the correlation between language hierarchy and sense of belonging. In this respect, language is closely connected to individuals' identities. Relevant research indicates that individuals' linguistic repertoires in multilingual educational environments directly impacts their sense of self and their perception of reality (Gayton et al., 2025). For students, research indicates that acknowledging and integrating their linguistic repertoire, particularly their first language(s), into the educational process affirms their identities. This increases their sense of pride and inclusion (García & Sylvan, 2011). Conversely, when students' linguistic profiles are ignored, they may experience a sense of alienation and consequently disengage from the educational process. Paulsrud and Gheitasi (2024) advocate a pedagogical shift based on this, arguing for an acknowledgment of students' linguistic repertoires. They contend that overlooking students' linguistic repertoires and multilingual identities is "neither ethical nor effective" (Paulsrud & Gheitasi, p. 13).

In conclusion, a detailed examination of the multilingual landscape at the University of Luxembourg reveals a clear hierarchy among the languages, with the Multilingualism Policy confirming their unique roles. English is the dominant lingua franca, while French has a high status serving as the legal language of the country. German, on the other hand, occupies a distinct position, particularly as a written language and in specific fields such as humanities and engineering (Huemer, 2017; Küpper & Sieburg, 2020). Despite growing recognition of Luxembourgish as a reflection of, and contributor to, Luxembourg's linguistic and cultural

identity, it continues to play a relatively minor role within the university, with calls for greater visibility and integration into academic context.

Findings show how the perception and use of language reflect and contribute to the dynamics at the University of Luxembourg. In this context, teachers and students adopt approaches that reflect monolingual ideologies, viewing languages as distinct entities and thereby reinforcing language separation (Portolés & Martí, 2020). However, the correlation between language hierarchies, academic participation, and identity calls for pedagogical approaches that transcend language policies to promote equity and inclusion. Consequently, language must be viewed as a dynamic entity shaped by individuals and institutions must promote pedagogical practices that actively incorporate individual, lived multilingualism into the educational process (Neuland, 2005; van der Walt, 2013).

Drawing on these findings, the next section explores the need for effective practices that promote linguistic diversity and incorporate students' linguistic repertoires.

#### 5.4 Opportunities and Challenges in Multilingual Classrooms: The Need for Plurilingual Pedagogical Practices

In order to design effective language policies and address the role of language in higher education, it is essential to critically examine the underlying language ideologies. These ideologies inform and reflect policies (Gal, 2006; Saarinen, 2020), thereby shaping the academic experiences of individuals. In this respect, examining teaching and learning practices at a micro-level, incorporating the perspectives of teachers and students, becomes important (Uysal & Sah, 2024). At the University of Luxembourg, multilingualism and diversity present both opportunities and challenges. Examining the implications of these factors opens the possibility of developing more informed and inclusive pedagogical practices that respond to linguistic diversity.

In policy documents, multilingualism and diversity are framed as assets that promote inclusivity, encourage exchange and add to the international profile of the institution. For teachers and students, linguistic diversity is associated with opportunities to engage with multiple languages and cultures, broaden communication networks, and develop skills that enhance their future career prospects. Similar advantages have been supported by prior research, which has connected multilingualism with the development of communication and emotional skills (Gnaoré, 2024), as well as cognitive and academic abilities (Greve et al., 2024). Such developments can lead to academic success (Cummins, 2021), professional

growth, and career advancement, particularly within the European Union (Pietrzyk–Kowalec, 2023).

Although students' motivations were not a direct focus of the study, and therefore students were not explicitly asked to list the reasons why they study in this context, their reflections on the opportunities associated with a multilingual academic environment provide valuable insights into the factors that may underlie their motivation. Research on student motivation has demonstrated its complex, dynamic nature, shaped by a variety of internal and external factors (e.g. Dörnyei, 2009). In multilingual higher education institutions such as the University of Luxembourg, where most staff and students are plurilingual, the shift in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research towards a 'multilingual turn' (e.g. May, 2014) has sparked interest in how motivation operates within diverse linguistic repertoires. Findings from recent studies indicate that plurilingual individuals tend to develop distinct motivational trajectories, influenced by their previous language learning experiences, the sociolinguistic environments they navigate, and their goals related to personal development, academic achievement, or professional mobility (Busse, 2017; Henry & Thorsen, 2018).

Although relevant research recognises the value of plurilingual students' motivation (Göksu & Louis, 2025), and despite being one of the biggest challenges in higher education (Brahm et al., 2017), this dimension is notably absent from the institutional framework. Instead, the objectives in the documents examined often emphasise employability or alignment with the institution's vision of multilingualism. Indicatively, the Appendix of the Study Regulations refers to developing skills for working in multilingual environments but does not consider how students perceive, value or engage with learning in this context. In such a multilingual university setting, however, acknowledging the motivational drivers is important for designing flexible curricula and inclusive, student responsive–language policies, as mentioned in the Pedagogical Charter.

In addition to the opportunities, teachers and students refer to the challenges they face when it comes to teaching and learning in this context. Precisely, they describe linguistic diversity as posing challenges to the educational process. When discussing these challenges, teachers and students frame language as a problem that complicates the academic experience and hinders teaching and learning. They mention fatigue, confusion, uncertainty, and imprecision that arise from using multiple languages in the educational process. Furthermore, teachers discuss how students' low language proficiency affects their academic performance. These findings are in agreement with earlier research on the challenges of teaching and learning in multilingual academic settings, where language barriers can impede effective

communication (Hallberg, 2010; Vygotsky, 1978), hinder understanding (Harzing & Feely, 2007) and complicate the teaching process (Parveen, et al. 2022). Regarding students, Baker (2011) states that language barriers negatively impact academic performance. Dabaj and Yetkin (2011) mention discomfort, and Cabanillas (2023) adds reduced participation and low self-esteem.

In view of the diversity of individuals and the implications of teaching and learning in such educational contexts, the question that arises concerns the development and application of measures and practices to accommodate this diversity (van der Walt, 2015). At the institutional level, the university already has some measures in place. In terms of language support, the ULLC offers a variety of initiatives designed to enhance the language competencies of staff students. These include academic language courses for different levels of proficiency in several languages, such as English, French, German, Portuguese and Italian. In addition to these official language classes, the ULLC organises multilingual and interactive initiatives that promote language exchange. Examples of such initiatives are the weekly language cafés, the writing consultations with trained peer tutors and the tandem learning partnerships. The ULLC also promotes autonomous learning through online resources on its official website and collaborates with the INLL to provide additional language learning opportunities.

Beyond language learning opportunities, the university's commitment to multilingualism is most evident in the classroom. According to the Pedagogical Charter, teachers are encouraged to use innovative teaching methods to make courses accessible to a diverse student body. The data shows that teachers use a variety of approaches, such as collaborative and multimodal learning, which students generally evaluate positively. One form of collaborative learning that both teachers and students mention is group work and peer support. Teachers note that working in groups enhances understanding and active participation in class. Similarly, students describe these practices as helpful and engaging. These findings are supported by the literature, which indicates that peer-to-peer learning capitalises on the advantages of learning in a multilingual environment (Sanger, 2020) and improves academic performance (Zhao & Kuh, 2004).

Teachers also mention the use of different forms and kinds of material in a multimodal learning approach. Some teachers report that using visual aids significantly improves students' understanding. Other participating teachers emphasise the importance of dictionaries and translation tools in helping students to overcome language barriers. Students' preferences also vary. Some students find written texts helpful, while others report that visual elements, such as

graphs and images, are more effective. This underscores the need for diverse, multimodal teaching strategies to address these differing needs. Sanger (2020) therefore suggests using a variety of formats and types of material in teaching, to give students the flexibility to choose the method that best meets their needs.

Another practice associated with positive learning outcomes is encouraging students, building their confidence, and setting clear goals and expectations (Sanger, 2020). One of the participating teachers reflected on the importance of developing students' confidence in using the designated teaching language. This teacher highly values the creation of a supportive classroom environment in which students feel comfortable practising their language skills, particularly in languages in which they are less confident. The same teacher also explains that admitting to one's own language mistakes can normalise errors and help students feel more comfortable.

However, some teachers adopt a more rigid approach, insisting on the 'correct' use of language. This emphasis on correctness is echoed in student perspectives. In fact, participating students report avoiding mixing or switching between languages because they consider these practices to be less formal and believe that they could affect their grades negatively. Research supports the idea that aligning the teaching language with disciplinary conventions enhances student performance (Nekrasova–Beker, 2019). Yet, as Lloyd (1952) supports, a “mania for correctness” (Rymes et al., 2024, p. 184) can perpetuate language ideologies that hinder the expression of ideas and opinions, thereby undermining students' confidence and engagement.

Other participating teachers demonstrate inclusive principles by incorporating students' prior experiences into their teaching. Their approach is in line with the Universal Design for Learning (UDL), which encourages teachers to engage with students' backgrounds, identities and academic experiences in order to create accessible learning environments (Sanger, 2020). Cognitive load theory further supports this approach, suggesting that activating students' prior knowledge reduces cognitive overload and improves learning outcomes (Pecore et al., 2017; van Riesen et al., 2019).

In considering students' profiles, some teachers report selecting the language of instruction based on the dominant linguistic background of the class and supplementing their teaching by translating key concepts to support understanding across the university's languages. However, Florian and Black–Hawkins (2011) advocate shifting from pedagogical approaches designed to serve certain students, even if they are the majority, towards pedagogies that actively include and support the participation of all students. Echoing this perspective, Giannini (2024), UNESCO's Assistant Director–General for Education, underscores that

inclusive education embraces a mindset which adopts practices that encourage participation, value multilingualism and diversity, and ensure the success of every individual student. Studies in bilingual education (e.g. García & Wei, 2014) demonstrate that the intentional use of multiple languages can help students to grasp complex concepts, creating an environment in which language is viewed as a resource and linguistic diversity is valued.

Other inclusive pedagogical practices have been employed to overcome challenges related to multilingualism and diversity in higher education institutions (e.g. Hockings, 2011; Sanger, 2020). For example, van der Walt's (2016) research at the University of Stellenbosch in South Africa found that allowing lecturers to switch between English and Afrikaans helped students understand complex material, especially when supplemented with bilingual resources such as glossaries and presentation slides. Another study in the South African context by Carstens (2019) concluded that permitting the informal use of students' first languages encourages a supportive environment. To these, Cenoz and Gorter (2024) add translanguaging as a strategy that can enrich the learning experience and provide access to a wider range of information. Translanguaging can support content and language learning, particularly when students lack proficiency in the language of instruction.

At the wider European level, findings from the DYLAN project (Language Dynamics and Management of Diversity) reveal that students are more likely to adopt plurilingual practices collaboratively and adapt their language use depending on the context when they are aware of each other's linguistic skills, rather than adhering to rigid policy. In another example from the Italian context at the University of Padova, Guarda and Helm (2017) found that integrating students' first languages alongside the official medium of instruction encourages greater classroom interaction and confidence, particularly when students are allowed to discuss and ask questions in their preferred language.

These examples demonstrate an increasing focus on plurilingual approaches and a greater recognition of linguistic diversity in student engagement. This emphasis becomes more relevant in the current context, where artificial intelligence (AI) tools and applications are being promoted as solutions for managing linguistic diversity in higher education. Technologies, such as automated translation applications and live translation equipment enable real-time access to course content in students' preferred languages. However, these tools often overlook interpersonal and pedagogical aspects of learning. Moreover, such tools tend to privilege the linguistic varieties with more developed digital infrastructures while marginalising others, thereby adding to language hierarchies and existing inequalities, particularly when access to them is costly.

By contrast, plurilingual practices recognise the value of students' linguistic backgrounds, facilitating deeper learning, sparking new ways of thinking and empowering students (Duarte, 2022; French, 2019; Nwachukwu et al., 2024). They promote inclusive and equitable teaching that supports all students, rather than just the majority. Furthermore, plurilingual practices actively recognise and develop students' plurilingual identities, also supporting students' pride in their languages, something that AI alone could not address. According to Sulis et al. (2025), such pride is connected to motivation and is influenced by students' beliefs about linguistic diversity and, both of which require human interaction and recognition. Therefore, plurilingual pedagogies can cultivate the emotional and identity dimensions of learning and have the capacity to validate plurilingual identities. In this respect, while AI can complement inclusive pedagogical practices when used wisely, plurilingual pedagogies remain essential and in alignment with the University of Luxembourg's policy framework and core values.

Even though practices such as collaborative learning and student empowerment are already present in data, teachers express the need for additional support in order to develop more inclusive and linguistically responsive teaching practices. Specifically, they emphasise the importance of targeted training and accessible resources to enhance their teaching methods. At the university context, during the workshop 'Teaching and learning in the multilingual classroom', which was held as part of the university's 'ACT–Advancing Competence in Teaching for Student Success' initiative in February 2024, the need for additional training on multilingual concepts and plurilingual practices was expressed (Huemer & Skourmalla, 2025).

Prior research has shown that professional development in higher education often prioritises English–medium instruction (Otwinowska, 2017) or general multilingual paradigms (De Angelis, 2011), with less emphasis on plurilingual practices (Portolés & Martí, 2020). Nevertheless, Torre and Emanuel (2024) stress that empowering teachers with the necessary knowledge and tools to work effectively with linguistic diversity is essential for meaningful inclusion in multilingual higher education contexts. Mercer (2021) even talks about 'plurilingual wellbeing' in teacher training. The concept is also central in the project 'Fostering the plurilingual wellbeing of language teachers' of the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML). Even though the project is aimed at language teachers, the notion of plurilingual wellbeing points to challenges associated with implementing plurilingual approaches and highlights how positive engagement with one's own and students' linguistic repertoires can strengthen teachers' professional competencies and support plurilingualism. The need for institutional support and targeted professional development is echoed in the report of the

project ‘Promoting Plurilingual Education (PEP)’ (Cortés Velásquez, et al., 2025), where the availability of training and tailored resources emerge as essential for enabling pedagogical change.

The establishment of the Institute for Innovative Teaching and Learning (I<sup>2</sup>TL)<sup>25</sup> in September 2025 marks a promising response to this discussion. Bringing together initiatives in teacher development, digital education, and pedagogical innovation, the I<sup>2</sup>TL provides a structured platform for advancing plurilingual, research-informed and interactive teaching. In such a multilingual academic context, it is crucial to shift the conversation towards placing diversity at the heart of higher education, where it can serve as a catalyst for advancing institutional missions and broader societal goals (Smith, 2020). In this evolving framework, questions remain about how deeply and sustainably these principles will be embedded across the institution.

## 5.5 Applying the Appraisal Framework to Data from Teachers and Students

Although reflexive thematic analysis and policy document analysis were employed alongside the appraisal framework to analyse data, the last part of the Discussion chapter focuses specifically on the appraisal framework. This framework offers the most direct lens through which to interpret teachers and students’ evaluative expressions, and to examine how they position themselves within the multilingual context. As such, it offers particularly valuable insights that align closely with the discussion.

Prior research has primarily applied the appraisal framework to the analysis of written discourse (e.g. Cárcamo Morales, 2020; Moyano, 2019) and specialised forms, such as commercial, historical, autobiographical discourse (Fortanet-Gómez, 2022; Li, 2020), as well as legal, scientific, literary and academic discourse (Xu, 2013), and political discourse (e.g. Aloy Mayo & Taboada 2017). However, it has been used far less frequently in the analysis of spoken discourse (Fortanet-Gómez, 2022). Nevertheless, the present study builds on previous research which found appraisal to be an effective and appropriate method for analysing spoken discourse (Fortanet-Gómez, 2022), as it provides valuable insights into how teachers and students articulate their lived experiences and ideological stances during semistructured interviews, focus group discussions and responses to open-ended questions in the online survey. Furthermore, although the appraisal framework was originally developed and primarily

---

<sup>25</sup> Institute for Innovative Teaching and Learning (I<sup>2</sup>TL). University of Luxembourg. Retrieved from: [Institute for Innovative Teaching and Learning \(I<sup>2</sup>TL\) | Uni.lu](https://www.uni.lu/i2tl)

applied to English language data (Martin & White, 2005), the present research corroborates previous findings which suggest that the framework can be applied to other language contexts (e.g. Fortanet-Gómez, 2022; Ngo & Unsworth, 2018; Oteíza & Pinuer, 2019) as well as to multilingual contexts involving plurilingual participants (e.g. McKinley, 2018).

A thorough examination of the systems and subsystems of the appraisal framework as employed for the present research, reveals that participating teachers and students use attitudinal resources, notably evaluative resources of affect, judgement, and appreciation, which indicate their values and perceptions, as well as their thoughts, feelings and evaluations regarding language practices and diversity at the university.

The subsystem of affect is prevalent throughout the data, particularly as teachers and students describe their emotional responses to the multilingual environment. Teachers and students alike express a wide range of feelings related to language, including joy, satisfaction, pride, insecurity, fear, frustration, exclusion, and stress. For instance, teachers often use positive affective language to describe students' emotional responses to inclusive teaching practices, or the satisfaction students experience when receiving materials in a familiar language. Conversely, negative affect surfaces in moments when individuals report facing exclusion or linguistic barriers, often linked to feelings of discomfort or distress. Both groups of social actors express insecurity, although it is particularly prominent in students' narratives when they reflect on their own linguistic abilities and how they navigate academic tasks in multiple languages. Teachers also express feelings of insecurity, especially when discussing how to respond to students' diverse linguistic profiles and needs.

Previous research highlights the important role of emotions in higher education in shaping how teachers teach, how students learn, and how they interact in the educational process (Mendzheritskaya & Hansen, 2019). Emotions have also been shown to impact key cognitive functions such as attention, reasoning, and problem solving, which are crucial to students' academic success and motivation (e.g. Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2012; Valiente et al., 2012). Nevertheless, most relevant research has focused on school settings, with a growing body of scholars (e.g. Hagenauer & Volet, 2014; Postareff & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2011) calling for greater attention to be paid to the study of emotions in higher education. The present study contributes to this growing field by examining the complex interplay between language and the educational experience at the multilingual University of Luxembourg. It explores the emotional dimensions of this setting, shedding light on how students and teachers navigate feelings such as pride, frustration, and insecurity in response to linguistic diversity and institutional policies.

Judgement emerges as another significant subsystem of attitude, with both teachers and students using evaluative language to primarily assess normality, capacity, tenacity, and propriety. Teachers frequently use judgement resources to talk about their own language practices, pedagogical strategies, and the linguistic abilities of students, often portraying themselves as flexible, responsive and supportive. Research shows that teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs, that is, confidence in their ability to manage and influence teaching outcomes, are more effective in the classroom. Teachers with such beliefs adopt innovative instructional strategies and show greater resilience when facing pedagogical challenges (Buckingham & Fernández-Fernández, 2025; Morris & Usher, 2011). Moreover, teachers' positive self-perception and confidence enhance their performance, which has a positive impact on students, who tend to have higher expectations and perform better academically (Mas, 2012). This connection is reflected in students' evaluations of teaching practices, especially with regard to language choice, which are often framed in terms of propriety. Additionally, evaluations of the alignment of teaching practices with students' requirements and institutional norms emphasise the impact of staff confidence and perceived proficiency on students' academic experiences and perceptions of fairness.

The concept of self-efficacy is equally important when examining students' own perceptions and behaviours. In this study, students often evaluate their own linguistic competence with a mix of confidence and uncertainty, particularly in relation to academic language use. However, in few of these instances, students position themselves as active, independent agents in their learning. Instead, success or difficulty is frequently attributed to external factors such as the teaching practices, or the language level, suggesting limited sense of learner agency. As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) state, perceived language proficiency is closely linked to learning achievement, and this perception can influence learning behaviour regardless of its correlation with actual performance (Du, 2015). Addressing these issues in the classroom could encourage students to take greater ownership of their own learning (Pirhonen, 2022), particularly in linguistically diverse and demanding university contexts.

The subcategory of judgement, normality, emerges when individuals refer to national or linguistic origin to justify language preferences or practices. In the data set, language choices are often evaluated in connection to one's national origin. Relevant instances reveal that teachers and students' perceptions of identity, belonging and legitimacy are closely tied to what they consider to be expected, usual or acceptable in terms of language use. Thus, perceptions of language and identity become deeply embedded in individuals' experiences, serving as powerful indicators of underlying social norms and hierarchies. In relevant research, the

connection between language and identity has been shown to play a critical role in shaping everyday experiences within higher education (Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004). One of the most visible ways for this link is through individuals' national and linguistic backgrounds, which serve as personal identifiers and markers of inclusion or exclusion in the university environment (Leibowitz et al., 2005).

In total, the appraisal framework proved to be a valuable tool for the systematic exploration of teachers and students' discourses at this multilingual university. It offered a structured yet adaptable approach to explore how the two groups of social actors evaluate their lived experiences. The analysis and discussion of the findings provide valuable insights and highlight some key considerations regarding multilingualism, linguistic diversity, and the role of language policies at the University of Luxembourg. Central among these is the importance of institutional clarity around language policies, as these reflect the institution's stance institutional stance and shape how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are framed and enacted. Coherent and clear language policies also provide a framework within which pedagogical approaches can develop. In this context, plurilingual pedagogical approaches emerge as necessary to address the complex and dynamic linguistic repertoires of the university community, particularly students. Development of flexible, context-sensitive frameworks acknowledge linguistic diversity as an inherent aspect of the academic experience, challenging implicit hierarchies that privilege certain languages over others. Together, these elements highlight the need for language policies and pedagogical practices that recognise individuals' full linguistic repertoires, engage with dynamic linguistic realities as part of academic life and promote social justice.

## 6. Limitations

The discussion of the findings gave rise to significant practical implications for the university. Nonetheless, this research is limited in some respects, primarily relating to the methodology and research methods used to collect the data, and the sample size.

To begin with, the present study adopts a case study approach to examine the University of Luxembourg. This approach allows for an in-depth analysis of the setting and the description of complex dynamics within it. While this approach limits the generalisability of the study to a particular context, I adopt Dobson et al.'s (1981) view that a case study is “not so much a sample of one, but rather a population of one: the study is descriptive and valid only for its subject” (Dobson et al., 1981, p. 32–33). In response to this limitation, the present study follows Merriam's (1998) argument that a single case is selected for its capacity to provide in-depth understanding of a particular phenomenon rather than to ascertain the universality of its principles.

The case study approach to research has also been criticised due to its high degree of subjectivity. The selection of a research setting, the recruitment of participants, and the collection and interpretation of data are all influenced by the researcher's beliefs and perspectives (Merriam, 1998). To that, it is important to acknowledge that subjectivity is an inherent element of qualitative research. Qualitative researchers deliberately adopt a subjective stance in their research, acknowledging the significance of personal perspectives and the role of context in shaping experiences. This approach enables the exploration of complex social phenomena in a holistic and interpretive manner. As Stake (1995) asserts, “subjectivity is not seen as a failing needing to be eliminated but as an essential element of understanding” (Stake, 1995, p. 45). Given that the research inherently involves engagement with the world (Duff, 2008), I am aware of my participatory role and consider on how my experiences, background, engagement and potential influence may affect the research. To address concerns about subjectivity, I provide detailed information about the research process and the decisions I make regarding data collection, coding, and analysis.

In this research, data derives from several different sources and is collected using a variety of research methods. Specifically, the data set consists of policy documents, semistructured interviews with teachers, as well as an online survey and focus group discussions with undergraduate students. While the use of varied research methods contributes to the triangulation of findings and the credibility of the research, it also yields both qualitative and quantitative data that requires meticulous analysis to draw conclusions (Barbour, 2001;

Hennink, 2014). To mitigate this issue, I use harmonised instruments to collect data. I start with the research questions, which are based on relevant literature, with the aim of designing instruments that address similar aspects of the topic under study. Moreover, I use tools such as Excel and MAXQDA (VERBI, 2021) that facilitate the visualisation and comparison of data, thereby enriching the analytical process.

The use of multiple methods in data collection is also accompanied by inherent limitations, requiring a critical evaluation of each method. Semistructured interviews are time consuming and need careful preparation. This has a direct impact on the number of interviews that can be conducted within the timeframe of the present study. Furthermore, the reliability of interview data is contingent on the interviewer's competencies, and the researcher's active involvement in data collection may influence individuals' responses. In order to minimise biases, I draw from prior interview experiences and insights gained through pilot testing. I prioritise informing participating individuals about protecting their identities and ensuring the confidentiality of the research. In addition, I make a conscious effort to minimise leading questions, using active listening techniques to create a neutral environment in which individuals would feel comfortable sharing their experiences and opinions.

Similarly, in focus group discussions, I adopt a neutral role with the aim of facilitating the discussion. Focus group members may feel pressured or tend to agree with the majority opinion, which could influence findings (Dimitroff et al., 2005, in Fusch & Ness, 2015). The challenge that arose in this context concerned the dynamics of the two groups and the dominance of certain students over others. To manage these group dynamics and ensure that all voices are heard, I deliberately ask all participating students for their opinions on different questions.

A limitation inherent to online surveys is that respondents may misinterpret questions, whilst the researcher is unable to clarify questions or request clarifications in responses. To address this, I use clear phrasing and include different types of items to increase engagement among students. To get a more profound understanding of students' perspective, I supplement the online survey by two focus group discussions that seek to elaborate further on the aggregate responses. Nevertheless, the primary constraint identified in the online survey was the suboptimal participation rates as only 68 students completed the online survey. Despite repeated reminders being implemented with the aim of increasing response rates, and efforts being made to incentivise students by highlighting their pivotal role in this research, the number of completed questionnaires remained low.

A common limitation of the three data collection methods is the languages used for data collection and analysis. Although the online survey was made available in English, French and German, students and the researcher's language skills vary across the different languages. The use of languages other than one's first language(s) with different proficiency skills in each may have impacted the clarity of responses and the intended meaning. In order to overcome this limitation, the instruments were piloted in English and French, with the assistance of proficient users of these languages, who were enlisted to translate questions and parts of responses, particularly those in German and Luxembourgish, in which I have limited proficiency.

Regarding language proficiency in writing up the thesis, I used the online function of DeepL Write, accessed through the university's account, to assist with phrasing. Nevertheless, I take full responsibility for the final text, ensuring that it aligns with the research goals and accurately reflects the intended meaning.

When applying the appraisal framework to the analysis of data from teachers and students, a language-related limitation lies in the complexity of interpreting language and individuals' intended meaning, emotional tone, and context. As the framework relies on identifying such nuances, accurately capturing them can be challenging, particularly in multilingual settings where individuals may also not be expressing themselves in their first language. To address this, I refer to the Cambridge Dictionary (<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/>) for the English language. This resource offers definitions, example sentences and synonyms that helped clarify the likely intended meaning of specific word choices. For the German and French languages, I refer to Leo (<https://www.leo.org/englisch-deutsch/>), with the English language as bridge language. It should be noted, however, that such resources may not always consider the cultural context.

To address potential concerns regarding my data collection and analysis skills, I made a conscious effort to enhance these skills through ongoing training. This included participating in the following courses: 'Researching multilingualism', 'Advanced Qualitative Methods', 'Advanced Qualitative Methods-Text Analysis' and 'Item-writing for Surveys (Questionnaires, Interviews and Focus Groups)'. I also used feedback and peer discussions to identify gaps and ensure the clarity of my methodology arguments. My overall aim was to strengthen the credibility of my findings and mitigate the impact of limitations on research quality by adopting a transparent approach to the research process.

Acknowledging research limitations and exploring methods to mitigate them enhances the quality and transparency of the research. Furthermore, addressing these challenges provides a contextual framework for the research findings, opening up possibilities for future research.

The limitations identified in this project provide a clearer understanding of areas where further exploration using various of methodologies could improve future studies. The following section builds upon the findings and insights to address future prospects in this field.

## 7. Future Prospects

The findings from this research highlight the importance of multilingualism and linguistic diversity in ensuring that teachers and students can fully engage and express themselves in the educational process. At the same time, linguistic diversity presents both opportunities and challenges that underscore the need for effective and inclusive pedagogical practices. In this context, language is considered to be more than just a means of communication; it is also a tool for making meaning and shaping identities.

Regarding pedagogical practices, the findings reveal the need for further research into ways in which educational practices can better support linguistic diversity in the educational process within an increasingly multilingual and multicultural educational context. Building on this, future studies could adopt a comparative approach to explore ways in which teachers adopt inclusive pedagogical approaches at different universities or ways of empowering teachers to adopt such approaches. Alongside teachers' perspectives, future research could examine students' experiences with language use and participation at different universities. Comparative research could identify the most effective practices and suggest ways to implement them across universities. This approach would also consider the language policies and national and local contexts of the institutions.

With regard to multilingualism and linguistic diversity, this research's findings indicate an imbalance in the use and status of languages at the University of Luxembourg. Further research is needed to explore the ways in which languages are used and the roles they play in access, participation and identity. Further research could examine how language hierarchies are maintained or challenged within the institution through language practices and consider the implications of these dynamics for teachers and students. In a similar vein, future research could extend the area of interest to the University of Luxembourg's various campuses.

Another interesting prospect would be to focus on particular student groups, such as those with a background in minority or migrant languages. A study of this nature would provide valuable insights into how students' linguistic backgrounds affect their sense of belonging, identity and participation in university life. Including specific groups of language users in research could offer insights into how these students navigate the use of dominant language(s) and could lead to the development of support systems that accommodate their linguistic repertoires. Similarly, future research could include students enrolled in a range of academic programmes at different levels, from bachelor's to doctoral programmes.

A mixed methods approach could be adopted in data collection. For example, future research could comprise a survey for teachers and students to examine language use, attitudes, and policy implementation across faculties and departments. Such a research design would aim to include a substantial population, with data analysed using statistical methods. This could be followed by interviews and/or focus group discussions to connect experiences and perceptions to the numerical data. In addition to these methods, diaries produced by teachers and students could be used to reveal individuals' reflective patterns, ideologies and experiences. Data could also be collected through classroom observations to complement the findings from the various sources and provide a real-time perspective on language use and pedagogical interactions.

Another suggestion for future research would be to adopt a longitudinal design. While the present research provides valuable insights into language practices, language policies and participation in the educational process, future research could examine the resulting dynamics and how they evolve over time. In such a study, it would be interesting to employ social actors and follow their academic journey, identifying their experiences with language over time. This approach could inform research into how language policies are interpreted and developed in the long term, providing a deeper understanding of the impact of language practices within this multilingual university. In a longitudinal study, it would be also interesting to ask individuals for their motivating factors in joining the university.

Future research could also direct the attention to specific variables that emerged from this research and appear to be significant, but which lie beyond its scope. Such factors could include teachers and students' language practices during the interviews and focus group discussions, individual background and language ideologies and their prior schooling experiences. Following the change in the language of alphabetisation in public schools, it would be important for future research to focus on its impact on higher education. Examining these factors could enhance the understanding of language practices, identity negotiation and engagement in the educational process. Ultimately, such research could inform existing theoretical frameworks and contribute to the development of practical applications that consider such variables.

Taking a more practical approach, future research could focus on pedagogical practices to enhance those identified in the present study. Specifically, future research could encompass the design, implementation and evaluation of classroom interventions that align with plurilingual pedagogy, as well as pedagogical practices that build on students' linguistic repertoires. This would increase the relevance of the present research's findings by serving as a bridge between theory and practice.

Lastly, it would be interesting to conduct further research on the application of the appraisal framework in multilingual higher education contexts involving plurilingual individuals. This could contribute to the ongoing development of the framework, particularly in settings that are both linguistically and culturally diverse, where evaluation is shaped by complex sociolinguistic repertoires.

## 8. Conclusions

Linguistic diversity in higher education is increasingly recognised as an asset that enhances academic richness but also a challenge that requires careful management (Darquennes et al., 2020). Its importance in higher education settings lies in its potential to promote inclusivity, encourage exchange, embrace global perspectives, contributing to institutional excellence (Smith, 2020). At the same time, linguistic diversity in higher education institutions calls for policies and measures to ensure equitable access and opportunities for all members.

The present research sought to explore the role and impact of institutional multilingualism and linguistic diversity at the University of Luxembourg, an academic context characterised by its multilingual character and diverse community. To this end, the research focused on how multilingualism and linguistic diversity interact with institutional policies, the educational process and the lived experiences of teachers and undergraduate students, guided by two overarching objectives. The first objective was to provide an overview of the current linguistic reality at the undergraduate level of study at the University of Luxembourg. This was achieved through an analysis of policy documents, complemented by insights gathered from teachers and undergraduate students. The second objective was to identify the opportunities and challenges encountered in the educational process, as reported by the two groups of social actors, including their teaching and learning practices.

This chapter presents a synopsis of the key findings of the research, starting with the linguistic reality at the university as reflected in policy documents and the lived experiences of teachers and students. Subsequently, it discusses the implications of the findings for developing plurilingual pedagogies and offers recommendations for how the university can more effectively support linguistic diversity. Following this, the section summarises the study's limitations and proposes directions for future research. The chapter concludes with reflections of the broader implications of the research, emphasising its contributions to plurilingual language policies and pedagogies and its potential to influence future practices in higher education.

### 8.1 Summary of Key Findings

This first section presents key findings from institutional policy documents and individuals lived experiences regarding linguistic diversity in the educational process. The five policy documents analysed in this research, particularly the Pedagogical Charter and the Multilingualism Policy, frame multilingualism as a defining aspect of the University of

Luxembourg's identity and a valuable asset that promotes inclusivity and institutional excellence.

In policy documents, institutional multilingualism is actively promoted by implementing bilingual and multilingual study programmes and formally recognising multiple official languages. According to the Multilingualism Policy, English, French, and German are designated as the university's official languages of instruction, while Luxembourgish holds national significance. These languages are central to the university's identity, reflecting its international outlook and its connection to the local context. More specifically, English, is recognised as the primary language of international academic exchange and is increasingly used as a medium of instruction and institutional communication, thereby strengthening the institution's international vision. In contrast, French and German are positioned across a wide range of academic disciplines. This strategic emphasis on French and German demonstrates the university's commitment to maintaining strong ties to the local and regional environment. Finally, Luxembourgish, although not widely promoted in academic instruction, appears to serve a symbolic role, reinforcing the university's connection to national identity.

Although the university officially recognises the importance of multiple languages as part of its institutional identity, its commitment to diversity is not matched by a framework for the meaningful implementation of this commitment within the educational process. Of the examined documents, the Pedagogical Charter references diversity, emphasising innovative and flexible approaches within courses. Yet, the document leaves considerable ambiguity around expectations and practices. As a result, the practical implementation of the university's multilingual vision is largely delegated to individual departments and faculty members. This approach can lead to inconsistencies across programmes and undermine the overall coherence and effectiveness of the university's multilingual strategy.

Indeed, participating teachers and students report inconsistencies and discrepancies in the implementation of language policies across departments and programmes. Significant variations emerge in the choice of teaching language(s), influenced in some cases by disciplinary norms and in others by the linguistic profiles of students. For some participating teachers, multilingualism at the university is understood as offering students the option to complete assignments and exams in their preferred language. For others, however, multilingual requirements give rise to selection criteria introducing barriers that may discourage students from pursuing their studies at the University of Luxembourg. Students also report inconsistencies between the languages indicated in course curricula, and the actual languages used in the classroom, noting that this disconnect hinders the learning experience and creates

inequities. This discrepancy between institutional policies and classroom practices underscores the need for clearer and more consistent language guidelines to ensure that the university's multilingual vision is implemented effectively.

At the same time, participating teachers and students describe language use in more fluid and dynamic ways. Their language practices reflect a plurilingual reality in which individuals draw on their full linguistic repertoires to navigate academic life. These findings point to the need to transition from a multilingual teaching approach characterised by the parallel use of separate languages, to a more inclusive, plurilingual model. In other words, these findings highlight the need to reframe institutional multilingualism at the University of Luxembourg to acknowledge how university members actually use language in flexibly.

The data also reveals important themes relating to the opportunities and challenges in teaching and learning within this multilingual environment. Many of the participating teachers and students emphasise the value of multilingualism and linguistic diversity, seeing it as a means of engaging with different perspectives and as an asset for students' future career. Likewise, students express appreciation for the university's multilingual environment, recognising its role in preparing them for global careers and supporting their academic development. However, alongside these benefits, individuals also report significant challenges, particularly the difficulty of accommodating diverse linguistic profiles in the classroom, and language barriers that can hinder effective teaching and learning.

To navigate linguistic diversity in the educational process, the two groups describe a range of practices that they use. Teachers mention simplifying language, using visual aids and providing materials in multiple languages, among other things. Others refer to incorporating students' linguistic backgrounds into classroom activities, as well as allowing assignments and exams to be completed in any of the university's official languages. However, several teachers point to challenges such as time constraints, limited institutional guidance and uncertainty about the most effective practices. Data from students echoes similar experiences, identifying translation, peer support and using their first language(s) as some of the most common practices to overcome linguistic challenges in their learning. During the focus group discussions, students also call for more formalised institutional support, recommending targeted training for teachers to better equip them to address linguistic diversity in the classroom.

The above indicates a significant discrepancy between the university presenting multilingualism and linguistic diversity as core institutional values, and how these values are implemented in daily teaching and learning practices. Although multilingualism is presented as crucial, it is neither systematically nor consistently integrated into pedagogical approaches.

The findings highlight the common challenge faced by teachers and students, who mention feeling isolated when it comes to navigating language-related issues, and say that they rely on informal and ad hoc practices. This points to a gap in official guidelines, training, and resources, all of which are essential for supporting effective language management and ensuring that linguistic diversity is meaningfully incorporated into the educational practice.

Taking the above into consideration, the next section outlines the implications of this study for conceptualising linguistic diversity in higher education, as well as for developing language policies that are grounded in the lived experiences of teachers and students. According to Smith (2020), such policies, “provide an opportunity for inclusiveness and differentiation” (Smith, 2020, p. 91).

## 8.2 Implications of the Present Study

The present research has important implications for institutional frameworks and pedagogical practices. Starting at the University of Luxembourg, the study offers valuable insights into how institutional language policies and ideologies influence the educational process. These implications are organised into three sections, addressing theoretical, methodological and practical aspects.

In terms of theory, the study provides a deeper understanding of the implications and management of linguistic diversity in teaching and learning at a multilingual higher education institution. In terms of methodology, it demonstrates the value of applying a combination of research methods to the study of institutional language policy and individuals’ experiences. In terms of the practical aspects, the research provides recommendations for developing institutional language policies and teaching practices that promote inclusivity and support individuals in navigating linguistic diversity. These aspects are analysed further in the following paragraphs.

As shown in the literature review, the topic of linguistic diversity in higher education has been investigated from various angles. Indicatively, linguistic diversity has been examined in terms of institutional management (e.g. Darquennes et al., 2020), development and implementation of language policies (e.g. Rindler Schjerve & Vetter, 2012), and the sociolinguistic hierarchies and dynamics it entails (e.g. Pérez-Milans, 2015). These studies emphasise that linguistic diversity is a fundamental aspect of contemporary higher education institutions and raise critical questions concerning institutional identity, access, and inclusion.

This body of work draws on research supporting the idea that structured, purposeful and context-sensitive language policies can improve institutional effectiveness and learning outcomes (Conceição, 2020). Such perspectives challenge the idea of uniform, top-down approaches to multilingualism, which overlook the complexity of linguistic diversity within university settings. Instead, the aforementioned research views linguistic diversity as a dynamic and strategic resource that contributes to the mission of universities. In line with this, studies such as that by Veronesi et al. (2013) address the importance of involving departments and stakeholders in language policies, ensuring that they are responsive to the specific linguistic needs of each disciplinary context.

With its multilingual character, the University of Luxembourg offers a compelling case study in exploring how aligning language policies with individuals' practices can inform context-sensitive and department-specific strategies that meaningfully and equitably engage with linguistic diversity in the educational process. Building on insights that underscore the importance of connecting institutional language policies to practices of staff and students, this thesis extends the discussion further to include institutional structures and pedagogical concerns.

Based on the above, this study makes several significant theoretical contributions to existing frameworks. Firstly, it offers a pedagogical and institutional reorientation of language policy in higher education. Although much existing research prioritises sociolinguistic or macro-level policy dimensions, this study shifts the focus to the intersection between language policy and teaching and learning practices. It does so by examining how policy is interpreted and enacted across multiple institutional levels and policy domains. The present study also highlights the discrepancy between institutional language ideologies and the realities of the classroom, where teachers and students engage in linguistic practices that often diverge from institutional policy discourses. By drawing attention to this discrepancy, the study provides a more practical perspective on how multilingualism is negotiated within the university setting.

Secondly, the study takes an interdisciplinary approach to understanding linguistic diversity. Specifically, it offers a more nuanced account of how linguistic diversity is perceived by teachers and students in different faculties and departments, highlighting the diverse approaches and challenges faced in each field. This enables a deeper understanding of the complex dynamics that shape policy implementation and language use in higher education.

Thirdly, despite the high value attributed to multilingualism in institutional policies, the study's findings suggest that the dominance of languages such as English, and the multilingual practices employed by teachers and students, often go unacknowledged by institutional

policies. Through a detailed case study of the University of Luxembourg, this thesis challenges persistent monolingual policies that continue to shape higher education institutions. The present study suggests reconceptualising institutional language policy as a dynamic, pedagogically embedded process.

Lastly, the findings point out that although institutional language policies emphasise inclusion, there remains a significant gap in practical guidelines to effectively support teachers and undergraduate students in implementing these ideals. Against this backdrop, the research frames plurilingualism as a core pedagogical responsibility. It asserts that institutional language policies must extend beyond mere commitments to inclusion and democratic participation. They should provide clear frameworks that support and empower teachers and students to navigate linguistic diversity in teaching and learning. This approach goes beyond institutional ranking and communication objectives, contributing to broader debates on how language policy can shape more equitable and dynamic educational environments.

From a methodological perspective, this research demonstrates the value of integrating multiple data collection methods, such as policy documents, interviews, online surveys and focus groups. Drawing on institutional policy documents alongside data from teachers and students, provides a richer understanding of the perspectives help by different stakeholders. Moreover, combining policy document analysis with reflexive thematic analysis and the appraisal framework allows a thorough, triangulated exploration of linguistic diversity at institutional and individual levels. This approach enables a deeper analysis of the relationship between institutional policy discourse and the lived experiences of staff and students. Furthermore, integrating document analysis with individuals' experiences is particularly effective in revealing how abstract language policies are interpreted and implemented in the educational process.

The study also employs a combination of approaches to analyse the data. Firstly, reflexive thematic analysis was used across the data sets to identify patterns in a flexible way, while also acknowledging the researcher's interpretive role. Using the policy document analysis framework developed by Cardno (2018) for the analysis of institutional policy documents allowed for a detailed, targeted examination of different aspects of the documents. This revealed how language ideologies are communicated and constructed at the institutional level. The appraisal framework used to analyse data from teachers and students proved valuable in uncovering underlying ideologies, attitudes, and stances towards language use and policy. It provided a systematic and structured way of interpreting how individuals position themselves and others in relation to linguistic diversity and institutional language norms. Together, these

analytical approaches provided a multilayered understanding of the university's language policy and the language practices of teachers and students.

In addition to its theoretical and methodological implications, this study has significant practical implications for language policy and teaching and learning within multilingual education contexts. A key finding is the identification of a gap between the university's commitment to multilingualism and the lack of guidelines and practical support for this commitment. Participating teachers often report feeling underprepared or uncertain about how to effectively address their students' diverse linguistic needs of their students. Students describe relying on resources such as translation tools and peer support networks to manage linguistic diversity in the classroom. Teachers and students alike express a desire for more structured linguistic support mechanisms and clearer institution-wide guidelines for language use. These findings highlight the need for the university to invest in pedagogical frameworks, targeted training programmes and dedicated institutional resources that promote an inclusive educational environment and encourage linguistic diversity in practice.

The aforementioned insights have important implications and recommendations at policy and pedagogical levels. At the policy level, there is a need for clearer and more consistent institutional frameworks that go beyond a commitment to multilingualism and provide concrete guidance on how to incorporate plurilingual practices into academic programmes. While current policies offer a degree of flexibility, they often lack the necessary specificity and direction to support the dynamic and fluid language practices of plurilingual individuals. Therefore, it is recommended that institutional language explicitly acknowledge and support the lived realities of plurilingual staff and students.

From a pedagogical perspective, the present study argues that the university should actively promote plurilingual pedagogies which acknowledge students' full linguistic repertoire and validate their linguistic identities. This involves creating classroom environments in which students can draw on their full range of linguistic resources to construct knowledge and express ideas. To this end, pedagogical support should be strengthened through access to multilingual academic materials and offering ongoing professional development to equip teachers with the skills to implement inclusive, language-aware teaching practices. Emphasising the principles of plurilingualism at policy and pedagogical levels can contribute to a more inclusive, equitable, and effective learning environment at the university.

Ultimately, drawing on Smith's (2020) work, this research emphasises the importance of aligning linguistic diversity with institutional objectives, and shifting from a symbolic presentation of multilingualism to a more strategic, practical approach. Rather than promoting

top-down language policies, the research advocates for a more dialogic framework in which policy evolves through interaction between institutional aims and individuals' practices. For the University of Luxembourg, which operates within multiple multilingual and international contexts, the challenge lies in meaningfully incorporating linguistic diversity in institutional policy and the educational process. Such a shift will transform linguistic diversity into a lived reality from which all members of the academic community will benefit.

### 8.3 Limitations and Outlooks

Notwithstanding the valuable contributions of the present study, there are several limitations that need to be acknowledged. Firstly, although the research employed a range of methods, including interviews, focus groups and an online survey, the sample sizes are relatively small, particularly for the online survey which targeted undergraduate students. Considering the low rate of participation observed in the study limits the representativeness of the findings. In addition to this, the case study approach adopted means that the findings cannot be directly generalised to other contexts or institutions.

Another important limitation arises from the variation in academic disciplines and the diverse profiles of the participating teachers and students. This diversity means that the experiences documented may be specific to the particular departments studied and may not fully capture the broader experiences across the entire university.

Moreover, the quality and depth of the interviews and focus groups were influenced by the interviewer's skills and the dynamic of interactions, which could introduce variability in the findings. Finally, the researcher's positionality also shaped the study, as language choices, personal biases, and subjective interpretations may have affected both participation and the analysis of data.

In light of the aforementioned considerations, it is recommended that future research in this area adopts the form of a comparative study across a number of higher education institutions. This would facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are managed in different contexts. Furthermore, future research could concentrate on variables that were not thoroughly explored in the present study. These additional variables may encompass specific characteristics of the population, such as language practices during data collection, prior schooling experiences, or an exploration of discipline specific challenges. Furthermore, a longitudinal study could track the evolution of language policies and practices over time, thereby offering insights into the long-term impacts of

multilingualism and linguistic diversity on teaching and learning. In order to enhance the findings, a mixed methods design, integrating both qualitative and quantitative approaches, would be advisable. This combination would facilitate the acquisition of a more comprehensive and nuanced perspective on the opportunities and challenges inherent in such a multilingual academic setting.

Overall, this study reveals the complex relationship between institutional language policies and the linguistic practices of teachers and students. Within the multilingual setting of the University of Luxembourg, the findings point to language hierarchies shaped by monolingual paradigms. In line with existing research (e.g. Orduna–Nocito & Sánchez–García, 2022), the study advocates for an integrated approach to policy development, combining top–down directives with bottom–up input from stakeholders. Beyond that, this study emphasises the importance of regularly evaluating policy documents to ensure they remain grounded to the lived experiences, perspectives and language practices of staff and students. Such an approach could contribute to creating more language–sensitive, equitable and responsive academic environments (Llurda et al., 2015).

Beyond policies, the findings discuss the potential, as well as the reported challenges of teaching and learning at the multilingual University of Luxembourg. The rich linguistic repertoires of individuals present significant opportunities for inclusion, empowerment and equality, yet participating teachers and students also indicate the need for ongoing institutional support in the form of targeted training, accessible resources and pedagogical guidance to ensure that these opportunities are exploited to their full potential. In this context, plurilingual pedagogical practices are emerging as a means of promoting inclusive learning environments in which individuals' linguistic identities are recognised and valued (e.g. Vetter, 2013).

Regarding the limitations identified in this study can be seen as a valuable foundation for future research. Future research could adopt comparative, longitudinal or mixed methods designs to build on these insights and capture a broader, more nuanced understanding of how multilingualism and linguistic diversity are experienced and implemented in higher education. Further research could focus on developing and refining language policies and pedagogical practices that promote inclusion and respond to the evolving linguistic needs of university communities.

Drawing on the University of Luxembourg's unique multilingual landscape, this study's findings offer valuable insights that extend beyond its borders. In light of the increasingly multilingual character of university populations worldwide and the crucial ethical concern for

universities to be fair and inclusive (Torre & Emanuel, 2024), these findings can inspire and guide other institutions in developing equitable, language-sensitive policies and adopting pedagogical approaches that address the needs of their diverse student bodies.

## References

- Adams, W. C. (2015). Conducting semi-structured interviews. In K. E. Newcomer, H. P. Hatry & J. S. Wholey (Eds.), *Handbook of practical program evaluation* (pp. 492–505). Jossey-Bass. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119171386.ch19>
- Adhikar, G. P. (2021). Calculating the sample size in quantitative studies. *Scholars Journal*, 4, 14–29. <https://doi.org/10.3126/scholars.v4i1.42458>
- Adriansen, H. K., Juul-Wiese, T., Møller-Madsen, L., Saarinen, T., Spangler, V., & Waters, J. L. (2022). Emplacing English as lingua franca in international higher education: A spatial perspective on linguistic diversity. *Population, Space and Place*, 29(2). <https://doi.org/10.1002/psp.2619>
- Alexander, N. A. (2013). *Policy analysis for educational leaders: A step-by-step approach* (1st ed.). Pearson Education.
- Altbach, P. G. (2016). *Global perspectives on higher education*. The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- American Psychological Association. (2020). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association. The official guide to APA style* (7th ed.). American Psychological Association.
- Ammon, U., & McConnell, G. (2002). *English as an academic language in Europe. A survey of its use in teaching*. Peter Lang.
- Andersen, T. H. (2017). Interpersonal meaning and the clause. In T. Bartlett & G. O'Grady (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 115–130). Routledge.
- Andrews, R. (2003). *Research questions*. Continuum.
- Androulakis, G. (2019). Language Policies and Migrant Children. In N. Palaiologou & L. Koster (Eds.), *AVIOR Handbook. Bilingual Supportive Material for Migrant Children in Europe*. <https://avior.risbo.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/FINAL-AVIOR-Handbook-Avior.pdf>
- Androulakis, G., Filippatou, D., Kitsiou, R., Koutsiouki, M., Malliarou, M., Pantelouka, I. M., Rakitzi, K., Stavrianoudaki, A., Tsioli, S., & Vasiliki, T. (2021). *Bottleneck analysis for inclusive education in Greece. A research report within the framework of phase III of the preparatory action for a child guarantee*. European Commission in Partnership with UNICEF. <https://teach4integration.gr/wp-content/uploads/2023/07/BOTTLENECK-ANALYSIS-FOR-INCLUSIVE-EDUCATION-IN-GREECE.pdf>
- Androulakis, G., Gkaintartzi, A., Kitsiou, R., Liveranou, Z., & Markou, E. (2020). Interviewing as understanding: Principles and modalities for transforming a qualitative research instrument into a stage of the integration progress for immigrants. In E. Skourtou, V. Kourtis-Kazoullis, T.

- Aravossitas & P. P. Trifonas (Eds.), *Linguistic diversity in Greece* (Vol. 36, pp. 39–48). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-28396-4\\_4](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-28396-4_4)
- Androulakis, G., Malliarou, M., Ntasiou, I., Pantelouka, I.-M. & Tsioli, S. (2015, September 11–15). *For diversity against adversity: Second language teachers develop intercultural and research skills during an intensive course with immigrants in Greece* [Conference presentation]. ISNITE 2015: New issues on teacher education, Volos, Greece. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED593917.pdf>
- Annexe au règlement des études de l'Université du Luxembourg. (2023). <https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2024/09/2.3.1.4-Programmes-de-bachelor.pdf>
- Bacchi, C. (2000). Policy as discourse: what does it mean? Where does it get us? *Discourse: Studies in the cultural politics of education*, 21(1), 45–57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01596300050005493>
- Backus, A., Gorter, D., Knapp, K., Schjerve, R., Swanenberg, J., ten Thije, J., & Vetter, E. (2013). Inclusive multilingualism: Concept, modes and implications. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 1–37. <https://doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2013-0010>
- Badklang, C., & Srinon, U. (2018). Analysis of attitudinal resources in an EFL university classroom talk in the deep south of Thailand: An appraisal perspective. *The New English Teacher*, 12(2), 106–128.
- Baily, A. (2025). Embracing temporality: Reflexive insights into positionality and relational dynamics in intercultural research. *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmal.2025.100183>
- Baker, M. (2006). Contextualization in translator- and interpreter-mediated events. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 38(3), 321–337. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.04.010>
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays*. University of Texas Press.
- Barbour, R. S. (2001). Checklists for improving rigour in qualitative research: A case of the tail wagging the dog? *BMJ*, 322, 1115–1117. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.322.7294.1115>
- Bardach E. (2012). *A practical guide for policy analysis. The eightfold path to more effective problem solving* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Baroncelli, S. (2014). Linguistic pluralism in European studies. In S. Baroncelli, R. Farneti, I. Horga & S. Vahnoonacker (Eds.), *Teaching and learning the European Union: Traditional and innovative methods* (pp. 133–153). Springer. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0\\_9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_9)
- Bartlett, T., & O'Grady, G. (Eds.). (2017). *The Routledge Handbook of Systemic Functional Linguistics*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315413891>

- Basnet, H. B. (2018). Focus group discussion: A tool for qualitative inquiry. *A Researcher Journal of Culture and Society*, 3(3), 81–88. <https://doi.org/10.3126/researcher.v3i3.21553>
- Beacco, J. C., & Byram, M. (2007). From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education: Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe. Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/CoERMPublicCommonSearchServices/DisplayDCTMContent?documentId=09000016802fc1c4>
- Beecham, R. (2008). The language of higher education. *London Review of Education* 6(2), 111–123. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14748460802185029>
- Bell, L., & Stevenson, H. (2006). *Education policy: Process, themes and impact*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203088579>
- Bergan, S., Guarga, R., Ergon-Polak, E., Dias Sobrinho, J., Tandon, R., & Tilak, J. B. G. (2009). *Higher education as a “public good and public responsibility”: What does it mean?* UNESCO, Bologna seminar on the public responsibility for higher education and research. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000183238>
- Bernard, H. R. (2013). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Bernhofer, J., & Tonin, M. (2022). The effect of the language instruction on academic performance. *Labour Economics*, 78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2022.102218>
- Björkman, B. (2013). *English as an academic lingua franca. An investigation of form and communicative effectiveness* (Vol. 3). Walter de Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110279542>
- Blees, G., & ten Thije, J. (2015). Receptive multilingualism and awareness. In J. Cenoz, D. Gorter & S. May (Eds.), *Language awareness and multilingualism* (3rd ed.) (pp. 1–13). Springer. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02325-0\\_25-1](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02325-0_25-1)
- Blees, G. J., Mak, W. M., & ten Thije, J. D. (2014). English as a lingua franca versus lingua receptiva in problem-solving conversations between Dutch and German students. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 5(1), 173–193. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2014-0008>
- Blommaert, J. (1999). *Language Ideological Debates* (Vol. 2). De Gruyter Mouton. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110808049>
- Boddy, C. R. (2016). Sample size for qualitative research. *Qualitative market research: An International Journal*, 19, 426–432. <https://doi.org/10.1108/QMR-06-2016-0053>
- Bolderston, A. (2012). Conducting a research interview. *Journal of Medical Imaging and Radiation Sciences*, 43(1), 66–76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmir.2011.12.002>

- Bowen, G. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27–40. <https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Brahm T., Jenert T., & Wagner D. (2017). The crucial first year: a longitudinal study of students' motivational development at a Swiss business school. *High. Educ.* 73, 459–478. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-016-0095-8>
- Braun V., & Clarke V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Bredtmann, J., Otten, S., & Vonnahme, C. (2021). Linguistic diversity in the classroom, student achievement, and social integration. *Education Economics*, 29(2), 121–142. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09645292.2020.1866499>
- Bremer, K., Roberts, C., Vasseur, M. T., Simnot, M., & Broeder, P. (1996). *Achieving understanding. Discourse in intercultural encounters* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315844954>
- Brock-Utne, B. (2010). Research and policy on the language of instruction issue in Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 30(6), 636–645. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2010.03.004>
- Brockman, J. L., Nunez, A. A., & Basu, A. (2010). Effectiveness of a conflict resolution training program in changing graduate students' style of managing conflict with their faculty advisors. *Innovative Higher Education*, 35, 277–293.
- Buckingham, L. R., & Fernández-Fernández, R. (2025). “If she can do it, so can I”: self-efficacy of university professors who co-teach. *Educational Process: International Journal*, 15. <https://doi.org/10.22521/edupij.2025.15.113>
- Bull, T. (2012). Against the mainstream: Universities with an alternative language policy. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 216, 55–73. <https://doi-org.proxy.bnl.lu/10.1515/ijsl-2012-0039>
- Busher, H. (2006). *Understanding educational leadership. People, power and culture*. Open University Press.
- Busse, V. (2017). Plurilingualism in Europe: Exploring attitudes toward English and other European languages among adolescents in Bulgaria, Germany the Netherlands, and Spain. *Modern Language Journal*, 101, 566–582.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Byram, M., Hu, A., & Rahman, M. (2019). Are researchers in Europe European researchers. A study of doctoral researchers at the University of Luxembourg. *Studies in Higher Education*, 44(3), 486–498. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2017.1378634>

- Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S., & Ju, J. (2008). English–medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality. *Higher Education*, 62(4), 431–449. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-010-9397-4>
- Cabanillas, L. S. (2023). *Exploring the impact of language barrier on academic performance: A case study of postgraduate international students in the European institute* [Conference presentation]. LSE Change Makers Presentation Event 2023: Panel 4, Inclusive Education.
- Canagarajah, S. (2005). Reconstructing local knowledge, reconfiguring language studies. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice* (pp. 3–24). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Canagarajah, S. (2006). Changing communicative needs, revised assessment objectives: Testing English as an international language. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 3(3), 229–242. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15434311laq0303\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15434311laq0303_1)
- Canagarajah, S. (2009). The plurilingual tradition and the English language in South Asia. *AILA*, 22(1), 5–22. <https://doi.org/10.1075/aila.22.02can>
- Canagarajah, S. (2013). *Literacy as translingual practice. Between communities and classrooms* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203120293>
- Canagarajah, S. & Liyanage, I. (2012). Lessons from pre-colonial multilingualism. In M. Martin–Jones, A. Blackledge & A. Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of multilingualism* (pp. 49–65). Routledge.
- Candelier, M. (2003). Sprachen-und Kulturenvielfalt in der Grundschule – Evlang: ein Beitrag zur Verwirklichung von Zielen der europäischen Sprachenpolitik. *Fremdsprache Deutsch*, 31, 14–18.
- Candelier, M., Daryai-Hansen, P., & Schröder-Sura, A. (2012). The framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures – a complement to the CEFR to develop plurilingual and intercultural competences. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(3), 243–257. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2012.725252>
- Cardno, C. (2018). Policy document analysis: A practical educational leadership tool and a qualitative research method. *Educational Administration: Theory and Practice*, 24(4), 623–640. <https://doi.org/10.14527/kuey.2018.016>
- Carstens, A. (2019). Is translanguaging een duurzame strategie voor het hoger onderwijs in Zuid-Afrika? *Tijdschrift voor taalbeheersing*, 41(1), 33–46.
- Cavalla, C., Tutin, A., & Burrows, A. (2019). Quelle place pour le français scientifique dans un contexte universitaire ? *Francophonie et innovation à l'université*, 1.

- Cenoz, J. (2009). *Towards multilingual education. Basque educational research from an international perspective*. Multilingual Matters. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21832/9781847691941>
- Cenoz, J. (2012). Bilingual and multilingual education: Overview. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of applied linguistics*, pp. 1–8. Wiley-Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0780>
- Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D. (2011). A holistic approach to multilingual education: Introduction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 339–343. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01204.x>
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2015). Towards a holistic approach in the study of multilingual education. In J. Cenoz & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Multilingual education: Between language learning and translanguaging* (pp. 1–15). Cambridge University Press.
- Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2024). Plurilingual Language Policies and Teaching Approaches in Higher Education. In C. Fäcke, X. A. Gao & P. Garrett-Rucks (Eds.), *The Handbook of Plurilingual and Intercultural Language Learning*. John Wiley & Sons Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781394165957.ch15>
- Cenoz, J., Gorter, D., & Heugh, K. (2021). Linguistic diversity. In S. Knotter, R. de Lobel, L. Tsipouri & V. Stenius (Eds.), *Diversity research and policy. A multidisciplinary exploration*, (pp. 83–98). Amsterdam University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9789048513970>
- Cents–Boonstra, M., Lichtwarck–Aschoff, A., Denessen, E., Aelterman, N., & Haerens, L. (2020). Fostering student engagement with motivating teaching: An observation study of teacher and student behaviours. *Research Papers in Education*, 36(6), 754–779. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2020.1767184>
- Channel, J. (1994). *Vague Language*. Oxford University Press.
- Charte Pédagogique. Déclaration de mission éducative de l'Université du Luxembourg. (2018). [https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/UL\\_chartepedagogique\\_final\\_fr.pdf](https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/UL_chartepedagogique_final_fr.pdf)
- Chouliaraki, L., & Fairclough, N. (1999). *Discourse in Late Modernity: Rethinking critical discourse analysis*. Edinburgh University Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9780748610839>
- Clarke, D. C. (2020). Language ideologies and the experiences of international students. In M. Kuteeva, K. Kaufhold & N. Hynninen (Eds.), *Language perceptions and practices in multilingual universities* (pp. 167–192). Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-38755-6\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-38755-6_7)
- Cobern, W., & Adams, B. A. J. (2020). When interviewing: How many is enough? *International Journal of Assessment Tools in Education*, 7(1), 73–79. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21449/ijate.693217>

- Coelho, D., & Ortega, Y. (2020). Pluralistic approaches in early language education: Shifting paradigms in language didactics. In S. M. Chu Lau & S. Van Viegen (Eds.), *Plurilingual pedagogies. Critical and creative endeavors for equitable language in education* (Vol. 42) (pp. 145–160). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36983-5\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36983-5_7)
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, L. (2017). *Research methods in education* (8th ed.). Routledge.
- Cohn, A., J. Bowden, T. McKinnon, M. Ravindranath, R. Simanjuntak, B. Taylor, Yanti (2013). *Multilingual Language Use Questionnaire*. <http://lingweb.eva.mpg.de/jakarta/kuesioner.php>
- Conceição, M. C. (2020). Language policies and internationalization of higher education. *European Journal of Higher Education*, 10(3), 231–240. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568235.2020.1778500>
- Conseil de gouvernance. (2023). Rapport d'activités du Conseil de gouvernance 2023. University of Luxembourg. <https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/11/2024/06/Rapport-dactivites-du-Conseil-de-gouvernance-2023.pdf>
- Conti, V., & Grin, F. (2008). *S'entendre entre langues voisines : Vers l'intercompréhension*. Georg.
- Cook, V. (2008). Multi-competence: Black hole or wormhole for second language acquisition research? In H. Zhao Hong (Ed.), *Understanding second language process* (16–26). Multilingual Matters.
- Cooper, R. L. (1989). *Language planning and social change*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511620812>
- Cordeiro, C. M. (2018). Using systemic functional linguistics as method in identifying semogenic strategies in intercultural communication: A study of the collocation of “time” and “different” by Swedish managers with international management experiences. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 47(3), 207–225.
- Corino, E., Costa, M., Fiorentino, A., & Garbarino, S. (2025). Language alliances and language policy: A focus on UNITA-Universitas Montium. *European Journal of Language Policy*, 17(1), 141–159. <https://doi.org/10.3828/ejlp.2025.8>
- Costa, F., & Coleman, J. A. (2012). A survey of English–medium instruction in Italian higher education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 16(1), 3–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.676621>
- Council of Europe. (2022). The importance of plurilingual and intercultural education for democratic culture. Recommendation CM/Rec(2022) and explanatory memorandum. <https://www.ecml.at/Portals/1/documents/about-us/Recommendation%20and%20EM%20EN%20FINAL.pdf>

- Council of Europe. (2023). *Plurilingualism and pluriculturalism*.  
<https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/plurilingualism-and-pluriculturalism>
- Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2006). Collecting Data in Mixed Methods Research. In J. W. Creswell & V. L. Plano Clark (Eds.), *Designing and conducting mixed methods research – international student edition* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Crișan-Mitra, C., & Borza, A. (2015). *Internationalization in higher education* [Conference presentation]. International Conference “Risk in Contemporary Economy” XVIth Edition, Galati, Romania.
- Crowe, S., Creswell, K., Robertson, A., Huby, G., Avery, A., & Sheikh, A. (2011). The case study approach. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 11(1), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-11-100>
- Cruikshank, K. (2015). A framework for inclusion: Plurilingual teachers in day and community schools. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 38(3), 155–171. <https://doi.org/10.1075/aral.38.3.05cru>
- Csillag, V., & Finardi, K. (2016). Globalization and linguistic diversity in Switzerland: Insights from the roles of national languages and english as a foreign language. In S. Grucza, M. Olpinska-Szkielko & P. Romanowski (Eds.), *Advances in understanding multilingualism: A Global perspective* (pp. 59–79). Peter Lang Edition.
- Cummins, J. (1994) The acquisition of English as a second language. In K. Spangenberg Urbschat & R. Pritchard (Eds.), *Reading instruction for ESL students*. International Reading Association.
- Cummins, J. (2001). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society* (2nd ed.). California Association for Bilingual Education.
- Cummins, J. (2008). Teaching for transfer: Challenging the two solitudes assumption in bilingual education. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 1528–1538). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3\\_116](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_116)
- Cummins, J. (2012). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10(2), 221–240.
- Cummins, J. (2021). *Rethinking the education of multilingual learners: A critical analysis of theoretical concepts*. Multilingual Matters.

- Dabaj, F., & Yetkin, A. (2011). Analysis of communication barriers to distance education: A review study. *Online Journal of Communication and Media Technologies*, (1), 1–15. <http://dx.doi.org/10.29333/ojcmt/2328>
- Dafouz, E., & Smit, U. (2016). Towards a dynamic conceptual framework for English–medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied Linguistics*, 37(3), 397–415. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu034>
- Dafouz, E. & Smit, U. (2022). Towards multilingualism in English–medium higher education. A student perspective. *Journal of English–Medium Instruction*, 1(1), 29–47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/jemi.21018.daf>
- Damiyano, D. (2022). Internationalisation of higher education: A conceptual framework. In N. Dorasamy & G. Mugano (Eds.), *Perspectives on comprehensive internationalisation of higher education* (1–26). AOSIS Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.4102/AOSIS.2022.BK297.01>
- Darling, D. C., & Dervin, F. (2023). Glimpses Into the ‘Language Galaxy’ of International Universities: International Students’ Multilingual and Translanguaging Experiences and Strategies at a Top Finnish University. In H. Bojsen, P. Daryai–Hansen, A. Holmen, & K. Risager (Eds.), *Translanguaging and Epistemological Decentering in Higher Education and Research*. Multilingual Matters.
- Darquennes, J., Du Plessis, T., & Soler, J. (2020). Language diversity management in higher education: Towards an analytical framework. *Sociolinguistica*, 34(1), 7–29. <https://doi.org/10.1515/soci-2020-0003>
- De Angelis, G. (2011). Teachers’ beliefs about the role of prior language knowledge in learning and how these influence teaching practices. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 8(3), 216–234. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2011.560669>
- De Backer, F., Van Avermaet, P., & Slembrouck, S. (2017). Schools as laboratories for exploring multilingual assessment policies and practices. *Language and Education*, 31(3), 217–230. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2016.1261896>
- De Bres, J., & Franziskus, A. (2014). Multilingual practices of university students and changing forms of multilingualism in Luxembourg. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 11(1), 62–75. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2013.831098>
- De Haan, H. (2014). Internationalization: Interpretations among Dutch practitioners. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18(3). <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315313496571>
- De Saint-Georges, I. (2013). Multilingualism, Multimodality, and the future of education research. In I. de Saint-Georges & J. Weber (Eds.), *Multilingualism and multimodality*, pp. 1–8. Sense Publishers.

- De Saint-Georges, I. (2020). *Designing a language policy for ISCHE standing conference: issues, models and blueprint for action*. University of Luxembourg. [https://orbilu.uni.lu/bitstream/10993/45822/1/ISCHE%20report%20and%20Annex%20combined\\_2021.pdf](https://orbilu.uni.lu/bitstream/10993/45822/1/ISCHE%20report%20and%20Annex%20combined_2021.pdf).
- De Saint-Georges, I., Budach, G., & Tress, C. (2020). “We need to become ‘educational chameleons’”: From unified to multiple norms in a multilingual and international higher education context. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2020-0011>
- De Swaan, A. (2013). *Words of the world: The global language system*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- De Wit, H. (2002). *Internationalisation of higher education in the United States of America and Europe: A historical, comparative and conceptual analysis*. Bloomsbury Academic.
- De Wit, H. (2011). Internationalization misconceptions. *International Higher Education*, 64. <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2011.64.8556>
- DeMarrais, K. B. (2004). Qualitative interview studies: Learning through experience. In K. B. DeMarrais & S. D. Lapan (Eds.), *Foundations for research. Methods for inquiry in education and the social sciences* (pp. 51–68). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Deroey, K. L. B. (2023). English medium instruction lecturer training programmes: Content, delivery, ways forward. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2023.101223>
- Deroey, K. L. B., Lejot, E., & Huemer, B. (2015, July 26–31). *Multilingualism at the University of Luxembourg: Policy, practice and attitudes* [Conference presentation]. 14th International Pragmatics Conference, Antwerp, Belgium. <https://philevents.org/event/show/15378>
- Denzin, N. K. (2017). *The research Act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315134543>
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2000). The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 1–32). SAGE Publications.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. SAGE Publications.
- Dillman, D. A. (1978). *Mail and telephone surveys. The total design method*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Dimitroff, R. D., Schmidt, L. A., & Bond, T. D. (2005). Organizational behavior and disaster: A study of conflict at NASA. *Project Management Journal*, 36(2), 28–38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/875697280503600204>
- Dimova, S., & Kling, J. (2020). *Integrating content and language in multilingual universities*. Springer Nature. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-46947-4>

- DMA Research (2005). Kortlægning af universiteternes danskkurser for udenlandske studerende [Mapping of universities' Danish courses for foreign students]. <https://admin.eva.dk/Media/638409173846473618/Kortl%C3%A6gning%20af%20universiteternes%20danskurser%20for%20udenlandske%20studerende.pdf>
- Dobson, C.B., Hardy, M., Heyes, S., Humphreys, A., & Humphreys, P. (1981). *Understanding psychology*. Weidenfeld and Nicolson.
- 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). <https://doi.org/10.5334/joc.201>
- Dooly, M., & Vallejo, C. (2020). Bringing plurilingualism into teaching practice: A quixotic quest? *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 23(1), 81–97. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1598933>.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics. Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self-system. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9–42). Multilingual Matters.
- Duff, P. A. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203827147>
- Dul, J., & Hak, T. (Eds.). (2008). *Case study methodology in business research*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080552194>
- Duarte, J. (2021). [PowerPoint slides] *Putting plurilingual education into practice in primary and secondary schools*. <https://rm.coe.int/putting-plurilingual-education-into-practice-in-primary-and-secondary-/1680a52a7b>
- Duarte, J. (2022). The implementation of plurilingual language policies in Higher Education the perspective of language learning students. *CercleS*, 12(2), 367–389. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cercles-2022-2058>
- Duarte, J., & Günther-van der Meij, M. (2022). Translanguaging pathways to higher education: A transition program for highly educated refugees. *Multilingua*, 41(3), 299–319. <https://doi.org/10.1515/multi-2021-0127>.
- Duarte, J., & Kirsch, C. (Eds.). (2020). *Multilingual approaches for teaching and learning. from acknowledging to capitalising on multilingualism in European mainstream education* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429059674>

- Edley, N., & Litosseliti, L. (2010). Contemplating interviews and focus groups. In L. Litosseliti (Ed.), *Research Methods in Linguistics* (pp. 155–179). Continuum.
- Eggins, S. (1994). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. Continuum.
- Elimam, A. (2019). Le français, langue d’enseignement universitaire : une discipline à part entière. *Revue TDFLE*, 73. [https://doi.org/10.34745/numerev\\_1300](https://doi.org/10.34745/numerev_1300)
- Erling, E. J., & Moore, E. (2021). Introduction. 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>
- Eversley, J., Mehmedbogovic, D., Sanderson, A., Tinsley, T., von Ahn, M., & Wiggins, R. D. (2010). *Language capital: Mapping the languages of London’s schoolchildren*. Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- European Civil Society Platform for Multilingualism. (2023). *Declaration on Multilingualism in Higher Education*. [ECSPM-declaration-for-multilingualism-in-HE-20230417.pdf](https://ecspm.europa.eu/ecspm-declaration-for-multilingualism-in-he-20230417.pdf)
- Fairclough, N. (1993). Critical discourse analysis and the marketization of public discourse: the universities. *Discourse & Society*, 4(2), 133–168.
- Fairclough, N. (2006). *Language and globalization* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203593769>
- Farr, M., & Song, J. (2011). Language ideologies and policies: Multilingualism and education. *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 5(9), 650–665. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2011.00298.x>
- Fawcett, R. P. (2011). *A theory for syntax for systemic functional linguistics* (Vol. 206). John Benjamins Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1075/cilt.206>
- Fawcett, R. P. (2017). From meanings to form in the Cardiff Model of language and its use. In T. Bartlett & G. O’Grady (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Systemic Functional Linguistics* (pp. 56–76). Routledge.
- Feagin, J. R., Orum, A. M., & Sjoberg, G. (Eds.). (1991). *A case for the case study*. University of North Carolina Press.
- Fehlen, F. (2013). Die Stellung des Französischen in Luxemburg. Von der Prestigesprache zur Verkehrssprache. In H. Sieburg (Ed.), *Vielfalt der Sprachen. Varianz der Perspektiven Zur Geschichte und Gegenwart der Luxemburger Mehrsprachigkeit* (Vol. 3, pp. 37–39). Transcript. <https://doi.org/10.14361/transcript.9783839420300.toc>
- Fehlen, F., Gilles, P., Chauvel, L., Pigeron-Piroth, I., Ferro, Y., & Le Bihan, E. (2021). *Linguistic diversity on the rise*. STATEC. Institut National de la Statistique et des Études Économiques.

<https://statistiques.public.lu/dam-assets/recensement/publication-8/docs/rp08-diversity-linguistic-en.pdf>

- Feu vert pour « ALPHA – zesumme wuessen ». (2025, July 11). Education nationale, Enfance et Jeunesse, Luxembourg. <https://men.public.lu/fr/actualites/communiqués-conference-presse/2025/07/11-projet-alpha-fr.html>
- Flick, U. (2014). *An introduction to qualitative research* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Flick, U., Palmberger, M., & Gingrich, A. (2013). Qualitative Comparative Practices: Dimensions, Cases and Strategies. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Data Analysis*. SAGE Publications. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446282243>
- Florian, L., & Black-Hawkins, K. (2013). Exploring inclusive pedagogy. *British Educational Research Journal*, 37(5), 813–828. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01411926.2010.501096>
- Fortanet-Gómez, I. (2022). Applying appraisal theory for the interpretation of experienced researchers' interviews on open access. *Revista Signos. Estudios de Lingüística*, 55(109), 481–500. <https://doi.org/0.4067/S0718-09342022000200481>
- Franceschini, R., & Veronesi, D. (2013). Multilingual universities: Policies and practices. In S. Baroncelli, R. Farneti, I. Horga & S. Vanhoonacker (Eds.), *Teaching and learning the European Union. Traditional and innovative methods* (Vol. 9). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0\\_5](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_5)
- Frank, D. J., & Meyer, J. W. (2007). University expansion and the knowledge society. *Theory and Society*, 36, 287–311.
- Freeman, B. (2013). Benchmarking Australian and New Zealand university meta-policy in an increasingly regulated tertiary environment. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 36(1), 74–87. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2013.861050>
- French, M. (2019). Multilingual pedagogies in practice. *TESOL in Context*, 28(1), 21–44. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21153/tesol2019vol28no1art869>
- Friedl, M. T. (2021). Die Vermittlung der Wissenschaftssprache Deutsch im universitären Kontext. Eine Mixed-Methods–Untersuchung. *Zisch: zeitschrift für interdisziplinäre schreibforschung*, 4, 5–23. <https://doi.org/10.48646/zisch.210401>
- Fuoli, M., & Hommerberg, C. (2015). Optimising transparency, reliability and replicability: annotation principles and inter-coder agreement in the quantification of evaluative expressions. *Corpora*, 10 (3), 315–349.
- Fusch, P. I., & Ness, R. (2015). Are we there yet? Data saturation in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 20(9), 1408–1416. <http://dx.doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2015.2281>

- Gable R. K., & Wolf M. B. (1993). *Instrument development in the affective domain. Measuring attitudes and values in corporate and school settings* (Vol. 36, 2nd ed.). Springer.
- Gajo, L., & Berthoud, A. C. (2020). Issues of multilingualism for scientific knowledge: Practices for assessing research projects in terms of linguistic diversity. *European Journal of Higher Education*, 10(3), 294–307. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568235.2020.1777451>
- Gajo, L., Grobet, A., Serra, C., & Steffen, G. (2013). Plurilingualisms and knowledge construction in higher education. In A. C. Berthoud, Grin, F. & Lüdi, G. (Eds.), *Exploring the dynamics of multilingualism. The DYLAN research project* (pp. 287–308). John Benjamins. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/mdm.2.13gaj>
- Gal, S. (2006). Language, its stakes, and its effects. In R. Goodin & C. Tilly (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of contextual political analysis* (pp. 376–391). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199270439.003.0020>
- Galante, A., Okubo, K., Cole, C., Elkader, N. A., Carozza, N., Wilkinson, C., Wotton, C., & Vasic, J. (2019). Plurilingualism in higher education: A collaborative initiative for the implementation of plurilingual pedagogy in an English for academic purposes program at a Canadian university. *ESL Canada Journal*, 36(1), 121–133. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v36i1.1305>
- Galante, A., Okubo, K. S., Cole, C., Elkader, N. A., Carozza, N., Wilkinson, C., Wotton, C., & Vasic, J. (2020). “English-only is not the way to go”: Teachers’ perceptions of plurilingual instruction in an English program at a Canadian university. *TESOL Quarterly*, 54(4), 980–1009. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.584>
- Gallego–Balsá, L., Cots, J. M., & Garrett, P. (2021). Internationalisation of Universities and Minority Languages: Language Policy Tensions in Catalonia, Wales and the Basque Autonomous Community. In B. M. Apeltgren, A. M. Eriksson, & S. S. Jämsvi (Eds.), *Language Matters in Higher Education Contexts: Policy and Practice*, (pp. 35–52). BRILL.
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: A global perspective*. Wiley Blackwell.
- García, O., & Flores, N. (2012). Multilingual pedagogies. In M. Martin-Jones, A. Blackledge & A. Creese (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of multilingualism* (pp. 232–246). Routledge.
- García, O., & Lin, A. M. Y. (2016). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In O. García & A. M. Y. Lin (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education* (Vol. 5, pp. 117–130). Springer. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02258-1\\_9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02258-1_9)
- García, O., & Sylvan, C. E. (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: Singularities in pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 385–400. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01208.x>

- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging. Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Pivot London. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137385765>
- García, O., Johnson, S. I., & Seltzer, K. (2017). *The translanguaging classroom. Leveraging student bilingualism for learning* (1st ed.). Brookes Publishing.
- García, O., Flores, N., Seltzer, K. Wei, L., Otheguy, R., & Rosa, J. (2021). Rejecting abyssal thinking in the language and education of racialized bilinguals: A manifesto. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies open access*, 18(3), 203–228. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2021.1935957>
- Gayton, A. M., Evans, M., Fisher, L., Forbes, K., & Rutgers, D. (2025). Participative multilingual identity construction in higher education: Challenging monolingual ideologies and practices. *Education Sciences*, 15(4), 463–479. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci15040463>
- Gazzola, M. (2017, November 22). *Why teaching in English may not be such a good idea*. Times Higher Education. <https://www.timeshighereducation.com/blog/whyteaching-english-may-not-be-such-good-idea>
- Giannini, S. (2024, February 20). *Multilingual education: A key to quality and inclusive learning*. UNESCO.
- Gilles, P., Seela, S., Sieburg, H., & Wagner, M. (2010). Languages and identities. In IPSE Identités, Politiques, Sociétés, Espaces (Eds.), *Doing identity in Luxemburg. Subjective appropriations–Institutional attributions–Socio-cultural milieus* (pp. 65–106). Transcript. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/transcript.9783839416679.65>
- Gipps, C., & Stobart, G (2009). Fairness in assessment. In C. Wyatt-Smith & J. Cumming (Eds.), *Educational Assessment in the 21st Century. Connecting Theory and Practice* (pp. 105–118). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9964-9\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-9964-9_6)
- Given, L. M. (2008). *The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (Vol. 2). SAGE Publications, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412963909>
- Gnaoré, K. (2024). Literature review: The advantages of multilingualism. *Advantages of multilingualism* [Unpublished manuscript]. IIC University of Technology. <http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.33865.97122>
- Gorter, D., & Cenoz, J. (2017). Language education policy and multilingual assessment. *Language and Education*, 31(3), 231–248. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2016.1261892>
- Gouvernement du Luxembourg. (2013). *Programme gouvernemental 2013*. <https://gouvernement.lu/dam-assets/fr/dossiers/gouv-2013/assermentation/programme-gouvernemental.pdf>
- Gray, D. E. (2004). *Doing research in the real world* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications Ltd.

- Gregersen, F., Östman, J. O., et al. (2018). *More parallel, please! Best practice of parallel language use at Nordic Universities: 11 recommendations*. Nordic Council of Ministers. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6027/TN2018-523>
- Green, J. & Thorogood, N. (2014). *Qualitative methods for health research* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Greve, W., Koch, M., Rasche, V., & Kersten, K. (2024). Extending the scope of the ‘cognitive advantage’ hypothesis: Multilingual individuals show higher flexibility of goal adjustment. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 45(4), 822–838. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2021.1922420>
- Grover, V. K. (2015). Research approach. An overview. *Golden Research Thoughts*, 4(8).
- Grover, V. K. (2022). From monolingual mindset to plurilingual ethos: challenging perspectives on language(s). *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 44(8), 751–764. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2023.2196983>
- Gürtler, K., & Kronewald, E. (2015). Internationalization and English-medium instruction in German higher education. In S. Dimova, A. K. Hultgren, & C. Jensen (Eds.), *English–Medium Instruction in European Higher Education*. (Vol. 3, pp. 89–114). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Guarda, M. (2025). Fostering Educational Change at the Intersection of Macro-Level Institutional Narratives and Micro-Level Classroom Experiences. *Education Sciences*, 15(4), 472–487. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci15040472>
- Guarda, M., & Helm, F. (2016). “I have discovered new teaching pathways”: the link between language shift and teaching practice. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(7). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1125848>
- Guest, G., Bunce A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? *Field Methods*, 18(1), 59–82. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05279903>
- Guest, G., Namey, E., Taylor, J., Eley, N., & McKenna, K. (2015). Comparing focus groups and individual interviews: findings from a randomized study. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 20(6), 693–708. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2017.1281601>
- Gummesson, E. (1988). *Qualitative methods in management research* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications Inc.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1964). Linguistic and social interaction in two communities. *American Anthropologist*, 66(6), 137–153.
- Haastrup, K. (2008). English–medium higher education in Denmark (EMHED). *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 7(S3), 205–206. <https://doi.org/10.35360/njes.110>

- Haberland, H., & Mortensen, J. (2012). Language variety, language hierarchy and language choice in the international university. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 216, 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ijsl-2012-0036>
- Haberland, H., Lønsmann, D., & Preisler, B. (2013). *Language alternation, language choice and language encounter in international education*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-6476-7>
- Hagenauer, G., & S. Volet. (2014). ‘I don’t think I could, you know, just teach without any emotion’: Exploring the nature and origin of university teachers’ emotions. *Research Papers in Education*, 29(2), 240–62. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2012.754929>
- Hallberg, D. (2010). Sociocultural and cognitivist perspectives on language and communication barriers in learning. *International Journal of Behavioral, Cognitive, Educational and Psychological Sciences*, 2(2), 111–120.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning to mean—Explorations in the development of language*. Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as a Social Semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1979). Modes of meaning and modes of expression: Types of grammatical structure and their determination by different semantic functions. In D. J. Allerton, E. Carney & D. Holdcroft (Eds.), *Function and Context in Linguistic Analysis* (pp. 57–79). Cambridge University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar* (1st ed.). Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (2002). *On Grammar* (Vol. 1). Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. (2014). *Halliday’s introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203431269>
- Harzing, A., & Feely, A. (2007). The language barrier and its implications for HQ-subsidary relationships. *Cross-cultural Management: An International Journal*, 15(1), 49–61. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13527600810848827>
- Hasan, R. (2001). Wherefore context? The place of context in the system and process of language. In J. J. Webster (Ed.), *The collected works of Ruqaiya Hasan* (Vol. 4). Equinox Publishing.
- Hasan, R. (2014). Towards a paradigmatic description of context: Systems, metafunctions, and semantics. *Functional Linguistics*, 1(9). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s40554-014-0009-y>
- Hatch, J. A. (2002). *Doing qualitative research in educational settings*. State University of New York Press.

- Haukås, A., & Tishakov, T. (2024). Sharing interview questions in advance: Methodological considerations in applied linguistics research. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 12(1), 54–68. <https://doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2023-0045>
- Hazel, S., & Mortensen, J. (2013). Kitchen talk – Exploring linguistic practices in liminal institutional interactions in a multilingual university setting. In H. Haberland, D. Lønsmann & B. Preisler (Eds.), *Language alternation, language choice and language encounter in international education*. Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-6476-7\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-6476-7_1)
- Heimböckel, D., Mein, G., & Sieburg, H. (2012). *Kooperation, Interdisziplinarität und Mehrsprachigkeit. Lehr- und Forschungsperspektiven der Germanistik in Luxemburg* [Conference presentation]. Zukunftsfragen der Germanistik. Beiträge der DAAD-Germanistentagung 2011 mit den Partnerländern Frankreich, Belgien, Niederlande, Luxemburg. <https://content.e-bookshelf.de/media/reading/L-652811-44403ac04e.pdf>
- Hennink, M. M. (2014). Introducing focus group discussions. In M. M. Hennink (Ed.), *Understanding Focus Group Discussions* (pp. 1–34). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:osobl/9780199856169.003.0001>
- Hennink, M. M. (2014). *Focus group discussions*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:osobl/9780199856169.001.0001>
- Hennink, M., M., Kaiser, B. N., & Marconi, V. C. (2017). Code saturation versus meaning saturation: How many interviews are enough? *Qualitative Health Research*, 27(4), 591–608. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732316665344>
- Henry, A., & Thorsen, C. (2018). Teacher–student relationships and L2 motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 102(1), 218–241.
- Helsinki Initiative (2019). *Helsinki Initiative on Multilingualism in Scholarly Communication*. <https://www.helsinki-initiative.org/en>
- Heron, M., Dippold, D., Aksit, N., Aksit, T., Doubleday, J., & McKeown, K. (2021). Tutors’ beliefs about language and roles: practice as language policy in EMI contexts. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 29(1), 251–265. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2021.1973410>
- Hesse-Biber, S. N (2011). *The practice of qualitative research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Hockings, C. (2011). Hearing voices, creating spaces: The craft of the ‘artisan teacher’ in a mass higher education system. *Critical Studies in Education*, 52(2), 191–205. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17508487.2011.572831>
- Hodge, B. (2017). Discourse analysis. In T. Bartlett & G. O’Grady (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 520–532). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315413891>

- Hofmann, S. (2020). Multilingualism and internationalisation in doctoral education: Discourse, positioning and agency. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), 257–277. <https://doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2020-0009>
- Holmen, A. (2015). Linguistic diversity among students in higher education: A Resource in a multilingual language strategy? In A. H. Fabricius & Preisler, B. (Eds.), *Transcultural interaction and linguistic diversity in higher education. The student experience* (116–141). Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137397478\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137397478_6)
- Holmes, A. G. (2023). The design and use of questionnaires in educational research: A new (student) researcher guide. *Innovare Journal of Education*, 11(3), 1–5. <http://dx.doi.org/10.22159/ijoe.2023v11i3.47599>
- Hood, S. (2019). Appraisal. In G. Thompson, W. L. Bowcher, L. Fontaine & D. Schönthal (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 382–409). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316337936.017>
- Hornberger, N. H. (1991). Extending Enrichment Bilingual Education. Revisiting typologies and redirecting policy. In O. García (Ed.), *Focus on bilingual education. Essays in honor of Joshua A. Fishman* (Vol. 1). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Hornberger, N. H., & Johnson, D. C. (2007). Slicing the onion ethnographically: Layers and spaces in multilingual language education policy and practice. *TESOL*, 41(3), 509–532. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00083.x>
- Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 261–278. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2012.658016>
- Hu, A., & De Saint-Georges, I. (2020). Multilingualism as a resource for learning-insights from a multidisciplinary research project. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), 143–156. <https://doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2020-0012>
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2014). English–medium instruction in Chinese higher education: A case study. *Higher Education*, 67, 551–567. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9661-5>
- Huemer, B. (2017). Die Stellung des Deutschen an der mehrsprachigen Universität Luxemburg. *Muttersprache*, 1, 102–111.
- Huemer, B. (2019). Introduction. In B. Huemer, E. Lejot & K. L. B. Deroey (Eds.), *Academic writing across languages: Multilingual and contrastive approaches in higher education* (Vol. 1, pp. 21–38). Böhlau.

- Huemer, B., & Skourmalla, A. M. (2025). Teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms [Activity report submitted for publication]. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, Journal of CercleS, European Confederation of Language Centres in Higher Education.
- Hultgren, A. K. (2016). Parallel Language Use. In A. Linn (Ed.), *Investigating English in Europe* (pp. 158–63). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Hultgren, A. K., Gregersen, F., & Thøgersen, J. (2014). *English in Nordic Universities: Ideologies and practices*. Benjamins.
- Hufeisen, B., & Marx, N. (2007). *EuroComGerm – Die sieben Siebe: Germanische Sprachen lesen lernen*. Shaker.
- Iakovou, M., Tsioli, S., & Vihou, M. (2023). Dominant Language Constellation and Plurilingual Awareness: The Case of Student Language Teachers in Greece. In L. Aronin & S. Melo-Pfeifer (Eds.), *Language Awareness and Identity* (Vol. 45, pp. 131–153). [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-37027-4\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-37027-4_7)
- Jalava, M. (2012). *The university in the making of the welfare state: The 1970s degree reform in Finland*. Peter Lang.
- Jarmouni, M., Bellaihou, M., Labdouti, Z., & Arectout, A. (2024). A Study on the Impact of Instruction Language on Academic Achievement in Higher Education. *Forum for Linguistic Studies*, 6(5), 471–482. <https://doi.org/10.30564/fls.v6i5.7049>
- Jayawardana, A., & O'Donnell, M. (2009). Devolution, job enrichment and workplace performance in Sri Lanka's garment industry. *The Economic and Labor Relations Review*, 19 (2), 107–122. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/103530460901900208>
- Jenkins, J. (2013). *English as a lingua franca in the international university: The politics of academic English language policy* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203798157>
- Jenkins, J., & Mauranten, A. (2019). *Linguistic diversity on the EMI campus. Insider accounts of the use of English and other languages in universities within Asia, Australasia, and Europe* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429020865>
- Jensen, C., & Thøgersen, J. (2011). Danish university lecturers' attitudes towards English as the medium of instruction. *Ibérica*, 22(22), 13–34.
- Jensen, C., Denver, L., Mees, I. M., & Werther, C. (2013). Students' attitudes to lecturers' English in English-medium higher education in Denmark. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 13(1), 87–112. <https://doi.org/10.35360/njes.277>
- Jessner-Schmid, U., & Kramsch, C. J. (Eds.). (2015). *The Multilingual challenge. Cross disciplinary perspectives* (Vol. 1). De Gruyter Mouton.

- Johnson, D. C. (2011). Critical discourse analysis and the ethnography of language policy. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 8(4), 267–279. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17405904.2011.601636>
- Johnson R. B., & Christensen L. B. (2004). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (6th ed.). Allyn and Bacon.
- Källkvist, M., Gyllstad, H., Sandlund, E., & Sundqvist, P. (2019, March 9–12). *English Only in Multilingual Classrooms? A Study of Students' Self-Reported Practices and Attitudes* [Paper presentation]. American Association of Applied Linguistics, Atlanta, Georgia, United States.
- Kamerlin, S. C. L. (2024). Mandatory national language requirements in higher education. *EMBO Reports*, 25(9), 3739–3740. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s44319-024-00211-9>
- Karatsareas, P. (2022). Semi-Structured Interviews. In R. Kircher & L. Zipp (Eds.), *Research Methods in Language Attitudes* (pp. 99–113). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108867788.010>
- Karlsson, S., & Karlsson, T. S. (2019). Language policy as ‘frozen’ ideology: Exploring the administrative function in Swedish higher education. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 21(1), 67–87. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2019.1593723>
- Kaufhold, K., & Wennerberg, J. (2020). “I Need to Know This Swedish Because It’s the Känspråk”: Language Ideologies and Practices of Multilingual Students. In M. Kuteeva, K. Kaufhold, & N. Hynninen (Eds.), *Language Perceptions and Practices in Multilingual Universities* (pp. 193–216). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Klopper, H. (2020, September 10). *Internationalisation must go on, even if borders are closed*. University World News. <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20200907101112383>
- Knight, J. (2003). Updated definition of internationalization. *Archives*, 33. <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2003.33.7391>
- Knight, J. (2008). *Higher education in turmoil. The changing world of internationalisation*. Sense Publishers.
- Knight, J. (2011). Five myths about internationalization. *International Higher Education*, 67(62), 14–15. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2011.62.8532>
- Knight, J., & de Wit, H. (1995) Strategies for internationalization of higher education: historical and conceptual perspectives. In H. de Wit (Ed.), *Strategies for Internationalization of Higher Education: A comparative study of Australia, Canada, Europe and the United States of America*. European Association for International Education.
- Köck, J. (2015). Deutsch als Wissenschaftssprache und normativ–korrektes Deutsch als Herrschaftsinstrumente im universitären Kontext. In N. Thoma, & M. Knappik, (Ed.), *Sprache*

*und Bildung in Migrationsgesellschaften. Machtkritische Perspektiven auf ein prekariisiertes Verhältnis* (pp. 262–263). Transcript.

Kroskrity, P. V. (2016). *Language ideologies and language attitudes*. Oxford Bibliographies. <https://www.oxfordbibliographies.com/display/document/obo-9780199772810/obo-9780199772810-0122.xml>

Krosnick, J. (2018). Questionnaire design. In D. L. Vannette & J. A. Krosnick (Eds.), *The Palgrave handbook of survey research* (pp. 439–455). Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-54395-6\\_53](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-54395-6_53)

Krueger, R. A. (1998). *Developing questions for focus groups*. SAGE Publications, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483328126>

Krueger R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.

Kubota, R. (2016). The multi/plural turn, postcolonial theory, and neoliberal multiculturalism: Competencies and implications for applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 37(4), 474–494. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu045>

Küpper, A., & Sieburg, H. (2020). Luxemburg unter dem Dach der Plurizentrik: Migration und Mehrsprachigkeit – Schul- und Bildungswesen – Lexikon Luxemburger Standarddeutsch. In N. Shafer, A. Middeke, S. Hägi-Mead & H. Schweiger (Eds.), *Weitergedacht Das DACH-Prinzip in der Praxis* (Vol. 103, pp. 3–12). FadaF.

Kuzhabekova, A. (2022). Thirty years of research capacity development in Kazakhstani Higher Education. In M. Chankseliani, I. Fedyukin & I. Frumin (Eds.), *Building research capacity at universities: Insights from post-soviet countries* (pp. 225–243). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-12141-8\\_12](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-12141-8_12)

Kyllonen, P. C. (2020). The Importance of higher education and the role of noncognitive attributes in college success. *Pensamiento Educativo. Revista de Investigación Educativa Latinoamericana*, 49(2), 84–100. <https://doi.org/10.7764/PEL.49.2.2012.7>

Lakoff, G. (1972). *Hedges: A study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts*. *Proceedings of the Chicago Linguistics Society*, 8, 183–228.

Lambert, W. E. (1980). The social psychology of language: A perspective for the 1980s. *Language. Social Psychological Perspectives*, 415–424. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-024696-3.50067-3>

Langford, B. E., Schoenfeld G., & Izzo G. (2002). Nominal grouping sessions vs. focus groups. *Qualitative Market Research*, 5(1), 58–70. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13522750210414517>

- Lasagabaster, D. (2019). Language policy and language choice at European Universities: Is there really a 'choice'? *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3(2), 255–276. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2014-0024>
- Lasagabaster, D. (2021). EMI in Spain. Striving to maintain a multilingual balance. In R. Wilkinson & R. Gabriëls (Eds.), *The Englishization of higher education in Europe* (pp. 77-96). Amsterdam University Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv21ptzkn.7>
- Lasagabaster, D. (2022). *English–medium instruction in higher education*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108903493>
- Le Cordeur, M. (2013). Afrikaans as medium of instruction within a transformed higher education system in South Africa with special reference to Stellenbosch University. In C. C. Wolhuter (Ed.), *SAERA konferensieboek: educational research in South Africa: Practices and perspectives*, pp. 55–76. Oxford University Press.
- Leavy, P. (2014). *The Oxford handbook of qualitative research*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199811755.001.0001>
- Leech, B. L. (2002). Asking questions: Techniques for semi structured interviews. *Political Science and Politics*, 35(4), 665–668. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S1049096502001129>
- Leibowitz, B., Adendorff, H., Daniels, S., Loots, A., Nakasa, S., Ngxabazi, N., Van der Merwe, A., & Van Deventer, I. (2005). The relationship between identity, language and teaching and learning in higher education in South Africa. *Per Linguam*, 21(2), 23–27. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5785/21-2-74>
- Leppänen, S., & Pahta, P. (2012). Finnish culture and language endangered: Language ideological debates on English in the Finnish press from 1995 to 2007. *Tilburg Papers in Culture Studies*, 23.
- Leskelä, L., Mustajoki, A., & Piehl, A. (2022). Easy and plain languages as special cases of linguistic tailoring and standard language varieties. *Nordic Journal of Linguistics*, 45(2), 194–213. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0332586522000142>
- Li, W. (2022). Translanguaging as a political stance: Implications for English language education. *ELT Journal Volume*, 76(2), 172–182. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccab083>
- Liddicoat, A. J. (2016). Language planning in universities: Teaching, research and administration. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 17(3–4), 231–234. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2016.1216351>
- Liddicoat, A. J. (Ed.). (2018). *Language Policy and Planning in Universities. Teaching, research and administration*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203732106>

- Limesurvey GmbH. Lime Survey: An Open-Source survey tool. Lime Survey GmbH, Hamburg, Germany. <http://www.limesurvey.org>
- Lindström, J. (2012). Different languages, one mission? Outcomes of language policies in a multilingual university context. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 216, 33–54. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ijsl-2012-0038>
- Litosseliti, L. (Ed.). (2010). *Research methods in linguistics*. Continuum.
- Lloyd, D. J. (1952). Our national mania for correctness. *The American Scholar*, 21(3), 283-289.
- Llurda, R., Cots, J. M., & Armengol, L. (2013). Views on multilingualism and internationalisation in higher education: administrative staff in the spotlight. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(4), 376–391. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2013.874435>
- Llurda, R., Doiz, A., & Sierra, J. M. (2015). Students' representations of multilingualism and internationalization at two Bilingual Universities in Spain. In A. Fabricius & B. Preisler (Eds.), *Transcultural interaction and linguistic diversity in higher education. The student experience*. Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137397478\\_5](https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137397478_5)
- Lo Bianco, J. (2008). Tense times and language planning. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 9(2), 155–178.
- Lo Bianco, J., & Aronin, L. (2020). Introduction: The dominant language constellations: A new Perspective on multilingualism. In J. Lo Bianco & L. Aronin (Eds.), *Dominant language constellations: A new perspective on multilingualism* (pp. 1–18). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-52336-7>
- Loi du 27 juin 2018 ayant pour objet l'organisation de l'Université du Luxembourg. (2018). <https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/11/Loi-du-27-juin-2018-modifiee-ayant-pour-objet-lorganisation-de-lUniversite-du-Luxembourg.pdf>
- Louis, L., Degrave, P., & Hiligsmann, P. (2024). EMI and DMI, an elitist language learning approach? An investigation of students' socio-economic and language profiles. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1–21. <https://doi.org.proxy.bnl.lu/10.1080/01434632.2024.2406353>
- Lu, X., & Troyan, F. J. (2023). “That's a line that we have to draw”: A systemic functional linguistics (SFL) perspective on world language teacher ideologies. *Review*, 91, 39–60.
- Lucas, T., Villegas, A. M., Freedson-Gonzalez, M. (2008). Linguistically responsive teacher education: Preparing classroom teachers to teach English language learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(4), 361-373. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022487108322110>

- Lueg, K. (2015). English as a medium of instruction and internationalization at Danish universities. Status, perspectives, and implications for higher education executives. *Communication & Language at work*, 4(4), 53–73. <https://doi.org/10.7146/claw.v1i4.20772>
- Lueg, K. (2018). The internationalization of higher education in Europe: A discussion of English as a medium of instruction and its implications for (in)equalities. *Culture, Practice & Europeanization*, 3(1), 47–67.
- Lutz, B. (2019). *An integrated view on technical communication* [PowerPoint slides]. Plain Language and Applied Linguistics, Oslo, Norway. <http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.31317.78565>
- Maafi, J. (2022). Réformes Pédagogiques et Principes Méthodologiques pour l'Enseignement du Français Langue Etrangère en Contexte Universitaire Marocain : Perspectives d'Adaptation. *Didactiques du FLES : Recherches et Pratiques*, 1(1), 155–166.
- Macaro, E. (2018). *English medium instruction: Content and language in policy and practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Mady, C. (2019). Novice teachers' perspectives on the use of languages in French as a second language classes that include English language learners: A longitudinal view. *Brock Education: A Journal of Educational Research and Practice*, 28(2), 82–95. <https://doi.org/10.26522/brocked.v28i2.490>
- Maiworm, F., & Wächter, B. (2008). *English–language–taught degree programmes in European higher education. Trends and success factors*. Lemmens.
- Marginson, S., & Rhoades, G. (2002). Beyond national states, markets, and systems of higher education: A glonacal agency heuristic. *Higher Education*, 43(3), 281–309.
- Marian, V. (2023). *The power of language: Multilingualism, self and society*. Pelican Books.
- Marian, V., Blumenfeld, H. K., & Kaushanskaya, M. (2007). The language experience and proficiency questionnaire (LEAP-Q): Assessing language profiles in bilinguals and multilinguals. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, 50(4), 940–967. [https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388\(2007/067\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388(2007/067))
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Martin, J. R. (1984). Language, register, and genre. In F. Christie (Ed.), *Children writing: Reader* (pp. 21–30). Deakin University Press.
- Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: System and structure*. John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/z.59?locatt=mode:legacy>
- Martin, J. R. (1995). Interpersonal meaning, persuasion and public discourse: Packing semiotic punch. *Australian Journal of Linguistics*, 15(1), 33–67. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07268609508599515>

- Martin, J. R. (2000). Beyond exchange: appraisal systems in English. In S. Hunston & S. G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in Text. Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse* (pp. 142–175). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198238546.003.0008>
- Martin, J. R. (2003). Introduction, special issue on appraisal. *Text*, 23(2), 171–81.
- Martin, J. R. (2014). Evolving systemic functional linguistics: Beyond the clause. *Functional Linguistics*, 1(3). <https://doi.org/10.1186/2196-419X-1-3>
- Martin, J. R. & Rose, D. (2007). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause*. Continuum.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. Equinox.
- Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation. Appraisal in English*. Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230511910>
- Martyniuk, W. (2010). *Aligning tests with the CEFR: Reflections on using the Council of Europe's draft manual* (Vol. 33). Cambridge University Press.
- Martyniuk, W. (2012). Multilingualism and higher education. In *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0797>
- Marshall, S., & Moore, D. (2018). Plurilingualism amid the panoply of lingualisms: Addressing critiques and misconceptions in education. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 15(1), 19–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2016.1253699>
- Mary, L., Sugranyes, C., Jaritz, G., Aarøe, K. M., & Bromberg, W. (2025, 23–25 July). *Understanding teachers' plurilingual wellbeing: Insights for teacher education*. 11th EDiLiC Conference—Plurilingual Literacies in Education: Pluralistic Approaches inside and beyond the classroom, Von-Melle-Park.
- Mas, O. T. (2012). Las competencias del docente universitario: la percepción del alumno, de los expertos y del propio protagonista. *REDU Revista de Docencia Universitaria* 10(2), 299. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4995/redu.2012.6109>
- Mason, J. (2002), *Qualitative researching* (2nd ed). SAGE Publications.
- Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1995). *Lexicogrammatical cartography: English systems*. International Language Sciences Publishers.
- Matthiessen, C. M. I. M., Teruya, K., & Wu, C. (2008). Multilingual studies as a multidimensional space of interconnected language studies. In J. J. Webster (Ed.), *Meaning in context: Strategies for implementing intelligent applications of language studies* (pp. 146–220). Continuum.
- May, S. (2008). Bilingual/immersion education: What the research tells us. In J. Cummins & N. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (Vol. 5, pp. 19–34). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3\\_113](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_113)

- May, S. (2014). Introducing the “multilingual turn”. In S. May (Ed.), *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and bilingual education* (pp. 1–6). Routledge.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (Vol. 41, 3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Mazak., C. M. (2016). Introduction: Theorizing translinguaging practices in higher education. In C. M. Mazak & K. S. Carroll (Eds.), *Translinguaging in higher education. Beyond monolingual ideologies* (pp. 1–10). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783096657-003>
- Mbulungeni, M. (2018). The multilingual university. In A. Creese & A. Blackledge (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language and superdiversity* (pp. 504–517). Routledge.
- McCarty, T. L. (2004). Dangerous difference: A critical-historical analysis of language education policies in the United States. In J. W. Tollefson & A. B. M. Tsui (Eds.), *Medium of instruction policies: Which agenda? Whose agenda?* (1st ed., pp. 71–93). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- McCarty, L. T. (2010). *Ethnography and language policy* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203836064>
- McKinley, J. (2018). Integrating appraisal theory with possible selves in understanding university EFL writing. *System*, 78, 27–37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.07.002>
- McKinley, J., & Galloway, N. (2022). *English–medium instruction practices in higher education: International perspectives* (1st ed.). Bloomsbury Academic.
- Mendzheritskaya, J., & Hansen, M. (2019). The role of emotions in higher education teaching and learning processes. *Studies in Higher Education*, 44(10), 1709–1711. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2019.1665306>
- Meißner, F. J. (2008). Teaching and learning intercomprehension: A way to plurilingualism and learner autonomy. In I. de Florio–Hansen (Ed.), *Towards multilingualism and cultural diversity. Perspectives from Germany* (pp. 37–58). Peter Lang.
- Meissner, F., & Vertovec, S. (2014). Comparing super–diversity. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 38(4), 541–555. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870.2015.980295>
- Men.lu. (2025, July 11). Feu vert pour « ALPHA – zesumme wuessen ». <https://men.public.lu/fr/actualites/communiqués-conference-presse/2025/07/11-projet-alpha-fr.html>
- Menken, K., & García, O. (2014). Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 8(3), 250–253. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2011.651391>
- Menken, K., & Pérez–Milans, M. (2020). Editorial. *Language Policy*, 19(1), 1–3. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10993-020-09544-2>

- Menken, K., & Shohamy, E. (2015). Invited colloquium on negotiating the complexities of multilingual assessment, AAAL Conference 2014. *Language Teaching*, 48(3), 421–425. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444815000166>
- Mercer, S. (2021). An agenda for well-being in ELT: An ecological perspective. *ELT Journal*, 75(1), 14–21. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaa062>
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education* (2nd ed.). Jossey–Bass Publishers.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
- Meyburg, A. H., & Metcalf, H. M. A. (2000). Question formulation and instrument design. Workshop on questionnaire design. *TRB Transportation Research Circular E-C008: Transport Surveys: Raising the Standard*.
- Mifsud, C.L. & Petrova, R. (2017). Multilingual Classroom Questionnaire (MCQ). Centre for Literacy, University of Malta, European Literacy Network COST Action IS1401.
- Ministry of Higher Education and Research. (2020). National Strategy and Innovation Strategy for Luxembourg. <https://gouvernement.lu/dam-assets/documents/actualites/2020/02-fevrier/25-mesr-strategie-recherche-innovation/mesr-strategy-research-innovation.pdf>
- Mittelmeier, J., & Yang, Y. (2022). The role of internationalisation in 40 years of higher education research: Major themes from higher education research & development (1982–2020). *Higher Education Research & Development*, 41(1), 75–91. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2021.2002272>
- Mittelmeier, J., Lomer, S., Al-Furqani, S., Huang, D. (2024). Developing meaningful internationalisation that impacts students' outcomes in higher education: A scoping review of the literature 2011–2022. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 28(4). <https://doi.org/10.1177/10283153231222278>
- Moisander, J., & Valtonen, A. (2006). *Qualitative marketing research*. SAGE Publications.
- Morgan, D. L. (1996). Focus groups. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 22(1), 129–152. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.22.1.129>
- Morgan, H. (2022). Conducting a qualitative document analysis. *The Qualitative Report*, 27(1), 64–77. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2022.5044>
- Morgan, H. (2022). Understanding thematic analysis and the debates involving its use. *The Qualitative Report*, 27(10), 2079–2091. <http://dx.doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2022.5912>
- Moring, T., Godenhjelm, S., Haapamäki, S., Lindström, J., Östman, J. O., Saari, M., & Sylvén, J. (2013). Language policies in universities and their outcomes. The University of Helsinki in a Northern

- European context. In A. K. Hultgren, F. Gregersen & J. Thøgersen (Eds.), *English in Nordic Universities. Ideologies and practices* (pp. 299–322). John Benjamins Publishing Company.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/mdm.2.14mor>
- Morris, D. B., & Usher, E. L. (2011). Developing teaching self-efficacy in research institutions: A study of award-winning professors. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 36(3), 232–245.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2010.10.005>
- Morse, J. M. (2000). Determining sample size. *Qualitative Health Research*, 10(1), 3–5.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/104973200129118183>
- Multilingualism Policy. (2020). University of Luxembourg. <https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/Multilingualism-Policy-English.pdf>
- Myers, B., & Martin, T. (2021). Why plain language? Linguistic accessibility in inclusive higher education. *Journal of Inclusive Postsecondary Education*, 3(1).  
<https://doi.org/10.13021/jipe.2021.2953>
- Naeem, M., Ozuem, W., Howell, K., & Ranfagni, S. (2023). A step-by-step process of thematic analysis to develop a conceptual model in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069231205789>
- Naeem M., & Ozuem W. (2022). Understanding misinformation and rumors that generated panic buying as a social practice during COVID-19 pandemic: Evidence from twitter, YouTube and focus group interviews. *Information Technology & People*, 35(7), 2140–2166.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/itp-01-2021-0061>
- Ministry of Research and Higher Education. (2020). National Research and Innovation Strategy 2020.  
<https://mesr.gouvernement.lu/en/publications/2020/national-research-and-innovation-strategy.html>
- Nekrasova-Beke, T. M. (2019). Discipline-specific use of language patterns in engineering: A comparison of published pedagogical materials. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.100774>
- Neuland, E. (2005). Ist eine Spracherziehung zur Demokratie möglich? Ein Diskussionsbeitrag. In J. Killian (Ed.), *Sprache und Politik. Deutsch im demokratischen Staat* (Vol. 6, pp. 74–84). Dudenverlag.
- Neville, C. (2007). [Lecture notes on research and research methods]. University of Bradford School of Management. <https://www.unrwa.org/sites/default/files/introduction-to-research-and-research-methods.pdf>
- Ngo, T., & Unsworth, L. (2015). Reworking the appraisal framework in ESL research: refining attitude resources. *Functional Linguistics*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40554-015-0013-x>

- Nicholls, G. (2002). *Developing teaching and learning in higher education*. Routledge.  
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203469231>
- Nwachukwu, E. L., Lazarus, C., Asuzu, C., Ubani, A., & Wei, C. R. (2024). Fostering inclusive educational practices through multilingual-oriented pedagogy. *International Journal of Asian Education and Psychology (IJAEP)*, 1(2), 1–12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.59890/ijaep.v1i2.8848>
- O'Donnell, M. (2012). UAM CorpusTool (Version 2.8) [Computer Software].  
<http://www.corpustool.com/index.html>
- O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2012). 'Unsatisfactory saturation': A critical exploration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 13(2), 190–197.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794112446106>
- Odeniyi, V. & Lazar, G. (2020). Valuing the multilingual repertoires of students from African migrant communities at a London university. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 33(2), 157–171.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2019.1677702>
- Oreopoulos, P., & Salvanes, K. G. (2011). Priceless: The nonpecuniary benefits of schooling. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 25(1), 159–184.
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Dickinson, W. B., Leech, N. L., & Zoran, A. G. (2009). A Qualitative framework for collecting and analyzing data in focus group research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(3), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690900800301>
- Orduna–Nocito, E., & Sánchez–García, D. (2022). Aligning higher education language policies with lecturers' views on EMI practices: A comparative study of ten European universities. *System*, 104. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102692>
- Ormston, R., Spencer, L., Barnard, M., & Snape, D. (2014). The foundations of qualitative research. In J. Ritchie, J. Lewis, C. McNaughton Nicholls & R. Ormston (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice. A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 1–25). SAGE Publications.
- Ortega, Y., & Piccardo, E. (2018). Plurilingualism in the new era: A conversation with Enrica Piccardo. *Argentinian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6(1), 75–91.
- Osterkorn, P. K., & Vetter, E. (2015). « Le multilinguisme en question ? » – The case of minority language education in Brittany (France). In U. Jessner–Schmid & C. J. Kramsch (Eds.), *The multilingual challenge. Cross-disciplinary perspectives* (pp. 115–142). De Gruyter Mouton.  
<https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614512165-007>
- Oteíza, T. (2017). The appraisal framework and discourse analysis. In T. Bartlett & G. O'Grady (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 457–472). Routledge.

- Oteíza, T., & Pinuer, C. (2019). El sistema de valoración como herramienta teórico–metodológica para el estudio social e ideológico del discurso. *Logos Revista de Lingüística Filosofía y Literatura*, 29(2), 207–229. <http://dx.doi.org/10.15443/RL2918>
- 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://10.1515/applirev-2015-0014>
- Otwinowska, A. (2017). English teachers’ language awareness: Away with the monolingual bias? *Language Awareness*, 16(4), 304–324. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2017.1409752>
- Packer–Muti, B. (2010). Conducting a focus group. *The Qualitative Report*, 15(4), 1023–1026. <http://dx.doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2010.1199>
- Pan, Y., & Fond, M. (2014). Evaluating multilingual questionnaires: A sociolinguistic perspective. *Survey Research Methods*, 8(3), 181–194. <https://doi.org/10.18148/srm/2014.v8i3.5483>
- Paris Communiqué. (2018, May 24-25). Paris Communiqué, Paris, France. [https://ehea.info/media.ehea.info/file/2018\\_Paris/77/1/EHEAParis2018\\_Communique\\_final\\_952771.pdf](https://ehea.info/media.ehea.info/file/2018_Paris/77/1/EHEAParis2018_Communique_final_952771.pdf)
- Parmentier, P. (2020). Curriculum et internationalisation de l’enseignement supérieur. In L. Cosnefroy & J. M. De Ketele (Eds.), *L’ L’internationalisation de l’enseignement supérieur: Le meilleur des mondes?* (pp. 155–183). De Boeck Supérieur.
- Parveen, A., Dar, M. A., Jan, S., & Rasool, I. (2022). Challenges in the multilingual classroom across the curriculum. In E. Charamba (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching in multicultural and multilingual contexts* (pp. 1–12). IGI Global. <https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-6684-5034-5.ch001>
- Patten, M. (2014). *Questionnaire research. A practical guide* (4th ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315265858>
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods: Integrating Theory and Practice* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Paulsrud, B., & Gheitasi, P. (2024). Embracing linguistic diversity: Pre–service teachers’ lesson planning for English language learning in Sweden. *Education Sciences*, 14(12), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci14121326>

- Pavlenko, A., & Blackledge, A. (Eds.). (2004). *Negotiation of Identities in Multilingual Contexts*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853596483>
- Pecore J. L., Kirchgessner M. L., Demetrikopoulos M. K., Carruth L. L., & Frantz K. J. (2017). Formal lessons improve informal educational experiences: The influence of prior knowledge on student engagement. *Visitor Studies*, 20(1), 89–104. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10645578.2017.1297134>
- Pedagogical Charter. Educational mission statement of the University of Luxembourg. (2018). [https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/UL\\_chartepedagogique\\_final\\_en.pdf](https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/UL_chartepedagogique_final_en.pdf)
- Pekrun, R., & Stephens, E. J. (2012). Academic Emotions. In K. R. Harris, S. Graham, T. Urdan, S. Graham, J. M. Royer & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *APA Educational Psychology Handbook: Individual Differences and Cultural and Contextual Factors* (Vol. 2, pp. 3–31). American Psychological Association.
- Pérez–Milans, M. (2015). Language education policy in late modernity: (Socio) linguistic ethnographies in the European Union. *Language Policy*, 14(2), 99–107. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-014-9354-7>
- Piccardo, E. (2013). Plurilingualism and curriculum design: Toward a synergic vision. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(3), 600–614. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.110>
- Piccardo, E. (2018). Plurilingualism: Vision, conceptualization, and practices. In P. P. Trifonas & T. Aravossitas (Eds.), *Handbook of research and practice in heritage language education* (pp. 207–225). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-44694-3\\_47](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-44694-3_47)
- Pierce–Grove, R. (2016). Conclusion: Making the new status quo: Social media in education. In C. Greenhow, J. Sonnevend & C. Agur (Eds.), *Education and social media: Toward a digital future* (pp. 239–246). MIT Press. <https://doi.org/10.7551/mitpress/9780262034470.003.0017>
- Pietrzyk–Kowalec, P. (2023). Multilingualism and the job market in the European Union: A comprehensive analysis. *Proceedings of The World Conference on Education and Teaching*, 2(1), 1–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.33422/etconf.v2i1.71>
- Piller, I. (2016). *Linguistic diversity and social justice. An introduction to applied sociolinguistics*. Oxford University Press.
- Pirhonen, H. (2022). Towards multilingual competence: examining beliefs and agency in first year university students' language learner biographies. *The Language Learning Journal*, 50(5), 613–626. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2020.1858146>
- Politique du multilinguisme. (2020). University of Luxembourg. <https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/07/Multilingualism-Policy-English.pdf>

- Portolés, L., & Marti, O. (2020). Teachers' beliefs about multilingual pedagogies and the role of initial training. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 17(2), 248–264. [10.1080/14790718.2018.1515206](https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2018.1515206)
- Postareff, L., & S. Lindblom–Ylänne. (2011). Emotions and confidence within teaching in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(7), 799–813. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2010.483279>
- Preece, S. (2009). Multilingual identities in higher education: Negotiating the 'mother tongue', 'posh' and 'slang'. *Language and Education*, 24(1), 21–39. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780903194036>
- Preece, S. (2019) Postgraduate students as plurilingual social actors in UK higher education. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 33(2), 126–141. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2019.1676767>
- Preece, S., & Marshall, S. (2020). Plurilingualism, teaching and learning, and Anglophone higher education: An introduction Anglophone universities and linguistic diversity. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 33(2), 117–125. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2020.1723931>
- Preisler, B., Klitgård, I., & Fabricius, A. H. (Eds.). (2011). *Language and learning in the international university: From English uniformity to diversity and hybridity* (Vol. 21). Multilingual Matters.
- Prior, L. (2011). *Using documents in social research*. SAGE Publications. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9780857020222>
- Punch, K. F. (2009). *Introduction to research methods in education*. SAGE Publications.
- Rabionet, S. E. (2011). How I learned to design and conduct semi structured interviews: An ongoing and continuous journey. *The Qualitative Report*, 16(2), 563–566. <http://dx.doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2011.1070>
- Rae, L. M., & Parker, R. A. (1997). *Designing and conducting survey research* (2nd ed.). Jossey–Bass Inc.
- Rajendram, S., Wenyangzi, I., & Jun, J. (2023). Translanguaging in higher education: experiences and recommendations of international graduate students from the Global South. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, 20(3), 258–278. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2023.2242991>
- Rehbein, J., ten Thije, J., & Verschik, A. (2012). Lingua receptiva (LaRa) –The quintessence of receptive multilingualism. *International Journal for Bilingualism* 16(3), 248–268. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006911426466>
- Ricento, T. (Ed.). (2006). *An introduction to language policy: Theory and method*. Blackwell.
- Ricento, T. (2015). *Language policy and political economy: English in a global context*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199363391.001.0001>

- Rindler Schjerve, R., & Vetter, E. (2012). *European multilingualism: Current perspectives and challenges*. Multilingual Matters.
- Risager, K. (2012). Language hierarchies at the international university. *International journal of the sociology of language*, 216, 111–130. <https://doi.org/10.1515/ijsl-2012-0042>
- Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (2000). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. SAGE Publications.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner researchers* (2nd ed.). Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
- Roche, J. (2012). Deutsch als Wissenschaftssprache: Zwischen Nostalgie, Nationalstolz und Notwendigkeit. *Die Diskussion: Deutsch als Wissenschaftssprache, Jahrbuch 2011/2012*, 62–64.
- Ruiz, R. (1984). Orientations in language planning. *NABE Journal*, 8(2), 15–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08855072.1984.10668464>
- Ruiz–Madrid, N., & Fortanet–Gómez, I. (2023). Integrating content and language in higher education. *System*, 115. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.103073>
- Ryan, F. Coughlan, M. Cronin, P. (2009). Interviewing in qualitative research: The one-to-one interview. *International Journal of Therapy and Rehabilitation* 16(6), 309–314. <https://doi.org/10.12968/ijtr.2009.16.6.42433>
- Rymes, B., Lee, E., & Negus, S. (2024). Language and education: Ideologies of correctness. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 53, 183–197. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-anthro-041422-121726>
- Saarinen, T. (2020). *Higher education, language and new nationalism in Finland recycled histories*. Palgrave. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-60902-3>
- Saldana, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Sanger, P. S. (2020). Inclusive pedagogy and universal design approaches for diverse learning environments. In C. S. Sanger & N. W. Gleason (Eds.), *Diversity and inclusion in global higher education. lessons from across Asia*. Palgrave Macmillan. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-1628-3\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-1628-3_2)
- Sankoff, G. (1974). A quantitative paradigm for the study of communicative competence. In R. Bauman & J. Sherzer (Eds.), *Explorations in the ethnography of speaking* (pp. 18–49). Cambridge University Press.
- Sankoff, G. (1988). Problems of representativeness. In U. Ammon, N. Dittman & K. Mattheier (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: An international handbook of the science of language and society* (pp. 899–903). De Gruyter Mouton. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110171488.2.7.998>

- Sántha, K., & Sántha–Malomsoki, Á. (2023). Methodological aspects for applied linguistic research – mixed methods, triangulation. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae Philologica*, 15(2), 1–13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/ausp-2023-0013>
- Santosa, R. (2016). Critical discourse analysis (CDA): Systemic functional linguistics (SFL). *International Seminar Prasasti III: Current Research in Linguistics*. <https://doi.org/10.20961/pras.v0i0.1442>
- Schiffman, H. F. (1996). *Linguistic culture and language policy*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203021569>
- Schleef, E. (2014). Written surveys and questionnaires in sociolinguistics. In J. Holmes & K. Hanzen (Eds.), *Research methods in sociolinguistics: A practical guide* (pp. 42–57). Wiley Blackwell. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/9781394260867.ch3>
- Schoch, K. (2019). Case study research. In G. J. Burkholder, Ek. A. Cox, L. M. Crawford J. H. Hitchcock (Eds.), *Research design and methods: an applied guide for the scholar–practitioner* (pp. 245–258). SAGE Publications.
- Schwarzl, L., Vetter, E., & Janík, M. (2019). Schools as linguistic space: Multilingual realities at schools in Vienna and Brno. In A. Kostoulas (Ed.), *Challenging boundaries in language education* (pp. 211–228). [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-17057-8\\_13](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-17057-8_13)
- Shin, J. C., & Kehm, B. M. (2013). *Institutionalization of world–class university in global competition*. Springer Dordrecht. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-4975-7>
- Shirahata, M., & Lahti, M. (2022). Language ideological landscapes for students in university language policies: inclusion, exclusion, or hierarchy. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 24(3), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2022.2088165>
- Shohamy, E. (2006). *Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203387962>
- Sibanda, B., & Joubert, M. (2022). Whose language is it anyway? Students’ sense of belonging and role of English for higher education in the multilingual, South African context. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 36(6), 47–66. <https://doi.org/10.20853/36-6-5442>
- Sieburg, H. (2013). *Vielfalt der Sprachen – Varianz der Perspektiven. Zur Geschichte und Gegenwart der Luxemburger Mehrsprachigkeit* (Vol. 3). Transcript. <https://doi.org/10.14361/transcript.9783839420300.fm>
- Sierens, S., & Van Avermaet, P. (2014). Language diversity in education: Evolving from multilingual education to functional multilingual learning. In D. Little, C. Leung & P. Van Avermaet (Eds.), *Managing diversity in education: Languages, policies, pedagogies* (pp. 204–222). Multilingual Matters. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21832/9781783090815-014>

- Silverman, D. (2011). *Interpreting qualitative data. A guide to the principles of qualitative research*. SAGE Publications.
- Sirwan, K. A., Ribwar, A. M., Abdulqadir, J. N., Radhqan, H. I., Araz, Q. A., Barzan M. M. A., & Renas, M. K. (2025). Using thematic analysis in qualitative research. *Journal of Medicine, Surgery, and Public Health*, 6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.glmedi.2025.100198>
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. & Phillipson, R. (1996). Linguicide and linguisticism. In H. Goebel, P. Nelde, H. Zdeněk Starý & W. Wölck (Eds.), *Kontaktlinguistik/Contact Linguistics/Linguistique de contact. Ein internationales Handbuch zeitgenössischer Forschung/An International Handbook of Contemporary Research/Manuel international des recherches contemporaines* (pp. 667–675). De Gruyter. [10.1515/9783110132649.1.6.667](https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110132649.1.6.667)
- Smith, D. G. (2020). *Diversity's promise for higher education. Making it work* (3rd ed.). John Hopkins University Press.
- Smith, D. G., & Schonfeld, N. B. (2000). The benefits of diversity: What the research tells us. *About Campus*, 5(5). <https://doi.org/10.1177/108648220000500505>
- Soler, J. (2019). *Language policy and the internationalization of universities. A focus on Estonian higher education*. De Gruyter Mouton. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9781501505898>
- Soler, J., & Gallego-Balsà, L. (2019). Language policy, internationalisation, and multilingual higher education: An overview. In J. Soler & L. Gallego-Balsà (Eds.), *The sociolinguistics of higher education. Language policy and internationalisation in Catalonia* (pp. 17–41). Springer Nature Link. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-16677-9\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-16677-9_2)
- Soler, J., & Rozenvalde, K. (2021). The Englishization of higher education in Estonia and Latvia: Actors, positionings, and linguistic tensions. In R. Wilkinson & R. Gabriëls (Eds.), *The Englishization of higher education in Europe* (pp. 57–76). Amsterdam University Press. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9789048553914-005>
- Somlata, Z. (2020). Linguistic diversity in higher education. inclusion or exclusion? In R. H. Kaschula & H. E. Wollf (Eds.), *The transformative power of language from postcolonial to knowledge societies in Africa* (pp. 125–152). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108671088.008>
- Sönnig, L. (2015). *Statistics. Simple methods for research in linguistics*. University of Bamberg. [https://vc.uni-bamberg.de/pluginfile.php/896509/mod\\_resource/content/1/soenning\\_2015\\_statistics\\_-\\_simple\\_methods\\_for\\_linguistic\\_research.pdf](https://vc.uni-bamberg.de/pluginfile.php/896509/mod_resource/content/1/soenning_2015_statistics_-_simple_methods_for_linguistic_research.pdf)

- Sonntag, S. (2000). Ideology and policy in the politics of the English language in North India. In T. Ricento (Ed.), *Ideology, politics and language policies: Focus on English*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.1075/impact.6>
- Sorbonne Declaration, May 25, 1998, <https://ehea.info/page-sorbonne-declaration-1998>.
- Spolsky, B. (2003). *Language policy*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511615245>
- Spolsky, B. (2004). *Rethinking language policy*. Edinburgh University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781474485487>
- Spotti, M., Kroon, S., & Li, J. (2019). New speakers of new and old languages: An investigation into the gap between language practices and language policy. *Language Policy*, 18(4), 535–551. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-018-9503-5>
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study*. SAGE Publications.
- Stobart, G. (2005). Fairness in multicultural assessment systems. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 12(3), 275–287. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09695940500337249>
- Stoike-Sy, R. (2014). *Experiencing trilingual Master study programs at uni.lu. Perceptions of multilingualism: a grounded theory* [Poster presentation]. PhD Training Workshop in Multilingualism Research, Dubrovnik, Croatia. <https://hdl.handle.net/10993/16790>
- Strachota, E., Schmidt, S., & Conceição, S., (2006) The development and validation of a survey instrument for the evaluation of instructional aids. St. Louis, MO: Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education.
- Stromquist, N. P. (2002). *Education in a globalized world: The connectivity of economic power, technology, and knowledge*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Sulis, G., Mairitsch, A., & Mercer, S. (2025). ‘The more languages you know, the better you are’: learners’ pride in being multilingual and their motivation for language learning. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2025.2576616>
- Taboada, M., Carretero, M., & Hinnell, J. (2014). Loving and hating the movies in English, German and Spanish. *Languages in Contrast*, 14(1), 127–161.
- Taherdoost, H. (2021). Data Collection Methods and Tools for Research: A step-by-step guide to choose data collection technique for academic and business research projects. *International Journal of Academic Research in Management*, 10(1), 10–38.
- Teruya, K. (2017). Mood in Japanese. In T. Bartlett & G. O’Grady (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of systemic functional linguistics* (1st ed., pp. 213–229). Routledge.

- Thøgersen, J., & Airey, J. (2011). Lecturing undergraduate science in Danish and in English: A comparison of speaking rate and rhetorical style. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30(3), 209–221. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.01.002>
- Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. P. (2012). *Dual language education for a transformed world*. Fuente Press.
- Thompson, G., & Hunston, S. (2000). Evaluation: An introduction. In S. Hunston and G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in text* (pp 1–27). Oxford University Press.
- Thomson, G., & Hunston, S. (2000). *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourses*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198238546.001.0001>
- Tight, M. (2018). Higher education journals: Their characteristics and contribution. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 37(3), 607–619. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2017.1389858>
- Tight, M. (2019). *Documentary research in the social sciences*. SAGE Publications.
- Tight, M. (2022). Internationalisation of higher education beyond the West: Challenges and opportunities-the research evidence. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 27(3), 239-259. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2022.2041853>
- Torre, E. M. T., & Emanuela, F. (2024). Faculty development, inclusion and attention for diversity: Participants' reflections at the IRIDI start course at the University of Turin. *Proceedings Education and/or Social Justice* (Vol. 1), 1363–1644.
- Tsioli, S., & Androulakis, G. (2024). Conceptualising children's linguistic rights in formal education in Greece. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 16(3), 1429–1448. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2024-0214>
- University of Luxembourg. (2014). *Contrat d'établissement pluriannuel 2014–2017*.
- University of Luxembourg Facts and Figures. (2023). *Facts & Figures* [Infographics]. University of Luxembourg. [https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/09/University\\_of\\_Luxembourg\\_facts\\_and\\_figures\\_2023.pdf](https://www.uni.lu/wp-content/uploads/sites/9/2023/09/University_of_Luxembourg_facts_and_figures_2023.pdf)
- Unsworth, L. (2001). *Teaching multiliteracies across the curriculum: Changing contexts of text and image in classroom practice*. Open University Press.
- Unsworth, L. (2006). Multiliteracies and a metalanguage of image/text relations: Implications for teaching English as a first or additional language in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. *Tales out of school: identity and English language teaching. Special edition of TESOL in Context. Series S* (1) 147–162.
- Uysal, H., & Sah, P. K. (2018). Language ideologies and language teaching in the global world: An introduction to the special issue. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 28(4), 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13670069241240964>

- Uwera, F. (2016). *Language Practices in Multilingual Legal Education: A case study at the University of Luxembourg* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Luxembourg]. ORBilu–University of Luxembourg. <https://hdl.handle.net/10993/33084>
- van Dijk, T. A. (2001). Discourse, ideology and context. *Journal of Asian Economics*, 35(1–2), 11–40. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/flin.2001.35.1-2.11>
- van der Walt, C. (2006). University students' attitudes towards and experiences of bilingual classrooms. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 7(2&3), 359–376. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2167/cilp104.0>
- van der Walt, C. (2015). *Multilingual higher education. Beyond English medium orientations*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847699206>
- van Ginkel, A. (2014). Additive language learning for multilingual settings. <http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/2.1.3144.2247>
- van Pinxteren, B. (2023). The relevance of medium of instruction and mother tongue for different types of educational systems. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2023.102923>
- van Riesen, S. A., Gijlers H., Anjewierden A. A., de Jong T. (2019). The influence of prior knowledge on the effectiveness of guided experiment design. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 30(1), 13–33. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2019.1631193>
- van Vught, F. A., Van der Wende, M., & Westerheijden, D. F. (2002). Globalisation and internationalisation: Policy agendas compared. In J. Enders & O. Fulton (Eds.), *Higher education in a globalising world* (pp. 103–120). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-010-0579-1\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-010-0579-1_7)
- Vaismoradi, M., Jones, J., Turunen, H., & Snelgrove, S. (2016). Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, 6(5). <http://dx.doi.org/10.5430/jnep.v6n5p100>
- Valiente, C., Swanson, J., & Eisenberg, N. (2012). Linking students' emotions and academic achievement: When and why emotions matter. *Child Development Perspectives*, 6(2), 129–135.
- Vaughn, S., Schmumm, J. S., & Sinagub, J. M. (1996). *Focus group interviews in education and psychology*. SAGE Publications, Inc. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.4135/9781452243641>
- Veronesi, D., Spreafico, L., Varcasia, C., Vietti, A., & Franceschini, R. (2013). Multilingual higher education between policies and practices. In A. C. Berthoud, F. Grin & G. Lüdi (Eds.), *Exploring the dynamics of multilingualism* (pp. 253–277). John Benjamins. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1075/mdm.2.12ver>

- Vertovec, S. (2007). Super-diversity and its implications. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 30(6), 1024–1054. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870701599465>
- Verschik, A. (2012). Practising receptive multilingualism: Estonian–Finnish communication in Tallinn. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 16(3), 265–286. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006911426465>
- Vetter, E. (2013). Where policy doesn't meet life–world practice – the difficulty of creating the multilingual European. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 83–102. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2013-0005>
- Walker, J. A. (2024). Language and culture. In J. A. Walker (Ed.), *Language in its social context. An introduction to sociolinguistics* (pp. 105–129). Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-42522-6>
- Webb, V. (2002). *Language in South Africa. The role of language in national transformation, reconstruction and development* (Vol. 14). John Benjamins.
- 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, Y., Wherrity, M., & Zhang, Y. (2015). An Analysis of Current Research on the Appraisal Theory. *Linguistics and Literature Studies*, 3(5), 235–239. <https://doi.org/10.13189/lls.2015.030506>
- UNESCO. (2025). *What you need to know about higher education*. <https://www.unesco.org/en/higher-education/need-know>
- White, P. R. R. (2000, January 1). The appraisal website. <https://grammatics.com/appraisal/>
- White, L. (2003). *Second language acquisition and universal grammar*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511815065>
- Whitney, C., & Evered, J. A. (2022). The qualitative research distress protocol: A participant centered tool for navigating distress during data collection. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 21(1). <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069221110317>
- Wilkinson, R., & Gabriëls, R. (2021). *The Englishization of higher education in Europe*. Amsterdam University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv21ptzkn>
- Wingate, U. (2015). *Academic literacy and student diversity: The case for inclusive practice*. Multilingual Matters.
- Wolfram, W., & Dunstan, S. (2021). Linguistic inequality and sociolinguistic justice in campus life: The need for programmatic intervention. In C. Gaillyn & M. J. Petray (Eds.), *Linguistic discrimination in US higher education. Power, prejudice, impacts, and remedies* (1st ed.). Routledge.

- Woltran, F., & Schwab, S. (2025). Language as a distinguishing feature or common ground? A participatory study on manifestations of intergroup relations in the lived experiences of multilingual students. *Linguistics and Education*, 85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2024.101379>
- Woolard, K. A. (1998). Language ideology as a field of inquiry. In B. B. Schieffelin, K. A. Woolard & P. V. Kroskrity (Eds.), *Language ideologies: practice and theory*. Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780195105612.003.0001>
- Wright, S. (2007). The right to speak one's own language: reflections on theory and practice. *Language Policy*, 6, 203–224. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-007-9050-y>
- Xu, Y. C. (2013). Research on the Appraisal Theory in China: Retrospect and Prospect. *Foreign Language Education*, 34, 11–15.
- Yanaprasart, P., & Lüdi, G. (2017). Diversity and multilingual challenges in academic settings. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21(7), 825–840. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1308311>
- Yang, R. (2002). University internationalisation: its meanings, rationales and implications. *Intercultural Education*, 13(1), 81–95. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675980120112968>
- Yin, R.K. (1984). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th Ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Ylönen, S., & Kivelä, M. (2011). The role of languages at Finnish universities. *Apples- Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 5(3), 33–61.
- Zhao, C. M., & Kuh, G. D. (2004). Adding value: Learning communities and student engagement. *Research in Higher Education*, 45(2), 115–138. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:RIHE.0000015692.88534.de>
- Zolfaghari, A., Sabran Shatar, M., & Zolfaghari, A. (2009). Internationalization of higher education: Challenges, strategies, policies and programs. *US–China Education Review*, 6(5), 1–9.

# Appendix

## 1. Transcription Symbols

The transcription symbols used follow the Jefferson transcription system, which is a conversational analysis system that captures detailed features of spoken interaction, such as pauses, overlaps, emphasis, and speech speed. It is based on “familiar forms of literary notation [...] which makes learning transcription relatively straightforward” (Hepburn & Bolden, 2012, p. 59). This system has been applied consistently across all manually transcribed files, including the semistructured interviews with teaching staff and the focus group discussions with undergraduate students. A complete list of the transcription symbols and their meanings, based on the Jefferson transcription system, is provided in Table 44:

(.)	A micro pause, a pause of no significant length
(0.7)	A timed pause, long enough to indicate a time
[ ]	Square brackets show where speech overlaps
> <	The pace of speech has quickened
< >	The pace of speech has slowed down
(( ))	An entry requiring comment but without a symbol to explain it
underlining	Raise in volume or emphasis
↑	Rise in intonation
↓	Drop in intonation
CAPITALS	Louder or shouted words
(h)	Laughter in the conversation
::	Prolonged vowel or consonant
@@	Unclear section

*Table 44: Adapted from University Transcriptions (Jefferson Transcription System - A guide to the symbols - University Transcription Services)*

## 2. Information Notice about Personal Data Processing

### 2.1 Teachers (Semistructured Interviews)

As part of the Research Project “Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The case of the University of Luxembourg” personal data will be collected, processed, and analyzed to achieve the purposes of the interview as described below.

#### **What data do we collect and process?**

The following personal data will be collected for the purposes detailed in the information notice:

- gender,
- date of birth,
- nationality,
- data revealing the linguistic background,
- data revealing prior experience in teaching in multilingual Higher Education Institutions,
- data revealing beliefs on language use and multilingualism.

The Interview will be recorded in audio format using a specialized audio recording device.

All necessary procedures and precautions will be taken to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity of research participants.

#### **Why do we collect and use your personal data?**

We collect and use your data to address the research questions that the Research Project aims to tackle; this may involve writing dissertations or reports, storing and analyzing the data and publishing our research results. We also collect and use your data to know your opinion and experience in terms of the languages used in the context of the University of Luxembourg.

#### **What is our legal basis for processing the data?**

Your personal data relating to the Research Project will be processed in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the Luxembourg Act of 1 August 2018 on Data Protection. The legal basis for the processing of your personal data in the context of the Research Project is laid down in Article 6 (1) GDPR:

e) processing is necessary for the performance of a task carried out by the University in the public interest.

The research mission of the University is laid down in the Act of 27 June 2018 concerning the organization of the University of Luxembourg.

### **Who is responsible for the processing of my personal data?**

The Data Controller in respect of the processing of your data is the University of Luxembourg, a public institution for higher education and research, whose registered office is at 2 avenue de l'Université, L-4365 Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg, acting for the Department of Humanities in the Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences.

If you have any requests concerning the processing of your personal data you can contact the University of Luxembourg's Data Protection Officer by email at [dpo@uni.lu](mailto:dpo@uni.lu), or by post at the following address:

UNIVERSITÉ DU LUXEMBOURG

Data Protection Officer

Maison du Savoir

2, Avenue de l'Université

L-4365 Esch-sur-Alzette

### **How do we protect your personal data?**

The processing of your personal data is carried out through IT, electronic and manual tools for the purposes mentioned above and in compliance with the appropriate technical and organizational measures required by the law to ensure a level of security that is adequate to the risk, in order to avoid unauthorized loss or access to your data.

We have put in place a data breach procedure to deal with any suspected personal data breach, and we will notify you of a breach where we have the legal obligation to do so.

In addition, in order to protect the confidentiality of your data, we only choose processors that provide sufficient guarantees to implement appropriate measures to ensure the protection of your personal data.

### **How long is your personal data stored for?**

Your personal data will be stored in the University's network Atlas for a duration of 20 months after the Interview has taken place.

**Who can access or see your personal data?**

The recipients of your personal data are the researcher (PhD candidate at the University of Luxembourg) and the supervisor (Assistant Professor at the University of Luxembourg).

**Do we transfer data outside the European Union?**

Your personal data will only be processed within the European Union.

In the context of the Interviews conducted with Webex, personal data is also processed outside the European Union / European Economic Area. The University has concluded the EU Standard Contractual Clauses with Cisco Systems, Inc.

For more detailed information on the appropriate measures taken by the University, please send your request by email to the University's Data Protection Officer at [dpo@uni.lu](mailto:dpo@uni.lu).

**What are your rights under the General Data Protection Regulation?**

You will have the right to access and rectify your personal data. In certain cases (in accordance with the conditions set out by the General Data Protection Regulation (Regulation (EU) 2016/679)), you will also have the right to object to the way in which your data is used, to request that your data be deleted, to ask to restrict certain aspects of the processing of your data and to retrieve your data to forward it to a third party (right to data portability).

If you wish to exercise your rights, you should contact the researcher or his/her designated representative. He/she will liaise with the University of Luxembourg's Data Protection Officer to handle your request. You can also contact the Data Protection Officer by email at [dpo@uni.lu](mailto:dpo@uni.lu) (the DPO will liaise with the PI of the Research Project to handle your request) or by post at the following address:

UNIVERSITÉ DU LUXEMBOURG

Data Protection Officer

Maison du Savoir

2, Avenue de l'Université

L-4365 Esch-sur-Alzette

You also have the right to lodge a complaint with the Luxembourg National Commission for Data Protection (CNPd) regarding the processing of your personal data. Further information is provided at <http://www.cnpd.lu>. You can also use the CNPD contact form at <https://cnpd.public.lu/fr/support/contact.html>.

## 2.2 Undergraduate Students (Focus Group Discussions)

As part of the Research Project “Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The case of the University of Luxembourg”, personal data will be collected, processed and analysed to achieve the scientific objectives of the Research Project.

### **What data do we collect and process?**

The following personal data will be collected for the purposes detailed below:

- gender,
- name and surname,
- data revealing the linguistic background,
- email address,
- data revealing practices/strategies used in learning in multilingual Higher Education Institutions,
- data revealing beliefs on language use and multilingualism,
- audio recording

We collect personal data directly from you, in the course of the focus groups in which you will participate. Please note that your email address cannot be linked to the responses you provided previously in the course of the online questionnaire.

All necessary procedures and precautions will be taken to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity of research participants.

### **Why do we collect and use your personal data?**

We collect and use your data to address the research questions that the Research Project aims to tackle; this may involve conducting focus groups, writing dissertations or reports, storing and analyzing the data and publishing our research results. We also collect and use your data

to know your opinion and experience in terms of the languages used in the context of the University of Luxembourg.

### **What is our legal basis for processing the data?**

Your personal data relating to the Research Project will be processed in accordance with the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the Luxembourg Act of 1 August 2018 on Data Protection. The legal basis for the processing of your personal data in the context of the Research Project is laid down in Article 6 (1) GDPR:

e) processing is necessary for the performance of a task carried out by the University in the public interest.

The research mission of the University is laid down in the Act of 27 June 2018 concerning the organization of the University of Luxembourg.

### **Who is responsible for the processing of my personal data?**

The Data Controller in respect of the processing of your data is the University of Luxembourg, a public institution for higher education and research, whose registered office is at 2 avenue de l'Université, L-4365 Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg, acting for the Department of Humanities in the Faculty of Humanities, Education and Social Sciences.

If you have any requests concerning the processing of your personal data you can contact the University of Luxembourg's Data Protection Officer by email at [dpo@uni.lu](mailto:dpo@uni.lu), or by post at the following address:

UNIVERSITÉ DU LUXEMBOURG

Data Protection Officer

Maison du Savoir

2, Avenue de l'Université

L-4365 Esch-sur-Alzette

### **How do we protect your personal data?**

The processing of your personal data is carried out through IT, electronic and manual tools for the purposes mentioned above and in compliance with the appropriate technical and organizational measures required by the law to ensure a level of security that is adequate to the risk, to avoid unauthorized loss or access to your data.

We have put in place a data breach procedure to deal with any suspected personal data breach, and we will notify you of a breach where we have the legal obligation to do so.

In order to protect the confidentiality of your data, you will only be identified by a code number (or pseudonym) in the data analysis and in any reports or publications that will be produced by the research team during this Research Project.

In addition, in order to protect the confidentiality of your data, we only choose processors that provide sufficient guarantees to implement appropriate measures to ensure the protection of your personal data.

### **How long is your personal data stored for?**

Your personal data will be stored in the University's network Atlas for a duration of 36 months after the focus group discussion has taken place.

### **Who can access or see your personal data?**

The recipients of your personal data are the researcher (PhD candidate at the University of Luxembourg) and the supervisor (Assistant Professor at the University of Luxembourg).

### **Do we transfer data outside the European Union?**

Your personal data will only be processed within the European Union.

In cases where we use Webex to carry out recordings of the focus groups, some personal data (e.g. email address) will be processed by Cisco/Webex, which may be routed through a data centre outside of the EU – further information on Webex's data privacy policies is available via [Cisco's Trust Portal](#).

Consequently, your data may be transferred outside the European Union in the course of the recordings. The University will take appropriate measures to guarantee the protection of your personal data by including standard contractual clauses on data protection in its contract with Cisco/Webex.

For more detailed information on the appropriate measures taken by the University, please send your request by email to the University's Data Protection Officer at [dpo@uni.lu](mailto:dpo@uni.lu).

### **What are your rights under the General Data Protection Regulation?**

You will have the right to access and rectify your personal data. In certain cases (in accordance with the conditions set out by the General Data Protection Regulation (Regulation (EU) 2016/679)), you will also have the right to object to the way in which your data is used, to

request that your data be deleted, to ask to restrict certain aspects of the processing of your data and to retrieve your data to forward it to a third party (right to data portability).

If you wish to exercise your rights, you should contact the researcher or his/her designated representative. He/she will liaise with the University of Luxembourg's Data Protection Officer to handle your request. You can also contact the Data Protection Officer by email at [dpo@uni.lu](mailto:dpo@uni.lu) (the DPO will liaise with the PI of the Research Project to handle your request) or by post at the following address:

UNIVERSITÉ DU LUXEMBOURG

Data Protection Officer

Maison du Savoir

2, Avenue de l'Université

L-4365 Esch-sur-Alzette

You also have the right to lodge a complaint with the Luxembourg National Commission for Data Protection (CNPd) regarding the processing of your personal data. Further information is provided at <http://www.cnpd.lu>. You can also use the CNPD contact form at <https://cnpd.public.lu/fr/support/contact.html>.

### 3. Informed Consent Forms

#### 3.1 Teachers (Semistructured Interviews)

In relation to the project “Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The case of Luxembourg”.

I have read the information sheet and I have been informed by the researcher, Argyro–Maria SKOURMALLA orally and in writing about the nature and the potential consequences and risks of the above–mentioned research project (“Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The case of Luxembourg”), and I have had sufficient opportunity to ask any questions.

I understand that my data will be collected and used in connection with this Research Project and to enable publication of the research results.

I have been informed that I am entitled to withdraw my consent to participate in the Research Project at any time without giving a reason and without negative consequences to myself. Furthermore, I may object to further processing of my personal data and/or samples or request that these be deleted. I may do so by contacting the researcher at [argyro.skourmalla@uni.lu](mailto:argyro.skourmalla@uni.lu).

Please tick the appropriate boxes in the table below:

I consent to my interviews being recorded in audio format for the purposes of the Research Project	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> Only if my identity is not disclosed	<input type="checkbox"/> No
I consent to my personal data, as described in the information sheet, being processed for the purposes of shedding light on the experiences and practices in the multilingual context of the University of Luxembourg, and to offer insights into how multilingualism can be harnessed as a resource in teaching and in learning.	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> Only if my identity is not disclosed	<input type="checkbox"/> No

I am happy to be contacted after this Research Project to ask whether I would be interested in taking part in a follow-up study	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
---	------------------------------	-----------------------------

I voluntarily agree to take part in this Research Project.

### PARTICIPANT

Last name: \_\_\_\_\_ First name: \_\_\_\_\_

Place & date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of the participant: \_\_\_\_\_

### RESEARCHER

I have informed the above-mentioned participant orally and in writing about the nature and the potential consequences and risks of the Research Project, and I have given the participant the opportunity to ask questions.

In addition, the participant has received a copy of the information sheet and of this consent form.

Name: Argyro-Maria Skourmalla

Place & date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of the researcher: \_\_\_\_\_

### 3.2 Undergraduate Students (Focus Group Discussions)

In relation to the project “Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The University of Luxembourg”.

I have read the information sheet and I have been informed by ..... orally and in writing (see pages 2 and following) about the nature and the potential consequences and risks of the above-mentioned research project (the Research Project), and I have had sufficient opportunity to ask any questions.

I understand that my data will be collected and used in connection with this Research Project and particularly with the focus group thereof to which I wish to participate in order to enable publication of the research results.

I have been informed that I am entitled to withdraw my consent to participate in the Research Project and particularly in the focus group thereof at any time without giving a reason and without negative consequences to myself. Furthermore, I may object to further processing of my personal data or request that these be deleted. I may do so by contacting the researcher [argyro.skourmalla@uni.lu](mailto:argyro.skourmalla@uni.lu).

Please tick the appropriate boxes in the table below:

I consent to the focus group being recorded in audio format for the purposes of the Research Project.	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> Only if my identity is not disclosed	<input type="checkbox"/> No
I consent to my personal data, as described in the information sheet, being processed for the purposes of shedding light on the experiences and practices in the multilingual context of the University of Luxembourg, and to offer insights into how multilingualism can be harnessed	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> Only if my identity is not disclosed	<input type="checkbox"/> No

as a resource in teaching and in learning.			
--	--	--	--

I voluntarily agree to take part in this Research Project.

### PARTICIPANT

Last name: \_\_\_\_\_ First name: \_\_\_\_\_

Place & date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of the participant: \_\_\_\_\_

### RESEARCHER

I have informed the above-mentioned participant orally and in writing about the nature and the potential consequences and risks of the Research Project, and I have given the participant the opportunity to ask questions.

In addition, the participant has received a copy of the information sheet and of this consent form.

Name: Argyro-Maria Skourmalla

Place & date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of the researcher:

### 3.3 Legal Basis of the Research

#### **LEGAL BASIS – Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and in Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions**

**Legal basis: Article 6 1 (e) GDPR:** processing is necessary for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest or in the exercise of official authority vested in the controller.

##### **1) Is the research question within the scope for the research mission of the institution?**

The University of Luxembourg has a mission of research laid down in Article 3 (1) 2° of the "Loi du 27 juin 2018 ayant pour objet l'organisation de l'Université du Luxembourg". The present project, "Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and in Learning in multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The case of 'the University of Luxembourg'", aims to examine how lecturing staff and students experience the linguistic diversity in the context of the University and what practices lecturing staff and students use in teaching and in learning in this multilingual context, respectively. Additionally, the research will contribute to existing knowledge about the implications and challenges of linguistic diversity in higher education institutions, particularly in the context of the University of Luxembourg.

The researcher will conduct semi-structured interviews with lecturing staff and share an online questionnaire with undergraduate students. The outcomes of the research will help future development of multilingual practices in teaching and in learning in this multilingual University and training opportunities towards multilingual teaching and learning for lecturing staff and students.

##### **2) Is it necessary to process personal data to answer the research question?**

Data obtained will provide the research with information about the linguistic background, languages spoken, languages used in teaching/learning, prior experience in multilingual Universities, field of study, preferences and habits that have to do with the use of languages in the context of the University, practices and strategies individuals use in this multilingual context. This data will contribute to a better understanding of the implications that the linguistically diverse setting has in teaching from the lecturing staff's perspective through the interviews and in learning from undergraduate students' point of view, through the questionnaire.

##### **3) What the public benefit of the research is?**

The outcomes of the research will help future development of multilingual practices in teaching and in learning in this multilingual University and training opportunities towards multilingual teaching and learning for lecturing staff and students. The findings may also be useful for policymakers and practitioners in other multilingual countries who are interested in fostering multilingual practices in their respective educational contexts. Overall, the research aims to shed light on the experiences and practices of lecturing staff and students in the multilingual context of the University of Luxembourg, and to offer insights into how multilingualism can be harnessed as a resource in teaching and learning.

#### 4. Ethics Review Panel (ERP) Approval

The ERP received the request for the interviews with teaching staff on 23 May 2023 and approved it on 16 June 2023 with the code ERP 23–046 RELIDIMU1. The request for the online survey was sent on 31 July 2023 and approved on 19 September, with the code ERP 23–076 RELIDIMU 2. Finally, the ERP received the request for the focus groups on 25 October 2023 and approved it on 21 December 2023 with the code 23–105 RELIDIMU 4.

#### 5. Data Protection Office (DPO) Approval

The RPA (code RPA0000492) was initially authorised in April 2023, and finalised and approved in November 2023, following the appointment of a new Legal Officer.

## 6. Set of Questions

### 6.1 Semistructured Interviews with Teachers

Questions on teacher's background	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Linguistic profile</li> <li>2. For how long have you been teaching at the University of Luxembourg?</li> <li>3. Do you have teaching experience from other Higher Education Institutions? If yes, which languages were used there? Which were the official languages?</li> <li>4. Which courses do you teach?</li> </ol>
Language use and teaching practices	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5. Which language(s) do you use during the courses you teach?</li> <li>6. In which language(s) is the educational material you use? (Presentations, sources for further reading, assignments, etc.)</li> <li>7. How is the language(s) that you use connected to students' future career?</li> <li>8. How do you perceive the linguistic diversity that exists in this context? How would you define linguistic diversity?</li> <li>9. What is your experience of the linguistic diversity around the campus? In courses?</li> <li>10. How does the multilingual policy and the course's curriculum affect the planning of your courses in terms of language use?</li> <li>11. What would you say about the linguistic profile of your students?</li> <li>12. Does the linguistically diverse profile of your students affect the planning of your course? If yes, how?</li> <li>13. Do you use AI tools? If yes, for what purpose? (Design material, proof read, produce presentations?) Do your students mention that they use any of these tools?</li> </ol>
Experience with linguistic diversity at the University of Luxembourg	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>14. In your opinion, what would you say is the most challenging aspect of teaching in a linguistically diverse audience in this university?</li> <li>15. What steps have you taken to respond to these challenges?</li> <li>16. What practices could be beneficial for you as lecturing staff? (what kind of support would you suggest?)</li> <li>17. What opportunities would you identify in this linguistically diverse setting?</li> <li>18. How do you exploit these opportunities?</li> <li>19. Sense of belonging, feeling of being valued, connected and able to be authentic self?</li> </ol>

## 6.2 Focus Groups with Undergraduate Students

1. Which language(s) do you use during the courses?
2. What is your experience of the linguistic diversity around the campus? In courses?
3. In which language(s) is the educational material? (lectures, sources, assignments, exams etc.)
4. How do you perceive the linguistic diversity that exists in this context? How would you define linguistic diversity?
5. How does the multilingual policy and the course's curriculum affect the planning of your courses in terms of language use?
6. Do you use AI tools? If yes, for what purpose? (Design material, proofread, produce presentations?)
7. In your opinion, what would you say is the most challenging aspect of learning regarding linguistic diversity at this university?
8. What steps have you taken to respond to these challenges?
9. What practices could be beneficial for you as students? (what kind of support would you suggest?)
10. What opportunities would you identify in this linguistically diverse setting?
11. How do you exploit these opportunities?
12. Sense of belonging, feeling of being valued, connected and able to be authentic self?

## 6.3 Online Survey for Undergraduate Students

Please read through the *Information notice* concerning the processing of your responses and email address.

### Information notice

In relation to the project "Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The case of Luxembourg".

I have read the information provided in the previous page of this questionnaire and I have been informed about the nature and the potential consequences and risks of the above-mentioned research project ("Representations of Linguistic Diversity in Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Higher Education Institutions: The case of Luxembourg").

If you are interested in further contributing to this research project by participating in a focus group with other students of the university, you can share your university's email address at the end of this questionnaire. Please note that your email address will not be linked to your survey responses. Your participation is on a voluntary basis. The processing of your personal data is based on our legitimate interest (art. 6(1) of the General Data Protection Regulation 2016/679-hereafter "GDPR") consisting in ensuring further contribution to the project via the realization of the focus groups. Your email will immediately be deleted once the focus group discussion has taken place. Your email address will be accessible only by the research team and will not be shared with third parties. You can object to the processing of your email address at any time. If you have any questions about the processing of your email address, and/or if you wish to exercise your rights, please contact the UL DPO at [dpo@uni.lu](mailto:dpo@uni.lu). If you consider that the processing of your personal data infringes your rights, you can lodge a complaint with the National Commission for Data Protection (CNPD). Further information is provided at <http://www.cnpd.lu>.

I understand that my responses and my email address will be collected and used in connection with this Research Project. I have been informed that I am entitled to withdraw my consent to participate in the Research Project at any time without giving a reason and without negative consequences to myself. I may do so by contacting the researcher at [argyro.skourmalla@uni.lu](mailto:argyro.skourmalla@uni.lu).

Check all that apply

☐ I, hereby, confirm that I have read the above and I consent to participate in this study.

Are you currently enrolled in a Bachelor programme?

✓  
Yes

○  
No

### Use of languages at the university of Luxembourg

This group of questions is about the languages that you use as a student at the university of Luxembourg.

Please complete with the percentage of the time that you estimate you are exposed -on average- to the different languages, as a student at the university of Luxembourg:

(The numbers should add up to 100)

Only numbers may be entered in these fields.

The sum must equal 100.

English	<input type="text"/>
French	<input type="text"/>
German	<input type="text"/>
Luxembourgish	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>
Remaining:	100
Total:	0

If you are exposed to other languages as a student at the university of Luxembourg, which languages are these?

From your experience as a student at the university of Luxembourg, which **languages do you use** and **how often** in each of the following situations? (You can complete with **more than one language(s)**)

	I rarely use	I sometimes use	I often use	I always use
to give an oral presentation in class	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
when addressing a professor during a class	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
to email professors	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
to orally express opinion or ask a question during a class	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
when sitting for final exams	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
when sitting in a lecture	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
when talking to other students	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
when attending an event organized by the university	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
when studying at home	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
when taking notes during a class	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
for administrative procedures	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
in written assignments	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
in Students' Associations of which you are a member	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>
to read signs and posters at the campus	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>	<input type="text" value="insert language(s)"/>

Is there anything that you would like to add regarding the use of languages as a student at this university?

How common is it for you, in your daily life as a student at the university of Luxembourg, to **mix languages** in the following situations?

	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	always	I am not sure how often I mix languages/not applicable
when talking to a professor	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
during conversations with fellow students, after the course	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
when working on an activity, during the course	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
when taking notes, during the course	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
for an oral presentation, during the course	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
in written emails to professors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
in written assignments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

If you want, you can provide examples of **how you mix languages** in your daily life as a student at the university. The files can have the form of texts (e.g. extracts from your notes) or images (e.g. photos from your notes):

Please upload at most 5 files

 Upload files

## Learning practices

Questions in this section are about the practices and the strategies that you use as a student at the university of Luxembourg.

From your experience as a student at this multilingual university, how helpful do you find the following practices?

	not at all helpful	neutral	very helpful	not applicable/I do not use this practice
To attend language groups (e.g. language cafés) outside the class to strengthen linguistic skills in university's official languages.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When the lecturer uses all of the university's official languages in the sources they share (e.g. ppt, additional literature).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To use dictionaries or other means of translation to overcome difficulties due to the languages used.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To participate in class discussions, asking questions or making comments using the official languages of the university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be able to mix or switch between languages when I want to ask questions or contribute to a discussion during the course.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be able to mix languages in written assignments.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To use AI tools (e.g. chatGPT) for writing assignments, to overcome difficulties due to the language(s) used.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To be encouraged to use my first language(s) in group activities during the course.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To use visual representation (tables, diagrams, drawings, etc.) in my first language(s) when I take notes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When the lecturer switches between the university's official languages during the class.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To use visual representation (tables, diagrams, drawings, etc.) in the university's official languages when I take notes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

To write key words in my first language(s) when studying new concepts.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To discuss about course content, ideas or aspects of what I have been studying with fellow students in my first language(s).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To discuss about course content with fellow students using the university's official languages.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To write notes as an outline in the official university's languages, before doing a written assignment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
To make an outline in my first language(s), before doing a written assignment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are there any other learning strategies that you use in this multilingual context to overcome challenges due to the language(s) used in courses? Please write as many as you want. You can also give examples.

## Views about the linguistic diversity at the University of Luxembourg

In this group of questions, you are asked to share your opinion about the linguistic diversity as a student at this multilingual university.

From your experience as a student at the university of Luxembourg, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	strongly disagree	disagree	somewhat agree	agree	strongly agree	I am not sure
It is important for me to be able to switch between languages at the university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Only the official language(s) of the course, as appear in the course description, are used in class.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is important for me to be able to mix languages at the university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use my whole linguistic repertoire as a student at this university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am treated with respect regardless of the languages I speak, in this university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High levels of literacy in more than two languages results in cognitive development.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think it is better for the university to keep one official language that gets used correctly, instead of more languages that are used incorrectly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have many opportunities to use my first language(s) at the university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel myself when I switch between languages at the university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using multiple languages in courses can cause confusion to university students.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Using multiple languages at the university can hinder the learning process.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I find the university of Luxembourg very welcoming as to the languages I speak.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students should be encouraged to use multiple languages during the courses.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel myself when I mix languages at the university.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High levels of literacy in more than two languages results in higher development of subject knowledge.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Complete with the language(s) that suit you better. You can complete with **more than one** language.

Lecturing staff should also share studying material in _____.	insert language(s)
I spend more time understanding the content of the course when academic texts are in_____	insert language(s)
I feel better prepared for my future career when I use _____ actively at the university	insert language(s)
I would like it if the university organized (more) events in _____	insert language(s)
I would like to be able to use _____ more during the courses.	insert language(s)
I would like to see _____ used more in posters and signs around the university.	insert language(s)
I would like to be able to use _____ more at the campus.	insert language(s)
I participate less when discussions are held in _____ during a class.	insert language(s)

Use three words/phrases, in any language(s) you want, to describe your experience in terms of the linguistic diversity as a student at this university.

Why did you choose these words/phrases?

What are the greatest **challenges** that you identify in regards to the linguistic diversity, as a student in this multilingual university? If you want, you can give an example.

What are the greatest **opportunities** that you identify in regards to the linguistic diversity, as a student in this multilingual university? If you want, you can give an example.

## Linguistic profile

This section contains questions about your language background; the languages you speak and understand. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers.

Which is/are your first language(s)?

Complete with all the other language(s) you speak and understand:

Language:	<input type="text"/>
Language:	<input type="text"/>
Language:	<input type="text"/>
Language:	<input type="text"/>
Language:	<input type="text"/>
Language:	<input type="text"/>
Language:	<input type="text"/>
Language:	<input type="text"/>

Rate your ability on speaking, listening, reading and writing, for all the languages/dialects you know, other than your first language(s), based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for Languages. **Please complete the boxes with the languages.**

The CEFR is an international standard which describes language ability ratings as follows:

A1 (beginner): Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type

A2 (survival): Can understand and use sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance.

B1 (lower Intermediate): Can understand and use main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.

B2 (upper Intermediate): Can understand and use the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in your field of specialisation.

C1 (advanced): Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express yourself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions.

C2 (mastery): Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation.

	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
<b>Spoken interaction</b>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<b>Spoken production</b>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<b>Listening</b>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<b>Reading</b>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<b>Writing</b>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

## Demographic questions

This section includes questions that mostly have to do with your demographic profile.

Choose the age group you belong to:

Choose one of the following answers

Only numbers may be entered in "Other:" accompanying text field.

- ☐ 18-20
- ☐ 21-23
- ☐ 24-26
- ☐ 27-29
- ☐ above 30

What is your gender?

Choose one of the following answers

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Prefer not to say
- ☐ Other

In which Bachelor programme are you currently enrolled?

Are you currently an incoming exchange student at the university of Luxembourg?

If **yes**, please complete with your main university.

Choose one of the following answers

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no

Please enter your comment here:

## Comments

In this last section you can share anything you find interesting or important for the present research. You are also invited to share your university's email address only if you are interested in further contributing to the project by participating in a short discussion with other students.

If there is anything else you would like to share regarding your experience as a student in terms of language use at the university of Luxembourg, please write below:

## Participation in a focus group

If you are interested in further contributing to this research by participating in a short discussion, on languages used at the university of Luxembourg, please write your email below.