

LEARNING THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION IN MONOLINGUAL
COUNTRIES: A MIXED METHODS COMPARATIVE STUDY ON NEWLY
ARRIVED MIGRANT STUDENTS IN TURKEY AND GERMANY

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ABSTRACT

LEARNING THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION IN MONOLINGUAL COUNTRIES: A MIXED METHODS COMPARATIVE STUDY ON NEWLY ARRIVED MIGRANT STUDENTS IN TURKEY AND GERMANY

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This study investigated organization of destination language support for newly arrived migrant students in monolingual school contexts and explored contextual factors determining their language proficiency. İstanbul and Hamburg were illustrative cases. Drawing on Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory, the study focused on students in lower-secondary education through a four-phase mixed methods convergent comparative design. Data were collected through interviews, classroom observations, and survey instruments. Employing a multiple case study design, the qualitative phase included 78 participants involving students, parents, teachers, school administrators, and key informants as well as fieldnote data collected during 35 hours of classroom observations. The quantitative phase adopted an associational design with a sample of 245 newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul and 189 in Hamburg. Regression analyses were used to address the quantitative research questions.

The findings revealed the nested structure surrounding the language learning as well as its interplay with the super-diverse learner characteristics. Regardless of the integration experience and available resources in the receiving contexts, the findings exposed the intricate and interconnected nature of destination language organization. The super-diverse migration-related learner characteristics and family language proficiency yielded significant direct influence on students' language proficiency. Family involvement in education and formal learning environment did not exert any direct impact. Contrary to deficit perspective attached to migrant families, they contributed to students' language proficiency when they had higher language proficiency and education levels. The overall results concluded a need for a comprehensive approach requiring deliberate interventions in several areas beyond instructional interventions to address the language needs of newly arrived migrant students in monolingual school contexts.

Keywords: language learning, migrant students, refugee students, instructional policy, contextual factors

ÖZ

EĞİTİM DİLİ TEK OLAN ÜLKELERDE DİL ÖĞRENİMİ: TÜRKİYE VE ALMANYA'YA YENİ GÖÇ ETMİŞ ÖĞRENCİLER ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR KARMA YÖNTEM ARAŞTIRMASI

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Bu çalışma, eğitim dilinin tek olduğu okul bağlamlarında yeni göç eden öğrencilere sunulan hedef dil destek programlarını organizasyonunu ve öğrencilerin dil yeterliklerini belirleyen bağlamsal faktörleri incelemektedir. İstanbul ve Hamburg örnek durumlar olarak seçilmiştir. Bronfenbrenner'in ekolojik kuramına dayanan çalışma, dört aşamalı eş zamanlı karma yöntem araştırma deseni kullanarak ortaokul seviyesindeki öğrencilere odaklanmıştır. Veriler, görüşmeler, sınıf gözlemleri ve anketler aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Nitel aşamada çoklu durum çalışması deseni kullanılmıştır. Nitel veriler, öğrenciler, veliler, öğretmenler, okul yöneticileri ve kilit rolü olan kişilerden oluşan 78 katılımcının yanı sıra 35 saatlik sınıf gözlemini içeren saha notlarından oluşmaktadır. Nicel aşamada, İstanbul'dan yeni göç eden 245 ve Hamburg'daki 189 öğrenciden oluşan bir örneklem ile bağıntısal bir araştırma deseni benimsenmiştir. Nicel araştırma sorularına yanıt vermek için regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular, dil öğrenimini çevreleyen ekolojinin katmanlı yapısını ve bunun çok çeşitlilik gösteren öğrenci özellikleriyle karşılıklı etkileşimini ortaya koymuştur. Entegrasyon deneyimine ve hedef bağlamlardaki kaynaklara bakılmaksızın, hedef dil destek programlarının karmaşık ve farklı seviyedeki sistemlerin birbiriyle ilişkisi açığa çıkarılmıştır. Öğrencilerin göçle ilişkili çok çeşitli bireysel özelliklerinin ve ailenin hedef dil yeterliğinin, öğrencilerin dil becerisi üzerinde doğrudan etkiye sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Ailenin eğitime katılımının ve resmi öğrenme ortamının öğrencilerin dil becerisi üzerinde doğrudan bir etki yaratmadığı görülmüştür. Göçmen ailelere iliştirilen eksik ve yetersiz algının aksine, dil yeterlikleri ve eğitim seviyeleri yüksek olduğunda ailelerin çocuklarının eğitim süreçlerine dahil olarak öğrencilerin dil yeterliklerine katkıda buldukları ortaya konmuştur. Genel olarak yeni göç etmiş öğrencilerin dil ihtiyaçlarını karşılamak için tek dilin yaygın olduğu eğitim sistemlerinde öğretim süreçlerinin ötesinde birçok alanda müdahale gerektiren kapsamlı bir yaklaşıma gereksinim duyulduğu sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: dil öğrenimi, göçmen öğrenciler, mülteci öğrenciler, öğretim politikaları, bağlamsal faktörler

To my hero, G. Ş. ♥

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLES	Classroom Learning Environment Scale
DLES	Distance Learning Environment Scale
FIS	Family Involvement Scale
IPC	International Preparatory Class
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
PICTES	Promoting Integration of Syrian Children into the Turkish Education System
PIKTES	Promoting Inclusive Education for Kids in the Turkish Education System
TEC	Temporary Education Center

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes the background to the study and presents the purpose, significance, and definition of key terms used in this research.

1.1. Background to the Study

The proficiency in the language of instruction is a gatekeeper skill for immigrant students to start off their education career on the right foot and realize their full potential by buffering against poor academic outcomes, socio-emotional risk factors, and limited labor market integration (Algan et al., 2010; Giannelli & Rapallini, 2016; Jin Bang et al., 2011; OECD, 2018). International migration, whether forced displacement or voluntary migration, is not a contemporary issue but has drawn more attention in recent decades, reflecting a Western-centric worldview because global migration has become more skewed with two-thirds of the world's migrants in Europe, North America, and high-income countries in the Middle East and North Africa (de Haas et al., 2019). Contrary to popular perception, the share of international migrants in the global population has also remained relatively constant at about 3% since the 1950s; in other words, international migration has accelerated at a pace roughly equal to the population (de Haas et al., 2019; World Bank, 2018). This trend shows that international migration is mundane, with cultural, social, and economic consequences that interact with education in multiple ways affecting all parties: the individuals who move, the ones who stay, and those who receive migrants (Fargues, 2017; UNESCO, 2018).

Turkey and Germany, which are not among traditional immigration countries such as the United States, Canada, and Australia, have become destination settings for economic migrants and people seeking protection. As of October 2022, Turkey hosts

the largest number of refugees¹ in the world with 3.7 million people (UNHCR Refworld, n.d.). Germany, an immigration country since World War II, is the top receiving country in Europe and the third country worldwide by hosting 2.2 million refugees (UNHCR Refworld, n.d.). As illustrated in Figure 1², 22.3 million people in Germany (27.3% of the whole population) already has a migration background, pointing out the increasing diversity of German society as a result of labor demand and social welfare policies (BAMF, 2023).

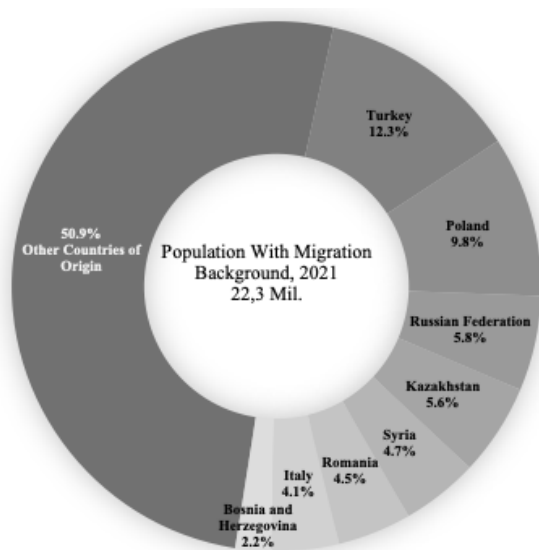


Figure 1

Distribution of People With Migration Background in 2021 in Germany

Hamburg and İstanbul, where the present study was conducted, are characterized by a higher level of linguistic and cultural diversity than the respective national averages. About 38% of the population has a migration background³ in Hamburg (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2023b). In addition, Hamburg hosts 91,060 people seeking protection, which accounts for 4.8% of its total population (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2023a). Similarly, İstanbul is the economic powerhouse and a magnet destination

¹ Syrian people are not granted *refugee status* in Turkey, but their nature of exile and current conditions are in accordance with the refugee definition in the 1951 Geneva Convention. Considering the official recognition of Syrian people in Turkey as *refugees* by UNHCR, Syrian people are called refugees in this study, as they are often referred to in the scientific and grey literature.

² Reproduced based on the data from Migrationsbericht 2021, showing the most frequent countries of origin [Migration Report 2021] (see Figure 7.2 and 7.3, BAMF, 2023, pp. 173–174).

³ A person is regarded to have a migration background if they have at least one parent that does not have German citizenship by birth or was born in a country other than Germany (BAMF, 2020).

setting in Turkey for both internal and international migrants as well as refugees and asylum seekers. The Presidency of Migration Management (PMM) (2023) reports a stable figure of the Syrian population in İstanbul in recent years, which was last indicated as 531,098 people that represents 3.23% of the city population. However, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) estimated 963,536 Syrian refugees out of 1.6 million international migrants in İstanbul and noted an increasing trend in 2019 (IOM, 2019).

The diversity, particularly in Hamburg, is amplified among the children the public schools serve. The share of students with a migration background increased from 49.5% in 2017 to 53.0% in 2022 (IFBQ, 2023, p. 13). This distribution illustrates a considerable range across education levels and school tracks, with 60.7% of students with a migration background in early childhood education, 52.2% in primary schools, 60.6% in district schools (i.e., *Stadtteilschule*), and 43.7% in grammar schools (i.e., *Gymnasium*) (IFBQ, 2023, p. 12). Consequently, one-third of the students (32.7%) have another home language than German (IFBQ, 2023, p. 14). There are no census data on immigrant languages in İstanbul. Given the high volume of Syrian refugees, the international migrant student population appears to be more homogenous with Arabic as the primary first language other than Turkish in İstanbul. Nevertheless, mainstreaming Syrian students brings linguistic diversity to school contexts, adding to the already diverse local student body that varies due to sociocultural differences and economic disparities.

The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX), which aims to construct a comparable and multi-dimensional picture of migrants' opportunities in the receiving societies, identifies education as the greatest weakness in the integration policies of most countries (Siarova & Essomba, 2014; Solano & Huddleston, 2020). This stems from little guidance in allocating migrant students to the appropriate school or class and the lack of comprehensive support to catch up with their peers. Accordingly, Figure 2⁴ shows that EU-28 and OECD countries are measured as having halfway favorable conditions for migrant students in education. In education policy area,

⁴ Reproduced based on MIPEX 2020 data (Solano & Huddleston, 2020). The average scores are interpreted as follows: 01-20-Unfavorable, 21-40-Slightly unfavorable, 41-59-Halfway favorable, 60-79-Slightly favorable, 80-100-Favorable.

Turkey showed progress from unfavorable conditions in 2011 to halfway favorable in 2019 with an average score of 52, which is above the EU-28 and OECD averages.

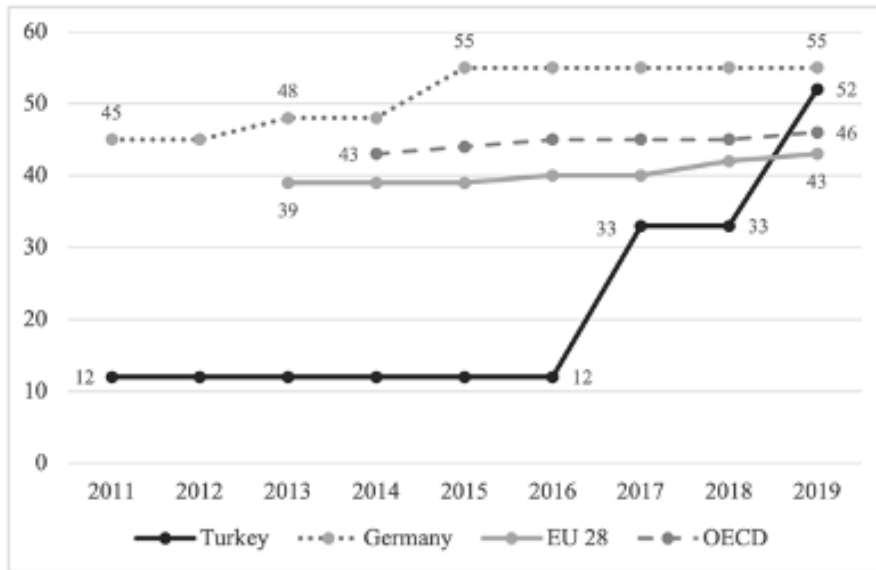


Figure 2

MIPEx Education Indicator for Turkey, Germany, EU-28, and OECD Countries

This improvement was due to a set of measures taken by the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE), the changes in national laws and regulations that guarantee migrant students' rights to compulsory education, and large-scale international projects (European Commission, 2023). The cooperation between local, national, and supranational actors to enhance the capacity of the Turkish education system (Delegation of the European Union to Turkey, 2018; MoNE, 2015) has ensured structural inclusion to some degree by yielding some promising quantitative indicators for Syrian refugee students. Figure 3⁵ demonstrates that the enrollment rate of Syrian children has increased from 30.42% in 2014 to 65.00% as of January 2022, which accounts for 730,806 out of 1,124,353 school-aged Syrian children (MoNE, 2022b). With the closure of the last Temporary Education Centers (TECs) in 2020, all enrolled Syrian students are mainstreamed in public schools. However, the number of out-of-school Syrian children has remained stagnant over the past four years, with at least four hundred thousand children lacking access to education in Turkey.

⁵ Reproduced based on the data released by the Turkish Department of Migration and Emergency Education data in January 2022 (MoNE, 2022b).

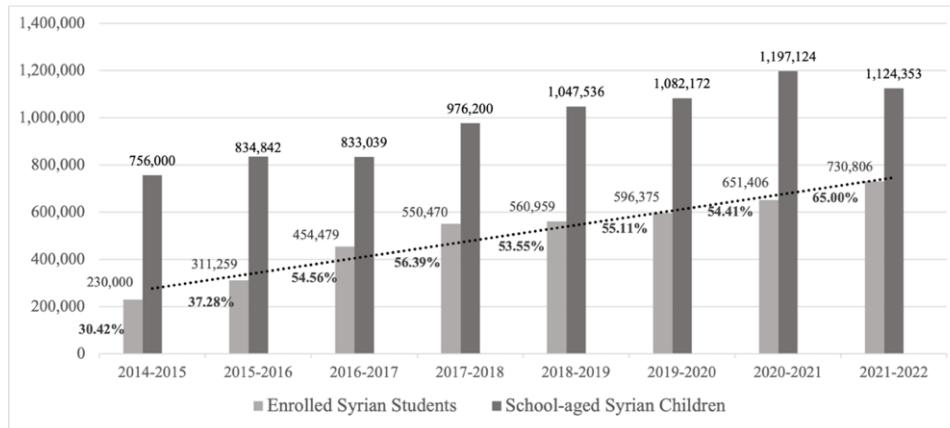


Figure 3

The Trend in Syrian Students' Access to Education in Turkey

In Germany, education is addressed as one of the core areas that need improvements with more comprehensive educational guidance by the federal and state governments (Solano & Huddleston, 2020). Though all children, irrespective of their residence status, have the right to continue early childhood and compulsory education (Teltemann & Rauch, 2018), Germany is still considered to do less compared to the top ten countries internationally in ensuring equal access to all levels of the education system and meeting immigrant students' needs (Solano & Huddleston, 2020).

Monolingual paradigm, where a single language is usually associated with the national identity (Spolsky, 2004) and considered officially or *de facto* as the language of instruction, plays a pivotal role in shaping the instructional landscape. In this regard, Turkish is mandated as the national language in the constitution of Turkey and accepted as the official language of instruction in education (Turkey Const., Art. 3. and Art. 42). On the other hand, no national language is defined in the German Basic Law (i.e., *Grundgesetz*). However, German has been taken for granted as the official language in the public sphere. The awareness of multiculturalism and linguistic diversity, especially in accordance with the super-diversity of the urban areas (Vertovec, 2007), has gained momentum in education in Germany but seems to be mostly embraced at a rhetorical level in policy and practice (Ellis et al., 2010; Gogolin et al., 2019). In the Turkish education system, both policies and practices endorse a monolingual and mono-ethnic perspective in organizing instruction, curricular programs, and textbooks (Ceyhan, 2015). In a nutshell, a decentralized

education system in 16 different federal states in Germany and a centralized education system in Turkey boil down *monolingual habitus* as a constitutive element of the school systems reflected in educational norms, organization of instructional processes, and perceptions (Gogolin, 1997). Such monolingual policies may exist in ideology and policy but are unrealistic and face challenges in practice due to multilingual realities and globalization (Gandara & Gomez, 2009; Schmidt, 2000; Spolsky, 2004). The school contexts need to be oriented to embrace the students' language repertoire as an instrument for instruction. On the contrary, they rely on acquiring respective dominant languages for a successful educational career.

In a learning environment which prioritizes the acquisition of dominant languages, limited language proficiency is inevitably associated with disruptive outcomes in children's development. To illustrate, PISA results showed that immigrant students, who had a different home language, gained lower scores in reading than both native students and native-speaking immigrant students who used the language of assessment at home (OECD, 2018). This gap was 16 points on average across OECD countries. Additionally, the language proficiency is also linked to lower scores in subjects that are less language-sensitive. For instance, speaking another language at home than the language of assessment resulted in lower scores in mathematics for immigrant students. These findings remained valid for reading and mathematics scores even after accounting for the student's socio-economic status. Immigrant students speaking another language at home tend to experience lower levels of school belongingness, social resilience, and life satisfaction and are at a greater risk of anxiety and bullying (OECD, 2018; UNESCO, 2018). In the transition to adulthood and labor market integration, proficiency in the language of the receiving society exerts a significant independent influence on income, and its deficiency devalues the productive potential of other skills and opportunities (Chiswick & Miller, 2015; Esser, 2006).

To counteract these adverse academic and social outcomes, it is evidenced that schools ought to adapt their teaching methods to address different language backgrounds and allow all pupils to thrive in school (European Commission, n.d.). One way to accomplish this is to provide immigrant students with sustainable and inclusive language support. In this sense, Germany is criticized for being “a

developing rather than a developed country” in teaching German to immigrants despite more than 50 years of immigration experience (Ellis et al., 2010, p. 446). The federal states in Germany implement different models of *Willkommensklasse* (i.e., Welcome Class) for newly arrived migrant students, which may take up to one year and show variations across the states and schools based on their unique circumstances (Massumi et al., 2015; Teltemann & Rauch, 2018). Language provisions for the newly arrived migrant students in Turkey, mostly comprising of Syrian students, have been characterized by a sense of ad hoc approach, evolving from limited Turkish support in TECs to parallel language courses in mainstream classrooms to segregated cohesion classrooms for the low-proficient students. The quality of these language support programs, particularly in more diverse settings like Germany, tend to be more influenced by diverse skill set in the classroom, different arrival times of the students during the school year, the availability of the whole-day schools, and the disparities between rural and urban areas (UNESCO, 2018).

The scope of the language registers and functions also matters while addressing the language needs of the students. In this respect, Cummins (2000, 2008) makes a conceptual distinction between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). He emphasized that a second language learner tends to learn BICS relatively easily and fast in two years with little cognitive effort due to contextualized familial and informal interactions (Cummins, 1981, 2000). On the other hand, proficiency in CALP – the oral and written registers of the schooling - may take a more extended period ranging from five to eight years on average for immigrant students due to specific discourse forms and decontextualized language (Cummins, 1981; Hakuta et al., 2000; Thomas & Collier, 1997). Similarly, the German model program, FörMig (Förderung von Kindern und Jugendlichen mit Migrationshintergrund), has also pointed out a need for change in Germany from an emphasis on general linguistic abilities to *Bildungssprache* (i.e., academic register) to foster the language learning of children with migration background (Gogolin et al., 2011).

In summary, many individual, school, and societal issues pose barriers to destination language learning of the newly arrived migrant students. İstanbul and Hamburg as

illustrative cases of monolingual school contexts present gripping instances to manifest this process in Turkey and Germany.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

This study investigates the organization of destination language support for newly arrived migrant students and explores the factors determining their language proficiency. It focuses on students in lower-secondary education in monolingual school contexts. The factors involve migration-related student characteristics and contextual factors in the family and classroom environment. The study uses a mixed methods comparative approach with a fully integrated variant of the convergent design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). İstanbul and Hamburg represent illustrative cases to compare the destination language teaching and learning processes. The monolingual orientation in Turkish and German education systems and the task of including a high number of newly arrived migrant students in the public schools in the last decade constitute the *tertium comparationis* (i.e., a common basis for comparison) in this study. Against this shared background, the capability of a high-resource decentralized context with established integration experience was compared to a limited-resource centralized context with very recent integration experience.

Bronfenbrenner's (1974, 1976, 1994) *Ecological Systems Theory* was used as an underlying theoretical framework to understand the constituents of the surrounding environments of the learners from *micro-* to *macro-*systems in the qualitative phases and to test how emerging variables were associated with the language proficiency of the students in the quantitative phases. Adopting a pragmatist worldview that prioritizes "what works" by using diverse approaches and valuing both objective and subjective knowledge (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010), the worldview in this study oscillated between a constructivist perspective in the qualitative phases and postpositivist in the quantitative phases. In the end, the findings were interpreted with a dialectical perspective.

The multiple case study design was conducive to more fruitful findings in the qualitative phases because it enabled to explore the contested issue of destination language education within its real-life context to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics through a detailed and in-depth data collection by using multiple

sources of information (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2018). Drawing on 35 hours of classroom observations and interviews with 78 participants, the cases were bounded to the organization of language support for newly arrived migrant students at lower-secondary education levels in İstanbul and Hamburg.

In line with the qualitative findings, the quantitative phase utilized an associational research design to further evidence the relationship between the variables in the immediate settings (i.e., personal, familial, and classroom) of the students and their destination language proficiency (i.e., in Turkish or German) without manipulating any condition and variables (Fraenkel et al., 2015). Guided by Bronfenbrenner's theory, variables in the literature, and preliminary qualitative findings, the contextual determinants for the newly arrived migrants were hypothesized and tested with a sample of 245 participants in İstanbul and 189 participants in Hamburg. The quantitative phases suggested a comparative novel perspective about the relationship between instructional settings and destination language proficiency.

The justification for utilizing a mixed methods comparative study was to develop an in-depth understanding of the distinct processes among the cases and gain a more nuanced understanding of the factors influencing destination language proficiency. To this end, I sought answers to the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. What migration-related individual characteristics shape the newly arrived migrant students' destination language learning in the classroom environment?
2. What characterizes the organization of language support for newly arrived migrant students in monolingual school contexts?
3. How well do migration-related individual characteristics, family environment, and formal learning environment predict newly arrived migrant student's self-reported destination language proficiency?

Hypothesis 1 [Migration-related individual characteristics]: Length of stay in the receiving country, attendance in primary school in the receiving country, and first language proficiency positively predict, whereas age at migration negatively predicts destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the covariates including gender and parent's education level.

Hypothesis 2 [Family environment]: Family involvement in education and family destination language proficiency positively predict destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the effect of the covariates and migration-related individual characteristics.

Hypothesis 3 [Formal learning environment]: Classroom learning environment and/or distance learning environment positively predict destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the effect of the covariates, migration-related individual characteristics, and family environment.

4. Does the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students change when the family members' destination language proficiency differs?

Hypothesis 4: Family members' destination language proficiency moderates the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students. Families with the higher language proficiency demonstrate a stronger effect of family involvement compared to families with lower language proficiency.

5. Does the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students change when the parents' education level differs?

Hypothesis 5: Parents' education level moderates the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling the effect of parents' destination language proficiency. Specifically, the effect of family involvement is more pronounced for parents who have attained higher levels of education in comparison to parents with lower levels of education.

6. How do the qualitative and quantitative findings in İstanbul and Hamburg converge to provide an enhanced understanding of destination language learning and influencing contextual factors?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Removing legal obstacles to include the newly arrived migrant students in mainstream education is essential to ensure structural inclusion in Turkey and

Germany. However, destination language proficiency *per se* bears one of the most significant influences on immigrant students.

A large body of scientific literature and gray literature deal with the consequences of a lack of destination language proficiency for immigrant students. This applies to scientific studies in Turkey and Germany, which substantially evidenced how lack of language proficiency is translated into inequalities for the newly arrived migrant students, including lower performance in subject courses, poorer social cohesion, and more transfer to less academic tracks, particularly in the highly-selective school system in Germany. Another line of research mainly explores the determinants of destination language proficiency based on Chiswick and Miller's human capital model (1994, 1996, 2001). These single-country studies focus primarily on adult immigrants (e.g., Esser, 2006; Kristen & Seuring, 2021; van Tubergen, 2010) and rarely on preschool children (Seuring & Will, 2022), relating the degree of proficiency in a given language to three main constructs: *exposure*, *incentives* or *motivation*, and *efficiency*.

The fundamental significance of this study is to provide comparative insights on the organization of destination language learning and determinants of the newly arrived migrant students' language proficiency. Given that comparative education explores multiple directions simultaneously and seeks novel international perspectives to national discussions (Altbach, 1991), the findings inform curriculum development and instructional processes to address language needs of newly arrived migrant students in similar monolingual school contexts. Moreover, it offers this perspective on the two possible futures of refugees and voluntary migrants: Turkey as the first asylum and transit country, and Germany as the resettlement country and a destination setting for economic migrants since the 1960s (Castles et al., 2014). A comparison of newly arrived migrant students' integration process with respect to their destination language learning has not been carried out in these two diverging contexts: a high-resource decentralized education context vs. a limited-resource centralized one when major databases (i.e., Web of Science, Scopus, Ulakbim) were screened between the periods April 2019 and June 2023.

This study is also important for its overall research approach because it embarks on a complex mixed methods design by intersecting the mixed methods convergent design with comparative research methodology. Taking Bronfenbrenner's theory into the center, I propose an additional connection to the previous research on the newly arrived migrant students' education in comparative and international education field. Specifically, I consider how comparative research advances the organization of sustainable language support by deconstructing deep-seated arguments in Turkey and Germany as well as exposing their idiosyncratic shortcomings and strengths.

The study draws on qualitative and quantitative data to form in-depth cases and understand the determinants of language proficiency. Using a fully integrated variant of the convergent design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), the qualitative and quantitative strands of the study frequently interact with each other. Apart from having multiple research phases with extensive time in fieldwork, this design helps gather more complete information about the complexity of destination language learning in formal and informal contexts by allowing to look for convergence, divergence, and relationships between qualitative and quantitative data across Turkey and Germany (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

This study has potential implications for policymakers responsible for organizing language support at both local and national levels, practitioners teaching immigrant students in classrooms, scientists researching immigrant students' inclusion in national education systems, and researchers leading projects in comparative and international education.

1.4. Definition of Terms

Definitions of the key terms used in this study are outlined below.

Newly arrived migrant students are students who have moved to İstanbul and Hamburg for various reasons, such as seeking refuge, family reunification, or work opportunities. They lack the fundamental knowledge of the language used in the receiving country's education system and typically enroll in school at the beginning or during the regular academic year (Nilsson & Bunar, 2016). For clarity and brevity

in certain situations, the terms *migrant students* or *students* can be used interchangeably with *newly arrived migrant students* unless otherwise specified.

Destination language proficiency refers to the newly arrived migrant students' proficiency in Turkish or German, which serves as the language of instruction during their transition to mainstream classrooms in İstanbul and Hamburg.

Ecological environment refers to a complex and dynamic context characterized by an ongoing process of interaction among a set of nested structures (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). These structures involve *micro-*, *meso-*, *exo-*, and *macrosystems*, with each system contained within the next. The ecological environment extends from the immediate setting of a developing person to broader societal structures, such as policies, beliefs, ideologies, or norms, which make up the blueprint of a given society (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In this study, the ecological environment elaborates on contexts by scrutinizing specifically language learning experiences at school and home in the microsystem, the home-school relationship in the mesosystem, governance of language instruction in the exosystem, and education policy and integration strategy in the macro system.

Monolingual instruction policy describes predominant use of a single language as the medium of instruction within a school or educational system.

Migration-related individual characteristics describe distinguishing traits of the newly arrived migrant students that differentiate them from local children in the receiving countries. These characteristics directly result from their migration background and may account for their language learning needs, readiness, and experiences. Literacy in the first language and destination language is an example of Migration-related characteristics in this study.

First language identifies languages used in home environment, also referred to as mother tongue, home language, or native language.

Family involvement in education pertains to the supportive framework and behavioral patterns within home environment. Informed by Hoover-Dempsey et al.'s (2001) seminal work on parental involvement, the current study operationalized

family involvement in education by devising a scale to measure the extent to which family members provide facilitating structures at home, interact with school, and engage in school-related tasks.

Formal learning environment refers to the institutional learning environment where newly arrived migrant students are exposed to language instruction and use in language support programs and mainstream classes. The formal learning environment was evaluated based on teacher support, cooperation, and equity constructs, utilizing a modified version of What's Happening In This Classroom? (WIHIC) scale (Fraser, 1998; Fraser et al., 1996). The nurturing and conducive environment for language learning is conceptualized in this study as one where students receive consistent support from their teachers, engage in cooperative activities with their peers, and are treated equitably in the classroom.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents an overview of the literature on ecological theory, destination language education and research in the respective settings, and predominant factors associated with destination language learning.

2.1. Understanding Context: Ecological Theory of Human Development

Context provides a backdrop against which learning and development occur. It creates an environment that either facilitates or hinders these processes. For instance, the physical context, including the availability of resources, classroom design, and learning spaces, can greatly influence engagement, attention, and information processing (Bruner, 1966). Similarly, the social context, such as peer interactions, teacher-student relationships, and cultural norms, affects motivation, collaboration, and identity formation (Vygotsky, 1978). Regarding the dichotomy between cognitive and contextual factors, Cole and Griffin (1987) described cognitive factors related to the mental work or information processing involved when a child engages in a particular curriculum task, while the contextual approach considers the broader connections between the task and its surrounding context. In addition, they argued against equating *context* with the *environment* alone. Instead, they operationalized context that pertains to the events that precede, occur during, and follow the cognitive task. This view emphasizes all factors that could potentially influence the effectiveness of the time spent on the task, which range from the organization of the lesson within the curriculum to the relationship between the classroom and the larger school community it belongs to.

In the current study, the cognitive task refers to the destination language learning of the newly arrived migrant students. The context that surrounds this process was

explored using Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory that scrutinizes the development expanding from person-level factors to macro-level policies (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). The ecological theory proved instrumental in comprehending the organization of destination language learning and important contextual factors by establishing interconnections among systems that were previously isolated from one another.

2.1.1. Emergence, Basic Tenets, and Expansion of Ecological Theory

Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory occurred as a response to laboratory experiments that isolate a child from their familiar environment and place them in an unfamiliar setting that lacks the significant individuals, objects, and experiences that have played a central role in their life (Bronfenbrenner, 1974). As a result, he argued that we obtain an incomplete understanding of both the child and their environment. Emphasizing the context as an importance resource to ensure "vitality and validity" of any scientific work, he highlighted that "science needs social policy" contrary to the prevailing belief that social policy should be solely grounded in science (Bronfenbrenner, 1974, p. 1).

To inform social policy, particularly on learning and development, he pointed out that the learning process is influenced by two levels of forces or systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1976). The first level involves the interactions between the characteristics of learners and their immediate environments, such as their homes, schools, and peer groups. The second level encompasses the relationships and interconnections that exist between these different environments. In other words, both the individual characteristics of learners and the dynamic interactions between various environmental settings play crucial roles in shaping the learning process.

Drawing on the impact of intricate web of relationships on the learning and development, the ecological theory is characterized as a theoretical framework that focuses on the interconnectedness of the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). It is conceptualized as a series of nested structures, akin to a set of Russian dolls, where each structure exists within and interacts with the larger surrounding structures. This viewpoint underlines the complex and interdependent nature of environmental factors and their impact on individual development.

The basic tenets of ecological theory involve value of perception, dyads as important units of analysis, reciprocity, and ecological transitions. Firstly, the theory emphasizes that the crucial factor influencing behavior and development is the environment as it is subjectively perceived by individuals, rather than the environment as it may objectively exist in reality (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Within this interpretive environment, the dyad, which refers to a two-person system, serves as one of the fundamental units of analysis. The dyadic system asserts that when one of the pairs experiences a process of development, the other member in the same ecology also undergoes a similar transformation. This interconnected relationship relies on the notion of reciprocity between the individual and environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). It considers the developing individual not simply a passive recipient of environmental influences, but rather an active and evolving entity that actively engages with and reshapes the environment. To exemplify the reciprocal or bidirectional relationship, one can explore not only for the influence of the teacher on the child, but also for the impact of the child on the development of the teacher. Lastly, the ecological transitions within this dynamic environment involve shifts in roles or environment that occur over the course of an individual's lifespan (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Some examples of such transitions can be given as the arrival of a younger sibling, the transition across education levels, or advancements in career.

The ecological theory taps on similar aspects with Bandura's (1977) social learning theory and Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory because both theories acknowledge the dynamic interplay between individuals and their environment as a vital mechanism in human development. However, one distinguishing characteristic of the ecological theory is its broader conception of the environment and its recognition of the dynamic nature of the theory itself over time. In other words, Bronfenbrenner's theory of human development was in a constant state of change until his death in 2005 (Tudge et al., 2009). Initially, the theory placed significant emphasis on the environment, but over time, it underwent a transition towards a more comprehensive focus on processes (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). In the 1990s, Bronfenbrenner introduced and discussed the Process-Person-Context-Time model (PPCT), which has since become the core essence of his theory

(Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006; Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Tudge et al., 2009). With the introduction of this comprehensive model, the mature form of the theory is called bioecological theory.

Despite being widely cited as the underpinning theory in numerous studies, there is an ongoing debate regarding the use of Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory as the theoretical foundation in research. The critics argue that there is a tendency to either misrepresent the theory and reduce it to only the nested structure of micro-to-macro systems, or when accurately understood, applied it inappropriately (Tudge et al., 2009, 2016). Therefore, it is suggested that a study using bioecological theory should involve all the four elements of the model. When a research design or a research question does not allow or need to employ one or more elements, it is strongly suggested to acknowledge it to maintain the integrity of the theory.

In the present study, I consulted all aspects of the ecological model except for Time component as it requires a longitudinal observation of the development, which was not relevant to my research aim.

2.1.2. Components of Ecological Theory

The ecological theory, also referred to bioecological theory in its mature form – is formed upon some specific propositions and concepts that are spirally revisited and expanded throughout the whole theory. The following section provides an overview of the Person – Process – Context – Time framework. In particular, the Context summarizes the four interrelated components: micro-, meso-, exo-, and macrosystems.

2.1.2.1. Process

The first component of the bioecological theory elaborates on the proximal process. It refers to forms of interaction in the immediate environment that have significant implications for development (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). These interactions involve various activities such as engaging in play with young children, child-child interactions, or conducting complicated tasks, which might demonstrate systematic variations based on multiple factors. The individual characteristics, the immediate

and more distance environmental contexts, and social changes over time influence the characteristics of the proximal processes.

For a sustained influence of the proximal processes, the activity needs to occur regularly and consistently over an extended period of time (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). In other words, short-lived or frequently interrupted activities are insufficient for developmental effectiveness. Instead, activities should be sustained long enough to become progressively more complex. Mere repetition of activities alone is not enough to facilitate optimal development.

These developmentally effective processes are characterized by bidirectional influence, which demands a certain degree of reciprocity; both parties are expected to actively engage and contribute to interaction. Furthermore, these processes extend beyond interactions with people but objects and symbols in the immediate environment. Therefore, the environment should possess qualities that attract attention, encourage exploration, allow for manipulation, and stimulate imagination (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).

The last defining feature of the proximal processes is to emphasize different developmental outcomes between disadvantaged or disorganized environments and advantaged or stable environments. In deprived environments, manifestations of dysfunction are asserted to be more frequent and severe, which thus requires a greater allocation of parents' time and energy. On the other hand, the children in stable environment enjoy more from the developmental outcomes (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).

For instance, the structured exposure to destination language learning constituted the proximal process in the present study. It was assumed that this process is shaped by a joint function of multiple forces including learner characteristics, interplay between different stakeholders, and social milieu in the destination settings. One particular aspect that warranted investigation was the frequency or consistent delivery of the instruction in the language programs. Additionally, the tangible resources available in the school contexts were explored as objects or symbols that invite or discourage

learners such as school infrastructure, course materials, or overall classroom environment.

2.1.2.2. Person

The second component of the ecological theory focuses on the inherent individual traits that are brought into various social contexts (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Contrary to the misconception that Bronfenbrenner solely focused on contextual influences on development, his earlier works implied the significance of the individuals' roles. Tudge et al., (2009) pointed out that Bronfenbrenner emphasized and elucidated the active engagement of the individuals in influencing and modifying their surrounding contexts in the mature form of the ecological theory. Three types of personal characteristics were distinguished to influence the interaction and development in the proximal processes: demand, resource, and force characteristics (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).

Demand characteristics refer to personal stimulus characteristics that act as immediate stimuli to others, such as age, gender, skin color, and physical appearance. These characteristics have the potential to influence initial interactions by shaping immediate expectations (Tudge et al., 2009). These characteristics possess the capacity to invite or discourage reactions from the social environment, potentially disrupting or fostering processes of psychological growth (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).

Resource characteristics describe mental and emotional resources such as past experiences, skills, and intelligence, as well as social and material resources like access to adequate food, housing, caring parents, and appropriate educational opportunities for a given society (Tudge et al., 2009). These characteristics are inherent to individuals, and they represent biopsychological strengths and vulnerabilities that influence an individual's ability to effectively engage in proximal processes. Examples of such characteristics include genetic defects, low birth weight, physical disabilities, severe and persistent illnesses, or brain damage resulting from accidents or degenerative processes (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).

Force characteristics encompass temperament, motivation, persistence, and similar traits (Tudge et al., 2009). These characteristics can be categorized as developmentally generative or developmentally disruptive (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Developmentally generative characteristics involve active orientations such as curiosity, self-initiation, engagement with others, responsiveness to social initiatives, and willingness to delay immediate gratification for long-term goals. On the other hand, developmentally disruptive dispositions include impulsiveness, explosiveness, distractibility, as well as traits like apathy, inattentiveness, withdrawal, and avoidance of activities. It is concluded that individuals with such dispositions may struggle to engage in proximal processes that require complex and prolonged patterns of reciprocal interaction.

2.1.2.3. Context

In the ecological theory, the context comprises four interrelated systems. Drawing on Brim's (1975) the terminology of microstructure, mesostructured, and macrostructure, Bronfenbrenner defined the environment as "topologically as a nested arrangement of structures, each contained within the next" including microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1976, p. 5).

Microsystem. A microsystem refers to the pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relations that individuals experience in a specific setting with distinct physical and material characteristics (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Regarding experience and perception, the term "experienced" is crucial in defining the microsystem, which indicates that the scientifically relevant aspects of any environment involve not only its objective properties but also how individuals perceive those properties within the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

The significance of stability, clear structure, and predictability of events becomes evident (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Objects and areas that encourage manipulation and exploration are considered constructive, while instability, lack of structure, and unpredictability of events hinder the developmental process. Moreover, developmentally generative features of the surroundings have a greater

impact in more stable settings, and also serve as a buffer against the disruptive influences of disadvantaged environments (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).

Mesosystem. A mesosystem elaborates on the interrelationships among multiple settings in which individuals actively participate. For example, in the case of a child, the mesosystem includes the connections between home, school, and the neighborhood peer group, while for an adult, it involves the relations between family, work, and social life (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The mesosystem essentially functions as a system of interconnected microsystems, which expands when individuals enter new settings. These interconnections can take various forms, such as intermediate links within a social network, formal and informal communication between settings, and the nature of knowledge and attitudes about one setting in another (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

In a mesosystem, the *intersetting communications* refer to messages intentionally transmitted from one setting to another to provide specific information to individuals in the receiving setting. These communications can occur through face-to-face interactions, telephone conversations, written messages, notices or announcements, or indirectly through social network chains (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). *Intersetting knowledge* pertains to information or experiences that exist in one setting about another. This knowledge can be acquired through intersetting communication or from external sources, such as library books, that are not specific to the settings involved. As a result, one can assert that communication and knowledge across microsystems characterize the impact of the mesosystem on the developing person. And mesosystem analysis not only introduces a comparative perspective but also emphasizes the importance of investigating the combined effects and interactions between settings.

Exosystem. The exosystem examines the relationship between second-order effects and human development. It refers to the linkages and processes that occur between two or more settings, where at least one of these settings does not directly involve the developing individual (Bronfenbrenner, 1976; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). However, events happening in these indirect settings can still have an influence on processes within the immediate setting where the individual resides. In other words,

the exosystem recognizes the impact of external environments on the individual's immediate context, even if the individual is not directly present or involved in those external settings. It acknowledges that factors operating outside the immediate environment can still have significant effects on the individual's development and experiences. These structures include the significant institutions within society, which can be intentionally designed or naturally evolving, as they function at the local community level. To provide specific examples, the exosystem includes various elements such as the parent's workplace, mass media, government agencies at the local, state, and national levels, a school class attended by an older sibling, the distribution of goods and services, communication and transportation facilities, as well as informal social networks (Bronfenbrenner, 1976, 1979). The parent's workplace, for instance, may influence the availability of resources and the parents' work-life balance, which in turn can affect the learner's well-being.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) provides an example of the presence of television as an exosystem effect. The television program, which originates from an external source, becomes a part of the child's exosystem. Its influence may be exerted not directly on the child but through its impact on the parents and their interactions with their children. This illustrates a second-order effect, where the television operates across ecological borders as an exosystem phenomenon rather than solely within a microsystem. Another example of an exosystem effect is illustrated through the concept of "*settings of power*" (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 255). These settings refer to environments where some individuals have control over the allocation of resources and make decisions that impact other settings within the community or society as a whole. They might occur at the local or national level and exist in both the public sector, such as government institutions, and the private sector, such as large corporations. The individuals actively participating in these power settings, those who control resource allocation and decision-making, exert influence on the development of individuals.

Macrosystem. The macro-systems represent the broad institutions within a culture or subculture, including the economic, social, educational, legal, and political systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1976). These macro-systems serve as the overarching frameworks that influence and shape the local manifestations of micro-, meso-, and exo-systems.

The macro-systems are not only structures, but also are they “carriers of information and ideology that, both explicitly and implicitly, endow meaning and motivation to particular agencies, social networks, roles, activities, and their interrelations” (Bronfenbrenner, 1976, p. 6). Within a given society, it is expected to have similarities in the structure of micro-, meso-, exosystems because they are influenced by the same generalized patterns of the macrosystems. Furthermore, a bottom-up approach analyzing and comparing the micro-, meso-, and exosystems across different social groups or societies can help us grasp the properties of the macrosystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

2.1.2.4. Time

The final component of the mature form of the ecological theory refers to *time* as a constituting element of the system that has a prominent place at the three levels: microtime, mesotime, and macrotime (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Microtime elaborates on continuity and disruption within the proximal processes. Mesotime describes the consistency of the activities and interactions in the developing individual’s environment. And finally, macrotime or chronosystem focuses on the events in the larger society, which can occur in a single and across generations. Time is considered to have a crucial place in the PPCT model because the development is closely associated with relative constancy, stability, and change (Tudge et al., 2009). Whatever happens in any time constituent influences the development inevitably.

2.1.3. Use of Ecological Theory in Research on Immigrant Students

Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model has been widely utilized in research on children’s development to account for positive and negative outcomes. Particularly in refugee education, the theory suggests a practical framework to understand the interconnected relationship and second-order effects on the development.

To illustrate, Dryden-Peterson et al., (2017) proposed a novel understanding of pathways to educational success among refugee students across ecological systems framework. They suggested that the proliferation of personal technology has empowered refugees to establish virtual micro- and mesosystem relationships, which allows them to seek global support systems that were inaccessible locally in the

neighboring countries. Recently, Prentice (2022) utilized the ecological model to examine the factors that influence educators' practices with refugee children in England at individual, group, and system levels. In addition to the empirical investigation, the ecological framework is instrumental to compile evidence on a pressing contemporary issue. For instance, Aleghfeli and Hunt (2022) carried out a systematic review study on the risk factors and resilience factors of the unaccompanied refugee minors in high-income countries. Using the ecological framework, they illustrated the challenges and protective aspects expanding from individual level to broad political and social landscape.

In research on immigrant students' education, the ecological framework is also applied to understand the interplay between individual factors and broader surrounding contexts. One example was conducted by Jin Bang et al. (2011) using secondary data to investigate how individual, home, and school factors influence the completion of homework among immigrant students the United States. By adopting the ecological perspective, the study examined the interconnected challenges that the newcomer immigrant students faced while completing their homework. The study's findings supported the importance of resources in the home and school environments for immigrant students' homework completion and academic achievement. Additionally, the research demonstrated how demographic characteristics indirectly influence academic performance through their impact on immediate factors like child behaviors, characteristics, and the home and school environment.

In another study, Harju-Auiti and Mäkinen (2022) conducted a study in Finland to explore the contexts across different levels of the ecological theory with respect to offering language support for newly arrived Finnish language learners. Within the ecological framework, they scrutinized the immediate classroom contexts in the microsystem where teachers interact with students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The mesosystem focused on collaborative efforts among students, teachers, and other school professionals within educational environments. The exosystem pertained to administrative processes and decision-making at the municipality level, while the macrosystem included national-level administrative perspectives reflected in steering documents like legislation and the national core curriculum for basic education.

In the present study, I employed the ecological theory in a way consistent with the exemplified studies to examine migration-related student-level characteristics as well as ecological context that impeded or enhanced the organization of destination language learning and the likelihood that newly arrived migrant students gained destination language proficiency. In addition, this study made a contribution by incorporating a comparative analysis conducted across two countries. The integration of qualitative and quantitative data sources in the research design further enriched the study's breadth and depth of understanding.

2.2. Destination Language Education in İstanbul and Hamburg

This section presents an overview of the general structure of education systems in Turkey and Germany, trend on access to education, and organization of destination language support in İstanbul and Hamburg.

2.2.1. General Structure of Education Systems

Turkish and German States have distinguishing education structures, which shape the organization and management of the education activities. Germany is a federal republic comprising 16 federal states (called *Länder*). Each federal state is in charge of regulating the schooling activities and teacher education, except for the vocational education, for which the federal government is mainly responsible (Gogolin et al., 2019). The Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs (called *Kultusministerkonferenz* or KMK) aims to keep differences among the federal states within certain limits, regulates the recognition of educational qualifications and certificates, and ensures mobility across the states (KMK, 2019). Compulsory education encompasses between the ages of six and 18 or 19, depending on the *Länder* (Eurydice, 2020, p. 17).

The German education system is highly selective, with different lower and upper-secondary education tracks. After primary schooling that is usually completed around age ten, students must either follow an academic track called *Gymnasium*, which leads to *Abitur* that is a requirement for tertiary education, or pursue other school types (e.g., *Hauptschule*, *Realschule*, or *Gesamtschule*) that might be named differently in each state (KMK, 2019). This decision can be revised after students

complete Grade 6. As a result of declining birth rates and a movement to urban areas, there is a tendency to adopt a less-tracked system, as exemplified in the two-tier system in some states such as Hamburg, Berlin, and Saxony (Gogolin et al., 2019). The impact of the early selection and tracking in Germany, despite such emerging efforts, is still visible in the clustering of low- and high-achiever students in the different types of schools more often than the average in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (see PISA 2018 results in OECD, 2019d, p. 5).

In contrast to the highly decentralized system in Germany, the educational activities are managed at a central level by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in Turkey. Compulsory education lasts 12 years and is made up of primary (Grade 1-4), lower-secondary (Grade 5-8), and upper secondary education (Grade 9-12) levels (Eurydice, 2021). Starting from lower-secondary education, students can continue in either regular secondary schools or religious secondary schools (e.g., Imam Hatip Schools). General education and vocational or technical programs are available in upper-secondary education. Compared with the OECD average, Turkey's low- and high achiever students are more often clustered within the same schools (OECD, 2020).

Whereas 96.1% of the schools in Germany are government or public schools, this number decreases to 87.9% in Turkey (see Figure V.7.2 OECD, 2020, p. 160). In Turkey, a rapid privatization of the education sector took place in the last decade due to neoliberal economic policies that incentivize private schools and thus fail to mitigate existing inequalities for students with disadvantaged backgrounds (Bayram, 2018). As underscored in the PISA 2018 results, the opportunity gap between socio-economically advantaged and disadvantaged students was evident in Turkey and Germany (OECD, 2020). The gap in reading performance between immigrant and non-immigrant students was 63 points in Germany (OECD, 2019b, p. 1). In Turkey, no direct comparison data between immigrant and non-immigrant students are available yet, but the socio-economically advantaged students in Turkey were more successful in reading by 76 points in PISA 2018 (OECD, 2019c, p. 5). Both countries had a similar outlook about staff shortages; the school principals in disadvantaged schools suffered more staff shortages than principals in advantaged schools. In terms

of life satisfaction, which can be regarded as an important indicator of children's well-being, 33.8% of students in Turkey were not satisfied with their lives, in contrast with 16.7% in Germany (see Figure III.11.4 OECD, 2019d, p. 160).

2.2.2. Access to Education

Irrespective of their residence status, all children, whether migrant or refugee, have the right to continue early childhood and compulsory education in Germany after they move out of the initial reception centers to temporary shelters or housing facilities in urban areas (Teltemann & Rauch, 2018). The children of refugee families go through the same processes as other new immigrant students, and the same basic mechanisms govern their education process. The federal states implement distinct programs that may take up to one year in preparatory programs to equip the students with the necessary German language skills to enable the inclusion of the refugee children into public schools. The goal is to prepare students for mainstream lessons.

The organization of educational activities for refugee children in Turkey is mainly structured around a multi-year project called Promoting Integration of Syrian Children into the Turkish Education System (PICTES). There are also 141,514 school-aged children under international protection from other countries of origin, including Afghanistan, Iraq, Palestine, Somalia, and Yemen, as of January 2022 (MoNE, 2022b)⁶; however, these children are usually invisible both in educational statistics and policy documents. The PICTES project constitutes one of the main pillars of refugee education in Turkey, which is also among the principal sources of the sharp increase in Turkey's overall MIPEx integration score, particularly in education indicators. The project was launched with the EU-funded €300 million budget in September 2016 to ensure all refugee children's access to education and learning with Turkish peers in public schools. This might also be regarded as the first concrete step to realize the Turkish MoNE's strategic targets for refugee students from 2015 to 2019. This initiative included efforts to integrate refugees, people under temporary protection, and stateless people into the Turkish education system and cooperation with international organizations to mitigate the administrative burdens of

⁶ The respective figures on refugees and asylum seekers in Turkey can be accessed through the UNHCR database on the following link: [https://www.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics-
uat/download/?url=11vHE8](https://www.unhcr.org/refugee-statistics-uat/download/?url=11vHE8)

non-recognized school certificates (MoNE, 2015). In line with these strategic goals, the first PICTES project was implemented in densely refugee-populated cities and offered a wide array of services. They included catch-up classes, Arabic language training, transportation support, complementary teaching materials, awareness-raising meetings for families, curricula revision, psychological and counselling services, and teacher training (Delegation of the European Union to Turkey, 2018).

As the extension of the first PICTES project, PIKTES II (Promoting Integration of Syrian Kids into Turkish Education System) was implemented by the end of 2021 with the additional support of a €400 million budget. This initiative continued to the Turkish MoNE to ensure all Syrian children's inclusion in public schools and their access to quality inclusive education (European Commission, 2023). In the current form of the project, the project is extended with the ongoing external funding by the EU and still called with the same acronym PIKTES, but the title of the project is updated to Promoting Inclusive Education for Kids in the Turkish Education System. It implies an expansion in the project scope but the aim of the project is still defined to carry out projects to facilitate foreign students' access to education and enhance their social cohesion (PIKTES, 2023).

As a result of these multi-year project, the efforts have yielded promising quantitative results. Figure 4 shows that the enrollment rate of Syrian children has increased from 30.4% in 2014 to 65% as of January 2022, which accounts for 730,806 out of 1,124,353 school-aged Syrian children (MoNE, 2022b).

With the closure of the last TECs in 2020, all enrolled Syrian students are currently mainstreamed in public schools. Contrary to the sharp increase in enrollment rates in the project's first years from 2015 to 2017 and following a rapid transition from TECs to mainstream classrooms in public schools, little increase has been observed in the last three years. The stagnant rate shows around 60% enrollment of school-aged Syrian children, meaning about four hundred thousand out-of-school Syrian children. Regarding the number of out-of-school-aged Syrian children, Syrian children are enrolled less than their Turkish peers at all levels (MoNE, 2022a, pp. 1–2), and the lowest enrollment rate for Syrian children in early childhood education with only 34.4% is worrisome and alarming.

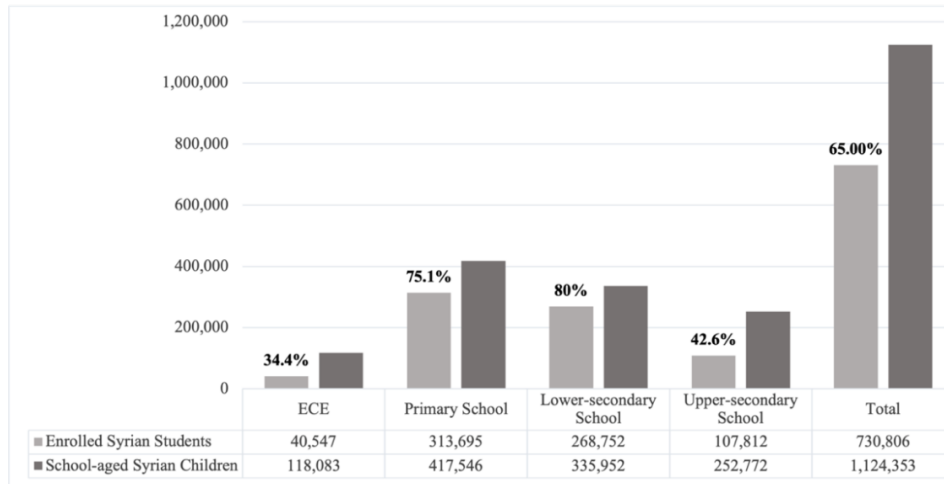


Figure 4

Enrollment Rate of Syrian Children in Turkey by Education Levels

2.2.3. Organization of Destination Language Education

The literature on language education programs for immigrant students mainly relies on English Language Learners in the USA, but the typology of language programs is applicable to other contexts and provide insights for language education of newly arrived migrant students in Turkey and Germany. In general, language support programs can be grouped into three types (Sugarman, 2018). The first type is dual language education which aims to develop high levels of oral and written proficiency in the target language and partner language, academic content knowledge, and cross-cultural competence. Under this umbrella term, four types of instructional models are offered: maintenance bilingual, foreign language immersion, two-way immersion, and heritage language immersion. The second type is transitional bilingual education which focuses on using students' first languages as a foundation for the target language. The last type is the target language-only instruction which focuses on target language development and leave little room to use students' first languages. To illustrate, pull-out language classes are among the common types of programs offered to refugee students that withdraws students from mainstream classes in order to help total beginners and focus on specific problems or assignments (Loewen, 2004).

In Turkey, the organization of destination language education for Syrian refugees has gone through three phases. In the first years of refugee education, Syrian children

mainly had mainly two options to continue their education. TECs or public schools. TECs served as a bridging system that was established by the MoNE or NGOs in areas where there were high concentrations of Syrian refugees. Emphasizing the detriment of such parallel systems, United Nations High Commissioners for Refugees [UNHCR] calls any temporary education program as a poor substitute and even counter-productive, and instead strongly recommends providing sustainable and predictable access to certified education as a vital component of successful mainstreaming and integration (UNHCR, 2017a, 2017b). In line with this policy, TECs were closed down at the end of 2020. The mainstreamed Syrian refugee students were offered pull-out language courses, which were arranged according to convenience of schools as after-school courses or at the weekend. Six-month remedial programs were implemented as part of the PICTES project to compensate for achievement gaps of Syrian refugee students who moved from TECs to public schools. At grades 5–8, students were offered four hours of Turkish language, two hours of Mathematics, and two hours of Science courses with a total of eight hours per week. At grades 9–12, they were supported with courses including Maths, Physics, Chemistry, Geography, and Turkish language and literature whose hours varied by schools (MoNE, 2018). During Fall 2019 school term while I was collecting the qualitative data in this study, I observed the policy shift in language provisions. The pull-out language courses for mainstreamed Syrian refugee students were replaced with segregated cohesion classes. Since then, the MoNE has offered language support in the form of cohesion classrooms, which are separate language classes for low-proficient Syrian refugees in public schools. Whereas the first cohesion classrooms were established for both primary and lower-secondary level students, the recent implementation only covers the primary-school children at grade 3-4.

The language provisions for newly arrived migrant students in Germany are roughly categorized into the three models: integrative, partly integrative, and parallel (Massumi et al., 2015; Teltemann & Rauch, 2018). All models are time-limited. The integrative model enables students to participate in mainstream classes from the very beginning and to receive additional language support in German via tutoring or mentoring systems. In the partly integrative model, students attend mainstream

classes for less "language-sensitive" subjects such as mathematics, musical education, and physical education. In the parallel model, students only attend preparatory classes, which are similar to cohesion classes in Turkey. These programs in Germany are also conceived as a type of segregated schooling and thus criticized as detrimental to social integration (Massumi et al., 2015; Teltemann & Rauch, 2018).

In Hamburg, the language support structure mainly follows a parallel model in Basic Classes and International Preparatory Classes (IPCs). Children and adolescents of school age who move to Hamburg from other European or non-European countries and who cannot speak German usually first attend these special classes. The children who cannot read and write the Latin script first attend a Basic Class and then transferred into an IPC. Those who are familiar with the Latin Alphabet but do not possess adequate proficiency in German are directly enrolled in an IPC. After the students attain B1 level of Germany proficiency at the end of one year at latest, they are transferred to mainstream classes. However, newly immigrated students aged six and seven are usually enrolled directly in a regular class (IFBQ, 2023). Regarding the number of students in Basic Classes and IPCs, Figure 5⁷ illustrates the number of students in Hamburg by school types and school years. The language support classes reached an initial peak in the 2017/18 school year after the large number of refugee arrivals into Germany during summer 2015. In the following years, the number declined gradually. As result of the war between Russia and Ukraine, more refugee children attend the language classes in the 2022/2023 school year (IFBQ, 2023). The change in the number students and classes show the adaptable nature of the established language support system in Hamburg.

⁷ Reproduced based on the data from Das Schuljahr 2022/23 in Zahlen: das Hamburger Schulwesen [The School Year 2022/23 in Numbers: Hamburg School System] (see Datenblatt [Datasheet] 6, IFBQ, 2023, p. 15)

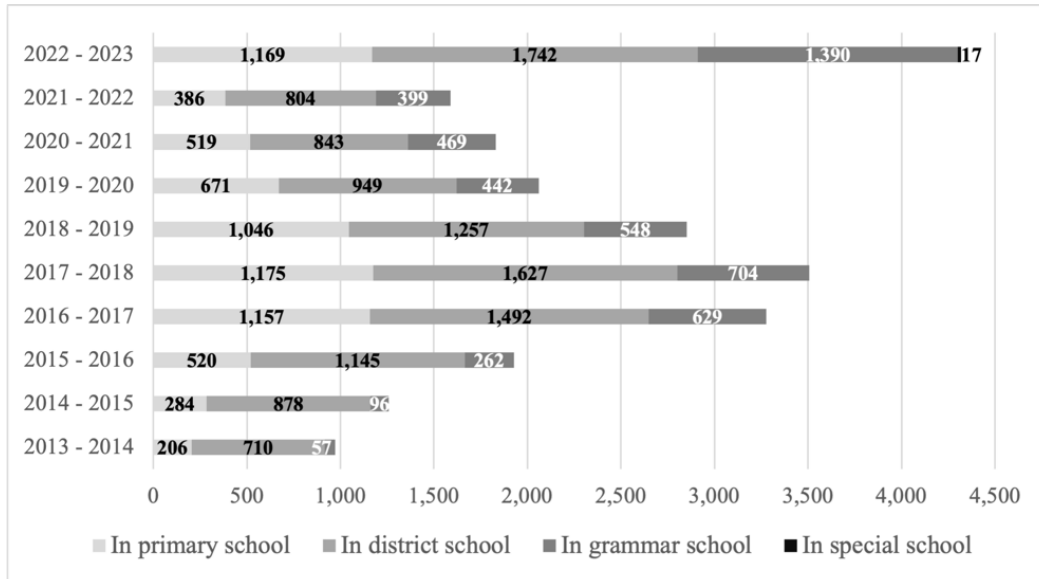


Figure 5
Distribution of the Students in Language Support Programs by School Types and School Years in Hamburg

2.3. Research on Language Learning of Newly Arrived Migrant Students in Turkey and Germany

The research on Syrian refugee students' language education in Turkey predominantly report the impact of the limited language proficiency through a deficit lens at every phase of students' inclusion into the Turkish education system. During TECs, the major concern with respect to early period of these subsidiary centers was the inadequacy and poor quality of the Turkish language education, which ranged from four to five hours in a week by mostly volunteer teachers or incompetent teachers (Aras & Yasun, 2016; Seçer, 2017). Despite all evident shortcomings, some Syrian families still opted for enrolling their children in TECs in order to maintain their home culture and mother-tongue with the hope of returning their country when the war was over (Ozer et al., 2017; Seçer, 2017; Taşkın & Erdemli, 2018). In this regard, Seçer (2017) indicated that Syrian families whose children attended public schools also adopted supplementary measures to improve their proficiency in Arabic either by home-schooling or sending TECs concurrently. Another study pointed out students' resistance towards learning Turkish in public schools as an outcome of families' concern about assimilation and losing their home culture (Taşkın & Erdemli, 2018)

In transition to Turkish public schools, both peer-reviewed articles and gray literature also focused on the impact of limited language proficiency for Syrian students (Aydin & Kaya, 2017; HRW, 2015; Kultaş, 2017; Levent & Çayak, 2017; Ozer et al., 2017; Taşkın & Erdemli, 2018; Tösten et al., 2017). These studies boiled down their results on the crucial role of Turkish proficiency. For instance, they underscored that the lack of language proficiency results in frequent drop-outs and leads a significant number of Syrian children to work in informal sectors. The lack of principles and overarching policies in grade placement exacerbated the language development of Syrian students as individual schools might have taken different decisions. Whereas some school administrators place children below their age level to accommodate for their limited Turkish proficiency, the others might register students according to their ages irrespective of their years of missed education and level of language.

The incongruency between the education provisions at TECs and requirements of Turkish public schools was indicated to aggravate the rift in successful inclusion of Syrian children. The studies showed that Syrian students' lack of Turkish language acquisition raised some issues in curriculum adjustment. According to Erdem (2017), teachers in Turkish public schools prioritized to teach basic vocabulary to enable communication with Syrian students rather than delivering the subject-specific content. In managing this dual instruction within the same classroom, teachers unfortunately might not implement specific instructional strategies that could alleviate the burden on Syrian students and facilitate their inclusion. As a result, lack of language proficiency after students were mainstreamed in public schools led to frequent bullying incidents (Erdem, 2017; Erden, 2017; HRW, 2015; Kultaş, 2017; Levent & Çayak, 2017; Seçer, 2017; Tösten et al., 2017). On the other hand, studies implied that adequate Turkish competency was a marker of successful inclusion which enabled to build good relationships with peers (Erdem, 2017; Tösten et al., 2017).

In addition to discrimination by their peers, some studies revealed that Syrian student had to deal with the negative attitudes of teachers in public schools. According to Aras and Yasun (2016), some Turkish counselors and teachers might not pay proper attention to the Syrian students, who had limited Turkish proficiency. Emphasizing

the difference in practices and approaches among teachers, the studies pointed out that some teachers might neglect Syrian students due to their lack of proficiency, while others put additional effort to increase their proficiency (Erdem, 2017; Kultaş, 2017). Relating the attitudes of teachers to their teaching orientation, Erden (2017) claimed that teachers with supportive orientation attempted to provide equal chances for Syrian students to participate in classroom activities whereas teachers with skeptical orientation paired Syrian students with each other and segregated from the rest of the classroom. As a result, the studies concluded that a considerable number of Syrian students demonstrated poor academic achievement in public schools due to the lack of Turkish proficiency (Aydin & Kaya, 2017; Erden, 2017; Kultaş, 2017; Tösten et al., 2017).

In recent years, although limited in number, there has been a growing trend in the literature on refugee students in Turkey that emphasizes an asset-based approach and incorporates this strategy into research designs. Particularly, Erdemir (2022a, 2022b) has focused in a number of studies on refugee kids in early childhood education. To illustrate, as a result of a home-based intervention study, he found out that the structured exposure to destination language learning results in considerable returns for children who speak another first language dominantly at home (Erdemir, 2022a). In another study, he pointed out children's awareness of their linguistic capital and make informed decisions about it (Erdemir, 2022b). Emphasizing the significance of shifting discourse about vulnerable populations, Karşlı-Çalamak and Erdemir (2019) also underscored promoting counter-narratives that rejects the reductionist view attributing mainly negative connotations to Syrian refugee families.

The knowledge base regarding the organization of Turkish language education for Syrian refugees is very limited. Contrary to exponential increase in the literature that highlights the impact of limited Turkish proficiency, a few qualitative studies report on the implementation of language support courses. Koçoğlu and Yelken (2018) conducted a study examining teachers' perspectives on the Turkish language curriculum for Syrian refugee primary school students in Mersin. They highlighted the language barrier between teachers and students as the primary issue in language instruction. The researchers also found that the provided course materials did not cater to the Turkish language proficiency, readiness, and cultural backgrounds of

Syrian students. Furthermore, they emphasized that the diverse levels of language proficiency among students posed a significant challenge for the existing assessment method.

Another qualitative study by Uğurlu and Kayhan (2017) examined Syrian students' Turkish reading and writing skills in Gaziantep. Their major findings indicated that primary school teachers did not have appropriate training in teaching Turkish as a foreign language. Furthermore, they highlighted the absence of provisions within the current primary school curriculum for instructing Turkish reading and writing to foreign students. Teachers also expressed the need for practical adjustments to enhance the engagement of migrant students in classroom activities, noting that improvements should encompass school internet access and classroom amenities like televisions, computers, and projectors.

In Germany, the research on the language education of newly arrived migrant students is still described as *limited* (Panagiotopoulou & Rosen, 2018) and initial studies indicate a restrictive approach to multilingualism and inadequate support for German as a second language learning. One of the earlier studies conducted by Niedrig (2003) as an ethnographic study between 1999-2003 showed that refugee students often felt linguistically overwhelmed within the regular school system and experienced significant language barrier. In a recent study conducted in six German federal states once again underscored the necessity of inclusive measures and the development of language-sensitive regular instruction (Ahrenholz et al., 2016; Birnbaum et al., 2018). Additionally, the findings emphasized decentralized education system in Germany stating that "the timing and manner of transition to regular instruction" were usually handled on individual school levels (Birnbaum et al., 2018, p. 233; see also Karakayali & Zur Nieden, 2018). The lack of complementary support after transitioning from preparatory to mainstream classes and the challenge of coordination among teachers were also highlighted (Fürstenau, 2017). In addition, the instruction in mainstream classes was likely to be characterized by speech anxiety, boredom, and frustration (Schmiedebach & Wegner, 2019).

Another line of research focuses on the use of students' multilingual skills in language support classes. The studies pointed out the superficial use of multilingual repertoire just for translation and language brokering purposes (Dewitz & Terhart, 2018). This finding was in line with the argument that indicates the inadequate incorporation of multilingualism in Germany (Koehler, 2017). Regarding attitude towards the use students' multilingual repertoire in instruction and stigma attached to them, Panagiotopoulou et al., (2017, p. 221) highlighted that the students in preparatory classes are constructed as a "learning group allegedly lacking or having limited German language skills" and thus deemed "not yet integrable" within the German school system. Therefore, Panagiotopoulou and Rosen (2018) advocated for the inclusion of newly immigrated students in order to shift the focus from the perceived deficiencies of the students to the discriminatory conditions present in schools. This would imply recognizing and productively utilizing the students' entire linguistic repertoire for learning purposes.

With respect to generative influence of multilingualism on students' destination language learning, Fürstenau and Niedrig (2018) also demonstrated how the use of multilingual practices and routines in a preparatory class in Hamburg can lead to legitimization and co-constructed learning. However, they also pointed out that the efforts of individual teachers do not yet ensure that the school addresses the needs of students in a multilingual migration society. Comprehensive school and instructional development are required for that purpose (Fürstenau, 2017).

A quantitative study conducted by Höckel and Schilling in Hamburg (2022) explored the optimal approach for effective integration of newly arrived primary school children. Based on quantitative empirical data, they sought answers whether newly arrived migrant children would benefit more from segregated language programs or direct mainstreaming in regular classes. The outcomes of the study revealed that newly arrived migrant students who attended preparatory classes during primary school exhibited significantly diminished performance in their average fifth-grade standardized test scores, particularly evident in Math and German assessments. This trend further corresponded to a reduced likelihood of enrolling in the academic track.

In recent years, the attention regarding the language learning of newly arrived migrant children in Germany has shifted its focus on a particular sub-group: refugee children and adults. Drawing on nationwide census data, the studies usually explore the drivers of language proficiency among refugees and if refugees differ from economic migrants regarding language learning (Kristen & Seuring, 2021). To illustrate, Seuring and Will (2022) examined whether the conditions that were influential in language proficiency of other immigrant populations are also relevant to refugee children. They tested whether additional conditions due to their refugee background become relevant for language learning. They assumed that insecure residence status and the risk of post-traumatic stress disorder represent unfavourable circumstances that hinder children's German language acquisition. Moreover, they hypothesized that living in collective accommodation has an impact on the development of German language competencies. However, they did not find a statistically significant association of any of the three conditions with children's German language competency levels. Thus, refugee-specific aspects do not appear to make a substantial contribution to explaining German language acquisition among refugee children.

2.4. Factors Associated With Destination Language Learning

This section introduces a widely-used model to explore the destination language learning of the immigrants and then summarizes the literature about the factors tested in this study.

2.4.1. A General Model of Destination Language Acquisition

Chiswick and Miller (1994, 1996, 2001) developed a framework that considers language skills as a valuable investment in an individual's human capital. Their model is based on the premise that immigrants who lack proficiency in the destination language strategically invest in acquiring that proficiency, either before or after immigration. The choice of destination settings is significantly influenced by these investments, which are differentiated by exposure, efficiency, and economic factors. The destination language acquisition model highlights the importance of these factors in language learning.

Exposure, a significant aspect of Chiswick and Miller's model, can be divided into two main forms. The first is pre-immigration exposure, which refers to the level of language exposure in the individual's country of origin before immigrating. The second is post-immigration exposure, which comprises two elements. Firstly, the time units of exposure indicate the number of years since the individual's arrival in the destination country. It is generally more beneficial to invest in language skills shortly after arriving. Secondly, the intensity of exposure denotes the amount of exposure per unit of time in the destination country, which can be influenced by factors such as neighborhood and family characteristics. Immigrants who lack proficiency in the destination language are more likely to minimize exposure if they reside in an area where their native language is widely spoken.

Language practice within the family has a significant impact on proficiency in the destination language. In cases where marriage occurs before immigration, there is a tendency to continue speaking the native language at home. The presence of children in the family can have compensatory outcomes on the parents' language skills. Thanks to their improved destination language proficiency, children, may act as role models for their parents. They may also assist as translators, although this role tends to have a more negative effect on the mother's proficiency in the destination language compared to the father's. Additionally, parents may have concerns about preserving the cultural identity and practices of their country of origin, which leads them to maintain the use of the first language within the home setting.

Efficiency pertains to the rate of improvement in destination-language proficiency per unit of exposure. Age at the time of migration stands out as one of the most influential variables impacting efficiency. Younger individuals possess a greater aptitude for acquiring a new language compared to older individuals. Educational attainment also plays a role in efficiency. Those with higher levels of schooling tend to exhibit a greater capacity for learning, and this aptitude for learning extends to language acquisition. Additionally, linguistic distance plays a crucial role. The level of difficulty in acquiring a destination language partially depends on the linguistic dissimilarity between the individual's origin language and the language spoken in the destination country. As the linguistic difference between the origin language and the

destination language increases, the efficiency of immigrants in acquiring the destination language decreases.

The economic incentives for acquiring proficiency in the destination language rely on two main factors: the increase in wages as a result of language proficiency and the expected duration of employment or stay in the destination country. Immigrants who attain proficiency in the destination language also gain consumption benefits. These benefits can include lower prices through improved market search efficiency or access to a broader range of goods and services, as well as enhanced participation in the social, political, and cultural aspects of the destination country. Another significant economic incentive factor is the likelihood of return migration, which relates to the anticipated future duration of an individual's presence in the destination labor market. Greater distance is associated with a lower expectation of return migration, which further incentivizes investment in destination language learning.

In conclusion, Chiswick and Miller's destination language proficiency model has served as a useful framework for examining the language learning process of immigrants, particularly adult population. By utilizing this model, researchers can gain a better understanding of the dynamics of language proficiency among immigrant populations.

2.4.2. Individual Factors

2.4.2.1. First language proficiency. The impact of first language on the second language learning is multi-faceted. The interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1979, 2000) presents a fundamental argument, stating that language learners from minority backgrounds who possess a high-level of proficiency in their first language enjoy advantages when acquiring their second language. In other words, the hypothesis suggests that the linguistic proficiency in the second language is influenced by the linguistic proficiency previously attained in the first language. This proposition is based on the notion that mastery of any language relies on a concept known as *common underlying proficiency*, which enables the transfer of linguistic, metalinguistic, and conceptual knowledge between languages. On the other hand, another line of research claims that there exists a competitive dynamic between the first and second languages in terms of the available time for language learning. This

perspective highlights the notion that learners have a finite amount of time available for learning, and the time invested in acquiring their first language detracts from the time that could be dedicated to acquiring their second language and other competencies relevant to schooling. As a result, the time spent using the first language at home is believed to have adverse effects on the second language acquisition and, consequently, on educational achievement (Gathercole, 2002; Scheele et al., 2010).

To illustrate empirical evidence on the interdependence hypothesis, Genesee et al. (2006) revealed that the lack of strong literacy skills in one's native language significantly diminished the likelihood of acquiring academic language skills in a second language. Put it more specific with recent findings, Edele et al. (2023) tested the impact of first language proficiency on the second language in a series of projects by using National Education Panel Study (NEPS) data in Germany. They found out that a significant relationship between listening comprehension in the first language and reading comprehension in the second language (Edele & Stanat, 2016). Their findings provided also partial support for the notion that transfer effects are more prominent at advanced levels of proficiency in the first language. Regarding the language use at home, they revealed that the use of second language within the family enhances the likelihood of language-minority students attaining advanced levels of second language proficiency. In accordance with the time on task hypothesis, the overall findings showed that the dominant use of first language is negatively associated with the second language proficiency (Edele & Stanat, 2016; Miyamoto et al., 2020).

Based on the ample evidence, they concluded that it is a complex matter to understand the role of L1 in the educational success of the immigrant students (Edele et al., 2023). They pointed out three aspects for consideration. First, the use of L1 and the proficiency level in the first language yield different outcomes on the second language; that is to say, whereas the higher proficiency in the first language can positively influence the second language proficiency, the heavy use of first language is likely to disadvantage the second language acquisition. Secondly, the proficiency levels in the first and second languages must be taken into account while understanding their impact on each other. Finally, the effects of first language can

differ across various educational outcomes. For instance, Strobel (2016) did not indicate any advantages of the use of first language in mathematics achievement.

All in all, the evidence implied that the language learners who have high proficiency in their first language could benefit from this advantage while learning the second language because of the transfer of skills across the languages. Conversely, the time spent on one language, for instance the dominant use of first language, might negatively influence the proficiency in another language due to the decreased exposure.

2.4.2.2. Age at migration. The association between age at migration and second language acquisition stands out as one of the most well-established and consistent findings across several studies (Chiswick & Miller, 2001; Espenshade & Fu, 1997; Esser, 2006; Kristen & Seuring, 2021; Long, 1990; van Tubergen, 2010). Below are exemplified studies spanning different contexts and time periods.

Critical period hypothesis (Lenneberg, 1967) posits that it is crucial for first language acquisition to take place before the onset of the puberty for optimal language development. This view emphasizes a limited time window for the most effective acquisition of language skills. To test whether this critical period extends to second language acquisition, Johnson and Newport (1989) tested the impact of age of learning English as a second language on the grammar performance. Their findings demonstrated a robust and evident correlation between the age of arrival in the United States and performance outcomes. Individuals who initiated English acquisition at an earlier age achieved higher scores on the test compared to those who started later. The researchers concluded that if a person is immersed in a second language prior to the age of 7, they have the potential to attain native-like fluency in that language.

Dustmann and Fabbri (2003) conducted a study to investigate the factors influencing the fluency and literacy levels in the host language among immigrants from ethnic minority backgrounds in the UK. They also examined how these language skills relate to their performance in the labor market. The study found a clear and significant negative effect of age at arrival on language proficiency. In other words,

individuals who arrived at a later age had lower levels of fluency and literacy in the host language. On the other hand, the number of years spent in the host country had an expected positive effect on language skills, but this effect diminished over time. This suggests that language proficiency tends to improve with increased years of residence in the host country, but the rate of improvement decreases as individuals spend more time in the new environment.

In line with these exemplified findings, Guven and Islam (2015) observed in Australia that immigrants who start learning English at an earlier age attain higher levels of English proficiency compared to those who begin later. Additionally, their study revealed that immigrants who arrived before the age of 11 exhibit better English skills in comparison to their older counterparts who arrived between the ages of 11 and 18.

Contrary to direct negative association between age at migration and second language learning, Cummins (1979) had earlier suggested a nuanced understanding regarding the impact of age. He asserted that the age at which a student arrives is significant because late arrivals who have already developed proficiency in their first language may acquire the second language more quickly. Due to the impact of transfer effect from first language to the second, he further explained that older learners have the potential to acquire cognitive and academic skills in the second language more rapidly than younger learners. Additionally, he underlined that it typically takes at least five years for immigrant children who arrive in the host country after the age of six to approach grade-level norms in terms of cognitive and academic language proficiency in the second language.

2.4.2.3. Length of residence. The literature consistently points out that the length of residence has a positive impact on destination language learning. For instance, Espenshade and Fu (1997) found that exposure to English, as measured by years since migration, positively affects English-speaking ability. Their study revealed that the initial years in the host country yield the greatest improvement, with diminishing returns observed after approximately three to four years of experience in the United States. Chiswick and Miller (2001) confirmed this finding. They revealed that

proficiency increases with the duration of residence in Canada, regardless of the distance from the individual's country of origin.

A recent study conducted in Germany by Seuring and Will (2022) further supported this longstanding evidence. Their findings indicate that the German language competency levels of refugee children improve over time with an increased duration of stay in Germany. On average, children's competency levels increase by 7.2 points on the test score per year of residence.

Collectively, these studies emphasize the importance of length of residence in fostering language proficiency among immigrants. The findings consistently demonstrate that longer periods of exposure and experience in the destination country contribute to improved language skills.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter presents the research design, qualitative phases, scale development procedure, and quantitative phases with respective samples, instruments, data collection process, and data analyses. The integration strategy for qualitative and quantitative findings is illustrated. Limitations are discussed at the end of this chapter.

3.1. Design

This study is a mixed methods research, which is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, mixing both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand and corroborate the breadth and depth of the research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Drawing on qualitative and quantitative data allowed to address a more diverse, complementary set of research questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006) while investigating the organization of the destination language support for newly arrived migrant students in monolingual school contexts and revealing contextual factors predicting their language proficiency.

A four-phase mixed methods convergent comparative design was developed in this study to have an enhanced understanding of İstanbul and Hamburg contexts through within and cross-case analyses. A complex application of core mixed method designs (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) is a result of multiple research phases that combined different research approaches and designs over a couple of years. More specifically, this research developed a fully integrated variant of the convergent design, in which the qualitative and quantitative data were collected and analyzed separately, and then merged to compare the results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The aim was to obtain different but complementary data to understand better the destination

language learning in monolingual school contexts. Figure 6 displays the overview of the research design and the points of interface among different phases.

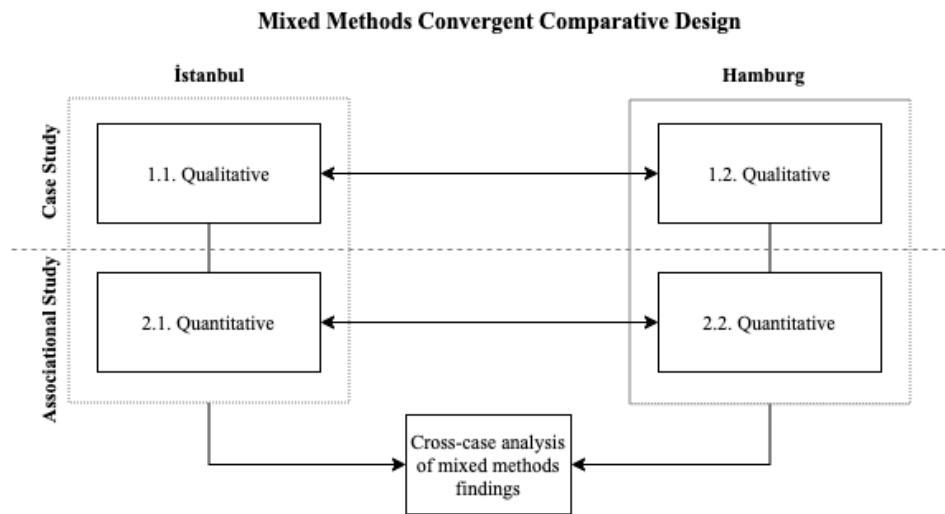


Figure 6
Overview of the Research Design

When designing and executing this study, I employed Bronfenbrenner's (1974, 1976, 1994) *Ecological Systems Theory* as the foundational theoretical framework. This theory provided with a comprehensive understanding of the various components present in the learners' surrounding environments, ranging from micro- to macro-systems. During the qualitative phases, my aim was to explore how emerging contextual variables were connected to the language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students. As I embraced a pragmatist worldview that emphasizes practical effectiveness and values both objective and subjective knowledge (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010), my perspective shifted from constructivist in the qualitative phase to postpositivist in the quantitative phase. Ultimately, I interpreted the findings through a dialectical lens, allowing for a comprehensive and balanced analysis.

The language support for the newly arrived migrant students in their transition to the mainstream classrooms is an emerging phenomenon in Turkey and a contested issue in Germany that gains more attention in the recent decade. More evidence is needed on the organization of the language support programs and contextual determinants of the language proficiency of the newly arrived migrant students in these monolingual school contexts. In this respect, the multiple case study was used in the qualitative

phase to explore this contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context through a detailed and in-depth data collection by using multiple sources of information (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2018). Drawing on classroom observations and interviews, the cases in this study were bounded in the organization of the destination language support at lower-secondary education level in İstanbul and Hamburg.

The quantitative phase was conducted as an associational research study that investigates the relationship between two or more variables without manipulating any condition and variables (Fraenkel et al., 2015). In line with the Bronfenbrenner's ecological framework and qualitative findings, the contextual determinants were hypothesized and tested in the quantitative phases in İstanbul and Hamburg. The aim here was to understand the relationship between the variables in the immediate settings (i.e., personal, familial, and classroom) of the newly arrived migrant students and their destination language proficiencies in Turkish or German.

To achieve these goals, I attempted to explore the following research questions in this study:

1. What migration-related individual characteristics shape the newly arrived migrant students' destination language learning in the classroom environment?
2. What characterizes the organization of language support for newly arrived migrant students in monolingual school contexts?
3. How well do migration-related individual characteristics, family environment, and formal learning environment predict newly arrived migrant student's self-reported destination language proficiency?

Hypothesis 1 [Migration-related individual characteristics]: Length of stay in the receiving country, attendance in primary school in the receiving country, and first language proficiency positively predict, whereas age at migration negatively predicts destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the covariates including gender and parent's education level.

Hypothesis 2 [Family environment]: Family involvement in education and family destination language proficiency positively predict destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the effect of the covariates and migration-related individual characteristics.

Hypothesis 3 [Formal learning environment]: Classroom learning environment and/or distance learning environment positively predict destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the effect of the covariates, migration-related individual characteristics, and family environment.

4. Does the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students change when the family members' destination language proficiency differs?

Hypothesis 4: Family members' destination language proficiency moderates the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students. Families with the higher language proficiency demonstrate a stronger effect of family involvement compared to families with lower language proficiency.

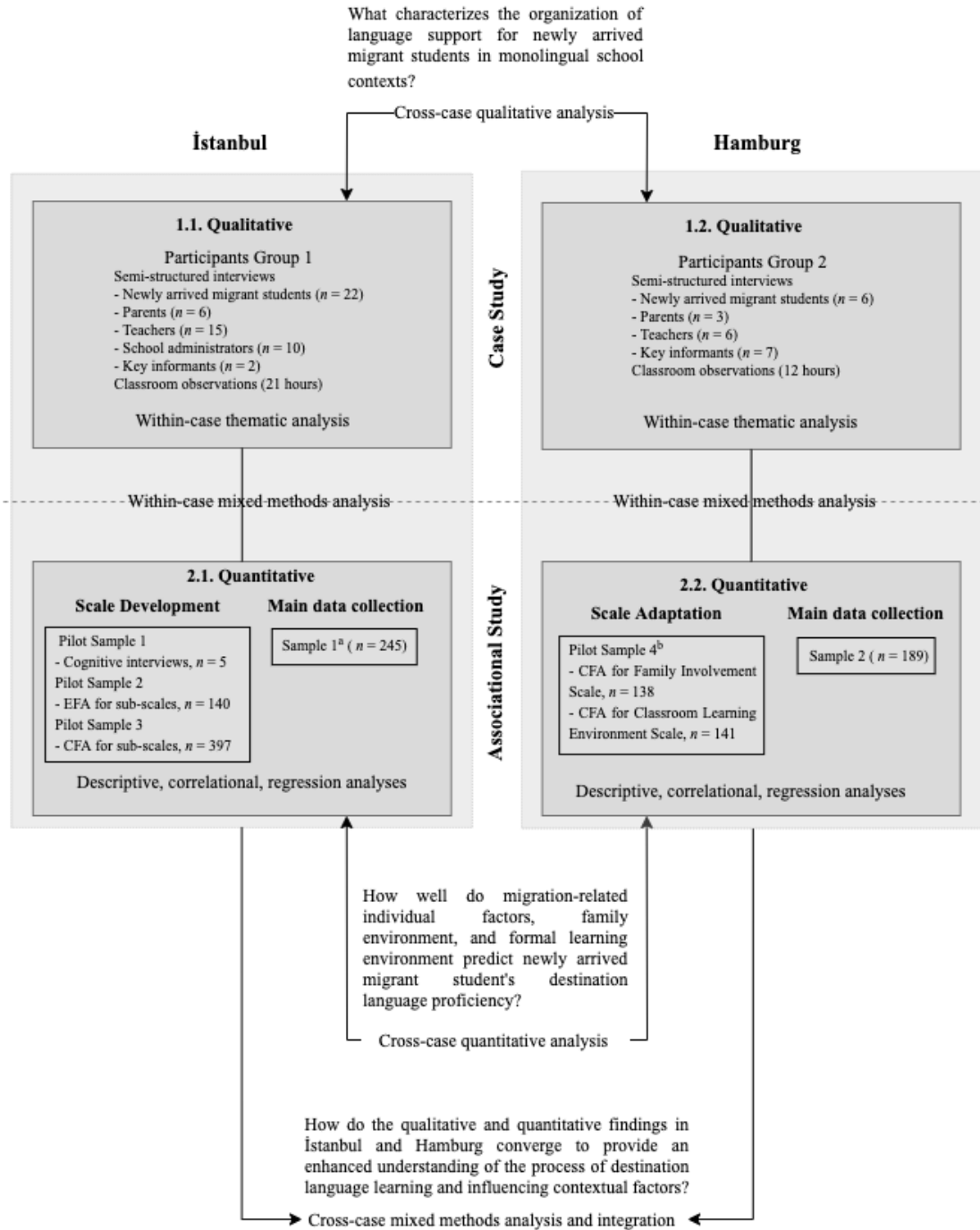
5. Does the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students change when the parents' education level differs?

Hypothesis 5: Parents' education level moderates the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students after controlling the effect of parents' destination language proficiency. Specifically, the effect of family involvement is more pronounced for parents who have attained higher levels of education in comparison to parents with lower levels of education.

6. How do the qualitative and quantitative findings in İstanbul and Hamburg converge to provide an enhanced understanding of destination language learning and influencing contextual factors?

Figure 7 demonstrates the research steps sequentially with an overview of research questions, data sources, analyses, and points of interface between qualitative and quantitative findings.

Mixed Methods Convergent Comparative Design



^aSample 1 is a sub-sample of Pilot Sample 3.

^bPilot Sample 4 is a sub-sample of Sample 2.

Figure 7

Research Steps with Questions, Data Sources, and Analyses

3.2. Sampling

The study involved five distinct groups. This section introduces the qualitative participants and quantitative samples in İstanbul (IST) and Hamburg (HAM) with their general characteristics and selection methods.

3.2.1. Participants in the Qualitative Study

I obtained qualitative data using two different groups of participants: İstanbul case ($n = 55$) and Hamburg ($n = 22$). Semi-structured interviews were conducted in İstanbul with Syrian refugee students, their parents, teachers, school administrators, and key informants. Similarly, the participants in Hamburg involved newly arrived migrant students, parents, teachers, and key informants to share their experiences and perspectives on the German language education programs – International Preparatory Classes (IPCs). Table 1 illustrates the overview of qualitative interview samples with the number of participants, total interview duration, and length of the transcribed text.

Table 1

Overview of Interview Participants in the Qualitative Study

Interview Participants	İstanbul (IST) Case			Hamburg (HAM) Case		
	<i>n</i>	Interview (Min.)	Transcription ^a	<i>n</i>	Interview (Min.)	Transcription
Parents	6	80.07	23	3	47.01	6
Students	22	204.56	106	6	91.65	24
Teachers	15	400.52	141	6	252.77	77
Administrators	10	245.03	73	-	-	-
Key Informants	2	55.76	15	7	251.29	72
Case Total	55	985.94	358	22	642.72	179
	Participants		Interview (Min.)	Transcription (Page)		
Overall Total	77		1628.7	537		

^a Transcription: A4 pages with 1.5 line spacing

The participants were selected purposively using criterion and maximum sampling (Miles & Huberman, 1994) from the schools in both contexts which contained a high number of newly arrived migrant students. Having multiple sources of information in İstanbul and Hamburg allowed me to understand the holistic characteristics of the ecology of destination language education in these two monolingual school contexts and to assess the consistency of the findings through methods triangulation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In addition to the interview data, I conducted observations in purposefully sampled Turkish and German language support courses in İstanbul and

Hamburg. The schools were in Sultanbeyli ($n = 3$) and Sancaktepe ($n = 1$) districts in İstanbul, whereas I focused on a single school in Mitte district in Hamburg. In sum, I collected observation data for 21 hours in seven sessions in İstanbul and for 12 hours in five sessions in Hamburg. Table 2 presents details about the observed classrooms.

Table 2
Overview of Classroom Observation Data

Data source	Case	District	Observation	School	Observed teacher code ^a	Month / Year	Duration (Hours)	Nr. of students	
Observation	IST	Sultanbeyli	Observation 1	IST – SU1	1.1.1_T1TP	05/2019	2	8	
			Observation 2	IST – SU1	1.1.1_T1TP	05/2019	2	8	
			Observation 3	IST – SU1	1.1.1_T2TP	05/2019	2	5	
			Observation 4	IST – SU1	1.1.1_T2TP	05/2019	2	8	
			Observation 5	IST – SU2	1.1.1_T4CP	05/2019	3	9	
			Observation 6	IST – SU4	1.1.1_T5CP	10/2019	5	23	
		Sancaktepe	Observation 7	IST – SA2	1.1.3_T12CP	03/2020	5	16	
	Total							21	
	HAM	Mitte	Observation 1	HH – M1	1.2.3_T5	09-10/2021	2	10	
			Observation 2	HH – M1	1.2.3_T5	09-10/2021	2	11	
			Observation 3	HH – M1	1.2.3_T5	09-10/2021	4	10	
			Observation 4	HH – M1	1.2.3_T6	09-10/2021	2	4	
Observation 5			HH – M1	1.2.3_T6	09-10/2021	2	4		
Total							12		

^a Salient characteristics of the teachers are demonstrated in Appendix C.

Teacher Participants: The teacher interviewees ($n = 21$) included language teachers in pull-out language support classrooms ($n = 10$ IST, $n = 6$ HAM) and subject teachers ($n = 5$ IST) in mainstream classrooms. I had semi-structured interviews with 15 teachers in Sultanbeyli and Sancaktepe districts, who were distributed in nine schools ($n = 5$ Sultanbeyli, $n = 4$ Sancaktepe). The Hamburg sample involved only the German language teachers ($n = 6$) in the IPCs in three schools. See Table 20 in Appendix C for more salient characteristics of the teachers.

School Administrator Participants: The administrators ($n = 10$) were school principals and vice-principals in İstanbul. They were managing public schools in Sultanbeyli ($n = 4$) and Sancaktepe ($n = 3$) districts, which had high number of Syrian refugee students. The Hamburg sample did not include any school administrators because each school had an IPC coordinator or a teacher who was mainly responsible for the organization of destination language support. Hence, the school administrators were not reached out for interviews. Instead, the interview questions on organizational aspect in Hamburg were discussed with the IPC teachers.

See Table 21 in Appendix C for the characteristics of the school administrators in İstanbul case.

Student participants: The student interviewees ($n = 28$) were sampled from the newly arrived migrant students in pull-out language support classrooms ($n = 10$ IST, $n = 1$ HAM) and in mainstreamed regular classrooms ($n = 12$ IST, $n = 5$ HAM). The students in İstanbul sample were in five schools ($n = 4$ Sultanbeyli, $n = 1$ Sancaktepe). The two student interviews in Hamburg were conducted in a school setting, but the rest of the participants were accessed through an NGO based in Harburg district. See Table 22 in Appendix C for the characteristics of the student interviewees.

Parent participants: The parent interviewees ($n = 9$) were refugee parents whose students were either still attending pull-out language courses ($n = 6$ Sultanbeyli/IST) or completed the language program or mainstreamed in regular classrooms ($n = 3$ Harburg/HAM). The parents were selected purposively according to suggestions of the language teachers in İstanbul and of the NGO representative in Hamburg because it was important to identify informant-rich parents who were familiar with the topic and was able to recount their lived-experiences. See Table 23 in Appendix C for the characteristics of the parent interviewees.

Key informants: The key informants ($n = 9$) were academics, researchers (i.e., PhD students) and policymakers who were intensively engaged in the education of refugees and newly arrived migrants in İstanbul and Hamburg. The academics and PhD students had considerable experience on the inclusion of the newly arrived migrant students in public schools. They were either conducting research on their inclusion process in the public schools ($n = 2$ IST, $n = 1$ Berlin) or on the IPC system in Hamburg ($n = 4$). The policymakers were two coordinators at Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung (*BSB – School and Vocational Training Authority*) who were mainly responsible for organizing IPCs in Hamburg. See Table 24 in Appendix C for the characteristics of the key informants.

In all group of participants, the data were collected from the sampled units until no new information was forthcoming; that is to say, redundancy, as suggested by

Lincoln and Guba (1985), was the major criterion in determining the sample size in the qualitative phase.

3.2.2. *Sampling in the Quantitative Study*

The participants in the quantitative study contributed to develop and validate the quantitative data collection instruments and answer the quantitative research questions. Studies focusing on immigrants, particularly asylum seekers and refugees, frequently encounter a lack of a well-defined sampling frame, posing difficulties in employing random sampling and obtaining a representative sample (Bloch, 2007). Consequently, researchers frequently resort to nonprobability sampling methods to address this limitation (Enticott et al., 2017). The newly arrived migrant students in this study, especially refugee background students in İstanbul, represent a group who are often defined in social sciences and public health studies as hard-to-reach population (Kühne et al., 2019; Suarez-Orozco, 2019). To reach a sample that can be as representative as possible, I used a combination of criterion and snowball sampling methods to include the newly arrived migrant students who arrived in İstanbul or Hamburg within the last six years and had undergone Turkish or German language learning experience in formal school contexts.

Every attempt was diligently made to maximize participant recruitment, while considering the limitations posed by available resources and time constraints. Table 3 presents an overview of the samples with their respective purposes and number of participants.

Table 3
Overview of the Quantitative Samples

Samples	<i>n</i>	Purpose
Pilot Sample 1	5	Conduct cognitive interviews with newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul to assess the clarity of the items in the questionnaire.
Pilot Sample 2	140	Conduct exploratory factor analyses (EFA) for the scales in İstanbul.
Pilot Sample 3	397	Conduct confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) for the scales in İstanbul.
Sample 1^a	245	Answer the quantitative research questions in İstanbul.
Pilot Sample 4 ^b	138	Conduct CFA for Family Involvement Scale in Hamburg
	141	Conduct CFA for Classroom Learning Environment Scale in Hamburg
Sample 2	189	Answer the quantitative research questions in Hamburg.

^a Sample 1 is a sub-sample of Pilot Sample 3.

^b Pilot Sample 4 is a sub-sample of Sample 2

Pilot Sample 1 ($n = 5$): This pilot group was used to conduct cognitive interviews with the newly arrived migrant students to assess the items' clarity in the questionnaire. Subsequently, the instrument was revised, with certain questions being added, omitted, or modified. The students ($n = 5$) were selected among the Syrian students attending a general lower secondary school in the Sancaktepe district of İstanbul. The number of boys in the cognitive interviews ($n = 4$) outnumbered the girls ($n = 1$). The majority were studying in grade 5 whereas only one student was at grade 8. The students were consecutively at ages 11 ($n = 2$), 13 ($n = 2$), and 14 ($n = 1$).

Pilot Sample 2 ($n = 140$): After the cognitive interviews, the data were collected online from 243 newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul to develop and validate the Classroom Learning Environment Scale (CLES) and Family Involvement Scale (FIS) through exploratory factor analyses. After a rigorous data screening for careless responding, this sample reduced to 140 cases.

Of the newly arrived migrant students in the sample, the number of girls ($n = 74$, 52.9%, $M_{age} = 12.07$, $SD = 1.64$) were a little higher than boys ($n = 66$, 47.1%, $M_{age} = 11.56$, $SD = 1.41$). Most of the participants ($n = 136$, 97.1%) were born in Syria. They were sampled from general lower secondary schools ($n = 92$, 65.7%) and religious lower secondary schools ($n = 48$, 34.3%). In terms of grade distribution, around one third of the students were enrolled in grade 5 ($n = 45$, 32.1%) and grade 6 ($n = 42$, 30.0%), with fewer students in grade 7 ($n = 26$, 18.6%) and grade 8 ($n = 27$, 19.3%). The majority resided in the following districts: Sultanbeyli ($n = 45$, 32.1%), Fatih ($n = 34$, 24.3%), Sultangazi ($n = 32$, 22.9%), Sancaktepe ($n = 17$, 12.1%), Ümraniye ($n = 4$, 2.9%). These districts collectively accounted for 94.3% of the total sample.

Pilot Sample 3 ($n = 397$): This sample was used to conduct CFA for the scales in İstanbul. 818 newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul completed the online questionnaire. After screening the data for careless responding, the data was reduced to 397 cases. Syrian students made up the majority (90.9%, $n = 361$) of the sample while the rest (9.1%, $n = 36$) were from Saudi Arabia, Egypt, United Arab Emirates, or Iran. The number of girls ($n = 235$, 59.2%, $M_{age} = 12.52$, $SD = 1.64$) was higher

than the boys ($n = 162$, 40.8%, $M_{age} = 12.59$, $SD = 1.61$). 57.9% of the students ($n = 230$) were registered in general lower secondary schools, whereas the remaining students ($n = 167$, 42.1%) were studying at religious lower secondary schools. The students were distributed across grades in a balanced way with 26.5% ($n = 105$) at grade 5, 22.9% ($n = 91$) at grade 6, 24.4% ($n = 97$), and 26.2% ($n = 104$) at grade 8. The sample involved participants from 26 districts in İstanbul, which provided a diverse sample for analysis. Notably, they were primarily located in Esenyurt ($n = 105$, 26.5%), Bağcılar ($n = 42$, 10.6%), Arnavutköy ($n = 35$, 8.8%), Avcılar ($n = 32$, 8.1%), Küçükçekmece ($n = 27$, 6.8%), Fatih ($n = 25$, 6.3%), and Kağıthane ($n = 25$, 6.3%).

Pilot Sample 4 ($n = 138$ Family Involvement Scale, $n = 141$ Classroom Learning Environment Scale, Hamburg): Pilot Sample 4 in Hamburg was formed as a sub-sample of Sample 2 by utilizing the complete cases. This sample was used to conduct CFA for the scales adapted into German. It exhibited the characteristics of Sample 2 described below in detail.

Sample 1 ($n = 245$ İstanbul) and Sample 2 ($n = 189$ Hamburg): These samples involved the newly arrived migrant students who were enrolled in lower secondary schools in İstanbul or Hamburg and arrived in Turkey/Germany no later than six years ago prior to the study. These samples were bounded with the duration of length to better understand the relationship between contextual factors and language proficiency of the students by isolating time spent in the receiving context at a defined threshold value. Due to that criterion, Sample 1 in İstanbul ($n = 245$) was formed as a sub-sample of Pilot Sample 3 ($n = 397$), which comprised the newly arrived migrant students after filtering out those who did not meet the length of stay criterion. These samples were mainly used to address the quantitative research questions. Table 4 presents key demographic characteristics of İstanbul and Hamburg samples comparatively.

The newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul had a mean age of 12.51 years, with a standard deviation of 1.64. This indicates that the majority of students fell within the age range of 10.87 to 14.15 years, with some degree of variation around the mean age.

Table 4*Distribution of Sample 1 and Sample 2 by Demographics*

Variable	Sample 1 İstanbul (<i>n</i> = 245)				Sample 2 Hamburg (<i>n</i> = 189)			
	Range	Missing %	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range	Missing %	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	[9 – 15]	0.0	12.51	1.64	[10 – 15]	0.5	12.88	1.46
Age at migration	[3 – 13]	0.0	7.79	2.26	[4 – 15]	10.1	9.11	3.44
Length of stay (in years)	[1 – 6]	0.0	4.60	1.31	[0 – 6]	1.1	3.37	2.41

Variable	Sample 1 İstanbul (<i>n</i> = 245)			Sample 2 Hamburg (<i>n</i> = 189)		
	Missing %	<i>n</i>	%	Missing %	<i>n</i>	%
Gender	0.0			4.2		
Girl		96	39.2		96	50.8
Boy		149	60.8		73	38.6
Prefer not to answer					12	6.3
Country of origin				1.1		
Syria		222	91.0		54	28.6
Afghanistan					21	11.1
Poland					11	5.8
Ghana					9	4.8
Iran		1	0.40		9	4.8
Iraq					9	4.8
Bulgaria					7	3.7
Turkey					6	3.2
Italy					5	2.6
Russia					5	2.6
Others ^{a,b}		22	8.60		51	26.9
School type in İstanbul	0.0					
General lower secondary		140	57.1			
Religious lower secondary		105	42.9			
School type in Hamburg				0.5		
Stadtteilschule					158	83.6
Gymnasium					30	15.9
District of residence in İstanbul	0.0					
Esenyurt		76	31.0			
Avcılar		30	12.2			
Arnavutköy		23	9.4			
Bağcılar		18	7.3			
Kağıthane		17	6.9			
Fatih		14	5.7			
Küçükçekmece		14	5.7			
Others ^c		53	21.8			
District of residence in Hamburg				4.8		
Altona					9	4.8
Bergedorf					18	9.5
Hamburg-Mitte					24	12.7
Hamburg-Nord					6	3.2
Harburg					18	9.5
Wandsbek					105	55.6

^a Other countries of origin in İstanbul include Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates.^b Other countries of origin in Hamburg include Albania, Argentina, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brazil, Burma, Croatia, Czechia, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Eritrea, Greece, India, Kazakhstan, Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Nigeria, Peru, Philippines, Portugal, Serbia, Somalia, Spain, Ukraine, and Vietnam.^c Other districts of residence in İstanbul include Adalar, Bahçelievler, Bakırköy, Başakşehir, Beylikdüzü, Büyükçekmece, Esenler, Gaziosmanpaşa, Güngören, Şile, Sultanbeyli, Sultangazi, Tuzla, Ümraniye, Üsküdar, Zeytinburnu

In Hamburg, the mean age of newly arrived migrant students was 12.88 years, with a standard deviation of 1.46. This suggests that most students were between the ages of 11.42 and 14.34 years. Regarding their age at migration, the data revealed that newly arrived migrant students in the İstanbul sample had an average age at migration of 7.79 years with a standard deviation of 2.26. In the Hamburg sample, the mean age at migration was 9.11 years with a standard deviation of 3.44. The students in the İstanbul sample on average had a length of stay of 4.60 years, while it was 3.37 years in the Hamburg sample.

Regarding the gender distribution, 60.8% of the İstanbul sample were boys. In the Hamburg sample, the number of girls was higher with 50.8%. The participants in İstanbul had homogenous background with 91% Syrian-born students ($n = 222$). Over one fourth of the Hamburg sample included Syrian-born students (28.6%, $n = 54$), but the sample at the same time reflected the diverse ethnic background in Hamburg context with 35 different countries of origin.

The participants were distributed in a balanced way between general lower secondary ($n = 140$, 57.1%) and religious lower secondary schools ($n = 103$, 42.9) in İstanbul. In Hamburg sample, the majority of the students ($n = 158$, 83.6%) were enrolled in the *Stadtteilschule* (i.e., district schools leading to different qualifications), whereas only 15.9% of the participants ($n = 30$) were involved in *Gymnasiums* (i.e., academic track), which aims at the general higher education entrance qualification.

In both İstanbul and Hamburg, the study sampled participants from various districts within the respective cities. Table 4 presents the distribution of the students' district of residence in each city.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

The multiple qualitative and quantitative research phases required a wide array of data collection tools to grasp the ecology of the language organization and corroborate the findings through methods triangulation. The qualitative instruments included a classroom observation protocol and semi-structured interview schedules for different groups of participants across İstanbul and Hamburg. The quantitative

instruments included a comprehensive questionnaire on contextual determinants and self-reported language proficiencies. This section first introduces the qualitative data collection tools and then elaborates on the quantitative instruments.

3.3.1. Data Collection Tools in the Qualitative Study

The data collection in the qualitative phase drew on two unique and original data sets: semi-structured interviews and classroom observations.

3.3.1.1. Semi-structured Interview Schedules

I developed semi-structured interview schedules for *a)* teachers, *b)* school administrators, *c)* newly arrived migrant students, *d)* parents, and *e)* key informants. Posing open-ended questions in the form of semi-structured interviews allowed the participants to describe detailed personal experiences and provide rich information, which could not be directly observed or inferred from any quantitative instruments (Creswell, 2015). The interview schedules and consent forms were prepared in Turkish and German. In some cases where the interviewee or I communicated better in English, I translated the interview schedules or some questions verbatim from Turkish or German to English. See Appendix A for the interview schedules in İstanbul and Hamburg.

The semi-structured interview schedules were thematized to clarify the theoretical constructs and formulate the interview questions accordingly (Kvale, 2007). Leading questions and probes were developed and finalized after expert reviews from the advisors and the members of the thesis examining committee. The interview schedules started with a set of questions on socio-demographic characteristics of the interviewees. Then they were customized according to target group of participants in a way to reflect their experiences and perceptions about the organization of language support.

The teacher interview schedule included questions about the teachers' professional background and readiness, perceptions about the characteristics of the newly arrived migrant students in their schools and classrooms, the language curriculum organization and instructional strategies, and their interaction with parents. The

school administrators were asked about their school profile, views about the inclusion of the newly arrived migrant students into public schools and their roles in this transition, the language needs, extracurricular activities offered in the schools, and parental involvement. The key informant interview schedules focused on macro policies in İstanbul and Hamburg about the inclusion of the newly arrived migrant students into public schools and the organization of language support, factors affecting their language proficiency, and comparison of different group of migrant children (i.e., regular migrant students vs. forcibly displaced students) and their language needs.

With respect to the newly arrived migrant students themselves and their parents, the interview schedules included questions on their pre-migration, trans-migration, and post-migration experiences that are likely to influence students' language learning processes. The interview questions for students were specifically clustered around their prior education, literacy in the mother tongues, language choices in daily lives and classroom environments, and language learning experiences as well as classroom environment and instructional strategies. The parent interview schedule had set of questions on families' flight from their home countries to arrival into the receiving society, their support on children's education in this transition, family language planning, perceptions about the language support in schools, and aspirations for the future.

3.3.1.2. Classroom Observation Protocol

The second qualitative data source was classroom observation protocol through which I gathered open-ended firsthand information as a nonparticipant observer by conducting observation in language support classes in İstanbul and Hamburg. The observation protocol comprised of dimensions to take field notes on the language instructional strategies including teaching approaches and methods, instructional strategies, use of materials, students' interaction and language choice with their teachers and peers. See Appendix A for the dimensions of the classroom observation protocol.

3.3.2. Data Collection Tools in the Quantitative Study

To cover the three main dimensions of the ecological framework regarding the contextual variables that may influence the destination language proficiency, I developed a questionnaire including a range of indicators in line with the qualitative findings on the migration-related individual characteristics, family environment, and formal learning environment. In addition, the questionnaire involved an item formulated to measure student's self-reported Turkish or German proficiency as the outcome variable. Table 5 details the outcome variable, covariates, and migration-related individual characteristics as well as an overview of the family and formal learning environment measures.

3.3.2.1. Family Environment

The family environment involves the variables to measure the family members' destination language proficiency and their involvement in the student's education.

Family Language Proficiency. The family members' destination language proficiencies were measured through three items. The students were asked to self-report how well their mother, father, and sibling(s) perform in the basic four skills (i.e., reading, listening, speaking, and writing) in Turkish or German. The scores ranged from 0 "not at all/she/he/they doesn't/don't know at all" to 4 "very well" on a Likert scale. If the students did not have one of the family members, they were asked to skip the respective question. In that case, the item was scored as 0 because it was supposed that the students would still not benefit from the corresponding family member's language proficiency. When the student had more than one sibling, they were guided to report considering the high proficient siblings.

In the İstanbul sample ($n = 245$), the Likert scales demonstrated high internal consistencies with Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of .95 for mother, .93 for father, and .96 for sibling(s). Similarly, the Likert scales in the Hamburg sample ($n = 189$) showed strong internal consistencies as indicated with Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of .92 for mother, .96 for father, and .96 for sibling(s).

Table 5*Overview of Variables in the Quantitative Study*

Name	Definition
Outcome variable	
Self-reported Turkish or German language proficiency	Composite score of students' self-reporting on how well they can read, listen, speak, and write in Turkish or German. Response categories range from 0 "not at all" to 4 "very well" (İstanbul, $\alpha = .95$, $n = 245$; Hamburg, $\alpha = .77$, $n = 189$).
Covariates	
Gender	Measures as 0 "Boy", 1 "Girl", 2 "Prefer not to answer".
Mother's education level	Highest education degree of parents. Distinguishes between 0 "none/primary", 1 "lower secondary", 2 "High school", 3 "Associate degree", 4 "University".
Father's education level	
Migration-related Individual Characteristics	
Age at migration	Measured in years.
Length of stay	Measured in years. Refers to the number of years in Turkey / Germany.
Attending primary school	Indicates whether students attended primary school in Turkey / Germany with 0 "No" and 1 "Yes".
First language proficiency	Composite score of the student's self-reporting on how well they can read, listen, speak, and write in their first languages. Response categories range from 0 "not at all" to 4 "very well" (İstanbul, $\alpha = .89$, $n = 245$; Hamburg, $\alpha = .79$, $n = 189$).
Family Environment	
<i>Family Language Proficiency</i>	Composite score of the student's self-reporting separately on how well their mother, father, and siblings can read, listen, speak, and write Turkish or German. Response categories range from 0 "not at all" to 4 "very well".
<i>Family Involvement in Education</i>	Refers to the supportive framework and behavioral patterns within home environment. Measured with a scale developed in this study. Assessed the extent the family members provide facilitating structures at home, interact with school, and engage in school-related tasks.
Formal Learning Environment	
<i>Classroom Learning Environment</i>	Pertains to the institutional learning environment where newly arrived migrant students were exposed to language instruction and its use in language support programs and mainstream classes. Measured with a scale adapted from the learning environment questionnaire "What Is Happening In This Classroom?" (WIHIC) (Fraser et al., 1996; Telli et al., 2006). Focused on teacher support, cooperation among students, and equity in classroom.
<i>Distance Learning Environment</i>	Revised version of the Classroom Learning Environment Scale to measure distance learning environment during COVID-19 pandemic in İstanbul. Elaborated on the teacher support, cooperation, and equity during distance learning environment.

Family Involvement Scale (FIS). The newly arrived migrant students are more likely to live in extended families in which students may be supported not only by their immediate family members but also other members living in the same home including their siblings and relatives. In addition, some children (e.g.,

unaccompanied minors) may have to live with a legal guardian or a caretaker. The available instruments either assess whether school includes parents in meaningful ways or parents' perceptions of their involvement (e.g., Salinas et al. (2009); PISA parent questionnaire (OECD, 2019a)) or only emphasizes parental involvement that may exclude some newly arrived migrant students without parents.

In line with the qualitative findings, Family Involvement Scale (FIS) was developed in the present study to measure the degree of family involvement in education from the newly arrived migrant students' own perception. Table 6 presents FIS dimensions, expected behaviors, and corresponding number of items and Cronbach's Alpha values.

Table 6
Dimensions of FIS, Definitions, and Number of Items

Dimension	Expected family behaviors	#Items	Cronbach's Alpha	
			IST	HAM
Establishing facilitating structures (EFS)	Providing space for achieving homework; specifying regular times for homework; protecting student from distraction; controlling homework processes.	4	.83	.68
Interacting with the school (IWT)	Communicating with the teacher about student performance and progress; meeting school requests related to homework; creating mutual home-school goals for student outcomes.	4	.71	.65
Engaging in school-related tasks (EST)	Reviewing and correcting homework; teaching student in direct, structured, or convergent ways (e.g., teaching strategies); teaching student using less direct, more informal methods (e.g., responding to questions, following student lead)	4	.87	.82
FIS		12	.89	.86

Note. The number of items and Cronbach's Alpha values are based on the confirmatory factor analyses results in İstanbul and Hamburg.

The constructs were based on the comprehensive review study by Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2001) that reveals categories and behavioral patterns of parental involvement in homework. After the confirmatory factor analyses in İstanbul and Hamburg, this Likert scale had a three-factor structure with 12 items rated on a frequency from "always" to "never". The scale focused on establishing facilitating structures at home, interacting with school, and engaging in school-related tasks.

3.3.2.2. Learning Environment Scales

Learning Environment Scales had two sub-scales to measure face-to-face learning environment through classroom learning environment scale and the learning experiences during COVID-19 (only in İstanbul) through distance learning environment scale.

Classroom Learning Environment Scale (CLES). Face-to-face learning environment was measured with CLES, containing five category ordered response ranging from “always” to “never”. Table 7 shows the structure of the CLES. This Likert scale is the revised short version of 56-item seven-factor scale “What’s Happening In This Classroom?” (WIHIC) which was developed by Fraser et al. (1996) and adapted into Turkish by Telli et al. (2006). The instrument has been cross-culturally validated (e.g., Aldridge & Fraser, 2000; Dorman, 2003) and widely used in research on learning environment in various disciplines (e.g., Den Brok et al., 2010; Wolf & Fraser, 2008).

Table 7
Dimensions of CLES, Definitions, and Number of Items

Dimension	Definition	#Items	Cronbach’s Alpha	
			IST	HAM
Teacher support (TS)	Encompasses the degree to which the teacher assists, befriends, and shows interest in students.	3	.78	.84
Cooperation (CO)	Focuses on the extent to which students cooperate with each other on learning tasks.	3	.75	.54
Equity (EQ)	Reflects the extent to which students are treated equally by the teacher.	4	.86	.87
CLES		11	.82	.85

Note. The number of items and Cronbach’s Alpha values are based on the confirmatory factor analyses results in İstanbul and Hamburg.

Given the most pressing issues for the newly arrived migrant students, three factors were adapted from the Turkish version of WIHIC covering teacher support, cooperation, and equity constructs. As a result of the factor analyses in İstanbul and Hamburg, the final version of the CLES contained 10 items in the assumed three latent constructs.

Distance Learning Environment Scale (DLES). An additional question on the students' distance learning environment was considered necessary due to the prolonged school closures during COVID-19 pandemic in İstanbul. The aim of this new question was to measure the participants' distance learning experiences. Considering the age of the target group, I did not include a new scale on distance learning to avoid further cognitive load. Since the students would be already familiar with CLES, minor revisions were carried out in its leading statement and the items in a way to enable students to reflect on their experiences during distance learning or online classes. In formulating this new question, only one item from the dimension of cooperation in CLES was omitted, which referred to students' sharing resources within face-to-face classroom learning environment. Table 8 shows the details of 10-item DLES in İstanbul and the corresponding Cronbach's Alpha values.

Table 8
Dimensions of DLES, Definitions, and Number of Items

Dimension	Definition	#Items	Cronbach's Alpha (IST)
Distance Teacher support (DTS)	Encompasses the degree to which the teacher assists, befriends, and shows interest in students during online classes.	3	.81
Distance Cooperation (DCO)	Focuses on the extent to which students cooperate with each other on learning tasks during online classes.	3	.82
Distance Equity (DEQ)	Reflects the extent to which students are treated equally by the teacher during online classes.	4	.89
DLES		10	.87

Note. The number of items and Cronbach's Alpha values are based on the confirmatory factor analyses result in İstanbul.

Because DLES was not validated in the pilot phase, a confirmatory factor analysis was run with a sub-sample of main data in İstanbul. In the Hamburg sample, this variable was not included to answer the main analysis because the formal learning environment was only characterized by the face-to-face classroom learning environment in Hamburg.

3.4. Trustworthiness, Validity, and Reliability

The peculiarities of the research design and the variety of data collection tools required employing different strategies to ensure the trustworthiness of the

qualitative findings and validity and reliability of the quantitative data collection tools. This section first specifies strategies to support the rigor in the qualitative study. The second part focuses on the validation process of the quantitative instruments including pilot samples and details on the factor analyses for the scales.

3.4.1. Trustworthiness of the Qualitative Study

I followed Lincoln and Guba's (1985) strategies to establish the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of my qualitative findings.

Credibility is concerned with the congruency of the findings with reality (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), which can be recognized by the experienced researchers or readers when they confront it (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). I demonstrated the credibility of the qualitative findings through prolonged and varied engagement with the field by collecting data during an extended period from Spring 2019 to Fall 2021 in three rounds in each case. The data triangulation was employed to check out the consistency of the findings through different data collection methods (i.e., interviews and classroom observations).

To achieve transferability that refers to the applicability of patterns and descriptions from one context to another (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), I provided thick descriptions through rich contextual information about the destination language learning processes in İstanbul and Hamburg, detailed operational description of the interview participants, research sites, data collection process, and time frame of the study (see Appendix C).

Dependability, which is analogous to reliability in positivist paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1989), was ensured through audit trail of the field work by developing a detailed track record of the data collection process. This process was open to the advisors and members of the thesis committee, in which they could examine the documentation of data, method decisions, and final qualitative report (Tobin & Begley, 2004). In addition, my thesis committee advised on the interviewing process by providing expert feedback on the interview schedules.

Confirmability assures that the findings are rooted in contexts and persons involved rather than the researcher's imagination or biased interpretation (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). To ensure it, I always kept reflexive analytic voice and written memos throughout the data collection and analysis process. In addition, I had regular debriefing sessions with my advisors on the research process and interpretation of the findings.

Despite the above-mentioned strategies that were employed to validate my findings, it should be noted that the qualitative research is interpretive in nature and context-bound (Creswell, 2015; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; Yin, 2018). All findings should be approached regarding the social milieu in each context, the constructivist perspective, and the researcher subjectivity.

3.4.2. Validating Quantitative Data Collection Tools

This section presents the validation process of the scales used in the quantitative study. It involves data screening steps, criteria used in factor analysis, and the validation results.

3.4.2.1. Data Screening for Factor Analysis

Factor analyses were conducted using three sets of data. Pilot Sample 2 was used to conduct EFA for Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale in İstanbul. Then these scales and the Distance Learning Environment Scale were validated through CFA using Pilot Sample 3 in İstanbul. In Hamburg, the scales were validated using Pilot Sample 4. The datasets were screened for missing data, careless responding, outliers, and assumptions relevant to factor analyses. The following sections present the findings of these screening processes.

Careless Responding. The quantitative data were collected online in İstanbul due to COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, it was important to make sure that the data were collected from the right target group in a valid and reliable way. The survey literature shows that survey length and environmental distraction are among the major factors influencing careless responding (Meade & Craig, 2012). According to Krosnick (1991), satisficing occurs when respondents tend to seek cognitive shortcuts leading

to less-than optimal responding which is indicated through straightlining (i.e., choosing answers in the same column) or non-differentiation especially in grid or matrix questions (Bethlehem & Biffignandi, 2011; Schonlau & Toepoel, 2015). Therefore, detecting careless responding, particularly in online surveys, was important to avoid spurious within-group variability and lower reliability (Clark et al., 2003), which may deteriorate correlations and result in Type II errors in hypothesis testing (Meade & Craig, 2012).

In addition to univariate and multivariate outlier analyses, *ex ante* and *post hoc* methods were applied to data screening in the quantitative İstanbul samples to identify any careless response. *Ex ante* methods refer to attention check questions which are special items or scales to be included into a questionnaire prior to its administration (Meade & Craig, 2012; Shamon & Berning, 2020). As *ex ante* method in the present study, four explicitly instructed attention check items asking the respondents to choose a specific answer from the scale were developed and embedded into the questionnaire. All attention check items had a clear single correct answer. They should not have missed by the respondents who were not random speeding, read the questions carefully, and put adequate effort in the task (Beach, 1989).

The first attention check item is a multiple-choice bogus item placed in the middle of the questionnaire asking: “Which of the following is a fruit?” with three options as “potato”, “onion”, and “none of them”. Attentive respondents were expected to choose “none of them”. The second attention check item is an instructed response item placed in the middle of the Likert type Classroom Learning Environment Scale asking the respondents: “Please, choose ‘always’ for this statement”. Any respondents selecting other than “always” failed this attention check. Similarly, the third attention check item is also an instructed response item placed in the middle of the Likert type Distance Learning Environment Scale asking the respondents: “Please, choose ‘sometimes for this statement”. Family Involvement Scale included the fourth attention check item asking the respondents: “Please, choose ‘often’ for this statement”.

As post hoc methods, the respondents were screened for their geographic location, response time to the questionnaire, and consistencies among the questions after the data collection.

- **GEO IP:** The online questionnaire in İstanbul was administered through Qualtrics®, which provides estimates of location data based on respondent's IP address. Responses from the other cities in Turkey were thus accepted as invalid results and excluded from the Pilot Sample 2 in the pilot phase. During main data collection, the questionnaire was terminated at the very beginning when the respondents indicated another city than İstanbul as their main city of residence. Therefore, this criterion was not applied in Pilot Sample 3 in İstanbul.
- **Minimum response time:** Speeding in online surveys is defined responding too fast to pay attention to answers and occurs when participants arbitrarily choose a response option and proceed without reading the question (Zhang & Conrad, 2014). A careful estimation of the amount of time to produce the optimal response can be regarded as a way to flag speeding (Zhang & Conrad, 2014). In this study, the completion time for all respondents who successfully submitted the questionnaire was examined. As the system allowed respondents resume the study at a later time, some respondents would bookmark the page and later return to the study at their own convenience. Since the elapsed time on the questionnaire may significantly vary due to the variance in respondents' language skills, the minimum elapsed time was calculated by employing a simple measure of speeding. Carver (1992) identifies the typical reading speed among young adults for comprehension as 200 milliseconds (msec) per word. Considering target group in the present study, the speeding threshold was set 300 msec per word to detect respondents whose response times are faster than likely reading times (Zhang & Conrad, 2014). All in all, the minimum response time was estimated by multiplying the number of words in the questionnaire with 300 msec.
- **Age consistency index (ACI):** In order to check the respondents' consistent behavior and if data were collected from the right target group, an age

consistency index was formed based on the different age-related items and items asking about specific number of years in the questionnaire. In this respect, the participants were asked to indicate three different numbers including their *current age*, *age at migration*, and *the number of years in the receiving country*. These numbers were expected to be consistent. The consistency among years were calculated as follows:

$$ACI = age_c - (age_m + ny)$$

where age_c is the current age, age_m is the age at migration, and ny is the number of years in the receiving country. If $-2 \leq ACI \leq 2$, the case was regarded as a valid response.

In a nutshell, the quantitative data in İstanbul were screened initially for careless responding to have a more reliable data set for the subsequent analyses. Specifically, 311 students started to respond the questionnaire in Pilot Sample 2 during the pilot phase, but only 243 of them submitted it. The incomplete responses showed that 68 participants gave up completing at some point and decided not to submit. Although their partial responses were recorded and could be treated as missing data, these results were not included in data analysis due to ethical reasons because the reason why the participants dropped out of the study was not known. 243 responses were further screened for any careless responding. Figure 8 presents the steps for attention screening for 243 participants in Pilot Sample 2.

First, 15% of the cases ($n = 38$) was directly excluded from the sample, who were estimated from another city in Turkey by using GEO IP. The minimum response time for the pilot questionnaire was estimated by multiplying the number of words (i.e., 2490 words) in the questionnaire with 300 msec which resulted in 747,000 msec, equivalent to 12 minutes 45 seconds. As a result, 3.9% of the remaining cases ($n = 8$), whose elapsed time values lower than 12 minutes 45 seconds, were identified as speeding and excluded from the sample. Regarding the age consistency index, 11.16% of the remaining cases ($n = 22$) were identified to have inconsistency between their ages, age at migration, and the number of years in the receiving country. Therefore, they were excluded from the sample because they would either be giving random responses, or they were out of the target group students. In the final step, the descriptive statistics showed that 20% of the remaining cases ($n = 35$)

in İstanbul failed at all attention check items, which were placed in the questionnaire as bogus items. As a result, the multiple measurement screening resulted in 140 valid cases to proceed to the outlier check in this sample.

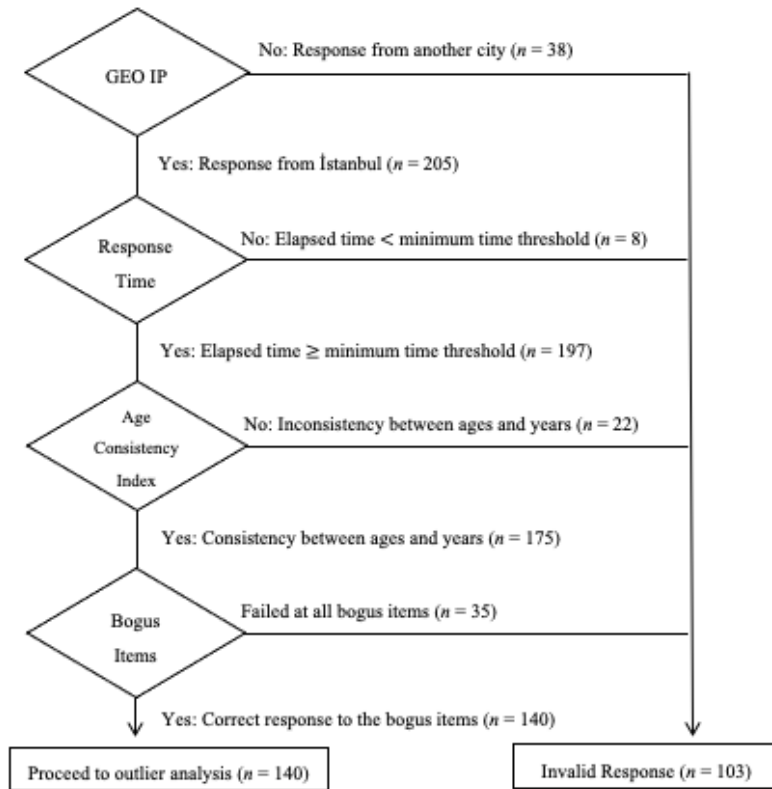


Figure 8
Attention Screening Flowchart for Pilot Sample 2 in İstanbul

The similar steps were followed to detect any careless responding for Pilot Sample 3, which was mainly used to validate the scales through CFA in İstanbul. Figure 9 shows the screening process for 818 participants in this sample. As any response from another city than İstanbul was terminated automatically, 818 responses were submitted. Although the number of words in the questionnaire did not change considerably, the minimum response time for the main questionnaire was calculated again by using the same formula employed in the pilot phase. As a result, it was estimated that the participants should spend at least 12 minutes 90 seconds to complete the questionnaire. Almost one tenth of (7.7%, $n = 63$) of the participants were identified as speeding and excluded from the sample. Of 755 remaining cases, 15.6% ($n = 118$) were detected to give inconsistent responses based on the age

consistency index. Due to the conflicting response pattern, these participants were excluded from the sample. Lastly, the descriptive statistics revealed that 240 participants failed all bogus attention check items. In the end, 397 cases were proceeded to outlier check in this sample.

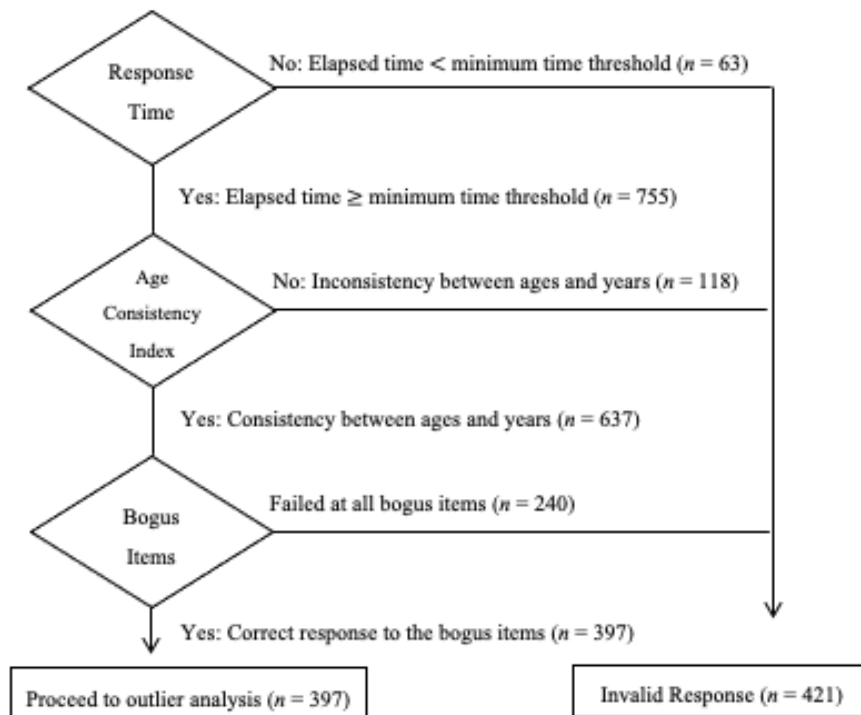


Figure 9
Attention Screening Flowchart for Pilot Sample 3 in İstanbul

Missing Data. The pilot samples in İstanbul and Hamburg were screened for missing data pattern.

Findings for Missing Data From Pilot Sample 2 and Pilot Sample 3: The online questionnaire in İstanbul enabled forced responses on some questions and items, which required participants to provide their answers before being able to continue to the next question or item. As a result, there were no missing data for any items in Family Involvement Scale, Classroom Learning Environment Scale, and Distance Learning Environment Scale in Pilot Sample 2 ($n = 140$) and Pilot Sample 3 ($n = 397$) in İstanbul case. It allowed for proceeding with these complete datasets directly for outlier analyses.

Findings for Missing Data From Pilot Sample 4: I analyzed the missing data for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale in this sample for Hamburg. I investigated it first to determine whether the data were missing completely at random (MCAR), which implies that the probability of missingness is not related to any observed or unobserved data and that the cases with missing data are drawn from the same population as the cases with complete data (Enders, 2010). I conducted Little's MCAR test (Little, 1988) to test this assumption for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale.

In the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, one fourth of the participants (25.4%, $n = 48$) missed some items in the sample. In the entire data set, 8.9% of the scores were missing. The item CLE3 (*“My teacher takes my feelings into account in class.”*) had the highest missing rate, with 12.2% ($n = 23$) of participants not responding to it. The Little's MCAR test for the whole Classroom Learning Environment Scale indicated that the missingness was MCAR, $\chi^2(163) = 171.61, p = .307$, indicating that the missing data were not patterned and were not related to any observed or unobserved data.

Similarly, 27.0% of participants ($n = 51$) did not respond to all items in Family Involvement Scale in the sample, with 11.3% of the scores missing in the entire dataset. The items with the highest missing rates were FIV11 (*“If the school requires parental involvement, my family fulfills this (e.g., checking or signing homework).”*) and FIV12 (*“My family talks to my teachers about how I can be successful in class.”*). Each had a percentage of 14.8% ($n = 28$) of participants not responding. Little's MCAR test for the whole FIS demonstrated that the missing data were MCAR, $\chi^2(204) = 202.17, p = .523$, with a non-significant test statistic showing no evidence for a pattern in the missing data.

If the MCAR assumption holds, listwise deletion (i.e., complete-case analysis) is one of the traditional approaches for handling missing data. Nonetheless, deleting incomplete data can reduce power due to decreased total sample size (Enders, 2010). In the current study, the listwise deletion reduced the sample size to 141 participants for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and 138 for the Family Involvement Scale. Despite losing one-quarter of the data, the item ratio N to the number of

variables exceeded the minimum threshold of five observed cases per variable (Gorsuch, 1983) with at least a 10:1 case-variable ratio in both scales.

Outliers. To further detect inconsistent and careless responding, the data were assessed separately for each scale in every sample for univariate outliers inspecting standardized scores (z -scores) and boxplots, and for multivariate outliers checking Mahalanobis distance and leverage values. As suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), the cases with z -scores exceeding 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) were regarded as potential univariate outliers because it is argued that about 99% of the values should remain within three standard deviations of the mean in a normally distributed data (Stevens, 2009). To detect any multivariate outliers, both Mahalanobis distance and leverage values were judged because they capture different aspects of the outlier detection. The threshold for Mahalanobis distance, which measures the distance between an observation and the center of the data regarding the correlation between variables and the variability of each variable separately, was set at a very conservative level of .001 (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The leverage value measures the impact of an observation on the regression coefficients, in which the high leverage values are considered influential points due to their effect on the regression coefficients. The cut-off values for leverage scores were determined by employing the formula of $3p/n$ (Stevens, 2009) for each scale in the samples, where p refers to the number of variables or predictors and n indicates the number of participants. Any score greater than the result of this formula provided evidence for a potential multivariate outlier.

Findings for Outliers from Pilot Sample 2: In this sample, the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and the Family Involvement Scale in İstanbul were explored for univariate and multivariate outliers. For the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, the z -score values did not indicate any cases as potential univariate outliers. Some cases for the item CLE15 fell out of the whiskers of the box plots, which were flagged to compare with leverage scores and Mahalanobis distance values. The leverage scores for these cases remained within the critical value of .514, and the Mahalanobis distance did not identify them at the threshold value of $\chi^2(24) = 51.18$, $p = .001$. In addition, the sample did not suggest any new cases as potential multivariate outliers. As the univariate outlier cases were not visible across different

variables and were not confirmed by the available measures, no participants were excluded from this sample for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale. The Classroom Learning Environment Scale was validated with 140 cases in the next step.

Regarding the Family Involvement Scale, the items FIV13 and FIV15 were found to share univariate outliers for the cases ID68, ID69, ID72, ID91, and ID92, as confirmed by both z -scores and box plots. The Mahalanobis distance pointed out some cases exceeding the threshold value of $\chi^2(21) = 46.79, p = .001$. as potential multivariate outliers, but the leverage scores for all remained within the critical value of .45. Among these potential multivariate outliers, the case ID120 was remarkable because it was also signified as a potential univariate outlier by the box plots. Given the multiple evidence from z -scores, box plots, and Mahalanobis distance, the six cases (i.e., ID68, ID69, ID72, ID91, ID92, ID120) failed at more than one outlier measure. They were thus excluded from Family Involvement Scale in this sample. Consequently, the remaining 134 cases constituted the sample for conducting exploratory factor analysis for this scale.

Findings for Outliers from Pilot Sample 3: I examined the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, the Distance Learning Environment Scale, and the Family Involvement Scale for both the univariate and multivariate outliers in a sample of 397 participants from İstanbul. In relation to the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, no cases exceeded the threshold z -score value, implying the absence of univariate outliers. However, the box plots for the items CLE13 and CLE20 identified the cases ID148 and ID331 felling out of the whiskers. As for multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis distance pointed out the cases ID270, ID653, and ID175 as potential multivariate outliers beyond the threshold value $\chi^2(11) = 31.26, p = .001$., with a range of scores between 35.789 and 47.535. The leverage scores for this scale also confirmed these three cases as multivariate outliers, with the scores varying from .902 to .120, exceeding the critical value of 0.083. The final decision was to remove these five cases from this sample due to univariate (ID148, ID331) and multivariate outliers (ID270, ID653, ID175). Following that, the sample for confirmatory factor analysis for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale involved 392 cases in İstanbul.

In the Distance Learning Environment Scale, the z -score values and the box plots did not demonstrate any recurrent cases as potential univariate outliers. However, the cases ID356, ID566, ID23, ID391, and ID728 were pointed out as potential multivariate outliers confirmed both with Mahalanobis scores ranging from 29.626 to 46.093 that were beyond the threshold value $\chi^2(10) = 29.59$, $p = .001$ and the leverage scores between 0.116 and 0.078, which were above the critical value of .076. As a result, these five cases were not included in further analyses. The confirmatory factor analysis for the Distance Learning Environment Scale consisted of 392 cases in İstanbul.

For the Family Involvement Scale, no univariate outliers were confirmed by z -scores and the box plots. The case ID418 was identified as a recurrent multivariate outlier case confirmed by Mahalanobis distance with a score of 46.855 above the threshold value $\chi^2(12) = 32.91$, $p = .001$, and by the leverage score of .118 exceeding the critical value of .091. After removing this single case from the sample, the dataset for confirmatory factor analysis comprised 396 cases.

Findings for Outliers from Pilot Sample 4: I screened the Classroom Learning Environment Scale ($n = 141$) and the Family Involvement Scale ($n = 138$) for univariate and multivariate outliers in this sample in Hamburg. In the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, the z -scores for all cases and items remained within the threshold value, leaving no room for potential univariate outliers. However, the cases ID125 and ID126 were repeatedly out of the box plots' whiskers for the items CLE19 and CLE20. Regarding multivariate outliers, the sample did not involve any recurrent cases assessed by the Mahalanobis distance ($\chi^2(11) = 31.26$, $p = .001$) and the leverage score at the critical value of .234. Given this evidence, the decision was to omit only two cases (i.e., ID125 and ID126) due to univariate outliers in this sample. The confirmatory factor analysis for Classroom Learning Environment Scale was conducted with 139 cases.

Similarly, this sample did not indicate any multivariate outliers for the Family Involvement Scale, in which all cases did not exceed the threshold value for Mahalanobis distance at $\chi^2(12) = 32.91$, $p = .001$ and the critical value of .261 for leverage score. Examining the sample for univariate outliers identified ID6 as a

recurrent case for the item FIV2 by z -score and the box plot. In addition, the cases with ID7, ID9, ID125, and ID126 were confirmed as univariate outliers by the box plots simultaneously for the items FIV2, FIV4, and FIV11. As a result, the sample for validating the Family Involvement Scale using confirmatory factor analysis involved 133 participants after excluding those five cases (i.e., ID6, ID7, ID9, ID125, ID126).

Assumptions for Factor Analyses. The assumptions of normality (i.e., univariate and multivariate), linearity, singularity, and multicollinearity were checked for all scales in İstanbul and Hamburg. In addition, the samples were assessed for their adequacy and correlation matrices to execute factor analyses.

Findings for Assumptions from Pilot Sample 2: Several measures, including the minimum level of N or the minimum item ratio N to the number of variables ($N:p$), are recommended concerning the adequate sample size in factor analyses to achieve good recovery of population factors. MacCallum et al. (1999) emphasize that there is no specific answer to indicate the extent of an adequate sample to obtain small standard errors of loadings because it depends on several other things than the sample size, including variables and design of the study, method of rotation, number of factors, and the degree of correlation among the factors. According to Gorsuch (1983), the minimum item ratio N to the number of variables should be 5:1, and Cattell (1978) recommended that this ratio should be in the range of three to six. For the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and the Family Involvement Scale, the sample size assumption was ensured with the minimum item ratio of 5:1 with 140 participants for the 24-item Classroom Learning Environment Scale and 134 participants for the 21-item Family Involvement Scale. In addition to the item-participant ratio, I found Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values of .88 for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and .90 for the Family Involvement Scale, which exceeded the criterion of .60 for establishing sample size adequacy for factor analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Both graphical plots and statistical tests were used to assess the extent of departure from normality (Field, 2018; Hair et al., 2010; Stevens, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests produced statistically

significant ($p < 0.05$) results for each item in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale. Due to the potential for large sample sizes to yield statistically significant results even for small or inconsequential effects (Field, 2018), I examined skewness and kurtosis values for all items. The skewness values for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale ranged from $-.177$ (CLE2) to -1.063 (CLE20) across items, while the Family Involvement Scale showed a range of $-.032$ (FIV18) to -2.007 (FIV15). In terms of kurtosis, the Classroom Learning Environment Scale exhibited coefficients ranging from $-.109$ (CLE20) to -1.197 (CLE12), while the Family Involvement Scale ranged from 3.871 (FIV15) to -1.109 (FIV18) across items. Since the skew index with coefficients above 3.00 and the kurtosis index with coefficients beyond 10.00 denote significant departures from normality (Kleine, 2016), I concluded that the departures from normality did not pose a severe threat in this sample and remained within the accepted threshold values. Investigating the histograms and Q-Q plots for each item supported this finding with data roughly distributed on a straight line. Multivariate normality, which assumes that all variables and all linear combinations are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), was violated in both scales in this sample according to Mardia's test results ($p < .05$). This violation led to use of Principal Axis Factoring as the extraction method in exploratory factor analyses (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

The linearity assumes a straight-line relationship between two variables, which is assessed through the inspection of the bivariate scatterplots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Given the impracticality of examining all possible pairwise relationships when dealing with multiple variables, it is advisable to inspect bivariate scatterplots with particular attention to those variables whose skewness values suggest a deviation from the linearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). To this end, I selected the items with the highest skewness values in both scales (i.e., CLE20 and FIV15) to draw scatterplots separately with the remaining variables in the respective scales. The findings implied roughly linear relationships in both scales ranging from strong to weak, as seen in oval-shaped scatterplots. Assuming Likert data and a latent variable model where observed variables (i.e., items) are influenced by one or more underlying constructs (i.e., factors), we already expect stronger linear relationships among variables that share the same underlying construct. We also assume weaker

linear relationships among variables associated with different constructs (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Gorsuch, 1983). To evaluate this phenomenon while accounting for the ordinal nature of the data, I performed a Spearman's rank correlation analysis to examine the relationship between the highest skewed items (i.e., CLE20 and FIV15) and the remaining items within their respective scales. As anticipated, the analyses revealed positive correlations of varying strengths both in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and the Family Involvement Scale (Cohen, 1988). Among the items in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, the lowest correlation was observed between the items CLE14 and CLE20 ($r_s(138) = .04, p < 0.05$), while the highest correlation was observed between the items CLE18 and CLE20 ($r_s(138) = .58, p < 0.05$). Similarly, the highest skewed item, FIV_15, exhibited small to medium correlations with the other items in the Family Involvement Scale, ranging from the lowest correlation with FIV6 ($r_s(134) = .16, p < .05$) to the highest correlation with the FIV14 ($r_s(134) = .47, p < .05$).

Bartlett's tests of sphericity, which assesses the appropriateness of the data by testing the overall significance of all correlations by judging if the correlation matrix is significantly different from the identity matrix (Hair et al., 2010), were significant at $\chi^2(276) = 1867.30, p < .05$ for Classroom Learning Environment Scale and at $\chi^2(210) = 1436.72, p < .05$ for Family Involvement Scale. They provided evidence of significant correlations among the variables. However, caution must be taken with Bartlett's test as it tends to show significant results even if the correlations are small, particularly when using large samples (Field, 2018). Therefore, I examined the correlation matrices to verify the strength of the correlations. The matrices revealed that each item in both scales correlated at least .30 or higher, meeting the minimum requirement for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The data must not exhibit multicollinearity and singularity, which arise when two or more independent variables are highly correlated ($r > .08$) or perfectly correlated with each other (Field, 2018). The correlation matrices implied the lack of multicollinearity and singularity in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and the Family Involvement Scale as the correlations among the variables were greater than .30, and no two variables had a correlation greater than .80. In addition, the determinant values of the correlation matrices confirmed the lack of multicollinearity

by remaining in both scales between the suggested threshold values of .001 and 1.00 (Field, 2018). The tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values are the two other direct measures of the multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010), in which the tolerance is described as the amount of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables, and the VIF calculated as the inverse of the tolerance value. Each item in the scale became a dependent variable and was regressed against the remaining independent variables to calculate tolerance and VIF values. Hair et al., (2010) indicate a cutoff threshold value to be higher than .10 for tolerance and lower than 10 for VIF value. Rather than accepting the threshold values as default cutoffs, it is also recommended to determine the tolerance and VIF values by considering the unique correlation matrices and utilize a more restrictive cutoff when necessary because most default thresholds may still allow for considerable collinearity (Hair et al., 2010). In this sample, the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale exhibited no multicollinearity, as evidenced by their tolerance values of .33 and .28, respectively, and their VIF values of 2.99 and 3.61. Notably, these values remained in the range of the typical threshold values commonly used as guidelines for assessing multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010).

Findings for Assumptions from Pilot Sample 3: All three scales used in the study had sample sizes that surpassed the recommended minimum item ratio of 5:1 (Gorsuch, 1983). Specifically, the 11-item Classroom Learning Environment Scale and the 10-item Distance Learning Environment Scale had 392 participants, while the 12-item Family Involvement Scale had 396 participants. Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values provided further evidence that the sample sizes were adequate, with scores of .83 for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, .86 for the Distance Learning Environment Scale, and .87 for the Family Involvement Scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed non-normal distribution for all scales by yielding statistically significant ($p < .05$) results. However, given that these tests are known to produce significant values in large samples (Field, 2018), I assessed the skewness and kurtosis values in each scale, all of which fell within the recommended threshold values of < 3.00 for skewness and < 10.0 for

kurtosis coefficients (Kleine, 2016). To be more specific, the skewness index for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, Distance Learning Environment Scale, and Family Involvement Scale varied respectively from .266 (CLE2) to -1.659 (CLE20); .163 (DLE2) to -1.311 (DLE10); and .211 (FIV18) to -1.143 (FIV11). The kurtosis coefficients, in the same manner, ranged from -1.098 (CLE3) to 1.846 (CLE20), .830 (DLE10) to -1.209 (DLE3), and .576 (FIV11) and -1.372 (FIV20). In addition, the histograms and Q-Q plots for each item in the scales confirmed the normal distribution to a great extent, even if there were some items implying non-normality. Based on this evidence, it was concluded that each scale had acceptable univariate normality despite some deviations in certain items. However, Mardia's test results indicated that multivariate normality was violated in all three scales in this sample ($p < .05$) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The bivariate scatterplots were drawn to evaluate the linear relationship among the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). I selected the items with the highest skewness coefficients in each scale (i.e., CLE20, DLE10, and FIV11) to check their relationship with the rest of the variables in the respective scales. Across all scales, the given items had varying degrees of linear relationships; that is to say, some items indicated almost perfectly shaped linear relationships, while the scatterplots for some had poor linear relationships. In light of similar concerns emphasized in Pilot Sample 2, which pertain to Likert data and the influence of the common underlying constructs (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Gorsuch, 1983), the Spearman's rank correlation analyses were conducted on each scale to determine the relationships between the given items (i.e., CLE20, DLE10, and FIV11) and the remaining items in the scale. Consistent with the linearity observed in the scatterplots, the results indicated a range of correlations, with some exhibiting small ($r_s(390) = .03, p < .05$, CLE9xCLE20; $r_s(390) = .17, p < .05$, DLE4xDLE10; $r_s(394) = .17, p < .05$, FIV11xFIV18), medium ($r_s(394) = .44, p < .05$, FIV2xFIV11), and large ($r_s(390) = .58, p < .05$, CLE19xCLE20; $r_s(390) = .56, p < .05$, DLE9xDLE10) correlations. Notably, the observed correlations were consistent with the shared underlying constructs among the variables. These findings underscore the existence of linear associations between the variables, as evidenced by the scatterplots and Spearman's rank correlation results.

Following the same rationale in Pilot Sample 2, I tested the overall significance of all correlations within each scale to understand whether the correlation matrices significantly differ from the identity matrices (Hair et al., 2010). Bartlett's test of sphericity showed that all scales involved significant correlations among the variables. The test results were significant at $\chi^2(55) = 1643.31$, $p < .05$ for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, at $\chi^2(45) = 1984.16$, $p < .05$ for the Distance Learning Environment Scale, and at $\chi^2(66) = 2383.44$, $p < .05$ for the Family Involvement Scale. To gain further insights into the strength of the correlations beyond the significance levels, I examined the correlation matrices of each scale. The findings demonstrated that all scales contained correlation coefficients of at least .30 or higher between the items and their presumed underlying factors, thus satisfying the minimum correlation coefficients to conduct factor analyses in this sample (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The correlation matrices indicated the absence of multicollinearity and singularity in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, Distance Learning Environment Scale, and Family Involvement Scale. The variables had correlations above .30, and no two variables had a correlation exceeding .80 (Field, 2018). Additionally, the determinant values of the correlation matrices confirmed the absence of multicollinearity in all scales. These values remained within the suggested thresholds of .001 and 1.00 (Field, 2018). The tolerance and VIF values as the direct measures of the multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010) showed no multicollinearity for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, the Distance Learning Environment Scale, and the Family Involvement Scale through the minimum tolerance of values of .35, .29, and .32, respectively, and the maximum VIF values of 2.83, 3.51, and 3.18.

Findings for Assumptions from Pilot Sample 4: This sample met the suggested minimum item ratio of 5:1 for factor analyses (Gorsuch, 1983) with 139 participants for the 11-item Classroom Learning Environment Scale and 133 participants for the 12-item Family Involvement Scale. Moreover, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values suggested further evidence confirming the sample size adequacy with scores of .83 for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and .82 for the Family Involvement Scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests ($p < .05$) indicated that the univariate normality was violated. To further investigate, I calculated the skewness and kurtosis coefficients for each item in the scales. The results showed that all items in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale exhibited acceptable skewness and kurtosis values, with no departures from the normal distribution (Kleine, 2016). For example, the skewness values ranged from .419 (CLE2) to -1.1625 (CLE20) for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and from -.036 (FIV18) to -1.770 (FIV2) for the Family Involvement Scale. The kurtosis coefficients varied from 1.379 (CLE20) to -.867 (CLE3) for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and from 2.283 (FIV2) to -1.296 (FIV18) for the Family Involvement Scale. I examined the histograms and Q-Q plots, which displayed a roughly normal distribution for all items in the scales with slight departures from normal curves. Overall, these findings provided sufficient evidence to ensure the univariate normality in this sample. However, Mardia's test results ($p < .05$) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) showed that the multivariate normality was violated in both scales.

The linearity assumption was checked by examining the bivariate scatterplots among the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). I selected the items with the highest skewness coefficients in each scale (i.e., CLE20 and FIV2) to check their relationship with the rest of the items through Spearman's rank correlation in the respective scales. The items in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and the Family Involvement Scale, which were assumed to have the same underlying constructs with the given items, showed linear relationships. In contrast, the others exhibited some departures from forming linear associations. To illustrate with an additional measure, Spearman's rank correlation was calculated between CLE20/FIV2 and the other items in the scales. In accordance with the scatterplots, the correlation coefficients for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale showed a range of relationships from small correlations ($r_s(137) = .03, p < 0.05, \text{CLE1} \times \text{CLE20}$) to large correlations ($r_s(137) = .57, p < .05, \text{CLE18} \times \text{CLE20}$). Similarly, in the Family Involvement Scale, the association ranged from small ($r_s(131) = .09, p < .05, \text{FIV2} \times \text{FIV19}$) to medium correlations ($r_s(131) = .31, p < .05, \text{FIV2} \times \text{FIV3}$).

Bartlett's test of sphericity showed that both scales had significant correlations among the variables, which were significant at $\chi^2(55) = 685.59, p < .05$ for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale, and at $\chi^2(66) = 617.87, p < .05$ for the Family Involvement Scale (Hair et al., 2010). The exploration of the correlation matrices indicated that all scales had correlation coefficients of at least .30, indicating strong correlations between the items and their presumed underlying factors. Therefore, the minimum correlation coefficients required to conduct factor analyses were satisfied in this sample (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The correlation matrices for the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale also demonstrated no signs of multicollinearity or singularity with no pair of variables that had a correlation exceeding .80 (Field, 2018). In addition, the determinant values of the correlation matrices confirmed the absence of multicollinearity in both scales, as they remained within the suggested range of .001 to 1.00 (Field, 2018). To further assess the possibility of multicollinearity, I calculated tolerance and VIF values as direct measures (Hair et al., 2010). The results demonstrated no multicollinearity both in the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and Family Involvement Scale. The minimum tolerance values were .33 and .32, respectively, and the maximum VIF values were 3.03 and 3.17.

3.4.2.2. Criteria Used in Factor Analysis

I first performed exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the Classroom Learning Environment Scale and the Family Involvement Scale using Pilot Sample 2 in İstanbul case to identify the underlying constructs and reduce the number of items in each scale (Rummel, 1988). The EFA analyses were performed in R Studio (R Core Team, 2020) with packages psych (Revelle, 2020), GPArotation (Bernaards & Jennrich, 2005), and MVN (Korkmaz et al., 2014). Principal axis factoring was used as the extraction method because the data violated the assumption of multivariate normality (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Oblique rotation with Direct Oblimin was applied as a rotation method to account for correlated factors and simplify the structure (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The interpretation of factors at each iteration was based on variables with loadings of .45 or higher (i.e., minimum 20% overlapping variance), which is considered an appropriate cutoff value (Comrey &

Lee, 1992). Any variables with cross-loadings higher than .20 were flagged and excluded from the scale to ensure that each factor defined a distinct group of interrelated variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Despite a substantial body of research on factor retention decisions in EFA, there is no consensus on the appropriate criteria to use (Hayton et al., 2004). In this study, several criteria, including Kaiser's criterion, Cattell's scree test, and Horn's parallel analysis, were used at each iteration to determine the number of factors to retain. Factors with Kaiser's eigenvalues greater than 1.00 and data points above the break point according to Cattell's scree test were considered as potential factors to retain (Cattell, 1966; Kaiser, 1960). Horn's parallel analysis was also used to address any limitations of Kaiser's eigenvalues that are likely to overestimate the number of factors due to sampling error (Horn, 1965). Specifically, the actual eigenvalues from the real data were compared to average eigenvalues from the random correlation matrices generated through parallel analysis. Only factors with actual eigenvalues greater than the average random eigenvalues were retained. Finally, the content and theoretical constructs of each item in the retained factors were examined. Items that deviated substantially from the proposed factor, did not contribute to the factor structure or had overlapping content were excluded based on the conceptual foundation and principles for the anticipated structure.

I conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on all scales using Pilot Sample 3 in İstanbul case and Pilot Sample 4 in Hamburg. The primary aim was to validate the latent constructs of the scales and to reveal the pattern of item-factor relationships tentatively established by EFA analyses (Brown, 2010). The CFA analyses were executed using R studio and the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012). The model parameters were estimated using the diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) method because it provides a more accurate test of model fit in this study due to the ordinal data and violation of the multivariate normality (Mîndrilă, 2010).

To evaluate the discrepancy between the hypothesized and observed model, the scaling correction factor (i.e., the Satorra-Bentler corrected chi-square) was consulted. Furthermore, multiple indices were used to assess the goodness of fit as they provide different information about the model (Brown, 2010). Specifically, the

comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and its 90% confidence interval (90% CI) were employed. Acceptable model fit was defined by the following criteria: CFI ($\geq .95$), TLI ($\geq .95$), SRMR ($\leq .08$), and RMSEA ($\leq .06$, 90% CI $\leq .06$) (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Modification indices were examined to identify any localized areas of strain. These indices, which were calculated as the difference between the chi-square statistics for the original model and a modified model with a new parameter added or removed, indicate the extent to which adding or removing a path between two variables in a model would improve the model fit (Brown, 2010). In this study, modification indices greater than the value of 3.84 (Brown, 2010) were used to identify potential variables that needed modification by either covarying these variables or dropping them from the model.

3.4.2.3. Validity and Reliability of Family Involvement Scale

I performed an iterative EFA for the 21-item Family Involvement Scale (FIS) with 134 participants in Pilot Sample 2 in İstanbul to obtain the best parsimonious structure. The first analysis suggested a three-factor solution instead of the hypothesized four-factor model. The examination of the correlation matrix revealed some item loadings below the critical value of .45, cross-loadings higher than .20, or misfits with the proposed theoretical constructs.

To illustrate, the suggested construct *establishing facilitating structures* indicated lower factor loadings consecutively for FIV8 (“*I structure my study time according to the convenience of home.*”), FIV7 (“*My family supports me to schedule my studies.*”), FIV1 (“*My family provides necessary materials for my studies [e.g., internet access, story books].*”), and FIV6 (“*My family helps me structure my time for homework.*”). The items’ content and phrasing (e.g., “structure”, “schedule”) might have sounded ambiguous to the students. I determined to exclude these items from the scale to have a refined set of latent structure with FIV2, FIV3, FIV4, and FIV5, which had higher factor loadings for this construct and covering intended content with greater clarity.

The construct *responding to the student's performance* involved four items. It was developed to measure families' behavior recognizing and offering emotional support, and reinforcing and rewarding student's efforts through extrinsic or intrinsic approaches (Hooever-Dempsey et al., 2001). However, the items had significant cross-loadings on other latent constructs. Upon careful examination, it was revealed that FIV13 (“*My family encourages me to study [For example, they say, ‘you can do it.’].*”) and FIV14 (“*My family supports me if I have difficulty in my studies.*”) were represented simultaneously by the constructs *establishing facilitating structures* and *engaging in school-related tasks*. Additionally, FIV15 on reinforcing intrinsic motivation (“*My family is proud of me when I become successful.*”) and FIV16 on extrinsic motivation (“*My family rewards me when I become successful.*”) failed to construct a latent factor due to their potentially representing two distinct aspects of motivation (i.e., tangible vs intangible characteristics). As a result, this construct was excluded from the scale due to significant issues in its content validity.

The construct *engaging in school-related tasks* had five items representing expected behaviors of families to involve in their children's education. FIV21 (“*We talk about my studies with my family.*”) had sufficient factor loading (.45), but it emerged at the same time under the factor *establishing facilitating structures*. The investigation of the other items in this construct showed that they attempted to measure families' active involvement through specific situations, while FIV21 attempted to assess involvement with a very broad statement, potentially affecting its loading on this construct. The decision was to omit this item from this construct. Table 9 shows the excluded items' factor loadings and the iteration they were omitted.

Table 9
Excluded items in FIS During Exploratory Factor Analysis in İstanbul

Iteration	Excluded Item	Factor loading
2	#8	.27
3	#7	.35
4	#1	.34
5	#6	.40
6	#13	.42
7	#14	.45
8	#15	.38
9	#16	.68
9	#21	.45

The 12-item FIS still exhibited a three-factor structure without any low factor loadings. Although FIV20 (“*My family shows me different ways and strategies for learning [e.g., when I learn new vocabulary or read a book].*”) had cross-loadings on both Factor 2 and Factor 3, it was retained on *engaging in school-related tasks* factor because it accurately represented the intended construct. This model accounted for 55% of the total variance, which was deemed satisfactory (Hair et al., 2010). The content analysis of items ensured their alignment with the intended constructs. Table 10 summarizes the exploratory factor analysis results of the 12-item scale.

Table 10
Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for 12-Item FIS

Constructs	Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communality
Establishing facilitating structures (EFS)	#4	.84	-.10	.07	.68
	#3	.65	.12	.05	.55
	#2	.61	-.03	.11	.42
	#5	.55	.34	-.26	.44
Engaging in school-related tasks (EST)	#18	-.04	.84	.05	.73
	#19	.12	.61	.10	.55
	#20	.09	.47	.36	.63
	#17	.21	.45	.24	.58
Interacting with school (IWS)	#9	-.01	.29	.58	.62
	#10	.06	-.10	.58	.31
	#11	.17	.04	.57	.48
	#12	.09	.24	.56	.62
% of variance		18.5	19.3	17.2	
Cronbach's Alpha		.79	.85	.79	

The 12 items were evenly distributed among the three constructs. The first factor, *establishing facilitating structures*, explained 18.5% of the variance. The second factor, *engaging in school-related tasks*, explained 19.3% of the variance, while the third factor, *interacting with school*, contributed to 17.2% of the total variance. The internal consistency of each dimension was acceptable as indicated by Cronbach's Alpha values: .87 for the first factor, .79 for the second factor, and .79 for the third factor. The overall Cronbach's alpha value for the entire scale was .90. Except for FIV10, all communality values were in the range of .50, indicating that the three-factor solution accounted for a sufficient proportion of variance in the items (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The 12-item FIS was tested using confirmatory factor analysis with a sample of 396 names in İstanbul. The Satorra-Bentler corrected chi-square did not show any discrepancy between the observed model and suggested model $\chi^2(51) = 444.704, p = .72$. However, the goodness-of-fit indices suggested improvements for the model fit: CFI = .93, TLI = .91, SRMR = .08, RMSEA = .14 (90% CI: .13 – .15). Some items in the scale indicated large modification indices and revealed that the relationships were not adequately reproduced in the sample data. Particularly, the modification index for the association between FIV2 and FIV4 (MI = 27.952), and between FIV5 and FIV9 (MI = 197.289) deserved the utmost attention. FIV2 (“*My family gives me a good environment to study at home.*”) and FIV4 (“*My family makes sure that I am not distracted while studying.*”) belonged to the same construct – *establishing facilitating structures* – which aimed to measure the degree of families’ role to provide fulfilling environment at home. These items were covaried in the model because they were assumed to have the same underlying construct, which led them to share considerable unique variance that was not explained by their latent factor.

The high modification index between FIV5 and FIV9 (MI = 197.289) was noteworthy as these items were primarily modelled on distinct factors. I further examined them and their respective latent constructs to understand the underlying reason why they were flagged as potential covariates. Although these items represented different aspects of family involvement, one reason behind the covariance could be a conceptual overlap between FIV5 (“*My family reminds me to do my homework.*”) and FIV9 (“*My family talks to my teachers about the lessons.*”), both of which implied families’ task-based proactive involvement in their children’s education. Despite this overlap, moving the items across factors was not feasible because FIV5 focused on home-based structures while FIV9 elaborated on the interaction with school settings. Based on this argument, I covaried FIV5 and FIV9 in the model.

After these modifications, the overall model indicated a good fit to data with $\chi^2(49) = 178.476, p = .60$, CFI = .98, TLI = .97, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .08 (90% CI: .07 – .10). All parameter estimates in the model were significant, ranging from .59 to .87, providing further evidence of a good model fit. Additionally, the items’ ability to explain the variance in their underlying constructs varied from 35% (FIV10) to 75%

(FIV19), indicating that they were effective measures of those constructs. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients showed the items' good internal consistency across all constructs in the scale: *establishing facilitating structures* ($\alpha = .83$), *interacting with school* ($\alpha = .71$), and *engagement with school-related tasks* ($\alpha = .87$). The Cronbach's alpha for the entire scale reached .89. Figure 10 illustrates the CFA results for 12-item FIS in İstanbul.

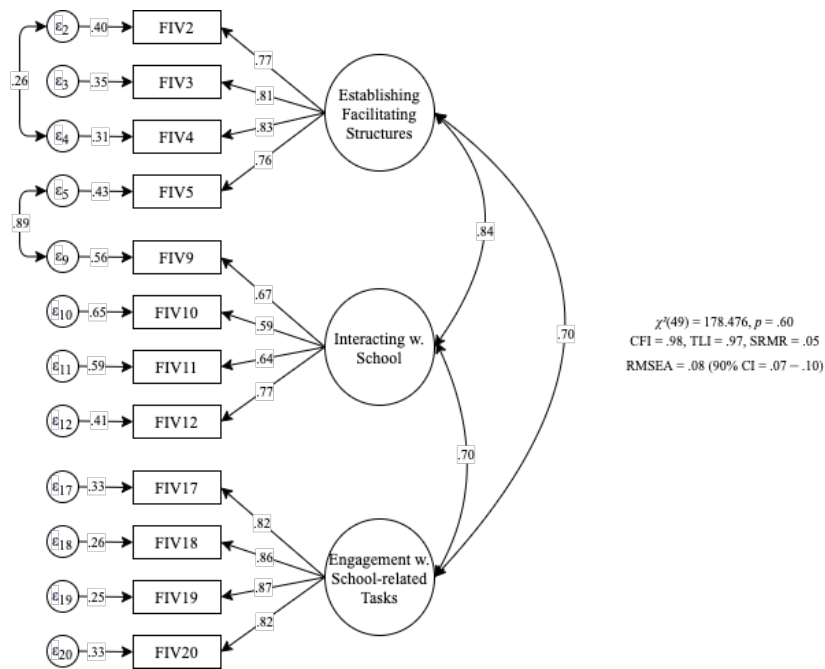


Figure 10
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for FIS in İstanbul

I repeated the confirmatory factor analysis for 12-item FIS with a sample of 133 participants in Hamburg. The observed model based on this sample and the suggested model did not show any discrepancy as indicated by the significant Satorra-Bentler corrected chi-square statistics, $\chi^2(51) = 111.855, p = .70$. Some goodness-of-fit indices including CFI = .96 and TLI = .95 displayed a good model fit to data, but the indices SRMR = .08 and RMSEA = .10 (90% CI = .07 - .12) recommended improvements. The modification indices pointed out high covariance (MI = 10.356) between the items FIV9 (“*My family talks to my teachers about the lessons.*”) and FIV11 (“*If the school requires parental involvement, my family fulfils this [e.g., checking or signing homework].*”). Given that both items belonged to the same latent factor *interacting with school*, it is highly likely that they were

influenced by the same conditions, i.e., time or effort allocated to children’s education. As a result of covarying these items in the model, the corrected chi-square statistics was still not significant $\chi^2(50) = 96.263, p = .70$ and the overall model fit improved indicated good model fit by CFI = .97, TLI = .96, and acceptable values by SRMR = .07 and RMSEA = .08 (90% CI: .06 – .11).

All observed variables contributed significantly to their latent constructs, ranging from parameter values of .42 to .90 as shown in Figure 11, suggesting additional evidence of a good model fit. Compared to CFA results for FIS in İstanbul, the items’ ability account for the variance in the underlying constructs were lower with a range of 18% (FIV2) to 81% (FIV19).

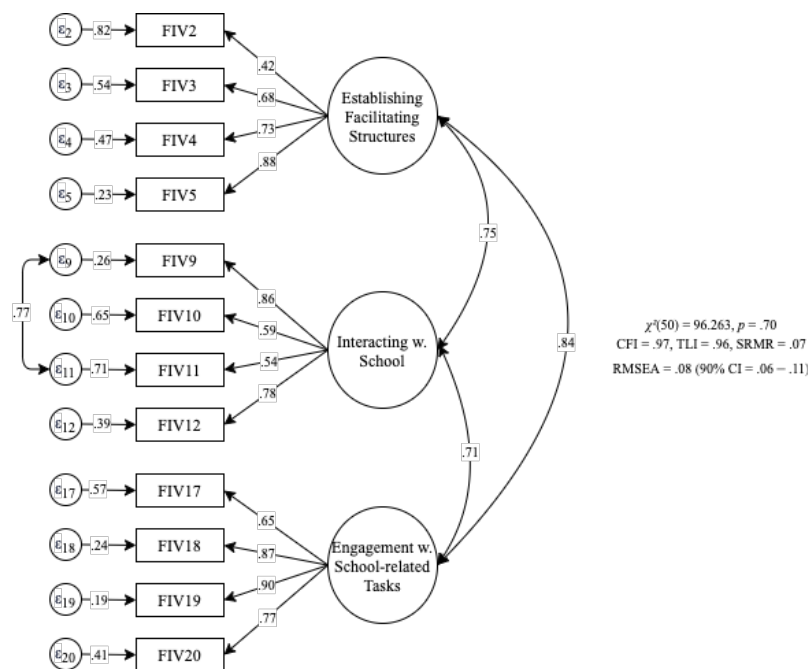


Figure 11
 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for FIS in Hamburg

Similarly, the Cronbach’s alpha values displayed good internal consistency for *engagement with school-related tasks* ($\alpha = .82$), but lower coefficients for *establishing facilitating structures* ($\alpha = .68$) and *interacting with school* ($\alpha = .65$) dimensions. The Cronbach’s alpha for overall scale had better internal consistency ($\alpha = .86$). Although the internal consistency for some constructs remained just below the threshold value of .70, which was regarded as a rule of thumb but should be

interpreted with caution (Cortina, 1993), the goodness-of-fit indices and parameter estimates revealed that the FIS had acceptable validity and reliability evidence to confirm its three-factor 12-item structure also in Hamburg.

3.4.2.4. Validity and Reliability of Classroom Learning Environment Scale

I first carried out exploratory factor analysis on the Classroom Learning Environment Scale (CLES) with a sample of 140 Syrian refugee students in İstanbul. Multiple iterations were executed to ensure the best factor structure (Hair et al., 2010). After excluding the problematic items, the model was screened according to item interpretation and factor retention criteria listed above. The initial analysis with 24-item CLES suggested a 3-factor model. The eigenvalue results indicated that three factors had eigenvalues greater than one, and the scree plot showed a clear break after the third factor. However, the construct *teacher support* included some items with loadings below the critical value of .45 and cross-loadings greater than .20. Upon careful examination of each item, it was determined that five items listed in Table 11 might have overlapping content, which was likely to result in redundancy and poor loadings. Consequently, these five items were removed after six iterations.

Table 11
Excluded Items From Teacher Support in CLES

Construct	Iteration	Excluded Item	Factor loading	Item Content
Teacher Support	2	#4	.39	My teacher helps me when I have a problem related to lessons.
	3	#8	.31	My teacher's questions help me understand the topics.
	4	#5	.42	My teacher talks to me in the lesson.
	5	#7	.36	My teacher moves around class to talk with me.
	6	#6	.37	My teacher is interested in my problems.

The remaining 19 items in the CLES still retained the three-factor structure without any low factor loadings or complex items. The eigenvalue results and the scree plot supported the three-factor solution, which accounted for 53.5% of the total variance in the data. The scale demonstrated high internal consistency, with a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .91. Table 12 summarizes the EFA results of 19-item CLES.

Table 12*Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for 19-Item CLES*

Constructs	Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communality
Equity	#18	.87	-.15	.03	.69
	#17	.77	-.04	.12	.62
	#20	.76	-.07	-.01	.54
	#19	.69	.16	-.05	.58
	#21	.66	.21	-.06	.57
	#23	.66	.06	.06	.49
	#22	.55	.33	-.03	.55
	#24	.47	.25	.05	.39
Cooperation	#14	-.16	.82	.03	.59
	#15	.18	.69	-.03	.60
	#12	.06	.66	.01	.48
	#10	.04	.65	.13	.52
	#9	-.10	.64	.16	.45
	#11	.13	.63	-.12	.45
	#13	-.01	.62	.00	.38
	#16	.21	.53	.12	.49
Teacher support	#2	-.02	.00	.95	.89
	#1	.05	.03	.72	.54
	#3	.21	.05	.50	.37
% of variance		22.4	21.3	9.8	
Cronbach's alpha		.90	.88	.79	

The 19-item CLES was found to be consistent with the proposed latent constructs of *equity*, *cooperation*, and *teacher support*. To enhance the scale's practicality and optimize its measurement properties, I explored the possibility of constructing a more parsimonious version that would reduce cognitive load on students while maintaining the balance of items across factors. In the *equity* construct, I excluded the items with the lowest factor loadings and overlapping content, which were CLE21 ("My teacher encourages me as much as other students [e.g., she/he says 'you can do it']."), CLE23 ("My teacher likes my work as much as other students' work.") CLE22 ("I participate in classroom discussions as much as other students."), and CLE24 ("I answer questions in class as much as other students.").

For the *cooperation* construct, I retained the items that captured different aspects of cooperation, but removed items with similar aspects including CLE14 ("I work with other students in this class."), CLE12 ("I work with other students on projects in the class."), CLE11 ("There is teamwork when we work in the class."), and CLE16 ("Students work with me to achieve their goals in the class."). Then I conducted a

re-analysis of the 11-item version of the scale, which demonstrated high factor loadings ranging from .40 to .97 and no cross-loadings as demonstrated in Table 13. The eigenvalue results and scree plot also confirmed the three-factor structure explaining 58.5% of the total variance.

Table 13

Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for 11-item CLES

Constructs	Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communality
Equity	#18	.88	-.10	.06	.73
	#17	.75	.00	.12	.61
	#20	.73	.04	-.04	.55
	#19	.72	.18	-.07	.62
Cooperation	#9	-.13	.78	.06	.58
	#10	.02	.76	.06	.63
	#15	.18	.70	-.07	.57
	#13	.08	.40	.06	.21
Teacher support	#2	-.03	.00	.97	.92
	#1	.07	.02	.71	.54
	#3	.16	.10	.49	.35
% of variance		23.2	18.0	16.1	
Cronbach's Alpha		.86	.77	.79	

The 11-item CLES indicated a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .83. The first factor related to *equity* with four items ($\alpha = .86$) and had the largest proportion of cumulative variance with 23.2%. The second factor pertained to *cooperation* with four items ($\alpha = .77$) and explained the 18% of the variance. The third factor with three items ($\alpha = .79$) reflected the construct of *teacher support* and explained 16.1% of the variance. Except for CLE3 and CLE13, the communality values were close to or over .50, indicating that the three-factor model performed well explaining variance in the items (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

I carried out confirmatory factor analysis for 11-item CLES with a sample of 392 participants in İstanbul case to explore the three-factor model. In İstanbul, the overall model fit, as assessed by the Satorra-Bentler chi-square statistic, did not show a discrepancy between the observed model and suggested model, $\chi^2(41) = 221.69$, $p = .70$. The goodness-of-fit indices also suggested that the three-factor model was acceptable, but needed improvement: CFI = .95, TLI = .93, SRMR = .07, and RMSEA = .11 (90% CI = .09 – .125). Inspection of the modification indices indicated

some critical localized points of ill in the solution for CLE15 (“*I work together with my classmates on in-class activities.*”) across different items (e.g., largest modification index = 35.581). Upon careful examination, I concluded that CLE15 might be affected by similar sources of measurement error in the model due to its similarity in content with multiple variables, especially with CLE9 (“*I work together with other students on homework in class.*”). Instead of adding a correlated error between CLE15 and several variables, which can artificially inflate the model fit, I determined to exclude CLE15 from the solution. As a result, the model fit improved ($\chi^2(32) = 78.996, p = .62$) with better goodness-of-fit indices: CFI = .99, TLI = .98, SRMR = .04, and RMSEA = .06 (90% CI = .04 - .08).

The modification indices pointed out that CLE19 (“*I am allowed to say something in class just as often as my classmates.*”) and CLE20 (“*My teacher treats everyone in the class equally.*”) (MI = 6.573) might share considerable unique variance that was not accounted for by the latent factor *equity*, and adding a correlated error between them could improve the model fit. These items were covaried in the model given that they might be influenced by similar situational factors (i.e., teacher’s attitude toward student). The results indicated that the model had a better fit to data, with a non-significant corrected chi-square statistic: $\chi^2(31) = 68.560, p = .62$ and CFI = .99, TLI = .98, SRMR = .04, and RMSEA = .06 (90% CI = .04 –.07). The factor loading estimates for the 10-item CLES exhibited a strong relationship between all parameters and their respective constructs, with estimates ranging from .65 to .97. These findings suggest that each parameter made a significant contribution to the three-factor model. Moreover, the observed variables were highly effective in explaining a significant portion of the variability in their latent factors, ranging from 43% (CLE13) to 93% (CLE18). These results lend support to the validity of the 10-item CLES and its three-factor model.

In addition, the constructs of *teacher support*, *cooperation*, and *equity* demonstrated good internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of .78, .75, and .86, respectively. The entire scale exhibited high internal consistency, with a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .82. These findings suggest that the 10-item CLES is a reliable measure of the constructs it purports to assess in İstanbul case. Figure 12 displays the

CFA results for the 10-item CLES, further illustrating the validity and reliability of the scale.

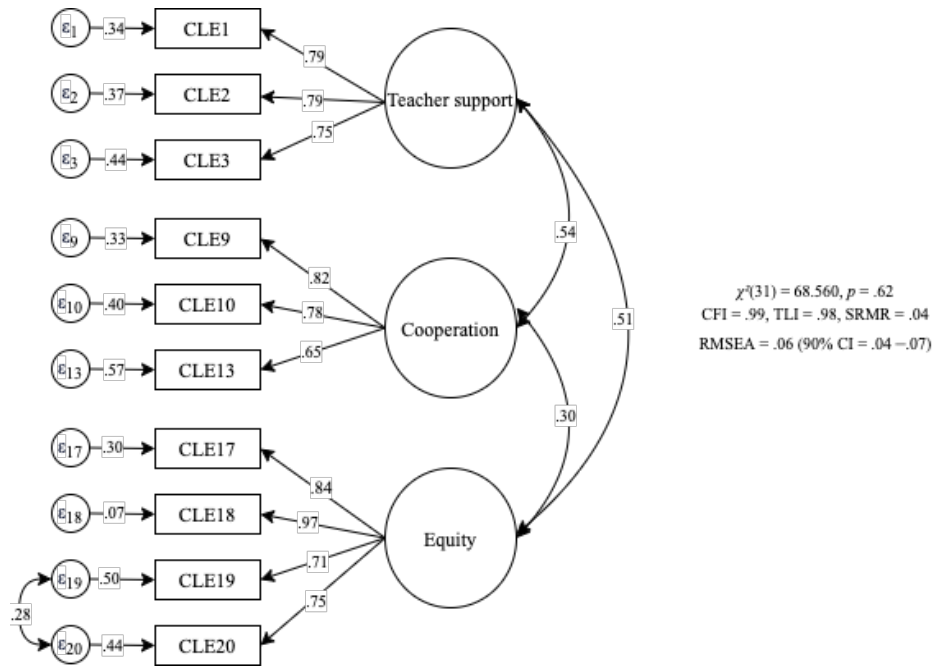


Figure 12
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for CLES in İstanbul

Similarly, I tested the latent structure of the 11-item CLES in Hamburg through confirmatory factor analysis with a sample of 139 newly arrived migrant students. The Satorra-Bentler corrected chi-square statistic did not reveal a significant difference between the observed model and suggested model, $\chi^2(41) = 114.602, p = .74$. The goodness-of-fit indices supported the model with CFI = .95, TLI = .93, and SRMR = .08, but the values RMSEA = .11 (90% CI: .09 – .14) did not exhibit satisfactory results. After examining the modification indices, the first decision was to try the model by excluding CLE15 (“*I work together with my classmates on in-class activities.*”) due to the same concerns about this item in İstanbul case. As a result, the overall goodness-of-fit indices showed slight improvement $\chi^2(32) = 90.253, p = .65$, CFI = .96, TLI = .94, SRMR = .08, but the value RMSEA = .12 (90% CI: .09 – .14) was still beyond the threshold value. The further inspection of the modification indices suggested that the items CLE1 & CLE2 (MI = 10.032) in *teacher support* and the items CLE9 & CLE10 (MI = 14.000) in *cooperation* might

share unique variances that were not accounted by their respective factors. Allowing correlated errors among these variables improved the fit of the model $\chi^2(30) = 56.269$, $p = .59$, CFI = 98, TLI = 97, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .08 (90% CI: .05 – .11). Therefore, I retained these correlated errors in the final 10-item CLES in the Hamburg.

Except for CLE10, the factor loadings varied from .66 to .96, in which all parameters made a significant contribution to the three-factor model. The CLE10 (“*I share my textbooks and other materials with my classmates when I do tasks in class.*”) in the *cooperation* construct had lower factor loadings with a value of .27 and only 7% of the variance in this item was explained by the *cooperation* construct. Although this item did not perform as well as others in the scale, I decided to keep it because it may provide a comprehensive and nuanced understanding of cooperation by complementing other items through a tangible content. The Cronbach’s Alpha showed good internal consistency for *teacher support* ($\alpha = .84$) and *equity* ($\alpha = .87$) constructs. However, the *cooperation* ($\alpha = .54$) construct, as implied with the low factor loading of the CLE10, indicated lower internal consistency. Given the fact that alpha is not the only estimate of reliability and the greater alpha can be only a function of the number of items in a scale (Cortina, 1993), it should be interpreted with caution based on the theory and specific research settings. The *cooperation*, albeit lower internal consistency in Hamburg, was considered an integral measure of learning environment by capturing different aspects of exchange among students. When all constructs were combined, the overall scale performed well with a good internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$).

The indicators' communality (R^2) showed that the items were effective measures of their respective latent constructs, explaining the majority of variance in their corresponding factors varying from 32% (CLE9) to 93% (CLE3). As illustrated in Figure 13, I concluded that the three-factor 10-item CLES in Hamburg served as reliable measures of the underlying constructs and provided a reasonable fit to the data.

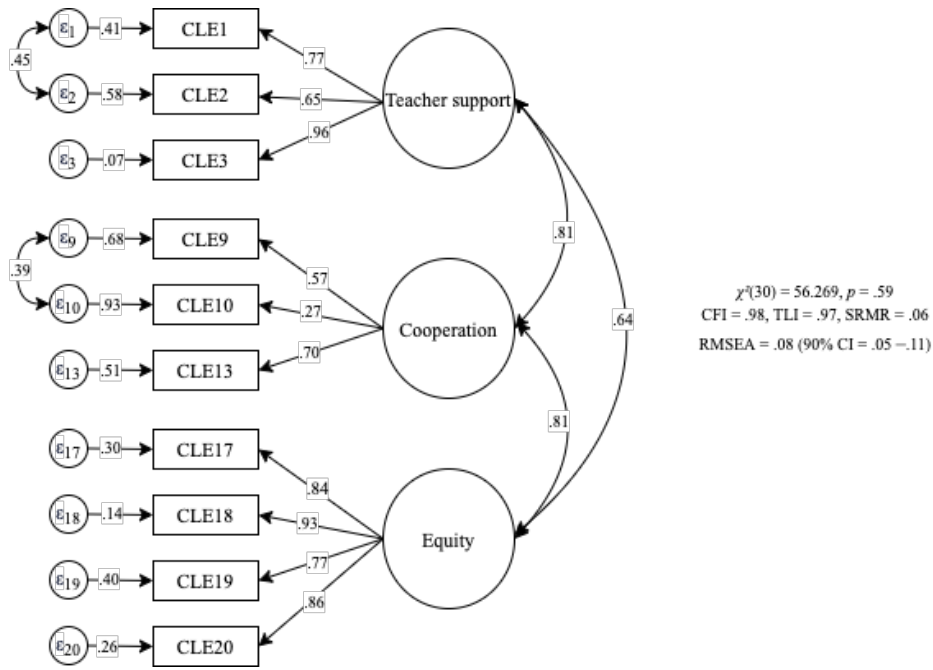


Figure 13

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for CLES in Hamburg

3.4.2.5. Validity and Reliability of Distance Learning Environment Scale

The Distance Learning Environment Scale (DLES) is the revised version of the 11-item Classroom Learning Environment Scale. Given the same set of latent constructs, I made minor revisions to the scale and excluded only one item from the *cooperation* construct. The scale aimed to measure students' distance learning environment in İstanbul due to the extended school closures during COVID-19 at the time of quantitative data collection. I carried out confirmatory factor analysis with a sample of 392 participants in İstanbul to examine the fit of the theoretical model to the data. The Satorra-Bentler corrected chi-square statistic showed no discrepancy between the observed model and the suggested model $\chi^2(32) = 101.908, p = .58$. The other goodness-of-fit indices also supported the three-factor structure CFI = .99, TLI = .98, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .08 (90% CI: .06 – .09). The modification indices remained within the established threshold values, implying no considerable correlated errors among the items.

As demonstrated in Figure 14, the factor loadings of all items were significant with a range of .75 to .95, and in the expected direction, indicating good convergent validity. The communality (R^2) of the indicators showed that the items were good

measures of their underlying constructs by explaining the variance in their corresponding latent factor from 57% (DLE6) to 89% (DLE8). The Cronbach's Alpha coefficients demonstrated good internal consistency of the items in *distance teacher support* ($\alpha = .81$), *distance cooperation* ($\alpha = .82$), and *distance equity* ($\alpha = .89$) constructs. The Cronbach's Alpha for the whole scale was .87.

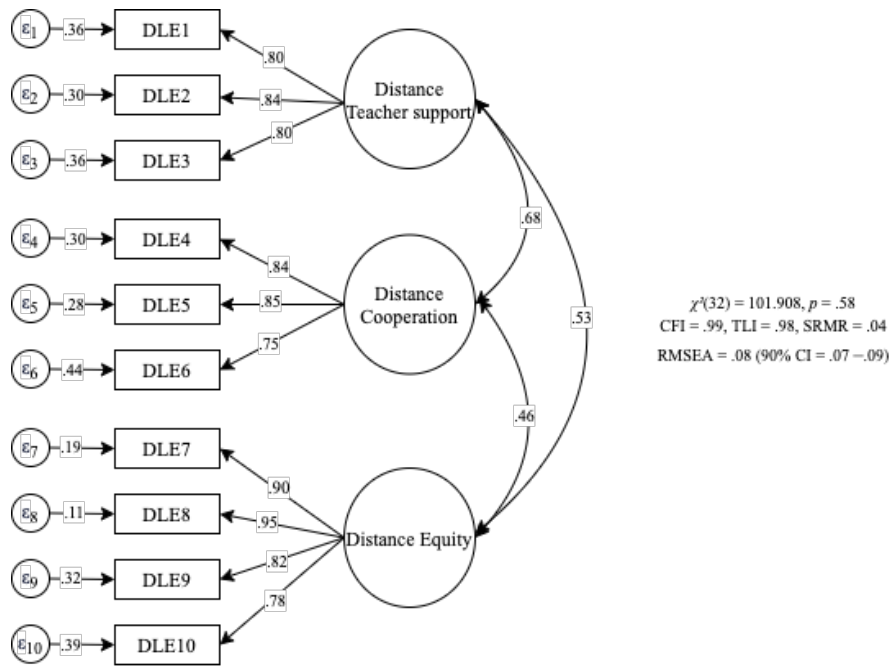


Figure 14
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for DLES in İstanbul

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

This section elaborates on the qualitative and quantitative data collection processes in İstanbul and Hamburg, which started in May 2019 and completed in April 2022.

3.5.1. Qualitative Data Collection Process

I collected the qualitative data from May 2019 to October 2021 in three cycles in İstanbul (Phase 1.1) and Hamburg (Phase 1.2). Figure 15 illustrates the qualitative data collection process. During this extended fieldwork, I had the opportunity to observe policy changes, particularly in İstanbul case, regarding the language support for the newly arrived migrant students. It enabled me to have a comparative

understanding on the good practices and shortcomings of different language provisions.

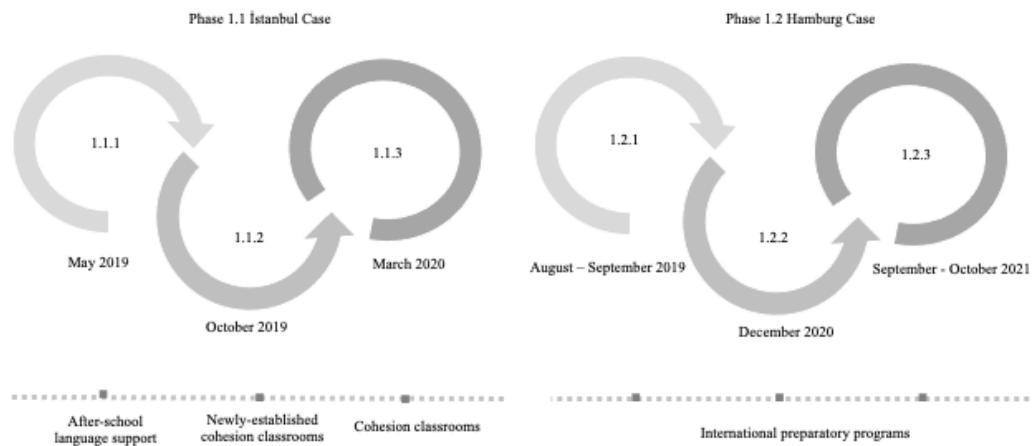


Figure 15
Qualitative Data Collection Process

After the qualitative interview schedules and classroom observation protocol were audited by the advisors and the members of the thesis committee, the study was reviewed by Human Subjects Ethics Committee at Middle East Technical University and İstanbul Provincial Directorate of National Education (see Appendix O and Q). Both institutions approved the qualitative data collection instruments without any revision.

In collecting qualitative data, I focused purposefully on Sultanbeyli and Sancaktepe districts of İstanbul because they contained a high number of Syrian refugees and the ratio of refugee students in these districts’ public schools was above the city average. I first contacted with vice-principals of the schools, who acted as gatekeepers, and had informal chats with them about the inclusion of refugee students in their schools and available Turkish language provisions. They connected me with further participants including the principals, teachers, parents, and refugee students. After these informal visits, I had to visit each school at least twice; first to invite participants for interviews and give them consent forms, and second to conduct interviews and/or classroom observations. Before interviewing with the students, I asked for their parents’ approval in advance with an Arabic and Turkish consent form. Then students were also informed, and their assent was granted on the day of

interview. In addition to asking for their approval, I also invited parents to share their perspectives.

Except for two of the parent interviews which were carried out in their homes, all interviews were conducted in the school settings for school participants and in the workplaces for key informants. An interpreter, who was born in Syria and completed the high school in Turkey, was present during student and parent interviews. He was in his early twenties and was speaking Arabic as a native language and Turkish very fluently. While studying for the university entrance exam, he was working for a local NGO based in Sultanbeyli. Before the interviews, I informed him in detail about the scope and purpose of the study. We reviewed the parent and student interview schedules together in advance to avoid any ambiguity or misunderstanding. All interpretations were done consecutively, meaning that the interpreter took notes while the speaker was talking and then reproduced the speech in the target language (i.e., in Turkish or Arabic). All parent interviews were facilitated by the interpreter. I also encouraged students to feel comfortable speaking in Arabic. To my surprise, only one student opted for speaking in Arabic; the rest were willing to be interviewed in Turkish. Parents were remunerated for their participation with a 50 Turkish Liras voucher card (equivalent to 8 Euros in May 2019) from a widespread supermarket chain.

I started data collection by visiting three lower-secondary schools in Sultanbeyli in May 2019 (Phase 1.1.1) when the refugee students were mostly mainstreamed and offered after-school language support courses in the scope of PICTES project. In that first cycle, the data sources included interviews with *a)* two school administrators, *b)* four Turkish language teachers, *c)* ten refugee students in after-school language support courses, *d)* six parents, and *e)* two key informants who are academics working on refugee community and children in Turkey. In addition, I had eleven hours of classroom observations in three after-school language support courses.

In the second cycle, the data collection (Phase 1.1.2) was completed in October 2019 in three lower-secondary schools in Sultanbeyli (2) and Sancaktepe (1) districts when the Turkish MoNE had just announced the establishment of segregated language courses, in other words cohesion classes, for refugee students who were assumed to

have low proficiency in Turkish language. I had the opportunity to contemplate the way the MoNE disclosed that new development and the perception of different schools towards this sharp policy shift. I had returned to field in October, assuming that the schools were continuing to offer after-school language support courses to students. However, there were no language support for refugee students despite one month after the official start of the new academic year. Due to the new circular prioritizing the cohesion classrooms for low-proficient students, the school administrations were still navigating their way around this emerging concept. Some were completely unaware, whereas the others had already engaged in planning to establish cohesion classrooms, which could at earliest start in November 2019 - lagging two months after the official school openings. In addition to five hours classroom observation in a newly established cohesion classroom and interviews with six school administrators and one PICTES Turkish language teacher, I also interviewed in this cycle with six subject teachers and 11 refugee students in mainstream classrooms. They shared their perspectives about the language policy and practices from the onset of refugee students' inclusion into public schools to the emerging concept of segregated language support.

In the third cycle (Phase 1.1.3), I focused on the experiences of the teachers and school administrators about the implementation of cohesion classrooms. As the schools in the previous cycles were mostly located in Sultanbeyli district, I extended the fieldwork to four schools in Sancaktepe. In the first half of March 2020 before the courses were moved to distance learning due to COVID-19, I had interviews with two school administrators and four PICTES Turkish language teachers. In addition, I visited a cohesion classroom for five hours classroom observations.

Since newly arrived migrant students are not a new phenomenon in Germany, there has been some findings in the literature and ongoing studies in Hamburg. Therefore, I prioritized to interview with key informants in the first cycle of Hamburg data collection (Phase 1.2.1). In the meantime, the research application for qualitative data collection in Hamburg public schools was submitted to Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung (BSB – School and Vocational Training Authority) in July 2019, which was approved in April 2020 (See Appendix P) after two rounds of revision mainly on the format of application.

Using the IRB approval from METU, the first cycle qualitative data collection in Hamburg took place in August and September 2019. I conducted *a)* interviews with four PhD candidates at the University of Hamburg who were working on the newly arrived migrant students in their dissertation projects, *b)* two coordinators at the education authority (i.e., BSB) who were responsible for managing the IPCs in Hamburg, *c)* a professor in Berlin who is one of the prominent figures on welcome classrooms in Germany, *d)* a teacher working in an IPC in Hamburg, and *e)* a social worker in an NGO in Hamburg who were assisting families in their access to education system. The NGO also facilitated my access to three Afghan refugee families, in which I talked to parents and children who had earlier participated in IPCs in Hamburg.

After obtaining their informed consent, all interviews were conducted face-to-face, audio-recorded, and transcribed verbatim, except for the family and student interviews in that cycle, which I had to summarize interview data *ex post facto* and complement them with field notes because the interview setting and the participants' interaction with me differed considerably from the other interviews. I interviewed with key informants in English and the interpreters were present for parent and student interviews to translate from Dari to German/English.

Due to COVID-19 pandemic, I had to postpone visiting schools in Hamburg to avoid risking myself and any research participants until both parties agreed on the safety of the conditions. In December 2020 (Phase 1.2.2), I was invited by a school that had one of the longstanding IPCs in Hamburg. I interviewed with two teachers, one of whom was also coordinating these classrooms in the school. In addition to the questions about the organization of language support for the newly arrived migrant students in their school, I also asked them to elaborate on their experiences since the beginning of COVID-19. Except for the first months of the pandemic, COVID-19 pandemic did not put so much strain on the IPCs as mainstream classrooms due to their lower number of students, which helped them maintain their lessons mostly face-to-face. This information was significant because it meant that the interview data was still reflecting the ordinary practices of the IPC system.

The third cycle (Phase 1.2.3) of qualitative data collection in Hamburg took place in September and October 2021 when the COVID-19 measures were eased as a result of the lower spread of the disease. I revisited the school in the previous cycle to conduct interviews with two language teachers and two students. I managed to reach one more language teacher in another school. I also carried out classroom observations for 12 hours in two IPCs.

Leading a comparative study, particularly on a group of students who are considered vulnerable, could pose unique hardships regarding formulation of interview questions, research approvals and recruitment of research participants (Liamputtong, 2007). While developing the interview schedules, the questions, particularly for the students and their parents, were formulated with utmost attention to care for their potential vulnerability and to comply with particular safeguards in terms of research ethics. As a result of first interviews with students and parents, it was revealed that some of them could not provide in-depth information, but excluding their voices was not appropriate because they helped corroborate the data from other group of interviewees. It was also an opportunity to observe students' Turkish or German speaking abilities during interviews. Due to sensitive nature of the research topic in Turkey at the time of this study, I was often warned against a long review process and possible disapproval of the study by the Turkish MoNE. On the contrary, the study was approved in a relatively short time, and I was welcomed by most of the schools in a very friendly manner in İstanbul case. Regarding the sympathetic attitudes of the schools, I had the impression that their voices were absent for a long time about this emerging phenomenon that they were looking forward to expressing their opinions. I also did my best to establish rapport and make the research process as transparent as possible. In Hamburg, the review process took up a great deal of time – nine months from the first application to the final permission. Recruiting participants was more challenging than İstanbul because the schools were often not available on the pretext of their heavy schedules, or simply some of them were not willing to allocate their time.

3.5.2. Quantitative Data Collection Process

The quantitative data was collected online in İstanbul and face-to-face in classroom environment in Hamburg. In both contexts, the quantitative data were collected through a combination of criterion and snowball sampling methods from the newly arrived migrant students attending lower-secondary education level in public schools.

The qualitative phases in this study and cognitive interviews strongly suggested that it might yield unreliable estimates to restrict students' responses to a single-language questionnaire in the quantitative phase. Given the students' different language repertoire, they have varying degrees of oral and written proficiencies in their first and destination languages. In both contexts, the Turkish and German questionnaires constituted the main data collection instruments, whose validity and reliability were ensured through multiple CFAs. The questionnaires in alternative languages (i.e., Arabic in İstanbul and English, Arabic, Dari, and Turkish versions in Hamburg) were used as complementary to facilitate understanding of the items when necessary. To illustrate, the students were enabled to switch across Turkish and Arabic languages instantly on the online questionnaire in İstanbul. During onsite administration of the questionnaire in Hamburg, the students were provided with the questionnaire in their first languages, if available, along with the German version. Low-proficient students in German were observed to consult the questionnaire in the first languages or supported by the researcher and assistants when necessary.

The data collection for the quantitative phase had been planned onsite in both contexts, but it had to be moved to virtual environment in Turkey as the schools did not deliver face-to-face instruction for an extended period of time during COVID-19 pandemic. The cognitive interviews with Pilot Sample 1 ($n = 5$) were carried out face-to-face in a public school in Sancaktepe district of İstanbul at the beginning of March 2020. Upon school closures two weeks later due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the questionnaire was adapted to online environment through Qualtrics®, which is an advanced data collection tool that enables flexibility to develop new question types with a user-friendly interface. To develop a responsive questionnaire that dynamically changes the order and availability of the questions based on students' answers, I used custom coding in the background. As a result, the students could

access the questionnaire on any mobile device and respond the relevant questions based on their circumstances without experiencing much cognitive load.

After the instrument was finalized, the quantitative study in İstanbul was first reviewed and approved by Human Subjects Ethics Committee at Middle East Technical University in June 2020 and subsequently by Provincial Directorate of National Education in İstanbul in July 2020. Both institutions did not request any modifications (See Appendix O and Q for approval letters). The quantitative data collection in İstanbul started with the pilot phases in September – October 2020. A Syrian research assistant, who worked for a local NGO in Sultanbeyli district, assisted me to distribute the online questionnaire link to the Syrian community. As it was very hard to reach Syrian refugee students and convince them to participate in the study, families were remunerated with a grocery voucher (25 Turkish liras, equivalent to 4 Euros in September 2020) in exchange for their children's participation in the study. At the beginning of the questionnaire, parents were asked to enter their mobile phone numbers so that they could receive the digital voucher code after their children successfully submitted the questionnaire. Since the participants were remunerated, the process could be vulnerable to any abuse or fake respondents. Therefore, I quickly screened responses daily to identify if there were any considerable careless responding, straightlining or potential fake respondents. After I verified their responses, one of the main retailers in Turkey sent digital codes to the parents' mobile phones.

Due to COVID-19, the main quantitative data in İstanbul sample was also collected online in March 2021 by following the same steps in the pilot phase. The questionnaire was administered in Turkish and Arabic. Students could change the language of the questionnaire at any time. Another Syrian research assistant who works for an international NGO in İstanbul helped me to distribute the survey. Parents were remunerated in exchange for their children's participation.

After completing the quantitative data collection in İstanbul, I carried out minor revisions in some questions' wording and adapted it once again to pencil and paper format for Hamburg phase. In June 2021, I applied to the education authority in Hamburg for the research permission. Meanwhile, I prepared information leaflets for

the school staff and parents (See Appendix N for sample invitation leaflet). I received expert feedback on all documents from the members of the working group where I was involved at the University of Hamburg. Regarding the diversity of student population in Hamburg, the questionnaire, consent forms, and information leaflets for parents were prepared in the most frequent languages spoken in Hamburg schools including Turkish, Arabic, Dari, English in addition to German version. Since the questionnaire was already available in Turkish, I did some minor edits and prepared the consent forms and information leaflets. I received professional translation service for Dari and English versions, and for edits in the Arabic version. A two-eye principle was followed in adapting and translating these documents; that is to say, a native speaker in the target language carried out the first translation and another native speaker checked for the accuracy.

Six months later in November 2021, I received permission from the education authority in Hamburg after two rounds of revision in the consent forms (See Appendix M for sample consent for quantitative study in Hamburg). A German research assistant, who pursues a master's degree at the University of Hamburg, assisted me to recruit schools and administer the questionnaire. In January 2022, we identified all schools in Hamburg that may include a high ratio of immigrant students or have IPCs for the newly arrived migrant students. As it was not suggested to visit schools without having appointments, we first sent e-mails to the selected schools by attaching the information leaflets and research approval letter. Some schools never returned to the e-mails although reminders were sent regularly. Some stated that they could not participate due to their heavy schedules, or they were already participating in another study.

In our first visit to each volunteer school, we introduced the research in detail and shared consent forms and information leaflets for parents. Then we scheduled another appointment for the data collection. On the date of data collection, a social pedagogue or intern teachers were always present in the classroom. The research assistant and I orchestrated the questionnaire administration. The students were enabled to choose the questionnaire among the available languages. Interestingly, it was observed that the low proficient students in German made use of both German and the questionnaire in their first languages. When they had difficulty in

understanding any item, they either benefited from German or the questionnaire in their first languages. In addition, I was always present with my research assistant to answer their questions. Depending on students' proficiency, it roughly took 40 minutes to one hour to collect data in one session. The last school was visited in April 2022.

3.6. Data Analyses

The section below introduces the steps of qualitative and quantitative main data analyses in İstanbul and Hamburg. It also shows the strategies for mixed methods data analysis at final points of interface merging qualitative and quantitative findings.

3.6.1. Qualitative Data Analyses

I adopted Creswell's (2015) analytic strategies to analyze and interpret the qualitative data within İstanbul and Hamburg. As Michael Quinn Patton (2002) noted, "Because each qualitative study is unique, the analytical approach used will be unique" (p. 433), the analysis strategy in this study was adapted in line with the conceptual framework, research design, and data collection instruments to serve for the purposes of the research. The analysis, which was carried out concurrent with data collection, was inductive in form to discover categories, themes, and patterns (Patton, 2002), and iterative to cycle back and forth between elaborating on the available data and exerting new strategies for more data collection (Creswell, 2015).

In the first step, I transcribed the audio-recorded interview data verbatim and typed the field notes from classroom observations in the word processing program. The interview transcripts and field notes were checked for the accuracy. The data were organized by type, participants, and İstanbul or Hamburg. All data were formatted to facilitate analysis.

In the second step, I was mainly involved in exploring the data by firstly reading the raw data several times to immerse into interviews and fields notes. I also wrote some memos about my initial thoughts, which involve ideas, concepts, or hunches about the given research questions and preliminary categories. The qualitative data analysis software - MAXQDA® - was used to ease the management of data coding process

and visualization. Throughout all coding process, I followed Saldaña's (2015) suggestions and coding methods for qualitative researchers. The coding was initiated with Attribute Coding that involves assigning basic descriptive information to the data sources such as fieldwork setting, participant demographics, data format, and time frame. To protect participant confidentiality, the settings were changed, and pseudonyms replaced real participants' names.

In the third step, I coded all segments related to the central phenomenon of my research in the data corpus using Bronfenbrenner's (1974, 1976, 1994) *Ecological Systems Theory* as a conceptual framework. The coding process was divided in two main cycles. In the first cycle, I employed Eclectic Coding that is a form of open coding, employing more than one compatible coding methods in the same analysis when there is a wide array of data forms. The Eclectic Coding in this study was a combination of Holistic Coding, In Vivo Coding, and Concept Coding. I started with Holistic Coding that applies a single code to a large chunk of data to grasp the basic issues and to hint the possible categories that may generate. After this preparatory analysis, the first cycle coding went on with In Vivo Coding to capture the voices of the participants and Concept Coding that assigns higher levels of meaning to data rather than describing an object or observable behavior. I also developed and refined the qualitative codebook concurrently with the first cycle coding.

Before the second cycle coding, the first cycle codes were organized and assembled through code mapping to remove redundant codes, revise and merge synonyms, and categorize initial codes when possible. The second cycle coding included Pattern Coding, in which similarly coded segments were pulled out to form more parsimonious units of analysis. These summaries were further grouped into a smaller number of categories. Then descriptions and themes were developed by grouping these codes. To capture the complexity and multiple layers of the reality, I looked for all plausible rival explanations (i.e., contrary evidence) referring to any alternative interpretation that disconfirms the themes by providing contradictory evidence (Creswell, 2015; Yin, 2018). The themes were refined until the major themes reached saturation, where no new information would lead a new theme or add more details to an existing theme. The themes were interconnected to display the ecology of the language learning for newly arrived migrant students. These steps were first

followed while conducting within-case analysis with İstanbul and Hamburg data. After identifying within-case patterns, I conducted cross-case analysis (Stake, 2005) as an analytic strategy to retain the holistic understanding of İstanbul and Hamburg. The aim here was to compare and synthesize any within-case patterns regarding their commonalities and differences across cases (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2018).

In the fourth step, I presented the findings first with a rich description of each case, their unique categories, and themes, and next by providing cross-case analysis results. To demonstrate the findings in a clear way, figures were used to visually represent themes, categories, and codes, which were color coded according to their dominance in İstanbul or Hamburg. I reported the findings in the form of narrative discussion (Creswell, 2015) giving vivid descriptions, using quotes from the interview data and field notes, and exerting metaphors and analogies. All non-English quotes were translated verbatim into English. Please see Appendix D for sample excerpts of translated interviews.

In the final step, I engaged in interpretation of the major findings in relation to the research questions, my personal reflections, and key findings in the literature.

3.6.2. Quantitative Data Analyses

The quantitative data were explored through regression analyses in R. Specifically, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted between the outcome variable of self-reported destination language proficiencies and the predictor variables at individual, family, and formal learning environment levels. Moderated linear regression analyses examined the interaction effects of family members' destination language proficiencies, parent's education level, and family involvement in education on the student's destination language proficiency.

Sample 1 in İstanbul and Sample 2 in Hamburg were used to address the quantitative research questions. Sample 1 consisted of 245 participants and was formed by taking a sub-sample from the larger Pilot Sample 3, which originally included 397 participants. Pilot Sample 3 served as a large dataset used for scale validation purposes in İstanbul. From the Pilot Sample 3, a specific subset of newly arrived migrant students who had been in Turkey for six years or less were selected,

resulting in the formation of Sample 1. In Hamburg, Sample 2 consisted of 189 newly arrived migrant students. This selection process ensured that both Sample 1 and Sample 2 focused on the newly arrived migrants with relatively limited duration of stay in both contexts.

The data were screened for outliers and multicollinearity. Assumptions for regression analyses were checked on the original data sets before any imputation. In both İstanbul and Hamburg samples, the z score values and box plots did not point out any recurrent cases of potential univariate outliers. Regarding the multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis distance values indicated three cases as potential multivariate outliers for Sample 1 at the threshold value of $\chi^2(18) = 42.31, p = .001$, but no indication for Sample 2 at the critical value of $\chi^2(15) = 37.70, p = .001$. However, the leverage scores remained within the critical value of .220 for Sample 1 and the critical value of .238 for Sample 2, pointing the absence of multivariate outliers for both samples. The influential cases were further investigated through Cook's distance. No cases in the Sample 1 had values larger than 1.00, which indicated the absence of multivariate outlier according to Cook's distance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In the Sample 2, Cook's distance identified two cases as potential multivariate outliers, which were not confirmed by the other multivariate outlier measures. As a result, the decision was to retain all cases in both samples because they were not consistently confirmed by multiple outlier measures.

No multicollinearity was detected among the predictor variables. Specifically, the tolerance value ranged between .40 and .93 for Sample 1 and between .90 and .39 for Sample 2. The VIF values scored from 1.08 to 2.50 for Sample 1 and from 2.54 to 1.11 for Sample 2.

The independence of errors, linearity, homoscedasticity, and normality of residuals were tested as assumptions of the regression analyses between the student's self-reported destination language proficiencies and the rest of variables. Regarding the independence of errors, the Durbin-Watson statistics indicate lack of autocorrelation when they are close to 2 (Field, 2018). Both Sample 1 and Sample 2 fulfilled this criterion with the values 2.039 and 2.188 respectively. In addition, the inspections of

residuals did not show considerable deviations from the normality for both samples (See Appendix G for probability plots).

Sample 1 did not have any missing data because all questions which were considered as predictor variables were defined as a forced question in the online questionnaire. Sample 2 in Hamburg had some missing data in the predictor variables. Specifically, 5.16% of the data were missing completely at random as confirmed by Little MCAR's test result, $\chi^2(3297) = 3340.87, p = .293$. Regarding the number of cases that needed to be imputed, the data showed 50.79% of the cases had at least one missing value across the predictor variables. Regarding all this information, I accounted for missing information regarding the predictor variables in Sample 2 with multiple imputation using iterated chained equations (Enders, 2010; White et al., 2011). The number of imputations ($m = 50$) and iterations ($n = 10$) were determined following the rule of thumb where m should be at least equal to the percentage of incomplete cases, and 10 iterations yield stable values (White et al., 2011). The assumptions for regression analyses were also met with the complete data set.

Finally, the sample sizes were considered adequate to conduct regression analyses because the number of variables in Sample 1 İstanbul and Sample 2 Hamburg satisfied the criterion of at least five observations for one variable (Hair et al., 2010). In Sample 1, the number of observations per variable was 13.6, while the ratio for Sample 2 was 12.6 per variable.

3.6.3. Mixed Methods Comparative Data Analysis and Integration

Mixed methods data analysis involves the utilization of analytical techniques that are applied to both quantitative and qualitative data, along with the integration of these two types of data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The purpose of employing mixed methods data analysis is to gain a comprehensive understanding of the research phenomenon by leveraging the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches.

In this study, the mixed methods data analysis was carried out at two points of integration by combining the qualitative and quantitative findings. Figure 16 presents the mixed methods data analysis strategy in this study. The first integration happened

during within-case mixed methods analysis, when the qualitative and quantitative findings were interpreted in each context individually. The second integration occurred as cross-case mixed methods analysis when the mixed methods findings were combined in İstanbul and Hamburg to develop a comparative understanding of the destination language learning.

The integration results between qualitative and quantitative findings across İstanbul and Hamburg were discussed through a comparison joint display and in narrative form. The mixed method findings were interpreted by noting discrepant and congruent results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). In case of divergence between qualitative and quantitative findings, the discrepancy was discussed regarding the possible reasons of divergence and which form of data might provide more trustworthy results.

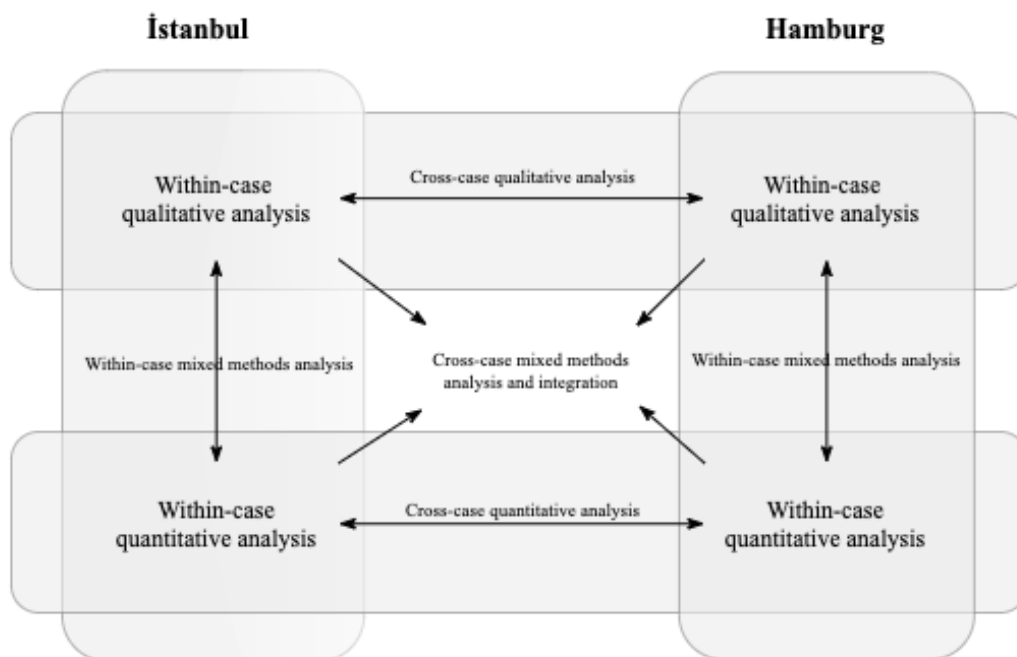


Figure 16
Mixed Methods Comparative Data Analysis and Integration

3.7. Researcher Positionality and Reflections on the Research Process

As a Turkey-born and -raised researcher, I approached this research with particular understandings and experiences. I have a B.A. degree in English Language and Literature, and an M.A. degree in Comparative Literature. I always appreciate having literature education background that reminds me of the co-existence of multiple perspectives, the value of reading between lines, and judging events within their social milieus. I worked as English as a second language instructor at a state university in Turkey for 10 years. I mostly worked with young adults who had high aspirations for their futures, but very restricted resources to fulfill these goals. They came from poor families and disadvantaged neighborhoods in large urban areas. As a teacher who was also involved in different administrative positions, I firsthand experienced how macro-policies at institution- and state-level might influence the classroom practices and waste teachers' efforts. All these experiences were the drivers of pursuing a PhD study in educational sciences to deduce more meaningful inferences about the underlying reasons.

Before I particularly embarked on this research, I made myself familiar with the legal pillars of refugee protection and forced migration by participating in a summer course at Humboldt University Berlin in 2018. I received trainings on volunteering with refugees by the Cambridge Language Assessment and Crisis Classroom, and on teacher support for integration of immigrant and refugee students into society by (Helsinki) Citizens Assembly & Beraberce in Turkey. These short-term courses and my personal readings framed my perspective about human movement, its root causes, and implications in the receiving societies. I believe that this is not a unique issue or a very brand-new phenomenon contrary to increased attention in the recent decade, but a persistent phenomenon interacting complexly with other societal and political issues, which has various facets concerning different disciplines, particularly sociology of education and political science. As an educational sciences researcher, I did my best to cover one corner of the phenomenon focusing the educational processes and outcomes with a rights-based perspective.

From the first data collection in Spring 2019 to heavy write-up days in Spring 2023, I observed growing anti-Syrian sentiment in Turkey mainly triggered by the high

volume of refugees, lack of long-term planning about their future, and the struggling Turkish economy with soaring inflation. Like the rest of the world, I also experienced COVID-19 pandemic causing significant delays in my data collection and forcing me to conduct several revisions in my research strategy. As the pandemic proceeded in an unforeseeable way, some of these strategies failed or became redundant. To the best of my ability, I tried to involve all these aspects while interpreting my findings, but it was not surprising that the newly arrived migrant students and schools were more susceptible to such economic, political, and societal shifts exacerbating their vulnerabilities.

I did not have any significant internal or transnational migration experience similar to the target group of students. From 2016 to 2020, I had only short-term travels and research stays in Germany, but I also experienced a permanent move to Germany in the second half of this study. I have been engaged in learning German as my third language and navigating the cultural and social life in Germany as a permanent resident. I am getting accustomed to my new environment, but I still feel like an outsider. However different the processes and conditions were, these personal experiences helped me gain greater empathy towards my research topic and participants.

3.8. Limitations and Countermeasures

The study is limited in some respects. Countermeasures were taken to defer the impact of potential limitations.

First, the sample is restricted to students at lower-secondary education level (grade 5–8), and it is not certain whether the quantitative findings generalize to other age groups. Secondly, the quantitative indicators were based on the student's self-report. Such measures are subjective in nature and may be affected by different factors such as inaccuracies in self-assessment or social desirability bias, which has been defined as the tendency to give socially accepted and favorable answers (Paulhus, 1984; Paulhus & Reid, 1991). Particularly, the outcome variable was relied upon student's self-reported language proficiencies, which may yield biased estimates for some groups (Edele et al., 2015), particularly young learners, or misrepresent existing

effects (Finnie & Meng, 2005). Consequently, the accuracy and reliability of the language proficiency scores obtained through self-reporting may be compromised.

Another possible concern with the study is that the quantitative data in İstanbul had to be collected during COVID-19 in İstanbul. To overcome the possible history threat to internal validity of the findings (Fraenkel et al., 2015), I included an additional scale to account for the student's distance learning experiences during extended school closures in COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, I applied rigorous data screening to data in the İstanbul sample to identify any careless responding and straightlining behaviors (Krosnick, 1991; Meade & Craig, 2012).

Lastly, the quantitative data collection relied on non-probability sampling, which may restrict the generalizability of the findings to a larger population. While some might initially consider using a combination of criterion and snowball sampling in this study as a limitation, it proved to be an essential and practical approach given the unique circumstances surrounding the target group – refugee students and newly arrived migrant students, who face vulnerability and are often hard to reach (Kühne et al., 2019; Suarez-Orozco, 2019). To reach newly arrived migrant students and reduce potential bias for selection, I made use of various entry points into schools in Hamburg and the Syrian refugee community in İstanbul using ethnic networks with the help of local non-governmental organizations. To illustrate this widespread approach, Aljadeeah et al., (2021) used quota sampling in conjunction with convenience and snowball sampling in a cross-sectional study on refugees' access to medicines in Germany.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Instruction is situated in a noisy landscape To shape instruction, the logic has been, one needs to act on multiple fronts. (Sykes & Wilson, 2016, p. 851)

This chapter presents the findings on the organization of destination language support for newly arrived migrant students at lower-secondary education level in İstanbul and Hamburg. It further expands on the contextual determinants of their destination language proficiency.

4.1. Ecology of Language Support for Newly Arrived Migrant Students

Drawing on the interview data and classroom observations, the findings revealed the ecology of the destination language support for the newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul and Hamburg. The ecological system reflected the Bronfenbrenner's nested structure that extends from individual learner characteristics to macro-level forces (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006).

The learner characteristics were situated at the core of the ecology of language support. Apart from every learner's unique characteristics and needs, the qualitative findings identified an additional layer of migration-related characteristics for the newly arrived migrant students. These distinct characteristics contributed to their status as super-diverse learners due to their migration pathway, prior schooling and academic achievement, social network composition, and language proficiencies.

The microsystem encompassed the formal learning environment, where learners were exposed to destination language learning in support programs and mainstream classrooms. The findings scrutinized the readiness of the formal learning environment while addressing the students' language needs. Classroom climate and

learning experiences constituted the superordinate categories. The classroom climate was characterized by the contextual constraints and classroom dynamics. The learning experiences elaborated on the scope of teacher support and prevalent teaching strategies.

The mesosystem identified three gaps as building blocks of family-school partnership associated with destination language learning: perception gap, language gap, and information gap.

The exosystem outlined the governance of destination language instruction. It revealed a chain of actions clustered around policy formation, curriculum input, and assessment and evaluation. The policy formation highlighted the planning horizon of the language programs, design challenge (integrative vs. segregated), and curriculum development process. The curriculum input constituted teachers' professional knowledge, access to course materials, and learning outcomes. The assessment and evaluation mapped entry process to language programs, formative assessment, and exit protocol.

The macrosystem pertained to the blueprint of the receiving contexts. The findings in this overarching system permeated influence across all nested structures through the availability of economic sources, the status of the integration landscape, and the configuration of the education systems.

4.1.1. Learner Characteristics: Super-diverse Learners

The results revealed that the newly arrived migrant students held considerable within-group differences. These migration-related individual characteristics posed challenges to the implementation of the language programs. Drawing on Vertovec's (2007) concept of *super-diversity* that describes the contemporary phenomenon of highly complex migration patterns intersecting ethnic, cultural, and social groups in a single social space, I adapted this term to define the newly arrived migrant students in the language classrooms. The students as super-diverse learners exhibited variations in their migration background, proficiencies in their first and destination languages, schooling trajectories, and ethnic composition within their immediate environment. Figure 17 depicts the findings on the super-diverse characteristics. The

outer layer shows the qualitative codes, which were clustered to form the categories shown in the inner layer.

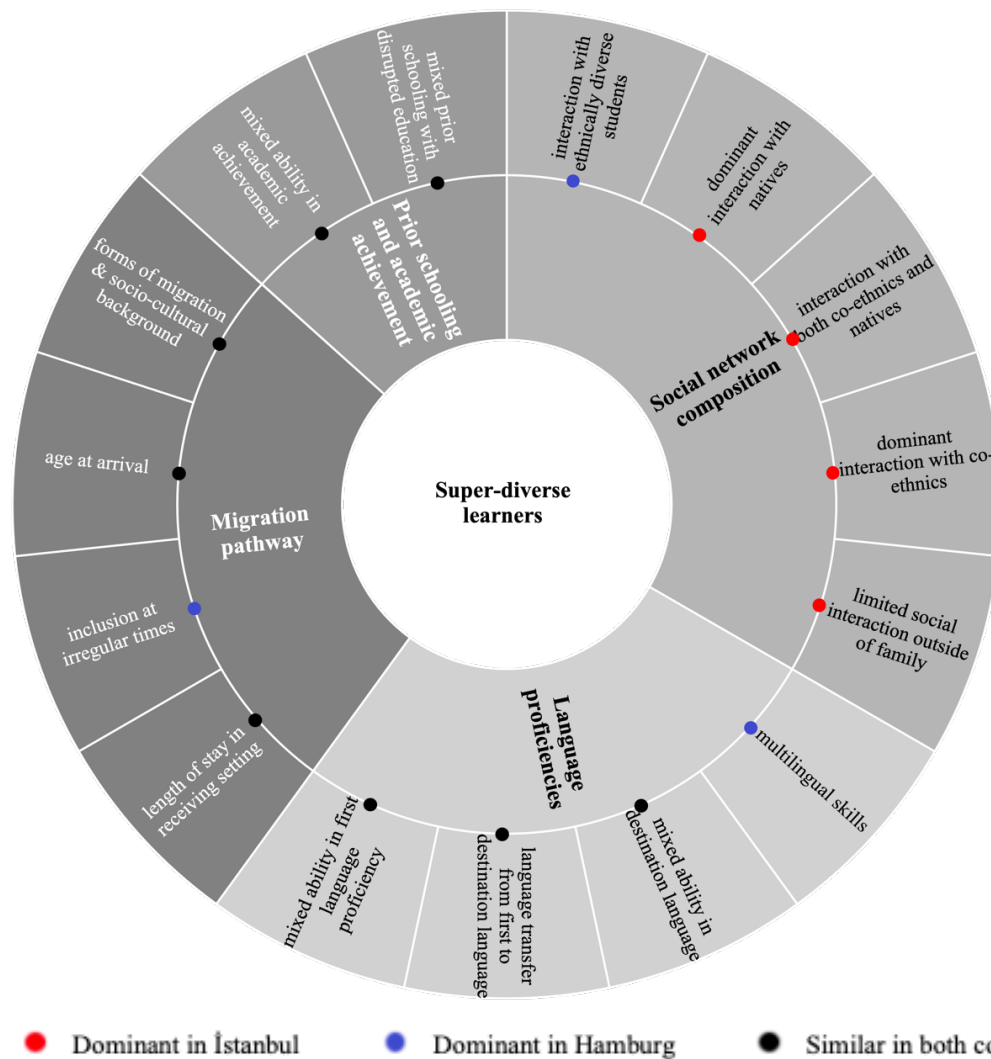


Figure 17

Qualitative Findings on Learners' Characteristics

4.1.1.1. Migration Pathway. The learners' super-diversity disclosed itself first in their migration and socio-cultural background. Contrary to the prevalent assumption that the Syrian students in İstanbul were more homogenous and monolithic due to the same country of origin, the findings pointed out that "in forced migration, all levels of society come and migrate in an unexpected way," so did the Syrians in İstanbul possess different ethnic backgrounds including "Arab Syrians, Kurdish Syrians, Alevis, and non-Alevis" (interview, original excerpt, K1, female, May 2019, İstanbul). To reinforce that nuanced understanding of the Syrian children, a key informant working on the sociology of migration underlined the tendency to describe

Syrian people only over their ethnic identity in İstanbul. Against discrete homogenous compartmental view, she reiterated the argument that “the heterogenous identity is not so visible. As a result, the identity is pronounced through broad generalizations and being Syrian” (interview, original in Turkish, K2R, female, May 2019, İstanbul).

In Hamburg, the language classrooms accommodated a more diverse group of students regarding the forms of migration and socio-cultural background. Children of economic migrants, forcibly displaced people, and high-skilled workers found themselves in the same classroom. A teacher working in the language classrooms highlighted this diversity by saying:

We have students from the ballet boarding school and the parents do not usually have any financial problems. However, there are also refugee students and I think they have financial difficulties. Other students come to Hamburg because their parents found a job here. I guess they belong to the middle class. It is also very different. (interview, original excerpt, T5, female, September 2021, Hamburg)

Consistent with this acknowledgment, the students’ diverse backgrounds were prominently manifested within the learning environment in Hamburg. The classroom observations revealed instances where a student from Switzerland with a privileged experience and a student from Afghanistan with a more disadvantaged background coexisted in the same language learning environment. Consequently, the lesson had to navigate meeting one student’s expectations while potentially falling behind the other (observation, O2-2, O2-3, O2-5, September – October 2021, Hamburg).

In addition, the study showed three key temporal aspects contributing to the learners’ super-diversity: *age at arrival*, *inclusion into schools at irregular times*, and *length of stay in the receiving contexts*. These factors collectively shaped the language learning experiences. Age at arrival was important because it determined the extent the students could benefit from the language provisions. In both contexts, the students who arrived at a younger age were presumed to reap the benefits of the language programs better than the late-arrivals. Particularly in Hamburg’s tracked school system, a younger age at arrival was associated with better gains from the language programs in the short term. Consequently, this might lead to an increased likelihood of obtaining school leaving certificates from the academic track (e.g., Gymnasium) in the long-term. A language teacher in Hamburg emphasized that “the

ones who arrived at younger ages, for sure, have a higher chance; as they grow older or arrive at a later age, their chances of attaining higher academic qualifications certificates diminishes” (interview, original in Turkish, T1, male, August 2019, Hamburg).

The second temporal characteristic was the irregular inclusion time into the language programs. Due to their arrival in the destination settings at different times, the students might follow irregularities to register into the schools. An illustrative example on this issue depicted that:

If all students started at the same time, it could be an advantage for me. For instance, the kid arrives in the middle of the year. I have already advanced the other kids to a certain language level and that kid joins us! How am I supposed to progress that kid? (interview, original in Turkish, T4, male, September 2021, Hamburg)

The teachers pronounced this recurrent issue in both contexts as a challenge to develop and implement a structured curriculum. A single class could easily turn into a multi-level class as more students were included in the language programs.

The final temporal characteristic was the length of stay in the receiving setting, which could *per se* result in different levels of language proficiencies within the same classroom. Due to unforeseeable nature of language support in İstanbul, some students experienced significant delays in accessing the language support. Meanwhile, the early-arrivals improved their language proficiency through informal learning environment such as peers, media, or individual efforts. These students could only access structured language learning opportunities several years after their arrival. The challenge was to offer a course that would cater to the language needs of both early-arrivals and recent-arrivals, who were still grappling with the basics of the language.

4.1.1.2. Prior Schooling and Academic Achievement. The newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul and Hamburg brought diverse educational backgrounds and different levels of academic achievement to the school contexts. Some students had no recollections about their origin countries, lacked formal education, or experienced disrupted education throughout their migration journey. Conversely, the other students had uninterrupted education with full access to formal education. To

illustrate, the following excerpt from an interview with a Syrian student in İstanbul revealed the intricate nature of the disrupted education background:

Interviewer (I): When did you come to Turkey? Could you shortly talk about it?

Student (S): 2013.

I: You came in 2013. Which schools did you earlier attend?

S: A temporary education center

I: How long did you spend there?

S: Two years.

I: Did you start that school as soon as you came here?

S: No. Because my mother worked, we did not have any money. I did not attend any school; I did not have any other choice because my sibling was too young.

I: So when did you start attending the temporary education center after you came to Turkey?

S: Three or three and half years.

I: You started three and half years later?

S: Yes. Indeed, I should have attended grade 11 at the upper-secondary school now.

I: Yes, but you are still attending the eighth grade.

S: Yes

I: How long have you been in this school?

S: This is my first year.

(interview, original in Turkish, S14, girl, October 2019, İstanbul)

The teacher interviews in İstanbul echoed similar experiences about the Syrian students' education background and shared their concerns about accommodating that diversity in the same classroom. In Hamburg, the newly arrived migrant students demonstrated a similar but broader array of educational backgrounds due to their more nuanced migration background and social environment. A teacher in Hamburg underlined that some students arrived in Germany without proper education because of forcibly displacement and others faced limited access to quality education in their origin countries as a result of the privatization of public education (interview, T6, female, October 2021, Hamburg). At the same time, the children of economic migrants, particularly high-skilled workers, pursued their education careers with minimal disruption and learning losses. An interview with an Afghan refugee student in Hamburg corroborated this disparity. When asked about his schooling experience before he arrived in Germany, he hesitated to respond and later recalled that he had only attended a makeshift place resembling a garage in Afghanistan for three years (interview, S2, boy, September 2019, Hamburg). Such asymmetrical education backgrounds were expected to yield myriad repercussions for the language programs in particular and the students' education career in general.

Against this background, greater benefits from the language programs might be more attributed to the students who encountered the least disruption with better educational opportunities in the origin countries. However, the interview results, contradicting any sweeping generalizations, showed that “the group also has a really high diversity just as native students” (interview, original excerpt, K1, female, September 2019, Hamburg) and “some of the best students come from Syria and Afghanistan with big motivation to learn” (interview, original excerpt, T2 and T3, female, December 2020, Hamburg). Similarly, some of the top-performing students involved Syrian students in İstanbul. Still, the same class might have the most introverted and timid Syrian students (interview, original in Turkish, T7, female, October 2019, İstanbul). As a result, the teachers in both contexts had to navigate their groups’ mixed-ability backgrounds in terms of academic achievement while planning their lessons.

4.1.1.1. Social Network Composition. Social network composition was the third pattern marking the newly arrived migrant students’ super-diverse characteristics. The students exhibited distinct patterns of social interaction that reflected their diverse backgrounds and experiences.

For some students, the social interactions were primarily restricted to their immediate family. As they navigated the challenges of adjusting to a new environment, the students often found comfort and support within their familial networks. Their limited social interaction outside of the family might be attributed to factors such as language barriers, cultural differences, or a lack of familiarity with the local community. Particularly in the early years of their arrival, some Syrian children in İstanbul were refrained from socializing with their peers outside due to uncertainty in the new environment. A 14-year-old Syrian student attending the seventh grade reported that he usually spent his time with his siblings at home because his family – like many Syrian families in that neighborhood – did not allow him to go out for fear of being kidnapped (interview, S17, boy, October 2019, İstanbul). Some families’ concerns for their children’s safety and well-being were a recurrent pattern restricting social interaction with native Turkish peers.

Another prominent pattern was the dominant interaction with co-ethnic peers, particularly in İstanbul. With the closure of Temporary Education Centers (TECs), the number of Syrian students in İstanbul public schools soared. These students tended to gravitate toward their peers who shared a similar cultural background and migration experience. The school administrators and teachers deemed the transfer of Syrian students from the TECs to regular schools as an appropriate course of action. However, they cautioned against the risk of emerging ethnic enclaves within schools as a challenge to learning Turkish. A school administrator managing a densely populated school in Sultanbeyli district voiced this concern regarding the delicate balance as follows:

I guess the aim of closing down the TECs was to facilitate the students' integration; in other words, the TECs had become like a school in Syria. The students were distributed to regular schools to accelerate their Turkish learning and integration. The Syrian students were not allowed to concentrate in the same classroom; we did not do so, either. They were distributed across different classrooms. However, they continued grouping among themselves. In the past, there used to be one or two Syrian students in a classroom. They would integrate quickly because they could not find another Syrian kid to play. They were only socializing with Turkish peers. They used to learn Turkish faster. However, the higher the number of Syrian children got in the regular classes – let's say five, six, seven, or eight Syrian students in a class – the easier they found it to play with their ethnic peers by forming their own group because they had friends who could understand them better, who could speak the same language, who had the same cultural background, and who knew the same games. I think the increase in the number of Syrian children in regular classrooms made it more challenging. (interview, original in Turkish, A6P, male, October 2019, İstanbul)

Despite observations about the adverse effect of co-ethnics on destination language learning, it was also revealed that the students might find a sense of solidarity and access to valuable support networks that understand their unique challenges and experiences by engaging with their co-ethnic students. However, the results pointed out that not all newly arrived migrant students exclusively interacted with co-ethnics in İstanbul. Some students actively sought opportunities to engage with both co-ethnic and native students. The others, on the other hand, predominantly interacted with the native students.

The newly arrived migrant students in Hamburg engaged more in ethnically diverse student networks, a byproduct of ethnic diversity and mixed migration flows in Hamburg. The classroom observations showed that the IPCs looked like a

microcosm of Hamburg's broader society, in which different nationalities and identities encountered. As a result, the classrooms were not configured to enable the dominance of one ethnic background. On the contrary, they served as a ground for diverse constellations of social networks to develop among the students.

In a nutshell, the interaction pattern showed remarkable differences, making it challenging to consider social network composition as a constant phenomenon when organizing destination language learning.

4.1.1.2. Language Proficiencies. Diverse language repertoire and proficiencies characterized the last finding contributing to the newly arrived migrant students' super-diverse characteristics. Firstly, some students still lacked basic literacy skills in their first language due to disrupted schooling or limited access to education in the origin countries. They also suffered from lack of opportunities for first language education in the destination setting. On the other hand, the same language classroom involved students who achieved full literacy in their first languages and obtained meta-linguistic awareness. The interviews with Syrian students in İstanbul supported this observation of mixed-ability student composition. Anecdotal evidence from a teacher's experience illustrated how she discerned the lack of students' first language proficiency when she sought to incorporate it into her instruction. She hoped to arrange a poetry recitation event where students could read poems in Turkish and Arabic. However, it occurred that some newly arrived migrant students could not even read in their first languages. Thus, she had to seek support from families or online sources to facilitate the event (interview, T15, female, March 2020, İstanbul). In Hamburg, the interviews with the language teachers and key informants indicated the presence of a similar group of students who usually immigrated from low-income countries or conflict zones. Contrary to İstanbul, these complete illiterate students, who could not read and write in their first languages, notably in the Latin alphabet, were first registered in Basic Classes to attain basic literacy and numeracy skills in the destination language. In both contexts, the teachers valued the first language proficiency due to its transfer effect on the destination language. In other words, as stated by a teacher:

A student who reads and writes well in their first language learns Turkish one way or another. However, the student who does not have a strong literacy level in their

first language, despite receiving education in it, may face difficulties when learning Turkish. (interview, original in Turkish, T2, male, May 2019, İstanbul)

In cases where all students had literacy in their first languages, the classrooms still included linguistically diverse students due to variations in the destination language proficiency levels. These differences were mainly associated with inclusion in public schools at irregular times, early learning opportunities before they departed from their origin countries, familial support at home, and private tutoring in receiving settings. The findings showed that such heterogeneity often presented a significant challenge to the curriculum organization and implementation. The language teachers in İstanbul and Hamburg alike expressed similar concerns emphasizing the fluctuating course structure that oscillated between low and high proficient students. A teacher in an IPC in Hamburg recounted her experience and challenge as follows:

The difficulty lies in the fact that we get almost one or two new students every week, which is why we need to differentiate a lot. And in that regard, we need to figure out how to keep the more advanced students engaged on their own for a while, so we have time to explain certain things to the new ones. That's more of the challenge, the planning of how to make it work. (interview, original in German, T5, female, September 2021, Hamburg)

Beyond a dichotomous understanding of the students' language proficiency solely between the first and destination languages, the newly arrived migrant students revealed an additional layer of language-related diverse characteristics with multilingual skills in Hamburg. Some students already had a multilingual repertoire due to their upbringing in a multilingual home environment or exposure to different languages in their origin countries. The others expanded their language repertoire on the move or were immersed in diverse language groups in the destination settings. For instance, the teachers reported that Syrian students arriving in Hamburg over Turkey surprised them with their Turkish language skills. These students had acquired the basics of Turkish during their stay in Turkey and could benefit from it in their new destination setting Hamburg while communicating with the Turkish background peers or teachers. All evidence considered, the students' diverse language backgrounds and proficiency levels amplified challenges to effective language instruction, albeit all parties' efforts to use all available language repertoire within classrooms.

4.1.2. Microsystem: Crafting the Formal Learning Landscape

The findings on the microsystem focused on the proximal processes in the formal learning environment, where the newly arrived migrant students were immersed in structured exposure to the destination language in the language support or mainstream classrooms. The learning landscape here represented the attributes of the classroom climate and the students' learning experiences. The classroom climate focused on tangible and intangible characteristics, which included contextual constraints and classroom dynamics shaped by the learners' super-diverse characteristics. The learning experiences elaborated on the patterns shaping destination language learning in the classroom, which involved the extent of teacher support and prevalent teaching strategies. Figure 18 illustrates the findings on the components of the formal learning landscape.

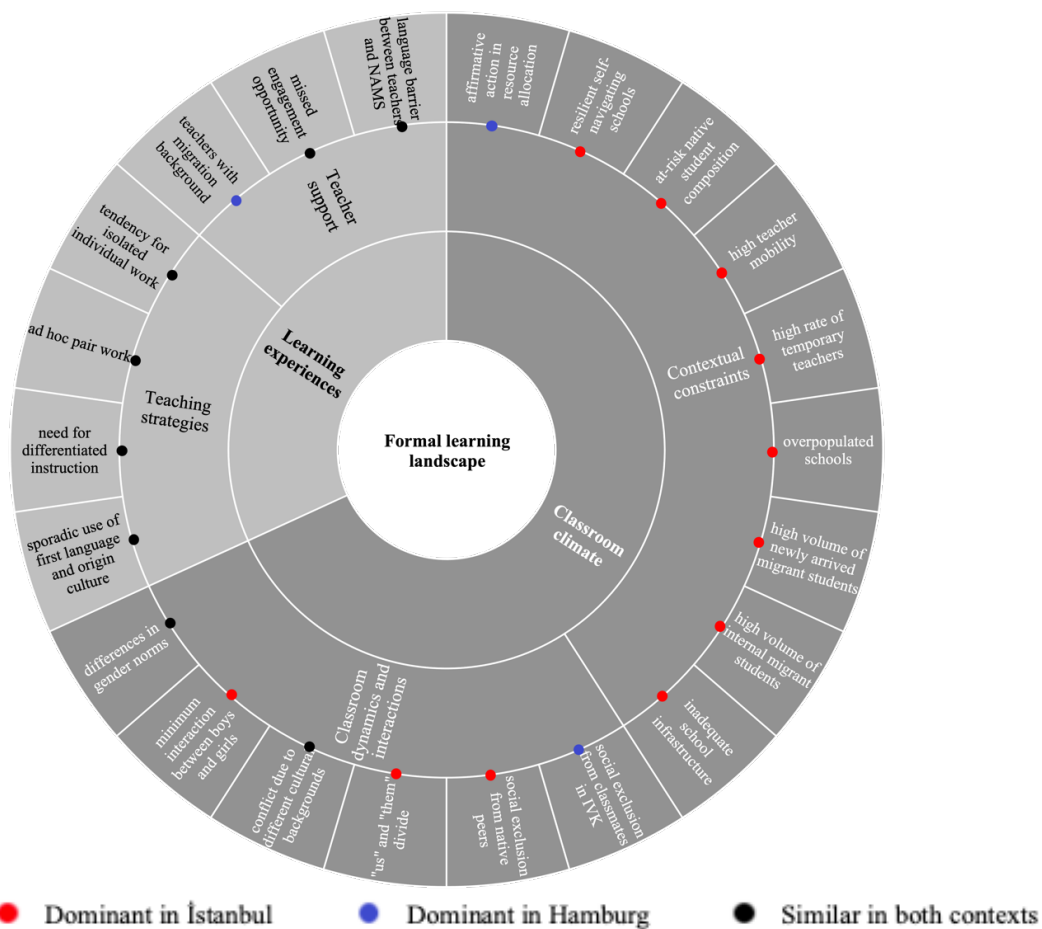


Figure 18
Qualitative Findings on Microsystem

4.1.2.1. Classroom Climate. The classroom climate focused on tangible and intangible characteristics of the learning environment, including contextual constraints and the reflection of the learners' super-diverse characteristics on the learning settings and classroom dynamics.

4.1.2.1.1. Contextual Constraints. The schools selected for the interviews and classroom observations in this study were in Sultanbeyli and Sancaktepe, the peripheral districts accommodating a substantial number of Syrian refugees in İstanbul. Likewise, their opportunities and resources were also on the margins. The overall infrastructure was reported to lag way behind their needs. For instance, some were still not equipped with smart boards and technological devices, which have been used in many public schools for several years in Turkey. Apart from disparities across districts, the schools' infrastructure showed variations within the same district. A school administrator working on the outskirts of Sultanbeyli underscored how she tackled deprived conditions with her own efforts. Notably, she boasted about maintaining order and safety in the school with two security guards and surveillance cameras connected directly to the district police department (interview, A2P, Female, May 2019, İstanbul). Though it sounded concerning at first sight, this was uttered as an essential gain for that school. At least she could somehow provide a safer space for all students. Regarding the underlying reasons for disproportionate resource allocation in the interviewed schools, the school staff could not reason with well-grounded rationale, but some bleak guesses, as voiced by a language teacher stating that "I really do not understand why this place has been particularly left in such a dire situation, why it is still done so, but there is nothing here, nothing!" (interview, original in Turkish, T9S, female, October 2019, İstanbul).

The native student composition was described as containing internal migrant students with diverse backgrounds. Some overpopulated schools served their students in double shifts, an obsolete practice in many schools, especially in relatively developed districts. With the arrival of Syrian refugee students, the administrators reported that the schools had to stretch their limited resources to accommodate them. In the observed schools, the Turkish language support courses were conducted in any available place, sometimes in an idle art atelier or a dim basement room converted into a classroom. The best possible circumstances included using regular students'

classrooms in different shifts. Apart from operational hurdles, the Turkish language teachers on temporary contracts reiterated the symbolic implication of the scarcity of adequate space for the language courses, indicating a lack of value and a sense of burden on the schools.

In addition to the tangible school infrastructure, intangible characteristics also posed a risk to nurturing the classroom environment. As expressed by the school administrators and teachers interviewed in İstanbul, a significant ratio of the overall teacher workforce relied on short-term contracts. In addition, the schools suffered from teacher mobility at higher rates. Upon fulfilling their minimum working year requirement, teachers might actively seek relocation opportunities to schools in the central districts that offer better working conditions. The student composition, on the other hand, included at-risk native students characterized by chronic absenteeism, weaker literacy in Turkish, instances of child labor and child marriage, and lower achievement rates. Despite all adversities in İstanbul, the interviews with teachers and school administrators showed that the schools were resilient and self-navigating all available opportunities to overcome the structural and practical barriers.

In Hamburg, the schools seemed to be better-equipped than those in İstanbul. Still, they were also dealing with a high number of students, which did not enable them, in many cases, to establish a special classroom designed for language education. During classroom observations and quantitative data collection in Hamburg, I encountered only one classroom carefully designed as an IPCroom with appropriate language learning materials. Unlike İstanbul, affirmative steps were taken in resource allocation for schools with high number of immigrant students to alleviate the impact of contextual constraints. Based on the Social Index (i.e., early known as KESS Index) for all state schools in Hamburg, the schools could receive additional sources for their students, including smaller classes or language support measures.

4.1.2.1.2. Classroom Dynamics and Interactions. The classroom dynamics and interactions among students referred to the complex interpersonal relationships and communication patterns, which were shaped by the super-diverse characteristics of the learners.

Differences in gender norms, which mostly disadvantaged girls, were the first pattern influencing the classroom dynamics. This phenomenon manifested itself mainly as a limited interaction between boys and girls in the language classrooms in İstanbul. The girls might feel more pressure to remain silent and draw less attention even when they have better Turkish language skills than the boys. For instance, the students were expected to read aloud during an in-class activity in one of the classroom observations in Sultanbeyli. Some girls did not want to share their part. Thanks to the teacher's encouragement, one of them was convinced but started reading timidly in a very low voice. Another boy burst out angrily stating that "I hate all these girls because they always speak very low voice" (observation, original in Turkish, O3, May 2019, İstanbul). Upon this incident, the girl, who was already reluctant, gave up the task.

When the language support was offered in segregated cohesion classrooms, convincing some families to allow their girls to join the mixed-gender language courses posed a challenge at single-gender religious lower-secondary schools in İstanbul. The schools did not have either adequate resources or the number of students did not meet the minimum requirement to offer separate classes for girls and boys. In one of the observed schools that operated double shifts, the teacher explained that the cohesion classroom had to be offered in the morning shift, which was typically attended by the boys (interview, T12CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul). The course schedule was designed to prevent interaction between boys in mainstream classrooms and girls in the cohesion classroom during course breaks. This was achieved by ensuring that their breaks did not overlap or coincide. That is to say, the cohesion classrooms conducted their lessons while the mainstream students were on their course breaks, or vice versa. Although this approach intensified the students' isolation from native Turkish peers, the teacher viewed it as a strategic action that allowed girls to benefit from the language support. In Hamburg, the gender-based disparity between girls and boys was less apparent than in İstanbul's case. Still, some instances were recounted which were exemplified by a language teacher as follows:

Some circumstances may occur in which we have to make concerted efforts. I do not want to be biased, we need to modify students' point of view, who come from the Middle Eastern countries, on men and women relationship, attitudes towards

women, and similar matters. (interview, original in Turkish, T1, male, August 2019, Hamburg)

Secondly, conflicts arising from students' cultural backgrounds and different levels of language proficiency were observed as a recurring pattern in both mainstream classrooms and language classrooms. This was particularly evident in the mainstream classrooms in İstanbul, where the classrooms became more heterogenous due to the presence of the newly arrived migrant students. The interviews with teachers, administrators, and Syrian students described instances of conflict as typical events occurring frequently. In addition, the interviews often evidenced the prevalent discourse reinforcing *us* and *them* divide between Syrian refugees and schools, which implied a deep rift that could further exacerbate the conflicting climate within schools. In Hamburg, the classroom conflict crystallized around the students' different socio-economic statuses and migration pathways, which first manifested in the IPCs. For example, an interview with an Afghan refugee student illustrated that other newly arrived migrant students in his class often bullied him because of his father's death (interview, S1, boy, September 2019, Hamburg). In line with the other findings, he also added that he did not want to return to the IPC despite its benefits on his language learning. All things considered, it was inferred that the increase in heterogenous backgrounds in the classrooms when the students did not have adequate language proficiency could lead to a higher risk of conflict among students, whether in segregated language classes or mainstream classes.

Finally, some students reported facing social exclusion based on their ethnic backgrounds and limited language proficiencies in the mainstream classrooms in İstanbul and the IPCs in Hamburg. The teachers corroborated it, explaining that Syrian students did not socialize so much with Turkish peers not only in the schools but also in their neighborhoods because they felt so humiliated mainly due to their lack of language proficiency (interview, T14CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul). A school principal in İstanbul acknowledged their shortcoming on this issue, saying that:

With respect to the schools, we also have faults. We still approach the kids as Syrians. For instance, the teacher must first alter that perspective. In meetings with our teachers, I emphasize that "dear colleagues, you should never use the phrase Syrian kid. They have a name; call them with their names as Ahmet, Mehmet. Even if you cannot remember their names, you should never call them as Syrians because

this leads to distance themselves; they feel excluded". (interview, original in Turkish, A6P, male, October 2019, İstanbul)

Complementary to the interview findings, one of the classroom observations revealed an illustrative example of social exclusion. During an after-school language course activity, the teacher asked students to write their best friends' names. All referred to some other Syrian students as their best friends, although they were also included in the mainstream classes and assumed to have some Turkish friends (observation, O2-1, May 2019, İstanbul).

4.1.2.2. Learning Experiences. The learning experiences as the second integral component of the proximal processes elaborated on the teacher support and teaching strategies.

Teacher Support. The first pattern on teacher support revealed that the language barrier between newly arrived migrant students and teachers deteriorated the impact of structured language exposure. When the students were first included in the formal learning environment, whether in mainstream classrooms without language support or segregated language classes, both teachers and students had to invest a lot of effort to communicate each other. To illustrate, a vice principal in İstanbul recalled how teachers expressed difficulties in communication, stating that "initially, the teacher did not know the [student's] language; the student did not know the [destination] language. As no one knew the language, the kid used to only sit in the classroom" (interview, A9VP, male, March 2020, İstanbul). In cases where students were unable to establish a medium of communication with their teachers, they tended to seek out their co-ethnics, if available, to speak in their first languages. As teachers could not follow communication among them, students' interaction might be associated to inattentive attitude towards their courses.

Similarly, the language barrier emerged as a risk factor impeding effective teacher support in Hamburg. Given the diverse language repertoires and varying degrees of proficiency among the newly arrived migrant students, the IPCs became spaces where multiple language constellations coexisted. However, it could disadvantage complete beginners or low proficient students in their classroom communication. When students had some knowledge of English, even at basic level, or had peers or

teachers speaking their first language, they were able to connect to the lesson through their support. Otherwise, the only way for teachers was to use gestures and mimics until students attained some basic competency in German.

During my observation of an IPC that accommodated students from various origin countries such as Argentina, Switzerland, Norway, Turkey, Russia, and Afghanistan, I witnessed the challenges faced by two recently enrolled students from Afghanistan and Turkey. The school had two IPCs: one for beginner students and one for pre-intermediate students. These two students were registered in the best available class, i.e., the beginner class, so that they could be immersed in intensive German language learning. Although they were involved only four weeks after the start of the regular school term, the differences were evident between them and the rest of the class. While the other students in the class were able to communicate using basic German or English when encountering difficulties, these two students from Afghanistan and Turkey struggled to communicate independently with the teacher due to their limited German proficiency and lack of English knowledge. Fortunately, the Turkish student received support from another Turkish background student who knew English and had joined the class at the beginning of the term. However, the Afghan student could not connect with either any peers or teachers due to the lack of a shared language. The teacher made extensive efforts to keep the student engaged in his individual task through gestures and visual aids, but he appeared disconnected and disengaged throughout the lesson (observation, O2-2, September 2021, Hamburg). Supporting my observation, the same teacher explained her challenges during the interview as follows:

Yes, of course, it is also difficult when you cannot communicate with the students if they don't know English or German. That's where I reach my limits. So, I have to work a lot with pictures, facial expressions, and gestures. Or if I'm lucky, there might be a fellow student from the same language background who can help convey things a bit. That is certainly a significant problem. (interview, original in German, T5, male, September 2021, Hamburg)

Expanding on the language barrier, the study uncovered missed engagement opportunities in the classes. The findings highlighted teachers' unintentional oversight or lack of awareness regarding the student's disengagement from the lesson. They were likely to miss opportunities to recognize and address students' lack of participation or involvement in the classroom activities. For instance, in a

cohesion classroom in İstanbul, an incident occurred exemplifying the failed engagement. The teacher was conducting a lesson on how to tell the time in Turkish. One of the students, who had a lower level of Turkish proficiency compared to their classmates, was assigned an individual task, which was probably on basic literacy skills. However, instead of embarking on his task, the student started gazing at the ceiling. Throughout the entire lesson, the teacher was unaware that the student was not working on the assigned task. Eventually, the student even fell asleep (observation, O5, March 2020, İstanbul).

The presence of teachers with migration background in Hamburg, which mirrored the diverse ethnic background in the society, potentially facilitated enhanced support for the newly arrived migrant students. Thanks to it, the students had a greater chance of encountering a teacher who spoke their first language or demonstrated a deeper understanding of their inclusion experiences. For example, the two of the interviewed teachers with Turkish background, who had immigrated to Germany during their adolescence, underlined that they had undergone a similar language learning process, which was even less favorable in their time. They seemed to possess insider perspectives on the intricacies and particularities of the language programs. Furthermore, a classroom observation exemplified a teacher with a Spanish background made use of her language repertoire to assist students from Argentina by seamlessly switching between Spanish and German languages (observation, O2-2, O2-3, Hamburg, September 2021).

Teaching Strategies. The teaching strategies in the language classrooms were characterized both in İstanbul and Hamburg by individual student work, occasional ad hoc pair work, and sporadic use of first languages and origin cultures. The need for differentiated instruction was evident, sometimes in combination with individualized instruction for students requiring additional support.

In all observed classrooms, the predominant approach to organizing teaching activities focused on students engaging in individual work within a teacher-centered instructional setting. A typical lesson started teachers' delivering course content through whole class instruction, where new information was presented to the entire

class without discerning any specific needs. Subsequently, the students were generally expected to carry out relevant exercises on their own.

During a classroom observation in İstanbul, a distinctive instance occurred that highlighted a disconnectedness between the teacher's insistence on individual engagement and the students' desire for active participation (observation, O4, October 2019, İstanbul). The lesson was planned on practicing possessive constructions in Turkish. After the teacher reviewed the topic, a student was called up to the board to complete some exercises. In the first exercise, the student was tasked to restore the example "student bag" as "student's bag". While the teacher guided the student throughout the exercise, the rest of class could not wait providing cues. However, the teacher sternly warned them to stop interfering. As the student on the board made more mistakes, the rest of the class grew increasingly eager to assist him. Consequently, the teacher posed a harsher demeanor to manage the classroom.

In another observation where the teacher focused on basic reading and writing skills, the students took turns to read some basic words syllable by syllable on the board (observation, O3, May 2019, İstanbul). When the weaker students struggled with reading the words, the high proficient students attempted to help. However, whenever they offered support, the teacher responded angrily and turned them away.

In the final typical instance in İstanbul, the students were given the task of summarizing a story they had read in the previous lesson. The teacher approached towards the students who volunteered to share their summaries. He visited each student and listened to their summary attentively by asking some elaborative questions. Meanwhile, the rest had to wait patiently for their turn (observation, O5, March 2020, İstanbul).

Similar patterns were observed in the language classes in Hamburg. However, unlike the instances in İstanbul, individual work seemed to have been embraced by the students. The classroom environment was devoid of conflicts or tensions. To illustrate a typical lesson, a teacher began by introducing the lesson's theme, i.e., talking about weather (observation, O2-3, September 2021, Hamburg). After the teacher's 15-minute whole-class instruction, in which she introduced basic structures

and words, the students proceeded to work on their individual tasks. While some students engaged in exercises related to the lesson's theme, the recently enrolled students embarked on their individual tasks.

All these typical instances could have been carried out as a group work or a class discussion in which high and low proficient students could engage and support each other. It would bring several benefits including increased peer interaction time, optimized use of instruction time for all, and most importantly, transforming students' participation effort into learning experiences. Based on the observations and teacher interviews, the tendency to insist on isolated individual work in İstanbul may stem from the concern about losing classroom authority during group work. The teachers were observed to be apprehensive about not being able to monitor students' communication when they conversed in their first languages. Even if unplanned and without teachers' deliberate efforts, peer-to-peer support occurred during classroom observations as ad hoc pair work in both contexts. The students who spoke the same first languages or who could communicate in a third language like English were interacting each other.

Given students' super-diverse characteristics such as different arrival times and language proficiencies, differentiated instruction was another pattern observed in the language classrooms, where groups should work on different tasks in different ways. However, the students often continued their tasks individually without collaborating with each other even when the instruction was differentiated. A teacher from an after-school language support course in İstanbul depicted how she implemented differentiated instruction to address the needs of her multi-level class as follows:

I grouped students into levels in my own way. For instance, the complete illiterate students or the ones with weak literacy in one group. The ones with higher proficiency or on average in another group. As the students were pulled out their mainstream classes only two hours at every lesson, it only meant six hours instruction in total. For instance, we reviewed the topics of mainstream classes with high proficient students such as synonym or antonym words. With the other group, we worked more on learning letters with basic reading and writing skills. (interview, original in Turkish, T13CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul)

Similarly in Hamburg, assigning different tasks to different groups or individual students was typical when the classroom involved varying degrees of language proficiencies. For example, the following instance described three different streams

of learning experiences within the same class (observation, O2-5, September 2021, Hamburg). The first group included the high proficient students doing a dictation exercise with the teacher. She asked them to write down questions such as “What is the name of your school? Where is your school located? How many students and teachers are there?”. Meanwhile it turned out that one of the students (S1), who had recently joined in the language program and had the lowest language proficiency, was waiting for a long time without being assigned any tasks. The teacher started to take care of S1 and gave him some beginner-level tasks from the coursebook according to his language level. The third group consisted of four students who needed additional support in some vocabulary. They were tasked to play a card game to practice German adjectives. When they faced difficulties in expressing themselves, they used English to maintain their communication. It appeared that one of the students (S7) could not keep up with that group, so the teacher moved S7 next to S1 so that they could work on a simpler task.

Then the teacher realized that another student (S5) in the high proficient group was sitting without doing anything. Upon checking, she learnt that S5 had misunderstood the dictation exercise. Rather than first writing down the questions, he had already responded to all questions while the teacher was dictating them. After clarifying S5’s situation, the teacher returned check on S1 and S7’s progress. At the same time, the teacher spotted that the students in the game group were heavily using the dictionary to guess the words on the cards. She advised them to continue without the dictionary. However, the students said that they had to look up some words. As a result, the teacher joined in the game group to show how they could play without the dictionary. A student (S10) from the high proficient group approached the teacher for feedback on his responses to the dictation exercise. After a quick feedback, the teacher resumed assisting the game group.

These instances showed that alternating from one channel to another was a commonplace way of teaching in the language classrooms. The teachers in the observed classrooms had to be responsive to the emerging needs of students by using different strategies.

Diverse language repertoire and origin cultures, which were among the distinctive characteristics of the students, could have been used as one of the tools to address the challenge of multi-level classroom. However, the sporadic use of first languages and cultures showed that destination language instruction was not adequately designed and implemented to reap its benefits both in İstanbul and Hamburg. As evidenced by teacher interviews and classroom observations, the instruction mostly involved irregular or random instances of students' first languages and superficial aspects of their cultural backgrounds. They were usually brought forward to classroom learning environment by the students themselves, not as a result of teacher-led deliberate actions. For instance, a language teacher in İstanbul stated that Syrian students tended to narrate their memories about conflict and war in Syria when they talked about their origin cultures. The best-case scenario to use the first languages were limited to the students' effort to find out the Arabic equivalents of Turkish words (interview, T13CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul). In one of the classroom observations, the lesson was organized around reading a story in Turkish. At first, the teacher began reading the story aloud. Meanwhile, a student interrupted the teacher asking the meaning of an unknown word – “shepherd”. After explaining it in Turkish, the teacher turned the whole class asking if they had the concept of shepherd in their culture. The students responded “yessss” and shared how to say it in Arabic (observation, O4, October 2019, İstanbul). Upon this incident, another student remembered that the same story was already present in their culture. Meanwhile, one of the students started talking with another peer in Arabic. All of a sudden, another student yelled at his friends, saying “talk Turkish!”. No one including the teacher was surprised about that outburst. It sounded like an ordinary scene happening very frequently. The root cause of this behavior was unfolded in a teacher interview, explaining the strong suggestion by MoNE when started working Syrian students:

We do not know Arabic. Indeed, we were told at the very beginning not to speak Arabic even if students demanded because this could slow down their progress. However, the students were rejoiced when you even shared a few Arabic words now and then. They say, “Oh they know my language!”. As a result, they feel more sense of belongingness and thus show more effort. (interview, original in Turkish, T5CP, male, October 2019, İstanbul)

Although the widespread pattern was to restrict the origin languages to shallow practices or to discourage its use in classroom instruction, the findings showed that some teachers assumed responsibility to promote the use of first language to the best of their abilities and opportunities. An interview with a teacher in İstanbul vividly depicted how Syrian people were positioned in the society, as well as his individual efforts to connect with the students by embracing their first languages and cultures. He explained that:

Teacher (T): Personally, I sometimes feel strained. I began learning Arabic to motivate students. I said “I will teach you Turkish. And you will teach me Arabic.”

I: How do you think this affected the language learning process?

T: This had a major influence on those children. As you know, they were greatly affected by political discourse. For instance, phrases like “Go away, Syrians!” were frequently uttered in society, along with statements such as, “You ran away from your own war and burdened us”. Due to having Arabic origins and speaking Arabic, I sense that the kids feel like a weight here. Arabic is perceived as a language associated with terrorism. When I expressed my desire to learn Arabic, they got excited and said “This is our language. We also have a culture; we also have a wealth of knowledge”. I wanted to ensure that they understood, “Turkish is a necessity for you, not an obligation. If you aim to stay and pursue your education here, you must learn this language”. I also added that, “Turkish is a language which I acquired later. I have a Kurdish background. In my primary school years, I did not use to know Turkish well. We had a Turkish family in our village. Our teacher seated me next to their daughter in class; I learnt thanks to her.” After sharing that anecdote, the children were more motivated to learn. (interview, original in Turkish, T10TP, male, October 2019, İstanbul)

In contrast to the superficial use of origin languages merely for the purpose of capturing students’ attention, this interview illustrated how the use of origin languages and cultures were powerful tools to transform students’ learning experiences and attitudes. Furthermore, it also revealed the complex underlying reasons that delineated the boundaries for origin languages and cultures in formal learning environments. These boundaries were intersected with dominant ideology and political narratives prevalent in the receiving society. The interview also underscored the significance of teachers’ background. In this case, the teacher’s different ethnic background, coupled with his acquisition of Turkish as a second language, enabled him to develop empathy towards the students’ experiences. This allowed him to make a difference in his classroom by transcending the widespread discourse and commonplace approach towards Syrians in Turkey.

The use of first languages and cultures exhibited a similar pattern in the observed classrooms and the interviews in Hamburg. Unlike İstanbul, the sporadic use of first languages and cultures occurred in the classroom settings more frequent for some students due to the teachers with migration background. In other words, the students who shared a common language with the teacher might benefit from this advantage.

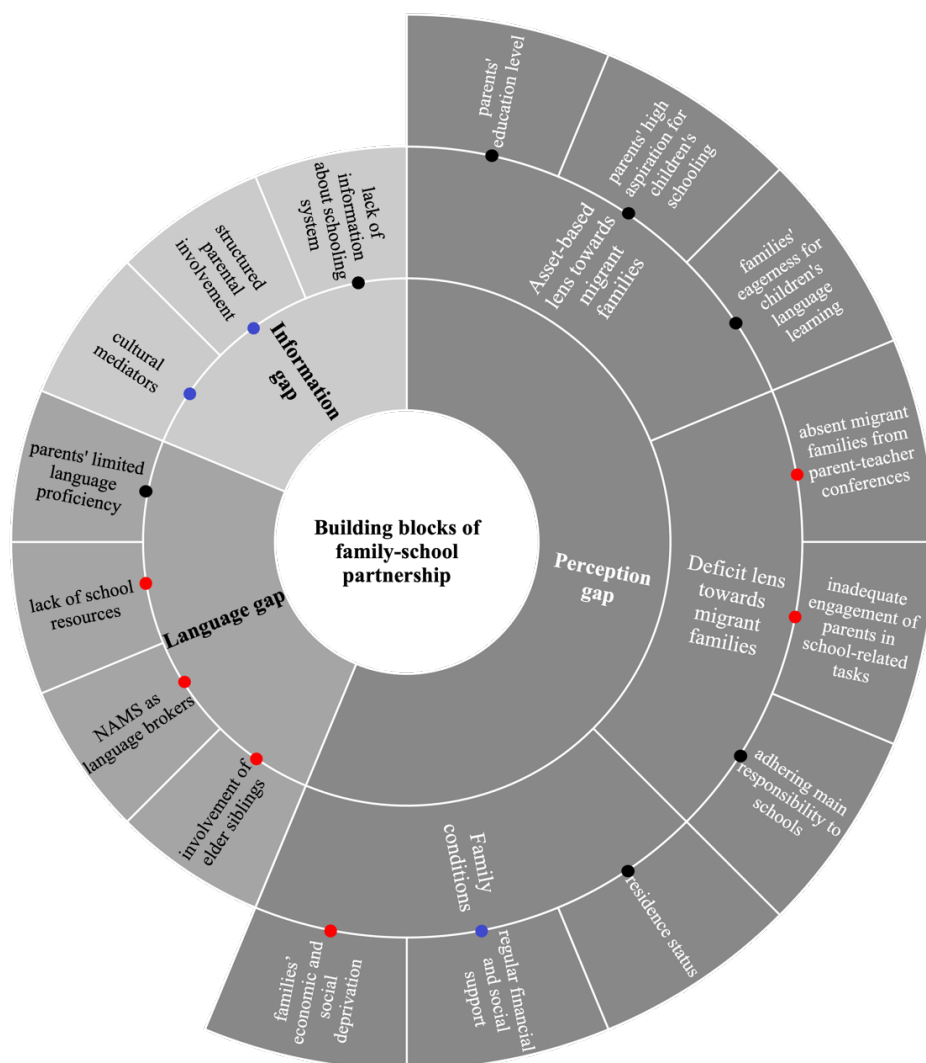
The main difference observed in Hamburg was the emphasis placed on acknowledging the crucial role of using students' first languages and cultures in the instructional practices, particularly from a rhetorical standpoint. The teachers frequently underlined the value and significance of students' language repertoire and cultures, as exemplified in the following excerpt:

And this multiculturalism certainly permeates while teaching. It is not possible without it. When we do without it, we need to prioritize only European culture or German culture, but then we cannot benefit from students' own experiences. When we do not benefit, it leads to discourage students. (interview, original excerpt, T2&T3, female, December 2020, Hamburg)

While the teachers acknowledged the significance of incorporating students' language repertoires and cultural backgrounds, the practice in Hamburg did not consistently align with this rhetoric.

4.1.3. Mesosystem: Building Blocks of Family-school Partnership

The mesosystem drew on the essentials guiding the relationship between newly arrived migrant families and schools, which supported or hindered the children's structured language exposure. The findings elaborated on three gaps as building blocks of the family-school partnership: perception gap, language gap, and information gap. The perception gap portrayed the exclusionary perception inherent in school contexts towards the newly arrived migrant families. The language gap reported the parents' limited destination language proficiency and the ways to circumvent their communication with schools. Lastly, the information gap explicated knowledge disparity, which referred to lack of understanding or awareness among the parents regarding the receiving countries' educational system. Figure 19 depicts the findings on the building blocks of the family-school partnership.



● Dominant in İstanbul ● Dominant in Hamburg ● Similar in both contexts

Figure 19

Qualitative Findings on Mesosystem

4.1.3.1. Perception Gap: “Not Like Our Local Parents”. The newly arrived migrant families, particularly refugees, often faced exclusionary perceptions from schools, despite sharing a similar social class with disadvantaged local families in suburban areas. This perception gap formed the first pillar of the family-school partnership. It stemmed from the economic and social conditions of the families, as well as schools’ tendency to view migrant families through a deficit-lens, neglecting their assets and strengths.

In İstanbul, the Syrian families mainly reside in the districts, which are also home to internal migrant families who have moved there at various periods from the rural areas in Turkey. The teachers and school administrators depicted their local student

body as children of “poor”, “low educated”, “large” families without adequate means to move into the affluent districts but were confined to the limited opportunities in the city’s peripheries. They were often depicted as at-risk students living in broken families. In some cases, these districts serve as transition areas for local people. Once the families become more affluent, they move into central districts to reach better schools and higher living conditions. Regarding the impact of such a rapid and heavy internal migration, one of the teachers described the district profile in limbo between rural and urban life, “you can sometimes observe the peasant in the locals’ manners, sometimes the urban. With respect to their rights and freedom, they can act like urban people but maintain their daily lives as peasants” (interview, original in Turkish, A6P, male, October 2020, İstanbul).

The majority of the teachers and school administrators drew explicit and sometimes subtle parallels between local parents and Syrian parents in İstanbul, pointing out similar patterns with regard to their engagement in school-related tasks. Irrespective of the families’ migration background, their socio-economic status was implied as the basic constituent of the family involvement. The higher education status the parents hold or the more affluent they are, the more they tend to have agency in their children’s education and interact with school staff on a regular basis. With respect to the involvement of low-SES local parents, a teacher stated that “we do not see parents so much; they do not visit often. But this is very common. The parents of the high achievers visit, the low achievers’ do not” (interview, original in Turkish, T1TP, female, April 2019, İstanbul). Another teacher relating the local parents’ engagement and students’ attendance with their socio-economic background added that:

I would like to give you an example reflecting the socio-cultural level in this district. We have parents saying that ‘my kid doesn't want to attend school’. You cannot find a parent saying so in Üsküdar or Beşiktaş (more affluent districts) (...). As I said, parents view schooling of their children as a futile endeavor. (interview, original in Turkish, T8C, male, October 2020, İstanbul)

Despite uniting in their socio-economic background and some common challenges with the locals, the findings revealed that the schools tended to construct a differential, more deficient image of Syrian families in İstanbul, which was usually portrayed as *indifferent* to the school-related tasks or absent in their children’s schooling. This grand narrative was mainly fueled with the less frequent school visits

and lower attendance to parent-teacher conferences, which could indeed have similar patterns with the local parents. A shift was usually observed in the discourse of the school staff when they started talking about the Syrian parents and their involvement. They were particularly depicted as a group of parents who intentionally avoided visiting schools or held low aspirations for their children's future. For instance, the teacher who was complaining about the local parents' low involvement and their perception towards schools a few minutes ago during the interview started to regard low involvement as an exclusive case only to the Syrian parents saying that:

Syrian families are not interested in anything. Maybe they have economic hardships. They think 'my daughter or son should just go to school; they tell me when they face a problem there'. Sometimes the problems arise here, they nevertheless do not show up. We take care of the kids as if they were our children. Even if there are some attentive Syrian parents, I have not met any of them. They are not like our local parents. (interview, original in Turkish, T8C, male, October 2020, İstanbul)

This shift in the teacher's discourse is exemplary to show the tendency to exert prejudices against Syrian families based on their ethnic identity and refugee background. However, some teachers, albeit few, also indicated the willingness and strive of Syrian families for their children's language learning and education. This is in accordance with the articulated aims of the refugee families in this study because they indicated accessing more educational opportunities and enabling *a bright future* for their children as one of their motivations to leave Syria and move into İstanbul. To illustrate, one of the mothers pointed out her motivation as well as her constraints on the long-term planning with these statements:

I cannot help my children. On the contrary, they assist me.(...) I want the education here to be very useful. I wish the best for my children. I also have a fifth-grade kid who does not speak Turkish well. He is very vulnerable (...) I cannot force him to attend the language courses. (...) We do not have anyone in Syria. We do not have a home there. If they let us stay here, we would like to settle down here. Otherwise, we have to return. (interview, original in Turkish, PR3, female, May 2019, İstanbul)

In Hamburg, the diverse background of the newly arrived migrant families were reflected in their relationship with the schools. Economic migrants, especially those classified as high-skilled workers, were considered to build regular relationship with schools. On the other hand, the forcibly displaced families or those belonging to the lower end of the socio-economic spectrum might have strained relationship, which exhibited itself through reduced involvement in school-related tasks. As a result, the schools might adopt deficit lens towards these families. To illustrate, a language

teacher in Hamburg compared the behavioral patterns of refugee families to the economic migrants, stating that:

The Syrian students are too comfortable. They perceive what would change if I attended to school. They do not join the courses regularly. They do not consider it as a significant loss. They are very fond of their own comfort. You also see that in their families. There are few parents who consistently send their children to schools, but there are those who always get their appointment for doctors or other tasks during the school hours. They know the kid should attend the school at that time, but they do not take it seriously. I guess they have the mindset that “we are in Germany now. We made it. Nothing bad happens to us.”. (interview, original in Turkish, T4, female, September 2021, Hamburg)

In contrast to the teacher’s experiences, the interviewed refugee families all agreed on the importance of attaining proficiency in German and held high aspirations for their children’s schooling. They underlined that the children would face difficulties in integrating the job market without adequate language skills and qualifications. A teacher who worked with the children of migrant families for a long time corroborated this evidence. He underlined that the families were well aware that education is a powerful tool in Germany, necessary for upward mobility and increased productivity. However, the teacher also acknowledged that the families faced limitations, stating that:

The families do their best to support the children, but it remains very limited because of their cultural and social capital. Wishing the best for their kids and acting on this wish are not the same, but they do support to the best of their ability. (interview, original in Turkish, T1, male, August 2019, Hamburg)

Unlike İstanbul, the families were more likely to receive regular social and economic support in Hamburg. For example, the schools might connect families in need with the volunteers in their neighborhood to facilitate their integration. In addition, the social welfare policies and predictable pathway to residence status were among the major facilitators. I had the opportunity to evidence the refugee families’ social conditions during my interview visits in Hamburg. In one of my visits, I saw a Syrian refugee family living in the downtown. Although the flat was not in perfect condition, I was told that the family received state assistance, including accommodation support and other social benefits for their mobility, communication, or basic medical care (interview, PR2, female, August 2019, Hamburg). In my two other visits, two Afghan families, who lived in a container house facility at the outskirts of the city, hosted me. Similar to the Syrian refugee family, these families

were supported with the state support schemes. Compared to the houses in the city center, the facility even cost more for the government; they should rather be transferred to regular houses as soon as possible (interview, S2, girl, August 2019, Hamburg).

All in all, the findings indicated that the families' socio-economic status and their integration conditions were among the major determinants shaping the relationship with the schools. There was a noticeable disparity between the families' perception of their children's education and the way the schools perceived and the positioned some families.

4.1.3.2. Language Gap. The families' destination language proficiency was essential to enhance the students' language learning at home and forming a nurturing relationship with the schools both in İstanbul and Hamburg. However, the lack of family language proficiency was acknowledged as a major barrier to the students' destination language learning.

The schools in İstanbul believed that the Syrian families neither intentionally avoided their children's destination language learning nor made meaningful contribution due to their own lack of language proficiency. Some parents had a basic grasp of the daily language through informal networks, their children, or short-term courses, while others were illiterate even in their first languages, which made the destination language learning more challenging. Additionally, the Syrian women were perceived to have fewer opportunities to learn Turkish due to limited engagement in social life. Regarding the structured Turkish language learning for the parents, they joined the language classes offered by the MoNE and local governing bodies several years after their arrival to Turkey. Consequently, the interviewed families indicated their language level as complete starters or novice learners who could barely communicate in the daily language. A school principal emphasized that the limited use of destination language at home and families' inadequate involvement undermined the school's efforts, saying:

Our biggest challenge is not the Syrian children, but the parents. We cannot establish a solid connection between the parents, teachers, and students with the Syrian families. We are trying to teach them something here. For example, we talk about language, we try to teach them Turkish well. We have even special cohesion

classes for the children. However, when the child returns home, there is no one at home who speaks Turkish. As soon as they enter the door, they switch to Arabic. We do our part here, but it gets disrupted again at home. It's like solving a puzzle. You put it together, but then it falls apart. Put it together again, and it goes like that forever. (interview, original in Turkish, A6P, male, October 2019, İstanbul).

Similarly in Hamburg, the limited German proficiency of refugee-background families was even more pronounced. During one of my interview visits, I had the opportunity to observe the daily life of a Syrian refugee family in Hamburg. With regard to their home environment, the television was turned on throughout my visit, showing a Turkish soap opera with Arabic subtitle. Upon realizing that I was looking at it, the mother explained that they were really into the Turkish series and always watched them. It seemed like they recreated their home environment in Syria. Later, it was confirmed during the interview that the mother could not speak any German but relied on her children to manage their daily lives (interview, PR2, August 2019, Hamburg). Likewise, an Afghan refugee father who was in Germany for seven years mentioned that he had just started attending a German language course. (interview, PR3, female, August 2019, Hamburg). Taking all these aspects into consideration, the refugee background parents in this study had limited destination language proficiency and experienced delayed language learning opportunities in both contexts.

Whereas the higher proficiency of the parents in the destination language was regarded as a marker of successful involvement, the lack of it resulted in stigmatizing them and also served as a powerful deterrent to school-related tasks. However, the schools seemed to neglect the underlying reasons of the low-level language proficiency within the family. They viewed the families' destination language learning as an external issue to the social policies; in other words, they believed that the families shoulder the major responsibility of their language learning. As a result, the low proficiency of the families led the school staff to develop exclusionary perception, reproducing the inherent stereotypes in the schools and society.

To compensate for the language gap between families and schools, the adequate means were not at the disposal of the schools in İstanbul. In most cases, the newly arrived migrant students themselves served as language brokers that facilitated the communication between the Syrian families and the schools. Some schools stated

that they sometimes used to benefit from the interpreters offered by the local non-governmental organizations supporting refugees' livelihood in their districts. However, they could not anymore seek support from those organizations in recent years as their activities were strictly reduced by the local authorities.

In Hamburg, the schools had more resources to address the language gap. For instance, they could ask for an interpreter from the education authority for parents with low German proficiency. Due to the diverse language repertoire in the school contexts, the interviewed teachers in Hamburg underlined that they had to arrange an interpreter as much as possible. They might rely on the students as language brokers only in emergent situations. In addition, the diverse teacher background in Hamburg helped to bridge the language gap. The teachers who shared a common language with the families might facilitate the communication. The involvement of elder siblings who were more proficient in the destination language was another resource to connect families and schools. For example, a language teacher indicated that "we sometimes have elder siblings who are involved in the learning process. They participate in the conversation because they may have better German or English skills than the parents" (interview, original in German, T5, male, September 2021, Hamburg). In addition, offering multilingual information services including leaflets and school websites was a prevalent practice in the Hamburg public schools accommodating a high number of immigrant students.

4.1.3.3. Information Gap. The final building block of the family-school partnership on the destination language learning elaborated on the information gap that existed for the newly arrived migrant families regarding the schooling system in the receiving countries. Drawing on the linguistic and cultural barriers, the information gap might exacerbate the existing inequalities by hampering families' navigating the rules of the game.

The newly arrived migrant families in İstanbul and Hamburg had different schooling experiences in their origin countries. Despite their high aspirations for their children's education career, the findings revealed that some families were not aware of their rights or did not know how to access the resources in the receiving contexts. Although the main narrative in the teacher interviews in İstanbul depicted the

families through a deficit lens, the parent interviews and key informants pointed out the information gap. Similarly, it was highlighted in Hamburg that the parents, especially in the complex tracked education system in Germany, should make informed decisions and follow their children's education closely. The key informants working on the newly arrived migrant families and students stated that:

There are parents who send their children to school and say, "we don't want to have anything to do with that". That's wrong because the German system doesn't work like that! You have to be engaged. You have to be informed as a parent. (interview, original excerpt, K4, female, August 2019, Hamburg)

I haven't really met a family that was not interested in the education of their children, but they didn't just really know how to go about it. (interview, original excerpt, K5&K6, female, male, August 2019, Hamburg)

These interviews were exemplary to show the two facets of the information gap. On one aspect, the families were strongly suggested to have agency in their children's education. On the other hand, the information gap inherent in the migrant communities was well recognized.

To close the information gap, the findings suggested structuring parental involvement, particularly for low proficient and limited resources families. Not only did the prolonged engagement with these families contribute to the academic outcomes but also the successful family-school partnership improved the students' social outcomes. The teachers expressed that they could achieve it by creating mutual goals. The more the parents became aware of their responsibilities and the organization of the language instruction, the better strategies they might develop at home. A language teacher in İstanbul exemplified how the families took part in their children's language learning at home even if they did not have high proficiency in Turkish (interview, original in Turkish, T13CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul). She recounted her experiences about the positive impact of informing families about the course assignments. This simple step made a big difference in her class. At least, her students exhibited less avoidant behavior in completing their assignments.

In addition to regular parent-teacher conferences in both contexts, an example of affirmative action in Hamburg illustrated a possible avenue to structure parental involvement. Considering the long interval between parent-teacher conferences, one of the schools stated that they organized an "Eltern Café" (Parent Café) twice a

month to gather parents and inform them about many issues (interview, T2&T3, female, December 2020, Hamburg). Thanks to it, the parents could engage in a dialogue with other parents and share their experiences. In addition to empowering them about their children's schooling, this instance might also facilitate the parents' own integration process.

Another generative measure to bridge the information gap was to accommodate cultural mediators in the schools with high number of immigrant students. These people were defined as persons who usually had migration background and knew the students' first languages. That was considered as an important strength in the schools because the cultural mediators could contribute to any topics related to language and culture including teacher-parent communication and some culture-sensitive issues. To illustrate, a key informant working on the inclusion of the newly arrived migrant students in Hamburg underlined the crucial role of the cultural mediator in her school stating that:

She is a woman who fled from Afghanistan 20 years ago. She speaks several languages, and she also has the same experiences as some of the families. I think that's a big strength of the school. Because she is a really key person at the school for parents because parents are often scared to come to school. The language barrier is not there because she speaks several languages. She is Muslim. She talks to Muslim parents. She talks about their fears (... .) The woman is always at the cafe of the school. So, they know that she would be there. Sometimes they just pass by. And also, she goes to centers, to the flats where they live. In Hamburg we have like these buildings, centers where lots of refugee families live for the first time. Sometimes she just goes there to talk to the parents.(interview, original excerpt, K3, female, August 2019, Hamburg)

At the time of the qualitative data collection in İstanbul, I was told that the MoNE had started to assign some Syrian teachers as cultural mediators in the public schools. Since the Temporary Education Centers were closed down, the employment of these Syrian teachers might be considered as a beneficial move. However, the interviews showed that the schools could not receive much help from the cultural mediators so far because they were already learning Turkish (interview, T5CP, male, October 2019; T12CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul). Instead, the schools were still relying on the newly arrived migrant students' themselves as language brokers during their communication with Syrian families.

4.1.4. Exosystem: Governance of the Language Instruction

The exosystem focused on the governance of language instruction, representing the distal process which did not include the learners themselves but the decision-making processes that exerted influence on the students' language learning. The qualitative findings showed that the governance of the language instruction was characterized by three major interrelated components: policy formation, curriculum input, and assessment and evaluation. The policy formation involved planning horizon of the language programs, challenge to determine the optimum program design, and curriculum development process. The curriculum input consisted of teachers' professional knowledge, access to course materials, and learning outcomes. Finally, the assessment and evaluation described students' entry to the language support programs, formative assessment practices, and exit process. Figure 20 portrays the findings on the governance of language instruction.

4.1.4.1. Policy Formation

The policy formation referred to the process of developing and implementing policies that governed the language education programs in İstanbul and Hamburg. The findings compared top-down decision making in İstanbul to relatively participatory approach in Hamburg. Regarding the program design, both contexts involved contrasting perspectives on the segregated models. The curriculum development was characterized by absence of a binding framework. As a result, the language curriculum mostly resulted in ad hoc course plans.

Planning Horizon: Incremental vs Elite Policy Making. Planning horizon involved the strategic arrangement and policy decisions related to the organization of the language support.

The interviews evidenced that the language support programs were organized with an ad hoc approach without navigating a long-term path in İstanbul. This meant establishing or revamping the language provisions at a very short notice without informing the stakeholders including the school staff and families. This approach could be described as elite policy making, a top-down process managed by a small group including the MoNE and external funding bodies that supported refugee

education in Turkey. From the TECs in the early years of refugee education to mainstream classrooms, these top policies defined the school-based language provisions.

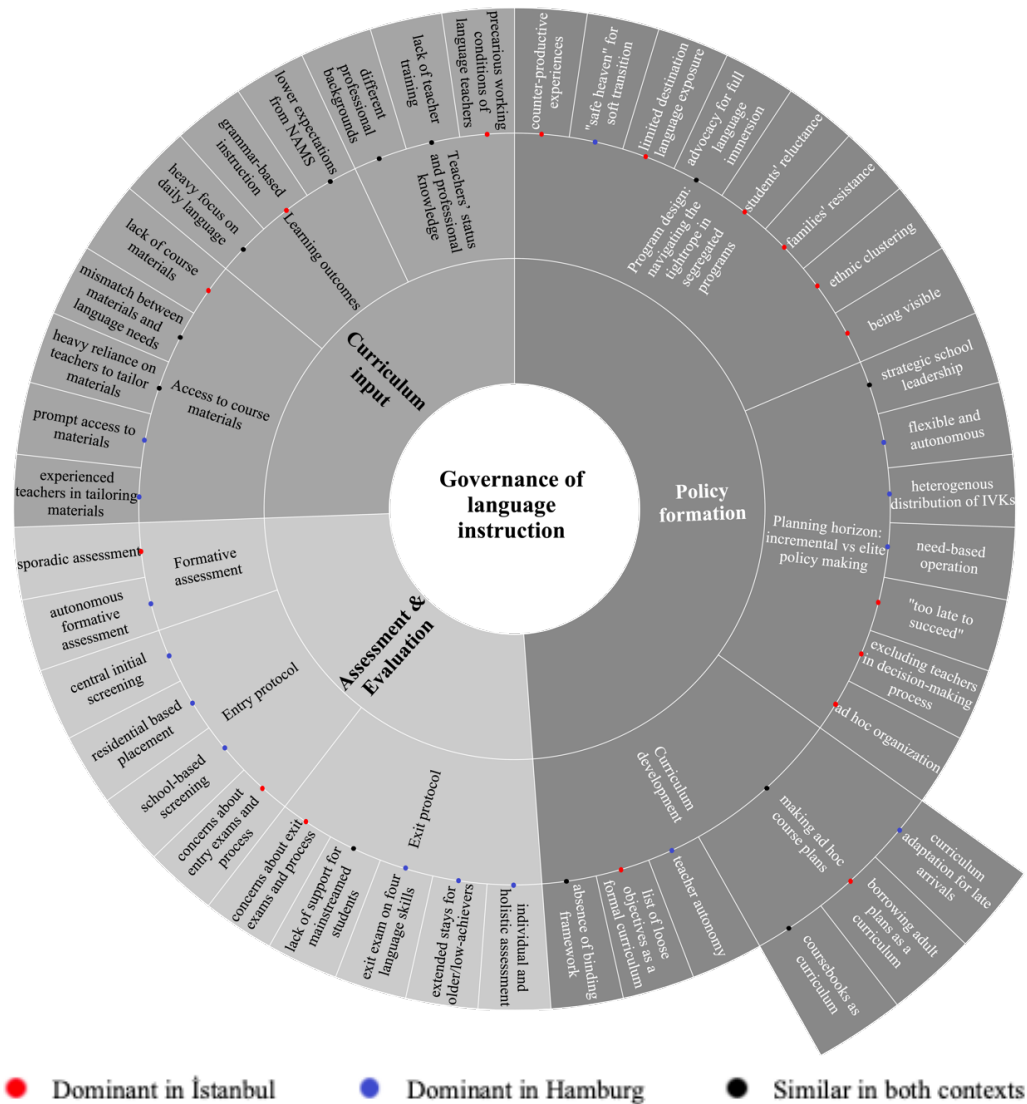


Figure 20
Qualitative Findings on Exosystem

The lack of long-term planning yielded uncertainty in organizing the language courses. When an established system was not embraced by the MoNE, it certainly reflected on the schools and diminished the impact of the language programs. As a result, the language courses might not lead to intended outcomes, which in turn exacerbated the schools' biased attitudes towards the language programs. This was

described as a vicious circle excluding the schools – the key stakeholder – in the decision-making process. Regarding the implementation of the language programs, a vice principal in İstanbul criticized importing programs from other contexts without any deliberation, stating that:

For sure, there exist various models. I think no one should answer what it is to be because what needs to be done turns out to be an ideal plan for the whole country. Then these shortcomings occur. Thus, one must adapt to students. Anymore whoever is expected to execute these programs should be fully authorized. (interview, original in Turkish, A5VP, female, October 2020, İstanbul).

As another repercussion of the top-down policy making in İstanbul, the language programs, particularly the newly established cohesion classes starting in 2019-2020 school year, were condemned to be implemented long overdue. This opinion suggested that there was a significant delay in implementing the effective language programs. It implied that certain actions and policies, which should have been carried out earlier, were not realized in a timely manner. Furthermore, the prospect of the language programs was still not foreseeable, particularly for the language teachers working under temporary employment scheme. A language teacher, who were involved in the language programs for Syrian students since the beginning of the PICTES project, echoed their concerns as follows:

For the efficiency of these programs, I can only suggest that the MoNE should inform both the language teachers and the students about the continuity of these programs in the long-term. Otherwise, the efficiency is degraded. The school administrators insistently ask the duration, continuity, and financial aspects of these programs. All these issues are ambiguous for the time being. While we must proceed to next-to-next step, we can barely achieve the next step. At some point, one cannot even proceed to the next step. (interview, original in Turkish, T5CP, male, October 2019, İstanbul)

In Hamburg, the need-based operation was a discerning characteristic of the language support. Based on the demand, the number of IPCs were extended or decreased to address the needs of the schools. This was regarded as an incremental policy, meaning that the planning horizon followed the continuation of the previous policies with minimum changes. To illustrate, the key informants stated that the number of IPCs in Hamburg reached its peak following the large of arrivals of the Syrian refugees in Summer 2015. As a quick response, the education authority facilitated the establishment of the IPCs across several districts. When the number of

newly arrived migrant students reached an equilibrium, the schools, which did not need these programs, decided to terminate them.

The education authority emphasized that they also paid utmost attention to distribute the IPCs evenly across the districts to avoid heavy concentration in some schools. This was indeed interpreted as a sort of responsibility sharing. Regarding the planning of the language programs, the schools were quite autonomous to determine the best option in line with their resources and needs under a flexible guideline. Corroborating this insight, the interviews indicated that the schools were more or less free to arrange the language courses in a different way as long as they offered language education and integrated the children into public schools (interview, K1, K3, female, August 2019, Hamburg).

Program Design: Navigating the Tightrope in Segregated Programs. Designing the language programs required navigating a precarious tightrope, which required a delicate balance with a high risk of failure at all times. The interviews resulted in differing opinions about the optimal model. One perspective underlined their negative experiences with integrative models or direct mainstreaming without adequate support. On the other hand, some participants shared the counter-productive effects of the segregated language support, where the students were initially placed in separate language programs. This was the case in both İstanbul and Hamburg.

Regarding the positive aspects of segregated language provisions, the interviews suggested that the newly arrived migrant students would experience a greater sense of importance and visibility, which might be lacking in mainstream classrooms. For instance, the observed language classrooms had smaller class sizes and thus provided increased interaction time with the teachers and peers in İstanbul. I had the impression that the newly established cohesion classrooms were envisioned as spaces where students could engage in a more relaxed and playful environment, which resulted in reduced stress but at the same time a decreased sense of seriousness compared to the mainstream classrooms. In a similar manner, the IPCs were defined as “*safe heaven*” or “*a little island*” within the schools, which provide protective space and help the students build confidence and bonds with their surroundings gradually (interview, K5 & K6, female, male, August 2019, Hamburg). Over the

course of one-year language education in the IPCs, the students had sufficient time to orient themselves and gain the necessary language skills. Confirming this perspective, a student who completed an IPC recounted her experience, saying that:

It's like more easy because when you start an IPC. The whole students are not perfect in German. They can understand you. They understand your level because they also go from the same way; they know how you feel. And some of the students also know how to speak English. However, in a regular class, there are a few students like you, but most of them are perfect in German. (interview, original excerpt, S5, girl, September 2021, Hamburg)

The major shortcoming of the segregated language programs became evident in the limited exposure to destination language. Rather than regular interaction with the local peers, the newly arrived migrant students in segregated language classrooms relied on their teachers as their primary source exposure to Turkish or German languages in both contexts. Particularly in İstanbul, where the majority of the newly arrived migrant students had the same origin country and first language, they tended to engage in social interaction primarily with their co-ethnics, resulting in fewer opportunities to interact with local students and practice Turkish. In Hamburg, the diverse background of the students hindered interaction within the IPCs due to the lack of a common language until the students gained some proficiency in German.

Another drawback of the segregated language programs was the heightened risk of ethnic clustering within the schools. The school principals and teachers in İstanbul voiced their concerns about this issue upon the establishment of the cohesion classrooms. Drawing on the negative effect of the TECs, these isolated cohesion classrooms would resemble similar settings within the public schools. A school principal summarized their concerns as:

I am thinking about what a cohesion classroom can offer to the students. Too challenging! A language teacher will be assigned there, who only focuses on these kids, but they probably lag behind their peers. These classrooms would be inevitably isolated from the rest of the school. In addition, these classrooms imply the students that "you are not good enough; your level is too low". As a result, we will have a miniature of TECs in the public schools. (interview, original in Turkish, A8P, male, October 2019, İstanbul).

The teacher interviews confirmed that the Syrian students and their families were reluctant to embrace the cohesion classrooms. The students perceived their transfer from mainstream to the cohesion classrooms as a downgrade in their status. The

families expressed concerns about additional disruptions in their children's education, which had already been affected during their migration journey.

In a nutshell, the findings indicated that balancing and strategizing language support posed significant challenges for education authorities and schools. Due to the unique conditions of schools and individual student needs, suggesting an overarching model or one-size-fits-all approach proved difficult.

Curriculum Development. The language teachers in both İstanbul and Hamburg demonstrated a notable degree of autonomy in curriculum development. They appeared to have the freedom to design and plan their courses according to their own preferences. In Hamburg, this autonomy occurred to be deliberately granted by the education authority. However, in İstanbul, the independence of teacher stemmed from the lack of investment by the centralized education authority in the development of language support courses.

In both contexts, the interviewed teachers consistently referred to the existence of frameworks that were meant to guide their instructional practices. However, it is important to note that these frameworks were not binding or prescriptive in nature. Instead, they were characterized by a list of loose objectives, which provided a general direction for the curriculum but allowed considerable flexibility in implementation. In İstanbul, the interviewed language teachers hinted at having some form of guideline or framework, although they did not always explicitly refer to it. However, one teacher openly admitted that there was no official curriculum or plan provided by the MoNE for the language support courses. Upon elaborating on this issue, the teacher finally expressed that:

I: Is it not a plan provided by PICTES or the Ministry of Education?

R: There is no such plan!

I: What do they provide you with? What do they offer to guide you through a year?

R: Actually, it's awful to say, but currently they have not provided any guiding materials. We do not have a textbook or anything developed in this regard so far.

(interview, original in Turkish, T3CP, female, May 2019, İstanbul)

The course plans mentioned by the teachers were merely Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) level guidelines that they accessed online. The subsequent interviews confirmed this fact. A language teacher in İstanbul

summarized their curriculum challenge since the beginning of the PICTES project until 2020 when the last qualitative data were collected in İstanbul (interview, T5CP, male, October 2019, İstanbul). He explained that both the teachers and the project itself were inexperienced at the very beginning. In the early years, they could not realize much progress due to the lack of materials and a foreseeable plan. He added that they started to have coursebooks gradually in the second year, but there was no distinction for different levels. As a result, they had to rely on the internet resources to supplement their materials. Over time, the teachers gained experience and began developing their own plans. Overall, the teachers faced challenges due to the initial lack of materials and a plan that did not accommodate varying levels of students.

Similarly in Hamburg, the absence of a standardized language curriculum framework was an important concern. This might lead to a significant degree of variability across schools and even individual classes. The language teachers were left to navigate the curriculum development process independently. Some IPCs might opt for a narrow focus on German language instruction, while others attempted to incorporate additional subject courses such as mathematics, as suggested by the education authority. Nevertheless, a coherent all-encompassing curriculum seemed to remain absent.

Consequently, the ad hoc course plans characterized the language curriculum in both İstanbul and Hamburg. Coursebooks were commonly regarded as the curriculum. As highlighted in the interviews, the teachers resorted to various strategies to design their curriculum, particularly in İstanbul; borrowing adult language plans as a curriculum was a common approach. The need for adapting the curriculum was a pressing issue in Hamburg for the late-arrival newly arrived migrant students due to the irregular inclusion times.

Based on these findings, it became apparent that the teachers in both contexts were left on their own in the schools with insufficient guidelines. Consequently, the quality of these language classrooms was entirely dependent on the school resources and the teachers' individual efforts.

4.1.4.2. Curriculum Input

The curriculum input played a pivotal role in the effective governance of language instruction. This study uncovered three aspects as important input: teachers' status and professional knowledge, access to course materials, and learning outcomes extending from daily language to academic registers.

Teachers' Status and Professional Knowledge. The teachers' status and professional knowledge were fundamental to delivering quality language education. In İstanbul, the language teachers, who were recruited to provide the support courses, encountered disparities in their rights compared to the permanent subject teachers in the mainstream classes. They were employed under a temporary employment scheme, which defined their status as workers. Consequently, they received lower wages and had limited employment rights. The renewal of their employment status was contingent upon the conclusion of each school year. Given their association with the PICTES project, their future prospect relied heavily on the extension of the funding. One language teacher succinctly summarized the apprehensions and precarious nature of their working conditions:

We are currently working not under the status of teachers, but rather under a status similar to the workers. We have the same entitlements with the workers. We must teach even during summer, but students do not want to come. Teaching for 12 months is honestly exhausting for both the students and the teachers. We cannot start the academic year with enthusiasm as we are still fatigued from the summer. Moreover, our annual leave can only be utilized as determined by the project. Everyone takes leave at the same time; we cannot use it according to our individual needs. Economically speaking, since our initial involvement, we have only received a one-time increase of 200 TL. We question why there are no further raises. However, the greatest concern lies in the continuity of this work. What lies ahead? Will we suddenly be left with nothing once the project concludes? These uncertainties are a source of grave concern. (interview, original in Turkish, T5CP, male, October 2019, İstanbul)

The interviews further showed that the language teachers' low statuses also influenced the perception of the schools in İstanbul. Particularly, the schools that were already coping with infrastructure and social challenges exhibited resistance towards these language teachers. Therefore, the teachers were compelled to exert significant effort in order to gain acceptance within these schools.

When comparing İstanbul and Hamburg, it became evident that the career trajectory of teachers had similarities, although their statuses differed significantly. In Hamburg, the language teachers enjoyed a more secure and predictable path. However, they possessed diverse professional backgrounds in both contexts. In İstanbul, the language teachers often comprised individuals who held bachelor's degrees in fields such as psychological counseling, primary education, or, at best, Turkish language and literature. Due to the scarcity of permanent employment opportunities in their respective subject areas, these teachers found themselves working within the PICTES project, where they were assigned to teach Turkish. This situation highlighted the challenges faced by these teachers in securing stable positions aligned with their educational qualifications. Similarly in Hamburg, the language teachers were drawn from a more diverse range of professional backgrounds. However, the teacher shortage in Germany led schools to recruit these individuals who possessed certifications in teaching German as a second language.

The language teachers with diverse education background needed more tailored professional support. In İstanbul, the language teachers working in the PICTES project stated that they took part in a short-term accelerated teacher training in the beginning. Then they were supported with some in-service teacher trainings, but these trainings were criticized to be too theoretical to address their needs. As a result, the teachers sought support within their informal teacher networks. The language teachers in Hamburg experienced similar issues regarding their induction trainings and in-service support, but the school-based teacher support, which included cooperation among the language teachers, was a prevalent practice to enhance the teachers' professional background. Additionally, the interviews with the teachers and key informants at the education authority in Hamburg confirmed on-demand teacher training opportunities at State Institute for Teacher Training and School Development (i.e., Landesinstitut für Lehrerbildung und Schulentwicklung).

Access to Course Materials. The course materials constituted the second significant curriculum input. The findings highlighted the importance of their availability and alignment with the learners' needs.

The teachers in İstanbul encountered significant challenges in accessing course materials, particularly the coursebooks specifically designed for Turkish language education. The interviews revealed that the lack of available materials stemmed from a lack of experience in teaching Turkish as a second language during the initial years of Syrian students' education. Additionally, the delivery of course materials was also influenced by macro-economic conditions. For instance, one teacher expressed frustration over not receiving any coursebooks for an entire year due to the MoNE's halting the printing of new books in response to the soaring cost of paper. Consequently, the teachers were left without any books during that year. The following year, the MoNE printed both the previous year's book and a brand-new book simultaneously and distributed them to certain schools. Notably, the content of these books was remarkably similar. Thus, the situation alternated between having no books one year to having two nearly identical books the next.

In Hamburg, the teachers had prompt access to course materials. Given the long-standing experience of teaching German as a second language, a wide array of materials was available. To exemplify the abundance of course materials, a language teacher stated that:

Although certain aspects are preplanned and predetermined in the German education system, it also grants us the freedom to teach. We benefit from this freedom while selecting the materials. There is a wealth of resources available. Due to the long history of German language education for immigrants, starting with the first guest workers from Turkey, major publishing houses have ample materials. We choose from these resources. Neither the school administration nor the education authorities tell us which materials to use; we determine on our own. Before selecting the materials, we gain an understanding of the students' needs and then make a decision. (interview, original in Turkish, T1, male, August 2019, Hamburg)

The mismatch between available course materials and students' language needs was a recurring pattern in İstanbul. One significant area where this mismatch arose was in the context of age-appropriate materials. The course books, particularly those prepared for adult language learners, were not suitable for young children in terms of their content. Additionally, the course materials might not adequately address the diverse language needs of students with varying proficiency levels or specific language goals. Some learners required more focus on speaking and listening skills, while others needed to enhance their reading and writing abilities. When the course materials did not provide sufficient opportunities to practice and develop these

specific skills, the language teachers were often tasked with tailoring course materials.

The heavy reliance on the teachers to customize the course materials occurred as a common aspect in both contexts. In İstanbul, the language teachers tended to look for materials developed for English language learning and adapt them into Turkish according to their students' level. Then these materials were shared with other teachers through informal networks or digital repositories. Despite their individual efforts, the language teachers emphasized the inadequate support in the schools. A language teacher explained that:

For instance, material support is absolutely not given to us. We are striving to do things on our own with the limited resources available. Photocopying is often charged in many schools, and we must cover the cost ourselves. Similarly, when an event is planned, it is necessary for the administration to provide support. (interview, original in Turkish, T13CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul).

In contrast, it was noteworthy that the language teachers in Hamburg exhibited a higher level of experience in preparing or customizing their own teaching materials. During my observation, I encountered a particular school where the language teachers took the initiative to create their own book because the existing coursebooks did not fully cater to the specific needs of their students. This example showcased their expertise and resourcefulness in adapting to diverse learning needs.

Learning Outcomes From Daily Language to Academic Registers. The learning outcomes served as a crucial component of the curriculum that provided a framework for guiding the instructional process. Though Hamburg and İstanbul differed on some important aspects of the curriculum development, they had commonalities in their emphasis on the learning outcomes.

Given the several challenges such as multi-level classes, course materials, and lack of infrastructure, the language programs were revealed to operate from a pragmatic stance. The findings suggested that they set the learning bar to equip the students with the daily language. In other words, the curriculum outcomes appeared to have lower expectations from the newly arrived migrant students, which might inadvertently limit their potential for growth and hinder their ability to achieve higher levels of proficiency. To illustrate, the classroom observations showed that

maintaining a basic conversation in Turkish or narrating a story with a very limited vocabulary might be deemed necessary for the language teachers. Apart from the operational hurdles, one of the main underlying reasons behind this choice was the assumption that some newly arrived migrant students would not continue their education after the lower-secondary education, or they were already expected to drop out of school at any time. For instance, a language teacher explained her rationale stating that:

I am trying to plan my lessons based on students' daily needs because there are children who will not be able to continue their education. I know that after the lower-secondary education, many students drop out and start working. Even the smartest students did it! That's why I try to emphasize the importance of daily life skills that they can use in their normal lives such as taking the bus or talking to a Turkish person about their problems. (interview, original in Turkish, T14CP, female, March 2020, İstanbul)

However, my observation in the language classrooms in İstanbul proved different. The newly arrived migrant students seemed to have command on the daily language. For instance, except for one student, all students in this study preferred to talk in Turkish during the interviews. They did not experience any challenge to understand the interview questions and could elaborate on the follow-up aspects. This finding implied a gap between the teachers' assumptions and the students' actual needs. Furthermore, the subject teachers in mainstream classrooms indicated an urgent necessity to attain the academic language proficiency. However, the language programs seemed to delay that responsibility or delegate it to a later period after the students were transferred to mainstream classrooms.

Similarly in Hamburg, the learning outcomes indicated that they might fail to address the academic language proficiency. The interviews pointed out that it was not an attainable target to expect from newly arrived migrant students to learn academic registers during their stay in the IPCs. The learning outcomes were thus not arranged to focus on these skills. Instead, they showed a heavy concentration on the basic interpersonal communication skills in the first six months to a gradual transition to some culture-dependent topics in the second half of the language programs. Although the students were supported with additional courses after transition, the general tendency for very low-proficient and older students was to prepare them for the school leaving certificates and assist them to attain necessary language skills for

vocational training. Considering the competitive and tracked school system in Germany, bridging the attainment gap between high proficient or native students and the newly arrived migrant students was regarded as a far-fetching goal. However, the interviews also underscored that the schools should be responsive to the high aspirations of the students. For instance, a language teacher emphasized their responsibility saying that:

There are some students with high potential who can excel in academic life and should be supported. However, considering Germany's economic conditions and the significant shortage of technical personnel, it is possible that they may consciously aim to train these students for these professions. They may be right about it, but as teachers, we particularly motivate the students whom we see as highly successful. We show them ways so that they can reach better positions in life. (interview, original in Turkish, T1, male, August 2019, Hamburg)

4.1.4.3. Assessment and Evaluation

The final component of the governance of the language instruction involved the assessment and evaluation processes. They elaborated on the entry organization to the language programs, formative assessment to measure the progress, and exit phase that paves the way to the mainstream classes.

Entry Protocol. This category reported on the processes and criteria used for assessing the language proficiency levels of the newly arrived migrant students and their placement into the language support courses.

The diagnosis of the students' background and entry skills occurred as the initial fundamental step. In İstanbul, the newly arrived migrant students, who were assumed to have low Turkish proficiency, were referred to the pull-out language programs based on the judgement of the mainstream teachers. When the language programs were first offered in the form of segregated cohesion classrooms, the students were placed according to the results of a low-stake language exam administered by the MoNE. However, the serious concerns were raised about their validity because these formative exams were indeed planned and announced as low-stake assessments to provide feedback and inform the instruction processes of the pull-out language classes. After these exams, the students spent a whole summer; some joined the short-term accelerated support courses while other might improve their language

proficiency with their individual efforts. When the new semester started in the Fall 2019, the MoNE decided to establish cohesion classrooms and assign the newly arrived migrant students who remained below a threshold in the previous term's exam. The interviewed teachers in October 2019 when they were just informed about the cohesion classes stated that they did not know these low-stake exams would have high-stake results, which had direct significant impact on the students. They further added these exams only focused on the reading skills and grammar knowledge through multiple-choice questions, which were not considered as a valid way to measure the students' progress. Moreover, they had serious concerns about the exams' implementation. As the schools were not aware about its high-stake result, the interviewed teachers emphasized that all schools did not carry out the exam process with due diligence. While some schools paid utmost attention to administer the exams in a fair environment, others might turn a blind eye for peer-to-peer help. As a result, the students who had the same language level might face with different conclusions.

The repercussions of the lack of diagnosis of the entry skills manifested itself in the observed classrooms. To illustrate, I witnessed the misalignment between the course content and the students' language skills. The learning experiences were frequently observed either too easy for most of the students or far above their language level. In addition, the language teachers might not be fully aware of the students' background. For instance, during one of the classroom observations in a cohesion classroom, a student at the back rows of the classroom experienced some issues with his peers (observation, O6, October 2019, İstanbul). Throughout all day, he was often disturbed by two boys and even intimidated. The teacher did not realize the conflict among these students. During one of the course breaks, the student approached to me and explained that he was often bullied by the other Syrian students because his first language was Kurdish and did not know Arabic. In the subsequent lesson, the teacher called up some students to the board to ask some questions about the in-class exercise. Without any bad intention, the teacher asked that Kurdish-background student the equivalent of some words in Arabic. The student had to explain that he did not know Arabic. This instance showed that the teacher was not aware of the student background, as he did not recognize the in-class conflict.

The allocation of the newly arrived migrant students to the language support classes was first handled in Hamburg by the central school information center. The interview results showed that the students were guided to an appropriate language class based on that initial assessment, which considers the student's prior education background, literacy in the first and destination language, and other language skills. The students were either assigned to a basic class to gain literacy in the Latin alphabet first or an IPC to gain proficiency in German language. The second screening was carried out in the schools to determine the appropriate level of the students. The language teachers emphasized that they carried out that decision-making process in consultation with the families.

Formative Assessment. This category referred to the ongoing process of gathering feedback and information about the students' learning progress and informing the instructional process.

In İstanbul, the formative assessment was sporadic, which was described as unsystematic assessment of the students' progress that resulted in grade inflation, absence of report cards, and discrepancy between the students' level and measurement tools. That ad hoc measurement process was extending on the curriculum development process, which was characterized in a similar manner with fragmented execution.

In Hamburg, the formative assessment was designed in line with the assigned language levels. As part of the autonomous curriculum development process, the students' progress was measured independently by the schools with teacher-developed instruments.

Exit Protocol. This category elaborated on the processes that determined the students' readiness for transfer to the mainstream classes. This process included exit exams and support measures that extended the destination language learning after being mainstreamed.

Similar to the ambiguity in the entry and formative assessment practices, the exit process in İstanbul was characterized by vague implementations and ad hoc solutions. The interviews showed that the exit from the after-school language support

courses did not depend on any high-stake testing. The support was limited to the duration of the project. In the cohesion classrooms, the exit decision was made based on the students' performance on a multiple-choice language exam. The interviewed teachers stated that these high-stakes exams were administered by the MoNE, but the level and content of the exams were not aligned with the students' learning experiences. As they were not earlier informed about the scope of the exams, they did not have opportunity to align their course content and prepare the students for the exit exams.

In Hamburg, the exit language level from the IPCs were determined as B1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) language levels. The teachers and key informants underlined that the language support in the IPCs were bounded with time and language level; that is to say, the students were expected to reach B1 level in one year. When they reached the desired level less than one year, they were given the chance to exit from the IPCs earlier. However, the majority of the newly arrived migrant students could only achieve that level at the end of one year. In some exceptional cases for elder students or low-achievers, their stay in the IPCs could be extended.

Towards the end of one year, the students were gradually prepared for the exit exam. In one of the observed classrooms for experienced students, some slots in the program were saved to give feedback to the students about their oral presentations, which they were expected to give during their exit exam. The interviewed teachers added that the exit exams focused on four basic skills and were assessed by external evaluators. Based on their results, the language teachers and the subject-teachers working in the IPCs had consultations on each student. The exit decision and the appropriate leveling in the mainstream classroom was made on multiple criteria including the student's age and readiness in other subject areas. For instance, they would discuss if the students could follow Math or English once they were placed at a specific grade. Finally, the decision was negotiated with the families. The teachers stated that the student's background and their German proficiency played crucial role to advise for the schooling path after the IPCs. The younger students who had good command of German and English had higher chance of being placed into a grammar school (i.e., *Gymnasium*), the academic and competitive track. Otherwise, the

students were suggested for district schools (i.e., Stadtteilschule), which is considered as less ambitious than the grammar schools but enable the students to have a general university entrance qualification (i.e., Abitur) when they met the additional requirements.

Regarding the support after the IPCs, the schools outlined that they supported the newly arrived migrant students with guidance on their education career and offered some competence courses to bridge the gap in the subject courses between migrant students and local ones. According to their number of immigrant students, the schools were said to be provided with funding opportunities to organize different after-school support courses. While the interviewed teachers and students appreciated the availability of these extended support measures after the IPCs, they were realistic about the challenges to prepare the newly arrived migrant students to compete with their high proficient German peers.

4.1.5. Macrosystem: Blueprint of Receiving Contexts

In the macrosystem, the organization of the language programs was linked at a higher level with the blueprint of the receiving contexts that involved economic sources, integration landscape, and education system in İstanbul and Hamburg. The prominent aspects illustrated in Figure 21 relied on my insights which were distilled as a result of my extended engagement in this study in both contexts.

4.1.5.1. Economic Sources: Limited vs. High

The economic sources in İstanbul and Hamburg were the first discerning characteristic of the receiving contexts. Whereas İstanbul represented a limited resource setting, Hamburg was characterized by high resources.

As observed throughout my field study and interviews with various stakeholders, resource allocation was a vital issue for institutions and different segments of the society. To illustrate an example of welfare policies in Hamburg, the newly arrived migrant families, particularly refugees and unaccompanied minors, are supported by the agencies funded by the state. During my fieldwork, one of these agencies facilitated my access to the students and families. Meanwhile, I had the opportunity

to observe their activities and learn about their experiences. That agency was responsible for a group of families during their integration process. For instance, they were offering assistance in school-related matters, appointment in job agencies or hospitals, and housing issues. This process was completely funded by the Hamburg state. As a result, the families were not mainly concerned about their livelihoods.

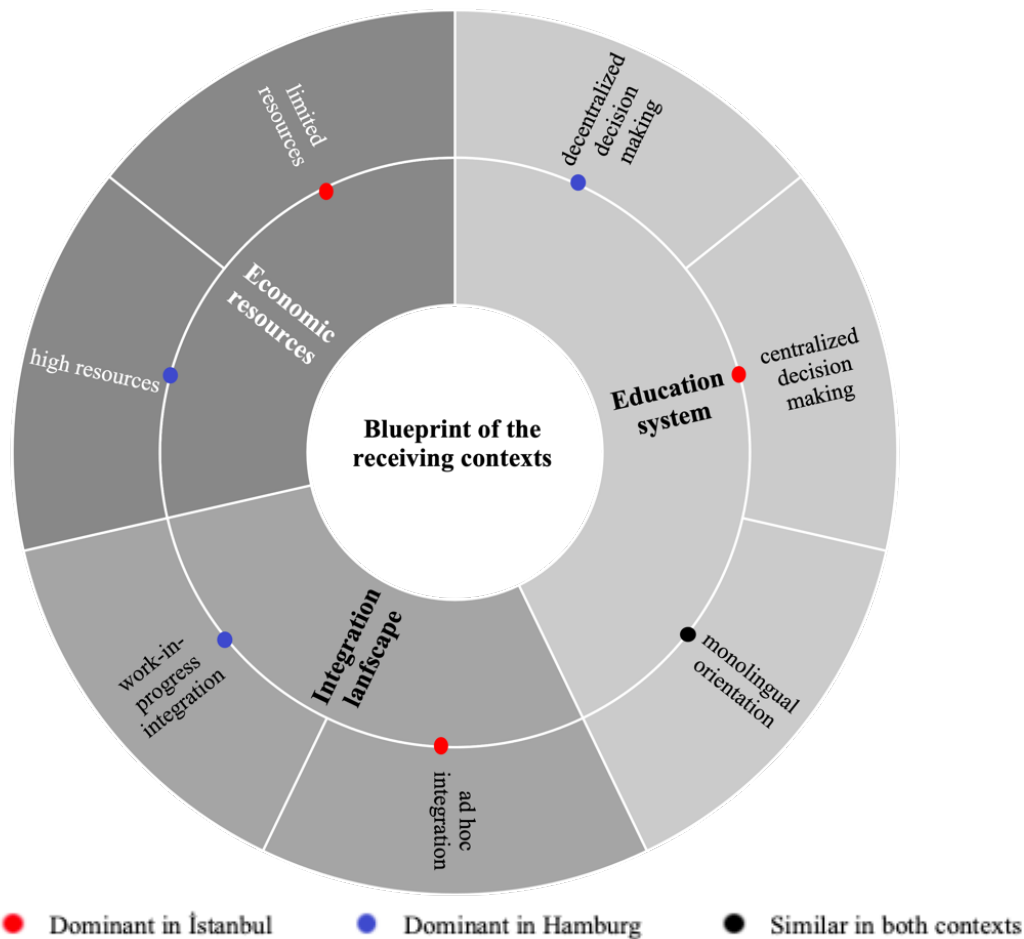


Figure 21
Qualitative Findings on Macrosystem

Regarding Syrian families’ socio-economic conditions, throughout all interviews in İstanbul, the school staff initially expressed surprise at my particular interest in the Syrian students, as they believed that the local citizens and children faced similar challenges. Upon observing the schools and community characteristics further, I had the impression that a heavy blanket of economic burden weighs down these disadvantaged communities. Whereas the Syrian people rely on welfare support offered by international funding schemes or have to work under-paid jobs, the locals similarly suffered from unemployment, poor working conditions, and lower wages.

This stark difference in economic resources reflected it in education institutions. Firstly, the disparity in schools' infrastructure between İstanbul and Hamburg was evident. Whereas the public schools in Hamburg enjoyed more spacious, airy, and child-friendly environments, it was obvious in İstanbul that the schools had to operate with very limited resources which was revealed as crowded classrooms and neglected buildings. Secondly, the teacher workforce and the organization of the learning experiences were closely associated with the allocation of resources. As referenced frequently in the proximal and the distal processes, the economic resourced played a pivotal role. For instance, the schools in Hamburg could benefit from their own school budget to support their students' needs such as hiring support staff or providing more course materials. On the other hand, the teachers in İstanbul had to navigate their own way with very restricted support. Lastly, the language education for the newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul was directly related to the availability economic resources because these language courses were arranged as part of the externally funded large-scale education projects for Syrian students.

4.1.5.2. Integration Landscape: Ad hoc vs Work-in-progress

The integration landscape describes the social, cultural, and institutional context that shape the process of including newly arrived migrants into Turkey and Germany. The integration process in Turkey was managed ad hoc with short-sighted decisions.

To illustrate the ever-evolving integration landscape, the Syrian students mainly first received education in the refugee camps at the borders and in the TECs. Then they were abruptly transferred into mainstream classes in the public schools. As this decision was not planned, the associated issues such as the organization of language support had not been prefigured in advance. As highlighted in the interviews, the schools had to frequently adopt a new strategy, which potentially lead them to marginalize Syrian refugees instead of holding policymakers accountable. One of the key informants depicted the sense of temporariness the Syrian refugees feel in Turkey and why they might be also refrained from long-term planning, stating that:

If you think, I am not welcomed in this country, I do not have a future in this country. The question arises "why would I put effort in learning the language? Why would I invest in it if I do not need it next year?" (interview, original excerpt, K2R, female, May 2019, İstanbul)

As emphasized by a key informant who works on migration, racism, and education, Germany has gone through a very similar process regarding the prevalent discourse and practices:

The main problem is that you know there is this long tradition of migration. But I think 2005 was the first year that the government admitted that Germany is a country of immigration. Until 2005, there was always the saying it is not an immigration country. It was really every politician would say that to get votes. And I think this is a problem that it was very sad at that the time. It has been only 14 or 15 years that there is officially acknowledgment of being an immigration country. Until then, migration was always thought as something temporary, something that is an accident, something that has to be stopped, something that has to be limited. It's like a mirror the institutions hold and especially the schools feel that. (interview, original excerpt, K2, female, August 2019, Berlin)

Although there is a recognition or commitment to finding solutions and promoting diversity within the society, the interviews suggested that there is still a long way to achieve comprehensive integration in Germany.

4.1.5.3. Education System: Monolingual, Centralized vs Decentralized

Turkish and German States have distinguishing education structures, which influence the organization and management of the education activities. Monolingual orientation is the defining characteristics of both education system. Though Turkish education system is officially monolingual, Germany does not define any official language either in its constitution or schooling system. However, German is de facto the dominant language in the public sphere. As a result, regardless of their legal positioning or configuration, destination language proficiency becomes a must for all groups to thrive in education and society. The findings pointed out that the monolingual orientation does not only refer to the language of instruction but the established norms and perceptions inherent in the society. For instance, a successful integration is often associated with high proficiency in the destination language and adoption of the cultural norms of the receiving countries. Particularly in İstanbul, the interviews with school administrators and teachers showed that they tend to adopt a nationalistic and assimilationist perspective that equates acceptance with the language learning.

In addition to monolingual orientation, centralized education system in Turkey permeates influence on all aspects of the decision-making. Particularly, it leads to

neglect shortcomings of policies and emerging needs in schools. For instance, the overcrowded schools in the peripheral districts in İstanbul have to accommodate a high number of Syrian students. Rather than following a systematic allocation system which might be managed by the provincial and district directorates, the MoNE in Ankara organizes this process. As a result, the disparities among schools are exacerbated with unequal distribution of the students.

Decentralized education system in Germany reflects at every aspect from macro-level players to micro-level stakeholders. Regarding the organization of destination language learning, the states employ different language support models. Even within the states, the schools autonomously determine how to organize the language support according to their needs and resources as long as they plan the support in line with the suggested framework. To illustrate, a district school in Hamburg offers the language support in an integrative model. This means that the newly arrived migrant students are directly included in the mainstream classes starting from their first day in the school. The language support is regularly provided through pull-out language courses, in which the students are exposed to structured language learning in a complementary way.

4.2. Influences of Contextual Factors on Destination Language Proficiency

The qualitative findings demonstrated the patterns that shape the ecology of destination language learning for the newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul and Hamburg. In the quantitative phase, some prominent patterns were tested as determinants of destination language proficiency, which extended from individual characteristics to immediate settings of family environment and formal learning environment. Hierarchical regression models were developed to account for the unique contributions of each setting to the proficiency in Turkish or German language.

At the individual level, the predictor variables examined the relationship between a set of factors derived from super-diverse characteristics of the students and their destination language proficiencies. These individual variables included age at migration, length of stay in the receiving countries, attending primary school in the receiving countries, and first language proficiency. The qualitative findings pointed

out these migration-related traits as the sources of the diverse learner characteristics that challenged the organization and delivery of the instructional processes. The aim here was to determine the extent of their relationship with the destination language proficiency.

The family environment constituted the most immediate setting for the students, which might exert influence on their language learning process. The qualitative findings at the mesosystem pointed to the perception gap, language gap, and information gap in the students' language learning. To test these constructs, the predictor variables at the family-level involved family members' destination language proficiency and the extent of family involvement in education through the indicators of facilitating structures at home, interaction with school, and engagement in school-related tasks.

The formal learning environment referred to the second important microsystem in which the learners were exposed to structured language learning. The qualitative findings on the classroom setting elaborated on the attributes of the classroom climate and the students' learning experiences. In the quantitative phase, the predictor variables explored the relationship between teacher support, cooperation, and equity in the classroom learning environment and the students' destination language proficiencies. As distance learning during COVID-19 pandemic constituted an important component of the formal learning in İstanbul, the study involved distance teacher support, distance cooperation, and distance equity as additional measures to assess their impact on the destination language learning.

Table 14 shows the means/percentages and standard deviations of the covariates, and the indicators for individual characteristics, family involvement in education, and formal learning environment, as well as the destination language proficiency of the newly arrived migrant students in this study. These descriptive statistics were performed using the original data sets, particularly in Hamburg before the imputation.

Table 14*Descriptive Statistics for Model Variables*

Variable	Sample 1 İstanbul				Sample 2 Hamburg			
	Range	Missing %	Mean %	SD	Range	Missing %	Mean %	SD
Covariates								
Gender %		0.0				4.2		
Girl			39.2				50.8	
Boy			60.8				38.6	
Prefer not to answer							6.3	
Mother education level %						3.7		
Never attended/primary			15.9				42.3	
Lower secondary			34.7				14.3	
High school			33.9				24.2	
Associate degree			10.2					
University			5.3				19.2	
Father education level %						4.2		
Never attended/primary			19.6				44.8	
Lower secondary			40.0				12.2	
High school			24.1				21.5	
Associate degree			10.6					
University			5.7				21.5	
Migration-related Characteristics								
Age at migration	[3 – 13]	0.0	7.79	2.26	[4 – 15]	10.1	9.11	3.44
Length of stay (in years)	[1 – 6]	0.0	4.60	1.31	[0 – 6]	1.1	3.37	2.41
Attending primary school in RC ^b %		0.0	76.7			3.7	54.5	
First language proficiency	[0 – 16]	0.0	12.53	3.84	[0 – 16]	2.6	12.30	3.89
Family Environment								
<i>Family Destination Language Proficiency</i>								
Mother's DLP	[0 – 16]	0.0	6.05	4.45	[0 – 16]	0.0	8.55	4.48
Father's DLP	[0 – 16]	0.0	5.84	4.75	[0 – 16]	0.0	9.05	5.33
Sibling's' DLP	[0 – 16]	0.0	10.50	4.74	[0 – 16]	0.0	10.29	6.04
<i>Family Involvement in Education</i>								
Establishing facilitating structures	[0 – 16]	0.0	11.77	4.04	[0 – 16]	10.6	12.87	3.26
Interacting with school	[0 – 16]	0.0	11.14	3.65	[0 – 16]	24.3	11.12	3.53
Engaging in school-related tasks	[0 – 16]	0.0	8.48	4.79	[0 – 16]	15.9	10.50	4.53
Formal Learning Environment								
<i>Classroom Learning Environment</i>								
Teacher support	[0 – 16]	0.0	5.68	3.22	[0 – 16]	16.9	7.36	3.46
Cooperation	[0 – 16]	0.0	6.51	3.09	[0 – 16]	11.1	8.13	2.61
Equity	[0 – 16]	0.0	12.15	4.09	[0 – 16]	10.6	12.77	4.01
<i>Distance Learning Environment</i>								
Distance teacher support	[0 – 16]	0.0	5.87	3.37	[0 – 16]			
Distance cooperation	[0 – 16]	0.0	6.20	3.44	[0 – 16]			
Distance equity	[0 – 16]	0.0	11.80	4.09	[0 – 16]			
Outcome variable								
Student's destination language proficiency	[0 – 16]	0.0	11.36	4.32	[0 – 16]	4.8	12.13	2.47

Notes. The statistics are based on the original data set before imputation. $n_{IST} = 245$, $n_{HAM} = 189$.

The Pearson correlation results in Table 25 and Table 26 at the Appendixes implied some statistically significant correlations between the outcome variable of students'

self-reported destination language proficiencies and certain predictor variables within each cluster.

In the İstanbul sample, the correlation matrix indicated statistically significant correlations between the outcome variable of student's self-reported Turkish proficiency and the predictor variables of gender ($r = .13, p < .05$), mother's education level ($r = .17, p < .01$), length of stay in Turkey ($r = .27, p < .01$), attending primary school in Turkey ($r = .23, p < .01$), first language proficiency ($r = .23, p < .01$), mother's Turkish proficiency ($r = .33, p < .01$), father's Turkish proficiency ($r = .18, p < .01$), sibling's Turkish proficiency ($r = .52, p < .01$), and distance equity ($r = .15, p < .01$) in the learning environment during COVID-19.

In the Hamburg sample, there were statistically significant correlations between the outcome variable of student's self-reported German proficiency and the predictor variables of age at migration ($r = -.25, p < .01$), length of stay in Germany ($r = .34, p < .01$), attending primary schooling in Germany ($r = .17, p < .05$), mother's German proficiency ($r = .33, p < .01$), father's German proficiency ($r = .20, p < .01$), sibling's Germany proficiency ($r = .34, p < .01$), family's interaction with school ($r = .12, p < .05$), and cooperation ($r = .20, p < .01$) and equity ($r = .16, p < .05$) in the classroom learning environment.

To explore the unique contributions of predictor variables, a four step hierarchical regression analyses were conducted with students' destination language proficiency as the outcome variable. Gender and parents' education levels were entered at step one to control their confounding effect. In the second step, the migration-related individual characteristics were defined in the model, including age at migration, length of stay, attending primary school in receiving country, and first language proficiency. In the third step, the family environment variables were added. This construct involved family members' destination language proficiency individually and the latent factors of the family involvement in education. In the last step, the model was finalized with the formal learning environment variables, consisting of the latent constructs of classroom learning environment and/or distance learning environment. Table 15 summarizes the hierarchical regression statistics comparatively in İstanbul and Hamburg.

Table 15*Summary Hierarchical Regression Analyses*

Variable	Model 1							
	IST			ΔR^2	HAM			
	SE <i>B</i>	β	sr^2		SE <i>B</i>	β	sr^2	ΔR^2
Step 1: Covariates								
Gender: Girl ^a	.13	.12 ⁺	.015		.99	.15	.000	
Prefer not to answer					1.02	.30	.007	
Mother's education level	.08	.18*	.023		.09	-.14	.011	
Father's education level	.08	-.02	.000		.09	.07	.003	
Block				.045*				.066*
Step 2: Migration-related Characteristics								
Age at migration	.08	.07	.003		.09	-.09	.005	
Length of stay (in years)	.07	.25**	.042		.09	.36***	.070	
Attending primary school in RC ^b	.16	.17*	.022		.18	-.07	.003	
First language proficiency	.06	.20**	.034		.07	.17*	.024	
Block				.142***				.135***
Step 3: Family Environment								
<i>Family Destination Language Proficiency (DLP)</i>								
Mother's DLP	.07	.21**	.028		.07	.19*	.026	
Father's DLP	.06	.00	.000		.08	.00	.000	
Sibling's DLP	.06	.38***	.113		.08	.24**	.042	
<i>Family Involvement in Education</i>								
Establishing facilitating structures	.02	.02	.000		.09	-.11	.006	
Interacting with school	.02	-.13 ⁺	.008		.09	.09	.005	
Engaging in school-related tasks	.01	-.03	.000		.10	-.05	.001	
Block				.196***				.085**
Step 4: Formal Learning Environment								
<i>Classroom Learning Environment</i>								
Teacher support	.08	.09	.004		.08	-.03	.001	
Cooperation	.07	.01	.000		.08	.02	.000	
Equity	.07	-.03	.000		.09	.13	.000	
<i>Distance Learning Environment</i>								
Distance teacher support	.08	-.01	.000					
Distance cooperation	.08	-.06	.002					
Distance equity	.08	.09	.003					
Block				.010				.013
Total R^2			.394				.300	

Notes. $n_{IST} = 245$, $n_{HAM} = 189$. Continuous variables were z-standardized.

⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Reference groups: ^a Boy. ^bNot attending primary school in receiving country.

The findings showed that gender ($\beta = .12$, $p > .05$ IST / $\beta = .15$, $p > .05$ HAM) and father's education level ($\beta = -.02$, $p > .05$ IST / $\beta = .07$, $p > .05$ HAM) were non-significant predictors in both İstanbul and Hamburg. Mother's education level significantly predicted student's destination language proficiency in İstanbul ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$, $sr^2 = .023$), explaining 2.3% of the variance in the outcome variable, but it did not yield statistically significant result in Hamburg ($\beta = -.14$, $p > .05$). Overall,

the covariates were significant in predicting the destination language proficiency in both contexts. In İstanbul, they accounted for 4.5% of the variance in the outcome variable ($F(3, 241) = 3.83, p < .05, \chi^2 = .045$). In Hamburg, they explained 6.6% of the variance ($F(5, 183) = 2.59, p < .05, \chi^2 = .066$).

4.2.1. Influences of Migration-related Individual Characteristics

The first part of the main quantitative research question aimed to examine the relationship between migration-related individual characteristics and the destination language proficiency. The hypothesis for this investigation was formulated as follows:

Hypothesis 1 [Migration-related individual characteristics]: Length of stay in receiving country, attendance in primary school in receiving country, and first language proficiency positively predict, whereas age at migration negatively predicts the destination language proficiency of the newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the covariates.

The findings showed that the length of stay in the receiving country had a significant and positive impact on the destination language proficiency in both İstanbul ($\beta = .25, p < .01, sr^2 = .042$) and Hamburg ($\beta = .36, p < .001, sr^2 = .070$). This positive relationship represented 4.2% of the variance in İstanbul and 7% in Hamburg, indicating that the longer the students stayed in the receiving country, the higher their proficiency in the destination language.

Attending primary school in the receiving country significantly predicted the destination language proficiency in İstanbul ($\beta = .17, p < .05, sr^2 = .022$) by accounting for 2.2% of the variance, but it did not produce any statistically significant results in Hamburg ($\beta = -.07, p > .05, sr^2 = .003$).

A transfer effect from the student's first language to the destination language was observed as a significant finding in both contexts. The impact of the first language proficiency was evident in both İstanbul ($\beta = .20, p < .01, sr^2 = .034$) and Hamburg ($\beta = .17, p < .05, sr^2 = .024$). The positive relationship indicated that proficiency in the first language positively influenced the destination language proficiency. The

variance explained by this transfer effect was 3.4% in İstanbul and 2.4% in Hamburg.

Contrary to the hypothesis, the findings indicated that age at migration did not significantly predict the destination language proficiency in either İstanbul ($\beta = .07, p > .05$) or Hamburg ($\beta = -.09, p > .05$).

Overall, the migration-related individual characteristics as a block were found to be significant in predicting the destination language proficiency. In İstanbul, they accounted for 14.2% of the variance in Turkish proficiency ($F(4, 237) = 10.40, p < .001, \chi^2 = .142$), while, in Hamburg, they explained 13.5% of the variance ($F(4, 179) = 7.59, p < .001, \chi^2 = .135$).

4.2.2. Influences of Family Environment

In the next step, the variables at the family-level were added to the regression model. The aim was to explore the relationship between the family environment and the student's destination language proficiency. The following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 2 [Family environment]: Family involvement in education and family destination language proficiency positively predict the destination language proficiency of the newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the effect of the covariates and migration-related individual characteristics.

Family language proficiency encompassed the destination language proficiencies of the mother, the father, and the siblings within the family. The findings revealed that the destination language proficiencies of the mother and siblings significantly predicted the student's destination language proficiency in both İstanbul and Hamburg. However, the father's destination language proficiency did not have a significant impact on the outcome variable.

Specifically, the mother's destination language proficiency was a significant predictor in İstanbul ($\beta = .21, p < .01, sr^2 = .028$) and Hamburg ($\beta = .19, p < .05, sr^2 = .026$), explaining 2.8% and 2.6% of the variance respectively. Similarly, the sibling's destination language proficiency displayed a similar positive relationship pattern in both İstanbul ($\beta = .38, p < .001, sr^2 = .113$) and Hamburg ($\beta = .24, p < .01,$

$sr^2 = .042$). It accounted for a substantial amount of variance in the outcome variable with 11.3% in İstanbul and 4.2% in Hamburg.

Family involvement in education considered establishing facilitating structures at home, interacting with school, and engaging in school-related tasks as indicators to predict the student's destination language proficiency. However, none of these latent factors were found to be significant predictors in either context. The study indicated the non-significant findings as follows:

- For establishing facilitating structures at home: $\beta = .02, p > .05$ in İstanbul and $\beta = -.11, p > .05$ in Hamburg.
- For interacting with school: $\beta = -.13, p > .05$ in İstanbul and $\beta = .09, p > .05$ in Hamburg.
- For engaging in school-related tasks: $\beta = -.03, p > .05$ in İstanbul and $\beta = -.05, p > .05$ in Hamburg.

Although family involvement in education did not yield statistically significant results at the individual indicator level, when considered as a block, the family environment was significant in predicting the destination language proficiency. In İstanbul, it explained 19.6% of the variance ($F(6, 231) = 12.23, p < .001, \chi^2 = .196$), while it represented 8.5% of the variance in Hamburg ($F(6, 173) = 3.46, p < .01, \chi^2 = .085$).

4.2.3. Influences of Formal Learning Environment

In the final step, the regression model involved the formal learning environment variables. The aim here was to understand the unique contribution of the setting in which the students were exposed to structured destination language learning. The following hypothesis was examined:

Hypothesis 3 [Formal learning environment]: Classroom learning environment and/or distance learning environment positively predict the destination language proficiency of the newly arrived migrant students after controlling for the effect of the covariates, migration-related individual characteristics, and family environment.

The classroom learning environment was operationalized by measuring teacher support, cooperation among students, and equity in face-to-face classroom setting in İstanbul and Hamburg. As another component of the formal learning environment in İstanbul, distance learning environment referred to the same constructs during COVID-19 pandemic. The findings showed that neither classroom learning environment nor distance learning environment significantly predicted the student's destination language proficiency in both contexts. The non-significant findings were summarized as follows:

In the classroom learning environment:

- For teacher support: $\beta = .09, p > .05$ in İstanbul and $\beta = -.03, p > .05$ in Hamburg.
- For cooperation: $\beta = .01, p > .05$ in İstanbul and $\beta = .02, p > .05$ in Hamburg.
- For equity: $\beta = -.03, p > .05$ in İstanbul and $\beta = .13, p > .05$ in Hamburg.

In the distance learning environment in İstanbul:

- For distance teacher support: $\beta = -.01, p > .05$.
- For distance cooperation: $\beta = -.06, p > .05$.
- For distance equity: $\beta = .09, p > .05$.

As expected from the non-significant findings, the formal learning environment as a block did not produce any statistically significant results in İstanbul ($F(6, 225) = .64, p > .05$) and in Hamburg ($F(3, 170) = 1.08, p > .05$). The indicators were not revealed to have a significant relationship to the student's destination language proficiency.

Regarding the overall effect of the hypothesized hierarchical regression model, which included migration-related individual characteristics, family environment, and formal learning environment, the results indicated that these contextual variables accounted for a substantial amount of variance in the student's destination language proficiency. Specifically, in İstanbul, the contextual variables explained 39.4% of the variance, while in Hamburg, they explained 30.0% of the variance. This suggests that

the combined influence of these variables significantly contributed to the understanding of the student's destination language proficiency in both contexts.

4.2.4. Interaction Effect of Family Language Proficiency and Family Involvement in Education

Based on the regression Model 1, there was no significant relationship between family involvement in education and the student's destination language proficiency. However, the proficiency levels of the mother and siblings were found to have a significant influence on the outcome variable. In addition, the qualitative findings at the mesosystem level suggested that the family language policy could potentially support the student's language learning process. In light of this, an interaction was incorporated into the models to examine how the relationship between family involvement in education and the student's destination language proficiency might vary based on the family members' proficiency levels. The aim was to investigate whether the association between family involvement in education and the student's destination language proficiency would change depending on the variation in proficiency levels among family members. The following hypothesis was explored:

Hypothesis 4: Family members' destination language proficiency moderates the relationship between family involvement in education and newly arrived migrant students' destination language proficiency, such that families with higher language proficiency demonstrate a stronger effect of family involvement on destination language proficiency compared to families with lower language proficiency.

The interaction models were specifically built for family members who demonstrated a statistically significant relationship with the student's destination language proficiency in Model 1. In this regard, the destination language proficiencies of the mother and siblings were chosen to interact with the latent constructs of family involvement in education.

4.2.4.1. Interaction With Destination Language Proficiency of Mother

Table 16 summarizes the results of the moderated linear regression analysis, which incorporated the interaction effects of the mother's destination language proficiency and the latent constructs of family involvement in education on the student's destination language proficiency through Model 2 to Model 4.

Table 16

Moderated Linear Regression Results With Interaction Effects of Mother's Destination Language Proficiency and Family Involvement in Education on Student's Destination Language Proficiency

Variable	Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
	IST		HAM		IST		HAM		IST		HAM	
	SEB	β	SEB	β	SEB	β	SEB	β	SEB	β	SEB	β
Family Environment												
<i>Family Destination Language Proficiency (DLP)</i>												
Mother's DLP	.06	.21**	.07	.20**	.06	.21**	.07	.20**	.06	.21**	.07	.19**
Father's DLP	.06	.00	.08	-.00	.06	.00	.08	-.01	.06	.00	.07	.00
Sibling's DLP	.05	.38***	.08	.25**	.05	.38***	.08	.25**	.05	.38***	.08	.24**
<i>Family Involvement in Education</i>												
EFS	.08	.02	.09	-.09	.08	.02	.09	-.11	.08	.02	.09	-.09
IWS	.09	-.14 ⁺	.09	.08	.09	-.13 ⁺	.09	.10	.09	-.14 ⁺	.09	.08
EST	.06	-.03	.10	-.03	.06	-.03	.10	-.04	.06	-.03	.10	-.02
Interactions with Mother's DLP												
* EFS	.01	.00	.00	.15*								
* IWS					.01	.00	.00	.11				
* EST									.01	-.03	.00	.17*
R^2		.384		.305		.384		.296		.385		.310

Notes. $n_{IST} = 245$, $n_{HAM} = 189$.

⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Mean-centering was applied to all variables.

EFS: Establishing facilitating structures, IWS: Interacting with school, EST: Engaging in school-related tasks.

Additionally, controlled for variables gender, mother's education, father's education, age at migration, length of stay, attending primary school in receiving country, and first language proficiency.

In İstanbul, the findings did not suggest any interaction effect between the mother's destination language proficiency and the latent constructs of family involvement in education. However, in Hamburg, the results from Model 2 indicated a statistically significant interaction effect ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$) between the mother's destination language proficiency and the presence of facilitating structures at home on the student's destination language proficiency. These findings suggested that the relationship between facilitating structures at home and the student's destination language proficiency showed variations depending on the level of the mother's German proficiency. As depicted in Figure 22, when mothers had low proficiency in German, the relationship between facilitating structures at home and the student's German proficiency decreased. Conversely, when mothers had high proficiency in German, the degree of relationship between facilitating structures at home and the student's German proficiency was maintained.

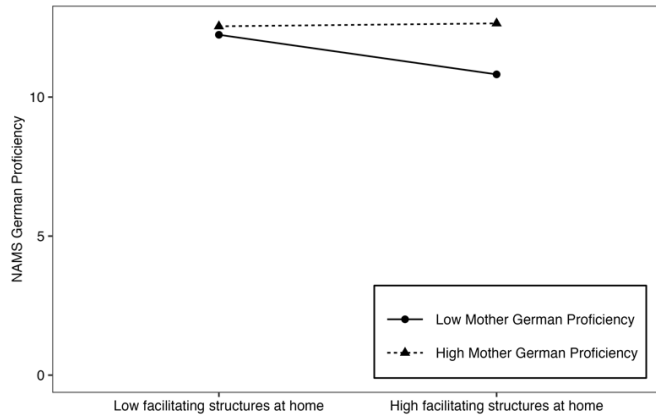


Figure 22
Interaction Between Facilitating Structures at Home and Mother’s German Proficiency in Hamburg

In addition, the interaction incorporated into Model 4 presented that the relationship between the student’s German proficiency and family engagement in school tasks differed according to mother’s German proficiency. The significant interaction effect ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) illustrated in Figure 23 suggested that the impact of family engagement in school-related tasks on the student’s German proficiency increased considerably when the mothers had high proficiency in German. In other words, the mothers with high proficiency in the sample were more likely to involve in their children’s school tasks, and, as a result, they could exert a greater influence on their children’s destination language proficiency.

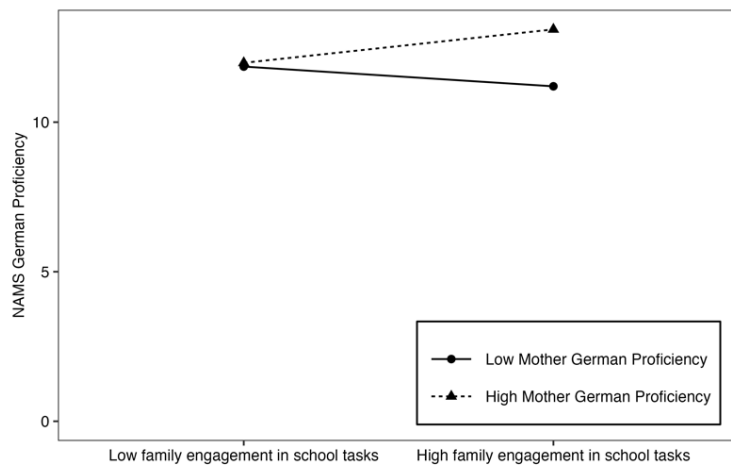


Figure 23
Interaction Between Family Engagement in School-related Tasks and Mother’s German Proficiency in Hamburg

4.2.4.2. Interaction With Destination Language Proficiency of Sibling

Table 17 presents the moderated linear regression results for the interaction effect between the sibling's destination language proficiency and the latent constructs of the family involvement in education on the student's destination language proficiency through Model 5 to Model 7. The findings did not show any significant effect for Hamburg sample. In İstanbul, Model 6 and Model 7 recorded significant interaction effects between sibling's destination language proficiency and the latent constructs of interacting with school ($\beta = .17, p < .01$) and engaging in school tasks ($\beta = .19, p < .001$).

Table 17

Moderated Linear Regression Results With Interaction Effects of Sibling's Destination Language Proficiency and Family Involvement in Education on Student's Destination Language Proficiency

Variable	Model 5				Model 6				Model 7			
	IST		HAM		IST		HAM		IST		HAM	
	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β
Family Environment												
<i>Family Destination Language Proficiency (DLP)</i>												
Mother's DLP	.06	.20**	.07	.19*	.06	.17**	.07	.19*	.06	.19**	.07	.19*
Father's DLP	.05	.00	.08	-.01	.05	.01	.08	-.01	.05	.03	.08	-.01
Sibling's DLP	.05	.38***	.08	.24**	.05	.39***	.08	.24**	.05	.39***	.08	.25**
<i>Family Involvement in Education</i>												
EFS	.08	.03	.09	-.11	.08	.01	.09	-.11	.08	-.03	.09	-.11
IWS	.09	-.14 ⁺	.09	.09	.09	-.16*	.09	.09	.09	-.11	.09	.09
EST	.06	-.04	.10	-.05	.06	-.01	.10	-.04	.06	-.02	.10	-.05
Interactions With Sibling's DLP												
* EFS ^a	.01	.09	.00	.02								
* IWS ^a					.01	.17**	.00	.07				
* EST ^a									.01	.19***	.00	.03
<i>R</i> ²	.391		.287		.411		.291		.418		.288	

Notes. $n_{IST} = 245, n_{HAM} = 189$.

⁺ $p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001$

Mean-centering was applied to all variables.

EFS: Establishing facilitating structures, IWS: Interacting with school, EST: Engaging in school-related tasks.

Additionally, controlled for variables gender, mother's education, father's education, age at migration, length of stay, attending primary school in receiving country, and first language proficiency.

As drawn in Figure 24, when the siblings in İstanbul sample had lower Turkish proficiency, the effect of family interaction with school on the student's Turkish proficiency reduced sharply. In other words, the findings indicated that the high

proficient siblings in İstanbul contributed to the student’s destination language proficiency more by sustaining higher interaction with the schools.

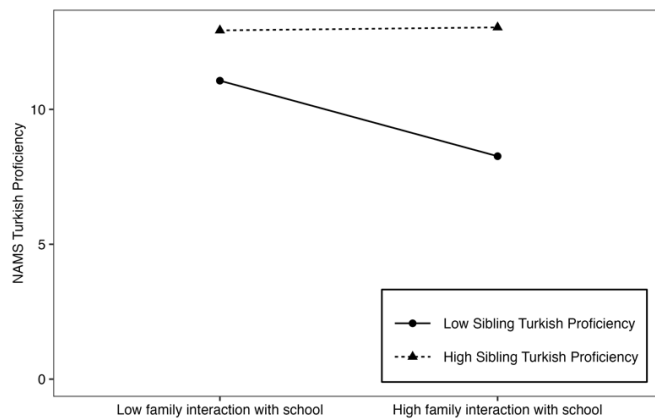


Figure 24
Interaction Between Family Interaction With School and Sibling’s Turkish Proficiency in İstanbul

A similar pattern was observed for the interaction effect between the sibling’s destination language proficiency and family engagement in school tasks. Figure 25 indicated that the effect of family engagement in school tasks on the student’s Turkish proficiency differed according to the levels of sibling’s destination language proficiency.

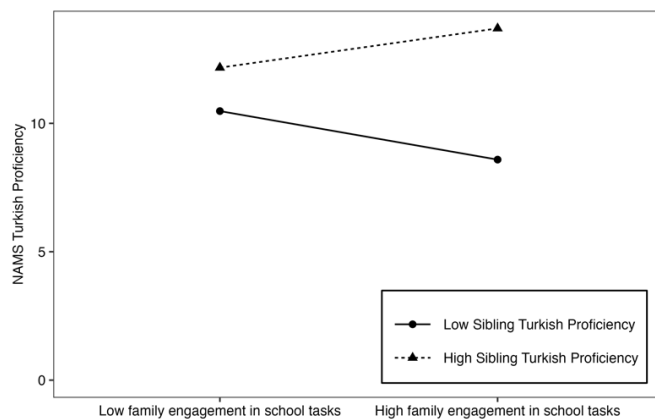


Figure 25
Interaction Between Family Engagement in School-related Tasks and Sibling’s Turkish Proficiency in İstanbul

That is to say, the higher Turkish proficiency the siblings had, the more effect of family engagement in school tasks was pronounced on the student’s Turkish

proficiency. Conversely, the lower Turkish proficiency of siblings decreased the effect of family engagement.

4.2.5. Interaction Effect of Parents' Education and Family Involvement in Education

In addition to the family destination language proficiency, the qualitative findings implied that the parent's with higher education level are likely to influence the student's language learning as they tend to actively participate in their children's education. To further examine the non-significant findings on the relationship between family involvement and student's language proficiency, it was hypothesized that the parent's education level could be potential moderator for that relationship after controlling the effect of parents' destination language proficiency. Therefore, the interaction was added into the models between the parents' education level and the latent factors of family involvement in education construct. The following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 5: Parents' education level moderates the relationship between family involvement in education and destination language proficiency of the newly arrived migrant students after controlling the effect of parents' destination language proficiency. Specifically, the effect of family involvement is more pronounced for parents who have attained higher levels of education in comparison to parents with lower levels of education.

4.2.5.1. Interaction With Mother's Education Level

Table 18 summarizes the interaction effect results for the mother's education level through Model 8 to Model 10. The findings did not show any significant interaction effect of mother's education level and family involvement in education on the student's language proficiency in both contexts, except for the interaction effect between mother's education level and facilitating structures at home in Hamburg sample. Interestingly, this finding in Model 8 pointed out a negative relationship ($\beta = -.15, p < .05$). As illustrated in Figure 26, this finding suggested that the mothers with higher education level in Hamburg sample were associated with a diminished effect of facilitating structures at home on the student's German language proficiency.

Table 18

Moderated Linear Regression Results With Interaction Effects of Mother's Education Level and Family Involvement in Education on Student's Destination Language Proficiency

Variable	Model 8				Model 9				Model 10			
	IST		HAM		IST		HAM		IST		HAM	
	SE.B	β	SE.B	β	SE.B	β	SE.B	β	SE.B	β	SE.B	β
Family Environment												
<i>Parent's education level (EL)</i>												
Father's EL	.25	.03	.09	.04	.25	.03	.09	.05	.25	.04	.09	.04
Mother's EL	.28	.05	.09	-.13	.27	.06	.09	-.13	.27	.04	.09	-.13
<i>Family Involvement in Education</i>												
EFS	.08	.02	.09	-.10	.08	.02	.09	-.10	.08	.02	.09	-.10
IWS	.10	-.12	.09	.13	.09	-.13 ⁺	.09	.10	.09	-.13	.09	.12
EST	.06	-.03	.10	-.05	.06	-.03	.10	-.05	.06	-.03	.10	-.06
Interactions With Mother's Education												
* EFS	.06	.04	.01	-.15*								
* IWS					.07	.01	.01	-.07				
* EST									.05	.10 ⁺	.01	-.12
<i>R</i> ²	.385		.306		.384		.291		.393		.298	

Notes. *n*_{IST} = 245, *n*_{HAM} = 189.

⁺*p* < .10, **p* < .05, ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001

Mean-centering was applied to all variables.

EFS: Establishing facilitating structures, IWS: Interacting with school, EST: Engaging in school-related tasks.

Additionally, controlled for variables gender, age at migration, length of stay, attending primary school in receiving country, first language proficiency, mother's destination language proficiency, father's destination language proficiency, and sibling's destination language proficiency.

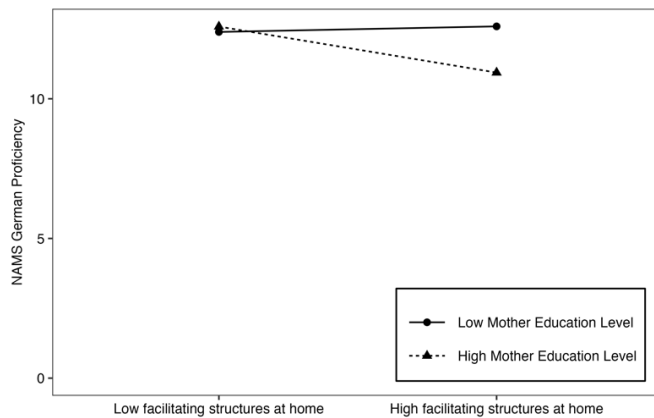


Figure 26

Interaction Between Facilitating Structures at Home and Mother's Education Level in Hamburg

4.2.5.2. Interaction With Father's Education Level

The interaction between father's education level and family involvement in education was incorporated in the regression models through Model 11 to Model 13 as summarized in Table 19. In the Hamburg sample, no significant interaction effect

was observed between the father's education level and the latent constructs of family involvement in education. However, in the İstanbul sample, the findings indicated a significant interaction effect between the father's education level and the latent constructs of facilitating structures at home ($\beta = .13, p < .05$) and family engagement in school tasks ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) as shown in Model 11 and Model 13 respectively.

Table 19

Moderated Linear Regression Results With Interaction Effects of Father's Education Level and Family Involvement in Education on Student's Destination Language Proficiency

Variable	Model 11				Model 12				Model 13			
	IST		HAM		IST		HAM		IST		HAM	
	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β
Family Environment												
<i>Parent's education level (EL)</i>												
Father's EL	.25	.03	.09	.06	.26	.02	.09	.06	.25	.02	.09	.05
Mother's EL	.27	.06	.09	-.15 ⁺	.28	.06	.09	-.14	.27	.06	.09	-.15
<i>Family Involvement in Education</i>												
EFS	.08	.05	.09	-.11	.09	.03	.09	-.11	.08	.04	.09	-.10
IWS	.09	-.09	.09	.10	.09	-.13	.09	.12	.09	-.14 ⁺	.09	.10
EST	.06	-.05	.10	-.03	.06	-.03	.10	-.04	.06	-.03	.10	-.03
Interactions With Father's Education												
* EFS	.06	.13*	.01	-.11								
* IWS					.07	.03	.01	-.10				
* EST									.04	.12*	.01	-.11
R^2	.397		.297		.384		.295		.397		.297	

Notes. $n_{IST} = 245, n_{HAM} = 189$.

⁺ $p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001$

Mean-centering was applied to all variables.

EFS: Establishing facilitating structures, IWS: Interacting with school, EST: Engaging in school-related tasks.

Additionally, controlled for variables gender, age at migration, length of stay, attending primary school in receiving country, first language proficiency, mother's destination language proficiency, father's destination language proficiency, and sibling's destination language proficiency.

According to Figure 27, it can be observed that a higher level of education among fathers was positively associated with the facilitating structures at home to enhance the student's destination language proficiency. Conversely, as the father's education level decreased, the impact of facilitating structures at home exhibited a gradual decline.

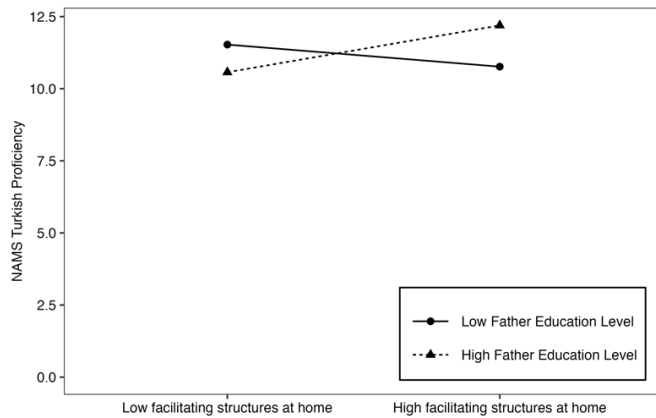


Figure 27

Interaction Between Facilitating Structures at Home and Father's Education Level in İstanbul

Likewise, the father's education level was found to be associated with an increased effect of family engagement in school-related tasks on the student's Turkish proficiency as shown in Figure 28. In other words, a more educated father's involvement in school-related tasks positively influences the student's Turkish language skills to a greater extent.

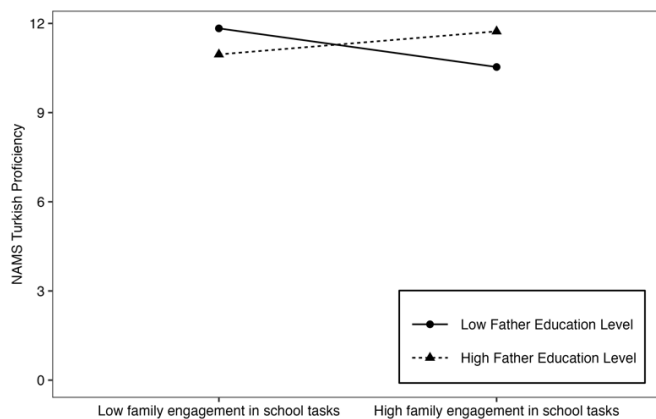


Figure 28

Interaction Between Family Engagement in School-related Tasks and Father's Education Level in İstanbul

In conclusion, while no significant interaction effects of father's education level and family involvement were observed in the Hamburg sample, the findings in İstanbul highlighted the significance of the father's education level in shaping family involvement in education and its impact on the student's language learning.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This comparative study explored the organization of destination language learning for newly arrived migrant students and contextual factors influencing their language proficiency in monolingual school contexts. İstanbul and Hamburg were illustrative cases to understand the processes. This chapter discusses the main cross-case results by integrating the qualitative and quantitative findings, and concludes with implications for educational curricular policy and further research.

Despite vast evidence in the literature about the direct effect and repercussions of the limited destination language proficiency (OECD, 2015; UNESCO, 2018), a significant knowledge gap exists regarding how language learning takes place for newly arrived migrant students. In this respect, the primary motivation behind this study was to understand the multifaceted language learning process that crisscrosses different actors and conditions. Against the backdrop of the monolingual school contexts in Turkey and Germany, I attempted to unfold the environment that surrounds the language learning as well as its interplay with migration-related learner characteristics. Regardless of the integration experience and available resources in the receiving contexts, the findings expose the intricate and interconnected nature of destination language organization, which strongly argues against attributing the primary responsibility to a single actor, be it the learners themselves, schools, or families. In this regard, Figure 29 illustrates the nested structure of ecology of destination language education for newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul and Hamburg that suggests an alternative interpretation to Bronfenbrenner's ecological framework (Bronfenbrenner, 1976; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) by pointing out the central role of the super-diverse learner characteristics rather than a cascading effect of macro-, exo-, and mesosystems on the immediate environment.

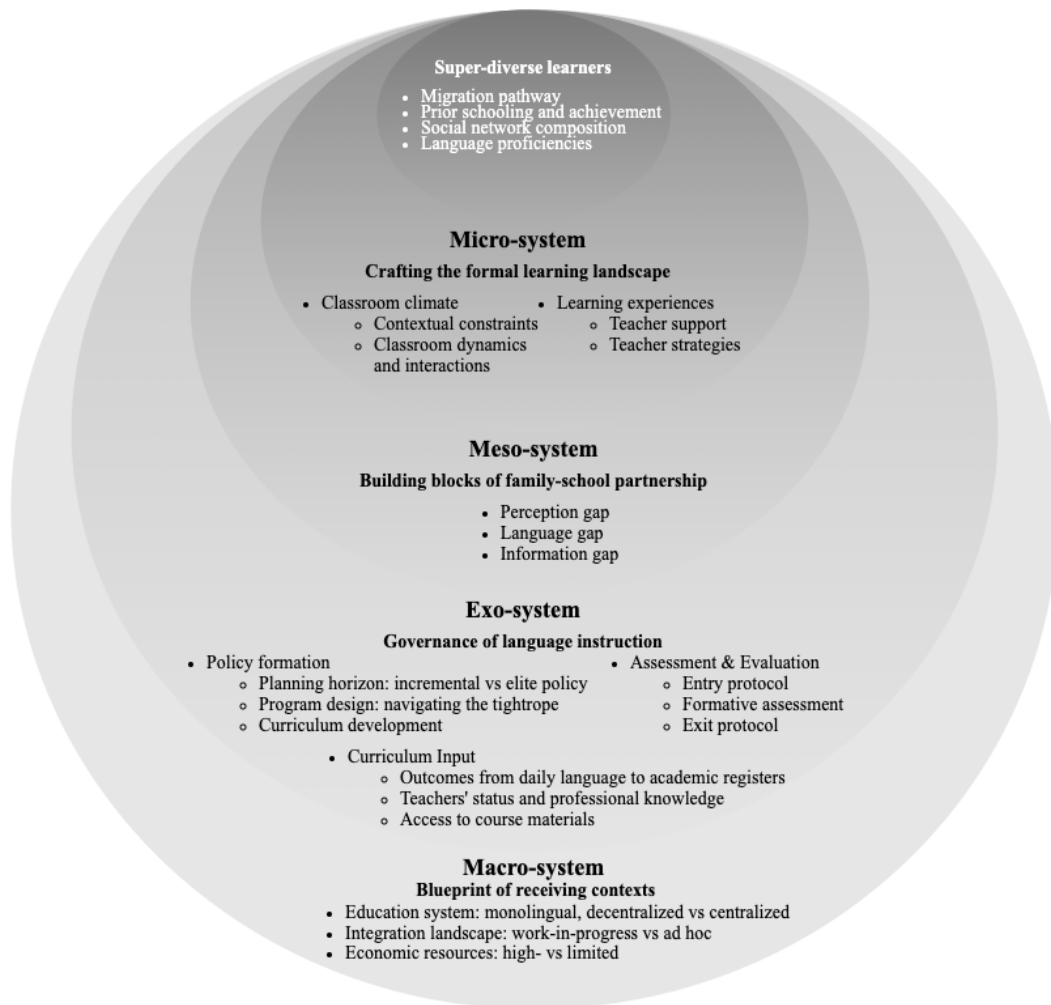


Figure 29

Ecology of Language Support for Newly Arrived Migrant Students

5.1. Super-diversity Within Migrant Students

In an ecology of learning environment, inherent person characteristics modify the immediate surrounding context (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; Tudge et al., 2009). Drawing on Vertovec's (2007) concept of *super-diversity* that highlights the co-existence of intersecting ethnic, cultural, and social groups within a single space, I borrowed this term to describe the super-diverse resource characteristics of the newly arrived migrant students that challenged the organization and delivery of the language instruction. The distinguishing resource characteristics manifested themselves in the student's migration background, prior schooling, social network composition, and language proficiencies. These inherent characteristics represented students' strengths and vulnerabilities that affect their ability to take part in proximal processes in the formal learning environment (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). As a result, a multi-

level class with super-diverse learner characteristics was a distinguishing trait of language support.

The students in the study did not demonstrate the assumed monolithic characteristics attached to their migration background. In addition to between-group differences, they showed various within-group characteristics. To be more specific, the Syrian refugee students in İstanbul were distinguished by the conditions in their origin country, experienced different degrees of forcible displacement, and followed divergent paths in their migration journey. Aligned with the findings of the previous studies (Erdemir, 2022a, 2022b; Karşlı Çalamak & Erdemir, 2019), they were not characterized through deficit traits such as low aspirations, trauma, and incompetency. In Hamburg, the heterogeneity of the students' migration background was augmented with between-group differences when the children of economic migrants and forcibly displaced families found themselves in the same language classrooms.

Drawing on their different migration background, the temporal characteristics of the learners were crucial aspects to consider while planning the language instruction and assessing its benefits for the students. These temporal characteristics constituted age at migration, inclusion into schools at irregular times, and length of stay in İstanbul or Hamburg. The quantitative results in this study did not show any association between age at migration and destination language proficiency in both İstanbul and Hamburg. This finding contradicted the earlier studies that widely agree on the negative correlation between age at migration and language proficiency (Chiswick & Miller, 2001; Espenshade & Fu, 1997; Esser, 2006; Kristen & Seuring, 2021; Long, 1990; van Tubergen, 2010). One plausible explanation for this discrepancy could be the limited age range observed in this study because the previous findings often included samples with a broader age group ranging from children to adult immigrants. Complementary to the qualitative findings in this study, the length of stay emerged as a significant predictor of destination language proficiency in both contexts. It indicated a positive relationship; the longer students stayed in the destination setting, the higher their proficiency levels were. This positive association represented 4.2% of the variance in İstanbul and 7% in Hamburg. Notably, the length of stay in Hamburg had the most substantial impact on German proficiency. This

finding corresponds to the earlier studies that indicated the duration spent in the receiving country as an influential factor on language learning (Chiswick & Miller, 2001; Espenshade & Fu, 1997; Kristen & Seuring, 2021).

The schooling trajectory of the newly arrived migrant students demonstrated considerable differences. In both contexts, the findings remained consistent regarding their diverse educational background prior to migration. However, the students in İstanbul continued to experience different schooling processes due to the ad hoc integration strategy in post-migration. The lack of a predictable path to inclusion resulted in students starting public schools with varying entry characteristics. The quantitative results in İstanbul proved this disparity, showing that the students who attended primary school in Turkey gained an advantage in Turkish proficiency. This positive relationship accounted for 2.2% of the variance. In Hamburg, the differences in students' educational background from their origin countries were also a major concern for language instruction, but the post-migration ecology, which was characterized by stability, did not exacerbate these differences by providing a consistent educational pathway. Contrary to the assumption in this study, attending a primary school did not appear to be a significant predictor of German proficiency.

The study presents evidence against the school staff's argument that the newly arrived migrant students tend to spend more time with their co-ethnics, which in turn reduces exposure to the destination language. This may hold for some students, but their social network was patterned involving different interactions. In İstanbul, where the newly arrived migrant students belonged to a single origin country (i.e., Syria), the school staff assumed that students preferred their co-ethnics to build relationships. Contrary to this deep-seated belief, an overarching interaction pattern was not observed in this study. The students could make informed decisions and navigate opportunities to connect with students from different backgrounds to improve their destination language and thus avoid stigma attached due to their ethnic background. However, despite students' keen interest in improving their language proficiency by socializing with their Turkish peers, the top-down policy introduced the segregated cohesion classroom as a panacea for limited language proficiency. The students in the cohesion classes were confined to only interact with their co-

ethnics and suffered from decreased exposure to the destination language. The policymakers' concern of dominant interaction with co-ethnics became a self-fulfilling prophecy. In Hamburg, the diversity inherent in society is already reflected in the school environments. The students in the language support classrooms were unlikely to predominantly interact with their co-ethnics because the learning environment accommodated a wide array of different ethnic backgrounds and languages. In this multilingual learning environment, English or German languages served as common mediums, which acted as *lingua franca* to maintain communication among the students. However, the extent of exposure to German was initially limited because language teachers served as a major source of exposure until students acquired sufficient proficiency and began conversing with each other.

Lastly, the students had varying proficiency levels in their first and destination languages, which were viewed as a challenge to the language instruction. In İstanbul, some students did not possess literacy in any language, while a remarkable proportion seemed to have already acquired basic interpersonal proficiency in Turkish but needed support in academic language. This finding was aligned with earlier studies that emphasized the need to foster academic language proficiency for newly arrived migrant students (Cummins, 2008). In addition, language classrooms in Hamburg involved multilingual children due to multiple extended stays for refugee students in different countries, multilingual family background, or departure from a multilingual origin country. For these children, the availability of cognitive and metalinguistics skills in other languages served as a facilitator to destination language learning. In contrast, the lack of such skills challenged the language instruction despite teachers' efforts to differentiate instruction. The benefits attributed to the transfer of metalinguistic skills across languages were confirmed in the quantitative study. The results in both contexts showed that first language proficiency emerged as a significant predictor of destination language proficiency. The variance explained by the positive transfer effect was 3.4% in İstanbul and 2.4% in Hamburg. This finding corresponds to earlier studies on the linguistic interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1979, 2000; Genesee et al., 2006), which revealed first language proficiency as an asset to second language learning. However, an ill-informed argument about the *use of the first language* rather than its

proficiency dominates the discussion, which undermines its potential to destination language learning. If this study had examined the language use, it might have shown a similar negative association with destination language proficiency as previous studies have indicated (Gathercole, 2002; Scheele et al., 2010). Rather than adopting an assimilationist perspective that penalizes or stigmatizes the use of first languages, this study adopted an asset-based lens that recognized it as an asset and thus examined the relationship between first language proficiency and second language learning.

Taken together, the study observed the super-diverse characteristics of the students as central to the organization and delivery of language instruction. The quantitative findings further corroborated this finding as migration-related individual factors altogether explained 14.2% of the variance of Turkish proficiency in İstanbul and 13.5% of German proficiency in Hamburg.

5.2. What Shapes the Formal Learning Environment?

The proximal processes in the formal learning environment were characterized by the super-diverse characteristics of the students as well as tangible and intangible resources available in the schools. These two distinct sets of factors had a reciprocal relationship that determined the efficiency of the language instruction.

Firstly, a systemic issue in resource allocation policies was observed in İstanbul. This inevitably influenced the magnitude and scope of any intervention that aimed to contribute to destination language proficiency. The schools suffered from intersecting adversities when they were tasked to include a high number of Syrian refugee students within their overpopulated schools. Inadequate funding resulted in overstretching the limited resources, particularly in deprived communities where the majority of the Syrian refugees resided. A high rate of teacher mobility and short-term contracted teachers were the results of deprived community and school conditions. Therefore, teacher looping, a practice in education where a teacher remains with the same group of students for multiple consecutive years (Wedenoja et al., 2022), was absent in the observed schools. Teacher looping can improve achievement and decreases absences, truancy, and suspensions (Wedenoja et al., 2022). Looping can also promote smoother transitions and academic continuity as

students move from one grade level to the next. Additionally, it can facilitate more personalized instruction and targeted support tailored to the specific needs of the students. The findings suggested that Hamburg's resource allocation policies have taken essential steps to ensure equity and inclusivity, aligning with research that advocates for targeted support for students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Proactive measures were implemented in the allocation of resources towards schools that cater to a significant number of immigrant pupils in order to mitigate contextual impediments.

In accordance with the super-diverse learner characteristics, the classroom dynamics and interactions showed complex interpersonal relationships and communication patterns. The findings suggested various verbal and non-verbal communication forms and different ways of building relationships among the students. The initial pattern that impacted classroom dynamics was the discrepant gender norms, primarily disadvantaging female students. This phenomenon was predominantly observed in İstanbul as a restricted level of engagement between girls and boys in language classrooms. The provision of language support within segregated cohesion classrooms proved to be a challenging endeavor in İstanbul's single-gender religious lower-secondary schools. In particular, persuading certain families to permit their daughters to participate in mixed-gender language courses presented a significant obstacle.

Secondly, a recurring pattern in both mainstream and language classrooms was the emergence of conflicts stemming from students' cultural backgrounds and their varying levels of language proficiency. This was particularly pronounced in the mainstream classrooms in İstanbul, where the presence of newly arrived migrant students contributed to the heterogeneity of the student body. The dominant discourse in İstanbul reinforced the dichotomy between Syrian refugees and schools and pointed out a profound schism that has the potential to intensify the existing climate of conflict within educational institutions. In Hamburg, the dispute within the classroom was centered on the varying socio-economic and migration backgrounds. This tension initially surfaced in the IPCs. Social marginalization based on ethnic origin and restricted linguistic abilities created a sub-optimal learning climate when students encountered peers from different backgrounds.

The degree of teacher support and crafting the learning experiences constituted the second integral component of the proximal processes. The findings showed that both aspects needed improvement. The impact of structured exposure was lessened due to the language barrier between newly arrived migrant students and teachers when they first included in the language programs. Children tended to turn to their ethnic peers to speak in their first languages when they could not adequately interact with their teachers. This behavior was associated with a lack of attentiveness, as teachers were unable to oversee their interactions. The language barrier also constituted a risk factor in Hamburg for effective teacher support because newly arrived migrant students' varying linguistic backgrounds and competency levels led to different language constellations in language classrooms. This was detrimental to the complete beginner or low proficient students in classroom communication unless they had some knowledge of English or had peers or teachers speaking their first language. Drawing on the language barrier, the research revealed that there were instances of missed opportunities for engagement in the classroom. Teachers inadvertently overlooked or lacked the awareness to identify students' disinterest in the lesson. As a result, they tended to miss opportunities to tackle non-participation or absence in class activities.

The potential impact of teachers with migration backgrounds in Hamburg was deemed advantageous in extending greater support to newly arrived migrant students. This was due to the increased likelihood of students encountering a teacher who is proficient in their first language or possesses a deeper understanding of their inclusion experiences.

Teaching strategies employed in language classrooms were marked by a reliance on individual student work or occasional ad hoc pair work in both İstanbul and Hamburg. As evidenced in earlier studies (e.g., Koçoğlu & Yelken, 2018; Panagiotopoulou & Rosen, 2018), the prevailing strategy for arranging instructional activities involved students participating in independent work in a teacher-centered environment. Engaging in group work or class discussion could have provided numerous benefits to both high and low-proficient students, such as increased peer interaction time and optimized use of instruction time. Concern about losing classroom authority during group work in İstanbul was implied as one reason for a

preference for isolated individual work, despite observations in this study showing that peer-to-peer support occurred naturally during class.

In language classrooms with super-diverse student characteristics, differentiated instruction was occasionally observed for students needing supplementary assistance. In Hamburg, it was a common practice to allocate different tasks to diverse groups or individual students when the class comprised varying levels of linguistic competence. However, students often worked individually rather than collaborating in differentiated instruction groups.

The diverse language and cultural backgrounds of the students were not effectively utilized in addressing the challenges of a multi-level classroom, as the instruction mostly involved sporadic use of first languages and superficial aspects of cultural backgrounds, which were initiated by students themselves rather than deliberate teacher-led actions. Although it was a common practice to limit the use of first languages in classroom instruction or discourage its use altogether, some teachers took it upon themselves to actively promote the use of students' first languages within available opportunities. Especially in İstanbul, this attitude defied the prevailing discourse and negative sentiments towards Syrian refugees in Turkey by intentionally incorporating students' first language and cultures into instruction.

The use of first languages and cultures exhibited a similar sporadic pattern in Hamburg. Unlike İstanbul, the practice was more frequent in classrooms with teachers who had a migration background, providing an advantage to students who shared a common language with teacher. Although teachers acknowledged the importance of using students' language repertoires and cultural backgrounds, the practice in Hamburg did not consistently align with this rhetoric, which indicated an implementation gap between rhetoric and practice. In this respect, it is argued that preparatory classes in Germany also perpetuate hegemonic monolingual ideologies (Panagiotopoulou & Rosen, 2018), which is further associated with linguistic assimilation efforts intending aid students' integration into the German school system. Moreover, it is added that a school focused on linguistic assimilation actively impedes the educational advancement of those who rely on their intricate and multilingual skills for cognition and learning. Given the official monolingual

instructional landscape in Turkey, these claims may hold true for language classes for Syrian refugee students in İstanbul.

The quantitative findings corroborated the inefficiency of this sub-optimal learning landscape with the non-significant association between classroom learning environment and students' destination language proficiency in both contexts. The degree of teacher support, cooperation among students, and equity in the classroom did not result in significant influences on the destination language learning. Given the disparity between the need for a multifaceted approach to language instruction and the limited responses of the schools, this finding was aligned with the portrait of the learning environment observed in this study.

5.3. What Guides Family-school Relationship?

Irrespective of infrastructure constraints and sub-optimal instructional planning, the schools were still influenced in this study by the ideals and norms of middle-class families (Lareau, 2011). They expected similar child-rearing practices and educational experiences among families across social classes. This led them to potentially overlook the unique needs and circumstances of the newly arrived migrant students and parents. The families were assumed to be already familiar with the rules and norms of the schooling system, and have the agency to realize a concerted cultivation (Lareau, 2011) by providing comprehensive support to their children, typically observed in middle-class families. The study expounded on three fundamental gaps that served as the foundation for establishing a collaborative relationship between families and schools: namely, the *perception gap*, *language gap*, and *information gap*.

The perception gap portrayed the exclusionary attitude inherent in school contexts towards the newly arrived migrant families. Even though they belonged to the same social class as disadvantaged local families in suburban regions, the newly arrived migrant families, particularly refugees, were depicted through a deficit lens by schools. Despite sharing a similar socio-economic background and facing comparable challenges with the local population, the schools in İstanbul tended to present a distinct and negative portrayal of Syrian families. This portrayal highlighted deficiencies and an apparent lack of engagement with school-related

tasks. These results align with earlier findings, especially within the context of refugee education in post-migration ecology (e.g., Khansa & Bahous, 2021). As indicated by Cho et al. (2019), such deficit representation of refugee background families as needy or problematic might conceal the resources they have accumulated throughout their distinct migration experiences. Contrary to this deficit perspective, the families expressed their desire to access better educational opportunities and secure a promising future for their children as one of the primary factors motivating their decision to leave their homeland and relocate to İstanbul or Hamburg. Karaagac et al. (2022) previously highlighted a comparable finding, noting that Syrian parents in İstanbul displayed interest and engagement in their children's education. However, their primary form of involvement, which occurs at home, often goes unnoticed by school personnel. Parents' aspirational capital, which is described as their concern for their children's academic environment, performance, and wellbeing (Massing et al., 2023), is among the major determinants of their migration to another country (Atwell et al., 2009; Isik-Ercan, 2012). Regardless of their migration background, their socio-economic status was recognized in the study as the principal element affecting their involvement with the school. The relationship between newly arrived migrant families and schools in Hamburg also varied based on their economic status and forms of migration, which might result in a similar deficit lens towards migrant families with lower socio-economic backgrounds. Similar to Syrian families' aspiration in İstanbul, the newly arrived migrant families in Hamburg attributed importance for their children's attaining German proficiency for pragmatic reasons, as it would allow them to access the job market with fewer challenges.

The family destination language proficiency was crucial for promoting students' language learning and fostering a positive relationship with schools. The schools in İstanbul held the belief that Syrian families did not deliberately prevent their children from learning Turkish nor did they make significant contributions due to their own limited language proficiency. Likewise, previous research highlighted that language presents a significant obstacle in connecting with families, which is exacerbated by the shortage of interpreters and the necessity to rely on children as intermediaries for language communication (McBrien, 2011; Rah et al., 2009). The study offered additional insights that the family destination language was perceived as an extrinsic

matter by the schools in İstanbul, one that should be managed by families themselves rather than a consequence of inadequate social policy. In both contexts, the adequate involvement of parents was linked to their proficiency in the destination language. In contrast, limited language proficiency acted as a significant obstacle to their engagement in school-related tasks and led to negative stereotyping. The schools in İstanbul faced a challenge in bridging the language gap, as they did not have the necessary tools at their disposal. In such cases, migrant students or elder siblings in the family took on the role of language brokers and helped to facilitate communication with schools. In Hamburg, the schools were endowed with more resources to manage the language disparity such as multilingual information services and interpreter support.

Confirming the qualitative results, the quantitative findings verified the influence of family destination language proficiency, particularly mother's and siblings'. Specifically, the mother's destination language proficiency was a significant predictor in both samples, explaining 2.8% and 2.6% of the variance, respectively. However, the father's destination language proficiency did not result in any significant relationship in both contexts. The sibling's destination language proficiency displayed a similar positive relationship pattern in both İstanbul and Hamburg. It accounted for a substantial amount of variance in the outcome variable, with 11.3% in İstanbul and 4.2% in Hamburg. Furthermore, aligning with the qualitative findings that emphasized siblings as important sources of language learning in the İstanbul sample, the sibling's proficiency emerged as the most significant predictor. In other words, having a sibling with high Turkish proficiency was found to have a larger influence on language learning than the formal learning environment and other quantitative indicators in this study. It alone accounted for one-fourth of the explained variance in the İstanbul sample. The mixed methods cross-cultural findings in the study provided further evidence and insights into earlier studies, which portrayed parents' linguistic struggle to support their children's education at home (Isik-Ercan, 2012; McBrien, 2011) and indicated the presence of high proficient family members' as a generative factor on students' language proficiency. In this respect, Chiswick et al. (2005) presented a similar quantitative evidence in this study, pointing out that the relationship between a parent's and

child's language proficiency, which might be more robust for mothers due to their increased time spent with children. Additionally, they revealed that higher number of siblings might lead to more language interactions at home and contribute to language proficiency. Similarly, Ortega and Ludwig (2023) showed that children of immigrant parents with higher English proficiency have better scores in reading assessments. They further offered quantitative evidence that parents with higher English proficiency are more likely to join parent-teacher organization and have a higher probability of parent-teacher interaction.

The migrant families in İstanbul and Hamburg had different schooling experiences in their origin countries. As another underlying reason for the prevalent narrative depicting migrant families through a deficit lens in both contexts, the findings pointed out information gap concerning the schooling system of the receiving countries. This gap, which had a reciprocal relationship with the perception and language gap, exacerbated existing inequalities by impeding families from effectively navigating the rules of the game. Despite their high aspirations for their children's education careers, some families were unaware of their rights or did not know how to access the resources in the receiving contexts, which was particularly challenging in the complex tracked education system in Hamburg. Parents' navigational capital, which refers to the skills cultivated by families while managing their relationship with schools (Massing et al., 2023), determine the trajectory of their involvement. In this respect, communication challenges go beyond just language barriers, as families may struggle to prioritize various messages from schools to identify crucial information (Haines et al., 2022). As pointed out by Isik-Ercan (2012), parents are likely to perceive a hindrance to their active participation in their children's academic endeavors due to their limited understanding and familiarity with the curriculum, teaching methods, and educational materials. Institutional support is thus necessary for families to enable them to make informed decisions and engage in their children's schooling process regularly.

In line with the schools' view, family involvement in education did not yield any direct influence on students' destination language proficiency in the quantitative study in both contexts. Establishing facilitating structures, interacting with school, or engaging in school-related tasks, which were considered as the indicators of family

involvement, did not produce any significant effect. However, as implied in the qualitative findings that deprived socio-economic conditions and limited family language proficiency were major obstacles to family involvement in education contrary to the deficit perspective of the schools, the quantitative findings first confirmed that the relationship between facilitating structures at home and the student's destination language proficiency showed variations depending on the level of the mother's German proficiency. When mothers had low proficiency in German, the relationship between facilitating structures at home and students' German proficiency decreased. Conversely, the degree of relationship between facilitating structures at home and students' German proficiency was maintained when mothers had high proficiency in German. Additionally, the relationship between students' German proficiency and family engagement in school tasks differed according to mothers' German proficiency. The significant interaction effect suggested that the impact of family engagement in school-related tasks on students' German proficiency increased considerably when mothers had high proficiency in German. In other words, mothers with high proficiency in the sample were more likely to involve in their children's school tasks, and, as a result, they could exert a more significant influence on their children's destination language proficiency. In İstanbul, the findings did not suggest any interaction effect between the mother's destination language proficiency and the latent constructs of family involvement in education.

In Hamburg, the findings did not show any significant interaction effect between sibling's proficiency and family involvement on students' German proficiency. In İstanbul, the study recorded significant interaction effects between siblings' Turkish proficiency and the latent constructs of interacting with school and engaging in school tasks in line with the qualitative findings. When siblings in İstanbul sample had lower Turkish proficiency, the effect of family interaction with school on the students' Turkish proficiency reduced sharply. In other words, the findings indicated that the high proficient siblings in İstanbul contributed to students' destination language proficiency more by sustaining higher interaction with the schools. A similar pattern was observed for the interaction effect between siblings' Turkish and family engagement in school tasks. The effect of family engagement in school tasks on students' Turkish proficiency differed according to the levels of siblings'

destination language proficiency. That is to say, the higher Turkish proficiency the siblings had, the more effect of family engagement in school tasks was pronounced on students' Turkish proficiency. Conversely, the lower Turkish proficiency of siblings decreased the effect of family engagement.

As another integral part of family socio-economic status, parent's education level was indicated to shape their involvement patterns in the qualitative study. The qualitative study showed that even if parents did not have adequate destination language proficiency, they could contribute to their children's schooling process when they had high education levels. The quantitative study showed some mixed findings regarding the moderating effect of the father's education level on student's destination language proficiency. Regarding the mother's education level, the only significant interaction effect was observed in the Hamburg sample between facilitating structures at home and student's German proficiency, but it illustrated a negative relationship, which suggested that the mothers with higher education levels in Hamburg sample were associated with a diminished effect of facilitating structures at home on the student's German language proficiency.

With respect to the interaction between the father's education level and family involvement in education, no significant interaction effect was observed in the Hamburg sample between the father's education level and the latent constructs of family involvement in education. However, in the İstanbul sample, the findings indicated a significant interaction effect between the father's education level and the latent constructs of facilitating structures at home and family engagement in school tasks. A higher level of education was positively associated with the facilitating structures at home to enhance the student's destination language proficiency. Conversely, as the father's education level decreased, the impact of facilitating structures at home exhibited a gradual decline. Likewise, the father's education level was found to be associated with an increased effect of family engagement in school-related tasks on the student's Turkish proficiency. In other words, a more educated father's involvement in school-related tasks positively influenced the student's Turkish language skills to a greater extent.

In conclusion, while no significant interaction effects of the father's education level and family involvement were observed in the Hamburg sample, the findings in İstanbul highlighted the significance of the father's education level in shaping family involvement in education and its impact on the student's language learning.

5.4. Facets of Governance of Language Instruction

In the exosystem of the ecology of destination language support, the governance of language instruction was situated at an intermediary position that was directly impacted by overarching macro policies and relayed this influence on proximal processes in the formal learning environment. The distal process guided policy formation, determined curriculum input, and strategized entry and exit processes.

5.4.1. Policy Formation

The development of the instructional policy was characterized by a top-down policy-making process in İstanbul and an incremental process in Hamburg. The top-down policy orchestrated a shortsighted one-size-fits-all approach by planning the language support in an ad hoc way. This elite-policy making was managed by professionals at MoNE and external funding bodies that supported refugee-related projects. As a result, the organization of the language programs was not aligned with the expectations and characterized by borrowing policies from other settings without considering unique contextual circumstances. As emphasized by scholars in comparative education, the act of learning through comparison does not automatically imply that policies and practices should be directly transplanted (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). The issue with policy borrowing arises when there is a simplistic transfer of educational policies and practices from one socio-cultural context to another without adequately considering the unique community or cultural aspects. As Sadler advocated (1900; reprinted in Bereday, 1964), each education system is shaped by the forces within its society. However, policymakers often tend to seek quick solutions by looking to other education systems when confronted with educational challenges (Noah, 1986). For example, after the TECs were closed, an integrative model was followed by directly mainstreaming all Syrian students regardless of their prior education and language proficiencies. The language support was offered as after-school support courses. This strategy involved various

shortcomings and needed improvements. However, rather than maintaining this integrative model by amending the implementation, the MoNE abruptly established cohesion classrooms for low-proficient Syrian students in Turkish. This model was very similar to long-disputed Welcome Classes in Germany. In addition to the inherent shortcomings of the model, implementing it in a limited resource context resulted in compounded disadvantages.

In Hamburg, language support was characterized by its need-based operation, where the established IPC system adjusted the number of language support classes based on the demand. This approach was deemed incremental in nature, as it involved the continuation of previous policies with minimal modifications, thereby ensuring a stable planning horizon. To illustrate a recent instance, more than one million Ukrainian people found refuge in Germany as of May 2023. Similar to the influx of Syrian refugees during the summer of 2015, the policymakers expanded the available system by increasing the number of IPCs for Ukrainian children in Hamburg. The system also accommodated Ukrainian refugee teachers so that students could receive support in both their first language and German. Drawing upon prior experiences, this need-based operation showed dynamic and adaptive responses to emerging needs. In terms of language program planning, the schools had the autonomy to decide on the most suitable approach based on their available resources and specific requirements within a flexible framework.

Regarding the program design, the study elicited contrasting opinions on the ideal model. Some highlighted their negative experiences with integrative models or direct mainstreaming without sufficient support, while others shared the counter-productive effects of the segregated language support. In Hamburg, the dominant program design was to offer initial language support in a separate class, usually for one year. The language support in İstanbul evolved from TECs to complementary support in mainstream classrooms to separate language programs for low proficient students. In principle, the current program design in both contexts has the same aim: to provide a structured intensive exposure to the destination language for a given time. This study emphasized that these segregated programs might be counter-productive and fail to reap the expected benefits. Though these programs were presented as safe heaven or a little island within schools, which could open a protective space for the newly

arrived migrant students until they got accustomed to their new surroundings and gained adequate proficiency, this approach might indeed delay their inclusion process and be detrimental to destination language learning. First, the responsibility of providing exposure to the destination language fell primarily on the teachers. With the absence of native-speaking students and high concentration of immigrant students in the immediate setting or proximal processes, the opportunities for authentic interaction and language immersion were constrained. As a result, students' exposure to broader cultural and linguistic contexts remained limited, which hindered their ability to fully integrate into school contexts. The empirical study conducted by Höckel and Schilling (2022) in Hamburg on the effect of different integration models proved that participating in segregated language programs showed an adverse impact on fifth-grade standardized German test performance compared to students directly integrated into a regular class. Further, this impact was most pronounced in Math and German scores for children, while also being notable and adverse for English and Natural Science. They interpreted this finding as a result of limited interaction with nonimmigrant peers. This interpretation aligns with the findings in this study and existing literature that has identified detrimental effects on immigrant children when they are educated in classrooms with a significant concentration of other immigrant peers (Bredtmann et al., 2021; Jensen & Rasmussen, 2011; Schneeweis, 2015).

Moreover, the segregation of students in these programs carried unintended consequences. It inadvertently labeled the students as different or separate from their peers, contributing to their stigmatization within the educational setting. Rather than fostering an inclusive environment, the segregated programs perpetuated a sense of otherness and isolation among the students. In addition, the segregation of students in these separate classes, albeit intended to provide support and foster a sense of belonging, inadvertently reinforced divisions based on ethnicity. This model resulted in a phenomenon of ethnic clustering, particularly pronounced in İstanbul, where a majority of the students had the same country of origin. These classes essentially functioned as temporary education centers within public schools. On the other hand, the advocates of the segregated programs underlined the challenges in mainstream classes when students were mainstreamed without language proficiency. Students

with limited destination language proficiency often felt overwhelmed and struggled to keep up with their high proficient or native-speaking peers. This was pronounced as a major challenge in overcrowded mainstream classrooms, where teachers could not allocate additional time and resources to meet the diverse needs of these students.

The findings highlighted an important aspect of curriculum development in both İstanbul and Hamburg: the absence of a binding framework and autonomy. The lack of a binding framework for curriculum development revealed that language teachers had significant discretion in determining instructional approaches for their courses. In Hamburg, autonomy was a deliberate measure implemented by the education authority. The decentralized nature of curriculum development in İstanbul was primarily driven by the lack of investment and support from the centralized education authority in developing language support courses. This lack of investment may have led to a situation where teachers had to rely on their own expertise and resources to design and plan language courses, resulting in a higher degree of independence but potentially limited access to standardized materials and pedagogical guidance. While this autonomy might provide flexibility and allow teachers to adapt their instruction to the specific needs of their students, it also raised concerns about the consistency and coherence of language education across different classrooms and schools. As a result, the language curriculum in both contexts was predominantly characterized by ad hoc course plans, needing a standardized and cohesive structure. In this respect, Stanat and Christensen (2007) emphasized that the explicit language curriculum involving clear goals and standards yield more generative language learning outcomes for immigrant students in countries where there exist small achievement gap between immigrant and nonimmigrant students.

5.4.2. Curriculum Input

The study unfolded teachers as the major curriculum input who could translate inequalities into generative learning outcomes in a dynamic learning environment with diverse learner needs and contextual constraints. However, teacher recruitment, retention, and professional background posed concerns in both contexts.

Teacher recruitment for language classes was influenced by the broader issues surrounding the teaching profession in Turkey and Germany. Whereas teacher

surplus in Turkey led teachers who could not find permanent employment in their respective fields to work in the language programs on temporary contracts, teacher shortage in Germany resulted in a similar outcome. Based on the recent German School Barometer, it is estimated that there are currently 30,000 to 40,000 vacant teaching positions (Robert Bosch Stiftung, 2023). This shortage is projected to escalate by 2030, reaching over 80,000 unfilled teaching positions. In both contexts, teachers from diverse subject fields and professional backgrounds were recruited to support the language learning of the newly arrived migrant students.

In İstanbul, the sense of temporariness reflected in language teachers' employment rights and conditions. The temporary employment scheme, which defined their status as workers rather than civil servants, brought lower wages and a lack of predictable path in the profession. This inevitably shaped schools' perceptions towards language teachers and language education programs. They were regarded as constraining the scarce resources of the schools. The language teachers had to invest effort in dealing with overt and covert forms of resistance towards them.

The domain knowledge and pedagogical skills of teachers in this study primarily relied on short-term certifications prior to their entry into the profession and accelerated in-service teacher trainings. Rather than centralized top-down professional development, grassroots informal digital teacher networks served in İstanbul as a crucial resource to overcome the lack of professional background, which became apparent in planning and delivering timely and differentiated instruction. Similarly in Germany, the teacher training for preparatory classes tend to rely on a brief certification as a German as a second language teacher, which lacks substantial coverage of migration-related multilingualism as a subject (Panagiotopoulou & Rosen, 2018). The study underscored a deep rift between learner needs and teacher qualifications. When underprivileged students with super-diverse characteristics who needed utmost teacher support encountered disadvantaged teachers, the outcome fell short of an optimal learning environment.

The second crucial component of the curriculum was comprised of the course materials. The study indicated the issue of availability and alignment with learners' needs. In the İstanbul context, the scarcity of course materials, especially in the early

years of language programs, pointed out the need for targeted support for teachers. For instance, the influence of macroeconomic conditions on delivery of coursebooks raised concerns about the equitable provision of resources and impact of external factors on language instruction. In contrast, the Hamburg context displayed a resourceful learning environment with prompt access to a wide array of materials.

Apart from accessing course materials, the study underscored bridging the content gap between available course materials and students' language needs. This discrepancy was particularly evident in İstanbul in the early implementations of the language programs, where coursebooks designed for adult language learners were ill-suited for young learners. Although the policymakers gained experience and attempted age-appropriate course materials in the subsequent cycles, the coursebooks were misaligned with students' varying proficiency levels and specific language goals. Regardless of operational reasons concerning access, the core reason behind this was the lack of experience in teaching Turkish as a second/foreign language. This was an immature field that has gained momentum in the recent decade. Hamburg, on the other hand, benefited from high-resource context advantages and long-standing experience of teaching German as a second language.

In both contexts, the available materials necessitated tailoring to cater to the needs of super-diverse learners. In this regard, experienced teachers and informal teacher networks played a crucial role in improving the materials and share them with classrooms in need. This aspect proved again the heavy responsibility attributed to language teachers.

The organization of the learning outcomes revealed that language instruction was guided by a similar assumption about newly arrived migrant students in İstanbul and Hamburg. Considering the compounded challenges including multi-level classes and contextual constraints, the language programs were positioned from a very pragmatic stance. The learning outcomes were aligned with the prevalent misconception about migrant students that they were at-risk students who could drop out of school at any time or unlikely to have the same level of attainment as high proficient or native peers in mainstream classes. Therefore, the aim appeared to equip them with daily language skills which could be adequate to maintain their daily life and continue

vocational training. As a result, this heavy focus on daily language skills set the bar too low for students to succeed in mainstream classrooms. This might become a self-fulfilling prophecy which manifested itself in students' lower achievement rates followed by drop-outs or guidance to vocational training. Moreover, this might be connected to the inclination of certain school staff members to employ pity as a moral foundation for setting low expectations in terms of student learning (Gay, 2000; Gay & Howard, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1995; McGee Banks & Banks, 1995). As corroborated by the quantitative findings in this study, the formal learning environment did not influence the destination language proficiency as students already acquired basic interpersonal language proficiency through the immediate family environment and informal exposure to language.

5.4.3. Assessment and Evaluation

The boundaries of assessment and evaluation were delineated by the planning horizon and program design. As the planning horizon did not pursue long-term goals in İstanbul, the program design leaned on ad hoc implementation in all facets of assessment and evaluation processes. In this respect, the main concern raised about the validity and reliability of instruments and processes that should have informed the instructional process by providing data about the target group's entry skills, needs, and strengths. Rather than a holistic assessment that considered students' all language repertoire and prior education background, multiple-choice standardized language tests only captured a fragment of students' language skills in İstanbul. In addition, it became evident that a low-stake test could serve for high-stake aims such as deciding whether to place students in segregated classrooms or not. Furthermore, this process was handled unpredictably without established entry and exit protocols. As a result, none of the parties (i.e., students, parents, or teachers) could be held accountable for their responsibilities.

In contrast to the widespread ambiguity in İstanbul, the entry and exit processes were streamlined in Hamburg. The process was foreseeable and guided. It started with central screening by the education authority to identify students' entry characteristics including literacy and numeracy skills. Then the process was followed by a school-based assessment to determine the appropriate language classroom. Finally, the exit

from the language programs were based on multiple criteria such as desired language level and readiness in other subjects (i.e., English and Maths). The duration of the language support was bounded for one year, but exceptions were available for low-achievers or older students who could not be mainstreamed within the given time. The language programs served with a particular organization for the older students who could not be placed into mainstream classes as their ages and respective grades could not be aligned. The system adapted itself to prepare them for school leaving certificates so that they could have the qualifications necessary for vocational training. Though the organization of teaching activities in Hamburg did also not suggest optimal learning experiences, the established system provided a predictable and adaptive pathway for all stakeholders.

5.5. Disparity Between Macrosystems in İstanbul and Hamburg

The macrosystem indicators including economic resources, integration landscape, and education system pointed out a cascading effect of overarching policies and ideologies on all aspects of language education programs.

The contrasting economic landscapes of İstanbul and Hamburg were fundamental in shaping the receiving contexts. İstanbul presented a context of limited financial resources, whereas Hamburg emerged as a context characterized by ample economic opportunities. In both contexts, newly arrived migrant families are similar to a part of the local society with respect to their socio-economic background. These socio-economically disadvantaged groups are vulnerable to common issues such as poverty, unemployment, or marginalization from the wider community. They need a comprehensive social welfare policy to provide them a safety net. In that regard, Germany proves to be a welfare state with high resource allocation to child-care, social housing facilities, employment opportunities, and access to free healthcare and education services. Furthermore, Hamburg is often listed as the wealthiest state in Germany, with the highest gross domestic product (GDP) per capita. Turkey is also considered as a welfare state with access to healthcare and education services. Compared to Germany, the resources are limited, further deteriorating in recent years because of macro-financial instability.

Regarding the community characteristics of the peripheral districts in İstanbul, which also house the majority of Syrian refugees, these areas are marked with poverty and lack of opportunities. The abundance of economic resources or their scarcity defines the trajectory of education services. The study found notable differences in school infrastructure and teacher workforce between İstanbul and Hamburg. Hamburg public schools had more resources, resulting in more spacious and child-friendly environments, while the schools in İstanbul operated with limited resources, leading to crowded classrooms and neglected buildings. Additionally, economic resources played a significant role in language education for migrant students in İstanbul, which was arranged as part of externally funded education projects for Syrian students.

With respect to the integration landscape, the large influx of Syrian refugees starting in 2011 presented a new and pressing issue in Turkey that required resolution – the integration of a transnational group. After the long-standing war in Syria negated assumptions about the return of Syrian refugees, the Law on Foreigners and International Protection was introduced in 2013. Apart from clarifying distinct international protection statuses, the new legal framework identified the educational and employment rights of the Syrian people. However, as Turkey only grants refugee status to the displaced persons from European countries by maintaining the geographic limitation, the Syrian people only receive temporary protection status. Regarding their access to social services, they are not disadvantaged, but the *temporariness* characterizes ideologies, policies, and practices toward them (Baban et al., 2016). Given the Syrian population and the worsening economic conditions in Turkey, their presence has been a contested issue. Consequently, the policymakers have been so far deterred from proposing a long-term pathway for their integration. Thus, the integration landscape evolves through ad hoc decisions by improvisation without a systematic framework. The decisions are made in response to immediate circumstances with a lack of structure and foresight.

The integration landscape in Germany, described in this study as a work-in-progress, portrayed a very similar picture until the late acknowledgement of Germany as a country of immigration in 2005 (Bundesregierung, 2007). Efforts at the policy level to promote diversity within the society exist although their reflection on the actual

practices are observed with delay. To name a few integration efforts, the path to permanent residency and citizenship is well-defined; that is to say, both the state and the beneficiaries know their responsibilities and rights. To facilitate this process and compete with the traditional immigration countries to attract high-skilled workers, the German government has started a series of new regulations in 2022, which eases immigration and integration processes. Regarding the reflection of the integration landscape on the education services, this study showed that that migration is not viewed as an exclusive case but a reality the schools should be responsive about.

Regardless of the disparities across regions and different groups in Turkey, a one-size-fits-all approach characterizes the working mechanisms of the education system. This top-down policymaking influences all issues including the allocation of resources, teacher assignments, and instructional processes. While the strict centralized system oversees all critical decisions, it does not bring about accountability to implementations. The decentralized education system in Germany delegates responsibility to the federal states, which, in turn, further distributes the education responsibilities within the states and schools. For instance, every federal state plans and operates its own schooling system. To diminish the effect of tracked education structure, Hamburg offers two types of schools after the primary level contrary to the three-tier system in the other states. With respect to the organization of language learning, the states may employ different language support models for destination language learning, and schools are granted autonomy to organize language support based on their own needs and resources as long as they adhere to the suggested framework.

In both contexts, the blueprint of the society and, in particular, the education systems are characterized by a monolingual habitus (Gogolin, 1997, 2008). However, the multilingual reality has gradually been embraced in Germany at the policy level as a result of acknowledgment of being an immigration country. The tendency is evident for Hamburg to consider language-as-resource orientation (Ruíz, 1984) that advocates the need for fluent multilinguals to enhance business and international cooperation. In the Hamburg context, diversity and multilingualism are also not exceptional cases but a norm with 38% of the population with a migration background (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2023b), which is amplified in school-age

children to 53% (IFBQ, 2023, p. 13). In this regard, the contemporary milieu in Hamburg is evolving towards a super-diverse society (Vertovec, 2007). On the other hand, monolingualism is still a defining characteristic of Turkish society and the education system despite the emerging multilingual reality. The dominant status of the Turkish language still serves as a crucial indicator of social and political status, which tends to adopt the language-as-problem orientation that results in remedial policies to move students from their first languages into the dominant language (Ruíz, 1984).

In conclusion, both education systems prioritize the monolingual orientation, in which the implications extend beyond the language of instruction. The decentralized education system in Hamburg offers more avenues by giving a high-level of agency to schools to address diversity and stretch the limits of monolingual orientation. As a result, the schools are likely to exhibit more adaptable characteristics. The centralized education system in Turkey with a defined chain of command structure is more prone to have a reductionist perspective that assumes homogeneity as the norm. Despite distinctive characteristics and efforts, the education systems in both contexts nevertheless lag in addressing newly arrived migrant students' super-diverse characteristics.

5.6. Implications for Educational Curricular Policy

This study demonstrates the constituents of destination language education for newly arrived migrant students in two magnet monolingual destination countries for economic migrants and forcibly displaced people. Turkey and Germany differ in several aspects, but the organization of destination language education presents a common challenge that mainly stems from the gap between the needs of super-diverse learners and the boundaries of monolingual educational systems.

Determining the most efficient language support design is a contested issue. It necessitates considering several issues surrounding the organization of destination language learning. Yet some fundamental principles should take precedence while planning language support in any kind of design, be it segregated, partly integrative or integrative programs. First, policies should *invest in efficient and systematic models of language support for all students*. Limited proficiency in the language of

instruction is not exclusive to newly arrived migrant students; it also affects second-generation immigrant and nonimmigrant students. Thus, it is imperative to adopt a comprehensive approach that institutionalizes enduring language support programs and integrate them into the fundamental framework of schools.

Second, language program design should *consider learners' strengths and invest in socio-emotional skills* rather than adopting a deficit point of view that associates disruptive outcomes such as trauma, disruption, and poverty with students' core characteristics. As confirmed in this study, first language proficiency is an essential asset in learning the destination language due to its transfer effect of metalinguistic skills across languages. Drawing on this evidence that has also been proved consistently in earlier studies (e.g., Cummins, 1979, 2000; Edele et al., 2023; Genesee et al., 2006; Stanat & Edele, 2016), the program design is suggested to promote using students' first languages in enhancing second language learning. In cases like İstanbul, where the majority of migrant students in a particular setting share the same first language, mother-tongue based destination language education programs can lead to more effective outcomes. However, in linguistically diverse settings like Hamburg, a practical challenge arises concerning which first language to base the program on. Moreover, in official monolingual settings where the language of instruction is legally restricted to a national language, it is not feasible to propose a program that primarily operates in another language. In such settings, complementary first language courses may serve as a viable alternative to mother-tongue-based destination language programs.

Third, *fostering interaction with high proficient (non)immigrant students within an inclusive environment* is essential to provide regular exposure to the destination language. This interaction allows students to immerse themselves in real-life language situations and enrich their language learning experiences. As evidenced in this study, segregated language programs may yield counter-productive outcomes due to decreased exposure to the destination language and potential social exclusion from peers. In an inclusive setting, students of varying language proficiency levels can engage in meaningful conversations and collaborative activities. This dynamic environment creates opportunities for language learners to practice their language

skills, receive constructive feedback, and gain confidence in using the destination language in authentic contexts.

Fourth, the language curriculum should *have a structured and coherent approach*. A binding framework that provides guidelines and standards for curriculum development can help ensure consistency, coherence, and quality across language courses. This framework does not necessarily conflict with autonomous curriculum development; it might, on the contrary, facilitate a fair and seamless transition for students between different classrooms and schools. In this respect, the investigation by Stanat and Christensen (2007), which sought a synthesis on what works for immigrant students, also pointed out explicit curriculum design in language support programs as one of the generative measures that support immigrant students' language learning in countries where there exist small achievement gaps between immigrant and nonimmigrant students. As they further added, the explicit language curriculum should involve guiding principles, standards, and benchmarks. In addition, the language curriculum should have a dynamic framework that promptly adjusts the instruction landscape to emerging circumstances such as irregular inclusion times of students or budget constraints by modifying, expanding, or terminating the structure.

Fifth, curriculum content should be structured to *realize a swift shift from daily language skills to academic language registers*. Given the challenge of gaining proficiency in academic language for immigrant students, which is assumed to take approximately five to eight years (Cummins, 1981, 2000; Hakuta et al., 2000; Thomas & Collier, 1997), accelerating this process has utmost importance for students' education career. In essence, this necessitates raising the learning bar and planning curriculum outcomes accordingly.

Sixth, language classrooms should *employ cooperative and collaborative instructional strategies* in conjunction with multi-level classroom characteristics that stem from super-diversity of the newly arrived migrant students, which are characterized in this study with differences in their migration background, varying levels of proficiencies in first and destination languages, prior schooling, and social network composition. To deliver instruction that addresses the needs of every

individual student, curriculum development is an ongoing process that promptly informs decision-making by assessing the inherent characteristics of the target group at short intervals.

Seventh, *teachers who work with second-language learners should have a great sense of agency* due to the dynamic nature of the instructional landscape. They should act as a curriculum development specialist to identify learner needs, adapt outcomes, customize materials, and guide students' transition across programs. To account for the heightened responsibility, the professional background of language teachers needs to be supported. The study emphasizes pivotal role of pre-service education and in-service teacher training to empower teachers with necessary knowledge and skills in areas including culturally responsive instruction and state-of-the-art strategies to support language acquisition and proficiency development. In this regard, effective teacher training should not only cover knowledge of direct language assistance but also strategies for providing implicit language support effectively within regular classroom settings (Christensen & Stanat, 2007).

Eight, language support should *incorporate structured family-school partnership*, particularly catering to families with low proficiency and limited resources. As this study revealed that family destination language proficiency is a significant predictor of students' language learning, investment to promote family language proficiency is likely to yield significant returns. This can be achieved by offering language support programs for families within the same schools that their children attend. Encouraging parents to actively participate in language programs may also foster a stronger sense of connection and engagement. Schools can ensure parents do not feel excluded or discouraged from engaging with educational institutions. Through these programs, they can gain a deeper understanding of the schooling system and familiarize themselves with school expectations. To illustrate, a study in Turkey proved that that prolonged mathematics workshops uniting teachers and refugee families led to a shift in teachers' existing biases (Karsli-Calamak et al., 2020). Through ongoing participation in multilingual family spaces, teachers reevaluated their perceptions of refugee families. These results underscored two key points: the importance of establishing inclusive spaces for meaningful interaction between teachers and diverse families, and teachers' readiness to engage in such opportunities to recognize diverse

forms of family capital beyond basic means and aspirations. Such structured practices allow for more effective collaboration between parents, teachers, and school communities as a whole. To further support family involvement, schools with high numbers of immigrant students can benefit from the inclusion of cultural mediators, who have migration backgrounds and knowledge of students' first languages, to contribute to language and culture-related topics including teacher-parent communication and culture-sensitive issues.

Ninth, *adopting and promoting a rights-based perspective* at the policy and societal level is crucial to mitigate conflict, develop sustainable solutions, and embrace increasing diversity in schools. Predictable paths should be offered to ensure mutual inclusion practices that delegate responsibility to both migrants themselves and stakeholders of receiving countries. The schools as microsystems can offer valuable avenues to promote mutual understanding; this perspective may eventually result in an incremental shift from language-as-problem to language-as-resource perspective (Ruíz, 1984) that may multiply opportunities to deliver more effective language support.

Finally, *implementing affirmative action for more equitable resource allocation* becomes imperative to establish inclusive and sustainable language support programs in under-resourced areas for all groups of students. Notably, economic resources play a crucial role in determining language provisions, especially in contexts like Turkey, where external funding constitutes major resources to support refugee students. Addressing disparities in infrastructure and resource allocation among schools become a pivotal measure in ensuring the long-term effectiveness of language programs.

5.7. Implications for Further Research

This study focused on the organization of destination language support for newly arrived migrant students and contextual determinants of language proficiency in İstanbul and Hamburg. Drawing on Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1976; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006), the study employed multiple case study design in the qualitative phases and sought the relationship between contextual variables and language proficiency via associational design in the

quantitative phases. The nested structure of the ecological theory and comparative research design allowed to scrutinize language learning by revealing the interconnected relationship among different levels of the language learning environment. It is evident that the interviews and classroom observations in this study provided valuable insights. However, it is important to acknowledge that these methods could only capture a segment of the experiences and interactions within the studied contexts. Therefore, there is a compelling need for future research to consider employing ethnographic research methods to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon comparatively (see e.g. Plöger, 2023 for a single-country ethnographic study). Conducting cross-cultural ethnographic research presents challenges, predominantly financial constraints, but they can uncover unique perspectives and social dynamics, which lead to the identification of additional variables for future quantitative studies.

The present study used cross-sectional data to understand the relationship between contextual variables and language proficiency. To observe students' transition from language programs to mainstream classrooms, longitudinal quantitative studies can track students' language development and academic progress of students over an extended period. By collecting data at multiple time points, changes can be explored in students' language proficiency, cognitive skills, and social outcomes. This approach can enable a comprehensive understanding of factors that contribute to successful language acquisition and integration by connecting contextual and cognitive variables. Moreover, longitudinal studies provide insights into the long-term trajectories of language learners, including their language maintenance, bilingualism, and academic trajectories beyond the initial language programs. This knowledge assists policymakers, educators, and program designers in making informed decisions about language program implementation and support structures that facilitate a smooth transition for students into mainstream classrooms.

One of the pressing issues evidenced in this study for newly arrived migrant students is to arrange a language curriculum to equip students with academic language proficiency. Earlier studies have pointed out that achieving this objective may require an extended period (Cummins, 1981, 2000; Hakuta et al., 2000; Thomas & Collier, 1997). However, regarding the evolving instructional landscape, emerging

learning tools, and changes in students' demographics, it is recommended to revisit this matter through cross-cultural replication studies. By doing so, it can be revealed whether the previous quantitative evidence remains valid and, if positive, holds true for specific groups. In addition, to gain a deeper understanding of the conditions and strategies that actually facilitate academic language proficiency, intervention studies are crucial. These studies would allow researchers and educators to implement targeted interventions and observe their effects on language development in newly arrived migrant students.

Teacher agency refers to the capacity that empowers educators to deliberately and responsibly manage learning, both at the individual and community levels (Pyhältö et al., 2011, 2012). This attribute is pivotal in enhancing student learning outcomes and fostering professional development among teachers (Toom et al., 2015). Essentially, teacher agency involves the ability to transcend context-bound rules and act in alignment with their own objectives (Oolbakkink-Marchand et al., 2017). However, teacher agency in specific groups, particularly for refugee education (e.g., Rose, 2019), is a complex issue contingent heavily on the interaction of internal and external conditions within school contexts; teachers' ability may be more limited to create lasting changes. In contexts where teachers do not view themselves as change agents or downplay their responsibility in educating newly arrived migrant students (e.g., Bağcı, 2021), understanding the relationship between learning outcomes and teacher-led actions becomes increasingly significant. Given the heightened responsibility of language teachers, as demonstrated in this study, future research should explore the relationship between teacher agency and language learning of newly arrived migrant students.

Adopting an asset-based perspective in the education of newcomer students necessitates a deliberate focus on their cultural assets. Substantial evidence highlights the profound impact of culture on learning, with research indicating that academic success is enhanced when students find their cultural identity represented in their school environment, classroom activities, and curriculum (Gay, 2000). In this respect, more evidence is needed on the strengths of migrant students that facilitate their language learning and inclusion processes. Therefore, embracing an asset-based approach in research is suggested to identify and value the existing knowledge,

skills, and cultural assets that learners bring with them to the educational settings (e.g., Erdemir, 2022; Karlı-Çalamak & Erdemir, 2019).

Similar to the majority of the literature in the field, this study positions newly arrived migrant students as recipients of knowledge. However, participatory research, as defined by MacDonald (2012), challenges this perspective by involving participants in all stages of research, including design, implementation, and dissemination of findings. This approach seeks to amplify the voices of vulnerable, exploited, or marginalized groups (Hall, 1992) and advocates for the expression of viewpoints from individuals who face dominance or subordination based on factors such as gender, race, ethnicity, or other structures of subordination. The ultimate aim is to contribute to the processes of power shift and democratization across various contexts. Further studies should employ participatory research methods that involve students as knowledge creators (e.g., Gunella & Rodrigo, 2022) to empower them and provide insights from their own perspectives.

5.8. Beyond the Data: A Personal Journey Through the Findings

We should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than things inside the schools, and govern and interpret things inside. We cannot wander at pleasure among the educational systems of the world, like a child strolling through a garden, and pick off a flower from one bush and some leaves from another, and then expect that if we stick what we have gathered into the soil at home, we shall have living plant. (Sadler, 1900; reprinted in Bereday, 1964, p. 310)

No issue exists in isolation from the complex interplay of individual perspectives, cognitive frameworks, and unique ways of perceiving the world. In this reflexive part, I delve into my personal reflections on the research findings.

More than a century has elapsed since Sadler emphasized the significant impact of external factors on schools and cautioned against patchwork solutions, yet school systems remain vulnerable to emerging issues and disruptive policies. The significant influx of Syrian refugees has emerged in Turkey as one of the most debated issues over the past decade, which sparks discussions across various domains. Beyond high-level discussions, Syrian refugees are integral part of daily lives and a hard-hitting reality for many. As is often the case with contentious and emerging matters, Germany serves as the reference country for Turkish people when they seek parallels

or try to understand how similar circumstances unfold in other contexts. This curiosity was one of the primary motivations behind this study. As I cast my gaze backward on the overall findings, it becomes apparent that some issues will persist and are not likely to find resolutions in the foreseeable future.

Hosting a large number of refugees within a short timeframe presents significant challenges that no country can effectively manage without encountering problems. The volume and diverse background of refugees shape and restrict potential interventions. Turkey, in particular, faced the daunting task of integrating a transnational group into its society – a task for which it had no prior experience that leads to additional complexities.

Amidst this situation, refugees have often been instrumentalized and, in some cases, used as diplomatic bargaining tools which can be considered as a consequence of Western countries' avoidant behavior in sharing responsibilities. Such practices have further compounded the issues surrounding refugee integration. The macro indicators, which are characterized by financial crises and political turmoil, have contributed to the emergence of anti-refugee sentiments.

Within this context, formulating and implementing long-term effective policies that yield generative outcomes for immigrant students become a seemingly insurmountable challenge. For instance, even if policymakers would intend to establish permanent language programs that facilitate the inclusion of refugee students into school, it would probably face resistance. The hesitance to explicitly promote and implement such programs arises from the fear that it might convey a message to Turkish society suggesting that refugees permanently reside in Turkey, while the majority of society still anticipates their return to the countries of origin. Despite the challenges, I believe that policymakers possess a knowledge base and evidence about what works best, but they lack agency to implement the best practices successfully. The interplay of complex factors, such as political pressure, domestic expectations, and societal attitudes, create a delicate balance that may hamper the effective policies.

Germany, despite not being a neighboring country to common conflict zones or refugee sending origin contexts, must be acknowledged for hosting a substantial number of refugees. Throughout my research, a prevailing assumption has been that Germany tends to receive more qualified refugees compared to Turkey. It is a well-known fact that Germany attempts to attract high-skilled workers but being selective regarding refugees is not a plausible claim because the selection process for refugees resettling in a third country, such as Germany, is primarily managed by UNHCR, which does not base its decisions on the skill sets of refugees or the preferences of receiving countries. Instead, the selection is guided by overarching principles that consider unique circumstances of each refugee. Moreover, many refugees make their way to Germany through irregular routes by facing perilous journeys. As a result, their aspirations and experiences may differ from those in Turkey.

Despite the favorable conditions that Germany may offer to newly arrived migrant students, it is important to acknowledge that they might still face challenges and remain at the bottom of the social hierarchy. Integration is a multifaceted process that involves not only economic factors but also social and cultural aspects. The abundance of resources in Germany does not automatically ensure a smooth and seamless integration for all group of migrants.

Language plays a pivotal role in the successful inclusion of students into national education systems. In Turkey's case, even before the arrival of Syrian refugees, the country grappled with deep-rooted issues concerning the language rights of Kurdish-background citizens. Had necessary steps been taken to address these language challenges and expand the monolingual horizon of the education systems to support minority languages, Turkey would have been better equipped to manage the mass transition of Syrian refugee students into mainstream classes. By recognizing and accommodating minority languages within the education system, Turkey could have developed a knowledge base and valuable experience in providing language support. This would have included a well-trained and experienced teacher workforce capable of teaching in multiple languages, appropriate educational materials, and, most importantly, an established language program model tailored to the unique circumstances of the country. Having such a language support infrastructure in place would have facilitated a smoother integration process for Syrian refugee students,

This approach would have ensured that these students could effectively participate in mainstream classes and access the curriculum without facing significant language barriers.

Understanding the perspective of nonimmigrants is indeed crucial in the context of hosting millions of refugees. Nonimmigrants in Turkey face their own set of challenges, such as rising costs of living, unemployment, environmental concerns, and societal shifts. It is essential to recognize that these issues can create a sense of uncertainty and unease among the nonimmigrant population, making it unfair and unrealistic to expect consistent sympathy towards the influx of refugees. While some discriminative practices may be observed towards refugees, particularly in educational settings, it is important to distinguish these actions from xenophobia or racism. I think attributing such labels oversimplifies the complex issues surrounding migration management and broader societal challenges. In many cases, discriminatory practices may stem from mismanagement of migration rather than an inherent ideology towards migrants. The overwhelming scale of the refugee crisis can strain resources and create a sense of insecurity among the nonimmigrant population. Mismanagement, inadequate policies, and lack of support can exacerbate tensions and contribute to discriminatory attitudes and actions.

To conclude, I am hopeful that newly arrived migrant students navigate their own path and fulfill their potential. They shall either find a way or, I truly believe, make one.

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APPENDICES

A. INTERVIEW SCHEDULES AND OBSERVATION PROTOCOLS

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Amaç: Zorunlu göç etmiş gruplar ve göçmenlerle çalışan kurum yetkililerinin, akademisyenlerin, sivil toplum kuruluşu temsilcilerinin dil destek programları ve öğrencilerin dil gelişimini etkileyen faktörler hakkındaki görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmak.

Demografik Bilgiler

Cinsiyet: Kadın Erkek

Yaş:

Çalıştığı kurum ve pozisyonu::.....

Uzmanlık alanı: Bu alandaki deneyim süresi:

1. Zorunlu göç etmiş öğrencilerin temel özellikleri nelerdir?

a. Düzenli göç eden öğrencilerle karşılaştırmısınız?

2. Zorunlu göç etmiş öğrencilerin öncelikli dil ihtiyaçlarının neler olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?

a. Bu ihtiyaçlar sizce nasıl karşılanabilir?

3. Ülkemizde dil öğretim süreci nasıl planlanıyor?

a. Uygulanan dil eğitim programları hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

b. Uygulanan programların güçlü yanları nelerdir?

c. Geliştirmek için neler yapılabilir?

4. Öğrencilerin özellikleri dil öğrenim süreçlerini nasıl etkilemektedir?

a. Öğrenciler dil becerilerindeki eksikliklerden dolayı ne tür sorunlar yaşıyorlar?

b. Bu sorunları aşmak için neler yapılıyor?

5. Okul dışında öğrencilerin dil gelişimlerini sürdürebilmeleri için ne tür olanaklar sağlanmalıdır?

- a. Ek olarak, ne tür destek mekanizmalarının dil gelişimlerine daha fazla katkıda bulunacağını düşünüyorsunuz?

6. Dil öğrenim sürecinde ailelerin rolü hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

- a. Aileler dil öğrenim sürecine nasıl dahil olabilirler?
- b. Neler engel oluşturmaktadır?

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IN İSTANBUL

Amaç: Dil programlarını geliştirmekten/uygulamaktan sorumlu koordinatörlerin ve okul yöneticilerinin eğitim programı ve öğrencilerin dil gelişimlerini etkileyen faktörler hakkındaki görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmak.

Demografik Bilgiler

Cinsiyet: Kadın Erkek

Yaş: Deneyim süresi:

Mezun olunan lisans programı:

Görev yapılan pozisyon veya okul: Öğrenci sayısı:

Bulunduğu pozisyondaki görev süresi:

1. Okulunuzun genel profilinden söz eder misiniz?

- a. Öğretmenleriniz kimler?
- b. Öğrencileriniz kimler?

2. Okulunuzdaki farklı sosyal gruplardan öğrencilerin olması eğitim süreçlerini nasıl etkiliyor?

- a. Dil öğrenim süreçlerini nasıl etkilemektedir?
- b. Öğretmenler derslerindeki yaşantılar açısından size hangi ihtiyaçlarını dile getirmektedirler?

3. Öğrencilerin öncelikli dil ihtiyaçlarının neler olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?

- a. Öğrenciler dil becerilerindeki eksikliklerden dolayı ne tür sorunlar yaşıyorlar?
- b. Bu sorunları aşmak için neler yapılıyor?
- c. Dil öğretim süreci nasıl planlanıyor?
 - i. Uygulanan eğitim programları öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarını ne ölçüde karşılamaktadır?
 - ii. Bu süreç hakkındaki görüşleriniz nelerdir?
 - iii. Programın güçlü yanları nelerdir? Geliştirmek için neler yapılabilir?

4. Okul dışında öğrencilerin dil gelişimlerini sürdürebilmeleri için ne tür olanaklar sağlanmaktadır?

- a. Ek olarak, ne tür destek mekanizmalarının dil gelişimlerine daha fazla katkıda bulunacağını düşünüyorsunuz?

5. Bu süreçte yöneticilerin rolü hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

- a. Ne tür desteklere ihtiyaç duyuyorsunuz?

6. Öğrencilerin dil gelişimini desteklemek için sizce neler yapılabilir?

TEACHER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IN İSTANBUL

Amaç: Öğretmenlerin dil eğitim programı, öğretim süreçleri ve öğrencilerin dil gelişimini etkileyen faktörler hakkındaki görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmak.

Demografik Bilgiler

Cinsiyet: Kadın Erkek

Yaş: Deneyim süresi:

Mezun olunan lisans programı:

Bulunduğu okuldaki görev süresi:

Kadrolu: İzlemeli: Diğer:

1. Öğrencilerinizin kimler?

- Hangi okullardan geliyorlar?
- Dil düzeyleri nedir?
- Ekonomik durumları nedir?
- Devamlılık durumları nedir?

2. Bu özellikler dil öğrenim süreçlerini nasıl etkilemektedir? Lütfen örnek vererek açıkla mısınız?

3. Derslerinizi nasıl planlıyorsunuz? Tipik bir dersinizden bahsedebilir misiniz?

4. Dil öğretirken hangi becerilere öncelikle odaklanıyorsunuz? (okuma, yazma, konuşma, dinleme)

- Öncelikli dil ihtiyaçlarının neler olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?

5. Dersleriniz içerikleri/konuları öğrencilerin gündelik yaşantılarıyla ne kadar ilişkilendiriliyor?

- Ne tür etkinlikler yapıyorsunuz? Öğrenciler bu etkinliklere nasıl katılım gösteriyor?
- Öğrencileriniz ders esnasında kendi sosyal yaşantılarından nasıl örnekler verirler? Dil eğitimi süreçlerinde siz öğrencilerin kendi sosyal yaşantılarından derslerinizde nasıl yararlanıyorsunuz?

6. Burada öğrendiklerinin düzenli devam gittikleri okuldaki öğretim süreçlerine ne kadar katkısı oluyor?

- Akademik dil becerileri açısından:
- Yaşam becerileri açısından:

7. Derslerinizde hangi kaynakları kullanıyorsunuz?

- a. Bu kaynakları dersin amaçları ve öğrencilerinizin ihtiyaçlarına göre nasıl uyarlıyorsunuz?
 - i. Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın sağladığı kaynaklar:
 - ii. Kendim hazırlıyorum:
 - iii. Diğer:

8. Öğrencilerin öğrenmelerini nasıl ölçüyorsunuz?

- a. Sınavların yapısı ve içerikleri konusunda bilgi verir misiniz?
Yazılı/sözlü?
- b. Dört beceriyi ölçmeye dönük ne tür uygulamalarınız var?
- c. Ne tür ödevler veriyorsunuz? (Dört beceriyle ilgili)

9. Uyguladığınız dil eğitim programını nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz?

- a. Güçlü gördüğünüz yanları nelerdir?
- b. Geliştirilmesi gerektiğini düşündüğünüz yönlerinden bahseder misiniz?

10. Okulunuzda, okul dışı/öğretim programı dışı etkinlikler kapsamında öğrencilerin dil gelişimlerini sürdürebilmeleri için ne tür ek olanaklar sağlanmaktadır? Bunlardan bahseder misiniz?

- a. Ek olarak başka ne tür destek mekanizmalarının olması gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?

11. Türkçe öğretmeye başlamadan önce siz bu sürece nasıl hazırlandınız?

- a. Farklı sosyal gruplardan öğrencilere dil öğretirken nelere dikkat edilmelidir?
- b. Dil öğretirken hangi yönlerinizin bu süreci kolaylaştırdığını düşünüyorsunuz?
- c. Bu süreçte yaşadığınız zorluklar var mı?
- d. Bunları aşmak için ne tür desteklere ihtiyaç duyuyorsunuz?

12. Veliler öğrencilerinin dil eğitimi hakkında sizce ne düşünüyor?

- a. Ailelerden kimler okullara gelir?
- b. Aileler dil öğrenim sürecine nasıl dahil oluyorlar?
- c. İş birliği yapıyor musunuz?

13. Yukarıda bahsetmediğimiz ve sizin önemli gördüğünüz hususlar varsa açıklar mısınız lütfen?

TEACHER INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IN HAMBURG

Zweck: die Sichtweisen der Lehrkräfte zu den Themen Sprachlehrprogramme, Lernprozesse und Faktoren, die die Sprachentwicklung beeinflussen, durchleuchten.

Demografische Angaben zur Lehrkraft

Geschlecht: weiblich männlich divers

Alter: Lehrkraft seit:

Was hat die Lehrkraft studiert, welcher Abschluss wurde erlangt?

In der betreffenden Schule tätig seit:

Festangestellte/-r: Angestellte/-r: Sonstiges:

1. Wer sind Ihre Schüler?

- a. Kommen sie aus verschiedenen Schule?
- b. Was ist ihr Sprachniveau?
- c. Aus welchen finanziellen Verhältnissen kommen sie?
- d. Kommen sie regelmäßig zum Unterricht?

2. Wie beeinflussen diese Merkmale die Sprachlernprozesse? Könnten Sie das bitte anhand von Beispielen erläutern?

3. Wie planen Sie Ihren Unterricht? Erzählen Sie uns bitte von einem typischen Unterrichtsblauf.

4. Auf welche Teilfertigkeiten legen Sie besonders Wert beim Sprachenlehren? (Lesen, Schreiben, Sprechen, Hören)

- a. Welche Sprachkenntnisse sind Ihrer Meinung nach besonders wichtig?

5. Inwieweit beziehen sich die Inhalte und Themen Ihres Unterrichts auf das alltägliche Leben Ihrer Schüler?

- a. Welche Aktivitäten bauen Sie ein? Wie beteiligen sich die Schüler daran?
- b. Welche Beispiele aus ihre Kulturelle Erfahrung nennen die Schüler im Unterricht?
- c. Wie nutzen Sie in Ihren Sprachlehrprozessen Elemente aus dem sozialen Leben der Schüler?

6. Inwieweit kann das, was die Schüler bei Ihnen lernen einen positiven Einfluss auf ihre Sprachlernprozesse in der weiteren, Regelklasse haben?

- a. Im Hinblick auf ihre bildungssprachlichen Fähigkeiten:

b. Im Hinblick auf allgemeine Fähigkeiten:

7. Welche Quellen/Materialien nutzen Sie in Ihrem Unterricht?

- a. Wie passen Sie diese Quellen an den Zweck des Unterrichts und die Bedürfnisse der Schüler an?
 - i. Bereitgestellt durch ein Bildungsministerium:
 - ii. Selbst zusammengestelltes Material:
 - iii. Sonstiges:

8. Wie messen Sie die Lernzuwächse der Schüler?

- a. Könnten Sie bitte über den Aufbau und die Inhalte Ihrer Prüfungen berichten? Schriftliche/mündliche Prüfungen?
- b. Welche Anwendungen nutzen Sie, um die vier Teilfertigkeiten (Lesen, Schreiben, Sprechen, Hören) zu prüfen?
- c. Welche Hausaufgaben geben Sie auf (in Bezug auf die vier Teilfertigkeiten)?

9. Wie bewerten Sie das Sprachlehrprogramm, das Sie anwenden?

- a. Was sind die Stärken?
- b. Nennen Sie uns bitte die Ihrer Meinung nach verbesserungswürdigen Aspekte.

10. Welche außerschulischen Gelegenheiten zusätzlich zum Unterricht zur Fortführung der Sprachentwicklung bietet Ihre Schule an? Erzählen Sie uns bitte davon.

- a. Welche zusätzlichen Unterstützungsmechanismen würden Sie als nötig erachten?

11. Wie konnten Sie sich auf die (neue) Aufgabe des Deutschlehrens vorbereiten?

- a. Was muss man beachten, wenn man Schülern aus verschiedenen sozialen Gruppen eine Sprache beibringt?
- b. Welche Ihrer Eigenschaften haben diesen Prozess vereinfacht?
- c. Gab es auch schwierige Momente in dieser Zeit?
- d. Welche Unterstützung benötigt man, um Schwierigkeiten/Hindernisse zu überwinden?

12. Was denken Ihrer Meinung nach die Eltern über die Sprachbildung ihres Kindes?

- a. Welche Familienmitglieder kommen zu den Schulen?

b. Wie beteiligen sich die Familien am Sprachlernprozess?

c. Kooperieren Sie mit den Familien?

13. Gibt es Punkte, die wir nicht angesprochen haben und die Sie für wichtig erachten?

PARENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IN İSTANBUL

Amaç: Ebeveynlerin çocuklarının dil eğitimi hakkındaki görüşleri hakkında bilgi edinmek ve ev ortamındaki dil gelişimini etkileyen faktörleri ortaya çıkarmak.

Demografik bilgiler

Ebeveyn: Anne Baba Diğer:

Yaş: Eğitim durumu: Ailenin toplam aylık geliri:

Çalışma durumu: Çalışıyor Çalışmıyor İş arıyor Meslek:

Sahip olunan çocuk sayısı:

Okula kayıtlı çocuk sayısı: Okul öncesi..., İlkokul...,

Ortaokul..., Lise..., Üniversite

Dil eğitimine devam eden çocuk sayısı:

Maddi destekler: Şartlı Nakit Yardımı Diğer

Herhangi bir Türkçe eğitim programına katıldınız mı?

1. Ne zamandır Türkiye’desiniz? Ne zamandır bu bölgedesiniz?

- Çocuğunuzun eğitim alma süreci nerede ve nasıl başladı? Bu süreçte Türkçe öğrenmeye yaklaşık ne kadar süre önce başladı?

2. Kendi Türkçe öğrenme sürecinizden kısaca bahseder misiniz?

- Türkçe olarak kendinizi ne kadar ifade edebiliyorsunuz?
 - Ortam: alışveriş yaparken, banka/posta işlemleri vb.

3. Mahallenizdeki komşularınız çoğunlukla nereliler?

- Mesela Türk komşularınız var mı?
- Komşularınızla iletişim kurarken hangi dili kullanıyorsunuz?

4. Çocuğunuzun Türkçe öğrenme sürecinde sizin tutumunuz nedir? Nasıl destekliyorsunuz?

- Evde çocuğunuzun Türkçe öğrenimini desteklemek için neler yapıyorsunuz?
- Mesela Türkçe kitap, dergi, gazete veya televizyon kanallarını takip etme gibi olanaklardan ne ölçüde yararlanıyorsunuz?

5. Çocuğunuzun dil öğrenmesi sizin için neden önemli?

- Çocuğunuz dil eğitiminden ne derece fayda sağlıyor?
- Türkçe dil becerilerinde ne tür gelişmeler gözlemlediniz?

- c. Başka neler bekliyorsunuz?
- 6. **Onunla iletişim kurarken hangi dili kullanıyorsunuz?**
 - a. Çocuklarınız birbiriyle iletişim kurarken hangi dili kullanıyorlar?
- 7. **Çocuğunuzun evdeki ders çalışma ortamından bahseder misiniz?**
- 8. **Çocuğunuzun eğitim hayatıyla ilgili ne planlarınız var?**
 - a. Mesela bundan 10 yıl sonra çocuğünü nerede görüyorsunuz?

PARENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IN HAMBURG

Zweck:

- Die Meinung der Eltern zur Sprachbildung ihrer Kinder erfahren
- Faktoren im häuslichen Umfeld, die die Sprachentwicklung beeinflussen, ermitteln.

Demografische Angaben zu den Eltern

Eltern: Mutter Vater andere/-r Erziehungsberechtigte/-r:

Alter: Bildungsstand:

Arbeitsstatus: berufstätig nicht berufstätig arbeitssuchend Beruf:

Anzahl der Kinder:

Anzahl der Kinder in Betreuung/Ausbildung: KiTA/Vorschule..., Grundschule
....., Sekundarstufe I, Sekundarstufe II, Universität

Anzahl der Kinder, die Sprachbildung erhalten:

Finanzielle Unterstützung: Bildungspaket, Sonstiges

Haben Sie an irgendeinem Deutschkurs teilgenommen?

1. Seit wann sind Sie in Deutschland? Seit wann sind Sie in dieser Region Deutschlands?

- a. Wo und wie hat der Bildungsprozess Ihres Kindes begonnen? Wann in diesem Prozess hat Ihr Kind angefangen Deutsch zu lernen?

2. Könnten Sie bitte von Ihrem eigenen Deutschlernprozess berichten?

- a. Wie gut können Sie sich auf Deutsch ausdrücken?
 - i. Kontext: beim Einkaufen, Angelegenheiten bei der Bank/Post etc.

3. Woher stammen die meisten Kinder in Ihrer Nachbarschaft?

- a. Haben Sie beispielsweise deutsche Nachbarn?
- b. Welche Sprachen sprechen Sie beim Kommunizieren mit den Nachbarn?

4. Wie stehen Sie zum Deutschlernprozess Ihres Kindes? Wie unterstützen Sie Ihr Kind?

- a. Was machen Sie, um das Deutschlernen Ihres Kindes zu Hause zu unterstützen?
- b. Inwieweit nutzen Sie beispielsweise deutsche Bücher, Zeitschriften, Zeitungen und Fernsehsender?

5. Wie stehen Sie zum Mutterspracherwerb Ihres Kindes?

- a. Was machen Sie, um das Lernen der Muttersprache zu Hause zu unterstützen?
- 6. Warum ist es Ihnen wichtig, dass Ihr Kind Sprachen lernt?**
- a. Wie profitiert Ihr Kind vom Sprachenlernen?
 - b. Welche Fortschritte in den deutschsprachigen Fähigkeiten konnten Sie bei Ihrem Kind beobachten?
 - c. Was erhoffen Sie sich noch davon?
- 7. Welche Sprache sprechen Sie mit Ihrem Kind?**
- a. Welche Sprache sprechen Ihre Kinder untereinander?
- 8. Erzählen Sie bitte vom Lernumfeld Ihres Kindes zu Hause.**
- 9. Welche Vorstellungen haben Sie über den zukünftigen Bildungsweg Ihres Kindes?**
- a. Wo sehen Sie beispielsweise Ihr Kind in 10 Jahren?

STUDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IN ISTANBUL

Amaç: Öğrencilerin dil öğretimiyle ilgili algılarını, deneyimlerini, görüşlerini ve bu süreçleri etkileyen faktörleri ortaya çıkarmak.

Demografik Bilgiler

Cinsiyet: Kız Erkek Dil sınıfı seviyesi:

Yaş: Kardeş sayısı: Kayıtlı olunan sınıf seviyesi:

1. Türkiye'ye ne zaman geldin? Bu okula gelmeden önce hangi okullara gittin? Nerede?

- Ana dilinde okuma yazma biliyor musun?
- Türkiye'ye gelmeden önce Türkçe biliyor muydun? En çok Türkçeyi nerede öğrendin?

2. Çevrende kimlerle en çok vakit geçiyorsun?

- Hangi dili kullanıyorsun?
 - Mesela Türkçe öğrendiğin sınıftaki arkadaşlarınla;
 - Öğretmenlerinle;
 - Hafta içi devam ettiğin sınıftaki arkadaşlarınla;
 - Okul dışında mahalledeki arkadaşlarınla.

3. Evdeki hangi dili konuşursunuz? Anne-babanla hangi dili konuşursun? Kardeşlerinle hangi dili konuşursun?

- Anne-baban, Türkçe konuştuğunda sana ne diyorlar?
- Arapça konuştuğunda ne diyorlar?

4. Türkçe öğrenmek için neler yapıyorsun? Mesela televizyon seyrediyor musun, gazete, kitap vb. okuyor musun?

- Evde nasıl ders çalışıyorsun? Çalışma ortamını biraz anlatır mısın?
- Derslerini kimlerle/nasıl çalışırsın?
- Okul dışında Türkçe öğrenirken kimler sana yardımcı oluyor?

5. Sence hangisi en kolay: konuşma, yazma, okuma ve anlama? Neden öyle hissettiğini biraz anlatır mısın?

- Neden zorlanıyorsun?

6. Sınıfınızda neler yaptığımızda daha mutlu oluyorsun? Örnek verebilir misin lütfen?

- a. Öğretmenin size neler yaptırdığında mutlu oluyorsun?
- i. Akran çalışması: Derste arkadaşlarınızla birbirinize nasıl yardımcı oluyorsunuz?
 - ii. Bireysel çalışma: Kendin çalışmayı mı yoksa arkadaşlarınla çalışmayı mı seviyorsun? Neden öyle düşünüyorsun?

7. Türkçe öğretmenin ders bitince senden hangi ödevleri yapmanı istiyor?

Neler söylüyor?

- a. Okumak için:
- b. Yazmak için:
- c. Konuşmak için:
- d. Dinleme için:

STUDENT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE IN HAMBURG

Zweck:

- Die Empfindungen, Erfahrungen und Meinungen der Schüler zum Thema Sprachunterricht durchleuchten
- Faktoren, die diese Prozesse beeinflussen, herausarbeiten

Demografische Angaben zum Schüler/in

Geschlecht: Mädchen Junge Divers Sprachniveau:

Alter: Anzahl der Geschwister:

1. Wann bist Du nach Deutschland gekommen? Welche Schulen hast Du vor dieser Schule besucht? Wo?

- a. Was ist Deine Muttersprache? Kannst Du in Deiner Muttersprache Lesen und Schreiben?
- b. Konntest Du Deutsch, bevor Du nach Deutschland kamst? Wo hast Du Deutsch gelernt?

2. Mit wem in deinem Umfeld verbringst Du am meisten Zeit?

- a. Welche Sprache sprichst du...?
 - i. beispielsweise mit Deinen Mitschülern;
 - ii. mit Deinen Lehrern;
 - iii. außerhalb der Schule mit Deinen Freunden aus der Nachbarschaft.

3. Welche Sprache spricht Ihr zu Hause? Welche Sprache sprichst Du mit Deiner Mutter/Deinem Vater? Welche Sprache sprichst Du mit Deinen Geschwistern?

- a. Was sagen Deine Eltern, wenn Du Deutsch sprichst?
- b. Was sagen Deine Eltern, wenn Du Arabisch sprichst?

4. Gibt es Dinge, die Du speziell zum Deutschlernen tust? Siehst Du zum Beispiel fern, liest Du Zeitungen, Bücher usw.?

- a. Wie lernst Du zu Hause? Erzähl bitte davon zu Hause.
- b. Mit wem und wie lernst Du?
- c. Wer hilft Dir außerhalb der Schule beim Deutschlernen?

- 5. Was ist Deiner Meinung im Deutschen am einfachsten: Deutsch sprechen, schreiben, lesen oder verstehen? Erzählst Du bitte, warum Du das so empfindest?**
- a. Warum fällt es Dir schwer?
- 6. Welche Aktivitäten im Unterricht machen Dir am meisten Spaß? Könntest Du Beispiele nennen?**
- a. Welche Aufgaben und Aufforderungen des Lehrers bereiten Dir am meisten Freude?
 - i. Partnerarbeit: Wie hilft Ihr Mitschüler Euch im Unterricht gegenseitig?
 - ii. Einzelarbeit: Magst Du es lieber allein zu arbeiten oder gemeinsam mit Deinen Mitschülern? Warum denkst Du so?
- 7. Welche Hausaufgaben gibt Dein Lehrer nach dem Unterricht auf? Was sollst du machen?**
- a. Aufgaben zum Lesen:
 - b. Zum Schreiben:
 - c. Zum Sprechen:
 - d. Zum Hören:

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PROTOCOL IN İSTANBUL

Tarih: Başlangıç: Bitiş:
Okul: Sınıf:
Sınıf: Seviye: Öğrenci sayısı:
.....

Öğretmen demografik bilgileri

Cinsiyet: Yaş: Deneyim süresi:
.....
Mezun olunan lisans programı:
.....

Bulunduğu okuldaki görev süresi:

Kadrolu: Sözleşmeli: Diğer:

▪ Okul ve sınıf ortamının fiziksel özellikleri:

▪ Derste kullanılan kaynaklar ve materyaller:

Gözlem esnasında dikkate alınacak boyutlar:

1. Etkinliğin tanıtımı/girişi (amaç, özet, çerçeve, vb.)
2. Dikkat çekmek için kullanılan teknikler (sorular, resimler, atasözleri, problem durumu, vb.)
3. Etkinliğin akışı (öğretmen anlatımı, öğrenci rolü, zaman dilimlerine göre akış)
4. Öğrenci tepkisi (tutum, ilgi, katılım, paylaşım, vb.)
5. Etkinliğin amacına ulaşma derecesi (gözlenen davranışlar, yorumlar, empati, vb.)
6. Kişiler arası iletişim (öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşimi, öğrenci-öğrenci etkileşimi)
7. Gözlemci yorumları (etkinlik-öğrenci uyumu, hazır bulunuşluk, öğrenci ilgisi, sonuçlar, vb.)

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PROTOCOL IN HAMBURG

Datum: Anfang: Ende:.....

Niveau: Anzahl Schüler:

Demografische Angaben zur Lehrkraft

Geschlecht: Alter: Lehrkraft seit: ...

.....

...

Was hat die Lehrkraft studiert und welcher Abschluss wurde erlangt?

In der betreffenden Schule tätig seit:

Festangestellte/-r: Angestellte/-r: Sonstiges:

▪ **Äußerliche Merkmale des Schul- und Klassenumfelds:**

▪ **Unterrichtsquellen und -Materialien:**

Zu berücksichtigende Dimensionen während der Beobachtung:

1. Die Vorstellung der Aktivität/die Einführung in die Aktivität
(Zweck, Zusammenfassung, Rahmen etc.)
2. Aufmerksamkeit schaffende Techniken (Fragen, Bilder, Redewendungen, Problemerkörterung usw.)
3. Verlauf der Aktivität (Vortragen/Erzählen der Lehrkraft, Rolle der Schüler, Verlauf in Zeitabschnitten)
4. Reaktionen der Schüler (Haltung, Interesse, Beteiligung, Austausch, usw.)
5. Erfolgsgrad der Aktivität (beobachtete Verhaltensweisen, Kommentare, Empathie usw.)
6. Kommunikation zwischen den Personen (Wechselbeziehung Lehrkraft-Schüler, Wechselbeziehung Schüler-Schüler)
7. Eindrücke des Beobachters (Eignung der Übung für die Schüler, Bereitschaft der Schüler, Interesse der Schüler, Ergebnisse usw.)

B. SAMPLE NOTES FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

23 Ekim 2019 Çarşamba

Ortaokul Üçüncü Sınıfı.

Başlangıç: 13.50
Bitiş:

Öğrenci Sayısı: 19 + 2 = 21
Kız: 7 + 1 = 8 Erkek: 12 + 1 = 13
8 + 1 = 9

- Okulda yer olmadığı için üçüncü sınıfı dışardan sava baş olan bir sınıfta yapılmaya başlandı. Dışardan sava ilköğretim deski olduğu için ve bu öğrenciler ortaokul seviyesinde oldukları için plüstilizasyonla sınıfta eğitimler.

1. Des

13.55 + Öğretmen N. öğrenciler okulemini yapıp yapmadığını sordu. Bir öğrenciden önceki kontrol etmesini istedi. Kontrol için öğrenci diğer öğrencilerle Anpaça konuştuk. Akıllı tahtada öğrenciler verilen hitayemi açtı. Öğrencilerden de "yabanı caban" hitayemini açmasını istedi.

	FF	FF	FF	Taviz, aydınlık bir sınıf.
	MM	MM	FF	
	MM	FF	M	
obs	MM	M	M	
	M	M		

14.00 + Öğretmen yabanı caban hitayemini sesli okunmaya başladı. Öğrencilerden biri anlamadığı kelimeyi sormak için öğretmen bilgi öğrenci "caban" ne demek diye sordu. Öğretmen cabanı Türkçe açıkladı. Sonra "şimdi kagun var mı?" diye sordu öğrenciler "evet" diye hep beraber cevap verdiler ve Anpaçasını söylediler. Daha sonra öğretmen cabanın Anpaça kelimesinin ne olduğunu sordu.

14.06 + Bir öğrenci "sabalasma"yı sordu. Başka bir öğrenci sabalasma'nın ne olduğunu açıkladı. Başka bir öğrenci ise sabalasma'ya "guroh" dedi. Öğretmen de yabanı söylemek guroh ana sabalasma'ya dedi. Birkaç dk. önce bir öğrenci Anpaçada da bu hitayem olduğunu söyledi.

Bir öğrenci Anpaça yüksele seke kavunaya "başbalasma" başka bir öğrenci de "yüksele kavun" diye yüksek seke kavun dedi.

14.07 Öğretmen kavun'ın ne olduğunu sordu. Öğrencilerden bazıları kavunun dinlektik kavun olduğunu söylediler. Başka bir öğrenci kavun filiz olduğunu söyleyerek kavunun ilk kavun olduğunu söyledi. Öğretmen kavun kavununu

C. CHARACTERISTICS OF QUALITATIVE SAMPLES

Table 20
Characteristics of Interview Participants: Teachers

School code	Participant code	Relation	Month/Year	Duration (min.)	Interview language	Gender	Age	Experience (Years)	Degree	Area	Employment status
IST-SU1	1.1.1_T1TP	PLT	May-19	32.12	TR	F	29	6	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Permanent
IST-SU1	1.1.1_T2TP	PLT	May-19	27.25	TR	M	29	6	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Permanent
IST-SU3	1.1.1_T3CP	PLT	May-19	30.52	TR	F	32	5	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Temporary
IST-SU2	1.1.1_T4CP	PLT	May-19	22.31	TR	F	26	3	B.A	Primary school teaching	Temporary
IST-SU4	1.1.2_T5CP	PLT	Oct-19	42.33	TR	M	32	6	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Temporary
IST-SU4	1.1.2_T6ST	MST	Oct-19	18.59	TR	F	28	1	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Permanent
IST-SU4	1.1.2_T7ST	MST	Oct-19	21.03	TR	F	26	2	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Permanent
IST-SU5	1.1.2_T8SC	MST	Oct-19	25.26	TR	M	34	9	B.A	Social science teaching	Permanent
IST-SU5	1.1.2_T9S	MST	Oct-19	21.15	TR	F	30	7	B.S	Science teaching	Permanent
IST-SU5	1.1.2_T10TP	MST	Oct-19	19.38	TR	M	29	8	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Permanent
IST-SU5	1.1.2_T11M	MST	Oct-19	12.53	TR	M	30	7	B.S	Mathematics teaching	Permanent
IST-SA2	1.1.3_T12CP	PLT	Mar-20	34.52	TR	F	27	3	B.A	Primary school teaching	Temporary
IST-SA5	1.1.3_T13CP	PLT	Mar-20	32.25	TR	F	30	3	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Temporary
IST-SA4	1.1.3_T14CP	PLT	Mar-20	27.2	TR	F	29	6	B.A	Primary school teaching	Temporary
IST-SA3	1.1.3_T15CP	PLT	Mar-20	34.08	TR	F	31	11	B.A	Primary school teaching	Temporary
HH-W1	1.2.1_T1	PLT	8/9/19	48	TR	M	51	7	B.A	German as a second language teaching	Permanent
HH-M1	1.2.1_T2	PLT	Dec-20	44.13	EN	F	62	20	B.A	Philosophy, Social sci., Pedagogy	Permanent
	1.2.1_T3	PLT			TR	F	47	13	B.A	Turcology, Spanish, Pedagogy	Permanent
HH-E1	1.2.3_T4	PLT	9/10/21	74.05	TR	M	52	4	B.A	Islamic Studies	Temporary
HH-M1	1.2.3_T5	PLT	9/10/21	38.08	GER	F	49	19	B.A	Spanish, Pedagogy	Permanent
	1.2.3_T6	PLT	9/10/21	48.51	EN	F	38	9	B.A	German as a second language teaching	Permanent

Note. PLT: Pull-out language teachers, MST: Mainstream subject teachers, TR: Turkish, EN: English, GER: German, F: Female, M: Male

Table 21
Characteristics of Interview Participants: School Administrators

Target Group	Case	District	School code	Participant code	Month/Year	Duration (Min.)	Interview language	Gender	Age	Experience (Years)	Degree	Area	Employment status
Administrators	IST	Sultanbeyli	IST - SU1	1.1.1_A1P	May-19	14.16	TR	M	34	13	B.A	Turkish language teaching	Permanent
		Sultanbeyli	IST - SU2	1.1.1_A2P	May-19	23.2	TR	F	49	25	B.A	History	Permanent
		Sancaktepe	IST - SA1	1.1.2_A3P	Oct-19	15.06	TR	F	33	11	B.A	English language teaching	Permanent
		Sancaktepe	IST - SA1	1.1.2_A4VP	Oct-19	28.14	TR	F	50	25	B.A	Physical education teaching	Permanent
		Sultanbeyli	IST - SU4	1.1.2_A5VP	Oct-19	36.05	TR	F	28	7	B.A	Psychological counselling and guidance	Permanent
		Sultanbeyli	IST - SU4	1.1.2_A6P	Oct-19	27.1	TR	M	46	21	B.A	Primary school teaching	Permanent
		Sultanbeyli	IST - SU5	1.1.2_A7VP	Oct-19	16.59	TR	F	29	8	B.S	Social science teaching	Permanent
		Sultanbeyli	IST - SU5	1.1.2_A8P	Oct-19	24.1	TR	M	50	20	B.A	Public education	Permanent
		Sancaktepe	IST - SA2	1.1.3_A9VP	Mar-20	17.22	TR	M	34	10	B.A	Theology	Permanent
		Sancaktepe	IST - SA3	1.1.3_A10VP	Mar-20	43.41	TR	M	53	34	B.A	Primary school teaching	Permanent

Note. TR: Turkish, M: Male, F: Female

Table 22
Characteristics of Interview Participants: Students

Target Group		Case	District	Participant code	Relation	Durston (Min.)	Interview language	Gender	Age	Grade	Origin country
Students	IST	Sultanbeyli	1.1.1_S1	PL-N	10.13	TR	G	12	6	Syria	
			1.1.1_S2	PL-N	12.2	TR	G	12	6	Syria	
			1.1.1_S3	PL-N	10.13	AR	B	13	6	Syria	
			1.1.1_S4	PL-N	8.13	TR	G	13	6	Syria	
			1.1.1_S5	PL-N	9.28	TR	G	12	5	Syria	
			1.1.1_S6	PL-N	10.57	TR	G	11	5	Syria	
			1.1.1_S7	PL-N	8.43	TR	B	11	5	Syria	
			1.1.1_S8	PL-N	7.53	TR	B	14	5	Syria	
			1.1.1_S9	PL-N	9.55	TR	B	11	5	Syria	
			1.1.1_S10	PL-N	4.47	TR	G	11	5	Syria	
		1.1.2_S12	MS-N	10.57	TR	B	14	7	Syria		
		1.1.2_S13	MS-N	8.28	TR	G	13	6	Syria		
		1.1.2_S14	MS-N	15.44	TR	G	16	8	Syria		
		1.1.2_S15	MS-N	11.01	TR	B	12	7	Syria		
		1.1.2_S16	MS-N	16.08	TR	G	15	7	Syria		
		1.1.2_S17	MS-N	14.15	TR	B	14	6	Syria		
		1.1.2_S18	MS-N	11.28	TR	B	10	6	Syria		
		1.1.2_S11	MS-N	8.17	TR	G	14	8	Syria		
		1.1.2_S19	MS-N		TR	B	10	5	Syria		
		1.1.2_S20	MS-N	19.16	TR	B	11	5	Syria		
		1.1.2_S21	MS-N		TR	B	11	5	Syria		
		1.1.2_S22	MS-N		TR	G	12	5	Syria		
HAM	Harburg	1.2.1_S1	MS-N	7.45	AR	B	14	8	Syria		
		1.2.1_S2	MS-N	13.09	DA	B	15	10	Afghanistan		
		1.2.1_S3	MS-N	16.11	DA	G	15	10	Afghanistan		
		1.2.1_S4	MS-N	8.47	DA	B	15	10	Afghanistan		
	Mitte	1.2.3_S5	IPC-G	33.22	EN	G	17	10	India		
	1.2.3_S6	IPC-S	13.31	EN	B	13	IPC	Switzerland			

Table 23
Characteristics of Interview Participants: Parents

Target Group	Case	District	School code	Participant code	Month / Year	Duration (Min.)	Interview language	Gender	Age	Education	Origin country	Nr. Of children
Parents	IST	Sultانبeyلي	IST - SU1	1.1.1_Pr1	May-19	13.31	AR	F	30	Lower-secondary	Syria	4
		Sultانبeyلي	IST - SU1	1.1.1_Pr2	May-19	12.47	AR	F	45	University degree	Syria	4
		Sultانبeyلي	IST - SU1	1.1.1_Pr3	May-19	13.31	AR	F	30	Lower-secondary	Syria	5
		Sultانبeyلي	IST - SU1	1.1.1_Pr4	May-19	13.43	AR	M	43	Primary school	Syria	4
	Sultانبeyلي	IST - SU1	1.1.1_Pr5	May-19	18.46	AR	F	36	Lower-secondary	Syria	4	
	Sultانبeyلي	IST - SU2	1.1.1_Pr6	May-19	9.09	AR	F	40	Primary school	Syria	8	
	Harburg	NGO outreach	1.2.1_Pr1	8/9/19	11.5	AR	F	37	Primary school	Syria	2	
	HAM	Harburg	NGO outreach	1.2.1_Pr2	8/9/19	14.22	AR	F	37	Lower-secondary	Syria	3
	Harburg	NGO outreach	1.2.1_Pr3	8/9/19	21.29	DA	M	50	High school	Afghanistan	8	

Note. AR: Arabic, DA: Dari, F: Female, M: Male

Table 24
Characteristics of Interview Participants: Key Informants

Target Group	Case	Participant code	Month / Year	Duration (Min.)	Interview language	Gender	Age	Experience (Years)	Degree	Area
Key informants	IST	1.1.1_K1R	May-19	18.53	TR	F	38	10	PhD	Sociology of migration
		1.1.1_K2R	May-19	37.23	EN	F	36	8	PhD	Sociology of education
		1.2.1_K1	8/9/19	52.49	EN	F	31	2	PhD candidate	IPCs
		1.2.1_K2	8/9/19	43.14	EN	F	-	15	PhD	Migration, racism, gender
		1.2.1_K3	8/9/19	41.59	EN	F	27	2	PhD candidate	IPCs
	HAM	1.2.1_K4	8/9/19	38.56	EN	F	30	4	PhD candidate	IPCs
		1.2.1_K5	Aug-19	66.15	EN	F	36	2	B.A	Coordinator at BSB
	1.2.1_K6	Aug-19			M	55	7	B.A	Coordinator at BSB	
	1.2.1_K7	8/9/19	9.36	GER	F	-	-	-	Social worker	

Note. IPC: International Preparatory Classroom, BSB: Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung (*School and Vocational Training Authority*), TR: Turkish, EN: English, GER: German, F: Female, M: Male

D. SAMPLE EXCERPTS OF TRANSLATED INTERVIEWS

Participant	Source Language	English
Teacher (T2), May 2019, İstanbul.	Kendi dilinde iyi okur yazar olan öğrenci Türkçeyi de bir şekilde öğreniyor. Ama kendi dilinde de eğitim aldığı halde iyi okur yazar olmayan öğrenci Türkçe öğrenmede de sorunlar yaşayabiliyor	A student who reads and writes well in their first language learns Turkish one way or another. However, the student who does not have a strong literacy level in their first language, despite receiving education in it, may face difficulties when learning Turkish
Teacher (T5), September 2021, Hamburg	Wir haben Schüler und Schülerinnen aus dem Ballett Internat und normalerweise die Eltern haben keine finanziellen Probleme. Aber es gibt auch Kinder, die sind Flüchtlinge und ich glaube, sie haben finanzielle Schwierigkeiten. Andere Schüler kommen nach Hamburg, weil ihre Eltern hier eine Arbeit gefunden haben und ich glaube, sie gehören zur Mittelschicht. Es ist auch sehr unterschiedlich	We have students from the ballet boarding school and the parents do not usually have any financial problems. However, there are also refugee students and I think they have financial difficulties. Other students come to Hamburg because their parents found a job here. I guess they belong to the middle class. It is also very different.

E. SAMPLE ITEMS FROM FAMILY INVOLVEMENT SCALE

Family Involvement Scale (Turkish)

	Her zaman	Sık sık	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
1. Ailem ders çalışmam için evde uygun ortam sağlar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Ailem ödevlerimi bana hatırlatır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Derslerimi yaparken ihtiyacım olduğunda ailem bana yardım eder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Ders çalışırken ailem bana çeşitli yollar gösterir (örneğin kelime öğrenirken, kitap okurken).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Family Involvement Scale (German)

	immer	häufig	manchmal	selten	nie
1. Meine Familie gibt mir eine gute Umgebung, um zu Hause zu lernen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Meine Familie erinnert mich an meine Hausaufgaben.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Wenn es nötig ist, hilft mir meine Familie beim Lernen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Meine Familie zeigt mir beim Lernen unterschiedliche Wege und Strategien (z.B. wenn ich neue Vokabeln lerne oder ein Buch lese).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

F. SAMPLE ITEMS FROM LEARNING ENVIRONMENT SCALES

Classroom Learning Environment Scale (Turkish)

	Her zaman	Sık sık	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
1. Öğretmenim derslerde benimle özel olarak ilgilenir	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Sınıfta ödevlerimi yaparken diğer öğrencilerle işbirliği yaparım.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
8. Öğretmenim diğer öğrencilerin sorularıyla ilgilendiği kadar benim sorularıyla da ilgilenir.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
12. Öğretmenim sınıftaki herkese aynı şekilde davranır.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>

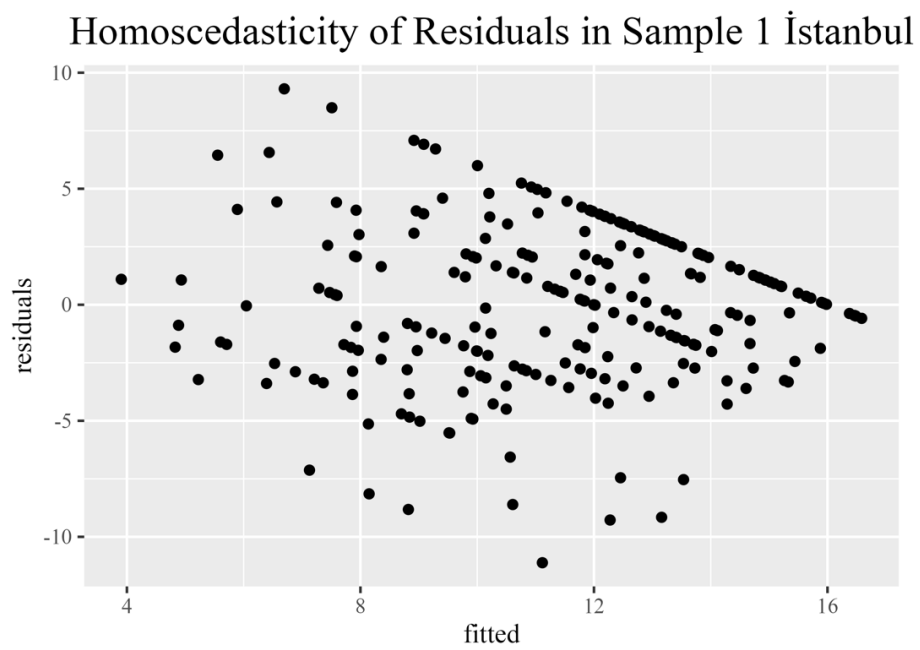
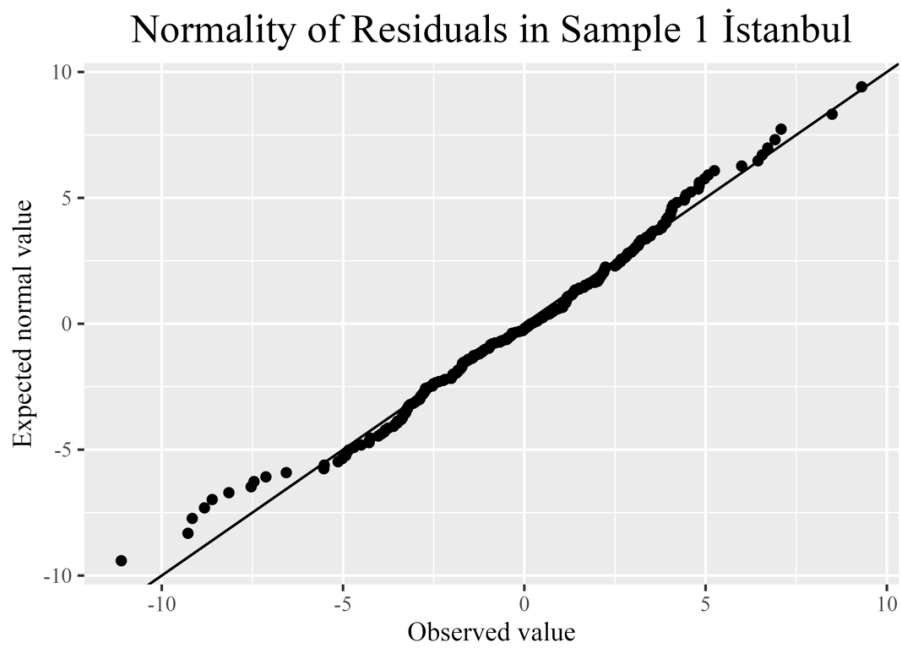
Classroom Learning Environment Scale (German)

	immer	häufig	manchmal	selten	nie
1. Mein:e Lehrer:in kümmert sich im Unterricht besonders um mich.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Bei Aufgaben im Unterricht arbeite ich mit anderen Schüler:innen zusammen.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
8. Mein:e Lehrer:in interessiert sich genauso stark für meine Fragen, wie für die Fragen meiner Mitschüler innen.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
12. Mein:e Lehrer:in behandelt alle in der Klasse gleich.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>

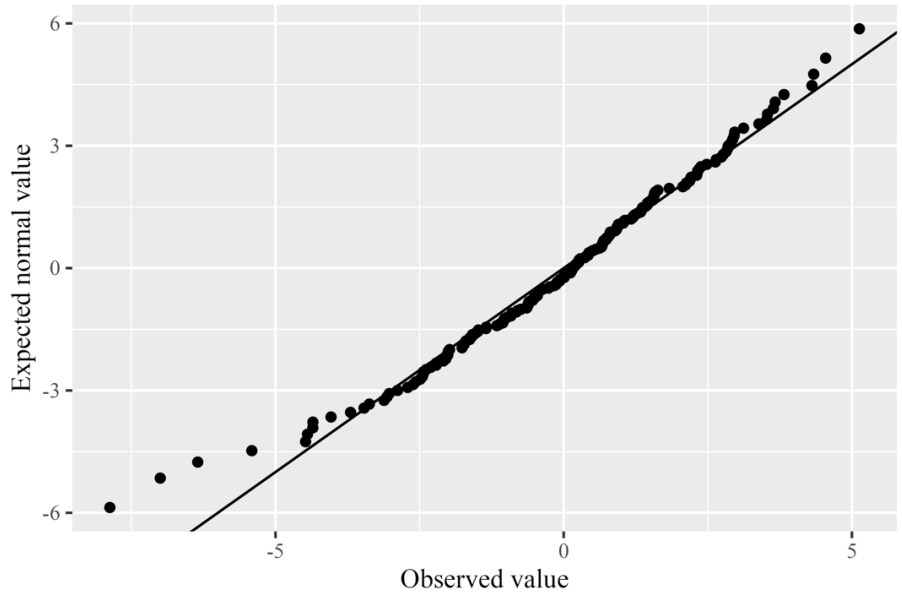
Distance Learning Environment Scale (Turkish)

	Her zaman	Sık sık	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
1. Öğretmenim uzaktan yapılan derslerde benimle özel olarak ilgilenir.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Uzaktan yapılan derslerde ödevlerimi yaparken diğer öğrencilerle işbirliği yaparım.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
8. Öğretmenim diğer öğrencilere yardım ettiği kadar bana da yardım eder.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>
10. Öğretmenim sınıftaki herkese aynı şekilde davranır.	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>	. <input type="checkbox"/>

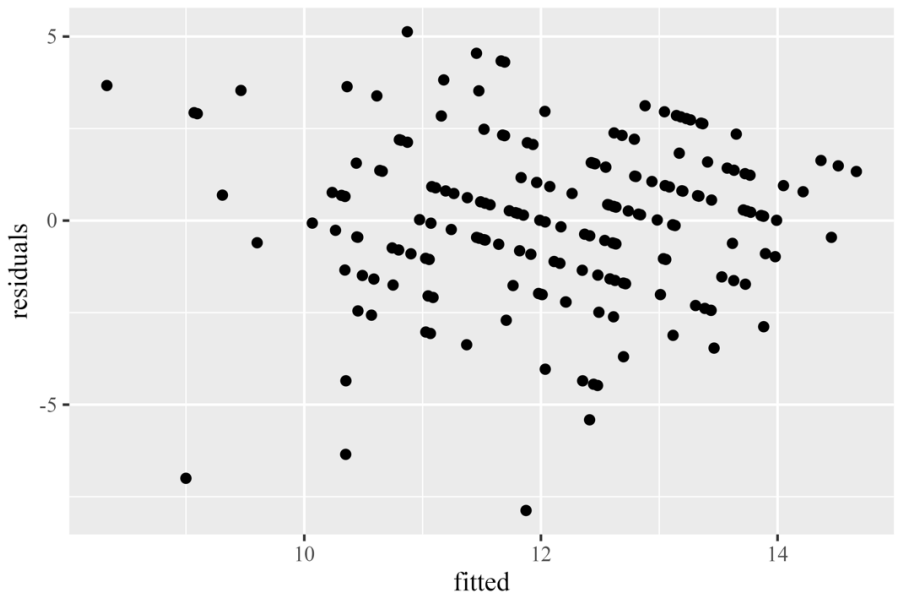
G. NORMALITY PROBABILITY PLOTS AND SCATTERPLOTS



Normality of Residuals in Sample 2 Hamburg



Homoscedasticity of Residuals in Sample 2 Hamburg



H. INTERCORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES IN İSTANBUL

Table 25
Intercorrelations of Variables in İstanbul

	Migration-related Characteristics																			
	Outcome	Covariates					Family Environment					Formal Learning Environment								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Student's Turkish proficiency	1.00																			
2. Gender	.13*	1.00																		
3. Mother's education level	.17**	.03	1.00																	
4. Father's education level	.08	-.01	.54**	1.00																
5. Age at migration	-.09	.04	.07	0.05	1.00															
6. Length of stay	.27**	.01	-.06	-.03	-.54**	1.00														
7. Attending primary school in RC ^a	.23**	-.02	-.05	-.06	-.50**	.43**	1.00													
8. First language proficiency	.23**	.08	.14*	0.01	.24**	-.02	-.04	1.00												
9. Mother's Turkish proficiency	.33**	-.02	.35**	.14*	-.05	.01	.06	.20**	1.00											
10. Father's Turkish proficiency	.18**	.00	.22**	.17**	-.07	-.02	.02	.10	.48**	1.00										
11. Sibling's Turkish proficiency	.52**	.04	.17**	.09	-.11*	.24**	.20**	.28**	.19**	1.00										
12. Establishing facilitating structures	.03	-.02	.17**	.17**	.04	-.03	.08	.21**	.20**	.08	.10	1.00								
13. Interacting with school	-.04	.00	.28**	.28**	-.04	.01	.07	.12*	.18**	0.04	.06	.69**	1.00							
14. Engaging in school-related tasks	.03	-.13*	.19**	.19**	-.06	-.05	.08	.09	.29**	.15*	.15**	.52**	.55**	1.00						
15. Teacher support	.09	.03	.09	.15*	-.03	-.05	.01	.06	.15**	.17**	.06	.31**	.32**	.28**	1.00					
16. Cooperation	.04	.04	.11*	0.07	-.08	-.02	-.01	-.04	.14*	.21**	.10	.12*	.23**	.18**	.40**	1.00				
17. Equity	.08	.10	.03	0.09	-.01	.01	.01	.02	-.01	.14*	.23**	.25**	.13*	.45**	.29**	1.00				
18. Distance teacher support	.07	.12*	-.03	.12*	-.06	.01	.08	-.01	.06	.14*	.08	.26**	.26**	.31**	.68**	.38**	.44**	1.00		
19. Distance cooperation	.08	.11*	.05	0.03	-.15**	.06	.11*	.01	.11*	.20**	.17**	.18**	.23**	.20**	.43**	.63**	.38**	.53**	1.00	
20. Distance equity	.15*	.13*	-.03	.01	.02	-.01	.01	.10	.06	.11*	.19**	.25**	.16**	.09	.37**	.27**	.68**	.50**	.45**	1.00

Notes. Pearson's r . The statistics are based on the original data set. As some of the variables were not normally distributed, Spearman's rank correlation was computed, which produced almost equal results. ^a Receiving country. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

I. INTERCORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES IN HAMBURG

Table 26
Intercorrelations of Variables in Hamburg

	Outcome			Covariates			Migration-related Characteristics			Family Environment			Formal Learning Environment				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Student's German proficiency	1.00																
2. Gender	.00	1.00															
3. Mother's education level	-.08	-.04	1.00														
4. Father's education level	.04	-.14*	.62**	1.00													
5. Age at migration	-.25**	-.14*	.20**	.13*	1.00												
6. Length of stay	.34**	.03	-.10	.00	-.68**	1.00											
7. Attending primary school in RC ^a	.17*	-.07	-.15*	-.04	-.60**	.61**	1.00										
8. First language proficiency	.06	-.05	.19**	.16*	.39**	-.28**	-.35**	1.00									
9. Mother's German proficiency	.33**	-.07	.05	.00	-.32**	.30**	.21**	-.03	1.00								
10. Father's German proficiency	.20**	.00	-.12*	.07	-.20**	.19**	.10	.02	.36**	1.00							
11. Sibling's German proficiency	.34**	-.10	-.03	.03	-.31**	.48**	.29**	-.11	.24**	.24**	1.00						
12. Establishing facilitating structures	.05	-.11	-.03	.02	-.29**	.16*	.22**	-.02	.19**	.26**	.21**	1.00					
13. Interacting with school	.12*	-.17*	.03	-.02	-.25**	.18*	.19*	.15*	.24**	.26**	.23**	.60**	1.00				
14. Engaging in school-related tasks	.12	-.10	-.06	-.03	-.36**	.18*	.31**	.00	.25**	.31**	.18*	.69**	.61**	1.00			
15. Teacher support	.01	-.12	-.03	-.01	-.05	-.14*	-.01	.19*	-.01	.09	.07	.30**	.19*	.27**	1.00		
16. Cooperation	.20**	-.03	-.01	.06	-.12	.11	.06	.11	.12	.24**	.20**	.30**	.35**	.27**	.45**	1.00	
17. Equity	.16*	-.28**	.01	.11	.13	-.07	-.11	.21**	.10	.13*	.08	.12	.12	.05	.50**	.47**	1.00

Notes. Pearson's r . The statistics are based on the original data set. As some of the variables were not normally distributed, Spearman's rank correlation was computed, which produced almost equal result. . * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

J. SAMPLE CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEWS IN İSTANBUL

GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu araştırma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Bölümü doktora adayı Abdullah Atmacasoy tarafından Doç. Dr. Hanife Akar danışmanlığındaki doktora tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın amacı nedir?

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki ve Almanya'daki orta okul seviyesindeki yeni göç etmiş öğrencilere sunulan dil eğitim programlarını ve öğrencilerin göç öncesi, esnası ve sonrasındaki ortamlarının ikinci dil gelişimlerini ne ölçüde belirlediğini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Bize nasıl yardımcı olmanızı isteyeceğiz?

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden beklenen, araştırmacının size yönelttiği yarı yapılandırılmış soruları cevaplandırmanızdır ve/veya dersinize gözlemci olarak katılmasına izin vermenizdir. Bu çalışmadaki görüşmeler yaklaşık 30 dakika sürmektedir.

Sizden topladığımız bilgileri nasıl kullanacağız?

Araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır ve sizden kimlik belirleyici herhangi bir bilgi istenmemektedir. Verdiğiniz yanıtlar gizli tutulacaktır. Sizden elde edilecek bilgiler araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecek ve bilimsel bir çalışmada kullanılacaktır. Sağladığımız veriler gönüllü katılım formlarında toplanan kimlik bilgileri ile eşleştirilmeyecektir.

Katılımla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:

Görüşme, kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz istediğiniz an görüşmeyi sonlandırabilirsiniz. Böyle bir durumda görüşmeyi yapan kişiye, görüşmeyi tamamlamadığımızı söylemeniz yeterlidir.

Arařtırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: alıřma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz, doktora adayı Abdullah Atmacasoy (E-posta: _____ ve ODTÜ Eđitim Programları ve Öğretim Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Do. Dr. Hanife Akar (E-posta: _____ ile iletiřim kurabilirsiniz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu alıřmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

(Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

Adı- Soyadı:

Tarih --/---/-----

İmza _____

K. SAMPLE CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEWS AND CLASSROOM OBSERVATION IN HAMBURG

Informationen zu einer wissenschaftlichen Studie zum Thema „Zweitsprachenerwerb von neu zugewanderten Schülerinnen und Schülern in Hamburg“

Sehr geehrte Lehrerinnen und Lehrer,
die hier beschriebene Studie zielt darauf ab, das Sprachbildungsangebot für neu zugewanderten Schülerinnen und Schüler der Sekundarstufe 1, in der Türkei und in Deutschland zu untersuchen. Dabei soll auch untersucht werden, welche Faktoren die Zweitsprachentwicklung der Schülerinnen und Schüler beeinflussen.

Die Studie wird durchgeführt im Rahmen der Doktorarbeit von Abdullah Atmacasoy, Doktorand am Fachbereich für Erziehungswissenschaft und Didaktik der *Middle East Technical University* in Ankara, und Gastwissenschaftler am Institut für interkulturelle Bildung der *Universität Hamburg*.

Im Rahmen der Studie würden wir gerne ein kurzes Interview mit Ihnen führen, sowie ihren Unterricht beobachten. Das Interview beinhaltet Fragen zum Sprachbildungsprogramm neu zugewanderten Schüler(innen), welches Sie unterrichten und zu Faktoren, die den Sprachlernprozess beeinflussen. Ein Interview dauert ungefähr 30 Minuten und wird mit einem Audiogerät aufgenommen. Weiterhin würden wir gerne an ihrem Unterricht als Beobachter teilnehmen (ca. 2-3 Stunden) und Feldnotizen davon nehmen.

Die Interviews und Feldnotizen werden anschließend anonymisiert, das bedeutet: niemand kann hinterher erkennen, von welcher Person die Angaben gemacht wurden und um welche Personen es sich handelt.

Im Folgenden informieren wir über den datenschutzrechtlichen Umgang mit den personenbezogenen Daten und bitten um die Zustimmung zur Teilnahme an der Studie sowie zur Verwendung Ihrer anonymisierten Daten für die angegebenen Zwecke.

Bei Rückfragen oder Verständnisschwierigkeiten können Sie sich gerne bei Abdullah Atmacasoy unter - melden.

Wir danken Ihnen für Ihre Unterstützung und Ihr Vertrauen in unsere Arbeit.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,

Doktorand

Abdullah Atmacasoy
Fachbereich für
Erziehungsprogramme und
Didaktik
Middle East Technical University

Univ.DoZ

Hanife Akar
Fachbereich für
Erziehungsprogramme und
Didaktik
Middle East Technical
University

Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. mult

Ingrid Gogolin
Universität Hamburg
Fakultät für
Erziehungswissenschaft
Allgemeine, Interkulturelle und
International Vergleichende
Erziehungswissenschaft

Was geschieht mit Ihren Daten? - Hinweise zum Datenschutz

Wir arbeiten nach den Vorschriften der Datenschutz-Grundverordnung, des Bundesdatenschutzgesetzes, des Hamburg Datenschutzgesetzes und allen anderen datenschutzrechtlichen Bestimmungen.

Im Rahmen dieser Studie werden folgende Daten zu Ihrer Person in einem Interview erhoben: Geschlecht, Erfahrung, Bildungsabschlüsse, Beschäftigungsart, Informationen über neu zugewanderten Schüler(innen) in ihren Klassenzimmern, Sprachniveau, sozioökonomischer Status, Anwesenheit, Ihre Beobachtungen von neu zugewanderten Schüler(inne)n in Bezug auf ihre Merkmale und Sprach(lern)bedürfnisse; Lehrplankomponenten: Ziele, Ressourcen, Bewertung, außerschulische Aktivitäten, Familienbeteiligung am Spracherwerb der SchülerInnen.

Die Interviews werden mit einem Audiogerät aufgenommen und auf einem externen Server gespeichert, sie sind dort Passwort geschützt. Nur der Forscher hat Zugriff auf diese Daten. Sie können absolut sicher sein, dass keine Einzeldaten, die einen Rückschluss auf Ihre Person zulassen, an Dritte weitergegeben werden.

Nachdem die Interviews sinngemäß transkribiert wurden, werden die Audioaufnahmen sofort gelöscht. Die Transkripte und die Beobachtungsprotokolle werden bis Ende 2021 passwortgeschützt gespeichert.

Die Interviews und die Feldnotizen werden mit der qualitativen Inhaltsanalyse ausgewertet. Dabei wird jedem/r Teilnehmer/in ein Code zugeordnet (ohne irgendwelche persönlichen Angaben), so dass nicht erkenntlich ist, um welche

Person es sich handelt. Außerdem werden weitere Angaben aus den Interviews anonymisiert (z.B. Stadt, Schule etc.), so dass von diesen Angaben nicht auf einzelne Personen geschlossen werden kann.

Die Ergebnisse der Studie werden in einer Doktorarbeit und wissenschaftlichen Publikationen verwendet, ohne sich dabei auf persönliche Informationen über die Teilnehmer/innen oder die Schulen zu beziehen.

Sie haben jederzeit die Möglichkeit folgende Rechte geltend zu machen:

- **Art. 7 Abs. 3 DSGVO: Recht auf Widerruf der Einwilligung**

Sie haben das Recht, Ihre Einwilligung jederzeit mit Wirkung für die Zukunft zu widerrufen.

- **Art. 15 DSGVO: Auskunftsrecht**

Sie haben uns gegenüber das Recht, Auskunft darüber zu erhalten, welche Daten wir zu Ihrer Person verarbeiten.

- **Art. 16 DSGVO: Recht auf Berichtigung**

Sollten die Sie betreffenden Daten nicht richtig oder unvollständig sein, so können Sie die Berichtigung unrichtiger oder die Vervollständigung unvollständiger Angaben verlangen.

- **Art. 17 DSGVO: Recht auf Löschung**

Sie können jederzeit die Löschung ihrer Daten verlangen.

- **Art. 18 DSGVO: Recht auf Einschränkung der Verarbeitung**

Sie können die Einschränkung der Verarbeitung der Sie betreffenden personenbezogenen Daten verlangen.

- **Art. 21 DSGVO: Widerspruchsrecht**

Sie können jederzeit gegen die Verarbeitung der Sie betreffenden Daten Widerspruch einlegen.

- **Art. 77 DSGVO: Recht auf Beschwerde bei einer Aufsichtsbehörde**

Wenn Sie der Auffassung sind, dass wir bei der Verarbeitung Ihrer Daten datenschutzrechtliche Vorschriften nicht beachtet haben, können Sie sich mit einer Beschwerde an die zuständige Aufsichtsbehörde wenden, die Ihre Beschwerde prüfen wird.

Über eine Beteiligung an der Studie würden wir uns sehr freuen. In jedem Fall aber gilt: Ihre Teilnahme an unserer Studie ist **freiwillig**. Lehnen Sie die Teilnahme ab

oder widerrufen oder beschränken Sie Ihre Einwilligung, entstehen Ihnen hieraus **keine Nachteile.**

Einverständniserklärung zur Teilnahme und zur Nutzung personenbezogener Daten für die Studie „Zweitsprachenerwerb von neu zugewanderten Schülerinnen und Schülern in Hamburg“

Ich bin mit der Erhebung, Verarbeitung, Speicherung und Weitergabe der personenbezogenen Daten im Rahmen des oben bezeichneten Forschungsvorhabens einverstanden.

Mir ist bewusst, dass meine Teilnahme an der Studie vollkommen freiwillig ist und mir bei einer Verweigerung meiner Einwilligung keinerlei Nachteile entstehen. Meine Einwilligung kann ich jederzeit mit Wirkung für die Zukunft widerrufen, ohne dass dies einer Begründung bedarf und ohne dass mir daraus irgendwelche Nachteile entstehen.

Mir wurde mitgeteilt, dass besondere Kategorien personenbezogener Daten erhoben werden (z.B. Geschlecht, Erfahrung, Abschlüsse, Beschäftigungsart). Ich bin ausdrücklich damit einverstanden, dass meine Zustimmung sich auch hierauf erstreckt.

Ich habe die obigen Informationen gelesen und bin mit der Teilnahme an der Untersuchung einverstanden.

Vor-und Nachname

Ort, Datum, Unterschrift

**L. SAMPLE CONSENT FORM FOR QUANTITATIVE ONLINE DATA
COLLECTION IN İSTANBUL**

Anketi cevaplamak istediđiniz dili yukarıdaki kutudan seđiniz. İstedięiniz zaman aynı yere tekrar tıklayarak dili deđiřtirebilirsiniz.

DİL EđİTİM PROGRAMLARI ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIřMA

Sayın Veli,

Çocuđunuzun katılacađı bu çalıřma, göç etmiř öđrencilerin yeni bir dil öđresme süreçleri üzerine yapılacak bir arařtırmadır.

ARAřTIRMANIN HEDEFİ

İstanbul'daki ortaokul seviyesindeki göç etmiř öđrencilerin Türkçe dil yeterliklerini belirleyen unsurların ortaya çıkarılmasıdır.

ARAřTIRMAYA KATILIM

Arařtırma T.C. Milli Eđitim Bakanlığı'nın izni ile gerçekteřmektedir. Arařtırma uygulamasına katılım tamamıyla **gönüllülük esasına** dayalı olmaktadır. Çocuđunuz çalıřmaya katılıp katılmamakta özgürdür. Arařtırma çocuđunuz için herhangi bir istenmeyen etki ya da risk taşımamaktadır. Çocuđunuzun katılımı tamamen sizin isteđinize bađlıdır, reddedebilir ya da herhangi bir ařamasında ayrılabilirsiniz. Arařtırmaya katılmamama veya arařtırmadan ayrılma durumunda öđrencilerin akademik başarıları, okul ve öđretmenleriyle olan iliřkilerini kesinlikle etkilemeyecektir.

UYGULAMA AřAMALARI

Bu arařtırma kapsamında çocuđunuzdan bir ankete cevap vermesini isteyeceđiz. Anketin **ilk kısmında** öđrencinizin kiřisel özellikleri ve ev ortamı, **ikinci kısmında** öđrencinizin ve aile bireylerinin Türkçe dil becerileri, **üçüncü kısmında** okul

bağlamı ve sınıftaki öğrenme ortamı, **dördüncü** kısmında ailenin öğrenme sürecine dahil olması hakkında sorular yer almaktadır. Anketi tamamlamak yaklaşık 40 dakika sürmektedir.

VERİLERİN GİZLİLİĞİ

Çalışmada öğrencilerden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplar tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir.

Uygulamalar, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular ve durumlar içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden çocuğunuz kendisini rahatsız hissederse cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp anketi sonlandırmakta özgürdür. Çocuğunuz çalışmaya katıldıktan sonra istediği an vazgeçebilir. Anket çalışmasına katılmamak ya da katıldıktan sonra vazgeçmek çocuğunuza hiçbir sorumluluk getirmeyecektir.

İLETİŞİM

Onay vermeden önce sormak istediğiniz herhangi bir konu varsa araştırmacıyla iletişime geçmekten çekinmeyiniz. Çalışma bittikten sonra da telefon veya e-posta ile ulaşarak soru sorabilir, sonuçlar hakkında bilgi isteyebilirsiniz.

Daha fazla bilgi edinmek ve diğer sorularınız için araştırmacı Abdullah Atmacasoy) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

VELİ ONAY

Yukarıda yer alan ve araştırmadan önce katılımcıya verilmesi gereken bilgileri okudum. Çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, çocuğumun üzerine düşen sorumlulukları anladım. Bu araştırmaya çocuğumun tamamen gönüllü olarak katılmasına izin veriyorum. Çalışmayı istediği zaman yarıda kesip bırakabileceğini biliyorum ve verilen bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Evet. Kabul ediyorum.

Hayır. Kabul etmiyorum.

M. SAMPLE CONSENT FORM FOR QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION IN HAMBURG

Was geschieht mit den Daten Ihres Kindes? – Hinweise zum Datenschutz

Wir werden Euch bzw. Mündel nicht nach Namen, Adresse oder sonstigen Angaben fragen, die Rückschlüsse auf die Identität zulassen. Die Antworten auf die Fragen und der Sprachtest werden anonymisiert, das bedeutet: niemand kann erkennen, von welcher Person die Angaben gemacht worden sind. Die Punktzahl des Sprachtests wird ausschließlich zu Forschungszwecken genutzt und wird in keinem Fall Einfluss auf den Schulerfolg Ihres Kindes bzw. Mündels haben.

Wir arbeiten nach den Vorschriften der Datenschutz-Grundverordnung, des Bundesdatenschutzgesetzes, des Hamburger Datenschutzgesetzes und allen anderen datenschutzrechtlichen Bestimmungen.

Im Rahmen dieser Studie werden folgende Daten erhoben: Hintergrundinformationen (z.B. Geschlecht, Alter, Schulart, Bildungverlauf, sozioökonomischer Status, Sprachkenntnisse und Sprachgebrauch), Lernumgebung in der Klasse, familiäre Unterstützung bei Hausaufgaben und schulischen Aktivitäten, Einfluss der Schulschließungen während COVID-19.

Alle anhand des Fragebogens erhobenen Daten werden bis Ende des Jahres 2025 gespeichert.

Die Daten aus dem Fragebogen werden mittels statistischer Software analysiert. Das Gesamtergebnis und die Ergebnisse für Teilgruppen (z.B. Jungen, Mädchen) werden in Tabellenform ausgedruckt. Angaben einzelner Personen sind nicht erkennbar. Auf jedem Fragebogen und jeder Einverständniserklärung steht eine Nummer. Mit der

Nummer können wir sehen, dass für jeden Fragebogen die Erlaubnis da ist. Wenn wir die Daten löschen sollen, können wir so den richtigen Fragebogen finden.

Die Ergebnisse der Studie werden in einer Doktorarbeit und wissenschaftlichen Publikationen verwendet, ohne sich dabei auf persönliche Informationen über die Teilnehmer:innen oder die Schulen zu beziehen. Sie haben jederzeit die Möglichkeit, folgende Rechte geltend zu machen:

- **Art. 7 Abs. 3 DSGVO: Recht auf Widerruf der Einwilligung**
Sie können Ihr Einverständnis immer mit Wirkung für die Zukunft zurückziehen.
- **Art. 15 DSGVO: Auskunftsrecht**
Sie können immer fragen, welche Informationen ich über Sie und Ihr Kind benutze.
- **Art. 16 DSGVO: Recht auf Berichtigung**
Wenn die Informationen nicht richtig sind, dürfen Sie verlangen, dass ich die Informationen korrigiere oder ergänze.
- **Art. 17 DSGVO: Recht auf Löschung**
Sie können immer verlangen, dass ich die Informationen lösche.
- **Art. 18 DSGVO: Recht auf Einschränkung der Verarbeitung**
Sie können verlangen, dass ich manche Informationen über Sie und Ihr Kind nicht benutze.
- **Art. 21 DSGVO: Widerspruchsrecht**
Sie können immer sagen, wenn ich Informationen über Sie und Ihr Kind nicht mehr benutzen darf.
- **Art. 77 DSGVO: Recht auf Beschwerde bei einer Aufsichtsbehörde**
Wenn Sie denken, ich halte mich nicht an die Regeln, können Sie sich bei der Aufsichtsbehörde beschweren.

Kontakt

Bei Fragen und für weitere Informationen kontaktieren Sie uns jederzeit gerne.

Doktorand

Abdullah Atmacasoy
Universität Hamburg
Fakultät für
Erziehungswissenschaft

Betreuerinnen

Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c.mult. Ingrid Gogolin
Universität Hamburg
Fakultät für Erziehungswissenschaft

Prof. Dr. Hanife Akar
Middle East Technical University
Fachbereich für Erziehungsprogramme und
Didaktik

Einverständniserklärung zur Teilnahme und zur Nutzung personenbezogener Daten für die Studie „Determinanten der Zweitsprachenkompetenz von neu zugewanderten Schülerinnen und Schülern in Hamburg“

Ich bin mit der Erhebung, Verarbeitung, Speicherung und Weitergabe der personenbezogenen Daten meines Kindes bzw. Mündels im Rahmen des oben bezeichneten Forschungsvorhabens einverstanden.

Mir wurde mitgeteilt, dass besondere Kategorien personenbezogener Daten erhoben wurden (Daten zu dem Geschlecht, Alter, Sprachniveau, Anzahl der Geschwister, Klassenstufe, sozioökonomischer Status, Bildungshintergrund). Ich bin ausdrücklich damit einverstanden, dass meine Zustimmung sich auch hierauf erstreckt.

Ich habe die obigen Informationen gelesen und bin mit der Teilnahme meines Kindes bzw. Mündels an der Untersuchung einverstanden.

Ort, Datum

Unterschrift Eltern / Erziehungsberechtigte

N. SAMPLE INVITATION LEAFLET TO QUANTITATIVE STUDY IN HAMBURG



Kontakt
Bei Fragen und für weitere Informationen kontaktieren Sie uns jederzeit gerne.

Doktorand
Abdullah Atmacasoy
Universität Hamburg
Fakultät für Erziehungswissenschaft

Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c.mult. Ingrid Gogolin
Universität Hamburg
Fakultät für Erziehungswissenschaft

Prof. Dr. Hanife Akar
Middle East Technical University
Fachbereich für Erziehungsprogramme
und Didaktik

Die Untersuchung wird unterstützt durch den Deutschen Akademischen Austauschdienst (DAAD) und den Forschungs- und Technologierat der Türkei (TUBITAK)



NEU ZUGEWANDERTE SCHÜLERINNEN UND SCHÜLER LERNEN DEUTSCH.
Eine wissenschaftliche Studie



Sehr geehrte Schulleitung, sehr geehrte Lehrkräfte,

wir möchten hiermit über eine Untersuchung informieren und Sie um Ihre Unterstützung dabei bitten. Ziel der Untersuchung ist es, mehr über das Sprachbildungsangebot für Schülerinnen und Schüler in der Sekundarstufe zu erfahren, die nach 2015 nach Deutschland zugewandert sind. Dabei wollen wir Faktoren identifizieren, die den Erwerb von Fähigkeiten im Deutschen erleichtern oder erschweren. Eine parallele Studie wird in der Türkei durchgeführt. Am Ende möchten wir die Maßnahmen in beiden Ländern vergleichen und dabei noch mehr über förderliche oder hemmende Einflüsse auf den Erwerb der neuen Sprache erfahren, die die Jugendlichen lernen müssen, um in der Schule erfolgreich zu sein.

Bitte unterstützen Sie unsere Untersuchung!

Wir möchten Mädchen und Jungen, die **nach 2015 nach Deutschland zugewandert** sind, um Teilnahme an der Studie bitten.

Teilnehmen können Schülerinnen und Schüler aus normalen Schulklassen und aus Internationalen Vorbereitungsklassen.

Was wünschen wir uns von den Mädchen und Jungen?
Wir möchten sie bitten, einen Fragebogen auszufüllen. Darin stellen wir Fragen nach ihrem Lebenslauf, ihrer Schulgeschichte, ihrer Familie und der Unterstützung, die sie beim Lernen bekommen.
Uns interessiert auch, welche Auswirkungen der Corona-Pandemie die Schülerinnen und Schüler erlebt haben. Außerdem möchten wir etwas über die Deutschkenntnisse der Schülerinnen und Schüler erfahren. Dafür geben wir ihnen fünf kurze Texte in deutscher Sprache, in denen sie einige Lücken ausfüllen können.

Die Bearbeitung der Fragen und Aufgaben dauert insgesamt nur circa **40 Minuten**.
Zum Datenschutz:
In der Studie werden **zu keiner Zeit Daten über den Namen oder Standort der Schule** erfasst oder Informationen abgefragt, die Rückschlüsse auf die Identität der Schülerinnen und Schüler zulassen. Es wird kein Vergleich zwischen den teilnehmenden Schulen oder einzelnen Schülerinnen und Schülern vorgenommen.

Vorab werden die Eltern oder Erziehungsberechtigten der Schülerinnen und Schüler über die Studie informiert. Erst wenn diese ihre Zustimmung erklärt haben, können die Jugendlichen an der Studie teilnehmen.

Die Genehmigung für diese Studie wurde von der Hamburger Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung erteilt.

**O. APPROVALS OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS
COMMITTEE FOR QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE STUDIES**

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



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Sayı: 28620816 / 228

10 Mayıs 2019

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Doç. Dr. Hanife AKAR

Danışmanlığını yaptığımız Abdullah ATMACASOY'un "Tek Resmi Dili Olan Ülkelerdeki Zorunlu Göç Etmış Öğrencilerin Dil Öğrenimi Üzerine Çok Aşamalı Bir Karma Yöntem Araştırması: Türkiye ve Almanya Durumları" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 216-ODTÜ-2019 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinizi sunarız.

Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ

Başkan

Prof. Dr. Tolga CAN

Doç.Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müge GÜNDÜZ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Süreyya Özcan KABASAKAL

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16 HAZİRAN 2020

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof. Dr. Hanife AKAR

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Abdullah ATMACASOY' un "Resmi Eğitim Dili Tek Olan Ülkelere Yeni Göç Etmis Öğrencilerin Dil Yeterliklerini Belirleyen Unsurlar ve Okullardaki Geçiş Programları Üzerine Bir Karma Yöntem Araştırması: İstanbul Durumu" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 167 ODTU 2020 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof.Dr. Mine MISIRLISOY

Başkan

Prof. Dr. Tolga CAN

Üye

Doç.Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şerife SEVINÇ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Müge GÜNDOZ

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Süreyya Özcan KABASAKAL

Üye

**P. APPROVALS OF THE SCHOOL AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING
AUTHORITY IN HAMBURG FOR QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE
STUDIES**



**Freie und Hansestadt Hamburg
Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung**

Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung
Postfach 76 10 48 • D-22060 Hamburg

Abdullah Atmacasoy
Universität Hamburg

Aktenzeichen
181-24.03/219,53

Institut für Bildungsmonitoring und
Qualitätsentwicklung (IfBQ)
Stabsstelle Forschungskoooperation und
Datengewinnungsstrategie (BQ-F)
Ansprechperson: Claudia Vogeler
Anschrift:
Telefon:
E-Mail:

Datum
29. April 2020

**Eine mehrphasige "Mixed-Methods"-Studie zur Erforschung des Spracherwerbs
von FlüchtlingsschülerInnen in einsprachigen Ländern: Fälle aus der Türkei und
Deutschland**

**Bezug: Ihr Antrag auf die Genehmigung einer wissenschaftlichen Untersuchung an
Hamburger Schulen vom 11. Juli 2019; hier: Qualitativer Erhebungsteil**

Sehr geehrter Herr Atmacasoy,
sehr geehrte Frau Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. mult. Gogolin,

Ihren Antrag vom 11. Juli 2019 auf Genehmigung einer wissenschaftlichen Untersuchung im Rahmen des oben bezeichneten Vorhabens habe ich geprüft. Den Erhebungen stehen keine grundsätzlichen datenschutzrechtlichen, schulaufsichtlichen oder fachlichen Gründe entgegen, sodass ich sie hiermit genehmige.

Ich bitte Sie dafür Sorge zu tragen, dass Schülerinnen und Schüler, deren Erziehungsberechtigte ihr Einverständnis für eine Unterrichtsbeobachtung nicht erteilt haben, während der geplanten Unterrichtsbeobachtung anderweitig z.B. in einer Parallelklasse unterrichtet oder beschäftigt werden.

Diese Genehmigung gilt ausschließlich unter der Bedingung des regulären Schulbetriebs. Voraussetzung für die Durchführung der Untersuchung ist zudem die Zustimmung der jeweiligen Schulleitung, die vor Untersuchungsbeginn einzuholen ist. Bitte geben Sie den Schulleitungen der beteiligten Schulen dieses Schreiben zur Kenntnis.

Ich wünsche Ihnen für Ihre Untersuchung viel Erfolg und möchte Sie bitten, uns einen Ergebnisbericht zur Verfügung zu stellen.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Claudia Vogeler



Freie und Hansestadt Hamburg Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung

Behörde für Schule und Berufsbildung
Postfach 76 10 48 • D-22060 Hamburg

Abdullah Atmacasoy
Universität Hamburg

Institut für Bildungsmonitoring und
Qualitätsentwicklung (IfBQ)
Stabsstelle Forschungsk Kooperation und
Datengewinnungsstrategie (BQ-F)

Ansprechperson: Claudia Vogeler
Anschrift:
Telefon:
E-Mail:

Aktenzeichen
e514.101.5000-002/221,035

Datum
4. November 2021

Eine Korrelationsstudie zu den Determinanten der Zweitsprachenkompetenz von neu zugewanderten Schülerinnen und Schülern in Hamburg

Bezug: **Ihr Antrag auf die Genehmigung einer wissenschaftlichen Untersuchung an Hamburger Schulen vom 24. Juni 2021**

Sehr geehrter Herr Atmacasoy,
sehr geehrte Frau Prof. Dr. Dr. h. c. mult. Gogolin,

Ihren Antrag vom 24. Juni 2021 auf Genehmigung einer wissenschaftlichen Untersuchung im Rahmen des oben bezeichneten Vorhabens habe ich geprüft. Den Erhebungen stehen keine grundsätzlichen datenschutzrechtlichen, schulaufsichtlichen oder fachlichen Gründe entgegen, sodass ich sie hiermit genehmige.

Für die Durchführung der Untersuchung ist neben dieser Genehmigung auch die Zustimmung der jeweiligen Schulleitung erforderlich, die vor Untersuchungsbeginn einzuholen ist. Bitte geben Sie den Schulleitungen der beteiligten Schulen dieses Schreiben zur Kenntnis.

Ich wünsche Ihnen für Ihre Untersuchung viel Erfolg und möchte Sie bitten, uns einen Ergebnisbericht zur Verfügung zu stellen.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Claudia Vogeler

Q. APPROVALS OF MoNE FOR QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE STUDIES



T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-44-E.14741450
Konu : Anket Araştırma İzni

09.08.2019

Sayın: Abdullah ATMACASOY

İlgi: a) 16.05.2019 tarihli ve 9655128 Gelen Evrak No'lu dilekçeniz.
b) Valilik Makamının 08.08.2019 tarih ve 14708301 sayılı oluru.

"Tek Resmi Dili Olan Ülkelerdeki Zorunlu Göç Etmiş Öğrencilerin Dil Öğrenimi Üzerine Çok Aşamalı Bir Karma Yöntem Araştırması Türkiye ve Almanya Durumları" konulu araştırma çalışmamız hakkındaki ilgi (a) dilekçe ve ekleri ilgi (b) valilik onayı ile uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve söz konusu talebiniz; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının kurumlarınıza araştırmacı tarafından ulaştırılarak uygulanması**, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılması koşuluyla, gerekli duyurunun araştırmacı tarafından yapılması, okul idarecilerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Valilik Onayı doğrultusunda uygulanması ve işlem bittikten sonra 2 (iki) hafta içinde sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne rapor halinde bilgi verilmesini rica ederim.

Levent ÖZİL
Müdür a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

EK:
1- Valilik Onayı
2- Ölkeler



T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

804

Sayı : 59090411-44-E.9583291
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ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ'NE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : a) 13.07.2020 tarihli ve 223 sayılı yazınız.
b) Valilik Makamının 19.07.2020 tarihli ve 9542736 sayılı oluru.

Üniversiteniz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Doktora Öğrencisi Abdullah ATMACASOY'un "Resmî Eğitim Dili Tek Olan Ülkelere Yeni Göç Etmiş Öğrencilerin Dil Yeterliliklerini Belirleyen Unsurlar ve Okullardaki Geçiş Programları Üzerine Bir Karma Yöntem Araştırması: İstanbul Durumu" konulu tez araştırma çalışması hakkındaki ilgi (a) yazınız ilgi (b) valilik onayı ile uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve araştırmacının söz konusu talebi; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının kurumlarımıza araştırmacı tarafından ulaştırılarak uygulanması**, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, gerekli duyurunun araştırmacı tarafından yapılması, okul idarecilerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Valilik Onayı doğrultusunda uygulanması ve işlem bittikten sonra 2 (iki) hafta içinde sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne rapor halinde bilgi verilmesini arz ederim.

Levent ÖZİL
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürü a.
Müdür Yardımcısı

Ek:
1- Valilik Onayı
2- Ölçekler



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R. CURRICULUM VITAE

ABDULLAH ATMACASOY

EDUCATION

PhD in Educational Sciences

Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey

Major: *Curriculum and Instruction*

Thesis: *Learning the Language of Instruction in Monolingual Countries: A Mixed Methods Comparative Study on Newly Arrived Migrant Students in Turkey and Germany*

MA in Comparative Literature

İstanbul Bilgi University, İstanbul, Turkey

BA in English Language and Literature

Ege University, İzmir, Turkey

WORK EXPERIENCE

Visiting Researcher, DivER, 10/2020-present

Hamburg Universität, Hamburg, Germany

General, Intercultural and International Comparative Education

Lecturer, Complex Methods of Qualitative Empirical Studies, SoSe 2021

Hamburg Universität, Hamburg, Germany

Faculty of Education

Instructor, English Foundation Programme, 01/2010-09/2020

Kocaeli University, School of Foreign Languages, Kocaeli, Turkey

Coordinator, Public Language Courses, 09/2014-06/2015

Kocaeli University, School of Foreign Languages, Kocaeli, Turkey

LANGUAGE SKILLS

Turkish, English, German.

RESEARCH SKILLS

Mixed Methods Research, Systematic Reviews, Multivariate Statistical Techniques (R programming language, SPSS), Qualitative Content Analysis (MAXQDA), Rasch Analysis (Winsteps).

RESEARCH VISITS

PhD Researcher, 07/2019-09/2019

General, Intercultural and International Comparative Education, Universität Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany

Guest Scholar, 07/2017-09/2017

Research Library for the History of Education (BBF), Berlin, Germany

Erasmus Training Visit, 06/2014

Aston University, Birmingham, UK

CERTIFICATES & TRAININGS

Teacher Support Program for Integration of Immigrant and Refugee Students into Society, (Helsinki) Citizens' Assembly & Beraberce, September 2018 - December 2018.

Refugee Protection and Forced Migration, Humboldt University Summer Course, Berlin, July 2018 - August 2018.

Volunteering with Refugees Course, Cambridge Assessment English & Crisis Classroom, Future Learn, January 2018 - February 2018.

E-teacher Scholarship Programme on "Global English: Leadership Skills and Practices in Local Education", U.S Embassy-Turkey & University of Oregon, June 2015 - September 2015.

AWARDS & GRANTS

2214-A International Research Fellowship Program for PhD Students, TUBITAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey), October 2021 - September 2022.

One-year Research Grant for Doctoral Students, DAAD (Deutsche Akademischer Austauschdienst), October 2020 - September 2021.

Doctoral Student Workshop Travel & Accommodation Grant, Uppsala Forum on Democracy, Peace and Justice PhD Forum Young Scholar Network Funding, November 2019.

Course Performance Award, Graduate School of Social Sciences, Middle East Technical University, June 2018.

2224-A International Scientific Meetings Fellowship Program, TUBITAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey), April 2018.

PUBLICATIONS

Journal Articles

1. Atmacasoy, A. and Aksu, M. (2018). Blended learning at pre-service teacher education in Turkey: A systematic review. *Education and Information Technologies*, 23(6), pp. 2399-2422. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-018-9723-5> (SSCI)

Book Chapters

2. Atmacasoy, A., Akar, H. and Gogolin, I. (2023), "Building responsive education systems toward multiple disruptions in refugee education: Turkey and Germany as cases", Wiseman, A.W. and Damaschke-Deitrick, L. (Ed.) *Education for Refugees and Forced (Im)Migrants Across Time and Context (International Perspectives on Education and Society, Vol. 45)*, Emerald Publishing Limited, pp. 155-176. <https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-367920230000045009>

Proceedings

3. Atmacasoy, A., Ok, A. and Şahin, G. (2018). An evaluation of Introduction to Industrial Engineering course at Sabancı University using CIPP Model. *Proceedings of the Engineering Education for Sustainable Development (EESD) 2018*.

Non-Journal Articles

4. Atmacasoy, A. (2020, May 12). "This is not a school break or holiday": Syrian refugee students in Turkey during Covid-19. *Harvard Graduate School of Education REACH Blog*. <https://reach.gse.harvard.edu/blogs/covid-19/series/this-is-not-a-school-break-or-holiday-syrian-refugee-students-in-turkey-during-covid-19>

INVITED TALKS

1. Atmacasoy, A. (2021, March 2) *A Multiphase mixed-methods study on the bridging systems and determinants of destination language proficiency of newly arrived migrant students in monolingual countries: Istanbul and Hamburg cases*, Canada Excellence Research Chair (CERC) in Migration and Integration Working Group Series, Ryerson University, Toronto, Canada.
2. Atmacasoy, A. (2021, January 25) *On the trajectory of refugee education: The case of Turkey*, Universität Hamburg, Faculty of Education, Hamburg, Germany.
3. Atmacasoy, A. (2019, July 30) *The challenge to integrate refugee students into Turkish public schools: Language policies, provisions, and barriers*, Universität Hamburg, Graduate School of Education, Hamburg, Germany.
4. Atmacasoy, A. (2019, May 28). *A curriculum evaluation on ENS 208 - Introduction to Industrial Engineering course*, Sabancı University 2nd Internal Education Conference, İstanbul, Turkey.

CONFERENCES

1. Atmacasoy, A. (2022, September 19-21). *The ecology of language education programs for newly arrived migrant students in monolingual school settings: Protective and risk factors in Istanbul and Hamburg* [Symposium], In Zehra A. Colak (chair), Intersectional and socioecological approaches to refugee students' discrimination experiences for newcomer students in monolingual classroom settings. Center for the Social Study of Migration and Refugees (CESSMIR) 2nd Conference, Ghent, Belgium.

2. Atmacasoy, A. (2022, September 2). *What contextual factors are conducive to the literacy of newly arrived migrant students in monolingual school settings?* [Symposium], In Ingrid Gogolin (Discussant), *Literacy as 21st-Century Skill: Empirical Elaboration on the Construct, Acquisition Contexts Learning Tools in a Global Perspective*. European Conference on Educational Research (ECER) Plus, Yerevan, Armenia.
3. Atmacasoy, A. (2021, July 07-09). *Family-school partnership in monolingual national education systems for newly arrived migrant students: İstanbul and Hamburg cases* [Panel], In Marta Zofial Moskal (Chair) and Lucy Hunt (Discussant), *Refugee parents' engagement with education: Part 1*. 18th IMISCOE Annual Conference, Luxembourg.
4. Atmacasoy, A. (2020, August 24-28). *"Cohesion classrooms" in Turkish public schools for newcomer students: What is at stake?* [Symposium], In Lisa Rosen (Chair) and Emmanuelle Le Pichon-Vorstman (Discussant), *Language education and policies for newcomer students in monolingual classroom settings*. European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Glasgow, UK (Cancelled due to COVID-19).
5. Atmacasoy, A. and Akar, H. (2020, April 17-21). *Need for tackling the gap for culturally responsiveness in language teaching for refugee students in Turkey* [Roundtable session], American Educational Research Association (AERA) 2020 Annual Conference, San Francisco, United States. <https://aera20-aera.ipostersessions.com/?s=87-14-56-1B-05-1C-D3-F9-91-22-07-FA-78-BC-5E-92>
6. Atmacasoy, A. (2019, November 28-29). *Inclusion strategies, facilitators, and obstacles in language support programs for refugee students in İstanbul*, İstanbul Policy Center Sabancı University Mercator Initiative Migration Conference, İstanbul, Turkey.
7. Atmacasoy, A. (2019, November 14-15). *Do language provisions facilitate refugee students' access to quality education? A comparative perspective from İstanbul and Hamburg*, Doctoral Student Forum Workshop on International Migration and Human Rights, Uppsala Forum on Democracy, Peace and Justice, Uppsala, Sweden.
8. Atmacasoy, A., Akar, H., Hansen, A., and Gogolin, I. (2019, September 02-06). *Exploring the language development of refugee students in Turkey and Germany: Preliminary results from the first qualitative phase*, European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Hamburg, Germany.
9. Atmacasoy, A., and Akar, A. (2018, September 04-07). *A discussion on language policy and how to overcome this challenge for Syrian students in Turkey*, European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Bolzano, Italy.
10. Atmacasoy, A., and Engin-Demir, C. (2018, September 04-07). *Challenges to inclusive education of Syrian students in Turkey*, European Conference on Educational Research (ECER), Bolzano, Italy.
11. Atmacasoy, A., Ok, A., and Şahin, G. (2018, June 04-07). *An evaluation of Introduction to Industrial Engineering course at Sabancı University using CIPP Model*, the 9th Conference on Engineering Education for Sustainable Development (EESD), New Jersey, USA.
12. Atmacasoy, A., and Aksu, M. (2017, October 26-28). *Blended learning at pre-service teacher education in Turkey: A systematic review*, the 5th International Curriculum and Instruction Congress, Muğla, Turkey.

13. Atmacasoy, A. (2017, August 27-28). *The impact of equivalent proficient peer feedback and teacher feedback on the writing skills of EFL students*, Junior Researchers of EARLI, Tampere, Finland.

SERVICES

Editor, *Refugee Review*, Emerging Scholars and Practitioners on Migration Issues (ESPMI) Network, 2019-2022. <https://espminetwork.com/people/>

Co-convenor, *Network 31 - Language and Education*, European Educational Research Association (EERA), 2019-present.

Volunteer Teacher, *Mesafe Tanımayan Eğitim (Education Without Distance)*, A project by the Research Centre on Asylum and Migration (IGAM), July 2020-November 2020.

Conference Reviewer, ECER, AERA and EARLI, 2018-present.

S. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKE ÖZET

Giriş

Öğretim dilindeki yeterlik, göçmen öğrencilerin eğitim kariyerlerine doğru adımlarla başlamaları için gerekli bir anahtar beceri olup zayıf akademik çıktılara, sosyal-duygusal risk faktörlerine ve işgücü piyasasına sınırlı entegrasyona karşı koruma kalkanı oluşturmaktadır (Algan vd., 2010; Giannelli ve Rapallini, 2016; Jin Bang vd., 2011; OECD, 2018). Türkiye ve Almanya, Amerika Birleşik Devletleri, Kanada ve Avustralya gibi geleneksel göç ülkeleri arasında yer almasalar da ekonomik göçmenler ve zorunlu göçe maruz kalmış kişiler için hedef ülke konumuna gelmişlerdir. Çalışmanın gerçekleştirildiği İstanbul ve Hamburg kendi ulusal ortalamalarına kıyasla daha yüksek düzeyde dil ve kültürel çeşitliğe sahiptir.

Türk eğitim sisteminin kapasitesini artırmak için yerel, ulusal ve uluslararası aktörler arasındaki iş birliği (Delegation of the European Union to Turkey, 2018; MoNE, 2015) Suriyeli mülteci öğrenciler için bazı umut verici nicel göstergeler sunarak yapısal kapsayıcılığı bir dereceye kadar sağlamıştır. Fakat zorunlu eğitim çağında olan ancak okula gitmeyen Suriyeli öğrencilerin sayısı son dört yılda sabit kalmış ve Türkiye'de eğitim dışında kalan en az dört yüz bin Suriyeli çocuk olduğu tespit edilmiştir (MoNE, 2022). Almanya ise eğitim sisteminin tüm kademelerine eşit erişim sağlama ve göçmen öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusunda en iyi performans sergileyen 10 ülkenin gerisinde kalmıştır (Solano ve Huddleston, 2020).

Tek bir dilin genellikle ulusal kimlikle ilişkilendirildiği ve resmi ya da fiili olarak eğitim dili olarak kabul edildiği tek dilli paradigma (Spolsky, 2004) eğitim ortamının şekillenmesinde önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. Eğitim sistemleri farklılaşsa da tek dilli habitus (Gogolin, 1997) Almanya'da ve Türkiye'de eğitim normlarını, öğretim süreçlerinin organizasyonunu ve algıları şekillendiren okul sistemlerinin kurucu bir unsuru olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Hedef dil yeterliğinin eksikliğinden kaynaklanan olumsuz akademik ve sosyal çıktıların önüne geçmek için, okulların öğretim yöntemlerini farklı dil geçmişlerine hitap edecek ve tüm öğrencilerin okulda başarılı olmalarını sağlayacak şekilde uyarlamaları gerekmektedir (European Commission, 2017). Bunu başarmanın bir yolu göçmen öğrencilere sürdürülebilir ve kapsayıcı dil desteği sağlamaktır. Bu bağlamda Almanya, 50 yılı aşkın göç deneyimine rağmen Almanca öğretimi konusunda "gelişmiş bir ülke olmaktan ziyade gelişmekte olan bir ülke" olmakla eleştirilmektedir (Ellis vd., 2010, s. 446). Türkiye’de ise yeni gelen ve çoğunluğu Suriyeli mülteci öğrencilerden oluşan gruba yönelik dil hizmetleri, Geçici Eğitim Merkezlerindeki sınırlı Türkçe desteğinden düzenli devam edilen sınıflardaki paralel dil kurslarına ve yetersiz dil becerisine sahip öğrenciler için oluşturulan ayrılaştırılmış uyum sınıflarına evrilerek sürekli değişiklik gösteren bir yaklaşım sergilemektedir.

Literatürün önemli bir kısmı, göçmen öğrencilerin hedef dildeki eksikliğinin sonuçlarını ele almaktadır. Bu durum, dil yeterliği eksikliğinin yeni gelen göçmen öğrenciler için nasıl eşitsizliklere dönüştüğünü önemli ölçüde kanıtlayan Türkiye ve Almanya'daki bilimsel çalışmalar için de geçerlidir; bu eşitsizlikler arasında derslerde daha düşük performans, daha zayıf sosyal uyum ve özellikle Almanya'daki seçici okul sisteminde akademik alanlara daha sınırlı geçiş olarak ortaya konmuştur. Son yıllarda, sınırlı sayıda da olsa, Türkiye'deki mülteci öğrencilerle ilgili literatürde öğrencilerin güçlü yanlarına odaklanıp varlık temelli yaklaşımı vurgulayan ve bu stratejiyi araştırma tasarımlarına dahil eden bir eğilim söz konusudur (Erdemir, 2022a, 2022b; Karşlı Çalamak ve Erdemir, 2019). Almanya'da ise yeni göç eden öğrencilerin dil eğitimi üzerine yapılan araştırmalar hala *sınırlı* (Panagiotopoulou ve Rosen, 2018) olmakla birlikte gerçekleştirilen ilk çalışmalar çok dilliliğe yönelik kısıtlayıcı bir yaklaşıma ve ikinci dil olarak Almanca öğrenimi için yetersiz desteğe işaret etmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı eğitim dili tek olan sistemlerdeki yeni göç eden öğrencilere sunulan dil desteği organizasyonunu incelemek ve öğrencilerin dil yeterliğini belirleyen bağlamsal faktörleri ortaya çıkarmaktır. İstanbul ve Hamburg örnek bağlamlar olarak ele alınmış olup orta okul seviyesindeki öğrencilere odaklanılmıştır. Türk ve Alman eğitim sistemlerindeki tek dilli yaklaşım ve son on yılda yüksek sayıdaki yeni göç eden öğrenciyi eğitim sistemlerine dahil etme durumu bu

çalışmadaki *tertium comparationis*'i (karşılaştırma için ortak bir zemin) oluşturmaktadır.

Bronfenbrenner'ın (1974, 1976, 1994) *Ekolojik Sistemler Teorisi*, nitel aşamalarda mikro sistemlerden makro sistemlere kadar dil öğrenimini şekillendiren bileşenleri anlamak ve nicel aşamalarda ortaya çıkan değişkenlerin öğrencilerin dil yeterlikleriyle nasıl ilişkili olduğunu test etmek için temel bir teorik çerçeve olarak kullanılmıştır. Bu amaçla aşağıdaki araştırma sonuçlarına yanıtlar aranmıştır:

1. Göçle ilgili hangi bireysel özellikler yeni göç eden öğrencilerin sınıf ortamında hedef dili öğrenmelerini şekillendirmektedir?
2. Tek dilli okul bağlamlarında yeni göç eden öğrencilere sunulan dil desteği organizasyonunun temel özellikleri nelerdir?
3. Göçle ilgili bireysel özellikler, aile ortamı ve resmi öğrenme ortamı yeni göç eden öğrencilerin kendi bildirdikleri hedef dil yeterliklerini ne kadar iyi yordamaktadır?
4. Ailelerin eğitime katılımı ile yeni göç eden öğrencilerin hedef dil yeterlikleri arasındaki ilişki, aile üyelerinin hedef dil yeterlikleri farklılaştığında değişiklik göstermekte midir?
5. Ailenin eğitime katılımı ile yeni göç eden öğrencilerin hedef dil yeterliği arasındaki ilişki, ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyi farklılaştığında değişir mi?
6. İstanbul ve Hamburg'daki nitel ve nicel bulgular, hedef dil öğrenimi ve bunu etkileyen bağlamsal faktörlerin daha iyi anlaşılmasını sağlamak için nasıl bir araya gelmektedir?

Bu çalışmanın ana önemi, hedef dil öğreniminin organizasyonu ve yeni göç eden öğrencilerin dil yeterliklerini belirleyen bağlamsal faktörler hakkında karşılaştırmalı veri sağlamasıdır. Bu perspektifi ilk sığınma ve geçiş ülkesi olarak değerlendirilen Türkiye ve yeniden yerleştirme ve 1960'lardan bu yana ekonomik göçmenler için tercih edilen ülke olan Almanya gibi mültecilerin ve gönüllü göçmenlerin iki olası geleceği üzerine sunmaktadır (Castles vd., 2014).

Bu çalışma araştırma yaklaşımı açısından da önem taşımaktadır. Eş zamanlı karma yöntem desenini karşılaştırmalı araştırma metodolojisiyle kesiştirerek yeni kompleks

bir araştırma tasarımı önermektedir. Bronfenbrenner'in teorisi merkeze alınarak, karşılaştırmalı ve uluslararası eğitim alanında yeni göç eden öğrencilerin eğitimine ilişkin önceki araştırmalara katkıda bulunmaktadır.

Yöntem

Bu çalışmada eş zamanlı karma yöntem araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır (Creswell ve Plano Clark, 2018). Nitel ve nicel aşamalar eşit öneme sahip olup ortaya çıkan bulgular dil öğrenim süreçlerinin detaylandırılmasına ve farklı boyutlarıyla anlaşılmasına olanak sağlamaktadır. İstanbul ve Hamburg, hedef dil öğretme ve öğrenme süreçlerini karşılaştırmak için örnek vakaları temsil etmektedir. Nitel araştırma aşamasında çoklu durum çalışması tasarımı kullanılarak ayrıntılı ve derinlemesine veri toplama yoluyla bütünsel bir şekilde hedef dil öğrenim süreçleri araştırılmıştır (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2018). Nicel aşamada ise bağıntısal araştırma yöntemiyle (Fraenkel vd., 2015) herhangi bir değişkeni manipüle etmeden öğrencilerin yakın çevrelerindeki (kişisel, ailevi ve sınıf) değişkenler ile hedef dil yeterlikleri (Türkçe/Almanca) arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir.

Nitel görüşme verileri iki farklı grup katılımcıdan elde edilmiştir: İstanbul (55 katılımcı) ve Hamburg (22 katılımcı). Katılımcılar amaçlı örneklem ve maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme (Miles ve Huberman, 1994) (Miles & Huberman, 1994) kullanılarak her iki bağlamda yüksek sayıda göçmen öğrenciye sahip okullardan seçilmiştir. Görüşmeler İstanbul'da Suriyeli mülteci öğrenciler (22 katılımcı), ebeveynleri (6 katılımcı), öğretmenler (15 katılımcı), okul yöneticileri (10 katılımcı) ve kilit kişiler (2 katılımcı) ile yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme formları aracılığıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Benzer şekilde, Hamburg'daki görüşmeler Almanca dil eğitim programları – yani Uluslararası Hazırlık Sınıfları – hakkında deneyimlerini ve görüşlerini paylaşmaları amacıyla yeni göç etmiş öğrenciler (6 katılımcı), ebeveynleri (3 katılımcı), öğretmenler (6 katılımcı) ve kilit katılımcılarla (7 katılımcı) yapılmıştır. Görüşme verilerine ek olarak, İstanbul ve Hamburg'daki amaçlı bir şekilde seçilmiş olan Türkçe ve Almanca dil destek sınıflarında gözlemler gerçekleştirilmiştir. İstanbul'daki okullar Sultanbeyli ve Sancaktepe ilçelerinde yer alırken, Hamburg'da ise Mitte bölgesindeki tek bir okula odaklanılmıştır. Toplamda İstanbul'da 21 saat ve Hamburg'da 12 saat gözlem verisi elde edilmiştir. Tüm

katılımcı gruplarında yeni bilgi elde edinilmeyene kadar belirlenen örneklemelerden veriler toplanmıştır. Diğer bir deyişle Lincoln ve Guba'nın (1985) önerdiği gibi nitel aşamada katılımcı sayısı belirlenirken bulguların tekrar etmeye başladığı aşama temel kriter olmuştur. Nitel verilerin geçerlik ve güvenilirliği Lincoln ve Guba'nın (1985) stratejileri takip edilerek uzun süreli etkileşim, veri kaynağı çeşitlenmesi, ayrıntılı betimleme, saha çalışmasının uzmanlar tarafından incelenmesi ve veri toplama ve analiz süreçlerinde tutulan reflektif analitik sesli ve yazılı notlar aracılığıyla sağlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın nicel aşamasında altı örneklem kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar İstanbul ve Hamburg'a yeni göç eden öğrenciler arasından kriter ve kartopu örnekleme yöntemleri bir arada kullanılarak seçilmiştir. Dört Pilot Örneklem nicel veri toplama araçlarının geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmasında kullanılmıştır. Pilot Örneklem 1 (5 katılımcı), anketteki maddelerin anlaşılabilirliğini değerlendirmek amacıyla yeni göç eden öğrencilerle bilişsel görüşmeler yapmak için kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar, İstanbul'un Sancaktepe ilçesindeki bir ortaokula devam eden Suriyeli öğrenciler arasından seçilmiştir. Pilot Örneklem 2 (140 katılımcı, İstanbul), Pilot Örneklem 3 (397 katılımcı, İstanbul) ve Pilot Örneklem 4 (138 katılımcı ve 141 katılımcı, Hamburg) öğrencilerin sınıf öğrenme ortamı ve ailenin eğitime katılımı deneyimlerinin ölçülmesinde kullanılan ölçeklerin geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmasında kullanılmıştır. Örneklem 1 (245 katılımcı, İstanbul) ve Örneklem 2 (189 katılımcı, Hamburg) çalışmanın nicel araştırma sorularını cevaplandıran temel veri setini oluşturur. Bu örneklem, İstanbul ve Hamburg'daki ortaokullara kayıtlı olan ve araştırmadan en geç altı yıl önce Türkiye'ye ve Almanya'ya gelmiş olan yeni göçmen öğrencileri kapsamaktadır. Katılımcılar bağlamsal faktörler ile öğrencilerin dil yeterliği arasındaki ilişkiyi daha iyi anlamak için hedef ülkede geçirilen süre tanımlanmış bir eşik değerle sınırlandırılarak seçilmiştir. İstanbul'daki katılımcılar daha homojen bir etnik geçmişe sahip olup, %91'i (222 katılımcı) Suriye doğumlu öğrencilerdir. Hamburg'daki katılımcıların sadece %28,1'i (54 katılımcı) Suriye doğumlu öğrencileri içermekte olup geri kalanı Hamburg'daki etnik çeşitliliği yansıtabilecek şekilde 35 farklı ülkeden gelen öğrencileri kapsamaktadır. Katılımcılar İstanbul'daki genel ortaokullar (%57,1, 140 katılımcı) ve imam-hatip ortaokulları (%42,9, 103 katılımcı) arasında dengeli bir dağılım göstermektedir. Hamburg örnekleminde ise katılımcıların çoğunluğu (%83,6, 158 katılımcı) genel ortaokullara

kayıtlıyken sadece %15,9'u (30 katılımcı) akademik ağırlıklı ortaokullara (Gymnasium) devam etmektedir. Nicel veriler İstanbul'da çevrimiçi olarak ve Hamburg'da sınıf ortamında yüz yüze toplanmıştır.

Nicel veriler, göçle ilgili bireysel özellikler, aile ortamı ve örgün öğrenme ortamına ilişkin nitel bulgularla uyumlu bir dizi göstergeyi içeren bir anket aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Ek olarak çalışmada bağımlı değişken olarak kullanılan dil yeterliğini ölçmek üzere öğrencilerin kendi beyanına dayanan bir soru da yer almaktadır. Göçle ilgili bireysel özelliklere ilişkin değişkenler öğrencinin göç yaşı, göç edilen ülkede kalış süresi (yıl olarak), göç edilen ülkede ilkokula devam etme durumu ve öğrencinin ana dil yeterliğini içermektedir. Aile ortamı, aile üyelerinin hedef dil yeterliğini ve öğrencinin eğitimine katılımlarını ölçen değişkenlerden oluşmaktadır. Aile üyelerinin hedef dil yeterlikleri ölçülürken öğrencilerden anne, baba ve kardeş(ler)inin Türkçe/Almanca dört temel beceride (okuma, dinleme, konuşma ve yazma) ne kadar iyi performans gösterdiklerini bildirmeleri istenmiştir. *Aile Katılım Ölçeği* bu çalışma kapsamında yeni göç eden öğrencilerin kendi algılarına göre eğitim süreçlerine aile katılımının derecesini ölçmek için geliştirilmiştir. Bu ölçek “evde kolaylaştırıcı ortam oluşturma”, “okulla etkileşim” ve “okulla ilgili görevlere katılım” olmak üzere üç boyuttan oluşup Hoover-Dempsey ve diğerlerinin (2001) ailenin ödev yapma sürecini değerlendiren kapsamlı derleme çalışmasına dayanmaktadır. Öngörülen üçlü faktör yapısının geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması açıklayıcı ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizleriyle gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Yeni göç eden öğrencilerin dil öğretimine ve kullanımına maruz kaldıkları düzenli devam ettikleri sınıflardaki ve dil destek sınıflarındaki yüz yüze öğrenme ortamı “öğretmen desteği”, “öğrenciler arasında iş birliği” ve “sınıfta eşitlik” boyutlarına odaklanan *Sınıf İçi Öğrenme Ortamı Ölçeği* (Classroom Learning Environment Scale [CLES]) aracılığıyla ölçülmüştür. Bu çalışma kapsamında uyarlanan bu ölçek, Fraser ve diğerleri (1996) tarafından geliştirilen ve Türkçe'ye Telli ve diğerleri (2006) tarafından aktarılan “Bu Sınıfta Ne Oluyor?” (What Is Happening In This Classroom? [WIHIC]) ölçeğindeki bazı boyutlar seçilerek oluşturulmuştur. Öğrencilerin COVID-19 salgını sırasında İstanbul'daki öğrenme deneyimlerini de değerlendirmek için aynı boyutlar korunarak CLES üzerinde küçük değişiklikler yapılarak uzaktan eğitim ortamındaki öğretmen desteği, öğrenciler arası iş birliği ve

eşitlikçi ortam ölçülmüştür. Uyarlanan bu ölçekler için açılımlayıcı ve doğrulayıcı faktör analizleriyle önerilen üçlü faktör yapıları doğrulanmıştır.

Nitel analiz, Creswell'in (2015) altı adımlı analitik stratejisinden yararlanılarak veri toplama süreciyle eş zamanlı olarak yürütülmüştür. Elde edilen veriler sürekli analiz edilip gerektiği durumlarda yeni veri toplama stratejisi geliştirilerek temaları, kategorileri ve örüntüleri keşfetmek için tümevarımsal (Patton, 2002) ve yinelemeli bir analiz yöntemi izlenmiştir (Creswell, 2015). Nicel aşamada ise öğrencilerin kendi bildirdikleri dil yeterlikleriyle bağlamsal değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya çıkarmak için hiyerarşik regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Düzenleyici doğrusal regresyon (moderated linear regression) aracılığıyla aile üyelerinin hedef dil yeterlikleri, ebeveynin eğitim düzeyi ve ailenin eğitime katılımı arasındaki etkileşimin öğrencinin hedef dil yeterliğini ne düzeyde etkilediği incelenmiştir.

Bulgular

Yeni Göç Etmiş Öğrencilere Sunulan Dil Desteğinin Ekolojisi

Görüşme verilerine ve sınıf gözlemlerine dayanan nitel bulgular, İstanbul ve Hamburg'a yeni göç eden öğrencilere sunulan dil destek programlarının ekolojisini Bronfenbrenner'ın bireysel öğrenci özelliklerinden makro düzeydeki etkilere uzanan iç içe geçmiş yapısını yansıtacak şekilde ortaya konmuştur (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bronfenbrenner ve Morris, 2006). Öğrencilerin bireysel özellikleri, dil desteği ekolojisinin merkezinde yer almaktadır. Her öğrencinin kendine özgü özellikleri ve ihtiyaçlarının yanı sıra, yeni göç eden öğrencilerin göçle beraber getirdikleri ek bireysel özellikleri olduğu nitel bulgularla tespit edilmiştir. Göçle ilgili bu bireysel özellikler dil programlarının uygulanmasında zorluklara yol açmaktadır. Vertovec'in (2007) tek bir sosyal alanda kesişen etnik, kültürel ve sosyal grupları tanımlamak için başvurduğu *çok çeşitlilik (super-diversity)* kavramından yola çıkılarak, bu terim dil öğretim sınıflarındaki yeni göç eden öğrencileri tanımlamak için uyarlanmıştır. Çok çeşitliliğe sahip öğrenciler göç yolculukları, önceki eğitimleri ve akademik başarıları, sosyal ağ özellikleri ve dil yeterlikleri açısından önemli farklılıklar sergilemektedir.

Mikrosistem, öğrencilerin dil destek programlarında ve düzenli devam ettikleri sınıflardaki hedef dil öğrenimine maruz kaldıkları resmi öğrenme ortamlarını kapsamaktadır. Bu sistemle ilgili nitel bulgular resmi öğrenme ortamlarının öğrencilerin dil ihtiyaçlarını karşılamakta ne ölçüde hazır olduğunu incelemiştir. İstanbul'daki okulların genel alt yapısının öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarının çok gerisinde olduğu gözlemlenmektedir. İlçeler arasındaki farklılıkların yanı sıra, okulların altyapısı aynı ilçe içinde de farklılıklar göstermektedir. Yüksek orandaki öğretmen hareketliliği ve öğretmen kadrosunun önemli bir kısmının kısa süreli sözleşmeli öğretmenlerden oluşması okulların dezavantajlı durumlarını pekiştiren unsurlar olarak belirtilmiştir. Okulların genel öğrenci profili kronik devamsızlık sergileyen, zayıf Türkçe okuryazarlığına sahip, çocuk işçiliği ve çocuk evliliğinden müzdarip ve düşük akademik başarı gösteren risk altındaki öğrencileri içermektedir. Tüm olumsuz şartlara rağmen, öğretmenler ve okul yöneticileriyle yapılan görüşmeler okulların dirençli yapısını ortaya koyarak yapısal ve pratik zorlukların üstesinden gelmek için kendi başlarına çözümler geliştirmeye çalıştıklarını göstermiştir. Hamburg'da ise İstanbul'la karşılaştırıldığında okullar donanım açısından daha avantajlı duruma sahiptirler. Yine de çoğu durumda okulların durumları dil eğitimi için özel bir sınıf tasarımlarına olanak vermemektedir. İstanbul'dan farklı olarak, bağlamsal kısıtların etkisini hafifletmek için göçmen öğrenci sayısının yüksek olduğu okullara kaynak aktarımında pozitif ayrımcılık yaparak şartlarının iyileştirilmeye çalışıldığı gözlemlenmiştir.

Öğrencilerin çok çeşitlilik gösteren kişisel özellikleri sınıf içi dinamikleri ve öğrenciler arasındaki etkileşimin niteliğini şekillendirmede önemli bir role sahiptir. Çoğunlukla kız öğrencileri dezavantajlı duruma düşüren toplumsal cinsiyet normlarındaki farklılıklar, sınıf içi dinamikleri etkileyen ilk örüntü olmuştur. Hamburg'da kız ve erkek çocuklar arasındaki cinsiyete dayalı eşitsizlik İstanbul'a kıyasla daha az belirgindir. İkinci olarak, öğrencilerin kültürel geçmişlerinden ve farklı dil yeterlik düzeylerinden kaynaklanan çatışmalar hem düzenli devam ettikleri sınıflarda hem de dil sınıflarında yinelenen bir örüntü olarak gözlemlenmiştir. Bu çatışma durumu, İstanbul'da yeni göç eden öğrencilerin dahil edilmesiyle daha heterojen bir kimliğe kavuşan yerel ve göçmen öğrencilerin bir arada olduğu düzenli sınıflarda daha fazla dile getirilmektedir. Hamburg'da ise sınıf içi çatışma ilk olarak

farklı sosyo-ekonomik düzeye ve göç geçmişine sahip öğrencilerin bir arada olduğu dil eğitim programlarında ortaya çıkmaktadır. Son olarak, İstanbul'da düzenli sınıflara devam eden bazı yeni göç etmiş öğrenciler ve Hamburg'da ise uluslararası hazırlık sınıflarına devam edenler etnik kökenleri ve sınırlı dil yeterlikleri nedeniyle zaman zaman sosyal dışlanmaya maruz kaldıklarını bildirmişlerdir.

Öğrencilerin dil öğrenim sürecinin ikinci önemli bileşeni olarak öğrenme deneyimleri üzerinde durulmuştur. Öğrenme deneyimini şekillendiren ilk unsur olan öğretmen desteğine ilişkin örüntü, yeni göç eden öğrenciler ve öğretmenler arasındaki dil engelinin dil öğretim sürecinin etkisini azalttığına işaret etmektedir. Dil engeli nedeniyle öğrencilerin derse katılımını arttıracak önemli fırsatların kaçırıldığı gözlemlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin dersten koptuğu bu anların öğretmenler tarafından gözden kaçırıldığı öne çıkan bulgular arasındadır. Özellikle Hamburg'da göçmen kökenli öğretmenlerin varlığı öğrencilere sunulan destek mekanizmalarını daha işlevsel hale getirmektedir.

Dil sınıflarındaki öğretim stratejileri hem İstanbul'da hem de Hamburg'da baskın şekilde bireysel öğrenci çalışması ve zaman zaman gerçekleştirilen rasgele planlanmış ikili çalışma şeklinde ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Ek desteğe ihtiyaç duyan öğrenciler için bireyselleştirilmiş öğretimle birlikte farklılaştırılmış öğretim ihtiyacı belirgindir. Öğrencilerin ayırt edici özellikleri arasında yer alan farklı dil repertuarları ve kültürleri, ortaya çıkan çok seviyeli sınıfların zorluklarını aşmak için etkin araçlardan biri olarak kullanılabilirken, öğrencilerin ana dillerinin ve kültürlerinin yüzeysel ve rasgele dahil edilmesi her iki bağlamda da bu fırsattan hedef dil öğretiminde yeterince yararlanılmadığını göstermiştir.

Mezosistem, öğrencilerin hedef dil öğrenimi ve okul-aile iş birliği arasındaki ilişkinin bileşenleri olarak üç temel açık belirlemiştir: algı açığı, dil açığı ve bilgi açığı. Algı açığı, yeni göç eden ailelere yönelik okul ortamlarında var olan dışlayıcı algıyı tasvir etmektedir. Dil açığı, ebeveynlerin kısıtlı hedef dil yeterliğini ve okullarla iletişimlerini sağlamak için sunulan olanakları ve sınırlılıkları aktarmaktadır. Son olarak bilgi açığı ebeveynlerin hedef ülke eğitim sistemine ilişkin anlayış ve farkındalık eksikliğine atıfta bulunarak bilginin eşitsiz dağıtımına ve kullanımına vurgu yapmaktadır.

Ekzosistem, dil eğitimi yönetişimine odaklanarak öğrencilerin kendilerinin dahil olmadığı ama onların dil öğrenimi üzerinde etkili olan süreçlerin çıktılarını aktarmaktadır. Nitel bulgular, dil eğitiminin yönetişiminin birbiriyle ilişkili üç ana bileşenden oluştuğunu göstermektedir: politika oluşturma, eğitim programları girdisi ve ölçme ve değerlendirme.

Politika oluşturma, İstanbul ve Hamburg'daki dil eğitimi programlarında etkili olan politikaların geliştirilmesi ve uygulanması süreciyle ilişkilidir. Bulgular, İstanbul'daki yukarıdan aşağıya karar alma mekanizması ile Hamburg'daki görece eş güdümlü yürütülen yaklaşımı karşılaştırmıştır. Dil programları tasarımlarıyla ilgili olarak her iki bağlamda da ayrılmış (segregated) modellere ilişkin farklı bakış açıları söz konusudur. Eğitim programı geliştirme sürecinde bağlayıcı bir çerçevenin eksikliği hem İstanbul'da hem de Hamburg'da dil öğretiminin çoğunlukla geçici ders planları etrafında şekillenmesine yol açmaktadır. Bu bulgular ışığında öğretmenlerin her iki bağlamda da yetersiz yönlendirme sonucu çoğunlukla kendi başlarına karar almak zorunda oldukları ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu durum dil destek sınıflarının niteliğinin önemli ölçüde okulun kaynakları ve öğretmenlerin bireysel çabalarıyla ilişkili olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

İkinci bileşen olan dil eğitim programlarının girdisiyle ilgili olarak üç önemli unsur üzerinde durulmuştur. Bunlar öğretmenlerin statüleri ve profesyonel bilgileri, ders kaynaklarına erişim ve gündelik dil becerisinden akademik dil edinimine uzanan öğretim çıktıları olarak belirlenmiştir. Öğretmenlerin kariyer yolculuklarının İstanbul ve Hamburg'da benzerlik gösterdiği ancak statülerinin önemli ölçüde farklılaştığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Hamburg'da dil destek sınıfında görev alan öğretmenler mesleki açıdan daha güvenli ve öngörülebilir şartlara sahiptir. Bununla birlikte her iki bağlam öğretmenlerin dil öğretimi dışında farklı alan bilgisi ve mesleki geçmişlere sahip olmaları konusunda ortaklaşmaktadır. İstanbul'da dil destek programlarında çalışan dil öğretmenlerin genellikle psikolojik danışmanlık, ilköğretim ya da en iyi ihtimalle Türk dili ve edebiyatı gibi alanlarda lisans eğitimi almış kişilerden oluştuğu gözlenmiştir. Farklı eğitim geçmişine sahip bu dil öğretmenleri özelleştirilmiş profesyonel desteğe ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Dil eğitim programının ikinci önemli girdisini ders kaynakları oluşturmaktadır. İstanbul'daki öğretmenler, başta Türkçe eğitimi için özel olarak tasarlanmış ders kitapları olmak üzere kaynaklara erişimde

önemli zorluklarla karşılaşmıştır. Her ne kadar eleştirilere maruz kalsa da Almanca'nın ikinci dil olarak uzun yıllardır öğretiliyor olması ve ekonomik olanakların yeterliliği Hamburg'daki dil eğitim programlarında çeşitli kaynaklara erişimi kolaylaştırmaktadır. Erişimde yaşanan sıkıntının yanı sıra ders kaynakları ve öğrencilerin dil ihtiyaçları arasındaki uyumsuzluk İstanbul'da dil öğretmenlerinin şikayet ettikleri konulardan birisini oluşturmaktadır. Öğrenme çıktıları, öğretim sürecine rehberlik etmek için bir çerçeve görevi sağlayan eğitim programının önemli bir bileşenidir. Çok seviyeli sınıflar ve alt yapı eksikliği gibi çeşitli zorluklar göz önüne alındığında, dil programlarının pragmatik bir yaklaşım sergiledikleri ortaya konmuştur. Bu bağlamda, öğrencilerin akademik dil becerisi ihtiyaçlarına vurgu yapılmasına rağmen dil eğitim programlarının bunu gerçekleştirilmesi zor bir hedef olarak değerlendirip öğrenme çıtasını öğrencileri gündelik dil kazanımlarıyla donatmak üzere belirlediklerini göstermektedir.

Dil eğitimi yönetişiminin son bileşeni ölçme ve değerlendirme süreçlerini içermektedir. Öğrencilerin dil eğitim programlarına giriş süreçlerindeki uygulamalara, öğrenci ilerlemesini nasıl değerlendirildiğine ve dil eğitim programlarından düzenli devam edecekleri sınıfa geçiş aşamasının nasıl planlandığına odaklanılmaktadır.

Makrosistemde, dil eğitim programlarının organizasyonu ve hedef ülkelerin dokusunu oluşturan temel özellikleri arasında ilişki kurulmuştur. En üst çerçeve yapıyı oluşturan bu sistemdeki bulgular ekonomik kaynakların durumu, entegrasyon yaklaşımı ve eğitim sistemlerinin işleyişi aracılığıyla diğer tüm alt sistemlere nüfuz etmektedir. İstanbul ve Hamburg'daki ekonomik kaynaklar, hedef bağlamların ilk ayırt edici özelliğidir. Kaynakların sınırlı olması İstanbul bağlamını tanımlayan bir özellik olarak işaret edilirken, Hamburg ekonomik olanakların yeterli olmasıyla öne çıkmaktadır. Ekonomik kaynaklardaki bu keskin farklılıklar, eğitim kurumlarına ve dil programlarının organizasyonuna da yansımıştır. Entegrasyon yaklaşımı, yeni gelen göçmenlerin Türkiye ve Almanya toplumlarına dahil edilme sürecini şekillendiren sosyal, kültürel ve kurumsal bağlama odaklanmaktadır. Türkiye'deki entegrasyon sürecini kısa vadeli ve geçici kararların yönlendirdiği vurgulanmıştır. Almanya'da ise her ne kadar çözüm odaklı ve toplumdaki çeşitliliği teşvik etme amacıyla farkındalığı yüksek kararlı politikalar görünürde olsa da yapılan görüşmeler

kapsayıcı bir topluma ulaşmak için kat edilmesi gereken uzun bir mesafe olduğuna işaret etmektedir. Türkiye ve Almanya, eğitim faaliyetlerinin organizasyonunu ve yönetimini etkileyen farklı eğitim sistemlerine sahiptir. Tek dilli habitus her iki eğitim sisteminin de belirleyici özelliği olarak öne çıkmaktadır. Tek dilin baskınlığının yanı sıra Türkiye'deki merkezi eğitim sistemi karar alma süreçlerinin her aşamasında etkili olmaktadır. Diğer yandan Almanya'daki merkezi olmayan eğitim sisteminin etkisi ise makro düzeydeki aktörlerden mikro düzeydeki uygulamalara kadar her alanda esnek uygulamalar şeklinde kendini göstermektedir.

Bağlamsal Faktörlerin Hedef Dil Üzerindeki Etkisi

Çalışmanın nicel aşamasında bireysel özelliklerden aile ortamı ve resmi öğrenme ortamına kadar uzanan bir dizi bağlamsal değişken ve hedef dil yeterliği arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Hiyerarşik regresyon modelleri aracılığıyla her ortamın öğrencilerin Türkçe ve Almanca dil yeterliğine olan tekil katkısı ortaya konmuştur.

Göçle İlişkili Bireysel Özelliklerin Hedef Dil Üzerindeki Etkisi

Nicel bulgular hedef ülkede kalış süresinin hem İstanbul'da ($\beta = .25, p < .01, sr^2 = .042$) hem de Hamburg'da ($\beta = .36, p < .001, sr^2 = .070$) hedef dil yeterliği üzerinde anlamlı ve olumlu bir etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu pozitif ilişki İstanbul'da açıklanan varyansın %4,2'sini, Hamburg'da ise %7'sini temsil etmekte olup, öğrenciler hedef ülkede ne kadar uzun süre kalmışlarsa, hedef dildeki yeterliklerinin de o kadar yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir.

Hedef ülkede ilkokul eğitimine devam etmiş olmak, İstanbul'da varyansın %2,2'sini açıklayarak ($\beta = .17, p < .05, sr^2 = .022$) hedef dil yeterliğini anlamlı bir şekilde yordarken, Hamburg'da istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir sonuç üretmemiştir ($\beta = -.07, p > .05, sr^2 = .003$).

Öğrencinin ana dilinden hedef dile transfer etkisi her iki bağlamda da önemli bir bulgu olarak gözlemlenmiştir. Ana dil yeterliğinin hedef dil edinimi üzerindeki etkisi hem İstanbul'da ($\beta = .20, p < .01, sr^2 = .034$) hem de Hamburg'da ($\beta = .17, p < .05, sr^2 = .024$) anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişkiye işaret etmektedir. Diller arasındaki bu

transfer etkisi İstanbul'daki varyansın %3,4'ünü, Hamburg'da ise %2,4'ünü açıklamaktadır.

Bu çalışmada iddia edilen hipotezin aksine, öğrencinin göç yaşı ne İstanbul'da ($\beta = .07, p > .05$) ne de Hamburg'da ($\beta = -.09, p > .05$) hedef dil yeterliğini anlamlı bir şekilde yordamamaktadır.

Genel olarak, göçle ilgili bireysel özellikler bir bütün olarak hedef dil yeterliğini yordarken anlamlı sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. İstanbul'da öğrencilerin Türkçe yeterliğindeki varyansın %14,2'sini ($F(4, 237) = 10.40, p < .001, \chi^2 = .142$) Hamburg'da ise varyansın %13,5'ini ($F(4, 179) = 7.59, p < .001, \chi^2 = .135$) öğrencilerin göçle ilgili bireysel özellikleri açıklamaktadır.

Aile Ortamının Hedef Dil Üzerindeki Etkisi

Bulgular, anne ve kardeşlerin hedef dil yeterliklerinin, öğrencinin hem İstanbul hem de Hamburg'daki hedef dil yeterliğini anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığını ortaya koymuştur. Ancak, babanın hedef dil yeterliği sonuç değişkeni üzerinde anlamlı bir etkiye sahip değildir.

Özellikle annenin hedef dil yeterliği İstanbul ($\beta = .21, p < .01, sr^2 = .028$) ve Hamburg'da ($\beta = .19, p < .05, sr^2 = .026$) sırasıyla varyansın %2,8 ve %2,6'sını açıklayan önemli yordayıcı değişkenlerdir. Benzer şekilde kardeşin hedef dil yeterliği hem İstanbul'da ($\beta = .38, p < .001, sr^2 = .113$) hem de Hamburg'da ($\beta = .24, p < .01, sr^2 = .042$) benzer bir pozitif ilişki örüntüsü sergilemiştir. İstanbul'da %11,3 ve Hamburg'da %4,2 ile sonuç değişkenindeki varyansın önemli bir kısmını açıklamaktadır.

Ailenin eğitime katılımı evde kolaylaştırıcı ortam oluşturma, okulla etkileşim ve okulla ilgili görevlere katılım boyutlarını kapsayan göstergeler öğrencinin hedef dil yeterliğini yordayan unsurlar olarak incelenmiştir. Ancak, bu faktörlerin hiçbiri her iki bağlamda aşağıda özetlendiği gibi anlamlı yordayıcılar olarak bulunmamıştır:

- Evde kolaylaştırıcı ortam oluşturma: $\beta = .02, p > .05$, İstanbul ve $\beta = -.11, p > .05$, Hamburg.

- Okulla etkileşim: $\beta = -.13, p > .05$ İstanbul ve $\beta = .09, p > .05$, Hamburg.
- Okulla ilgili görevlere katılım: $\beta = -.03, p > .05$, İstanbul ve $\beta = -.05, p > .05$, Hamburg.

Ailenin eğitime katılımı kendi başına istatistiksel olarak anlamlı sonuçlar vermese de, bir bütün olarak aile bağlamı ele alındığında hedef dil yeterliğini yordamada anlamlı sonuçlar üretmiştir. İstanbul'da varyansın %19,6'sını ($F(6, 231) = 12.23, p < .001, \chi^2 = .196$) açıklarken Hamburg'da ise %8,5'ine karşılık gelmektedir ($F(6, 173) = 3.46, p < .01, \chi^2 = .085$).

Resmi Öğrenme Ortamının Hedef Dil Üzerindeki Etkisi

Bulgular, ne sınıf içi öğrenme ortamının ne de uzaktan öğrenme ortamının, her iki bağlamda da öğrencinin hedef dil yeterliğini anlamlı bir şekilde yordamadığını göstermiştir. İstatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmayan bulgular aşağıdaki gibi özetlenmektedir:

Sınıf içi öğrenme ortamı:

- Öğretmen desteği: $\beta = .09, p > .05$, İstanbul ve $\beta = -.03, p > .05$, Hamburg.
- Öğrenciler arası iş birliği: $\beta = .01, p > .05$, İstanbul ve $\beta = .02, p > .05$, Hamburg.
- Sınıfta eşitlik: $\beta = -.03, p > .05$, İstanbul and $\beta = .13, p > .05$, Hamburg.

Uzaktan eğitim ortamı (sadece İstanbul):

- Uzaktan öğretmen desteği: $\beta = -.01, p > .05$.
- Öğrenciler arası uzaktan iş birliği: $\beta = -.06, p > .05$.
- Uzaktan eğitim ortamında eşitlik: $\beta = .09, p > .05$.

Genel olarak değerlendirildiğinde önerilen bireysel, aile ve resmi öğrenme ortamına ait bağlamsal değişkenleri kapsayan modelin öğrencinin hedef dil yeterliğinde önemli miktarda varyansı açıkladığını göstermiştir. İstanbul'da bağlamsal değişkenler bir bütün olarak varyansın %39,4'ünü açıklarken, Hamburg'da ise %30,0'ını açıklamıştır.

Aile Dil Yeterliđi ve Eđitime Ailenin Katılımının Etkileşim Etkisi

İstanbul'daki nicel bulgular, annenin hedef dil yeterliđi ile ailenin eđitime katılımı örtük boyutları arasında herhangi bir etkileşim etkisi olduđunu göstermemiştir. Ancak Hamburg'da sonuçlar, annenin hedef dil yeterliđi ile evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapıların arasında öğrencinin hedef dil yeterliđini yordayan istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi ($\beta = .15, p < .05$) olduđunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgular, evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapılar ile öğrencinin hedef dil yeterliđi arasındaki ilişkinin, annenin Almanca yeterlik düzeyine bađlı olarak farklılıklar gösterdiđini ortaya koymuştur. Annelerin Almanca yeterliđi düşük olduđunda, evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapılar ile öğrencinin Almanca yeterliliđi arasındaki ilişki azalmıştır.

Buna ek olarak, öğrencinin Almanca yeterliđi ile ailenin okul görevlerine katılımı arasındaki ilişki, annenin Almanca yeterliđine göre farklılık göstermiştir. Ortaya çıkan anlamlı etkileşim ($\beta = .17, p < .05$) okulla ilgili görevlere aile katılımının öğrencinin Almanca yeterliđi üzerindeki etkisinin, anneler yüksek Almanca yeterliđine sahip olduđunda önemli ölçüde arttıđını göstermiştir. Bařka bir deyişle, örneklemdaki yüksek Almanca yeterliđine sahip annelerin, çocuklarının okul görevlerine katılma olasılıđı daha yüksektir ve bunun bir sonucu olarak, çocuklarının hedef dil yeterliđi üzerinde daha büyük bir etki yaratmaktadırlar.

İstanbul örneklemindeki kardeřler daha düşük Türkçe yeterliđine sahip olduđunda, ailenin okulla etkileşiminin öğrencinin Türkçe yeterliđi üzerindeki etkisi keskin bir şekilde azalmıştır. Diđer bir deyişle, bulgular, İstanbul'daki yüksek dil yeterliđine sahip kardeřlerin okullarla daha sıkı etkileşim sürdürerek öğrencinin hedef dil yeterliđine daha fazla katkıda bulunduđunu göstermektedir ($\beta = .17, p < .01$).

Benzer bir örüntü, kardeřin hedef dil yeterliđi ile ailenin okul görevlerine katılımı arasındaki etkileşim etkisi için de gözlemlenmiştir. Ailenin okul görevlerine katılımının öğrencinin Türkçe yeterliđi üzerindeki etkisi, kardeřin hedef dil yeterlik düzeylerine göre farklılık göstermiştir ($\beta = .19, p < .001$). Kardeřlerin Türkçe yeterliđi ne kadar yüksekse, okul görevlerine aile katılımının öğrencinin Türkçe yeterliđi üzerindeki etkisi o kadar fazla olmuştur. Tersine, kardeřlerin Türkçe

yeterliliği düştükçe aile katılımının öğrencinin dil yeterliği üzerindeki etkisi azalmıştır.

Ebeveynlerin Eğitimi ve Eğitime Aile Katılımının Etkileşim Etkisi

Aile hedef dil yeterliğine ek olarak, nitel bulgular, daha yüksek eğitim seviyesine sahip ebeveynlerin, çocuklarının eğitimine aktif olarak katılma eğiliminde oldukları için öğrencinin dil öğrenimini etkileme olasılığının yüksek olduğunu işaret etmiştir. Bulgular, Hamburg örneğinde annenin eğitim düzeyi ile evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapılar arasındaki etkileşim etkisi dışında, her iki bağlamda da annenin eğitim düzeyi ile ailenin eğitime katılımının öğrencinin dil yeterliği üzerinde anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi olduğunu göstermemiştir. İlginç bir şekilde Hamburg örneğindeki annenin eğitim düzeyi ile evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapılar arasındaki etkileşim etkisi ters yönde bir ilişki göstermektedir ($\beta = -.15, p < .05$). Bu durum Hamburg örneğinde annelerin eğitim seviyesi yükseldikçe, evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapıların öğrencinin Almanca dil yeterliği üzerindeki etkisinin azaldığını göstermiştir.

Yine Hamburg örneğinde, babanın eğitim düzeyi ile ailenin eğitime katılımı arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi gözlenmemiştir. Bununla birlikte, İstanbul örneğinde, bulgular babanın eğitim düzeyi ile evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapılar ($\beta = .13, p < .05$) ve ailenin okul görevlerine katılımı ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Babanın eğitim düzeyi arttıkça evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapılar ile öğrencinin dil yeterliği arasındaki ilişki aynı yönde artmaktadır. Babanın eğitim seviyesi düştükçe ise, evdeki kolaylaştırıcı yapıların öğrencinin dil yeterliği üzerindeki etkisi kademeli bir düşüş göstermiştir. Benzer şekilde, babanın eğitim düzeyi arttıkça, ailenin okulla ilgili görevlere katılımı ile öğrencinin Türkçe yeterliği arasındaki ilişki olumlu yönde artış göstermektedir. Başka bir deyişle, eğitim seviyesi yüksek bir babanın okulla ilgili görevlere katılımı, öğrencinin Türkçe dil becerilerini artan bir seyirle olumlu yönde etkilemektedir.

Sonuç olarak, Hamburg örneğinde babanın eğitim düzeyi ile aile katılımının anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi gözlenmezken, İstanbul'daki bulgular babanın eğitim düzeyinin ailenin eğitime katılımını ve bunun öğrencinin dil öğrenimi üzerindeki etkisini şekillendirmedeki önemini vurgulamıştır.

Tartışma ve Sonuç

Sınırlı hedef dil yeterliliğinin doğrudan ve dolaylı etkisine ilişkin literatürdeki geniş kanıtlara rağmen (OECD, 2015; UNESCO, 2018), yeni göç eden öğrenciler için dil öğreniminin nasıl gerçekleştiğine ilişkin önemli bir bilgi boşluğu bulunmaktadır. Hedef ülkelerdeki entegrasyon deneyimi ve mevcut kaynaklar ne olursa olsun, bulgular, hedef dil organizasyonunun karmaşık ve birbiriyle bağlantılı doğasını ortaya koymaktadır; bu durum ister öğrencilerin kendileri ister okullar veya aileler olsun, birincil sorumluluğun tek bir aktöre atfedilmesine şiddetle karşı çıkmaktadır.

Çalışmada ortaya konulan çok çeşitli özelliklere sahip öğrencilerin bir arada bulunduğu çok seviyeli sınıf ortamı dil destek programlarının en önemli ayırt edici özelliğidir. Öğrenciler, varsayılanın aksine göç geçmişlerine atfedilen yekpare özellikleri göstermemektedir. Gruplar arası farklılıklara ek olarak, çeşitli grup içi özellikler de sergilemektedirler. Öğrencilerin farklı göç geçmişlerinden yola çıkarak, bazı zamansal özellikleri, dil eğitimini planlarken ve öğrenciler üzerindeki faydalarını değerlendirirken dikkate alınması gereken önemli unsurlardandır. Dil eğitim programlarını zorlayan bu zamansal özellikler, öğrencinin göç yaşı, düzensiz zamanlarda okullara dahil olması ve hedef ülkede geçirdiği zamanı içermektedir.

Çalışmadaki nicel sonuçlar hem İstanbul hem de Hamburg'da göç yaşı ile hedef dil yeterliği arasında herhangi bir ilişkiye işaret etmemiştir. Bu bulgu, göç yaşı ile dil yeterliği arasında ters yönde bir ilişki olduğu konusunda hemfikir olan önceki çalışmalarla çelişmektedir (Chiswick & Miller, 2001; Espenshade & Fu, 1997; Esser, 2006; Kristen & Seuring, 2021; Long, 1990; van Tubergen, 2010). Bu çalışmadaki nitel bulguları tamamlayıcı olarak, öğrencinin hedef ülkede geçirdiği zaman her iki bağlamda da hedef dil yeterliliğinin önemli bir belirleyicisi olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Olumlu bir ilişkiye işaret ederek öğrencilerin hedef bağlamlarda ne kadar uzun süre kalırlarsa yeterlilik düzeylerin o kadar yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Özellikle, Hamburg'da kalış süresinin Almanca yeterliği üzerinde en güçlü etkiye sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Bu bulgu, göç edilen ülkede geçirilen sürenin dil öğrenimi üzerinde etkili bir faktör olduğunu gösteren önceki çalışmalarla örtüşmektedir (Chiswick & Miller, 2001; Espenshade & Fu, 1997; Kristen & Seuring, 2021).

Yeni göç eden öğrencilerin okullaşma süreçleri önemli farklılıklar göstermektedir. Her iki bağlamda elde edilen bulgular öğrencilerin göçten önceki farklı eğitim geçmişlerine sahip olduğuna dair literatürle tutarlılık göstermektedir. Ancak İstanbul'daki mülteci öğrenciler, göç sonrası süreçte geçici entegrasyon stratejisi nedeniyle farklı okullaşma süreçlerini tecrübe etmeye devam etmişlerdir. Mülteci öğrencilerin okullara dahil edilme süreciyle ilgili kapsayıcı ve öngörülebilir bir sürecin işletilmemesi, öğrencilerin devlet okullarına farklı beceriler ve özellikler getirerek başlamalarına neden olmuştur. İstanbul'daki nicel sonuçlar bu eşitsizliği kanıtlamış ve Türkiye'de ilkokula devam eden mülteci öğrencilerin Türkçe yeterliklerinde avantaj elde ettiklerini göstermiştir. Hamburg'da da öğrencilerin kendi ülkelerindeki eğitim geçmişlerinden kaynaklanan farklılıklar dil eğitimi için önemli bir zorluk oluşturmaktadır, ancak istikrarlı politikalar tutarlı ve ön görülebilir bir eğitim süreci sunarak bu farklılıkların İstanbul'daki kadar derinleşmediği gözlemlenmiştir. Bu bağlamda hedef ülkede ilkokula gitmenin Almanca yeterliğinin önemli bir yordayıcısı olmadığı ortaya çıkarılmıştır.

Çalışma, yeni göç eden öğrencilerin kendi etnik gruplarıyla daha fazla zaman geçirme eğiliminde olduğu ve bunun da hedef dile maruz kalmayı azalttığı yönündeki argümana karşı kanıtlar sunmaktadır. Bu durum bazı öğrenciler için geçerli olsa da bu çalışmaya katılan öğrencilerin sosyal ağları farklı etkileşimleri içeren bir yapıya sahiptir. Öğrencilerin, hedef dillerini geliştirmek ve böylece etnik kökenleri nedeniyle oluşabilecek dezavantajlardan kaçınmak için bilinçli kararlar verebildiği ve farklı etnik kökene sahip öğrencilerle bağlantı kurma fırsatlarını değerlendirdikleri gözlemlenmiştir. Hamburg'da ise toplumun genelinde hakim olan çeşitlilik okul ortamlarına da yansımaktadır. Öğrenme ortamı çok çeşitli etnik kökenleri ve dilleri barındırdığı için dil destek sınıflarındaki öğrencilerin ağırlıklı olarak kendileriyle aynı etnik kökene sahip akranlarıyla etkileşime girmesinin pek olası olmadığı ortaya konmuştur.

Öğrencilerin ana dillerinde ve hedef dillerinde farklı yeterlik seviyelerine sahip olmaları, dil eğitiminde önemli karşılaşılan önemli zorluklardan biridir. İstanbul'da bazı öğrenciler hiçbir dilde okuryazarlığa sahip değilken, kayda değer bir kısmının Türkçe'de temel gündelik dil becerisine sahip olduğu ancak akademik dilde desteğe ihtiyaç duyduğu görülmüştür. Bu bulgu, yeni göç eden öğrenciler için akademik dil

yeterliğinin önemine vurgu yapan önceki çalışmalarla uyumludur (Cummins, 2008). Buna ek olarak, Hamburg'daki dil sınıfları, mülteci öğrencilerin farklı ülkelerde uzun süre kalmaları, çok dilli aile geçmişleri veya çok dilli bir ülkeden gelmeleri nedeniyle çok dilli öğrencileri sıklıkla içermektedir. Bu öğrenciler için, diğer dillerdeki bilişsel ve metalingüistik becerilere sahip olmaları, hedef dil öğrenimini kolaylaştırıcı bir işlev görürken, eksikliği, öğretmenlerin öğretimi farklılaştırma çabalarına rağmen dil öğretim sürecini zorlaştırmaktadır. Metalingüistik becerilerin diller arası aktarımına atfedilen faydalar nicel çalışmada da doğrulanmıştır. Her iki bağlamdaki sonuçlar, ana dil yeterliğinin hedef dil yeterliğinin önemli bir yordayıcısı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgu, iki dilin gelişiminin birbiriyle bağlantılı olduğu hipotezine (linguistic interdependence hypothesis) işaret eden daha önceki çalışmalarla (Cummins, 1979, 2000; Genesee vd., 2006) örtüşmekte olup, birinci dil yeterliğinin ikinci dil öğrenimi için önemli bir araç olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Resmi öğrenme ortamındaki süreçlerle ilgili olarak, İstanbul'da kaynak aktarımı politikalarında sistemik bir sorun gözlemlenmiştir. Bu durum, hedef dil yeterliğine katkıda bulunmayı amaçlayan herhangi bir müdahalenin kapsamını ve etkililiğini kaçınılmaz olarak etkilemektedir. Bulgular, Hamburg'un okullara kaynak aktarımı konusunda eşitlik ve kapsayıcılığı sağlamak için önemli adımlar attığını göstermektedir. Bu durum farklı dilsel ve kültürel geçmişlerden gelen dezavantajlı öğrenciler için okullara özelleştirilmiş destek sunulmasını savunan araştırmalarla ve politikalarla uyumludur.

Özellikle kız öğrencileri dezavantajlı duruma düşüren öğrenciler arasındaki toplumsal cinsiyet normlarındaki farklılıklar dil eğitim sınıflarının iç dinamiğini etkileyen önemli bir unsurdur. Bu olgu, İstanbul'da ağırlıklı olarak dil sınıflarında kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasında sınırlı etkileşim ve bazı ailelerin kız öğrencilerini karma eğitimin verildiği dil destek sınıflarına göndermekte gönülsüz olması şeklinde göstermiştir. İstanbul'daki mültecileri ötekileştiren baskın söylem, Suriyeli mülteciler ve okullar arasındaki ayrışmayı derinleştirmektedir. Hamburg'da ise gözlemlenen anlaşmazlıklar sınıf içindeki öğrencilerin farklı sosyo-ekonomik ve göç geçmişlerine sahip olmalarından kaynaklanmaktadır.

Özellikle öğrencilerin programlara ilk dahil edildikleri dönemde, öğretmenler ve öğrenciler arasındaki dil engeli nedeniyle yapılandırılmış dil eğitiminden istenilen sonuçlara ulaşmayı zorlaştırmaktadır. Özellikle Hamburg’da farklı etnik kimliklere ve dil becerilerine sahip öğrencilerin bir arada bulunduğu dil sınıflarında ortak bir dilin eksikliği öğretmen desteği için önemli bir risk faktörü oluşturmaktadır.

Öğretim faaliyetlerini düzenlemeye yönelik hakim strateji, öğrencilerin öğretmen merkezli bir ortamda bireysel çalışmaya yönlendirilmeleri olarak gözlemlenmiştir. Öğretim faaliyetlerinin grup çalışması etrafında şekillenmesi yüksek ve düşük dil yeterliğine sahip öğrencilerin etkileşimini arttırarak öğretim süresinin daha verimli değerlendirilmesi gibi çok sayıda fayda sağlayabilecekken, her iki bağlamda bu fırsattan yeterince faydalanılmamaktadır. İstanbul’da grup çalışması sırasında öğrencilerin ana dillerinde konuşmasından dolayı öğretmenin sınıf otoritesini kaybetme endişesi bu tercihte önemli role sahiptir. Diğer bir deyişle, öğrencilerin farklı dil ve kültürel geçmişleri, çok seviyeli bir sınıfın zorluklarıyla baş etmede etkili bir şekilde kullanılmamaktadır. Nicel bulgular, her iki bağlamda da sınıf içi öğrenme ortamı ile öğrencilerin hedef dil yeterlikleri arasında anlamlı olmayan bir ilişkiye işaret ederek elverişli olmayan öğrenme ortamının doğrular niteliktedir.

Altyapı kısıtlamaları ve elverişli olmayan öğretim planlamasından bağımsız olarak, okullar orta sınıf ailelerin ideal ve normlarından etkilenerek (Lareau, 2011) ve farklı sosyal sınıflardan gelen aileler arasında benzer çocuk yetiştirme uygulamaları ve eğitim deneyimleri beklemektedir. Bu beklenti neticesinde, okullar yeni göç eden öğrencilerin ve ebeveynlerin özel gereksinimlerini ve koşullarını olarak göz ardı eden bir yaklaşım sergilemektedirler. Hem Hamburg hem de İstanbul bağlamında, ebeveynlerin çocuklarının eğitimine yeterli katılımı hedef dildeki yeterlikleriyle ilişkilendirilmiş olup, sınırlı dil yeterliği okulla ilgili görevlere katılımlarının önünde önemli bir engel teşkil ederek aileler hakkında olumsuz kalıp yargılar oluşmasına sebep olmaktadır.

Nitel sonuçları teyit eden biçimde nicel bulgular, başta anne ve kardeş olmak üzere aile hedef dil yeterliğinin etkisini doğrulamaktadır. Ayrıca, İstanbul örneğinde kardeşlerin önemli bir dil öğrenme kaynağı olduğunu vurgulayan nitel bulgularla uyumlu olarak, kardeşlerin hedef yeterliği en önemli yordayıcı değişken olarak

ortaya çıkmıştır. Diğer bir deyişle, bu çalışmada Türkçe yeterliği yüksek bir kardeşe sahip olmanın dil öğrenimi üzerinde resmi öğrenme ortamı ve diğer nicel göstergelerden daha büyük bir etkiye sahip olduğu bulunmuştur.

Okulların göçmen ailelerin eğitime katılımıyla ilgili görüşleriyle örtüşecek şekilde, ailenin eğitime katılımının, her iki bağlamdaki nicel çalışmalarda öğrencilerin hedef dil yeterliği üzerinde doğrudan bir etkisi olmadığı belirlenmiştir. Okullarda hakim olan ilgisiz ve eksik aile profilinin aksine, yoksun sosyo-ekonomik koşullar ve sınırlı aile dili yeterliği, ailelerin eğitime katılımının önündeki başlıca engellerdir. Bu çalışmadaki nicel bulgular ailenin dil yeterliği ve ebeveynlerin eğitim seviyelerinin aile katılımının öğrencinin hedef dil üzerindeki etkisini şekillendirdiğini göstermiştir.

Dil eğitim politikasının gelişimi, İstanbul'da yukarıdan aşağıya ilerleyen bir politika oluşturma süreciyle tanımlanırken, Hamburg'da ise aşamalı bir süreç izlemektedir. Paydaşların ihtiyaçlarını göz ardı eden bu yaklaşım dil desteğini geçici bir şekilde planlayarak kısa vadeli ve tek düze politikaların üretilmesine yol açmaktadır. Bu elit politika yapımı, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'ndaki profesyoneller ve mültecilerle ilgili projeleri destekleyen uluslararası fon sağlayıcıları tarafından şekillendirilmektedir. Bu yaklaşım, özgün bağlamsal koşulları dikkate almaksızın diğer ortamlardan politikaların ödünç alınmasıyla karakterize edilmiştir. Hamburg'da sunulan dil desteği uluslararası hazırlık sınıfı sisteminin ortaya çıkan ihtiyaçlar doğrultusunda uyarlandığı bir yaklaşımla yönetilmektedir. Bu yaklaşım, önceki uygulamaların asgari değişikliklerle sürdürülmesine odaklanarak istikrarlı bir planlama ufku sağladığı için aşamalı geliştirilen bir politika özelliği taşımaktadır.

İdeal program tasarımıyla ilgili olarak, bu çalışma zıt görüşler ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bir görüş bütünleştirici modellerin (integrative model) veya yeterli destek olmadan doğrudan kaynaştırma yoluyla öğrencilerin düzenli sınıflara dahil edilme süreçlerinde yaşanan olumsuz deneyimlerin altını çizerken, diğer bir görüş ayrıştırılmış (segregated) dil desteğinin olumsuz sonuçlarına vurgu yapmaktadır.

Hem İstanbul hem de Hamburg'da eğitim programlarının önemli unsurları olarak bağlayıcı bir çerçevenin eksikliği ve müfredat geliştirmede özerklik vurgulanmıştır. Eğitim programı geliştirme için bağlayıcı bir çerçevenin olmaması, dil

öğretmenlerinin kendi dersleri için öğretim planlarını belirlemede önemli ölçüde takdir yetkisine sahip olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Sonuç olarak, her iki bağlamdaki dil eğitim programları, standart ve uyumlu bir yapıdan yoksun, ağırlıklı olarak geçici ders planlarından oluşmaktadır.

Öğrenci ihtiyaçlarının çok çeşitlilik gösterdiği ve bağlamsal kısıtlamalara sahip dinamik bir öğrenme ortamı olan dil sınıflarında, eşitsizlikleri üretken öğrenme çıktılarına dönüştürebilecek eğitim programının başat girdisi olarak öğretmenlerin önemine işaret edilmiştir. Ancak, öğretmenlerin mesleğe giriş süreçleri, yaşadıkları deneyimler ve profesyonel geçmişleri her iki bağlamda acil çözüm bekleyen alanlar olarak dikkat çekmektedir.

Günlük dil becerilerine yoğun bir şekilde odaklanması, öğrenme çıtasını çok düşük tutarak öğrencilerin genel sınıflarda başarılı olmaları için gerekli olan akademik dil becerilerinden yoksun kalmalarına sebep olmaktadır. Bu çalışmadaki nicel bulguların da desteklediği gibi, öğrenciler temel gündelik dil becerilerini yakın aile çevresi ve okul dışı ortamlarda maruz kalma yoluyla edindikleri için, resmi öğrenme ortamı hedef dil yeterliği üzerinde beklenen etkiyi yaratmakta yetersiz kalmaktadır.

Dil eğitim programlarının planlama ufku İstanbul'da uzun vadeli hedefler gözetmediğinden, program tasarımı ölçme ve değerlendirme süreçlerinin tüm yönlerinde de geçici uygulamalara dayanmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, hedef grubun dil öğretim sınıflarına getirdikleri bireysel özellikleri, ihtiyaçları ve güçlü yönleri hakkında veri sağlayarak öğretim sürecini bilgilendirmesi gereken araçların ve süreçlerin geçerliliği ve güvenilirliği önemli bir endişe kaynağıdır. İstanbul'daki belirsizliğin aksine, Hamburg'da öğrencilerin dil eğitim programlarına dahil edilme ve süreci hangi şartlarda tamamlamaları gerektiği detaylı olarak planlanmıştır.

İstanbul ve Hamburg'un ekonomik olanakları, hedef bağlamların şekillenmesinde önemli rol oynamaktadır. İstanbul sınırlı ekonomik kaynaklara sahip bir bağlam sunarken, Hamburg geniş ekonomik fırsatlar sunan bir yapıya sahiptir. Her iki bağlamda da yeni göç eden aileler sosyo-ekonomik arka planları bakımından yerleşik toplumun kısıtlı imkanlara sahip alt grubuyla benzerlik göstermektedir. Sosyo-ekonomik açıdan dezavantajlı olan bu gruplar yoksulluk, işsizlik veya toplumun

genelinden dışlanma gibi ortak sorunlara karşı savunmasızdır. Kendilerine bir güvenlik ağı sağlayacak kapsamlı bir sosyal devlet politikasına ihtiyaç duymaktadırlar. Bu bağlamda Almanya, çocuk bakımına, sosyal konutlara, istihdam olanaklarına, ücretsiz sağlık ve eğitim hizmetlerine erişime yüksek kaynak ayıran bir refah devleti olduğunu kanıtlamaktadır. Türkiye de sağlık ve eğitim hizmetlerine erişimde sosyal bir devlet olarak kabul edilmektedir. Almanya ile karşılaştırıldığında, kaynakların azlığı ve son yıllarda yaşanan makro-finansal istikrarsızlık imkanlara erişimde sınırlılıklar yaratmaktadır. Benzer şekilde ekonomik kaynakların bolluğu ya da azlığı eğitim hizmetlerini şekillendiren en önemli unsurlardan biri olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Entegrasyon ortamına ilişkin olarak, Suriyeli mültecilerin Türkiye'ye gelişi, ulus ötesi bir grubun entegrasyonunu gerektiren yeni ve acil bir durum doğmasına sebep olmuştur. Sosyal hizmetlere erişimleri bakımından yasal bir engelle karşılaşmayan bu gruba karşı ideolojileri, politikaları ve uygulamaları biçimlendiren önemli etkenlerden biri *geçici olma* durumudur (Baban vd., 2016). Politika yapıcılarının entegrasyona dair uzun vadeli bir yol önermekten kaçınmaları, ilgili uygulamaların kısa erimli ve geçici kararlarla sistematik bir çerçeveye oturmasına olanak tanımamaktadır. Bu çalışma Almanya'daki entegrasyona dair yaklaşımı ise gelişim gösteren bir süreç olarak tarif etmektedir. Toplumdaki çeşitliliği teşvik etmek için politika düzeyinde çabalar mevcut olsa da bunların gerçek uygulamalara yansması gecikmeli olarak gözlemlenmektedir.

Türkiye'deki eğitim sisteminin omurgasını bölgeler ve farklı gruplar arasındaki eşitsizlikleri göz ardı eden tek düze bir yaklaşım şekillendirmektedir. Bu katı merkeziyetçi sistem tüm kritik aşamalarda tek yetkili organ olarak karar verme mekanizmalarını yönlendirmesine rağmen uygulamalara hesap verebilirlik getirmemektedir. Almanya'daki merkezi olmayan eğitim sistemi ise, sorumluluğu federal eyaletlere devretmekte, federal eyaletler de bu özerkliği ilgili alt paydaşları ve okullarla paylaşmaktadır.

Her iki bağlamda toplumun dokusunu, özellikle eğitim sistemlerini, tarif eden ortak nokta tek dilli habitustur (Gogolin, 1997, 2008). Bir göç ülkesi olduğu gerçeğinin politika düzeyinde kabulü sonucu, Türkiye'den farklı olarak Almanya ise çok dilli

bir toplum olduđu gerçeđini kabul etme eđilimindedir. Bunun bir yansıması olarak, ticareti ve uluslararası iř birliđini geliřtirmek için çok dilli bireyler yetiřtirmeyi savunan dili bir kaynak olarak (Ruız, 1984) gren ynelim Hamburg’da belirgindir. Hamburg’daki gncel bađlam çok çeřitliliđi barından (Vertovec, 2007) bir topluma dođru evrilmektedir. Trkiye’de ise tek dilli paradigma, ortaya çıkan çok dilli gerçeđliđe rađmen toplumunun ve eđitim sisteminin belirleyici bir zelliđi olmaya devam etmektedir. Trkçe’nin yaygın tek dil olarak kullanımı hala sosyal ve politik katılımın nemli bir gstergesi olarak nemini korurken, dili bir sorun olarak (Ruız, 1984) grme eđiliminde olan bu yaklařım, zm olarak đrencileri ana dillerinden baskın olan dile geirmeyi temel hedef haline getirmektedir.

Sonuç olarak, her iki eđitim sistemi de etkisi đretim dilinin tesine geen tek dilli yaklařımı nceliklendirmektedir. Hamburg’daki merkezi olmayan eđitim sistemi okullara karar alma mekanizmalarında nemli lde zerklik tanıyarak, toplumdaki çeřitliliđe cevap vermelerine imkan tanıyarak tek dilli ynelimin sınırlarını esnetecek uygulamaları hayata geirmelerine olanak tanımaktadır. Trkiye’deki merkezi eđitim sistemi ise toplumun tm kesimlerinin aynı ihtiyalara sahip olduđunu varsayan indirgemeci yaklařıma daha yatkındır. Bir btn olarak bakıldıđında farklı zellikler ve uygulamalar gsterseler de her iki bađlamdaki eđitim sistemi yeni g eden đrencilerin çok çeřitli (*super-diverse*) zelliklerinden kaynaklanan ihtiyalarına yeterince hitap etmekte yetersiz kalmaktadır.

Bu alıřmada da teyit edildiđi zere, ana dil yeterliđi, diller arası metalinguistik becerilerin geiř etkisi nedeniyle hedef dilin đrenilmesinde etkilidir. Daha nceki alıřmalarda da tutarlı bir řekilde kanıtlanan bu veriden yola ıkarak (rneđin, Cummins, 1979, 2000; Edele vd., 2023; Genesee vd., 2006; Stanat ve Edele, 2016), anadil temelli hedef dil đrenme programlarının tasarlanması nerilmektedir. Ana dil temelli hedef dil eđitimi, İstanbul gibi gmen đrencilerin ođunluđunun aynı ana dili paylařtıđı bađlamlarda daha etkili sonular elde etme potansiyeline sahipken, Hamburg gibi etnik çeřitlilik ieren sınıflarda pratik bir zorluk teřkil etmektedir; temel sorun hangi ana dilin temel alınarak hedef dil đrenme programının tasarlanacađıyla ilgili olacaktır. Byle durumlarda ise ana dil desteđini srdrlebilir tamamlayıcı dersler aracılıđıyla devam ettirmek đrencilerin hedef dil đrenimlerini kolaylařtıracak uygulamalardan biri olarak bu alıřma neticesinde nerilmektedir.

Eđitim dilinde yařanan zorluđun sadece yeni g eden đrencilere zđ bir durum olmadıđını farklı boyutlarıyla ortaya koyan bu alıřma, okullarda ihtiya duyan tm đrencilere destek sađlayacak daimi dil programları oluřturulmasını tavsiye etmektedir. Dil eđitim programlarının daha yapılandırılmıř ve tutarlı bir yaklařımla geliřtirilmesine duyulan ihtiya dile getirilmektedir. Eđitim programı tasarlanırken ynlendirici ilkeler ve standartları belirleyen bađlayıcı bir ereve sunulması dil destek dersleri arasında tutarlılık, btnlk ve niteliđin sađlanmasına yardımcı olabilir. Byle bir erevenin oluřturulmasının đrencilerin farklı sınıflar ve okullar arasında adil ve sorunsuz bir řekilde geiř yapmalarını kolaylařtıracadı da dřnlmektedir.

Dil đretmenlerinin artan sorumluluđunu desteklemek iin mesleki geliřimlerine yatırım yapılması nem tařımaktadır. đretmen yetiřtirme programlarında ve grevde olan đretmenlere sunulan hizmet ii destek eđitimlerinde kltre duyarlı eđitim ve ikinci dil edinimi alanlarında gerekli bilgi ve beceriler kazanmalarına katkı sađlamak iin uygulamaya dayalı eđitim modlleri geliřtirilmelidir.

alıřma, zellikle yetersiz hedef dil yeterliđine ve sınırlı kaynaklara sahip aileler iin yapılandırılmıř ebeveyn katılımının dil eđitim programının nemli bir bileřeni olarak dahil edilmesini nermektedir. İhtiya duyan aile bireyelerine đrencilerinin devam ettiđi okullarda onların ihtiyaları iin tasarlanmış dil destek programları sunulması, okulla anlamlı bir řekilde iliřki kurmalarının yanı sıra bilgi kaynađına eriřimlerini kolaylařtırılabilir ve aidiyet hislerinin artmasına katkı sađlayabilir.

G alan toplumların dokusunu oluřurmada ve ynlerini tayin etmede anahtar role sahip en st seviyedeki politikalar toplumdaki, zellikle okul bađlamlarındaki, eřitliliđi kucaklayacak olumlu yargılar ve bakıř aıları geliřtirilmesine katkıda bulunmalıdır. Hak temelli yaklařım karřılıklı kabul nceleyerek, sorumluluđun gmenler ve hedef lkelerdeki paydařlara arasında adil bir řekilde dađıtılmasını nermektedir. Bu tarz bir yaklařım benimsendiđi takdirde tm đrenciler iin kapsayıcı ve destekleyici bir đrenme ortamı sađlamak amacıyla yetersiz kaynaklara sahip blgelerde daha adil bir kaynak dađılımı gerekleřtirilerek zelleřtirilmıř zmler sunulabilir.

Bu çalışma bazı sınırlılıklara ve bu sınırlılıkları aşmak için geliştirilen karşı tedbirlere sahiptir. Nicel göstergeler, özellikle dil yeterlik puanları olmak üzere öğrencinin kendi beyanına dayanmaktadır. Bu tür öz bildirim ölçümleri doğası gereği öznedir ve katılımcıların sosyal istenirlik eğiliminden (Paulhus, 1984; Paulhus ve Reid, 1991) ve öz değerlendirmedeki yanlılıklar gibi faktörlerden etkilenebilir.

Nicel verilerin toplanmasında olasılıklı olmayan örnekleme yöntemi tercih edilmiştir. Bu durum bulguların daha geniş bir gruba genellenebilirliğini kısıtlayabilir. Kriter ve kartopu örnekleme yöntemleriyle veri toplanması bir sınırlılık olarak gözüke de bu yöntemle kırılabilir ve ulaşılması zor bir grup olan yeni göç etmiş öğrencilerden veri toplamak için gerekli ve pratik bir yaklaşım olduğu için başvurulmuştur (Aljadeeah et al., 2021; Bloch, 2007). Araştırmanın amacı, toplumun ve eğitim sistemlerinin çeperlerinde yer alan bu grubun deneyimleri ve bakış açıları hakkında veri toplamak olduğu için, örnekleme yöntemi çeşitli katılımcıları çalışmaya dahil etmek için belirlenen amaca hizmet etmiştir.

İstanbul'daki nicel veriler COVID-19 salgını sırasında çevrimiçi yöntemle toplanmıştır. Bu süreçte karşılaşılabilecek sorunları gidermek için İstanbul örnekleminde veriler katılımcıların dikkatini ve rasgele cevap verme davranışını tespit etmek (Maede ve Craig, 2012; Krosnick, 1991) için titiz bir taramadan geçirildikten sonra ilgili analizler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ek olarak öğrencilerin İstanbul'daki uzaktan eğitim deneyimlerini ölçmek için çalışmaya ek bir ölçek dahil edilmiştir.

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