

CONFERÊNCIA INTERNACIONAL

**Investigação e Práticas
em Contextos de Educação**

09 e 10 · maio 2014

ESECS / IPL

Livro de Atas

Conferências, Artigos, Relatos e Posters

FICHA TÉCNICA

TÍTULO

III Conferência Internacional – Investigação, Práticas e Contextos em Educação

ORGANIZADORES

Hélia Gonçalves Pinto, Maria Isabel Pinto Simões Dias, Romain Gillain Munõz.

EDIÇÃO

Escola Superior de Educação e Ciências Sociais – Instituto Politécnico de Leiria

GRAFISMO E PAGINAÇÃO

Leonel Brites

Andreia Narciso

ISBN

978-989-97836-7-6

EDIÇÃO DIGITAL

Leiria · maio/2014

© 2014 · ESECS/Instituto Politécnico de Leiria

CONFERÊNCIA INTERNACIONAL

**Investigação e Práticas
em Contextos de Educação**

09 e 10 · maio 2014

ESECS / IPL

Livro de Atas

Conferências, Artigos, Relatos e Posters

Índice

- 11** **Introdução**
- 15** **Entre poéticas e políticas: contribuições da educação ambiental para a educação formal e não formal**
Jane M. Mazzarino Centro Universitário Univates, Lajeado, RS (Brasil)
- 27** **La gestión de la convivencia en el aula como aspecto clave en el bienestar emocional y competencia social del alumnado**
Isabel Cuadrado Gordillo, Universidad de Extremadura
- 39** **Linguistic diversity in Portuguese schools: ideological and practical implications**
Olga Solovova, Centro de Estudos Sociais da Universidade de Coimbra
- 53** **Desenvolvimento do sentido de número num contexto de resolução de problemas de multiplicação e divisão**
Ana Filipa Gomes da Silva, Hugo Alexandre Lopes Menino, ESECS, IPLeiria, NIDE
- 63** **Predicadores influentes no processo de resolução de problemas verbais de matemática**
Deolinda Varela Correia, Laboratório de Psicolinguística da FLUL
- 73** **A modelação matemática como prática de sala de aula no ensino da subtração**
Helena Brou, Virgílio Rato, Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra, ESEC, DE, Coimbra, Portugal
Fernando M. L. Martins, Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra, ESEC, DE, Coimbra, Portugal,
Instituto de Telecomunicações (IT-Covilhã), Portugal
- 81** **As estratégias e as dificuldades dos alunos do 6.º ano de escolaridade quando confrontados com tarefas de natureza algébrica**
Carolina Sotomaior Pereira, Marina Vitória Valdez Faria Rodrigues, ESECS, IPLeiria
- 89** **As TIC, os Nativos Digitais e as Práticas de Ensino Supervisionadas: um novo espaço e uma nova oportunidade**
Henrique Gil, Escola Superior de Educação/IPCB & Centro de Administração e Políticas Públicas/ISCS/UL
- 97** **Animações como Recurso Didático no Ensino da Biologia**
Carla Pacífico Dias, Externato Cooperativo da Benedita
Isabel Chagas, Instituto de Educação da Universidade de Lisboa
- 105** **Características del Ciberhabla en la Red: Uso de emoticonos e Implicaciones Educativas**
Guadalupe Martín-Mora
- 113** **La integración de las nuevas tecnologías en el aula de Francés como Lengua Extranjera: El uso del vídeo currículo adaptado al EESS**
Verónica C. Trujillo-González, Instituto Universitario de Análisis y Aplicaciones Textuales,
Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria
- 119** **Predictibilidade aplicada a pré-leitores: a predição e a interpretação do texto multimédia no ensino pré-escolar**
Sónia Pacheco, Instituto de Segurança Social
- 125** **(Des)Angústias Ortográficas**
Gabriela Barbosa, Luísa Carmo, Escola Superior de Educação do Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo
- 131** **As conceções de poesia e de poeta de alunos do 3.º ano de escolaridade**
Ana Rita Fernandes Tavares Sequeira, Sob orientação da Professora Doutora Hélia Pinto
e do Professor Doutor Luís Barbeiro, Escola Superior de Educação e Ciências Sociais de Leiria
- 137** **Clubes de leitura: potencialidades e desafios para a construção de leitores**
Luís Filipe Barbeiro, Maria José Gamboa, ESECS, IPLeiria
- 145** **Educação Literária? Uma estética das emoções?**
Cristina Nobre, ESECS, CIID, IPLeiria
- 153** **Maternalês ou Eduquês!? Quando a linguagem das mães influencia o discurso dos educadores**
Catarina Mangas, Paula Cristina Ferreira, NIDE, IPLeiria

- 161 A argumentação: um percurso didático da oralidade à escrita**
Joana Fonseca Silva, Paula Cristina Ferreira, ESECS, IPLeiria
- 169 Porque causal e porque explicativo: reavaliação da classificação das orações coordenadas explicativas nos manuais escolares**
Sandra Duarte Tavares, Instituto Superior de Educação e Ciências
- 177 A Banda Desenhada como instrumento de compreensão e produção de textos: um estudo de caso com crianças do 1.º Ciclo**
Tatiana Santos, ESECS, IPLeiria, Sandrina Milhano, ESECS, IPLeiria, CIID, CESNOVA
- 185 A Proficiência Linguística em Prosa na Educação de Adultos. Uma Questão Improvável?**
Anabela Matias, Paulo Osório, M^a da Graça Sardinha, Universidade da Beira Interior
- 193 M23, uma porta de acesso ao ensino superior: retrato de duas experiências**
Marina Ferreira, Marisa Barroso, Marlene Mealha, Sara Mónico, Telma Lopes, Virgínia Santos, Escola Superior de Educação e Ciências Sociais, IPLeiria
- 199 Alunos M23 do Instituto Politécnico de Leiria: um estudo de caso**
Marina Ferreira, Marisa Barroso, Marlene Mealha, Sara Mónico, Telma Lopes, Virgínia Santos, Escola Superior de Educação e Ciências Sociais, IPLeiria
- 207 Gamificação dos Trabalhos de Grupo no Ensino Superior: O caso do Instituto Politécnico de Leiria**
Sandro Monteiro, Filipe Santos, Instituto Politécnico de Leiria.
- 215 Entre o Desejo e a Realidade – Ensinar a aprender**
Maria João Sousa Santos, ESECS, IPLeiria
- 221 Autopercepción emocional y liderazgo: Estudio comparativo entre maestros tutores y equipos directivos de centros de educación primaria de Badajoz.**
Juan de Dios González Hermosell, Orientador de Equipo de Orientación Educativa y Psicopedagógica Badajoz, Profesor Dr. Asociado Dpto de Ciencias de la Educación, Universidad de Extremadura, Facultad de Educación, Badajoz, María Guadalupe González Pérez, Alumna de 4º de Psicología, Facultad de Psicología, Universidad Pontificia de Salamanca
- 229 Caracterização multivariante dos Estilos de Aprendizagem dos estudantes do Instituto Politécnico de Castelo Branco**
Paulo Alexandre Anselmo Lopes da Silveira, ESE, IPCB, María Purificación Galindo Villardón, Maria Purificación Vicente Galindo, Universidad de Salamanca
- 239 Uma Profissionalidade Reclamada no 1º Ciclo do Ensino Básico**
Paulo Pimenta, Agrupamento de Escolas de Carvalhos (Vila Nova de Gaia), Fátima Pereira, CIIE, Universidade do Porto
- 245 Promoção do voluntariado nas escolas: o seu contributo o desenvolvimento pessoal e solidário nos alunos**
Ana Catarina S. Carlotto Ferreira, ISCTE
- 249 AtivaMENTE PAIS: um programa de Educação Parental**
Rita Leal, Formação, Avaliação & Liderança, Catarina Bagagem, Centro de Apoio Social do Olival, Estela Ribeiro, Associação Serviço e Socorro Voluntário de S. Jorge
- 255 Animações como Recurso Didático no Ensino da Biologia**
Carla Pacífico Dias, Externato Cooperativo da Benedita, Isabel Chagas, Instituto de Educação da Universidade de Lisboa
- 263 Experiências de desenvolvimento comunitário e qualidade de vida dos idosos**
Santinho Maurício, C., Abreu, M. O., Pimentel, L & Seco, G., Escola Superior de Educação e Ciências Sociais do Instituto Politécnico de Leiria
- 271 Ao som de dois estilos musicais: rock e clássico**
Sara Lucas Faria. ESECS, IPLeiria, Sandrina Milhano, ESECS, IPLeiria, CIID, CESNOVA

- 281 A Dimensão Hoteleira e Turística na Série Espanhola Gran Hotel:
Propostas para Aplicação Didática em Contexto de Aprendizagem de Língua Estrangeira**
Maria Natália Pérez Santos, ESTM, IPEleiria, Valdemar Miguel Neto Catarina Martins, ESTM, IPEleiria, GITUR
- 287 Educação postural: relação entre distúrbios do sono, alterações posturais
e dores musculoesqueléticas na coluna vertebral em crianças e adolescentes**
Gustavo Desouzart, CIMH - IPEleiria, CIEQV - IPEleiria/IPsantarém,
Rui Matos, CIMH - IPEleiria, CIEQV - IPEleiria/IPsantarém, ESECS - IPEleiria, Ernesto Filgueiras, Labcom - UBI
- 293 Currículo Funcional... Que características?**
Ana Sofia Sobral, Professora Especializada em Educação Especial
Paula C. Neves, Escola Superior de Educação do Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra
- 303 A participação da família no processo educativo da criança:
Um estudo de caso com crianças do 1.º ano de escolaridade**
Vera Estrafalho, ESECS, IPEleiria, Sandrina Milhano, IPEleiria, Núcleo de Leiria do CESNOVA
- 311 Aprender em parceria: uma experiência na educação pré-escolar**
Ana Paula Abel, ESECS, IPEleiria, Sónia Correia, IPEleiria, NIDE, GPC,
Isabel Simões Dias, IPEleiria, CIEQV, NIDE, GPC
- 319 O Desenvolvimento do Altruísmo em Crianças de 5 e 6 Anos**
Jorge Miguel Carmo, Maria José Gamboa, Isabel Simões Dias, ESECS, IPEleiria
- 327 “O consumo de tabaco, álcool e drogas durante a institucionalização
de crianças e jovens em risco: modos de atuação das equipas institucionais”
Francisco Soares, Mestrando da ESECS do IPEleiria, Rui Duarte Santos, Docente da
ESECS do IPEleiria,**
Investigador do Núcleo de Leiria do CESNOVA
- 335 La percepción de los Adolescentes sobre Bullying como Medida de Ajuste
en los Programas de Intervención de la Violencia Escolar**
Inmaculada Fernández Antelom, Isabel Cuadrado Gordillo, Universidad de Extremadura (España)
- 343 Una experiencia de investigación y práctica en el contexto de una profesora
de matemáticas de nivel medio superior en México**
Leticia Sosa Guerrero, C. Miguel Ribeiro, Universidad Autónoma de Zacatecas (México), CIEO - Centro
de Investigación sobre o Espaço e as Organizações, Universidade do Algarve y UNESP (Rio Claro, Brasil),
Elisete Trindade, ESECS, IPEleiria, Carla Freire, iACT, ESECS, IPEleiria
- 351 Web Quests: recursos que podem potenciar aprendizagens significativas**
Elisete Trindade, ESECS, IPEleiria, Carla Freire, iACT, ESECS, IPEleiria
- 353 A dinâmica do processo de ensino e aprendizagem: uma experiência
em b-learning no ensino superior**
Marta Fonseca, ESECS, IPEleiria
- 355 Tutorización de una tesina de máster a distancia: experiencia docente**
M. Victoria Domínguez Rodríguez, Instituto de Análisis y Aplicaciones Textuales,
Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria
- 357 As interações entre pares na utilização do videojogo “O MEU BAÚ DOS BRINQUEDOS”**
Sónia Margarida Paulo Lamas, ESECS, IPEleiria, Isabel Simões Dias, IPEleiria, CIEQV, NIDE, GPC
- 359 O papel da sesta na interação entre pares: uma experiência em contexto de creche**
Liliana Figueiredo, ESECS, IPEleiria, Isabel Simões Dias, IPEleiria, CIEQV, NIDE, GPC
- 361 O reconto de histórias numa sala de jardim-de-infância**
Ana Cristina Oliveira de Sousa Pinto, ESECS, IPEleiria
- 363 A voz das crianças do Jardim-de-infância na dinamização do “canto da leitura”:
uma experiência partilhada.**
Margarida Gabriel, IPEleiria, Rita Leal, Formação, Avaliação & Liderança, Clarinda Barata, IPEleiria

- 365 Estimular o desenvolvimento da linguagem através do jogo dramático: uma experiência na educação pré-escolar**
Ana Cristina Oliveira de Sousa Pinto, Escola Superior de Educação de Lisboa
- 367 Explorar para aprender: uma experiência em creche**
Bárbara Medrôa, ESECS, IPLeiria, Natacha Nascimento, ESECS, IPLeiria, Arminda Filipe, Colégio Infantil O Saltitão, Sónia Correia, ESECS, IPLeiria
- 369 A música, a dança e o bem-estar: uma tríade vivida no jardim-de-infância**
Tânia Santos, IPLeiria, Rita Leal, Formação, Avaliação & Liderança
- 371 O contexto familiar e o contexto de creche: cruzamento de dois olhares**
Patrícia Marcelino, IPLeiria, NIDE, GPC, Verónica Fonseca, IPLeiria, NIDE, GPC, Sónia Correia, IPLeiria, NIDE, GPC, Isabel Simões Dias, IPLeiria, CIEQV, NIDE, GPC
- 373 Conceções das crianças do 1º CEB acerca do «Eu da relação»**
Rute Renca, Rosa Branca Tracana, Maria Eduarda Ferreira, Instituto Politécnico da Guarda, UDI – Unidade de Investigação do Interior UDI (PEst-OE/EGE/UI4056/2011).
- 375 Ensino de estratégias para a composição escrita do texto argumentativo**
Maria Prata, Sara Ferreira, Maria Isabel Festas, Maria Helena Damião da Silva, Faculdade de Psicologia e de Ciências de Educação, Universidade de Coimbra
- 377 Conceitos de revisão e reescrita: uma análise da produção textual escrita no ensino fundamental**
Jane Cristina Beltramini Berto, Universidade Estadual de Maringá, Brasil, Universidade de Aveiro
- 379 Ensino da composição escrita de textos em alunos do 8º ano de escolaridade**
Sara Ferreira, Maria Prata, Maria Isabel Festas, Maria Helena Damião, Faculdade de Psicologia e de Ciências da Educação da Universidade de Coimbra
- 381 Aprender a ler com Vigotsky**
Dulce Carramate, Agrupamento de Escolas de Mealhada, Paula C. Neves, Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra, Escola Superior de Educação
- 383 Ludobibliotecas Escolares e Comunitárias das Escolas Básicas do Concelho de Cascais**
Equipa da DIED/NIE/Câmara Municipal de Cascais
- 385 Práticas linguísticas multilíngues em escolas em contexto de imigração no Sul do Brasil: diferenças e aproximações**
Jakeline A. Semechechem, Universidade Estadual de Maringá, CAPES - Brasil, Faculdade de Letras, Universidade de Coimbra - Portugal
- 387 El uso de las noticias en la clase de Variedades del Inglés o cómo Nelson Mandela entró en el aula (y en nuestros corazones) por unos días**
Alicia Rodríguez-Álvarez, Instituto Universitario de Análisis y Aplicaciones Textuales, Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria
- 389 A cooperação parental 3k. Torres Novas e Aalborg numa parceria internacional em educação**
Jorge Salgado Simões, Câmara Municipal de Torres Novas
- 391 Diálogos... Ciência, Tradição & Cultura**
Margarida Afonso, Dolores Alveirinho, Helena Margarida Tomás, Paula Peres, Escola Superior de Educação de Castelo Branco
- 393 Explorar simetrias com o 4.º ano**
Cláudia Patrícia Costa Ferreira, ESECS, IPLeiria
- 395 Ideias de uma turma de 3.º ano do 1.º Ciclo sobre os estilos musicais rock e pop**
Débora Boto, ESECS, IPLeiria, Sandrina Milhano, ESECS, IPLeiria, CIID, CESNOVA
- 397 Educação Estética e Artística no 1.º Ciclo do Ensino Básico: mito ou realidade?**
Raquel Mateus, Maria Helena Damião, Maria Isabel Festas, Faculdade de Psicologia e de Ciências da Educação da Universidade de Coimbra
- 403 Posters**

Linguistic diversity in Portuguese schools: ideological and practical implications

Olga Solovova, Centro de Estudos Sociais da Universidade de Coimbra

Investigação,
Práticas e Contextos
em Educação
09 e 10 maio 2014
Escola Superior
de Educação
e Ciências Sociais

Abstract

New migration flows from countries with no historical links with Portugal have transformed the country's sociolinguistic landscape, creating an impact on the social aspects and ethnolinguistic identities. The Portuguese state faced a challenge of promoting a quality education for immigrant children within the course on integration. After the initial lack of response to the linguistic diversity in Portugal's schools, the Portuguese government formulated political guidelines for language-in-education diversity management.

Most recent studies about multilingual contexts in education have gradually shifted the focus to teaching as a social practice while considering teachers, educators, caregivers, parents and students as actors of this practice. This change in perspective reinforces the link between practices and discourses that shape them.

Drawing on the interview and observational data from a longitudinal linguistic ethnography around the site of an informal school organized by immigrant parents (2004-2012), this paper aims to discuss the ways in which language teaching practices and their interpretation by institutional agents, parents and children reflect the changes in official discourses in mainstream educational settings (e.g., PLNM discourses). The main emphasis is placed on identifying the discursive spaces available for other languages in Portuguese mainstream education and on the impact the commonly accepted language ideologies may have on identities of multilingual speakers.

Keywords: *linguistic diversity, language-in-education policies, teaching practices, immigration*

1. Linguistic diversity in schools, linguistic rights and integration discourses

Well until the 1990s, Portugal considered itself to be a monolingual nation-state (Pinto 2008) which appeared not to have an explicit language policy for Portuguese (Mateus 2002). Portugal continued 'monolingual' despite having taken in the 'retornados' who had had a contact with African languages; also while receiving migrants from the countries where Portuguese had a status of an official language. Yet the succession of major geopolitical events in the 1990s-early 2000s (the dissolution of the USSR and of the Warsaw Pact, the creation of Schengen area and the gradual expansion of the EU to the East) changed the patterns of migration flows all over the world. From then on, migrants from states with no apparent historical, linguistic or cultural links to Portugal started to arrive, for example from Ukraine, Russia, Moldova, Kazakhstan, etc. Urban areas in Portugal registered an unprecedented complexity of migration origin, ethnicity, language, religious tradition, cultural values and practices, migration channel and legal status, educational background.

In 2002, Ukrainians outnumbered Cape Verdeans in immigration statistics (Baganha *et al.* 2004: 98). Even though in the following decade the number of immigrants from post-Soviet states has gradually reduced, this group still constitutes over 16 per cent of foreign population in Portugal, Ukrainians being one of the largest groups (48,022 people), according to the latest report of the *Serviço para Estrangeiros e Fronteiras* (Ataíde & Dias 2011). As for Portuguese schools, a sociolinguistic survey undertaken in 2004 across 410 Portuguese schools reported 54 different languages being spoken in students' homes (Mateus 2011: 16). In 2005, Russian and Ukrainian language were considered to be "significant minority languages in education" in the northern and central Portugal (Pinto 2008: 82-83).

These changes in the sociolinguistic landscape have been divided into two periods (Pinto 2008). The 'African' period (1990-1999) was characterised by the increasing presence of African languages and Portuguese-based creoles. The measures of the 'African period' were directed at

the ‘*territórios educativos da intervenção prioritária*’ in Greater Lisbon and were implemented by local schools, NGOs and religious organisations. Being locally oriented, they had proved insufficient for addressing the new linguistic diversity in Portuguese schools. From 2000 on, a ‘Slavic period’ has opened in the state language policy, which coincided with the significant increase in national immigration and nationality legislation: two Immigration laws, two inter-ministerial Plans for Integration of Immigrants and Nationality Law were issued in 2002 and 2012. In education, the national education guidelines on *Português como Língua Não Materna* [Portuguese as Non-Native Language – PLNM] were formulated in 2005 (DGIDC 2005).

Since the beginning of the 2000s, all the efforts regarding Portuguese language in education have been centralised, whereas spaces for other languages were taken up by initiatives of local churches, schools, NGOs and immigrant associations. Over the years, the Portuguese state discourses have constructed the Portuguese language proficiency as one of the key criteria of integration of immigrants in the Portuguese societal fabric. These affirmations are shaped by the common “beliefs about language articulated by users as a rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use (Silverstein 1979:193), which constitute linguistic ideologies and which are inseparable from “practices that are themselves kinds of meaning” (Hodge & Kress 1979: 210)

Linguistic rights of immigrant children are guaranteed explicitly by art. 30 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and secured by the European policies on promoting multilingualism (“mother tongue plus two”). European recommendations include migrant languages among learning opportunities for everyone. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) play the role of the common currency in language policies of the European states.

In Portugal, the interministerial Plan for Integration of Immigrants [first edition, PII-1, 2007] shapes up the discursive spaces available for Portuguese and other languages in the process of educational integration of immigrant children:

31 - Formação dos docentes para a interculturalidade (PCM/ACIDI, I.P., ME/DGIDC)
Definir os referenciais de um Programa de Formação Contínua para professores, no sentido de incrementar as competências dos professores para o desenvolvimento do seu trabalho em escolas cada vez mais heterogêneas, considerando, nomeadamente, o português como língua não materna como área prioritária de formação.

According to this excerpt, in-service teacher training for interculturality is established as a joint responsibility of the government agency for issues of immigration and Ministry of Education. Portuguese language as a non-native language and its teaching is assigned the central place in teacher training for multilingual school contexts. In this way, the model of language immersion into Portuguese language is announced as the only appropriate to ‘integrate’ student diversity and promote interculturality. Another fragment aims to address the specific needs of immigrant children:

33 - Adequação das estratégias de acolhimento na Escola às especificidades dos alunos descendentes de imigrantes (ME/DGIDC) (PII 2007)
Desenvolver estratégias diversificadas de apoio à integração na escola de alunos filhos de imigrantes, nomeadamente que tenham em conta o nível etário dos alunos, o domínio da língua e o tempo de permanência em Portugal.

Being listed alongside the documented age and duration of stay, the student’s language proficiency emerges as something that could be documented and measured. The use of the definite article in ‘the language’ to refer to the Portuguese language seems to position it as the only significant language in immigrant children’s multilingual repertoires, simultaneously dismissing any other linguistic resources that immigrant children might have. So other languages than Portuguese are not taken into account when devising reception strategies and not acknowledged as legitimate at schools. Thus the Portuguese language proficiency is constructed as one of the key conditions (if not the only one) for school integration of immigrant children.

According to the interministerial Plan, associations of immigrants had a very particular role to play in the process of educational integration of immigrant children, which is expressed as follows:

53 – Cooperação com organizações da sociedade civil (PCM/ACIDI, I.P, ME) Estabelecer um diálogo interinstitucional, com associações de imigrantes e outros parceiros, no

sentido da melhoria das condições específicas de suporte à aprendizagem das diferentes línguas maternas dos alunos. Identificar, em colaboração com aquelas organizações, bolsas de especialistas, nas diferentes línguas, de apoio ao reconhecimento das interferências nos processos de ensino e aprendizagem de português.

At a first glance, the proposed measures appear to acknowledge the linguistic diversity in Portuguese schools, aiming at providing more support to languages other than Portuguese. However, the collaboration of immigrant associations is reduced to the help in identifying difficulties of speakers of those languages in learning and teaching Portuguese. As a result, languages of immigrant children are seen as sources of errors in Portuguese, thus being placed in an inferior position - being defined in relation to Portuguese and seen as an impediment to school success.

Admittedly, Portuguese public discourses are not original in devaluing the actual plural linguistic practices and multilingual repertoires in favour of the imposed policy of monolingualism. In fact, monolingualising discourses constitute a common trend in several European states such as England, Israel and Belgium (Blackledge 2005; Shohamy 2006; Avermaet 2009; Blackledge & Creese 2010). Different post-Soviet states such as Russia, Ukraine and Belarus similarly associate monolingualism to the national unity and identity, as well as to social cohesion.

2. Portuguese as a Non-Native Language policy and languages of immigrant children

2.1. State level discourses

Newly arrived immigrant children and students speaking other languages than Portuguese are incorporated into the model of linguistic immersion. These students are placed in mainstream classrooms according to their age group and provided with extracurricular training in PLNM. According to the PLNM guidelines, the 'first' language of these students has to be identified (which proves extremely problematic in case of multilingual families from Africa and Asia), so that to determine its linguistic distance from Portuguese. Then their personal history and 'domains' of use of the Portuguese language are established, while their proficiency in Portuguese is assessed in terms of the CEFR descriptors. After that, the speaker receives a "*diagnóstico*" [a diagnosis] and is associated to one of "linguistic profiles":

- 1) Speakers of Portuguese as a mother tongue;
- 2) Speakers of languages distant from Portuguese;
- 3) Children of Portuguese emigrants;
- 4) Speakers of creole languages;
- 5) Students from Mozambique and Angola.

The profile and 'diagnosis' depend on the outcome of the four criteria: mother tongue, language of communication between peers, language of school and family language. Language groups are composed on the basis of the received 'diagnosis' and profile, rather than other factors such as national origin, age, class or motivation for learning Portuguese (Leiria *et al.* 2005). The PLNM guidelines examine the 'genetic' distance between the languages spoken by students and the European variety of Portuguese. Three out of five linguistic profiles are designated for speakers who have used European Portuguese or its varieties at school/home at some point of the family history. The particular emphasis is placed on languages of schooling, to see whether the variety of Portuguese was schooled, whether the student was schooled in other languages, and which languages the student used within and outside the school setting in Portugal.

On the one hand, the PLNM guidelines help educators distinguish between speakers of different varieties of Portuguese, thus creating awareness of the differences between Portuguese-based creoles and varieties of Portuguese spoken in African countries, which used to be labelled in teaching practice, as 'broken Portuguese'. By contrast, speakers of any languages but normative Portuguese found themselves huddled together in the single category of 'speakers of languages distant from Portuguese'. Admittedly, languages within this category are also assessed in terms of the linguistic distance from EP, so several of the distant languages are considered to be closer to Portuguese than others, e.g. Romanian as opposed to Chinese. Practitioners are also made aware of the differences between languages with alphabetic and logographic literacy systems. However, in practice children of Eastern European immigrants (despite speaking Slavic languages, Romanian or Kazakh) end up sharing the same profile. Let us try and apply the PLNM criteria to two case studies.

Example 1

7 year-old Tania and Rosa went to 2nd forms in their Portuguese schools but were also students of the same class in the complementary school. Both girls' families came from Ukraine around the same time, having obtained a similar legal status in Portugal. Both Tania and Rosa had been born in Portugal and were cared for by Portuguese-speaking nannies. Both families communicated in Russian with the girls. Tania had a passive knowledge of Ukrainian and English, while Rosa – of Romanian. According to the interviews with their family members and my observations, both girls were used to speaking Portuguese with their peers within the Portuguese school setting and quite often outside it as well.

So if we were to create “linguistic profiles” in accordance with the PLNM guidelines for Tania and Rosa, both girls would end up in the same group on their arrival to a mainstream Portuguese school. They could be placed into a group of learners of Portuguese as L2 because both girls were being raised in families where languages distant from Portuguese were spoken. Alternatively, they could be placed in a group of Portuguese for children of Portuguese emigrants (L1/L2), since both girls had been born in Portugal and had at some point been cared for by Portuguese-speaking nannies. They would also share a “profile” if we were to take into consideration their learning opportunities, the linguistic distance or the prestige of their home languages against Portuguese. From the perspective of migration statistics, Tania and Rosa's families would also fall within the same category, since both had migrated from Ukraine and shared their initial status in Portugal and the duration of stay. So the centralised language policy criteria fail to account for the existing considerable differences within Eastern European immigrant children (e.g. linked to the distinct patterns of language policies in their home regions of Ukraine) thus having a homogenising effect. Furthermore, these criteria do not take into account children growing up and born in mixed families, especially those where Eastern European immigrant parents use English to speak with their Portuguese or Brazilian life partners.

The PLNM guidelines reflect a number of theoretical and methodological tensions. Firstly, they draw a direct link between a ‘domain’ (school, home) and a language, which is assumed to be the only one at a time in a given social space. So each ‘domain’ emerges as monolingual at any particular time and space. As a result, there is no space for accounting for the actual fluid and hybrid language practices among multilingual speakers. The guidelines are permeated by the conceptualisation of learning as a process of sequential acquisition of skills and competences, or a ‘learner-as-computer’ (Kramsch 2002: 1). Thus they fail to assign any active role to the learner in the process of learning and meaning making.

Furthermore, the PLNM guidelines provide little space for languages of immigrants in mainstream education. In fact, they discursively create an unchallenged legitimacy for the Portuguese language in the mainstream education:

Example 2

A escola é o espaço privilegiado para desenvolvimento da integração social, cultural e profissional das crianças e jovens recém-chegados. O seu sucesso escolar, intrinsecamente ligado ao domínio da língua portuguesa, é o factor essencial desta integração. Assegurar uma integração eficaz e de qualidade é um dever do Estado e da Escola (DGIDC 2005)

If we were to look at the verb modality in the fragment, we may realise that two statements are constructed as facts: 1) school represents a special site for integration of newcomers; and 2) the Portuguese language proficiency is an essential condition of this integration. The adverb choice to characterise the connection between the school success, integration and proficiency in Portuguese (‘intrinsically’) reinforces the idea of the Portuguese proficiency being the only condition for educational integration for speakers of other languages.

Example 3

[...] avançar com medidas que possibilitem a eficaz integração dos alunos no sistema educativo nacional, garantindo o domínio suficiente da língua portuguesa como veículo de todos os saberes escolares. Esta é a língua em que os alunos vão seguir os seus estudos, mas é também a língua que lhes vai permitir orientarem-se num novo espaço que não pode ser conquistado sem a sua consolidação (DGIDC 2005)

The fragment further consolidates the position for the Portuguese language at school, as the only means of access to the school curriculum and to the school context. It is positioned both as the language of instruction and of informal communication outside the classroom. The existence of other languages within the school setting is not acknowledged at all. In this way, languages other than Portuguese are made invisible and illegitimate at schools.

Being based on a ‘native language’ approach, the PLNM guidelines represent a normative discourse which assesses other languages in terms of their potential for errors in learning Portuguese, thus marginalising and problematising those languages. Besides, as Ferreira (2003: 610) traces the origins of the term “native speaker” to nature and nation, she points out that its meaning is questionable because of the spread of new technologies and the increased mobility of people. Furthermore, my interviews with local PLNM coordinators revealed that *de facto* practices viewed non-European varieties of Portuguese and non-educated uses of Portuguese as problematic. In fact, one of the local coordinators reported that, apart from receiving a ‘diagnosis’, speakers of other languages were issued with a “*plano de recuperação*” [a recovery plan], which was adopted from those used in special education. The terms “recovery” and “diagnosis”, borrowed from medical discourses, help to construct languages other than Portuguese as if they were an almost medical condition the student has to recover from. These discourses and practices in education are based on “monoglossic language ideologies” (García & Torres-Guevara 2010) that clearly value monolingualism.

2.2. Local implementation of PLNM guidelines: schools and migrant families

In this section, I am going to highlight the differences between the official policies and their local implementation. Local authorities and actors see those differences as necessary efforts to adopt policies to concrete realities, which may bring about changes in the existing policies and formulation of new ones. Patricia, who was the coordinator of PLNM programmes in one of the local school clusters in 2007-2008 stated “if the regional education authority did not know which difficulties existed locally, the law would not ever change” [LPLNM; 17: 25].

PLNM teachers had to develop their own assessment instruments and create materials for their groups of students. In such a way, teachers and PLNM coordinators can not only implement state language education policies but also become their agents (Shohamy 2006: 80). However, given the lack of in-service training in PLNM, teachers have to “solve problems as they come” [LPLNM; 26: 00]. The choice criteria of students to be targeted by the programme were not very clear: Patricia said she had to filter the students name register in search of a “names that stood out”, then determine the time and type of their exposure to Portuguese, as well as try and identify their mother tongues. Mother tongues were not easy to determine especially among students who came from Portuguese-speaking African countries:

Example 4

a) Os miúdos sobretudo que são falantes do crioulo (.) os pais escondem (.) os miúdos escondem. -Então e que língua falam em casa? -É o português. E eu a tentar a dar à volta. - E também não falam crioulo? -Sim, é também. E assim já chegava. Há vergonha. Sentiam vergonha de dizer que falavam crioulo (mhm) e é a língua materna deles, não há que ter vergonha [LPLNM; 11: 50- 12: 10]

b) De acordo com o país de origem, temos 10 países. Línguas maternas – 11. Este foi difícil, este xiChangana foi difícil para a gente chegar lá (.) quase dois períodos até conseguir saber qual era a língua materna. É uma língua moçambicana. Consegui pois depois descobrimos alguém para falar da família, pois o miúdo também nem sabia o nome da língua materna [LPLNM; 23: 0623: 21]

From the educator’s perspective, some languages become hidden and could be source of shame to their speakers. However, given the centuries of creoles being classified as dialects or “non-languages” derived from Portuguese (Pinto 2008) and “broken Portuguese”, there is no surprise that creole-speaking families do not see their native creoles as independent languages. The fact that creole languages have not completed the ‘legitimising’ processes of standardisation may contribute to their perception as of a lower status. As Elana Shohamy explains: “spoken languages are constantly being criticised as “non-languages”, because they do not follow

standard rules” (Shohamy 2006: 65). In the case of Portuguese-based creoles, their gradual standardisation will have significant political effects, especially for creole speakers in Portugal.

Fragment (b) about the xiChangana speaker provides another example of ‘hidden languages’ in the face of the Western institutionalised perspective of language teaching in a multilingual context. Each language (rather than a concrete speaker) has to be identified and filtered through the system. Conversely, in African families people simply use their multilingual repertoires without distinguishing one language from the other. In the Western perspective, before the language is labelled, in order to become situated among other languages (value assigning), it remains invisible for language teaching. Once the language is identified, i.e. removed from its context of use and dissected into vocabulary, morphology and syntax etc., it can be grouped along others according to the “common difficulties” [LPLNM; 1: 03].

According to the interviewed PLNM coordinator, Brazilian Portuguese is equally falling through the cracks of the PLNM criteria:

Example 5

P - Muitos alunos brasileiros vão ás aulas do português língua materna e não entendem porque são das zonas onde falam... O português que eles falam é quase incompreensível p’ra nós.

OS - Em termos da pronúncia?

P - Pronúncia, léxico e sintaxe. A nível de vocabulário há muita dificuldade. em compreender. Alguns professores diziam: “Eu não entendo o que eles me dizem, e eles não me entendem. [LPLNM; 04: 55-05: 18]

Once again, the fragment makes it evident that the argument of the language proximity/distance underlying the PLNM guidelines is not really working in practice. The differences between the Brazilian and European Portuguese run deeper than grammar distinctions, into pragmatics, socialisation models and world views. Despite being native speakers of Portuguese, speakers of the Brazilian variety may find their language uses excluded from the repertoire outlined by the Portuguese school curriculum. In that sense, speakers of Brazilian Portuguese could not comply with the requirements.

Since the European Portuguese is positioned as the only language of the host country and official education, all immigrant languages and other varieties of Portuguese lose their value and relevance in official discourses of ‘integration’ precisely because of their immigrant condition. Immigrants who aspire for social mobility may internalise these ideologies and tend to adjust their behaviour accordingly. For example, during my fieldwork I encountered several Brazilians who consciously worked on losing those prosodic features that were associated with the Brazilian Portuguese in order to get a better job. One of them became a language teacher and another a civil servant in a town hall.

We have seen that real repertoires of speakers of creole languages and African languages are not contemplated in the conceptualisation of PLNM courses; Brazilian varieties of Portuguese – in that of L1 Portuguese. Furthermore, Patricia stated with some surprise that competences in L1 Portuguese of children who were native speakers of European Portuguese did not always correspond to the CEFR descriptors:

Example 6

P -Muitas vezes a gente vai ver os descritores e pensa assim: um miúdo português, um miúdo nativo de português quanto à idade e quanto ao tal grau de maturidade e de conhecimento, não tem aquelas competências!

OS - Nem sempre corresponde...

P – Não pode, não pode – um português! Porque pelo seu desenvolvimento emocional (mhm) psicológico, linguístico ainda não chegou àquele patamar. Por tanto, como é que nós adaptamos isto? Eu acho que é difícil, eu acho que há um trabalho a fazer ainda, a adaptar os descritores à situação concreta [LPLNM; 14: 22]

So how can it happen that native speakers of Portuguese fail to fit into the CEFR categories? The reasons could be attributed to the fact that the CEFR framework descriptors fail to describe the real uses and practices of language because they do not account for:

- a) the age of learners, being oriented toward educated adult learners rather than children;
- b) for the context of acquisition, being applied equally in a situation of a regular but limited

exposure to the 'target language' and of a permanent immersion in it; in a situation of language being specifically taught by an education professional and being self-taught;

c) for the nature of learning, being applied both in the case of voluntary foreign language learning (e.g. elite bilingualism) and in that of imposed L2 acquisition (e.g. for citizenship and naturalisation effects);

d) for the variety of registers, genres or accents in a given language, since no-one is capable of being equally proficient in all of them at once, rather becoming specialised in particular ones over the years.

In short, as Blommaert sums up: "Testing systems, such as the European Language Levels, stand in a curious relationship to the real resources and skills that people have, because they believe they measure languages, while in fact they measure specific resources" (Blommaert 2010: 105). The very idea of measuring of a language presupposes the language as a closed and fixed system which is used by an abstract average native speaker taken out of his/her social and historical context. Patricia's surprise with the fact that native speakers of Portuguese were not capable to comply with the CEFR descriptors resulted from the role the descriptors play in status planning. Since a native-like proficiency is positioned as a goal, the CEFR descriptors end up perpetuating the higher status for a native speaker of Portuguese. Such goal proves very hard to achieve.

Some immigrant families were however too eager to speed up the process of assimilation: "the worst thing is when parents, especially creole-speaking, start speaking Portuguese at home to their kids [...] the kids end up speaking incorrect Portuguese and not speaking their mother tongues. At home, they should take care of the mother tongue and at school they should take care of Portuguese" [LPLNM; 27: 40-28: 00]. This statement contains the following ideological messages: a) "mother tongues belong exclusively to the family whereas Portuguese – to school", b) "immigrant parents speak Portuguese incorrectly", and c) "languages should be learned as spoken correctly".

The simplistic idea that languages are kept in water-tight compartments and used one language at a time originates from monoglot ideologies that see multilingual communication as a sum of bounded monolingualisms. Immigrant children are used to hearing Portuguese (not always correctly spoken) even in the households where parents had issued a restrictive ban on the use of Portuguese. Moreover, often "native speakers" of Portuguese use "bad" forms (e.g. ill-placed stress, wrong collocation and syntax etc.) without as much as realising it, yet it rarely impedes their communication with other people. There are situations when people incorporate "bad forms" on purpose, to give a personal flavour, for a humorous or derogatory effect. The very idea of an existence of an abstract "correct Portuguese" emerges as a myth, since the normative criteria do not appear on their own, being rather associated to uses of particular social groups.

It usually takes little time for immigrant children to spot the differences between the ways their parents and their teachers speak and to draw conclusions. In practice not all of Portuguese teachers turn out to be highly proficient in language norms either; children may observe regional variations within the 'native speaker' accent.

As for family languages, immigrant children often grow with their receptive knowledge, being capable of processing and adequately reacting to messages in those languages. This kind of knowledge requires quite a sophisticated understanding of the ways in which languages work, thus incorporating their repertoires. So the receptive knowledge cannot be equalled to a total ignorance.

The coercive parental attitudes carry other important messages across: some languages are more important, visible and powerful than others, and people may choose to use the powerful ones and tend to reduce their use of less powerful ones. Some languages survive only in the private spaces while others are used openly. Although these messages have a considerable impact on children's choices, they are not at all permanent. A receptive knowledge may be easily developed into an active one, once the child consciously takes this decision. A 'hidden' language may become visible.

Just like state level discourses, local level institutional discourses positioned home languages outside the official school curriculum, to which they remained virtually invisible (except as a hindrance in acquisition of Portuguese). The institutional agents of both state and local level remained largely unaware of the ways in which other languages could contribute to more

effective learning of Portuguese when provided with real visibility. However, when the idea was suggested to them, the interviewed agents promptly enumerated its advantages in “teacher in-service training”, creating an “added value for the mother tongues” and helping “enrich non-immigrant students” [LPLNM: 74: 00-74: 30, also DGIDC report]. There seemed no hardened opposition to a more flexible design and practices within spaces designated for schooling. Yet, the powerful discourses which originated in higher levels (politics, economy, academia) defined and controlled the borders between the languages across space and time while operating monoglot ideologies. These borders delineated spaces available for particular languages and determined their mobility potential.

3. Speakers of other languages in Portuguese schools: de facto practices

Most immigrant parents and children highlighted that speakers of languages other than Portuguese had been received well in Portuguese classrooms. The main difficulties the children had experienced were attributed to their newcomer position or to their personality traits rather than linked to the differences between home and school languages or to the exposure to other literacies. However, over the years of ethnography I have collected considerable data (interactions witnessed by the researcher or referred to in the ethnographic interviews) that may throw light on de facto, local language and cultural policies acted out by teachers, classmates, school staff, parents and children. Following Hornberger and Link (2012), I labelled these situations “scenarios” and grouped them into four groups, as follows:

1) Difference as nuisance

- a) A Ukrainian girl did not have any additional Portuguese classes at her primary school because her Portuguese teacher “had wanted her to be treated like everyone else in the classroom” [E1; 145-146];
- b) During the playtime in their Portuguese primary school, students were speaking Ukrainian among themselves. Teachers overheard them and told them “to speak Portuguese because we don’t understand what you’re saying there” [E1; 56-58];
- c) Russian-speaking students opted out of speaking Russian to their parents on the grounds of the Portuguese school, or indicated this choice by pulling the parents aside or cutting the conversation short [O2, K4, A1, F1]
- d) A Ukrainian girl was being mocked by her Portuguese classmates who called her “ucraniana” and told her that she should not be living in Portugal [H1; 471-472]

All the described scenarios emerged in mainstream school settings which are often imagined as monolingual (Leung, Harris and Rampton 1997) despite being actually multilingual. As we have seen in the previous sections, the official PLNM policies may have also contributed to monolingualising schools by pushing languages other than Portuguese outside the curriculum and problematising them. Moreover, immigrant parents may inadvertently encourage this homogenisation by demanding from their child’s teacher not to distinguish their child from the rest of the class.

2) Difference as a right

By contrast, scenarios within this group describe situations where the use of different linguistic resources by students is acknowledged:

- a) A Russian-speaking student who came recently from Ukraine often stayed after classes with his Portuguese teacher for some extra exercises. The elderly teacher, who was working her last year before retirement, “[...] was interested. By trying out different methods that might work, she challenged herself to do something new. Imagine, she’d taught for decades and suddenly something else is required that she’d never done before” [I2; 90-94].
- b) A Ukrainian girl signed her name on an exercise-book. Her Portuguese teacher corrected it so that the name resembled a Portuguese one (e.g. from “Lyudmila” to “Ludmila”). As the teacher was rewriting the girl’s name, she pointed out that there was no letter “y” in the Portuguese alphabet. The girl’s mother noticed the change and went to school to explain to the teacher that the name should stay in its original form, because it figured in the girl’s official documents [K1; 210-213].
- c) A Ukrainian student, who had arrived two years before, did her national History and Geography exam in a different format from the rest of her class. The exam sheet had

been specifically adapted for speakers of other languages and contained simplified instructions and questions on the same material [LPLNM; 53: 13].

Despite situating linguistic resources from other languages outside the mainstream educational practice (2a – after classes), the scenarios of this category open up a reflection on the actual use of multilingual resources. This reflection may help challenge monolingual ideologies in the classroom.

Immigrant parents often expressed a view that children speaking other languages, especially those who had come to Portugal from a different country, could not be expected by their teachers to succeed at school as well as the Portuguese children. The parents considered that part of the cultural and linguistic knowledge was learned from socialisation – something that could not be learned from books. Yet this viewpoint was often shared by parents who nevertheless compared their children's Russian communicative repertoires with those of children who had never lived outside Russia, Ukraine or Belarus.

3) Difference is cool

- a) Russian-speaking teenagers shared some files of Russian pop-music with their Portuguese classmates. The classmates loved the music so much that they learned to sing the chorus in Russian [B-V; A-T].
- b) Portuguese classmates overheard how their Russian-speaking classmate was talking in Russian to her mother and asked to teach them a few words. From that moment on, whenever the mother telephoned her daughter while she was at school or spoke to her in front of her classmates, everybody would say 'hello', 'goodbye' and 'thanks' to her in Russian [K-KM]
- c) Three Russian-speaking teenage girls had become very popular in their class. Their parents and the girls themselves attributed their popularity to the privileged access to different sources of knowledge in several languages [B, G-V; K-KM; A-T].

Scenarios of this category described situations in which the knowledge of another language was valued as providing additional resources that could complement and amplify the experience of the world (additive bilingualism). These resources could be shared and combined creatively in the classroom, and taken on to the spaces immediately outside the classroom, to interactions with other peers and family members (cf. language crossing Rampton 1995). Indeed, I have recorded a scenario when a Portuguese parent phoned her Russian-speaking friend to find out what a Russian phrase "*idi syuda*" [come here] meant. It turned out that her daughter had picked up the phrase in a game with her Russian-speaking playmate and was calling out to her mother from the other room: "Mum, *idi syuda, idi syuda!*" [C1; 580-583].

4) Difference: an added responsibility or an assumed inequality?

A Russian girl excelled at every subject in her Portuguese school; she had always been encouraged by her parents to outperform the rest of the class. The parents explained their position like this: "life won't be easy for her because she is Russian-speaking, not a Portuguese. She would be able to achieve a positive result in any collective provided she gets the best marks. Only then all her minor mistakes, incorrect phrasing or possible miscomprehension in communication could be compensated" [B1; 489-493]. Similar points of view were conveyed by many other parents who thought that their children should be working harder to become level with their Portuguese classmates in terms of life opportunities. These opinions reflected parents' lived experiences back in the home countries as well as originated in official discourses of nation-states (both the Soviet Union and Portugal) that privileged the 'native speaker'. These ideologies have an effect of helping naturalise linguistic inequalities and perpetuate existing language hierarchies, being reinforced by subject positions of immigrants and non-native speakers of Portuguese, which are deemed less powerful in an allegedly monolingual host society.

4. Actual multilingual realities and possible changes in teaching practice

In actual lived experiences of multilingual speakers, the boundaries between languages and literacies are not "hermetically sealed", thus forming "interstices" where the different linguistic resources may co-exist (Martin-Jones & Heller 1996: 7-8). Home is one of the examples of

such interstices: even though a bilingual family may make it a rule not to speak the dominant language at home, dominant literacy and language will nevertheless make inroads in form of TV programmes, news, bills, letters from school, publicity materials, etc. Schools in contemporary Portugal are also multilingual and multiliterate.

However, regardless of the multilingual realities of European countries in a globalised world, mainstream educational settings, often with the immigrant parental approval, still insist on reinforcing the monoglot ideologies which label languages other than the language of instruction as a problem. Teachers in mainstream education often make a direct connection between the immigrant identity and language ‘problems’ (Blommaert *et al.* 2006). Immigrant children from different language and literacy backgrounds are brought into educational environments where they have to make meaning of which configuration of resources counts as ‘language’ and ‘literacy’ and which are disqualified. As reported by Blommaert’s research team, whenever the immigrant children attempted to painstakingly record their own accents in writing or their teacher’s regional accents, their work was penalised. By disqualifying language and literacy forms produced by children from other cultural background, the school communicates to these children that “their very cultural beings may not be fully realised in schools” (Glupczynski Spencer *et al.* 2011: 121). This is the effect of the asymmetrical relationship between the state-regulated teaching practices oriented around one central language – Portuguese–and between locally-distributed informal teaching of various family languages. These languages are invited into mainstream school settings on rare celebratory ‘days of mother tongue’.

Yet languages of immigrant children should not be cast outside mainstream schools. All it takes is for schools to embrace their actual multilingual realities. The teacher becomes an ethnographer of multilingual and multiterate practices, in which the uses of languages and literacies of the multilingual student represent a wealth of language resources and cultural attitudes rather than a source of errors. The curriculum of such a school setting includes literary works and oral fonts of the joint cultural heritage of every student, educator and carer within it. The pedagogies become more flexible and adapted to concrete tasks and interaction needs. Do you think it may prove impossible in contemporary Portugal? The findings of the recently completed ILTEC project “Escola multilingue”¹, whereby the school became a community of multilingual teaching practice, indicate that teachers in Portugal are capable of initiating transformative changes in the teaching model paradigm in their schools thus fully embracing their policy making potential.

References:

- Ataíde, J. & Dias, P. (eds.) (2011). *Relatório de Imigração, Fronteiras e Asilo*. Lisboa: Serviço de Estrangeiros e Fronteiras. (http://sefstat.sef.pt/Docs/Rifa_2011.pdf). Accessed 08 Jan 2013.
- Avermaet, P. (2009). Fortress Europe? Language policy regimes for immigration and citizenship. In G. Hogan-Brun; C. Mar-Molinero, P. Stevenson (eds). *Discourses on Language and Integration*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 15-43.
- Baganha, M. I., Marques, J.C., Góis, P. (2004). Novas migrações, novos desafios: A imigração do Leste Europeu. *Revista Crítica de Ciências Sociais*, 69, 95-115.
- Blackledge, A. (2005). *Discourse and Power in a Multilingual World*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Blackledge, A. & Creese, A. (2010). *Multilingualism. A Critical Perspective*. London and New York: Continuum.
- Blommaert, J. (2010). *The Sociolinguistics of Globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Blommaert, J.; Creve, L.; Willaert, E. (2006). On being declared illiterate: Language Ideological Disqualification in Dutch Classes for Immigrants in Belgium. *Language and Communication*, 26, 34-54.
- Direcção-Geral de Inovação e Desenvolvimento Curricular (2005). *Português Língua Não Materna no Currículo Nacional. Documento orientador*. Ministério da Educação: DGIDC.
- Ferreira, M. A. C. (2003). *As teias de aranha da casa: uma ecolinguística intercultural (alemão-português)*. PhD thesis, Universidade de Coimbra.
- García, O. & Torres-Guevara, R. (2010). Monoglossic ideologies and language policies in the education of the US Latinas/os. In E. Murillo, S. Villenas, R. T. Galván, J. S. Muñoz, C. Martínez, M. Machado-Casas (eds.). *Handbook of Latinos and Education: Research, theory and practice*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum, 182-194.

- Glupeczynski Spencer, T.; Falchi, L.; Ghiso, M.P. (2011). Linguistically Diverse Children and Educators (Re)Forming Early Literacy Policy. *Early Childhood Education*, 39, 115-123.
- Hodge, R. & Kress, G. (1979). *Language as Ideology*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Hornberger, N. & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: a biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. 15: 3, 261-278.
- Kramsch, C. (2002). Introduction. "How can we tell the dancer from the dance?". In C. Kramsch (ed.) *Language Acquisition and Language socialisation. Ecological perspectives*. London, New York: Continuum, 1-30.
- Leiria, I.; Queiroga, M. J.; Soares, N. (2005). *Português Língua Não Materna no Currículo Nacional. Perfis Linguísticos*. Lisboa: Direção Geral de Inovação e Desenvolvimento Curricular.
- Leung, C.; Harris, R. and Rampton, B. (1997). The idealised native speaker, reified ethnicities and classroom realities. *TESOL Quarterly*. 31:3, 543-560.
- Martin-Jones, M. & Heller, M. (1996) (Eds.). *Education in Multilingual Settings: Discourse, Identities and Power*. Linguistics and Education 8.
- Mateus, M. H. M. (2002). *Uma política de Língua para o Português*. Lisboa: Edições Colibri.
- Mateus, M. H. M. (2011). Diversidade Linguística na Escola Portuguesa. *Revista Lusófona de Educação*, 18, 13-24.
- Pinto, P. F. (2008). *Política de língua na democracia portuguesa (1974-2004)*. Lisboa: Universidade Aberta, Unpublished PhD Thesis.
- Presidência de Conselho de Ministros (2007). *Plano para a Integração dos Imigrantes*. (2007-2010). Lisboa.
- Rampton, B. (1995). *Crossing: Language and ethnicity among adolescents*. London and New York: Longman.
- Shohamy, E. (2006). *Language policy: hidden agendas and new approaches*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Silverstein, M. (1979). Language structure and linguistic ideology. In P. Clyne, W. Hanks, C. L. Hofbauer (eds.). *The elements: A parasection on linguistic units and levels*. Chicago: Chicago Linguistic Society.

