All dressed up and nowhere to go: Linguistic, cultural and ideological aspects of job interviews with second language speakers of Danish

Marta Kunov Kirilova

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PhD Dissertation
Marta Kunov Kirilova

All dressed up and nowhere to go

Linguistic, cultural and ideological aspects of job interviews
with second language speakers of Danish

University of Copenhagen
Scandinavian Studies and Linguistics

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Outline

This dissertation is a sociolinguistic, data-driven study of authentic job interviews with second language speakers of Danish. The job interviews are part of a Danish governmental initiative aimed particularly at immigrants and newcomers to Denmark, who are assumed to experience linguistic and cultural difficulties at the Danish labour market. The particular designs of the job interviews as well as the explicitly stated evaluations of language and culture create an unusual frame. On the one hand we deal with “traditional” job interviews as institutional gatekeeping instruments; on the other hand we face a tailored selection process meant to address the needs of the vulnerable. These contradictory practices produce certain tensions: although the job interviews in focus are meant to accomplish the target group’s special needs, they exemplify a practice in which the good intentions are all dressed up but have nowhere to go.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acknowledgements</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outline</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scientific context</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure of the dissertation</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1  Theoretical foundations</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Language and language socialization</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Institutional interaction</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. Conversational inference and contextualization</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4. Gatekeeping</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4.1. Studies of gatekeeping encounters</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4.2. Studies of gatekeeping: Discussion and conclusion</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5. Theoretical foundations: sum up</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 2  The IO Project</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Immigration to Denmark</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Language policy and language attitudes in Denmark</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3. The IO project</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1. The interview society and the logic of proxy</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2. Bureaucracy versus fairness</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3. The IO dilemma</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.4. IO criteria</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4. Interview design and frequently asked questions</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.1. Danish language assessments</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.2. Cultural assessments</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5. IO specifics and gatekeeping: discussion and conclusion</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3  Methods and Data</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1. Ethnography</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.2. Fieldwork phases........................................................................................................... 51
3.2.1. Initial phase ............................................................................................................. 51
3.2.2. Core phase.............................................................................................................. 52
3.2.3. Final phase ............................................................................................................ 54
3.3. Some reflections on ethnographic interventions in gatekeeping encounters........... 54
3.4. Discourse analysis and Interactional Sociolinguistics ............................................. 57
3.5 Concrete methods for selection of data for analysis ............................................... 60
3.5.1. Initial observations and reflections ...................................................................... 60
3.5.2. Method limitations ............................................................................................ 61
3.5.3. Selection of participants ................................................................................... 61
3.1.4. Selection of samples .......................................................................................... 62
3.6. Anonymisation of data ........................................................................................... 64
3.7. Transcription ............................................................................................................ 65
3.7.1. Types of transcriptions ..................................................................................... 67
3.8. Translations into English ...................................................................................... 68
3.9. Overview of data .................................................................................................... 69
3.9.1. Note on selection panels and applicants ............................................................ 71
3.10. Methods and Data: summary ............................................................................... 72

Chapter 4 Linguistic Fluency.......................................................................................... 75
4.1. Fluency as an ethnographic term ............................................................................ 75
4.2. Monologic approach to fluency: focus on form .................................................... 75
   4.2.1. Testing monologic fluency: Are successful job candidates those with the largest vocabulary in Danish? ................................................................. 78
   4.2.2. Monologic approach to fluency: discussion ...................................................... 81
4.3. Dialogic approach to fluency: focus on meaning .................................................. 82
   4.3.1. Fluency in Sociolinguistics and Late Modern Studies .................................... 83
   4.3.2. Sum up ............................................................................................................ 84
4.4. Fluency and negotiating of understanding ............................................................. 85
4.4.1. Misunderstandings ........................................................................................................85
4.4.2. Repair .........................................................................................................................87
4.4.3 Misunderstanding and non-understanding .................................................................88
4.4.4 Misunderstandings and non-understandings as a strategy for negotiating meaning ....88
4.4.5. Misunderstandings: conclusion ................................................................................92

4.5. Analysis: Two successful and two unsuccessful applicants .........................................92
4.5.1 RUBEN - managing the interactive dictionary .........................................................93
4.5.2. MOHAMMED - “never mind, it means nothing” ......................................................97
4.5.3. Fluency as polylanguaging .......................................................................................101
4.5.4. DOMINGO: “he was so good at Danish, I mean English” .......................................102
4.5.5. TSANG - “I didn’t understand that” ........................................................................107

4.6. Reclaiming fluency .....................................................................................................109

Chapter 5 Cultural Fluency ...............................................................................................113

5.1. Approaches to culture ...............................................................................................113
5.1.1. Language and culture ..............................................................................................113
5.1.2. Intercultural communication ..................................................................................114
5.1.3. Interculturality .........................................................................................................115
5.1.4. Interculturality in the IO job interviews ..................................................................116
5.1.5. Othering ..................................................................................................................118

5.2. Approaching cultural fluency ......................................................................................119
5.2.1 Schema, activity type, scenario and frame ................................................................120
5.2.2. Two scenarios ........................................................................................................122

5.3. Cultural fluency: analysis ..........................................................................................125
5.3.1. Hamid: “I drink vodka” ..........................................................................................125
5.3.2. Mohammed: mismatch of cultural expectations .....................................................131
5.3.3. Farid: The immigrant story ......................................................................................134
5.3.4. Yasin: managing the egalitarian relationship .........................................................136
5.3.5. Maximillian: the visionary “we” .............................................................................139
5.4. What counts as cultural fluency? ................................................................. 140
5.5. Sum up ..................................................................................................... 142

Chapter 5½ What is cultural and what is linguistic? ........................................ 143
5½.1. Discussion: What is cultural and what is linguistic? .............................. 147

Chapter 6 Ideologies and Assessments ............................................................. 147
6.1. Linguistic ideology .................................................................................. 151
6.2. Legitimate language and linguistic capital ............................................. 153
6.3. Ideologies and Stereotypes .................................................................... 154
6.4. Ideologies as commonsense .................................................................... 157
6.5. Assessments ............................................................................................ 160
6.5.1. Assessment theory in social contexts .................................................. 161
6.5.2. Discussion: Assessments and validity in the IO interviews ................. 162
6.6. Ideologies and assessments: analysis ...................................................... 164
6.6.1. Ideology in written texts about IO positions ....................................... 165
6.6.2. Assessing linguistic and cultural fluency ............................................ 167
6.6.2.1. Academic positions ....................................................................... 171
6.6.2.2. Academic positions: what counts as linguistic and cultural fluency .................................................. 170
6.6.2.3. Non-academic positions ................................................................ 171
6.6.2.24. Non-academic positions: what counts as linguistic and cultural fluency ............................................... 172
6.6.3. Assessing stereotypes: “Danes and [Asians] we have very different culture” 175
6.6.4. Some reflections on egalitarian discourses ......................................... 181
6.7. Language ideologies and assessments: conclusion .................................. 182

Chapter 7 Two Case Studies .......................................................................... 185
7.1. Applicants, panel and structure .............................................................. 185
7.1.1. Applicants .......................................................................................... 185
7.1.2. Panel .................................................................................................. 186
7.1.3. Structure ............................................................................................ 187
7.2. Comparative sequential analysis ............................................................ 188
7.2.1. Establishing understanding: “I’ll tell you if I don’t understand” ................................. 188
7.2.2. Questioning the applicant’s skills “What are you good at”: ........................................ 190
7.2.3. Explaining the IO positions: “But it could be difficult” .................................................. 192
7.2.4. Working in Denmark ........................................................................................................ 194
7.2.5. Danish language .............................................................................................................. 198
7.2.6. Activities outside work ..................................................................................................... 199

7.3. Assessments of Hannah and Arabella .................................................................................. 203
7.3.1. Linguistic Fluency ............................................................................................................ 203
7.3.2. Cultural Fluency ............................................................................................................... 204

7.4. Postscript: Three years later ............................................................................................... 207

7.5. Conclusion: Ideology and assessments ............................................................................... 208
7.6. The tragedy of the IO project ............................................................................................. 210

Chapter 8 Findings and Conclusions ...................................................................................... 213
8.1. Super-diverse communicative practices: reclaiming fluency............................................ 213
8.2. Strategies for success ............................................................................................................ 215
8.3. Special consideration in the age of super-diversity: all dressed up and nowhere to go 217
8.4. Areas of concern .................................................................................................................. 220
8.5. Recommendations .............................................................................................................. 221

References .................................................................................................................................. 223
Resumé på dansk ....................................................................................................................... 233
English summary ....................................................................................................................... 234
Appendix 1-9 ............................................................................................................................. 236
Introduction

Job interviews are institutional encounters which aim at determining whether a given person is suitable for a given job or not. Job interviews are still the most common method for selecting job applicants in the Western World. Applicants are typically offered an interview on the assumption that they already possess the required skills for the position - they might be selected for an interview on the basis of a written CV, an application, or a passed test. Selection is the core procedure and the main premise of the job interview. However, the focus on the necessity to select is so huge, that often less attention is paid to selection criteria. Unlike exams, regardless of how well-prepared and well-qualified an applicant is, there is never a guarantee that he or she will be given the job. It might seem that the panel exercises “the ceremony of power” to establish at least some “truths” (Foucault 1977, 184-195), but in reality it might also come down to individual preferences, such as whether or not the committee likes the candidate. Choosing the best candidate is choosing the most likeable colleague (Komter 1991:34), a process which requires that the interviewers ignore and attend to the personality and the applicant at the same time (Erickson and Schultz 1982, 203-4). The applicant has only a single chance to pass. If it goes wrong, or if it has gone wrong before the interview even started, the failure is inescapable. In a way, the job interview is a gigantic illusion: it suggests that everyone has equal chances but only to bring in some idea of fairness.

The job interviews in this study are not “ordinary” job interviews – they are specially designed encounters reserved exclusively for speakers of Danish as a second language. Thus, apart from dealing with all of the above, these particular job interviews face several new challenges. For example: What happens when the applicants do not master the language of the majority at the same level of accuracy and fluency as the majority? Are the interviewers willing to solve the problems together with the applicants and if that is the case, does this affect the selection procedure? And how about stereotypes – if the applicants are not able to express themselves “properly” and to speak convincingly about themselves, would that feed into stereotypes?

These questions are sufficient, at least to me, to make job interviews with second language speakers of Danish important study objects. It is no secret that my interest in speakers of Danish as a second language stems from the fact that I myself belong to that
group and particularly well can relate to the many linguistic and cultural challenges in Denmark. Being an immigrant – in Denmark and anywhere else in the world - demands heaps of skills, constant attention and flexibility at all levels. Being able to cope with the requirements of a job interview, as one of the most powerful and significant events in one’s adult life, can be insurmountably difficult. Despite my interest and my desire to solve the conundrum of the job interview for everybody, this is a mission impossible. I hope, however, to be able to raise the curtain – at least partly – revealing some of the important processes which make both interviewers and interviewees aware of the consequences of these ritualized events of institutional power.

The key questions in this dissertation are:

1. **How do successful and unsuccessful applicants communicate in terms of linguistic and cultural resources?**

2. **To what extent do the job panels’ ideologies and stereotypes intervene with the evaluations of job applicants?**
Scientific context
This study explores job interviews as sociocultural and sociolinguistic phenomena in which language is seen as a social practice. The point of departure is the relation between language and society with a growing awareness on globalization and mobility (Blommaert 2010). An important concept is super-diversity (Vertovec 2007) with which our attention is called to the fact that during the latest couple of decades the patterns of immigration and emigration have changed immensely. The diffuse nature of migration has problematized the socio-cultural features of categories such as “migrant”, “nationality”, “ethnicity”, “language” and “religion”. These categories can no longer be used as justifications in their own right (Blommaert and Rampton 2011:1). The term ethnic, for example, is indeed confusing, because depending on how it is used, it may overlappingly refer to skin colour, nationality, religion, culture or language. “Ethnic” does not correspond to the way people identify themselves because ethnicities often “move” or develop as states and nations emerge or disappear (Harris and Rampton 2003). This is one important reason why my dissertation has not applied the concept of ethnicity to the analysis but is rather inspired by super-diversity. As Vertovec (2007:1035) puts it:

...how people group themselves and where people live, how long they can stay, how much autonomy they have ... comprise an additional, indeed, fundamental, dimension of today’s patterns and dynamics of super-diversity.

This important idea is in vein with Gumperz’ networks of relationships which he defines as follows:

Through participation in similar ‘networks of relationships’ over time, we have been socialized into similar network-specific communicative practices. Although our backgrounds are about as different as they could be, we share certain communicative conventions and interpretive practices. It is long-term exposure to similar communicative experience in institutionalized networks of relationship and not language or community membership as such that lies at the root of shared culture and shared inferential practices. In most people’s lives, community membership is of course directly linked to participation in such networks of relationships, but in our post-industrial worlds, it is less and less possible to take this for granted (Gumperz 1996:359).

The concept of networks of relationships encapsulates the idea that differences in meaning and interpretations are not based on differences in cultural backgrounds; rather they are based on participation in shared networks. This is an important stepping stone
for the central line of thinking in this dissertation. I shall come back to that in *Theoretical Foundations*.

Another major stepping stone is the research of Roberts and colleagues (Gumperz, Jupp and Roberts 1979, Roberts et al. 1992, Roberts and Sarangi 1999, Roberts 2000, Roberts and Campbell 2006, Roberts, Campbell and Robinson 2007). Roberts has been working with institutional communication and interethnic job interviews in particular. Her latest studies with Sarah Campbell are highly comparable to the objects of study in this dissertation both in terms of data, methods and results. The comparison has shown that my results are not country specific but that they occur across the Western World. Roberts’ studies have also anchored this dissertation in a long and well-established Anglo-American research tradition in sociolinguistic analysis of institutional talk and interethnic job interviews in particular. Similar studies have been lacking in Denmark and there are no sociolinguistic studies of interethnic job interviews with which to make a comparison. There are – however– several Danish studies that are highly relevant: Fogtmann 2007 and Tranekjær 2009 are both thematically linked to this dissertation. Fogtmann analyses interviews between non-native speakers of Danish who apply for Danish citizenship and the Danish police who tests and proposes them for Danish citizenship on the basis of the interviews. Tranekjær analyses internship interviews with non-native speakers of Danish and demonstrates how the participants negotiate, establish and access membership categories based on nationality, language and religion. Last but not least is Scheuer’s research in job interviews (Scheuer 1998, 2001 and 2003) which currently is the only Danish study of authentic job interviews from a discourse analytical perspective, a relevant argument of which is that communicative styles are products of general processes of socialization rather than products of formal education. All of these studies will be presented and discussed in later chapters.
Structure of the dissertation
The dissertation consists of an introduction and nine chapters.

Chapter 1 (Theoretical foundations) goes through the major concepts and theoretical foundations. It sketches the terrain of institutional interaction and focuses on processes of interactional gatekeeping (Erickson and Schultz 1982) and conversational inference (Gumperz 1982) as the mechanisms of interaction in ritualized asymmetric encounters. Thus, it lays the overall theoretical basis and discusses the most influential and relevant studies which next chapters concretize and exemplify.

Chapter 2 (The IO project) serves several purposes. First, it outlines the Danish demographical and political context in which the Integration and Training Initiative (IO project) is embedded. Second, it draws the contours of the interview as an everyday practice by referring to Atkinson and Silverman’s Interview Society (1997). Third, it highlights the different logics of the IO interview leading to a dilemma in the selection. And finally, it sketches the design and the criteria for the IO project focusing on its specifics and differences from “ordinary” job interviews.

Chapter 3 (Method and Data) discusses the main methods and creates an overview of the ethnographic phases of fieldwork. It also argues for concrete methods, reflects on issues of transcription and translation and finally categorizes the collected data in relation to workplaces, positions, number of participants and outcome of the interview.

Chapter 4 (Linguistic Fluency) is an analytical chapter the central argument of which is that fluency is not the monologic command of a given L2 but the successful dialogical practice through which the interlocutors are able to negotiate mutual understanding. Through a number of examples, the chapter reconceptualises the notion of fluency from an outsider, structuralist and monologic view and proposes a new, emic perspective which is highly relevant in a gatekeeping, super-diverse context and which becomes possible through ethnography. Thus, L2 fluency is redefined as a practice dependent on how the interlocutors negotiate, approve of each other’s’ choices and allow each other to use alternative communicative resources, e.g. verbal and non-verbal signals of comprehension, reformulations, repeats, integration of features associated with other sets of linguistic resources (other languages) etc.
Chapter 5 (Cultural fluency) builds on the concept of linguistic fluency but extends the notion of fluency to place it within both a linguistic and a cultural context. It introduces several approaches to culture and discusses interculturality and intercultural communication. Additionally, it suggests an analytical framework to approach the notion of cultural fluency by addressing the job interview as an activity type in which, depending on the situation and the interlocutors, different scenarios might take place. It analyses five excerpts of IO job interviews to demonstrate how cultural fluency is done situationally and changes in every frame or scenario. It also shows the importance of integrating different discourses (Roberts and Campbell 2006), modes (Svennevig 2001) or styles (Scheuer 2001). Last but not least, it argues for the existence of certain cultural expectations that establish norms for cultural behaviour at ritualized institutional events. Cultural fluency is defined as the ability to demonstrate conventionalized knowledge, attitudes and emotions that are expected by and shared with the gatekeeper or the interlocutor-in-charge. Cultural fluency is done situationally and may change in every frame, scenario or activity type. It is often interconnected with linguistic fluency though it might function as a more abstract level of fluency that appears just as important as the pure mastering of the mechanics of language.

Chapter 5½ (What is cultural and what is linguistic?) is a comprehensibly analytical chapter aiming at shedding light on the huge conceptual overlap between linguistic and cultural fluency by demonstrating their interconnectivity. It provides an analysis of an excerpt of a job interview with an Asian applicant highlighting following: On the one hand the interlocutors need to understand the content of what is said, and on the other hand they need to possess and demonstrate understanding of when, how and how much to signal ambiguousness and mis- or non-understanding. Those two principles are irrevocably interconnected but while the first one is mostly associated with linguistic fluency, the second one is rather linked to cultural fluency.

Chapter 6 (Ideologies and assessments) adds a third and important element to the analysis of fluency by studying the effect of existing ideologies to the selection process of job applicants. It argues that ideologies affect the IO job interview putting a tag on the one hand on the managers’ decisions and on the other hand on the applicants’ linguistic and cultural performance. It summarizes theoretical and practical issues of ideology and provides examples of how stereotypes, mutual expectations and prejudices
feed into the selection process. It also discusses ideological aspects of language assessments (e.g. justice vs. fairness, McNamara and Ryan 2011) in the context of the job interview. Finally, it presents three pieces of analysis: First, an analysis of the official written target group requirements, second, an overview and analysis of the panels’ assessments of applicants for academic and non-academic positions as recorded in the post-interview conversations, and third, an interaction analysis of an example showing how Danish workplaces are contrasted to one applicant’s country of origins’ workplace.

Chapter 7 (Two case studies) is an illustrative empiric chapter exemplifying the fine-grained interplay between the three main themes in this dissertation: language, culture and ideology. It provides an extended comparative analysis of two job interviews for the same position and concludes that while the unsuccessful applicant is systematically positioned as an outsider to Danish culture and workplace procedures, the successful applicant is systematically positioned as an individual who shares the panel’s cultural context and values. Cultural background is explicitly mentioned as a factor that matters more than anything else in the interview. Danish language skills are perceived as being less important in situ; however, they are also used ideologically as proxy for other competencies: e.g. the faster the acquisition of Danish, the better the employee.

Chapter 8 (Conclusions and implications) comprises the dissertation’s conclusions and brings to attention a number of areas of concern thereby also considering some improvement practices.
Chapter 1
Theoretical foundations

This chapter outlines the major concepts and theoretical foundations in the study. It sketches the terrain of institutional interaction by focusing on processes of interactional gatekeeping (Erickson and Schultz 1982) and conversational inference (Gumperz 1982a) as the mechanisms of interactional exchange in ritualized asymmetric encounters such as job interviews. It lays the main theoretical foundations and general stances and discusses relevant studies which next chapters will concretize and exemplify.

1.1. Language and language socialization
Language is a system of symbolic resources, designed for the production and interpretation of social and intellectual activities (Ochs 1996). We are born with the ability to acquire complex semiotic systems and to use these systems for creating meaning. However, the contexts in which we learn language, the way we use them and the extent to which they help or hinder us in achieving our goals are culturally mediated. To understand language and its role in our lives, we need to go beyond the linguistic features; we have to study the world of social action where words are embedded in and constitutive of specific cultural activities (Duranti 2009:1). For example, when we participate in a meeting, go to the doctor, propose marriage or are interviewed for a job, we have to act socially appropriate and use language that suits the situation to achieve our goals. Acquiring language and acquiring knowledge of its functions, is crucial for becoming a competent member of the society (Ochs 1996, Ochs and Shieffelin 2009).

Children are socialized through language from birth. During school, children go through a “secondary” socialization (Sarangi and Roberts 2003). Older children and adults who move to a new country, undergo “tertiary” socialization (Byram 1997). During the process of socialization, children and adults learn to use the language of the majority community in meaningful and culturally appropriate ways. If they are socialized (initially, secondary or tertiary) into the same practice of participating in meetings, going to the doctor, proposing marriage or being interviewed for a job, they would have a better understanding of how to conduct themselves. If not, they may face difficulties which in the worst case may lead to social exclusion.
1.2 Institutional interaction

Institutional interaction is one of the social spheres that requires special knowledge of language use. According to Erickson and Schultz’ (1982) institutional interaction is both socially and culturally organized. Socially organized, because the interaction takes place in and is constituted by the succession of moments in real time, and culturally organized, because the participants in an interaction interpret the communicative actions of each other on the basis of knowledge (norms, cultural conventions, shared knowledge of style etc.) learned outside the communicative occasion. Hymes 1974 calls this knowledge communicative competence.

Institutional interaction happens in professional settings, e.g. at work, in school, at a hospital, within the authorities, etc. However, as Drew and Heritage (1992:34) point out, we cannot just intuitively characterize a given interaction as institutional; we should rather document systematically the manifestations of insitutionality and not merely guess how an institution performs its tasks, roles and procedures. Institutional talk is not confined to a single setting; it can occur in any speech situation, just as everyday conversations can become part of institutional interaction.

Heritage and Clayman (2010:34) (see also Drew and Heritage 1992:22) argue that three main components should be present to identify institutional talk:

1) The interaction usually involves the participants in specific goal orientations which are tied to their institution-relevant identities

2) The interaction involves special constraints on what will be treated as allowable contributions to the business at hand

3) The interaction is associated with inferential frameworks and procedures that are particular to specific institutional contexts.

Let us have a look at how the job interviews in this dissertation match the above criteria. First, the participants in a job interview (job applicant and job panel) carry their institution-relevant identities. The applicants would like to get the job and perform to make themselves appropriate for the job. The panels perform by judging and evaluating the applicants’ performance (including their linguistic, cultural and professional skills) in
order to select whom they consider the best applicant. Both panels and applicant are actors in the interview game (Roberts 1985).

The second point about how interaction involves special constraints on what will be considered allowable contributions to the business at hand refers to the power relations and the participants’ obligations within the job interview. A job applicant is obliged to answer the questions asked by the panel and the panel is obliged to ask and follow the interview procedure. This includes proper use of question-answer sequences and use of different discourses to shift between different activity types. I shall come back to that.

The third point is associated with use of inferential frames and contexts, and is closely tied to Gumperz 1982’s concept of conversational inference. I explain that in the next section.

1.3. Conversational inference and contextualization

Gumperz (1982:153) defines conversational inference as “the situated, context-bound process of interpretation, by means of which participants in an exchange assess others’ intentions, and on which they base their responses”. Originally, conversational inference was introduced by Garfinkel in 1967 (cf. Garfinkel 1991) but Gumperz has developed it further. According to Gumperz, conversational inferences are integral part of the very act of conversing. In order to interact, we need to make sense of what we hear by continually looking for relevance. This relevance is only suggestive and tentative but it helps us decode how an utterance is to be interpreted. Furthermore, it illustrates how others have interpreted our utterances through verbal or nonverbal responses. Gumperz argues that “it is the nature of these responses rather than the independently determined meaning or truth value of individual utterances alone that governs evaluation of intent” (Gumperz 1992: 154). I come back to that in the Methodology chapter.

Conversational inference is linked to the concept of contextualization (e.g. Gumperz and Cook-Gumperz 1976 and Gumperz 1982, Gumperz 1992, Auer and Di Luzio 1992, Auer 1996). When we interact, we create contexts - an idea that originally stems from Bateson et al 1956. The pieces of information we provide, the stances we take and the social relations we are part of can be understood and negotiated only within a context. To Gumperz context or contexts (as the number of contexts is unlimited) are dynamic and actively conducted by both speakers and hearers. Contextualization,
according to Gumperz 1992:230, happens when “speakers and listeners’ use of verbal and nonverbal signs to relate what is said at any one time and in any one place to knowledge acquired through past experience, in order to retrieve the presuppositions they must rely on to maintain conversational involvement and assess what is intended”. To understand the notion of contextualization Gumperz assumes that:

1) Situated interpretation of any utterance is always a matter of inferences made within the context of an interactive exchange, the nature of which is constrained both by what is said and by how it is interpreted.

2) Inferencing (...) is presupposition-based and therefore suggestive, not assertive. It involves hypothesis-like tentative assessments of communicative intent, that is, the listener’ interpretation of what the speaker seeks to convey, in roughly illocutionary terms. These assessments can be validated only in relation to other background assumptions, and not in terms of absolute truth value.

3) Although such background assumptions build on extralinguistic “knowledge of the world,” in any one conversation this knowledge is reinterpreted as part of the process of conversing so that it is interactively, thus ultimately socially, constructed. Interpretations, in other words, are ecologically constrained by considerations of sequencing, conversational management and negotiation of meaning, and, since sequencing is by its very nature an interactive process, they are cooperatively made and validated.

(Gumperz 1992:230-231)

So, according to Gumperz, contextualization is particularly useful for identifying context(s) behind the communicative event that happens “here and now” as it makes it possible to link the interactional micro level of talk to the macro level of socially constructed ideologies. Auer and Roberts 2011:388 sum up how contextualization works: on the one hand it requires search for relevance, both in the literal interpretation of talk and also in the indexical and metaphorical functions of language, on the other hand it has a reflexive function in which grammar, lexicon, prosody and style invoke contexts shaping the interaction moment by moment.

Contextualization is important for my study as it links the analytical concepts of linguistic and cultural fluency (each of which I explain in a separate chapter) through framing and inferences. Contextualization provides a tool for understanding job interviews as encounters between first and second language speakers of Danish. As job interviews are some of the most culturally charged institutional events, they could be expected to
challenge the interlocutors’ sociocultural knowledge and their understanding of speech activities within¹. By speech activities we should understand means through which social knowledge is stored in the form of constraints on action and possible interpretation (Gumperz 1982: 166, see also Levinson 1979) Gumperz also leans on Goffmans’ concept of frame and footing (Goffman 1974) by demonstrating how the small details of interaction are crucial to the framing processes. I come back to speech activities, activity types, frame and footing in Cultural Fluency.

To demonstrate the concrete processes of contextualization, Gumperz develops the idea of contextualization cues, defined as “those verbal signs that are indexically associated with specific classes of communicative activity types and thus signal the frame of context for the interpretation of constituent messages” (Gumperz 1992:307, see also Gumperz 1982). Lexical choice, stress placement, intonation and prosodic features in general serve as contextualization that help us judge the expectedness of an utterance, and then search for a reasonable interpretation. The interlocutors “listen to speech, form a hypothesis about what routine is being enacted, and then rely on social background knowledge and on co-occurrence expectations to evaluate what is intended and what attitudes are conveyed” (Gumperz 1982:171). In a number of studies (Gumperz 1982 and 1982b), Gumperz convincingly demonstrates how contextualization cues provide a tool for understanding interaction between interlocutors with different social and cultural background and link micro and macro contexts of communication.

The notion of contextualization cues is revolutionary but leaves a lot of unanswered questions. For example, there is a paradox which comes from the fact that to decide on an interpretation, the interlocutors may first make a preliminary interpretation. Levinson 2003 pays attention to the ambiguity of contextualization cues and touches upon their “out of awareness features”, i.e. as context-innovative, contextualization cues cannot be directly responded to, because they can only be learnt by rich exposure to a communicative tradition, “a deep immersion in social networks” (Levinson 2003:29). Gumperz addresses this critique in later studies (Gumperz 1996 and 1999) in which he is explicit about the fact that there must not be made assumptions that different

¹ However, we must not anticipate differences just because the interlocutors do not share backgrounds. See section on interactional sociolinguistics for details.
backgrounds give different interpretative processes resulting in different patterns of communication. Rather, we should seek for empirical evidence of whether or not these processes are shared (Gumperz 1999:458, see also “networks of relationships” in Gumperz 1996:359). I will return to Gumperz in the chapter Data and Methods.

After sketching the main issues in Gumperz’ point of view related to institutional interaction, I move on to the concept of gatekeeping as another major theoretical concept in this dissertation.

1.4. Gatekeeping

As a common metaphor of achieving social status, the term gatekeeping relates to the physical and social passage from outside to inside which often requires a possibility or permission to access resources on offer. This permission or possibility is related to the process of assessing from the gatekeepers’ side. The notion of institutional gatekeeping is introduced by Erickson in 1975 and further developed in Erickson and Schultz 1982. According to those studies, institutional gatekeeping occurs in all kinds of settings – education, business, medicine, law, social work, etc. Gatekeeping is described as “brief encounters in which two persons meet, usually as strangers, with one of them having authority to make decisions that affect the other’s future” (Erickson and Schultz 1982: xi).

A number of other studies from the same period contribute to understanding the phenomenon of institutional gatekeeping (Gumperz 1982, 1982b, 1992, Jupp, Roberts and Cook-Gumperz 1982, Roberts 1985, Roberts and Sayers 1987, Komter 1991). These studies’ point of departure is how one part makes use of the right and authority to make decisions with direct consequences to the other part on the basis of talk. As Roberts (2000:103) put it: “the decision making processes are essential to the guarding of resources, which are both scarce and made scarce by the ruling elite”. This is a central point which will be taken up in Ideologies and Assessments (see also discussion in The IO project).

1.4.1. Studies of gatekeeping encounters

Erickson 1975 and Erickson and Schultz 1982 are the first to use the term gatekeeping about decision making institutional encounters. They take an identity approach to student counseling sessions and demonstrate how moments of interactional arhythmia correlate with the students’ background and ethnicity, so if students and counselor share
their ethnicity or panethnicity (e.g., White Catholics), the students tend to receive more interactional help than students who have another ethnic background than the counselors. Erickson and Schultz argue that social identities and communicative style are crucial to the character and the outcome of the gatekeeping interview. Co-membership and interpersonal solidarity are key words in their study as they reveal how identity is constructed and used both exclusively and inclusively. Co-membership and alignment are also central to this dissertation as further analysis reveals. My study is rich in examples of successful interviews linked to issues of co-membership (see *Two Case Studies*).

Gumperz 1982a and 1982b, inspired by Goffman, refers also to the process of co-membership and calls it establishing of common frame. According to Gumperz, culturally specific communicative styles hinder successful communication as the gatekeepers from the majority community use the cultural and linguistic differences against the minority community members and create an environment of disadvantage. He analyses intercultural communication in several encounters, e.g., classrooms and job centers, and attributes much miscommunication to cultural mismatch. By this he also argues for the importance of the linguistic dimension of social discrimination, pointing out that language and sociocultural knowledge interact to produce and reproduce inequality (See also Roberts 2011). Akinnaso and Ajirotutu 1982 carry out a study of simulated interethnic job interviews and conclude that ethnic inequality leads to disqualification and discrimination. Akinnaso and Ajirotutu’s analysis pictures the interviewer as the sole instance of power while it portrays the interviewees as weak and incapable of power and control. Such view on job interviews that disregards the possibilities for negotiating and joint production is now considered over-simplified and is not found in later studies of gatekeeping. However, Akinnaso and Ajirotutu’s contribution to the study of gatekeeping is significant as it reveals an important connection between ethnic background and discrimination in institutional settings such as the correlation between the use of cultural specific narratives and the negative assessment of the ethnic candidates using those narratives.

Gumperz and his students’ innovative approach to interethnic communication as a gatekeeping encounter has been taken up and developed further by a number of linguists among whom Roberts takes a prominent place (Jupp et al 1982, Roberts and Sayers 1987,
Roberts et al. 1992, Roberts and Sarangi 1999, Roberts 2000, Roberts et al. 2004, Roberts et al. 2005, Roberts and Sarangi 2005, Roberts and Campbell 2006, Roberts, Campbell and Robinson 2008). Roberts and colleagues undertake a large number of studies of gatekeeping, researching simulated job interview sessions (Jupp and Gumperz 1982), oral examinations for general practitioners (Roberts and Sarangi 1999), and larger projects on doctor and patient communication (Roberts et al. 2003, 2004, Roberts and Sarangi 2005). The most recent studies by Roberts and Campbell (Roberts and Campbell 2006, Roberts, Campbell and Robinson 2008) are particularly interesting for my project as they contain a number of similarities in terms of data and results. Roberts and Campbell’s aim is to understand the discourse practices of job interviews for low paid jobs in the United Kingdom. Their key finding is that first generation ethnic minority candidates fail because of the cultural and linguistic demands of the job interview. The “born-abroad” candidates face a *linguistic penalty* and are more likely than white or ethnic minority British candidates to be rejected. The term *linguistic penalty* is inspired by Bourdieu’s notion of language and symbolic power (Bourdieu 1991) and is related to several factors. Among these are the interviewers’ negative judgements of the candidates’ personality and communicative style when this communicative style is different from the interviewers’. A linguistic penalty is also given if the candidates use too personal and non-professional language. Such candidates are judged by the interviewers to be poorer users of English. “Poor English” becomes a legitimate catch-all term that sweeps together both different communicative styles, interactional difficulties and perceived linguistic disfluency. However, as Roberts and Campbell argue, “the linguistic penalty arises not from a lack of fluency in English amongst this group, but from the largely hidden demands on candidates to talk in institutionally credible ways and from a mismatch of implicit cultural expectations, evidenced by mutual misunderstandings, protracted attempts to resolve them and negative judgements by interviewers” (Roberts and Campbell 2006:1). Furthermore, Roberts and Campbell question the value of job interviews as an appropriate selection process for low-paid work. They point out that candidates judged not suitable for the job interview may in fact be suitable for the job.

Auer’s studies (Auer 1998 and Auer & Kern 2001) are also worth mentioning here. Auer and Kern 2001 analyse data from simulated job interviews with West German interviewers and East German applicants and argue that although East Germany and
West Germany are parts of the same country, due to the different political regimes, the way job seekers from the former German Democratic Republic interacted with interviewers from the Federal Republic of Germany should rather be seen in terms of interculturality. They explore three different notions of interculturality and conclude that lack of shared cultural knowledge between East Germans and West Germans leads to communicative difficulties. I discuss and exemplify Auer’s studies later in the chapter *Cultural Fluency*.

Kerekes 2003 and 2006 examines interethnic employment interviews in Canada. Drawing on a discourse analytical approach Kerekes investigates two main fields: establishing co-membership (e.g. connections, common views) and trust (e.g. the interlocutors’ predispositions, appearance, personalities and behavior). In line with Erickson and Schultz 1982 her study demonstrates how the interviewers are more lenient with the candidates with whom they have established co-membership, and the interaction becomes more personalized. Co-membership according to Kerekes is independent of race and gender.

Komter 1991 researches job interviews in the Netherlands. One of her central points is the existence of so-called “umentionables” or “unsayables” in the encounters. These “unsayables” can be seen in the delicate balance between on the one hand what is said what is expressed and on the other hand the unofficial orientations of the participants (e.g. the candidate’s ethnicity, social status and personality). These are conveyed implicitly and because of that induced in the gatekeeping by deliberate avoiding of questions about aspects of the candidates’ personality. Thus, the unsayables play a crucial role in the selection process but also challenge the researcher’s methodological decisions for how to analyse things that are implicit.

Lipovsky (2006 and 2008) analyses both authentic and simulated interviews in French and English in Australia. Lipovsky 2006 is based on both role-play and authentic interviews conducted in English and French. She concludes that “the way candidates presented information to their interviewers was more important for negotiating their expertise and making a good impression on them than the information itself, as the candidates’ lexicogrammatical choices contributed much to the interviewer’s positive or negative impression of the candidates’ answers, and therefore, the candidates themselves” (Lipovsky 2006: 1173). Drawing on the same database of interviews Lipovsky 2008 makes
further investigations of affiliation and solidarity in three job interviews, and in particular how candidates shape their talk to establish solidarity with the interviewers. She finds that successful candidates are those who are able to, firstly, express enthusiasm and interest in their job, and secondly, demonstrate professional ability. According to her and in line with Roberts and Campbell 2006, mastering professional terminology and technical language contribute greatly to pin down the candidates’ expertise.

Gatekeeping encounters are also researched in a Scandinavian context in a number of doctoral dissertations (Adelsvärd 1988, Scheuer 1998, Trads 2000, Sundberg 2004, Fogtmann 2007, Tranekjær 2009). Adelsvärd was the first to explore different styles of success in job interviews in Sweden with first language speakers of Swedish. She argues that if the candidate and the interviewer belonged to different social groups, their shared knowledge would also be different. As a result, the manager may have difficulties in placing the candidate in a particular category because the manager does not have knowledge of the style or the role the candidate performs during the interview. Adelsvärd also demonstrates that successful candidates spend more time discussing non-professional topics with the interviewers than unsuccessful candidates. Similarly, Scheuer 1998 (see also Scheuer 2001 and 2003) investigates success in authentic job interviews in Denmark with first language speakers of Danish. He argues that the most important criterion for success in job interviews is not purely individual competence, but demonstrating knowledge and control of social practices and social categories (repertoire) which the candidate is able to apply very precisely in different communicative situations. The managing of the narrative part in the interview (self-narration) is crucial for the candidate’s performance. In the self-narration the candidate should demonstrate skillful running of both formal, everyday and professional topics. Scheuer’s conclusion is that success in job interviews is dependent of the candidate’s communicative style and is viewed as a “matter of recontextualization, of combining lifeworld and job-related perspectives. As a part of this, success also becomes a matter of communicative style” (Scheuer 2001:238).

Fogtmann 2007 studies naturalization interviews in Denmark and particularly the correlation between on the one hand the grammatical performance, mutual understanding and emotional relations, and on the other hand assessments of the
applicants made by the Danish police. Fogtmann’s key finding is that there is no connection between the applicant’s grammatical performance and the assessments made by the police. At the same time there is a systematic correlation between the joint construction of understanding and the police’s assessments. Fogtmann illustrates how the interactional moves and the way questions are produced by the police (i.e. helping or leaving the applicant out) are closely connected to the final assessment (see also Svennevig 2001).

Tranekjær 2009 examines internship interviews between Danish employers and refugees and immigrants in Denmark. She argues that the participants’ orientation towards nationality, religion and language during the internship interview results in an uneven distribution of power, rights, knowledge and status. Tranekjær takes a different stance on gatekeeping that does not focus on communicative style, but rather on categorization. She describes gatekeeping as “the processes of categorization that involve the establishment of a specific system of relations between categories and the systematic uneven attribution, by the participants, of rights, knowledge and status between the members of different categories” (Tranekjær 2009:130) By that she argues that gatekeeping is an interactional and discursive phenomenon of categorization, rather than a bureaucratic or institutional one.

I shall return to Scheuer’s, Fogtmann’s and Tranekjær’s studies in later chapters.

Sundberg 2004 analyses interviews in Sweden between recruiters in an employment agency and job candidates. Her study reveals several interesting aspects, one of which is that the negotiation of meaning concerns the institutional and cultural frame rather than linguistic meaning. For some candidates the agenda of the interview is concealed, and as a result the candidates’ communicative styles bump against the recruiter’s expectations. The recruiters show a tendency to balance the candidates in relation to their own institutional and cultural knowledge. Thus, Sundberg argues for the dynamic interplay between processes of heterogenization and homogenization as an important feature in the interviews.

In a similar vein, Svennevig 2001 and 2004 studies repetitions and reformulations in interactions between native social workers and non-native clients in Norway. He concludes that different styles or modes of talk (conversational or informative mode vs.
institutional or neutral mode) are used to reduce or to reinforce the asymmetry between the clients and the social workers by displaying either affiliation or disaffiliation and by encouraging or constraining participation by the clients.

1.4.2. Studies of gatekeeping: Discussion and conclusion
As demonstrated, many of the conclusions in the studies of gatekeeping employment encounters are interconnected. Dependent on the researcher’s particular interest, these studies can be divided further in two overlapping categories:

a) Studies in which the positive outcome of the interaction is based on establishing co-membership and solidarity between the gatekeepers and the interviewees (Erickson & Schultz 1982; Gumperz 1982, 1992; Akinnaso & Ajiotutu 1982, Auer & Kern 2001, Lipovsky 2006, Roberts and Campbell 2006, Roberts, Campbell and Robinson 2007). Co-membership, solidarity, sharedness, trust and inclusion are in the positive end of the scale, while mismatch, miscommunication, discrimination and exclusion are in the negative end of the scale. Interviewees who are able to establish common ground with the gatekeepers receive positive assessments while interviewees who are not perceived as members of the same community as the gatekeepers tend to be disliked.

b) Studies in which the positive outcome of the interaction is based on the skillful navigation between different communicative styles (Adelswärd 1988, Sundberg 2004), discursive contexts (Scheuer 1998 and 2001), discourses (Roberts and Campbell 2006) or conversational modes (Svennevig 2004). These studies argue that successful candidates are those capable of blending and balancing between different discourses or communicative styles. To Roberts and Campbell 2006:14 one key to success is “the ability to successfully mobilise and seamlessly blend institutional, personal and occupational discourses”. With institutional discourse they refer to the analytical and abstract talk required from the applicants in cases when they are expected to discuss abstract or visionary issues (e.g. experiences or attitudes). Personal discourse refers to talk concerned with individual’s experience and feelings while occupational discourse refers to the descriptive talk of one’s work experiences (Roberts and Campbell 2006:44). The applicants are unaware of the importance of these discourses, but they are nevertheless penalized for not making use of them. The chapter Cultural Fluency demonstrates that.
As later analysis reveals, my study demonstrates and argues for both aspects: successful applicants are those who on the one hand establish common ground with the interviewer and on the other hand are capable of navigating between professional and personal discourses. As demonstrated by Erickson and Shultz 1982 and Roberts and Campbell 2006, both aspects work towards relative success or failure.

1.5. **Theoretical foundations: sum up**
This chapter has gone through the dissertation’s overall theoretical issues. Firstly, it argues for the importance of inferential processes and contextualization to understand institutional talk. Secondly, it outlines relevant studies of gatekeeping encounters, which results and analyses will be related to the results and analyses of my study.
Chapter 2  The IO project

This chapter serves several purposes. First, it outlines the Danish demographical and political context in which the IO project has emerged. Second, it draws the contours of the interview as a practice (cf. Atkinson and Silverman 1997) to argue for some of the features and dilemmas in the IO interview. Third, it sketches the design and the criteria for the IO project focusing on its specifics and differences from “ordinary” job interviews.

2.1. Immigration to Denmark
Every year, thousands of people settle down in Denmark. Some of them are refugees and asylum seekers, others are independent labour force migrants, yet others are students at Danish universities or members of newly established families. No two of them are alike. While some stay for shorter periods, others hope to find long-term occupations. Once they have passed the arduous entering process and obtained a residence permit, the Danish welfare policy offers possibilities for education and work.

The immigrant population in Denmark is one of the smallest in Western Europe, but consists of highly diverse groups coming from about 200 different countries. According to the latest OECD report on immigration (Denmark 2010), immigrants in Denmark have lower socio-economic status and are at a higher risk of experiencing poverty or unemployment than native Danes. Statistics Denmark (January 2010) tells that today’s immigrants and their descendants constitute about 10.1 per cent of the total population, corresponding to 561,700 persons. Immigrants and their descendants from non-Western countries constitute 6.5 per cent of the Danish population. In 2010 most foreign citizens immigrated from Poland, Germany and USA. The next chart shows the increase of the population and the immigration since 1970.
Although immigrants from non-Western countries have generally lived in Denmark for a longer period than immigrants from Western countries, there are exceptions. Almost half of all German and Norwegian immigrants (49.2% and 48.1%, respectively) have lived in Denmark for more than 15 years, while the majority of the Iraqis (77.8%) have lived in Denmark for less than 15 years. The chart below shows the three largest immigrant groups from Western and non-Western countries (see also appendix 1 for the largest population groups of immigrants to Denmark).

Source: Statistics Denmark 2012

*Table 1.12: Immigrants by origin and length of residence, at 1 January 2010*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0-5 years</th>
<th>5 years and 1 day up to 10 years</th>
<th>10 years and 1 day up to 15 years</th>
<th>More than 15 years</th>
<th>Total number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-Western countries</td>
<td>18.9%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>40.2%</td>
<td>252,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
<td>48.7%</td>
<td>32,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
<td>71,306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>90.5%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>17,911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western countries</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>38.0%</td>
<td>162,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>28,234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>60.8%</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
<td>25,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>26.9%</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>48.1%</td>
<td>14,663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Immigrants</td>
<td>26.0%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>494,422</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2009, 54.1% of the immigrants aged 16-64 from non-Western countries were in employment. This is around 9% less than among immigrants from Western countries (62.9%) and around 24% less than among persons of Danish origin (77.8%). The proportion of non-employed immigrants, or, as Statistics Denmark defines it: “immigrants on the edge of the labour market” (i.e. on social welfare) indicates that e.g. 35% of the Lebanese immigrants are on the edge of the labour market, whereas the corresponding proportion of immigrants from former Yugoslavia (Bosnia and Herzegovina) is 14%. See next chart:
Obviously, the population of Denmark gradually expands, making demands on rapid integration on several plans, among which labour market integration is of importance.

Hedetoft 2006 argues that traditionally Denmark has not been a country of immigration. He points out that Danes have strong sense of national identity due to its relatively homogeneous population and this makes integration particularly challenging. Furthermore, Hedetoft argues that “the welfare state was designed on the basis of a culturally similar citizenry, and the Danish economy has successfully adapted to a variety of international challenges by taking advantage of institutions built around a powerful sense of civic solidarity” (Hedetoft 2006:1). With the end of the guest-worker program in the early 1970s, a growing number of refugees and what he calls “family dependents of refugees” and former guest workers, has challenged the current status quo. Danish society Danish politics have had few options to adjust to this “dramatically different” population. As a consequence, the question of how to handle cultural and religious differences in order to integrate the newcomers has dominated the Danish political agenda for several decades now (Mouritsen 2006, Andreassen 2006, Yilmaz 2005).
2.2. Language policy and language attitudes in Denmark

Correspondingly, the language policy has not been adapted to the needs of the new citizens. As Jørgensen 2003 points out, many majority members, including central political figures have taken for granted that immigrants and refugees assimilate to Danish ways, including language and culture. A lot of teachers and administration deal with questions like “how to help the immigrants learn Danish ways”, instead of considering questions of mutual adjustment, language maintenance and bilingualism. As a result, a lot of outside influence is regarded a threat towards what Jørgensen 2003 calls the Danish “unified culture” (“enhedskultur”, see also Jørgensen and Holmen 1990) which, according to him, has ended in narrow-mindedness and normativity when it comes to judging “right” and “wrong” as to language use. There is often only one “correct” way of doing and saying things, so Jørgensen and Kristiansen claim, and the tolerance towards linguistic and cultural diversity is low. Consider the following:

“...the tolerance of deviant cultural behaviour is narrow. And this is again particularly relevant with respect to the relationship between the Danish language and other languages. Adolescent mother-tongue speakers of Danish are chastised for borrowing too many English words and expressions, while second-language users of Danish are held in contempt for not “wanting” or not “being able” to learn proper Danish. And “proper” Danish is middle-class Copenhagen speech. This all leads to a non-negligible measure of xenophobia” (Kristiansen 2003:59)

Kristiansen argues that the Danish school system and the Danish Language Council (Dansk Sprognævn) are pivotal in strengthening the standard language ideology in Denmark. The school is overly concerned with teaching the “appropriate” usage of Danish, which includes “correct” spelling and pronunciation. The outcome is a discursively constructed standard ideology in which Danish language varieties are placed in a hierarchy with middle-class Copenhagen speech at the top.

A number of Danish sociolinguistic studies have argued that there is low linguistic tolerance towards the immigrants’ way of speaking Danish. For example, Jørgensen and Quist 2001, Ladegaard 2002, Kirilova 2006 and Ritzau 2007 have shown that the majority of Danes tend to be prejudiced by the generally negative social and political view of ethnic minorities in Denmark, particularly those stemming from the Middle East, Africa, and Asia (i.e. non-Western countries). Many Danes appear to be conservative and
normative with respect to the pronunciation of Danish, thus expressing preference for foreign accents associated with prestigious over the non-prestigious geographical regions. Prestigious regions are e.g. Northern Europe (Germanic languages) while the Middle and Far East are non-prestigious. For example, in Kirilova 2006 I studied the Danes’ attitudes towards different minorities in order to find out whether majority Danes distinguish between “good” and “bad” non-native accents, and whether accents perceived to be related to specific geographical regions were regarded as linguistically more prestigious than others. I found that the native speakers of Danish seemed to have very pronounced preferences for certain accents. Although the respondents had no information about the speakers’ country of origin, and were thus judging purely on the basis of stereotypes, the presumed Germanic speakers were favoured as intelligent, friendly and highly educated, while the Middle Eastern accents were associated with very low status and very low levels of education. (See also Ritzau 2007 for similar findings).

2.3. The IO project
The IO project, which comprises the data in this study, was established as part of a Danish governmental initiative from 2002, according to which the municipality of Copenhagen (Københavns Kommune), Local Government Denmark (Kommunernes Landsforening) and The Danish Association of Local Government Employees' Organisations (KTO) agreed on setting up so called Integration and Training Positions (in Danish: Integration- og Oplæringstillinger, henceforth: IO positions). The idea of the IO positions, as described officially, was to provide jobs for immigrants and newcomers to Denmark who, due to linguistic and cultural limitations, might experience difficulties at the Danish labour market. Three target groups for the IO positions are suggested:

**A. Immigrants or descendants of immigrants**\(^2\) with limited Danish language skills and with or without a shorter Tertiary education (less than 18 months).

**B. Immigrants** with limited Danish language skills and a Tertiary education from their home country.

\(^2\) An immigrant is a person born outside Denmark whose parents are both foreign citizens or were both born outside Denmark (or at least one of the parents if no information is available on the other parent), nyidanmark.dk, November 2012
C. Young people (under 25) that don’t have workplace experience or haven’t yet begun a tertiary education.

www.kk.dk/jobtildig (March 2012)

A specially issued written guide provides concrete examples of possible target group applicants. For instance, Ayshe, a Turkish born female, aged 30, who moved to Denmark at the age of 26. Ayshe used to work as an administrator in a mid-sized company in Turkey but after she emigrated, despite her competences, she was not able to find a job in Denmark because of difficulties learning Danish. I return to the written guide with further examples in the chapter *Ideologies and Assessments*.

During the first year, every IO employee is provided with an individual development plan and is assigned a mentor to help with work-related issues.

The IO position is also called a “80/20 position”. The proportion means that the employee will get 80% of the salary, while 20% will be spent on professional or Danish language courses. After one year, the employee’s salary will go up to 100% and the training will stop. According to the official description:

*An IO position is a one-year contract, after which the position is automatically converted to permanent position with full pay and the relevant standard contract in regards to all aspects of employment. The main difference between a normal job and an IO position is that during the first year, the IO employee will spend minimum of 20 % of his/her time in training. The training depends on the requirement of the job and the applicant’s profile. It normally consists of Danish language courses, on-the-job-training (mentoring etc) and possibly other relevant courses. The training is included in the job and paid for by the work place. Initially there will also be courses about Danish workplace culture for all positions.*

(www.kk.dk/jobtildig, March 2012)

The IO initiative is intended for people, whose qualifications are relevant, but hard to match with the demands of the Danish labour market because of linguistic and cultural challenges. In terms of salary (apart from the first year), promotions, health care insurance or general terms and conditions in relation to trade union requirements, the IO positions do not differ from ordinary jobs. It is only the gateway that seems to be made easier for the target group. How and whether it serves the purpose is one of the key questions of this dissertation.
An important consequence of the IO specifics and the target group restrictions is that the job interview, through which the applicants are selected or rejected, contains a number of distinct features. This has much to do with the fact that the IO applicants are perceived as a group that requires special consideration. I shall return to that in a while.

Before I elaborate on the IO interview design and criteria, I would like to point to a more general issue. In the next section I discuss the role and the objectives of the interview as part of our society and everyday thinking to provide better understanding of the practice of interviewing before we look at the concrete IO cases.

2.3.1. The interview society and the logic of proxy

The practice of asking questions and receiving answers has indeed existed for ages. However, the idea of using the interview to gather information and rely on it as source of knowledge is relatively new (Holstein and Gubrium 2001). The interview as a tool for constructing individual experience and a procedure of securing knowledge dates back to World War II (Benney and Hughes 1956). With the emergence of standardized survey interviews in the yearly 1950ies individuals became accustomed to being heard as democratic citizens. Holstein and Gubrium point out that the interview has “democratized experiential information” and argue that “Individuals – no matter how insignificant they might seem in the everyday scheme of things – came to be viewed as important elements of populations. Each person had a voice and it was imperative that each voice be heard, at least in principle” (Holstein and Gubrium 2001:4).

Nowadays, the interview is a widespread and taken for granted commonplace means for constructing individual experience. Atkinson and Silverman 1997 argue that the increasing use of the interview has changed our society to such an extent that the interview has become absolutely central to making sense in our lives. Silverman proposes the term “interview society” as a consequence of the immense use of interviews in almost all spheres; to Silverman the interview is no longer a way of obtaining information but a feature of our everyday life; we spend time on asking questions and being asked questions, we read surveys and watch programmes about people being interviewed. Interviewing has become an automated process.

Interviews are one of the most popular means of selection for a job. The purpose of job interviews is to determine whether an applicant is suitable for a given position or not. It is
assumed that if applicants manage the interview well (according to the institutional criteria and the interviewers’ personal preferences), they will be just as well able to manage the position they apply for. Robert and Campbell 2006:5 point out that “there is a taken for granted assumption that the interview is a proxy for the job so that how candidates relate to interviewers stands for how they will talk and relate to work colleagues and superiors. This cultural assumption is not made clear to candidates or indeed acknowledged by interviewers”. Clearly applicants can be good at interview practices but less good for the position they apply for and vice versa. As further analysis reveals, skilled manual workers may be less fluent in the interview game but much better at doing their job (Roberts and Campbell 2006).

The logic of the job interview as a proxy is further impeded by the fact that local interview practices might be very different from what an applicant may be used to. For example, if an applicant is not familiar with the local interview culture, he or she might downplay accomplishments while emphasizing on limitations and responsibility for failures (Latham and Sue Chan 1999, Roberts and Campbell 2006). Obviously, developing criteria for comparing applicants is of utmost importance. Several studies have argued that structured interviews are more reliable than unstructured interviews because of increased validity. However, there are also studies (Blackman 2002) which suggest that the unstructured format produces more accurate perceptions of the applicants’ personality traits (see more on validity in the chapter Ideology and Assessments).

Briggs’ (1986) stance on interviews as asymmetrical communicative events should also be mentioned here. Briggs demonstrates how asymmetrical power in interview situations others the interviewees by providing interviewers with the right to control the content of the interview, the length of the questions, the turns, etc. With a reference to Goffman’s notion of footing (Goffman 1981), Briggs points out that interview data has multiple footings and are “simultaneously rooted in the dynamics of the interview, the social spheres constructed by the responses, and the academic or other domains (theoretical and empirical) that give rise to the project and to which it contributes” (Briggs 2003:243, see also Briggs 1986). He suggests that the asymmetries and the difference in the sets of norms will lead to problems such as misunderstanding, resistance or conflicts, which often results in possibilities for constructing a “minority voice” for the marginalized populations that will only confirm their hegemonic status. Briggs (2003:249) points out
that “[w]hereas native-born, middle-class whites just naturally seem to be part of the dialogue, people of color and working-class persons can be portrayed as needing the mediation of the researchers, journalists, or other professionals to make their voices heard on public stages”. He argues that by classifying respondents as members of different ethnic or religious groups, interviewers (researchers including) may create a logic that will feed into generalizations about other representatives of the same ethnic or religious groups.

2.3.2. Bureaucracy versus fairness
One consequence of the proxy logic is how to address the issue of bureaucratic fairness. As it functions today, each job applicant is given an idea of “fair play” aimed at shifting focus from the interview as a gatekeeping event to the idea that every applicant has equal chances to get the job. But unlike Alice in Wonderland, not everybody has won, and not all must have prizes. As Komter (1991:31) rightly observes – “if egalitarianism tells people they are equal, meritocracy tells them they are different”…. “if people are appointed on the basis of their merits, this means that people who have failed have only themselves to blame”. This is one of the cruelties of the “interview game” (Roberts 1985) because it completely strips the interviewers of responsibility and justifies their decisions no matter how objective or fair they are. The validity of the job interview is extremely questionable because the interviewers can always justify a rejection on the grounds of the better suitability of somebody else.

In line with Foucault (1977) we can say that job interviews are an obvious example of the technologies, games and ceremonies that the workplace constructs and through which a certain self is produced, socially evaluated and either rewarded or punished. However, as we shall see later, small interactional difficulties can produce large social outcomes for individuals’ life chances (Roberts, Davies and Jupp 1992, Roberts 2000).

2.3.3. The IO dilemma
Selecting the best applicant for integration and training from a group of vulnerable individuals, as the IO target group is, is an issue that irrevocably causes an immense dilemma and brings different logics into play. On the one hand the interviewers have to discriminate (i.e. select the best applicant) but on the other side they must not be discriminatory particularly because of the vulnerability of this group. This tension is central to the selection process and is a showcase for several dilemmas which the
interviewers unremittingly have to take into consideration.

Originally, the IO project is built on a charity principle aimed at giving a first-aid package to immigrants and newcomers to Denmark, but - as every other gatekeeping encounter – it is profoundly anchored in institutional decision making practices and choices on profit. There seems to be a double-bind in the way interviewers are supposed to select. Consider the following:

**EXAMPLE 1:**
**POST-INTERVIEW CONVERSATION WITH PANEL ABOUT SELECTION OF AN IT ADMINISTRATOR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Danish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>And then I feel torn between what our boss has stated for the record - we are to pick the one with the best professional qualifications, and we should not compromise, and then on the other hand what we hear from the [name]Department. And when I see that the [name]Department has employed a Western European who is brilliant in Danish, and who, all things considered, might not need it [...] then I start wondering - well, does he need it? And since they choose to hire him, we can also take the Western European! But emotionally I feel much more torn apart, but when it comes to qualifications, I'm not in doubt. I think it is quite difficult!</td>
<td>Og da føler jeg mig splittet mellem hvad vores chef har meldt ud - vi skal tage den mest faglige kvalificerede, vi skal ikke gå på kompromis, og så hvad vi får meldt ud fra [navn]forvaltningen. Og når jeg også ser at[navn]forvaltningen selv har ansat en vesteuropæer der kan glimrende dansk og som måske dybest set ikke havde brug for det [...] hvor jeg undrer mig - jamen har han brug for det? Og når de vælger at ansætte ham, så kan vi vel også ansætte vesteuropæeren! Men på den følelsesmæssige side er jeg meget mere splittet, men på den faglige side er jeg ikke i tvivl. Jeg synes det er rigtig svært!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from explicating the dilemma, the example also illuminates the confusing criteria on who to employ in terms of ethnic background. Although the official guide does not put forward particular ethnic backgrounds, it implicitly suggests that some backgrounds (e.g. other than Western European) are more suitable for the IO positions. I shall return to that in the chapter *Ideologies and Assessments.*

In the next example, an interviewer describes the difference between an ordinary job interview and an IO interview stressing on the logic of charity:

**EXAMPLE 2:**
**POST-INTERVIEW CONVERSATION WITH PANEL ABOUT SELECTION OF AN IT ADMINISTRATOR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Danish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think the distinctive is (...) you know they [the applicants] want it [the job] so much, they are so enthusiastic about it, so this urge to take care of them makes you</td>
<td>Jeg synes det særlige er (...) altså, de vil det så gerne, de brænder for det så meget, så det der omsorgsen, det gør så man tænker - åh bare dog man kunne hjælpe dem,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This quotation addresses the interviewer’s frustration that not everybody can be given a job. However, it also suggests that it is not the applicants’ qualification that should be rewarded but the fact that they keep on trying and have “inconvenienced” themselves with an application for an IO position. To the interviewer, working for such a low salary, especially for well-educated and experienced applicants, is a sacrifice.

2.3.4. IO criteria

I now turn the attention to concrete criteria for selecting applicants for IO interviews. As pointed out above, the IO interview is trapped between the choice of fair selection of suitable applicants and taking special consideration towards a group which is considered vulnerable. One of the central questions in this dissertation is to find out how this is done. An obvious difficulty is the diffuse requirements of the IO job interview. For example, despite the huge amount of written material on administrative procedures, there are no clear criteria on how to select applicants; rather there are a number of recommendations on what to do and what not to do. I was told that the applicants should neither be too good nor too bad at Danish and it is not unimportant what ethnic background they have (E-MAIL CORRESPONDENCE FROM AUGUST 2009). This ambiguous statement is illustrative of the general line of thinking in the selection process. But as we saw in the example above, it is clearly problematic. Once the target groups are identified (which happens prior to the job interview), and the applicants who match the target groups are picked up, the interview is carried out loosely and with few shared standards for what the applicants are supposed to do and know. The IO interview is both a standard gatekeeping encounter in which successful applicants are offered a job while unsuccessful applicants are not, and an encounter that deals with a number of complex layers of assessments. On the one hand the interviewers evaluate the applicants’ qualifications in
relation to the job, but on the other hand they simultaneously assess the applicants’ proficiency in Danish and their ability to fit in in a Danish workplace. Professional skills are evaluated side by side with Danish language competences and ideas of cultural fitting-in are parts of the decision making process. I shall illustrate that in a while.

Some of the criteria were given during a workshop aimed at strengthening the selection panels’ skills in intercultural communication. In a presentation based on research in intercultural communication, culturologist Iben Jensen went through a number of examples on dos and don’ts in interviews with immigrants in Denmark (Jensen 2011). Jensen explained for example how “small talk” openings in the beginning of a job interview might have a negative effect on the applicant’s performance in the upcoming interview. She argued that a simple question like “was it difficult to find your way through” would confuse the applicants as they might consider it a part of the test situation. A positive answer (yes, it was difficult) would expose the applicant as one who cannot manage difficult situations. A negative answer (no, it was not difficult) may raise speculations about inability to admit difficulties. According to Jensen, in both cases the applicants would be afraid of performing “wrong” since the practice of small talk in these particular occasions is uncommon to many cultures outside Denmark (and Western Europe). A general advice given at the workshop was to keep the interview as simple as possible. It was particularly recommended to avoid abstract questions (á la “where do you see yourself in 5 years”), to refrain from inquires about personal matters and to aim at giving all applicants equal opportunities in terms of listening, questioning and guiding through the interview (FIELD NOTES FROM WORKSHOP, MAY 2009). The awareness of the importance of bridging differences and the wish to accommodate to the applicants’ way of thinking were leitmotifs of the workshop. However, despite their usefulness, these recommendations were not established as obligatory criteria but remained diffuse, and – as we shall see later – not all of them were followed by the interviewers.

2.4. Interview design and frequently asked questions
The interview design, both in relation to the above discussed recommendations and to what I observed (see Fieldwork phases) consisted of following ten elements:
Interview design

1. Welcome, offering coffee, tea or water
2. Clearing problems with understanding of Danish
3. Presentation of panel
4. Presentation of the organization and the office’s working area
5. Questions to the applicant (e.g. why do you apply for the job) followed by a dialogue about
   - competences in relation to the job, e.g. experience from previous jobs
   - competences in relation to issues on teamwork vs. independent work
6. Short presentation of concrete working areas, questions and answers
7. Discussion of Danish skills/problems
8. Presentation of the IO-project design and possibilities, focus on cultural integration
9. Questions
10. Agreement about future steps in case of being offered or not being offered the job

The elements in the interview show that presentations of the workplace, the organization, the IO arrangement and the concrete position occupy considerable space and there is relatively little space for dialogue. One applicant told me that she was surprised by the fact that the panel talked so much – they asked me only two – three questions. This is interesting and indicative of some of the ongoing power relations in the IO job interview as argued by Briggs 1986 and 2001. I shall return to that.

The most frequently asked questions were as follows:

1. Tells us about yourself
2. Tell us about previous experience from Denmark and/or your home country
3. How was your last workplace? (often with focus on culture)
4. What kind of experience / jobs have you had?
5. What do you like doing most?
6. What kind of expectations do you have?
7. Did you write the application yourself?
8. How would you assess your level of Danish?
9. How (in which areas) would you like to use the possibility of 20% training?
10. Questions you would like to ask us?

Most of these questions are indeed typical of job interviews (Scheuer 1998, Komter
However, there is also explicit focus on the applicants’ Danish language skills (both oral and written) along with their professional skills. The interviewers talk about and assess the applicants’ proficiency in Danish and consider a possible introduction to Danish culture. The rest of this chapter illustrates how issues on language and culture are discussed and assessed.

2.4.1. Danish language assessments

Questions or comments about the applicants’ level of Danish and their everyday use of Danish (e.g. *do you speak Danish every day?*) are highly frequent in the data. They are integral part of the IO job interview because the applicants’ level of Danish (remember - not too good, not too bad) is supposed to match the target group descriptions. So, in the course of the job interview, the interviewers decide whether or how the applicants’ Danish language skills can be improved in the phase-in of their employment. Consider the examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>MEI, UNEMPLOYMENT OFFICE CONSULTANT, UNSUCCESSFUL</strong></th>
<th><strong>DANISH</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN:  I’ll be sort of a passive participant but (.) I’m here also in order to to to like (.). kind of check the things out if they’re sort of understood and check the level of Danish classes and things like that   &lt;Mei: yeah&gt;</td>
<td>LED:  jeg vil være sådan passivt deltagende men (.) skal være med (.) også til at at at sådan lige tjekke af at tingene de også nu bliver forstået og tjekke danskuddannelses-niveau og sådan nogle ting  &lt;Mei: ja&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>ALICE, UNEMPLOYMENT OFFICE CONSULTANT, UNSUCCESSFUL</strong></th>
<th><strong>DANISH</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN: =today (.) we will assess whether you are good enough at [your]  &lt;ALI: well I’ll try&gt; Danish {smiling voice}    &lt;EMP: yes} {laughs}</td>
<td>LED: =i dag (.) da skal vi vurdere om du er god nok med dit  &lt;ALI: vel jeg prøver&gt; dansk {smilende stemme} &lt;MED: ja} {griner}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two examples illustrate the openly stated assessments of Danish. I shall not provide a thorough analysis here, but would like to draw attention to the manager’s inconvenience with her role as assessing authority (consider, for example, the pauses, the triple repetition of the conjunction *at* (to), the many modifiers *sådan* (sort of), *også* (also), *sådan lige* (kind of), *sådan nogle thing* (things like that) etc., which I interpret as
hesitation of how to play the role of the assessing authority. In example 2, the embarrassment after the somewhat bombastic statement “we will assess whether you are good enough at [your] Danish” is toned down by the manager’s smiling voice in the end of the utterance and the employee representative’s hearty laughter.

Cleary, although assessments of Danish take place, the fact that they are not done according to a set of fixed criteria, brings certain awkwardness to the interview situation.

2.4.1.1. Assessments of written language
Alongside with the assessments of spoken Danish, the managers are also interested in finding out whether the applicants are able to produce adequate written texts in Danish. Proficiency in written Danish is not a stated requirement, nor should the applicants have passed a written test prior to the job interview. However, assessment of written Danish are also made part of the IO job interview’s questionnaire. Look at the example below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TUI, UNEMPLOYMENT OFFICE ASSISTANT, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN: have you written the application yourself (.).</td>
<td>LED: har du selv skrevet ansøgningen (.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tui: yeah (.)</td>
<td>Tui: ja (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAN: yeah↑ (.) nobody helped you↑</td>
<td>LED: ja↑ (.) der har ikke været nogen der har hjulpet↑</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we see, the manager not only asks the applicant Tui whether she has written the job application herself but seems to wonder if that is really true (yeah↑ (.) nobody helped you↑).

2.4.1.2. The applicants’ own assessments of Danish
The applicants are aware of the fact that their Danish language skills are subject of assessment and bring the topic of possible linguistic constraints themselves. Consider the example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AMALIA, UNEMPLOYMENT OFFICE ASSISTANT, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AMA: I think so because as you said in the job posting right you looked for people who have limited language skills and I [DO have that</td>
<td>AMA: det synes jeg fordi ligesom I sagde i jeres annonce ikke I søger folk der har begrænset sprogkundskaber og det [HAR jeg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Amalia finds it important to inform the manager that she is very much aware of the limitations of her own Danish language skills and by that she is quite open to learning “from the bottom” which could be interpreted both in terms of learning the job from the bottom but also learning the Danish language. The interesting thing is that her statement is uttered in almost near-native Danish: her sentences are by no means typical of a beginner; on the contrary, they reveal a high level of proficiency in both vocabulary and syntax (the latter considered a challenge to L2 learners of Danish). Obviously, she is not a beginner but by admitting the “problem” she reveals responsibility and desire for improvement. As later analysis reveals, she is both what I call linguistically and culturally fluent, because she demonstrates that she has the socio-cultural knowledge to manage the underlying ideology of self-presentations in interviews (See also Roberts and Campbell 2006). This is a key issue which I will take up in the chapters Linguistic Fluency and Cultural Fluency.

2.4.2. Cultural assessments
Yet another specific of the IO interviews is the assumption that the applicants have either a poor or no idea of Danish culture, and for that reason, they need cultural introduction to Danish (workplace) culture. In the following example the Asian applicant Yo is introduced to the cultural aspect of the IO positions by the Western European Günter who was employed in a HR position the year before and became responsible for the “cultural integration” of the new IO employees.
Danish culture is presented as something the applicants have to know how to “handle” (gribe an) and how to relate to or “behave” in (forholde sig til). The applicant Yo has in fact spent 10 years in Denmark while Günter has been living in Denmark for 2 years only.

As we shall see in Ideologies and Assessments and in Two Case Studies, non-Western applicants are more frequently regarded as novices to Danish culture than Western European applicants. This example does not show that, but it is Yo’s level of Danish that results in the assumption that she will need cultural training. This is yet another central issue to return to.

### 2.5. IO specifics and gatekeeping: discussion and conclusion

Danish language proficiency assessments comprise an essential part of the IO interview and take place along with the assessment of professional qualifications. There is a strong focus on Danish language proficiency: The managers interviewing IO applicants consider the applicants’ ability to speak and write Danish and evaluate them on that basis. Furthermore, the managers consider possibilities for introduction to Danish (workplace) culture. Due to the interview design, the target group specifics and the hierarchical distance between interviewers and interviewees, the applicants are doubly subordinated: first by the institutional demands and second by the linguistic and cultural requirements.

This is the overt side of gatekeeping which is mutually accepted and practiced by both applicants and panels. However, there is a covert and more subtle dimension of gatekeeping which the applicants are not necessary aware of. It deals with different
communicative practices and the way they become grounds for social evaluation (Erickson and Schultz 1982). As we shall see later, if the interlocutors are socialized into different linguistic and cultural aspects of talk, the differences will appear in the intense communication of the gatekeeping encounter. The gatekeeping is institutional, e.g. the applicant has to be accepted through the gates of the institution, but it is also ideological: the applicants’ proficiency in Danish and cultural integration play an important role for the panels, but the panels do not have clear guidelines on how to address and assess linguistic and cultural diversity. Thus, the design of the interview automatically encourages ideological judgements partly because of the diffuse criteria and partly because of the triple dilemma the interviewers face: on the first place they have to deal with bureaucratic fairness, on the second place they have to think about professionalism and profit, and on the third place they have to address the IO guiding principle which is supposed to take special consideration to the interviewers. I elaborate on that in the chapter *Ideologies and Assessments*. 
Chapter 3  Methods and Data

This chapter discusses the main methods and creates an overview of the phases of fieldwork. It argues for the importance of ethnography as a field methodology but also points out some of its limitations in “high-stake” contexts. Furthermore, it introduces and argues for choosing Discourse Analysis and Interactional Sociolinguistics as armchair methodologies. Finally, it outlines concrete methods for analysis, reflects on issues of transcription and translation, and categorizes the collected data in relation to workplaces, positions, number of participants and the interview outcome.

3.1. Ethnography

Ethnography is a theory and a method to observe, reflect upon, and analyse any kind of human behaviour and human interaction. It is an inductive and emic process, relying on the collection of empirical evidence for performing analysis and constructing a theory. It typically takes a post-structuralist and anti-essentialist orientation to social life by showing respect to the detail, the flexibility of the situation and the belief that we can study people’s behavior only in context. Ethnography positions itself alongside anthropological traditions to the study of language (e.g. ethnography of communication, Hymes 1968 and 1972) and interactional sociolinguistics (Gumperz 1972 and 1982). However it also draws on wider interpretive approaches from within anthropology, applied linguistics and sociology (Creese 2008). Ethnography is significant when we study people in relations, because, as Roberts et al (1992:179) point out “people cannot be studied in terms of universal roles and clear-cut causal relationships….because people act on the basis of intentions, attitudes and beliefs, all of which are continually being interpreted and reinterpreted”.

Although praised by many, ethnography often comes “under fire from within” (Blommaert and Jie 2010:4). One problem area is the assumption that researchers bring their points of view to the field thus colouring the way data is selected, described and analysed (e.g. Hammersley and Atkinson 1983, Karrebæk 2009:52-55). Clifford 1986 argues for example that ethnographic truths are only partial truths. Erickson makes an
interesting parallel between drawing caricatures and doing ethnography: ... *the ethnographer*, he points out, *by selectively reporting details from everyday life in his description of a society* – *by leaving out a lot and by slanting his description of those details he leaves in* – *produces not only a caricature (which is inevitable, since he cannot present every detail) but a caricature that is drawn from a particular point of view and that communicates that point of view relentlessly* (Erickson 1984:6-7). To overcome that problem, at least partly, Erickson advises us to be as reflective as possible about the processes of data-collection, the rationales for selection, the processes of monitoring our own behaviour as researchers, as well as always determine meaning from the participants’ point of view.

Heller 1997:84 points out that as ethnographers we have to understand what is going on first, and then to ask ourselves what we feel about it and what we can do about it. We observe constantly how our research objects draw on different resources and identities, and because we as researchers are human beings too, we do that as well. We cannot deny the fact that every analysis is influenced by the researcher’s sociocultural knowledge and individual experience. This, however, does not make the analysis void; I rather see it as an opportunity to draw on additional mental spaces which we still have to argue for (Cicourel 1996, see also discussion in section 3.3).

To this study, ethnography has major consequences for both data collection and analysis. It has contributed to explaining the products and processes of interaction enriching the analysis with different networks of explanations. Ethnography has helped to shed light not only on the interesting phenomena in the IO job interview as a gatekeeping encounters but has also contributed to tracing up the single interactional cases to larger categories in the Danish society (see *Ideology and Assessments* and *Two Case Studies*). I shall discuss some outcomes of the ethnographic approach in relation to my data later in this chapter.
3.2. Fieldwork phases
This section goes through the three main phases of field work and data collection (initial, core and final) to illustrate and explain how data was collected and what procedures were followed.

3.2.1. Initial phase
In the initial phase, I was mostly concerned with establishing contact to companies and offices in order to involve them in my study. Needless to say, gaining access and permission to record job interviews was extremely difficult and time-consuming. The first attempts to collect data started even before I submitted my PhD project application. For almost two years I received only negative responses to my request to record job interviews. I wrote hundreds of e-mails addressing larger private and public companies, larger supermarket chains and a number of smaller business companies in several cities in Denmark.

Most of the contacted companies were positive in the very beginning and were willing to schedule presentational meetings. Later, however, they excused for not being able to participate, for instance due to “lack of resources for being involved in a scientific project at the present moment” (EMAIL, 2008). Although I presented the project as a study of L2 speakers’ in a pressed situation, I believe it was the focus on minority background applicants that was not met with open arms. Some of the managers wrote that they personally were not against participating, but they were worried about their job applicants who might be negatively influenced by the presence of my recording device. Yet, when I suggested they could ask the applicants before scheduling the interview to give permission, the managers either did not respond, or replied politely that it was better to refrain. They explained that even if the job applicants agreed to participate (because they might be afraid of refusing), they would certainly feel uncomfortable about the recordings and probably perform worse during the interview. This was obviously a risk the employers did not want to run on behalf of the applicants.

As I expected, ethical issues were of the utmost importance. I interpret the great amount of negative answers I received from the managers as a product of a massive fear of either not being understood correctly or being presented as prejudiced and unprofessional. My
particular interest in job applicants with minority background seemed an obstacle that implied I might look at issues of discrimination and inequality.

Due to the many rejections, I convinced myself to leave the idea of collecting video data and decided to contend with field notes and audio recordings instead.

3.2.2. Core phase

After almost two years with neither data nor any prospects for getting any, I accidently found about a municipal project on job interviews in the area of Copenhagen. The municipality was about to announce around twenty job interviews, tailored for minority speakers of Danish, some so-called Integration and Training Positions (IO positions, see previous chapter).

As soon as I established contact with the municipal HR-department, I was invited to a seminar in the City Hall organized for public offices in Copenhagen that were involved in the IO initiative and were about to schedule IO job interviews. At the seminar I was given a chance to present my study and obtained a permission to collect audio-data at the forthcoming IO job interviews. I presented the project as a study of second language speakers’ communicative strategies in institutional interaction. I highlighted the fact that performing in institutional settings would be challenging for non-native speakers of Danish which everybody agreed on. I may have sounded rather persuasive after two years of relentless tries, because I finally obtained general permission to conduct the recordings. However, I was required to apply, first - for individual permission at each local job panel, and second - at each job applicant before the interview. So, I emailed around twenty workplaces and received nine positive responses for ten different positions (one of the workplaces interviewed for two available positions). The next step was to await a positive response from each applicant which was supposed to happen in one of the following ways:

1) Either my project was announced in the applicants’ letter of invitation to the job interview, in which they were informed about a scientific study they would be asked to participate in.

2) Or my project was announced immediately before the job interview took place. When the applicant arrived, the panel told him or her about a possibility to participate in a scientific project.
In both cases it was explicitly pointed out that participation was completely voluntary and whatever the applicant’s decision, it would be without consequences for their job interview.

The largest part of the applicants agreed upon and seemed interested in my project. Only two applicants rejected participation. One allowed me to stay present during his interview, but asked me to switch off the recorder. The other one was very definite about the negative effect of “such an intrusion” at his job interview and asked me to leave. To my guarantee of anonymity, he said: “everybody says it’s anonymous, but then it pops up in all kinds of contexts” (FIELD NOTES, AUGUST 2009). I present an overview of all applicants in the end of this chapter.

The recordings for IO job interviews took three months and were carried out by me and my colleague Eva Wedervang-Jensen who assisted me in those cases in which IO interviews in different offices were scheduled simultaneously. We recorded 41 job interviews, 8 post-interview conversations with panels, and 28 shorter interviews with applicants. In addition to the recordings, we also took field notes to document the physical environment, the applicants’ and the panel members’ appearance, notable gestures and movements, distinguished moments of interaction, and any kind of evidence that we thought might be important for the analysis.

When the last job interview had taken place, we recorded post-interview conversations with the panels. In these conversations we interviewed the panels about their decisions, choices, criteria and thoughts on the IO project. These conversations were not particularly structured as we were mostly interested in discussing issues from the job interviews and collect evidence about who the panels considered suitable and why. Some panels were asked to assign points on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 being very far from native, 5 being very near native) to the applicants’ linguistic performance in Danish. Certainly, all assessments were not professional from a linguistic point of view but they were nevertheless valid and real. They were particularly useful for creating an opportunity for talk and further reflections about communicative competences as they shed light on what was considered “good” Danish and “bad” Danish. In fact, the panels liked this exercise and were enthusiastic about discussing “linguistic” issues with me. The assessments are presented in the chapter Ideologies and Assessments.
The job interviews lasted between 20 and 30 minutes for manual jobs, and 50 to 70 minutes for academic jobs. The numbers of applicants invited to interviews varied from 3 to 5 persons per job.

We also recorded 28 brief interviews with the applicants right after the IO job interview in which we asked them about their immediate impression of the interview. However, it turned out to be a bad moment for further reflections as the applicants seemed exhausted and not willing to discuss further; or maybe they were afraid that the test situation was still on.

3.2.3. Final phase
In the final phase, I followed the development of the IO project. For example, I got involved in several social networks; I watched media debates and participated in public meetings (one of which at the Danish Parliament). Three years later I also contacted several applicants to find out more about them and their job situation. It gave some interesting perspectives to the analysis which I demonstrate in the chapter Two case studies.

3.3. Some reflections on ethnographic interventions in gatekeeping encounters
The IO job interviews would have taken place regardless of my presence and recordings. I assume the interview setting would have been the same but whether the questions and the answers would have been the same, is impossible to say. Although the largest part of applicants and panels claimed to have been undisturbed by my recording device and by me, I am sure that in certain cases we have brought some discomfort. I will illustrate that in a while, but first I would like to draw attention to Sarangi’s interesting stance on the aspect of interventions which he calls “the analyst’s paradox” (Sarangi 2002:122). This paradox is an echo to Labovian observer’s paradox (1972), but Sarangi highlights the fact that [a]s discourse researchers, we remain, for the most part, peripheral but legitimate participants, eager to rely on our subjects’ insights so that we can align (rather than transform) analyst and participant perspectives (see also Sarangi 2007). By that Sarangi implies a call for discourse researchers to become first-hand ethnographers and argues that socialization is needed for aligning analysts’ ‘interpretive procedures’ with those of the participants under study because the more aligned actors’ and analysts’ ‘interpretive procedures’ become via ‘interpretive ethnography’, the more likely it is to approximate
ecological validity (Sarangi 2007:581). Ecological validity is yet another relevant methodological issue raised by Cicourel (1996 and 2007:1) that focuses on the necessity of convincing others of “the viability and authenticity of our claims” in order to understand the use of our data sources.

To illustrate the above, I provide a couple of examples on interventions. During the post-interview conversations, I noticed that the panels acted attentively and politically correct. I recorded one episode in which a panel representative was roughly interrupted by one of his colleagues yelling at him: Don’t tell her that. This was referring to me as I was obviously about to be given some off-record information. Another example of political correctness from a job interview was what exactly to call the IO applicants – were they immigrants, Danes, or something else. The IO job description addresses the target group applicants as “immigrants” but in recent years the public debate in Denmark has introduced a number of terms which have become common in the public-discourse, e.g. “New Danes”, “Second generation immigrants”, and the even more questionable “Other Ethnic Background”. In the following, one of the managers gets confused by the terminology:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FROM JOB INTERVIEW FOR THE POSITION OF HELP DESK SECRETARY</th>
<th>DANISH ORIGINAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN: New Danes or what the heck one should call it (.).it doesn’t seem right to call them other ethnic [either]</td>
<td>MAN: nydanskere eller hvad pokker man skulle kalde det for (.) det virker efterhånden forkert at kalde dem anden etnisk altså</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I am not sure who the recipient of this was – whether it was the applicant, the panel representatives or me. Nevertheless it witnesses of discomfort with the terminology and perhaps a certain suppression of attitudes.

Yet another example of my intrusion happened when I was asked to guess who was given the job: Would you try to guess, so we can see whether we have selected the right one – the manager asked. I felt uneasiness in doing so, and mumbled something about “the last one maybe better than the first ones” by which I happened to guess correctly. The panel seemed relieved about their “correct” decision and said:
POST-INTERVIEW CONVERSATION FOR THE POSITION INTEGRATION CONSULTANT

MAN: YEAH; that’s actually quite good right; I think actually it’s pretty nice
EMP: then we haven’t quite made a mistake!

Obviously, I was considered an authority (Blommaert and Jie 2010:49) and the panel sought my acceptance of their decision. Blommaert and Jie (2010:49) make an important point saying that nothing an interviewee would say could come about without the interviewer’s (or the researcher’s) active input. The researcher is indeed a part of the data, and it is the researcher’s story (or caricature in Erickson’s 1984 words) we read in the analysis. As pointed out previously, researchers take advantage of different resources to get closer to insider perspectives. For example, I admit that I took advantage of my double-agency: a researcher and a second language speaker of Danish. In front of the panels, I tried to be as neutral as possible, keeping an academic sense of perspective and pushing aside any potential focus on my own foreign background because I feared the panels might see me as one speaking out for the applicants. In front of the applicants, however, I tried to draw on my identity as “one of them”, a foreigner in Denmark who has the insider perspective and “knows” about it. Whether both groups regarded me the way I tried to act - I cannot say. But I used my socio-cultural knowledge, my experience and my personal and professional background to come as close as possible. I do not believe this reduces the plausibility – it rather demands stronger validation which I will provide below.

In retrospect, I might have done some more “lurking and soaking” (Werner and Schoepfler 1989) at the municipal offices during the phase of the recordings. However, partly for ethical reasons, and mostly for fear of being rejected, I focused primarily on conducting the recordings of the job interviews and the post-interview conversations. I certainly felt that my uninvited intrusion would have been less fruitful if I were too persistent. Regardless of my double agency, trespassing the insider world was frowned
upon by both sides. In-depth ethnographic insight is indeed a challenge in gatekeeping encounters which I was not thoroughly prepared for. After sketching the field methods, I now turn attention to the armchair methodologies and the concrete methods for selection of data for analysis.

3.4. Discourse analysis and Interactional Sociolinguistics
To Blommaert discourse analysis is the analysis of all sets of meaningful semiotic resources seen in connection to social, cultural and historical patterns (Blommaert 2005, Blommaert 2010, see also Foucault 1982). This is also the perspective I adopt here. Discourse analysis allows the merging of micro and macro contexts and opens up for inclusion of larger frameworks as projections of the tiny bits of interaction. Discourse analysis is an umbrella term that covers many branches and analytic schools that address discourse in a number of ways and on many levels: a macro level (Blommaert 2005, 2010), a mezzo level (Fairclough 1992, Chourliaki and Fairclough 1999), a micro level in studies of Interactional Sociolinguistics (e.g. Gumperz 1982a, 1982b, Roberts 2000, Roberts et al 1999, Rampton 1995) and studies of Conversation Analysis (e.g. Sacks et al 1974, Schegloff and Sacks 1973 to mention a few).

The main method of analysis in this dissertation is Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS). IS draws on ethnography, sociology, linguistic anthropology and studies of discourse. It is also influenced by Goffman’s notion of interaction as a separate order of analysis through which we can study how interlocutors display shared perceptions and identity to maintain involvement with each other (Goffman 1983).

What makes IS particularly useful in my analysis is that it combines the theoretical stance of sociolinguistics taking interest in linguistic and cultural diversity with a number of practical tools originally developed by Gumperz in the late 1970’s (e.g. contextualization cues). It also includes conventions from the founders of micro sociology and CA (e.g. Sacks et al 1974), i.e. the principles of sequentiaity and indexicality. Sequeniticality encompasses the idea that every speech action is context-shaped and context-renewing (originally Bateson 1956, developed further by Heritage 1984) while indexicality describes how local actions from a conversation or part of a conversation are embedded in a context. Indexicality is the medium or the act of contextualization. Sequence organization, turn-taking systems and repair techniques (Schegloff 2007) as well as the
overall structural organization (Drew & Heritage 1992) are also important foci in the analysis. But, as Gumperz 1992 points out, conversational principles are only the technical elements of the talk, because no conversation happens without the conscious efforts of the speakers. Thus, Gumperz takes a step further by arguing for the importance of looking at the underlying cultural assumptions to achieving understanding of what actually is going on. He suggests that we adopt an analytical approach that goes beyond the principles of conversational ordering as the only explanation model for what happens in a conversation. He points out that if the interlocutors take for granted the shared rhetorical strategies, especially in situations of differential power or interethnic stigmatization, problems that in other cases might pass as simple instances of shared linguistic knowledge, would come to be seen as reflecting the speaker’s ability, truthfulness or trustworthiness. As a result, speakers whose communicative practices are stigmatized, tend to encounter much more difficulties in their institutional contacts with majority speakers. If such conditions persist over time, Gumperz argues, they will have a significant effect on minority individuals’ success in the society at large (Gumperz 1992a:327).

Thus, Gumperz levels a fair critique against CA which differs from IS by not taking the notion of conversational inference into consideration. CA does not acknowledge the context-bound process of interpretation, by means of which the interlocutors assess each other’s intentions, and on which they base their responses to form dynamic interpretations (Gumperz 1982a and b, see the chapter *Theoretical Foundations*). Unlike CA, IS links to macro contexts; the difference is then not so much in the level of interactional analysis, but in what counts as data and whether the analysis goes beyond the interactional data or not. I address some of these points later in this section.

The stance I take in the dissertation is in line with Gumperz. I believe that we need to take the speakers’ perspectives as our starting point and shift focus to more goal-oriented interpretative processes to allow for the issue of intent. Although controversial, intent is extremely important in gatekeeping encounters. We can never know what other people’s intentions are, but paradoxically, we have to make judgements of the communicative intent both as interlocutors - through the processes of conversational inference, as ethnographers - while conducting our field work, and as analysts - when we process the products of analysis. Every analysis, no matter how detailed it is, shows only part of what has happened in the interaction. There will be cases in which it would be meaningless to
analyse details without linking them to larger context (see examples in the chapter "Cultural Fluency"). As Komter 1991:10 argues: “In a study of job interviews, where so much is left unsaid, conversation analysis can only lay bare a part of the reality”. Also Roberts and Campbell (2006:19) argue for using IS in job interview data, pointing out that:

Interactional sociolinguistics’ concern with interactional detail is consistent with the practices of the interview itself, where ‘the devil is in the detail’. This methodology allows us to ask how the interviewers’ claims about candidates – such as poor English, untrustworthiness, self-awareness or a responsible attitude – are evidenced (or not) in the data. It also reveals the inherent variety in interviewer questions and their responses to candidates.

Since Gumperz 1982a and 1982b, IS is broadly used in Sociolinguistics to analyse both institutional and private encounters (e.g., classroom interaction (Rampton 1995, 2006), leisure time conversations (Ochs and Schieffelin 1994), workplace encounters (Roberts 2000, Roberts, Davies and Jupp 1991) just to mention some of the many). One of IS’s main ideas is that different groups may use culturally and situationally specific styles of communication which may differ from local standards or shared assumptions of standards. Clearly, shared conditions for understanding should not be taken for granted in linguistically and culturally diverse societies. Of course, this does not mean that we necessarily have to expect differences: it is exactly our task as analysts to discover the extent to which speakers in any interaction share communicative resources or not (Gumperz 1999:458). Through the method of IS we can look closer into categories such as nationality, gender and religious affiliation to gain a broader discursive perspective but without feeding essentialists assumptions a lá just because people are identified or identify themselves as belonging to a particular ethnic minority, religious group or national category, they are expected to perform culturally specific. On the contrary, as Blommaert and Rampton 2011:1 argue, “(t)he predictability of the category of ‘migrant’ and of his/her sociocultural features has disappeared” and the only way to understand migration and culture in our present society is to approach it interactionally (see e.g. Auer and Kern 2001) which is also what I do in this dissertation.
3.5 Concrete methods for selection of data for analysis

This section describes and discusses concrete methods for selecting data for analysis. It also addresses methodological limitations and reflects upon issues of transcription, anonymisation and translation of data.

3.5.1 Initial observations and reflections

The first serious considerations about how to approach the job interview data happened while I was transcribing the post interview conversations. My attention was drawn to the panel’s assessments of the applicants’ cultural background as a reason for rejection or acceptance. I was surprised by the focus on culture - I rather expected comments on “poor” Danish - but discovered a series of overtly stated accounts on cultural background with focus on cultural differences. At least at first glance there were almost no expressions of linguistic problems whereas the material abounded with claims about culture and cultural background in both positive and negative elicitations. However, it seemed to me that there was a certain tension between the applicants’ linguistic competences and assessments of cultural acceptability. I became particularly interested whether such statements and views were based on the panel’s stereotypes or whether they were instigated by particular utterances or particular performance from the applicants (the chapter Two Case Studies is based on that observation).

When I looked at the job interviews I noticed several cases of the managers’ strongly expressed alignments with successful applicants (cf. Erickson and Schultz’s 1982 concept of co-membership). It seemed that some applicants were allowed more interactional freedom – i.e. they were not so easily put back on track if they “got lost” in irrelevant sorties. “Doing things together” seemed also of importance. All this made me think of the interaction as a cog wheel mechanism and some kind of two-fold fluency-tool to which both panels and applicants contributed. Especially in terms of culture, the fluency mechanisms seemed to be of utmost importance. Thereby, the contours of the concepts linguistic and cultural fluency slowly developed.

At that point I undertook a number of quantitative steps as well. Quantitation took a lot of time but was less fruitful than I expected. I counted each applicant’s number of initiatives, words, utterances, calculated type token ratios and even considered the number of positive minimal responses given by the members of the panel to each
applicant (I discuss some of these in the next chapters and some others are to be found in appendix 5, 8, 9). However, the more time I spent on counting, the more controversial things I found. The real trouble was not in the counting but in the subsequent categorizing of the units. For example, when I counted initiatives for several applicants (e.g. after Linnell and Gustavsson 1987), I realized how difficult it was to categorize what on the surface seemed “the same” but in the reality of the interaction was much dependent on various other aspects. Yet, the “the troubling with counting”-exercise was useful for reflecting on the complexity of the data and to strengthen my position for a qualitative approach to the analysis.

Data sessions were extremely insightful to clarify and discuss as many facets of the interaction as possible. Almost all bigger excerpts in this study have been played at data sessions with colleagues from the University of Copenhagen, The University of Southern Denmark and King’s College in London, to all of whom I am indebted. Data sessions have been essential for providing good analyses and have functioned as validating tools in the cases of doubt.

3.5.2. Method limitations
One limitation to my method (and the data collection as well) is the lack of visual data sources. Although I deliberately decided to go for audio recordings (mainly because I feared resistance from the participants), there have been few instances in which it could have helped to visualize the situation. A second limitation has been the lack of first-hand experience at all job interviews. When I began analysing the job interviews I myself did not record (because of double bookings), I felt constrained by the lack of my own first-hand experience. A third limitation comes from the obvious restriction in terms of resources and time combined with my novelty in the field of ethnography. Some of the decisions I had to make in the field might have been a bit rushed or not properly thought out. It is possible that many of the reflections I had and the conclusions I reached may sound naïve to experienced ethnographers. Nonetheless, this study has been an eye-opener to a number of theoretical and methodological issues.

3.5.3. Selection of participants
As one of the objectives of this dissertation is to reach conclusions about successful and unsuccessful communication models at job interviews, I find it fruitful to compare how successful and unsuccessful applicants for each position communicate. While singling out
successful applicants is easy (they are the ones who got the jobs), picking up and arguing for who the most unsuccessful ones are, is more complicated. The “worst” applicant could be anyone who the panel does not like. It could also be someone overqualified, under-qualified or even disqualified. For example, one job interview went extraordinarily bad because the applicant was not able to speak for himself in either Danish or English, so he was accompanied by a friend who was translating for him. This applicant was of course unsuccessful, but he is not a “proper” example of an unsuccessful interview because he does not match the criteria. To select the oppositions of the successful applicants, I first exclude all borderline candidates (in accordance to the panel’s categorization) and then focus on those left out who match the criteria but are not offered a job. In most of cases the panels provided me with priority order listings which I follow. It should be noted that when I write about successful and unsuccessful applicants I am not taking for granted that successful applicants always produce successful communication. What I am interested in is to compare and discuss the interactional exchange and its consequence, which – obviously – is influenced by a number of factors and this is exactly what this dissertation aims at showing. There are a number of borderline cases who are interesting but difficult to place (Roberts and Campbell 2006 divide them further into borderline fail and borderline successful). I have not included borderline successful applicants in the analysis.

3.1.4. Selection of samples

There have been three foci for my selection of samples for the analysis. First, I have focused on excerpts with self-narrations. Self-narrations are those phases in the job interviews in which the applicants are asked to present themselves and answer a question such as ”Why do you apply for this position?” They are interesting to look at because they either trigger an unassisted monologue or take the shape of a ready-made story. Both cases give possibilities for comparison of communicative strategies across applicants. For instance, we can look at the way applicants navigate between familiar issues and less expected questions.

Look at the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IANNA, STATISTICIAN, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH ORIGINAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. IAN: “well I” I erm come from</td>
<td>01.IAN: ”jamen jeg” jeg øh kommer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Eastern Europe a:nd I</td>
<td>02. fra Østeuropa oig jeg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. married my husband seven</td>
<td>03. har giftet mig med min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. years ago and I apply for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In this example the applicant Ianna (IAN) explains who she is and why she applies for the job. She highlights the fact that she is married to a Dane, would like to work with something she is passionate about and is fond of numbers. Such presentations can be done in many ways and can trigger very different responses which are interesting to compare (cf. Two Case Studies).

Second, I look at excerpts in which the applicants are asked to reflect on hypothetical questions (e.g. what would you do if), or provide information about previous experience. In such cases the applicants are much less prepared. This creates interesting scenarios (see e.g. the chapter Cultural Fluency). As I previously explained, the panels were recommended to refrain from asking hypothetical questions, but some panels did not follow this advice. Look at the example below:

Hamid, the applicant in the example, is clearly not familiar with the question “where do you see yourself in five years” which he signals three times (lines 2, 4 and 6). I come back to Hamid in the chapter Cultural Fluency.

The third thing I examine are phases addressing issues on language and culture. As we saw in the previous chapter, assessing the applicants’ Danish and their ability to adapt to Danish workplaces is one of the less openly stated criteria of the IO job.
interview. The way language and particularly culture are brought in and brought about in the interview is very often saturated with ideology. Look at the example below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TUI, HELP-DESK SECRETARY, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. TUI: hh Danes(.)and Asians we</td>
<td>01. TUI: hh danskere (.).og Asiater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. have very different cul[ture(.)]</td>
<td>02. vi har meget forskellig kultur (.).og[så=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. al[so=</td>
<td>03. MA2: [ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. MA2: [yeah</td>
<td>04. TUI: arbejdsplads det er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. TUI: =[workplace it is very</td>
<td>05. meget forskellig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. different</td>
<td>06. MA2: [mm ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. MA2: [mm yeah</td>
<td>07. MAN: [mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. MAN: [mm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My data is rich in cultural assumptions in which e.g. Danish culture is seen as contrasting the applicant’s “original” culture. Very often these oppositions place the Danish culture in a superior position which automatically engenders othering. I shall return to this example in the chapter *Ideologies and Assessments*.

3.6. Anonymisation of data
Anonymisation is an inseparable part of processing data. As researchers, we need to dissociate ourselves from the objects of our analysis for several reasons. First, at least to a certain extent, anonymisation would protect the researcher and the researched object. Second, in many cases (including this dissertation) anonymisation is a necessary condition for obtaining permission to conduct recordings. And third, since ethnography is an interpretation of the researcher’s object of study, it demands depersonalization of the participants.

In this dissertation the anonymisation is *partial*. This means that the applicants’ names are replaced by pseudonyms chosen by me, but their age, level of education and amount of years spent in Denmark, remain unchanged. Similarly, I have omitted the job panels’ names and replaced them by an abbreviation of their positions, e.g. manager (MAN), mentor (MEN), employee (EMP), IT responsible (ITM), etc. Any other identifying details in the interview, e.g. names of workplaces, companies and exact addresses are deleted. The countries of origin are omitted and represented by larger geographical areas instead (e.g. Asia for China, Thailand and Malaysia, Eastern Europe for Hungary and Poland, Western Europe for Belgium and Great Britain, etc.). The following is example of anonymisation:
The five participants in the example are anonymised in two different ways: 1) either by abbreviation of title: EMP (employee), MAN (manager), HRC (head of HR department), or 2) by abbreviation of given pseudonym: GUN (Günter, employee) and YO (Yo, applicant). The participants anonymised by title are usually managers and employees with a standard role in the interview, while those anonymised by pseudonym are either the applicants themselves, or some panel representatives with a non-standard role in the interview (e.g. others than managers, HR representatives, mentors, etc.).

Prior to every recording, I asked each applicant and each panel representative to fill in and sign a fact sheet with his or her name, age, country of origin, amount of years spent in Denmark, level of education and contact details. This allows me to use the recordings for research, training and teaching purposes.

3.7. Transcription

Transcriptions serve two purposes: on the one hand to help the researcher approach the pieces of data; and on the other hand to make the data accessible to broader audiences. Transcriptions are not independent sources, but supplements to other data sources (most often the recordings) and as such should not be used on their own. When we transcribe data, i.e. put down in writing what we hear and observe, we actually shed more light on the data because we then can use an audio and a written version. Using both versions provides us with a deeper insight in the process of interaction as it involves two perception channels: listening and looking. However, transcription is not only an act of writing down what people say and do. Since the mid-seventies a lot of research has argued (e.g. Ochs 1979, Preston 1985, Mehan 1993, Roberts 1997, Bucholtz 2000, Karrebæk 2008 to mention a few) that what is transcribed is just as important as how it is transcribed. Transcribing is a process of decision making and an act of power. Transcriptions represent the transcribers’ beliefs,
knowledge, goals and levels of ambition. When we transcribe, we also inscribe the context (Bucholtz 2000). Roberts 1997:167-170 argues that “if talk is a social act, so is transcription” and “when we transcribe talk, we transcribe people”. Thus, it is important not to undermine the existence of ideology in the transcripts. We cannot ignore the fact that transcribers construct an apparatus of social roles and relations. But, as Bucholtz 2000 suggests, researchers should take responsibility for the task and acknowledge the complexity of the process instead of simplifying or standardizing it. To Karrebæk (2008:52) transcriptions and transcribed items are never identical. Karrebæk argues for the term representations instead of transcriptions by which she aims at neutralising the assumption that transcriptions are “just another way” of presenting data.

This study’s 41 job interviews and 8 post-interview conversations were transcribed using the free source programme Transcriber 1.5.1. Transcriber is an interactive tool that can be used to label and segment speech units in order to focus on different elements of the interaction, e.g. the turn-takings, the overlaps, the pauses, etc. It is a stable and user friendly programme, which makes it easy to begin with. Five student helpers did the rough transcription of the job interviews while I transcribed the post-interview conversations and refined the extracts selected for analyses. We followed the principle of orthographic representation, i.e. all utterances were put down in standard spelling even though they were pronounced in a non-standard way. Initially, we wished to mark all examples of non-standard pronunciation and grammar just to get an impression of the deviances, but later abandoned the idea for several reasons. First, pronunciation and grammar were not direct objects of analysis; second, the transcriptions became inconsistent and time-consuming, and third and most important, non-standard orthography put unwanted focus on the applicants’ non-native Danish already in the transcription. I find marking “eye-dialect” (as argued by e.g. Preston 1985) very problematic especially when minority speakers are vastly represented. Eye-dialect inevitably calls up stereotypes and engenders marginalization. I assume there are some good ways of doing phonetic transcription but in my data it was essential to

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3 I am grateful to Iman Hassani, Kirstine Dencker, Stine Johannsen, Thomas Nørreby and Tine Østergård
keep the focus on the interaction rather than on the phonetic specifics of native and non-native speech.

### 3.7.1. Types of transcriptions

Two types of transcriptions were produced: rough and fine-grained. In the *rough transcription* the participants' turns, overlaps and significant pauses are transcribed, but length of pauses, prosodic features and patterns of intonation are omitted. A *fine grained transcription* includes more details; however, the level of fine-graining varies after the purpose of the analysis (see appendix 2 on transcription conventions). If the analysis focuses on e.g. contextualization cues, the transcripts are detailed, intonation patterns are marked and transcription conventions are neatly followed; if the analysis is more content-based (e.g. the object of study is ideologies and general assessments) the transcriptions are rougher. The pieces below are examples of rough vs. finer transcription:

**Example of rough transcription:**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN:</td>
<td>yes tell me a little about yourself Mohammed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. MOH:</td>
<td>my name is Mohammed erhm I’m from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03.</td>
<td>Lebanon erhm I study on school in Lebanon to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04.</td>
<td>six years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. EMP:</td>
<td>I’m sorry I didn’t hear that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. MOH:</td>
<td>I I have studied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. EMP:</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. MOH:</td>
<td>erhm Lebanon erhm six years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. EMP:</td>
<td>yeah</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example of finer transcription:**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN:</td>
<td>[smacking]yes tell; me a little about yourself Mohammed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. (.)</td>
<td>Mohammed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. (.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. MOH:</td>
<td>^my name is Mohammed; e:rhm (1.5) I’m from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05.</td>
<td>Lebanon; e:rhm (1.0) I study on school in Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06.</td>
<td>to: (.) six years; (1.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. EMP:</td>
<td>I’m sorry I didn’t hear that;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. MOH:</td>
<td>I I have studied;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. EMP:</td>
<td>yes;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. MOH:</td>
<td>e:rhm Lebanon; e:rhm (1.5) ^six yea[rs=;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. EMP:</td>
<td>[ya</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main difference between the two transcripts is the marking of pauses, vocal lengths, patterns of intonation and voice quality. The fine grained transcript, for instance, gives a better understanding of MOH’s slow speech tempo which is an important feature in his interview.
3.8. Translations into English
One of the serious challenges to the issue of representation is translation of data into another language, in this case from Danish into English. If transcriptions, as Karrebæk 2008 argues, can only be representations, then the translation is a further step away from “the reality” of the moment. The tension between accuracy, readability and the policies of representation (Mehan 1993) is additionally problematized when we are forced to translate into another language. In my study I had to decide how to translate ungrammatical Danish into ungrammatical English. But the question is - how can we keep exactly the same level of non-standardness, ambiguity, and indexicality in the English version? I think the answer is: we cannot.

Clearly, morphological translation in English would not reflect the same “ungrammaticalness” in Danish. The processes of non-standardness in the two languages are not similar, and more importantly – they are not perceived similarly. Another reason for not providing grammatical translations is that grammar is not part of the panels’ assessments, e.g. grammatical inaccuracies are rarely mentioned as problematic areas in the post interview conversations. Therefore, for entirely practical reasons, the translations are done in colloquial style English closest to the Danish original. Idioms are translated as idioms unless they create misunderstandings and need to be explained (see examples in appendix 3).

My decision to refrain from morphological translations was also made in favour for better readability. Instead of having several lines of identical turns in two languages and a third and a fourth line with clarifying comments, I arrange the English and the Danish versions in charts with two adjacent columns, so that the numbered lines in each column correspond roughly to the Danish original. I also chunk the turns into smaller units to make the information easier to process.

Consistency has been the hardest part of the translation and I admit that I could have worked harder on that. Generally, there are many parallel structures and identical idiomatic phrases in English and Danish, but there are also several areas in which Danish grammar significantly differs from English grammar. Examples are gender declensions and word order in main and subordinate clause (which are also the areas in
which most non-standard forms occur). In Appendix 3 I argue for the most common types of ungrammatical translations.

It should be noted that each analysis in this dissertation is exclusively based on the Danish version. The problem of accuracy, then, appears only to those not being able to read and understand Danish. The original transcripts are indispensable complements to the English translations and in many cases pivotal for understanding the analysis from a local Danish perspective.

3.9. Overview of data
The total data corpus consists of approximately 50 hours of data and includes

- 41 job Interviews
- 8 post-interview conversations with the panels
- 28 brief follow up interviews with applicants
- 2 follow-up interviews collected three years later
- Field notes, booklets, letters and guidelines about the IO project

The chart below presents an overview of the total number of positions and workplaces, including number of applications, number of applicants, number of panel representatives and other relevant details (see also appendix 4). Note that column 4 displays two figures, one showing the number of applicants present at the job interview, while the other shows number of applicants recorded. The discrepancy is either because of some applicants not willing to participate (2 instances), technical problems (1 instance) or the employers’ not contacting me on time (2 instances).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total nr. of written applications for the position</th>
<th>Total nr. of applicants selected for interview vs. nr. of recordings</th>
<th>Applicants’ area of origin (successful applicants =underlined)</th>
<th>Members of the panel</th>
<th>Post-interview conversations with panels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Handyman A (Care Center for adolescents with disabilities)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>South American, Middle Eastern, Eastern European, Eastern European, Middle Eastern</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Handyman B (Kindergarten)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4/3</td>
<td>Middle Eastern, Middle Eastern, South American</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kitchen Help (Care center for children with disabilities)</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>4/4</td>
<td>African, South American, Middle Eastern, Asian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Integration Consultant (Care Center for elderly)</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>5/4</td>
<td>Middle Eastern, Middle Eastern, South American, Middle Eastern</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>IT network administrator (Public Office)</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>5/3</td>
<td>Middle Eastern, Western European, Middle Eastern</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Help Desk Secretary (Public Office)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3/2</td>
<td>African, Western European</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Consultant (Job Centre)</td>
<td>&gt;200 (for both assistant &amp; consultant)</td>
<td>5/4</td>
<td>Asian, Western European, Eastern European, South American</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Help Desk/Assistant (Job Centre)</td>
<td>&gt;200 (for both assistant and consultant)</td>
<td>6/5</td>
<td>South American, Asian, Eastern European, Asian, Asian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Economist/Accountant (Public office)</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>4/4 + 2 (2nd round)</td>
<td>Asian, South American, Eastern European</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Economist/Statistician (Public office)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>5/5</td>
<td>Eastern European, Eastern European, Eastern European, Asian</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.9.1. Note on selection panels and applicants
The selection panels typically consist of a team leader or a manager (MAN), one or several HR representatives (HRM, HR1, HR2), an employee (EMP) from a similar position, e.g. the mentor-to-be, and other employee representatives (EM1, EM2, etc.). The smallest selection panel consisted of two people (a manager and an employee); while the largest comprised of six. The most common number was three to four panel members (traditional for Danish job interview panels), although several applicants were surprised to find more than one panel representative.

So far, I have been addressing “panels” and “applicants” as if both sides were homogeneous crowds, which they obviously are not. Scheuer 1998 argues that the panel’s internal role-play might have essential outcomes on the interview and recommends that we consider the fact that panels are hybrid and may have different agendas: for example, panel representatives might like to perform in front of their colleagues, butter up their boss or display irrelevant information by which to confuse the applicant. Any of these may have crucial effect on the interview. However, since I have not discovered controversies or intrigues of the above kind, I have taken the liberty of using “panel” as a common denominator for all interviewers. In fact, the IO interviews have shown relatively little participation from other members of the panel than the managers. In all job interviews I recorded, it is the manager (and in all 10 cases a female) who interviews the applicant while the other panel representatives are mainly included in the interview on the manager’s request.

Similarly, when I generalize about applicants, I refer to the IO-applicants in my study.

The next chart presents an overview of all successful and unsuccessful applicants included in the analysis. The applicants in the dark cells are analysed more extensively, while the applicants in the light rows are mentioned with shorter references.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Successful</th>
<th>Unsuccessful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Handyman A</td>
<td>Domingo, South American</td>
<td>Mohammed, Middle Eastern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Kitchen Help</td>
<td>Ruben, South American</td>
<td>Tsang, Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Integration Consultant</td>
<td>Yasin, Middle Eastern</td>
<td>Farid, Middle Eastern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IT network administrator</td>
<td>Maximillian, Western European</td>
<td>Ibrahim, Middle Eastern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Help Desk Secretary</td>
<td>Hannah, Western European</td>
<td>Arabella, African</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Handyman B</td>
<td>Said, Middle Eastern</td>
<td>Javier, South American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Job Centre Consultant</td>
<td>Rozalia, South American</td>
<td>Tui, Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rahiza, Asian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Job Centre Assistant</td>
<td>Nadia, South American</td>
<td>Mei, Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Economist/ Accountant</td>
<td>Carla, South American</td>
<td>Yao, Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Economist/ Statistician</td>
<td>Milena, Eastern European</td>
<td>Yo, Asian</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.10. Methods and Data: summary
This chapter presented and discussed ethnography, discourse analysis and interactional sociolinguistics as the main methodologies in the dissertation. It described the phases in the data collection and the concrete methods for selecting samples. Finally, it argued for the importance of good representation practices (i.e. transcription and translation) and gave an overview of the data for analysis.

The next chapters (Linguistic Fluency, Cultural Fluency, Ideologies and Assessments and Two Case Studies) analyse how the IO job applicants manage the demands of the institutional gatekeeping event. As the titles indicate, fluency is a central term, used to label, discuss and analyse some of the ongoing processes in the data. Fluency, however, is not used in the conventional meaning, but in a new, reclaimed sense, arguing for interactive and negotiating practices in the interlocutors’ joint speech production.
Fluency

The next two chapters approach, exemplify and discuss the concept of fluency. I use fluency as an umbrella term to describe: first, the interactional matches and mismatches on the pure level of language (linguistic fluency), and second, the interactional matches and mismatches based on mutual cultural expectations (cultural fluency). By approaching fluency this way, I reclaim the monologic, form-focused definition of fluency and argue for a dialogical, interactional perspective on fluency.

It should be noted that I see linguistic and cultural fluency as inescapably interconnected. Every linguistic act is a cultural act as well and the chapters will notify the reader about cross-references on linguistic and cultural fluency as the analysis gradually unfolds. Therefore, for entirely practical reasons I first focus on features that clearly have a linguistic code (Linguistic Fluency) and then I continue with features more linked to cultural expectations (Cultural Fluency).
CHAPTER Linguistic Fluency

4.1. Fluency as an ethnographic term

Fluency, proficiency, level of Danish, being good or bad at Danish are emic terms (see previous chapter on Methodology) brought in to the IO interviews by both applicants and panels. As previously argued, the applicants’ ability to speak Danish is part of the general evaluation, so the panels spent much time on discussing and labelling the applicants’ competences in Danish both prior to, during and after the IO interview. “Fluent”, “good” “very good” were frequently used terms when the panels discussed certain characteristics of the applicants’ Danish. As one chief HR representative explained: “We try to find out how much Danish you speak, whether you have written it [the job application, my suppl.] yourself, whether somebody have helped you… we are not sitting here to hire somebody who is fluent in Danish” (my translation from Danish).

This statement, the essence of which is to be spotted in all IO interviews is interesting in several ways. First, it legalizes the panel’s role as evaluators’ of the applicants’ Danish language skills alongside with or even before the evaluations of professional skills. Second, it brings the question of how much or less fluent an applicant should be in order to be employed. And third, it raises the issue of what exactly fluency means in this connection. So (level of) fluency is crucial in the selection of applicants for the IO job interview. The key question is how do the panels understand, relate themselves to and evaluate that “fluency”?

The next section maps the concept of fluency in L2. It goes briefly through highlighting some problem areas in the monologic approach to fluency and continues with examples from the IO job interview arguing for a new, reclaimed definition of “fluency” based on a dialogical practice.

4.2. Monologic approach to fluency: focus on form

Linguistic fluency in Second Language Speech is a term that covers a wide variety of meanings. We can say about a person that “he speaks three languages fluently”. In this case fluency will refer to a general linguistic skill, an ability to use a certain language or a number of languages. In other instances, one may say “he is absolutely fluent in Danish;
you cannot hear that he isn’t a Dane”. In this case linguistic fluency will be a distinctive feature of near-native proficiency. In Foreign Language Acquisition literature, more specifically the way Lennon (1990) defines it, linguistic fluency is about “expressing oneself in a foreign language without difficulties and without paying particular attention to the process of production, so that “the psycholinguistics process of speech planning and speech production are functioning easily and efficiently” (Lennon 1990:391). A foreign language in that case is a language that has been introduced later than one’s (early) childhood. Furthermore, Schmidt (1992) argues that linguistic fluency is an automated, procedural skill. According to both Schmidt and Lennon, fluent speakers will not need to concentrate on the speech process but are free to concentrate on the speech content (see also Færch et al 1984). However, this means that there will be job applicants capable of processing speech quickly and efficiently, but perhaps not in accordance to the grammatical and other norms of the native speakers. Would they be considered fluent then?

A more functional approach to fluency is Deckert’s (1984) island hypothesis. According to Deckert, in order to be productive, speakers need “a minimum of automatized, prefabricated language”, and speakers “setting out to speak, need points of fixation, anchoring grounds to start and return to”. These points of fixation are called “islands of reliability” (Deckert 1984:223). More specifically:

A speaker who plans an utterance must anticipate, develop and build up points of fixation, easily available islands of reliability, in order to gain ground for his search routines. The more fluent, the more competent the speaker is, the larger is his island repertoire (Deckert 1984:223).

Raupach 1984 elaborates on the “island” function by linking it to speech formulae. According to Raupach, formulae are identified as “speech segments that are delimited by pauses or hesitation phenomena such as draws, repeats, false starts, etc” (Deckert et al 1984:114). To Raupach fluency is dependent on learners’ ability to memorize, store and utilize smaller or larger formulaic units. He suggests two stages in obtaining fluency: the first stage is the adoption of new forms of hesitations or filled pauses different from those in the first language; the second stage is the adoption of islands of reliability and bigger formulaic expressions characteristic of the target language. The ultimate level of fluency
is reached when the learners have implemented the formulaic expressions so that all their utterances become fully applicable islands of reliability (see also Segalowitz 2010 on cognitive fluency).

Thus, according to the above, L2 fluency is mostly concerned with production of smooth speech without pauses, disruptions, hesitations, seeking for words, doing self-repetitions or any other forms of repair that deliberately switch the focus on the process of production. If speakers talk smoothly, at a stable speed, with appropriate vocabulary and first-time-understandable grammar and pronunciation (yet not necessarily with standard accuracy), these speakers are considered “fluent”. Seen that way, fluency is a monologic phenomenon: it is alone the speaker’s responsibility to produce fluent speech in L2. With that in focus, it also looks like vocabulary diversity and ability to memorize and utilize vocabulary are put much upfront as a key parameter of fluency. One example among many are the studies of Towell, Hawkins and Bazergui 1996 who looked at the connection between L2 fluency and vocabulary range. They found the average number of words produced by the speaker between two pauses, to be the most significant indicator of L2 fluency. Other measures that are frequently considered to reflect L2 skill are mean length of utterance (MLU; measured in words or morphemes), and rate of error (e.g. numbers of errors produced per 1000 words) (e.g. Hilton 2008 and Meara 1980, 1996).

I agree that vocabulary is important to convey a job interview in a foreign language. Quite obviously, the IO applicants need Danish words and knowledge of Danish grammar to express themselves. Technically, we can assume that the more words they know, the more nuances they will be able to express. Now, let us make an experiment. To find out whether applicants who are more familiar with Danish vocabulary are more successful at the job interview, I will test the connection between the applicants’ vocabulary range to examine whether those offered a job had a larger vocabulary than those who were not offered a job. Of course, vocabulary is just one feature of many to focus on. Grammar, phonology and especially prosody are also of importance. However, for practical reasons (words are relatively easy to count), I will conduct an experiment with exclusive focus on vocabulary to see whether it sheds light on the data.
4.2.1. Testing monologic fluency: Are successful job candidates those with the largest vocabulary in Danish?

I undertook a simple frequency analysis (FRQ, McWhinney 2012, see appendix 5 for details, example of samples and decisions) to count the total number of different word types, the total number of tokens and the type-token ratio for each applicant. Consider the chart below in which successful speakers are highlighted in darker rows while unsuccessful applicants appear in white rows.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Applicant (Successful=dark rows)</th>
<th>Total nr. of utterances</th>
<th>Total nr. of word types</th>
<th>Total number of tokens</th>
<th>Type-Token Ratio</th>
<th>Utterances per min.</th>
<th>Tokens per min.</th>
<th>Length of interview (min.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Front Desk Secretary</td>
<td>Arabella (-)</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>953</td>
<td>23,3%</td>
<td>15,81</td>
<td>57,75</td>
<td>16:25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hannah (+)</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>1312</td>
<td>19,1%</td>
<td>16,59</td>
<td>69,78</td>
<td>18:50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Kitchen Help</td>
<td>Tsang (-)</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>20,6%</td>
<td>7,27</td>
<td>72,65</td>
<td>27:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ruben (+)</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>2060</td>
<td>19,0%</td>
<td>14,00</td>
<td>66,88</td>
<td>30:50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Job Centre Consultant</td>
<td>Alice (-)</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>1207</td>
<td>22,9%</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td>54,98</td>
<td>21:55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nadja (+)</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>2303</td>
<td>18,8%</td>
<td>11,05</td>
<td>69,57</td>
<td>33:10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IT support</td>
<td>Hamid (-)</td>
<td>772</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>3232</td>
<td>16,6%</td>
<td>13,29</td>
<td>56,75</td>
<td>56:55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Maximilian (+)</td>
<td>870</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>5486</td>
<td>13,1%</td>
<td>16,4</td>
<td>102,79</td>
<td>52:58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Economist A</td>
<td>Yao (-)</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>1681</td>
<td>21,8%</td>
<td>10,55</td>
<td>44,23</td>
<td>38:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Carla (+)</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>1553</td>
<td>21,9%</td>
<td>7,15</td>
<td>43,74</td>
<td>35:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Economist B</td>
<td>Yo (-)</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>1831</td>
<td>21,6%</td>
<td>7,25</td>
<td>53,52</td>
<td>34:12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Milena (+)</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>596</td>
<td>3259</td>
<td>18,3%</td>
<td>7,56</td>
<td>70,08</td>
<td>46:30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Handyman A</td>
<td>Mohammed (-)</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>27,8%</td>
<td>10,51</td>
<td>39,4</td>
<td>15:32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Domingo (+)</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>24,9%</td>
<td>10,99</td>
<td>73,53</td>
<td>26:48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Job Centre Assistant</td>
<td>Tui (-)</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>1581</td>
<td>20,1%</td>
<td>15,91</td>
<td>70,89</td>
<td>22:23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rahiza (+)</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>2088</td>
<td>19,2%</td>
<td>12,4</td>
<td>76,26</td>
<td>30:01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Handyman B</td>
<td>Javier (-)</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>29,7%</td>
<td>10,8</td>
<td>32,73</td>
<td>15:00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Said (+)</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>932</td>
<td>23,6%</td>
<td>11,03</td>
<td>60,12</td>
<td>15:29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Integration Consultant</td>
<td>Silvana (-)</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>891</td>
<td>5477</td>
<td>16,3%</td>
<td>6,07</td>
<td>93,94</td>
<td>58:22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yasin (+)</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>719</td>
<td>3680</td>
<td>19,5%</td>
<td>7,09</td>
<td>85,62</td>
<td>42:55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In 7 out of 10 cases the successful applicants' interviews' are longer than the unsuccessful ones. In 8 out of 10 instances, the applicants who got the job produced more utterances and more tokens than the candidates who did not get the job. The average amount of utterances for those offered a job was also higher (7 out of 10 cases). Likewise, in 7 out of 10 instances, successful candidates used a greater number of total different words than unsuccessful candidates. This result is parallel to Scheuer 2001:228 who also studies job interviews (with applicants whose first language is Danish) and finds that successful candidates in general produce a larger amount of words than unsuccessful candidates as well as twice as many long turns. The findings are however in contrast to Roberts and Campbell 2006 where candidates who spoke neither too much nor too little were most successful (but note that the job applicants in their study were both L1 and L2 speakers of English).

The TTR (as an indicator of vocabulary diversity, see appendix 5 for details) displays controversial results. It shows that unsuccessful applicants have more diverse vocabularies than successful applicants. First, I found this result rather strange but on second thoughts I realized that the TTR has been calculated on the basis of the total amount of tokens, which means that all “fillers” (i.e. transcribed hesitations, voiced pauses, bits of words, mumbling, grunting, chuckling, eh’s, erm’s uh’s and their many variants) are categorized as different word types which automatically gives a high TTR. This leads to an important point: apparently, the TTR is not suitable for spoken discourse as the total number of words depends very much on how the talk is transcribed. The different variants in the transcription are crucial for understanding the interaction qualitatively but completely misleading when we quantify speech.

So, the quantification experiment did not shed light on the data. According to the chart, talking more (in terms of interview length and numbers of utterances and tokens) counts as a feature of success but the TTR does not. How should this be interpreted - does talking more show more interactional fluency? I believe not. For example, what if successful applicants are given longer turns because panels like them and let them talk longer? The relation between success and length is problematic as we simply do not know what is cause and what is effect. I rather think that we need a thorough qualitative
investigation of each interview, because only through immersing into the very heart of the interactive processes we can gain a better understanding of what is going on.

4.2.2. Monologic approach to fluency: discussion

The monologic approach to fluency leaves a number of unanswered questions and a lot of space for discussion. First, fluency is seen as an individual, cognitive act, rather than interactionally accomplished skill. Second, the monologic view on fluency does not account for the listenership fluency of the candidates, i.e. fluency becomes relevant only in the process of speech production and is not seen as a listening comprehension skill (see also (Drew and Heritage 1992). Third, there are ideological issues linked to fluency that go hand in hand with language attitudes towards second language learners, suggesting that what some hearers address as fluent, might be less fluent for others. As a result, approaching fluency with focus on form only suggests that L2 fluency is unfavourably compared with the “perfectness” of the so-called “mother tongue” or “native” language. Such view is much in line with the monolingualism norm (Jespersen 1941 and Hansegård 1968) which extreme consequences, at least in Denmark, are discouraging bilingual upbringing because it is believed that it weakens the competence of the languages involved (see also Jørgensen 2004 on critique of double semi-lingualism). According to the monolingualism norm L2 fluency is practically unattainable as there will always be features in one’s talk (e.g. pronunciation, intonation, grammar) that will be identified as deviant (i.e. “wrong”) form the “mother” tongue. Correctness and perfection are generally terms that occupy a lot of space in the monologic view on fluency.

We see also ambiguities in the theory of formulaic expressions. Rehbein 1987:216 points out that formulaic expressions give the impression of being “ready-mades” but seem to be taken out of a context, i.e. they can be interpreted in an appropriate way only if their original communicative contexts are reconstructed (see also De Certeau 1984 on improvisation). This suggests that formulaic expressions as communicative strategies are dependent on the context and the dialogue as we cannot talk about communicative strategies in a monologue.

The quantification of vocabulary diversity should be questioned as well. The chart showed that applicants with a higher number of different words and utterances were those offered a job, but the type-token ratio, which was supposed to indicate vocabulary
richness, was lower for successful applicants which gave the ambiguous result that the amount of talk is more important than anything else in the job interview (see Allwood 1993:389 on problems with quantifications of speech)

Considering all these things I think it is important to relate the study of fluency to the reality of the job interview as a dialogical practice in which fluency is produced and perceived interactively. Focusing on the applicant’s vocabulary in Danish does not give us an idea of fluency; we need to consider both parties’ input and participation in the conversation. By that I am not denying the importance of vocabulary in L2, as we do need words to express ourselves, and I also acknowledge the fact that the more words we know, the more nuanced we can express ourselves. However, the pure mastering of words is not a sufficient parameter of communication. We certainly need to know about grammar, prosody, phonology and how to put them into a successful play, i.e. we need to possess knowledge of use in context. But those aspects of language are certainly necessarily overt and countable. They may be parts of complex processes of negotiation that go through bumpiness, irregularities and misunderstandings. They are dialogical practices that require a listener and a hearer working together and this is how they should be analysed.

4.3. Dialogic approach to fluency: focus on meaning

The concept of dialogism is first mentioned by Bachtin in the beginning of the 20th century (e.g. Andersen 2003 and 2010). According to Bachtin every utterance and every thought comes as a response to what has been said before, and in anticipation of what will be said later. As a consequence, all language is dynamic and relational, thus endlessly reclaiming and re-describing the world. Linell 1998 and 2009 develops further the idea of dialogism, and inspired by Bachtin, argues for the dialogic understanding of the communicative situation by highlighting the importance of negotiation, construction and reconstruction of meaning potentials in the interaction. An important principle in dialogism is joint construction, which, according to Linell (see also Jacoby and Ochs 1995) is:

... something which participants (to varying degrees) possess, experience and do together. This collective construction is made possible by the reciprocally and mutually coordinated actions and interactions by different actors. No part is entirely one single individual’s products or experience.

(Linell 1998:86, my highlighting)
Studies in Conversation Analysis (Sacks et al 1974, Schegloff 1968, Heritage and Watson 1979, Hutchby and Wooffitt 2008, Seedhouse 2004) have pioneered in analyzing talk as jointly produced and negotiable. Seedhouse (2005: 166-167) argues that we need to acknowledge the fact that contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing (also Heritage 1984:241). He suggests that each utterance can be understood only by reference to the sequential environment in which it occurs and in which the participants design it to occur. For several decades now, research within Conversation Analysis and Interactional Sociolinguistics (Cicourel 1967, 1982, Hymes 1967 [cf. Hymes 1972], Gumperz 1982 to mention some of the many) has been documenting the importance of the interactional work in which all participants jointly construct meaning and create understanding.

4.3.1. Fluency in Sociolinguistics and Late Modern Studies
Since language variation and not language “correctness” is the core interest of sociolinguists, the Late Modern approach features very few studies focusing on (monologic) L2 fluency. There are, of course, exceptions, e.g. Seedhouse 1997 and McDermott 1988, which I address later in this section. A great number of studies analyse interactionally produced meaning, negotiating and co-constructing (Gumperz 1982, Sarangi and Roberts 1999, Schiffrin 1988, Tannen 1989, 2005, Rampton 1995, 2006, Drew and Heritage 1992, Auer 1999, Linell 1998, Seedhouse 1997, McDermott 1988, Jørgensen, Møller and Madsen 2010, Blommaert and Backus 2011) which, as I shall argue later, are some of the key constructing elements of dialogic fluency. Also studies in institutional gatekeeping encounters from Denmark (e.g. Fogtmann 2006, Scheuer 2001, Tranekjær 2009) argue for the dialogically produced meaning by exploring issues of power, gender and culture.

One of the projects that explicitly mentions fluency is McDermott 1988. He focuses on inarticulateness in classroom settings and describes it as a continuum, in one end of which we might experience “grunts, groans, quips, expletives and a wide range of nonsense in the service of apparently unformulated ends” and where “fluency is missing” (McDermott 1988:42); though in the other end there is a “breakthrough, words flow, new things are said, and the world is temporarily altered” (but see Rampton 2002 for a further discussion). According to McDermott, inarticulateness offers us ‘an invitation to listen in a
new way’ (McDermott 1988:40). Instead of treating inarticulateness as a matter of individual (dis)ability, we should rather regard it as a “well-orchestrated moment in which inarticulateness is invited, encouraged, duly noted and remembered, no matter how much lamented” (1988:38). Since inarticulateness (or non-fluency) can be “invited” or “encouraged”, I hope McDermott will agree - it is a co-constructed phenomenon. This is a dialogic approach to fluency in which the responsibility is not only the speaker’s but also the listener’s who is interactively invited to listen and respond “in a new way”. It is also in line with Erickson and Schultz’s concept of uncomfortable moments, e.g. places in which the conversational rhythm is noticeably disturbed (Erickson and Schultz 1982:76, 113). I address that in Two Case Studies.

Seedhouse 1997 is also dealing with fluency in a less “conventional” way. By highlighting one of the controversial areas of L2 pedagogy at the late 1990s, he discusses whether classroom teaching should focus on form and accuracy, or meaning and fluency. Thus, when Seedhouse addresses fluency, he sees it as an act of the learners’ control of the interaction, i.e. “[the learners] should be able to take as long a turn as necessary and should be able to negotiate turn-taking themselves, rather than have the teacher allocate turns or tell them how long they should speak for” (Seedhouse 1997:341) which highlights the need for jointly produced efforts for achieving understanding (Bremer et al 1996) and is in line with the perspective of this dissertation. I shall come back to that.

4.3.2. Sum up
So far, this chapter has argued for a qualitative based approach to fluency with focus on interaction. This is relevant for several reasons: As an ethnographic term, “fluency” preoccupies the attention of both panels and applicants. As we shall see, it becomes relevant because the IO interview is treated as an intercultural situation in which the applicants’ ability to use Danish is constantly assessed (see Ideologies and Assessments).

The rest of the chapter aims at identifying what dialogic fluency exactly means in the context of the IO job interview and how it functions as a dialogical practice. The next sections go through 1) some common problems of understanding and misunderstanding as part of the process of co-constructing interactional fluency, and 2) analysis of four job
interviews arguing for interactionally produced fluency as a criterion for success. Finally, the chapter suggests and discusses a new, reclaimed definition of fluency.

4.4. Fluency and negotiating of understanding
A crucial issue in all communication, whether it deals with first or second language talk, is whether the parties understand each other, and if not, how they tackle mis- and non-understanding. Bumpiness and irregularities are experienced in every conversation. Achieving understanding is a mutual responsibility and considers both speaker and hearer (Bremer et al 1996, Roberts and Simonot 1987). In gatekeeping encounters misunderstandings may have crucial effect on the outcome of the conversation. Applicants may be denied opportunities to enter the world on the other side of the gate due to misunderstandings which, in principle, could have been solved. Lippi-Green (1997) calls attention to the fact that it is often the listener that is relieved of any responsibility in the communication and the full burden is put on the speaker. In reality, she argues, if a listener says “I can’t understand you” he or she actually means, I dare you to make me understand you” (Lippi-Green 1997:69).

4.4.1. Misunderstandings
According to Hinnenkamp 1999:1 misunderstandings are a commonsense category (see also Coupland et al 1991, Bremer et al 1996, Bremer et al 1993, House et al 2003, Roberts et al 2005). They occur whenever there is lack of understanding for one or both parties. Misunderstandings are resolved from the conversation and can be identified in all kinds of interactional settings, though, as mentioned above, they have become a central working category in intercultural communication. However, this must not feed an assumption that misunderstandings occur just because a foreign job applicant and a Danish employer are having a conversation. Differences and similarities arise out of the conversation as it goes along, and each category deserves an analysis on its own.

Hinnenkamp 1999 and 2003 arranges misunderstandings in several categories, in relation to whether they deal with misunderstandings of facts, words or sentences (core misunderstandings) or misunderstandings of genre, activity type or tasks (event misunderstandings). Generally, Hinnenkamp lists 7 types of misunderstandings which I have summed up in three categories:
1-Overt misunderstandings (see also Linell 1993). Characteristic here is the immediate recognition of the misunderstanding, indicated by a repair (see section 4.4.2. on repair) at the next possible turn and then either regaining of the status quo ante or not. In the second case the misunderstanding becomes a resource of continuation.

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLE: OVERT MISUNDERSTANDING</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>01. TSA:</strong> at that time I was</td>
<td><strong>01. TSA:</strong> dengang jeg var</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>02.</strong> work in in xxx bakery</td>
<td><strong>02.</strong> arbejde på på xxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>03.</strong> and I am erm very</td>
<td><strong>03.</strong> konditori og jeg er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>04.</strong> familiar with this erm</td>
<td><strong>04.</strong> meget øh familiar med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>05.</strong> clean erm erm how do</td>
<td><strong>05.</strong> den øh rengøre øh øh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>06.</strong> you call the cleaning</td>
<td><strong>06.</strong> hvad hedder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>07.</strong> tasks</td>
<td><strong>07.</strong> rengørepogaverne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>08. MAN:</strong> I didn’t understand</td>
<td><strong>08. MAN:</strong> det forståd jeg ikke det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>09.</strong> that the last one &lt;TSA:</td>
<td><strong>09.</strong> sidste &lt;Tsang: ja ja ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10.</strong> yeah yeah yeah&gt;</td>
<td><strong>10.</strong> ja&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>11. TSA:</strong> I I I am well acquainted</td>
<td><strong>11. TSA:</strong> jeg jeg jeg jeg kender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>12.</strong> with the cleaning tasks</td>
<td><strong>12.</strong> godt rengørepogaverne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>13. MAN:</strong> yes</td>
<td><strong>13. MAN:</strong> ja</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In line 8 the manager interrupts Tsang’s to clarify what she has not understood (I didn’t understand that). The status quo ante seems to be regained after Tsang provides a repair in line 11 by replacing the English word “familiar” (line 4) which she uses in her Danish talk, with the Danish expression “kender godt” (know well, be acquainted with, line 11) as she probably realizes that the direct borrowing of the English word “familiar” has created the misunderstanding in line 4. I shall come back to that later in this chapter.

2-Covert misunderstandings: Characteristic for this type is the gradual recognition of the misunderstanding, indicated by 'uncomfortable moments' (Erickson and Schultz 1982) until one interlocutor becomes aware that some kind of misunderstanding has occurred and either starts treating it as described in section 1- or leaves the misunderstanding unsolved. Hinnenkamp points out that the misunderstanding will not be clarified but will be solved, that is, the interlocutors will be likely to overcome the misunderstanding “without getting to its roots”. He argues that “the more distant the recognition of a misunderstanding, the more effort is necessary to repair it and the less likely there will be an easy return to the status quo ante” (Hinnenkamp (1999:3-4). He calls attention to the fact that covert misunderstandings can happen due to what Gumperz 1995 calls “lack of
shared background knowledge” that “leads initially to misunderstandings, but since contextualization conventions are not shared, attempts to repair these misunderstandings fail and conversational cooperation breaks down” (Gumperz 1995:120, see also Gumperz 1982 on interpretative processes and Bremer et al 1993:161 on pragmatic lack of understanding). Covert misunderstandings are less often linked to purely linguistic knowledge but are more likely linked to contextual understanding. I give examples and discuss covert misunderstandings in the chapter *Cultural Fluency*.

3-latent misunderstandings are less clear than covert misunderstandings and treat cases in which the interlocutors may have a feeling of misunderstanding but the misunderstanding is often unnoticed and remains unnegotiated.

Hinnenkamp highlights that misunderstandings are “not simply a diffuse mismatching of alleged intention failure”, but “a sequence, a short or quite extended one, even open-ended one where a mismatching is retrospectively negotiated and most often repaired. Misunderstandings have a beginning and an ending” (Hinnenkamp 2003:67, see also Bremer et al 1996, and Roberts et al 2005 on misunderstandings based on pronunciation, intonation, grammar and style).

4.4.2. Repair
By arranging the misunderstandings in different categories according to whether they can be solved or not, we need to address another important aspect of communication: conversational repair. Repair is a term from Conversation Analysis (e.g. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974, Schegloff et al 1977) that broadly deals with the treatment of trouble occurring in interactional language use. Trouble or trouble source are key issues here and can be defined as

...anything which participants judge to be impeding their communication ... a repairable item is one which causes trouble for participants. Any element of talk may in principle be the focus of repair, even an element which is well-formed, propositionally correct, and appropriate

(Seedhouse 2004:143, author’s italics).

Repair can be both self- and other-initiated, resulting in either self-repair or other-repair (Schegloff et al 1977). Addressing repair through a CA point of view makes the process of
repair relatively straightforward; however most intercultural data like the data in this study suggests that repair is a much complex process and this is yet another reason to address the data through an IS approach (see Methodology).

4.4.3 Misunderstanding and non-understanding
When we deal with understanding and negotiating meaning, I find it useful to distinguish between *lack of understanding* (or non-understanding) and *misunderstanding*. Rathje 2008 categorizes misunderstandings as episodes in which the speaker signals one meaning while the hearer deciphers another meaning, while non-understanding happens when the speaker signals one meaning but the hearer does not decipher any meaning at all. Bremer et al 1996:161 point out that “lack of understanding tends to surface more readily than misunderstanding”. In a study of classroom interaction, they arrange the problems of understanding in three main categories and distinguish between learner initiated and teacher initiated misunderstandings, arguing that teachers and learners (i.e. speakers and hearers) share joint responsibility for successful understanding. For example, they point out that mishearings are particularly interesting, as they can be approached in a number of ways, for instance by displaying a ‘wrong’ hypothesis of the misheard element which they highlight as a better strategy than a simple asking of “what?” because it requires a cooperative resolution of the problem (Bremer et al 1993:161)

4.4.4 Misunderstandings and non-understandings as a strategy for negotiating meaning
This section provides examples of how understanding is negotiated in the IO job interviews. It considers the most common types of mis- and non-understanding supporting the argument of jointly produced meaning and interactionally built fluency which the rest of the chapter develops.

**Example 1: Misunderstanding and non-understanding of pronunciation and grammar:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOHAMMED, HANDYMAN. UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOH: MOHAMMED, MAN: MANAGER, FEMALE EMP1: EMPLOYEE REPRESENTATIVE, MALE</td>
<td>MOH: jeg arbejde(.)soldater &quot;eh;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOH: I worked (.) soldiers &quot;eh; [possible trouble source: grammar, use of plural instead of singular]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the above example Mohammed does not provide a repair of the requested grammatical form ("soldat" instead of "soldater") which creates a misunderstanding for the manager but not for the employee representative. However, both Mohammed, EMP1 and MAN use several turns to clarify the misunderstood element, and after both Mohammed and the employee representative have treated the trouble source for the manager, she closes the chunk with an assertive "Okay" indicating perhaps some readiness to move further, though with no information about the misunderstanding being cleared or not. This strategy of "closing the trouble and moving further" is characteristic for the IO job interviews in cases in which the applicants’ pronunciation and grammar are notably deviant from standard Danish. It seems that negotiation has taken place and the misunderstanding has been solved in the sense that the interview continues, but as Hinnekamp 1993:3 argued, it is not clarified (there is still uncertainty of whether the questioned item has been fixed). When unclarified misunderstandings like this float under the surface, the applicants are referred to as “difficult to understand and especially “difficult to read” and are not offered a job (also Roberts and Campbell 2006).
Example 2: Misunderstanding of tempus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TSANG, KITCHEN HELP, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TSA: TSANG, FEMALE, MAN: MANAGER, FEMALE</strong></td>
<td><strong>DANISH</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. MAN: yeah when do you take</td>
<td>1. MAN: ja hvor- hvornår går du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. language classes</td>
<td>2. du på sprogskole hvad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. what time</td>
<td>3. hvad tidspunkt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. TSA: erm it was last year</td>
<td>4. TSA: øh det var sidste år</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. summer</td>
<td>5. sommer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((tempus not understood, “wrong” answer))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. MAN: okay so now you don’t take</td>
<td>6. MAN: okay så du i øjeblikket går</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. language classes</td>
<td>7. du ikke på sprogskole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((best hypothesis on Tsang’s “wrong” answer))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. TSA: no</td>
<td>8. TSA: nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. MAN: no</td>
<td>9. MAN: nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((temporary understanding established))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. TSA: erm no yes yes</td>
<td>10. TSA: øh nej ja jo jo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((Tsang realizes the misunderstanding))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. MAN: yes</td>
<td>11. MAN: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. TSA: yes yeah yeah I I I</td>
<td>12. TSA: ja jo jo jeg jeg jeg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. take I I’m not finished</td>
<td>13. går jeg jeg har ikke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((repair of misunderstanding))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. MAN: no you’re not not</td>
<td>14. færdig med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. finished so which day</td>
<td>15. MAN: nej du er ikke færdig så</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. which day do you go to</td>
<td>16. hvilken dag hvilken dag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((confirmation &amp; repaired original question))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. &lt;TSA: mm&gt;</td>
<td>17. går du i i: i øjeblikket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. TSA: I expect to finish yeah</td>
<td>18. &lt;TSA: mm&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I hope to have finished</td>
<td>19. TSA: jeg forvente jeg være</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. by ha to have finished</td>
<td>20. færdig til ja jeg håber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. by the winter (.)</td>
<td>21. ha jeg være færdig til til vinter (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((new misunderstanding, second “wrong” answer))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. EMP: do you take classes</td>
<td>22. EMP: går du i skole om dagen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. during daytime now</td>
<td>23. nu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((new repaired question based on Tsang’s repair in lines 12-13))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. TSA: yeah but I can I can</td>
<td>25. TSA: ja men jeg kan jeg kan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. change it erm time from</td>
<td>26. skifte den øh tid fra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. from (.) from from</td>
<td>27. fra fra (.) fra fra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. normal daytime</td>
<td>28. normal dagtid til</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. to weekend so I can come</td>
<td>29. weekend så jeg kan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. &lt;EMP: yeah&gt; to work</td>
<td>30. komme &lt;EMP: ja&gt; til</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(&quot;correct” answer, repair))</td>
<td>30. arbejde</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several problems occur in the above example due to misunderstanding of how to answer the temporal question “when”. The manager seeks an answer to “what time of the day” but Tsang answers in terms of what time of the year (last summer). The misunderstanding escalates when the manager in line 6 interprets Tsang’s answer about Danish classes last summer in a way that she has finished taking classes. Then Tsang’s
**hasty  erm no yes yes yes** in line 10 suggests that the misunderstanding is suddenly dawning on her and she provides a repair in line 13 by saying that she is still taking classes. To the manager’s repaired question about whether she takes classes during day time, Tsang provides a short “yes” and rapidly adds that she can also switch to weekend classes, so I can come to work (line 29-30). The last sentence suggests that after a series of small misunderstandings Tsang finds it important to tell the manager that regardless of when Danish classes take place, she will have no problems coming to work.

This is an example in which at first glance simple misunderstanding of a temporal question may be rooted in complex communicative strategies to tackle the expectances of the gatekeeping context. Tsang wants to show flexibility in relation to the working hours because she hopes to get the job. This is usually a successful strategy but here it seems to be drowned in the general lack of understanding between the interlocutors (which takes place throughout the whole interview). This is also an example of the interplay of linguistic and cultural fluency skills in both Danish language and knowledge of the interview game (see the chapters Cultural Fluency and What is cultural and what is linguistic? )

**Example 3: Lack of understanding of vocabulary unit**

| HANNAH, FRONT DESK SECRETARY, SUCCESSFUL | DANISH |
| MAN: manager, female, HAN: Hannah | 1. MAN: har du let ved at lære dansk |
| 1. MAN: do you have difficulties learning Danish | 2. HAN: ø:h |
| ((idiomatic, lit. do you have it easy with)) | 3. MAN: har du [mmm |
| 2. HAN: erm ((ø:h)) | [the manager starts |
| [Hannah signals trouble by a voiced pause] | reformulation] |
| 3. MAN: do you have [mmm | 4. HAN: [ha ha |
| [the manager starts | [embarrassed laugh] |
| reformulation] | 5. MAN: (skal) lige |
| 4. HAN: [ha ha | omformulere mig (. ) jeg hvad |
| [embarrassed laugh] | hvad hedder det er det svært |
| | at lære [dansk |
| 5. MAN: (I’ll) just reformulate it (. ) I how do you call that is it difficult to learn [Danish | 6. HAN: [nej |
| [metacommunication + reformulation | [trouble source removed, mutual understanding re-established] |
| completed] | [trouble source removed, mutual understanding re-established] |
In example 3 the Danish idiomatic expression “har du let ved” (literally “do you have it easy with”) creates a trouble source for Hannah which she indicates by a voiced pause (e.:rm) in line 2. The pause is noted by the manager who explicitly mentions that she will reformulate the question (line 5) and asks the same question anew without the idiomatic construction. Hannah acts as if she understands the new construction and provides a negative answer to the question of whether she has difficulties in Danish (line 6) - ironic, because she has just proven the opposite.

4.4.5. Misunderstandings: conclusion
The three types of common misunderstandings showed how repair and meaning are mutually negotiated. Both panels and applicants strive with problems of clarity and conversational bumpiness in attempt to solve them as well as possible. Some misunderstandings, although linguistic on the surface, may also be rooted in complex contexts and agendas set by the high stakes of the gatekeeping situation. Generally, I find few examples in which panels or applicants metacommunicate non-understanding (e.g. by asking "what does that mean"). I interpret that either as a fear for displaying weakness (from the applicant's point of view) or desire to avoid face loss (from the panel's point of view). Another reason is that misunderstandings are not central in a sense that the applicants’ level of Danish is already taken account of (i.e. the panels are prepared to meet applicants whose Danish might be very deviant from what they are used to). I leave the issue of misunderstandings for now and will come back to it in Cultural Fluency which illuminates misunderstandings due to expectations in cultural norms.

4.5. Analysis: Two successful and two unsuccessful applicants
This section analyses four job interviews for two similar non-academic positions: a school kitchen service and a handyman in a nursing home. The analysis focuses on the mutual production of fluency by studying the interaction in four job interviews. It presents a detailed analysis of several excerpts by each applicant aiming at identifying and discussing communicative features of success and failure in the applicants’ interviews. It should be noted that the analysis does not compare applicants but the jointly produced communicative strategies which means that panels’ role is just as important as applicant’s.
The chart below gives an overview of pseudonyms, positions, age, area of origin, amount of years spent in Denmark, length of interview and average numbers of tokens and utterances per minute.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Candidate</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Years in DK</th>
<th>Length of interview</th>
<th>Tokens per min.</th>
<th>Utterances per min.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ruben (successful)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Kitchen service</td>
<td>South America</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30:50</td>
<td>66,8</td>
<td>14,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohammed (unsuccessful)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Handyman</td>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15:32</td>
<td>39,4</td>
<td>10,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tsang (unsuccessful)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Kitchen service</td>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27:30</td>
<td>72,65</td>
<td>7,27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domingo (successful)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Handyman</td>
<td>South America</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26:48</td>
<td>75,53</td>
<td>10,99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ruben and Domingo are both successful, and, as the chart above shows, they both have a larger amount of utterances and tokens per minute. Their interviews last longer than Mohammed’s and Tsang’s interviews. Ruben and Domingo have been living in Denmark only one year, while Mohammed and Tsang have spent 20 and 7 years, respectively.

Ruben and Tsang’s panel consist of two members: a manager (MAN) and an employee (EMP); Mohammed and Domingo’s panel consist of three members: a manager (MAN) and two employees (EMP and EM1).

### 4.5.1 RUBEN - managing the interactive dictionary

Ruben is a 25-year old South American male who has spent 1 year in Denmark. He attends Danish classes every day. He has a theatrical education from Cuba and describes himself as an artist and a painter. Before applying for the kitchen service position, he has had a cleaning job in a hotel.

In the following example Ruben (RUB) is talking with the manager (MAN) and one of the employees (EMP). Just prior to the conversation in the transcript, the manager asks Ruben whether he knows anything about autism. Ruben is uncomfortable admitting that he does not know much about autism. For example he says:”I do not study that but” (jeg studerer ikke det men). The manager explains that he is not supposed to
know anything about autism; she just asks whether he does. Then she starts elaborating on the condition of autism (line 1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RUBEN, KITCHEN SERVICE, SUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN: MANAGER, FEMALE, RUB: RUBEN</td>
<td>Beg. 13.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN: but if I have to say</td>
<td>01. MAN: men hvis jeg skal sige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. something very short so erm</td>
<td>02. meget kort så er det at øh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. they need to know what</td>
<td>03. de har brug for at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. happens every day</td>
<td>04. hverdagen er kendt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. RUB: mm</td>
<td>05. RUB: mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. MAN: that same thing happens</td>
<td>06. MAN: at det er det samme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. every day</td>
<td>07. hver dag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. &lt;RUB: samme thing every&gt;</td>
<td>08. &lt;RUB: det samme hver&gt; ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. yes &lt;RUB: yes&gt; <a href="">EMP:yes</a></td>
<td>09. &lt;RUB: ja&gt; <a href="">EMP:ja</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. RUB: cos it’s sorry</td>
<td>10. RUB: fordi det er undskyld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. &lt;EMP: erm&gt; it I</td>
<td>11. &lt;EMP: øh&gt; det jeg jeg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. think it is something</td>
<td>12. synes det er noget de</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. they cannot sense erm</td>
<td>13. kan ikke mærke til øh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. fee- fee-xxx do you</td>
<td>14. føj- føjxxxx kender du det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. know that</td>
<td>15. &lt;MAN: følelser&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. yeah &lt;EMP: feelings&gt; feelings 16.</td>
<td>16. følelser ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. true xxx &lt;MAN: erm&gt;</td>
<td>17. &lt;EMP: følelser ja&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. MAN: by all means they have</td>
<td>18. rigtig xxx &lt;MAN: øh&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. difficulties in reading</td>
<td>19. svært ved at læse andre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. other people</td>
<td>20. mennesker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. MAN: I mean they have</td>
<td>22. MAN: altså de de har svært</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. difficulties in</td>
<td>23. ved at forstå hvad hvad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. understanding what</td>
<td>24. der foregår for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. what’s going on for</td>
<td>25. &lt;RUB: ja ja&gt; dig eller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. &lt;RUB: yeah yeah&gt; you or</td>
<td>26. EMP eller mig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. EMP or me</td>
<td>27. &lt;RUB: ja ja&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. RUB: yeah yeah</td>
<td>28. RUB: ja ja det jo det jo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. &lt;MAN: yes mm&gt;</td>
<td>29. det &lt;MAN: ja mm&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. MAN: so we’ll we’ll help</td>
<td>30. MAN: så vi skal vi skal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. them understand</td>
<td>31. hjælpe dem med at forstå</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. RUB: mm</td>
<td>32. RUB: mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. MAN: erm the daily schedule</td>
<td>33. MAN: øh hverdagen også skal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. too and make it safe and</td>
<td>34. hverdagen gøres tryg og</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. easy</td>
<td>35. overskuelig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. RUB: mm</td>
<td>36. RUB: mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. EMP: in fixed boundaries</td>
<td>37. EMP: i faste rammer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. RUB: fixed boundaries every</td>
<td>38. RUB: faste rammer hver dag og</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. day and &lt;MAN: yes&gt;</td>
<td>39. &lt;MAN: ja&gt; &lt;EMP: ja&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. &lt;EMP: yeah&gt;</td>
<td>40. for eksempel I laver det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. for example you do the</td>
<td>41. samme det s- hver dag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. same the s- every day</td>
<td>43. EMP: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. EMP: ja</td>
<td>44. RUB: de samme ting ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. RUB: the same things yes</td>
<td>45. &lt;MAN: netop&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. &lt;MAN: exactly&gt;</td>
<td>46. RUB: ja</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Let us take a closer look at lines 6 to 16 from the transcript in which the manager explains what autism is. Look at the following excerpt:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LINES 6-16, RUBEN (repeated example)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. MAN: same thing happens every day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. RUB: [samme thing every day]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. MAN: yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. RUB: yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. RUB: cos it’s sorry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. EMP: erm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. RUB: it I think it is something they cannot sense erm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. RUB: fee- fee-xxx do you know [that]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. MAN: [feelings]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. RUB: feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. EMP: [feelings yeah true xxx]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ruben listens to the manager’s account of autism, and suddenly in line 10, he exclaims: cos it’s sorry it I think it is something they cannot sense erm fee-fee-xxx do you know that↑, as if he understands or remembers what autism is and wants to grab a chance to prove that he certainly knows about it. To do that, he has to interrupt the manager. To avoid possible face loss, he provides an excuse (sorry, line 10). Then he faces another problem not quite remembering the word “feelings” and tries to articulate something like “fee-fee-xxx”. The word does not come to him and he asks for help: “do you know that”. The manager provides the required word “feelings”. As soon as the common ground is established and Ruben has proven that he has both knowledge of the topic and ability to demonstrate it, the rest of the conversation (lines 21-46) proceeds smoothly. The three interlocutors build up the conversation together and each of them functions as an important building block in the joint construction (very much in line with Vygotsky’s principle of scaffolding, e.g. in Kozulin 2003). Each part supplements each other in a perfect functioning system: The manager continues her account on autism, the employee supplements further with facts and Ruben repeats and sums up (lines 33-45):

| MAN: erm the daily schedule too and make it safe and easy |
| RUB: mm |
| EMP: in fixed boundaries |
| RUB: fixed boundaries every day and <MAN: yes> <EMP: yeah> for example you do the same the s- every day |
| EMP: yeah |
| RUB: the same things yes <MAN: exactly> |
| RUB: yeah |
The reiterations can be related to what Sacks 1966 [in Sacks et al 1995] calls *collaborative speech* to illustrate the listener’s possible continuations of the speaker’s turns.

Collaborative speech is seen a lot in institutional talk. For example, Komter 1991:123 has documented that job applicants produce a higher amount of collaborative utterances than those who interview them. Komter sees that as a communicative strategy through which applicants wish to present themselves as attentive listeners in attempt to attract the interviewers’ positive attention. Svennevig 2003 terms the same phenomenon “echo answers” which he divides into two groups according to the purpose they serve: either to appropriate somebody’s formulation (usually if the person has difficulties in expressing her- or himself) or to claim commitment to the answer which I see in Ruben’s replies.

So, Ruben demonstrates linguistic fluency not by flawless proficiency in standard Danish, but by high level of understanding and convincing manifestation of communicative competence through which he manages to establish himself as a skillful interlocutor *despite* his limited Danish. This is also the job panel’s impression. The members describe Ruben as “easy to communicate with in spite of his Danish” (POST INTERVIEW CONVERSATION). This is a very interesting comment because it reveals that language is seen in two different ways – on the one hand there is a normative view on non-standard Danish, but on the other hand there is an acknowledgement of the good communication, despite the non-standardness.

Ruben’s main skills are as follows:

1) He demonstrates a high level of vocabulary comprehension by repeating, reformulating, supplementing and summing up others’ conversational turns. His reformulations are simple and based on previous turns but manifest an ability to understand and engage himself in the conversation

2) He demonstrates an ability to allocate himself conversational turns without losing face or causing others’ face loss.

3) He is comfortable in trying out new words of which he is not necessarily in command, and he is ready to ask for help if he is unable to continue on his own. He uses the panel’s competence strategically to supplement his own linguistic skills.

Ruben negotiates and builds up fluency interactively. With the metaphor of a dictionary, we can say that Ruben “uses” the more competent interlocutors as *interactive*
dictionaries in which he looks up words and phrases. Instead of pausing or giving up, he utilizes the panel’s linguistic resources whenever he finds himself short of a word. The interview goes like clockwork. The perfectly driven cog wheels act together to uphold the rhythm and the meaning. With this example, second language fluency understood as a monologic phenomenon that is merely anchored in the speaker’s production of "correct" units (e.g. Lennon 1990) is clearly challenged. We need a broader understanding that reaches above the monologic definition of fluency as about the speaker’s production of smooth speech without and relate it to the general mechanisms of interaction, and most importantly, not only to the production, but also to the perception. I see interactive fluency much closer to what Bremer et al 1996 studies describe. According to them, efficient interactants are those who manage to break the negative cycle of non-understanding and show a capacity to diagnose the source of their problem, which, as well as drawing on their pragmatic competence, requires them to focus on the linguistic forms (Roberts 1996:107, see e.g. Marcello in their data who acts very much like Ruben). I shall come back to Ruben in a while, but first let us look at the other three applicants.

4.5.2. MOHAMMED - “never mind, it means nothing”

Mohammed is 42 years old and has migrated to Denmark from the Middle East 20 years ago. He co-owns a green grocery store situated in Nørrebro, an area of Copenhagen with a relatively high concentration of ethnic and linguistic minorities. Mohammed has participated in several integration projects and internships as a handyman. He has a strong desire to be employed at a Danish workplace, but so far his applications have been unsuccessful. Mohammed is in many ways what Danes might call a “classic”, Middle Eastern immigrant from the 1990s. He is very different from Ruben; e.g. considering his age (42), less years of schooling, and the fact that he has not received Danish classes lately. At the time of the interview, he had spent almost half of his life in Denmark.

We already saw a small cross-section of Mohammed’s interview (the “soldiers” example in section 4.4.4.) in which it became clear that the manager had difficulties in understanding him. Another distinct feature of Mohammed’s is reiteration of others’ utterances:
These reiterations remind of collaborative speech (Sacks 1966) and echo-answers (Svennevig 2003) which I mentioned in the analysis of Ruben’s interview. However, I find the way Mohamed repeats the manager’s utterances different from the way Ruben does. I noticed that Ruben’s repetitions often overlap MAN, while Mohammed pauses after each turn as if he waits for a new question. Mohammed rarely builds further on previous turns, neither is he using the repetitions to link to something he would like to suggest, ask or reflect on. I am not sure how to interpret this. It might be that Mohammed does not know what to say, because he is not familiar with the job interview as an activity type - yet he would like to signal some kind of proactivity. Another reason might be poor hearing. I counted that during the 15 minutes of the interview, he asked “what did you say” six times. In Danish “Hvad siger du” is the most common way to ask for repair signaling “I did not hear that”, and as his intonation and tempo suggest, it sounds rather like a mishearing than a misunderstanding.

Mohammed’s speech rate is generally slow. He utters only 10,5 utterances and 39,4 tokens per minute which is notably lower than the other three applicants (see chart). It is difficult to estimate how much Mohammed understands because when he signals need for repair, it often sounds as if he rather calls for repetition due to a mishearing. Unless asked directly, he rarely initiates turns. Furthermore, his backchannelling is very scarce. For example, during MAN’s turn of 40 seconds (from 2:45 to 3:25), Mohammed not even once signals that he follows the story line, so in the end MAN has to ask: do you understand what I mean (3.25) to which Mohammed immediately replies I understand (3.26). Understanding seems to play a central role for the panel’s assessments and is the reason for not offering him the job: He could not understand English and he could not understand everything in Danish either after so many years in Denmark. I shall return to that in Ideologies and Assessments.
Several times Mohammed gets cross-questioned in a rather insistent manner. Look at the next example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOHAMMED, HANDYMAN, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH BEG. 6:23</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN: manager, female, EMP: employee, male</td>
<td>01. MAN: er du (. ) har du arbejde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN: are you ( . ) do you work</td>
<td>02. NU eller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. right NOW or</td>
<td>03. MOH: nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. MAN: no</td>
<td>04. MAN: du er arbejdsløs nu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. MAN: you are unemployed now</td>
<td>05. MOH: [nej arbejdsløs nu=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. MAN: [yes</td>
<td>06. MAN: [ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. MOH: [yes</td>
<td>07. MOH: [=fagforening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. MAN: [trade union</td>
<td>08. (1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. (1.5)</td>
<td>09. MAN: du er i fagforeningen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. MAN: you are in a trade union</td>
<td>10.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. union</td>
<td>11. MOH: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. MOH: yes</td>
<td>12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. (1.0)</td>
<td>13. MAN: hvilken fagforening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. MAN: which trade union</td>
<td>14. MOH: ø:h (1.5) ø:h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. MOH: e:rhm (1.5) e:rhm</td>
<td>15. &quot;hvad hedder den&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. &quot;what is it called&quot;</td>
<td>16. (1.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. (1.8)</td>
<td>17. förbudt ø:h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. uni- e:rhm (</td>
<td>18. (2.0) [engation]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. 2.0) [engation]</td>
<td>19. (3.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. (3.0)</td>
<td>20. EMP: i hvil-ø:h hvad hvornår er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. EMP: in which e:rhm what</td>
<td>21. du blevet meldt ind i den</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. when did you become a member(.) when you were</td>
<td>22. ( . ) da du:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. when did you become a</td>
<td>23. post e:ller=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. a postman o:r=</td>
<td>24. MOH: &quot;øj-hva- hvad siger du:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. MOH: &quot;erhm-wha- excuse me;</td>
<td>25. EMP: hvornår blev du meldt ind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. EMP: when did you become a</td>
<td>26. fagforeningen var det du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. member of the trade</td>
<td>27. du o- da du var post=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. union was it when you</td>
<td>28. MOH: [jeg var post ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. you o- when you were a</td>
<td>29. EMP: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. postman=}</td>
<td>30. MOH: &quot;ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. MOH: [I was postman yes</td>
<td>31. EMP: er det (. ) hvad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. EMP: yes</td>
<td>32. hedder f-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. MOH: &quot;yes</td>
<td>33. er det FUNK:tionel næ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. EMP: is it ( . ) what is it</td>
<td>34. hvad er det den=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. called f- is it</td>
<td>35. MAN: &quot;det ved jeg faktisk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. FUNC:tionel nee what is it</td>
<td>36. ikke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. it called=</td>
<td>37.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. MAN: &quot;actually I do not know</td>
<td>38. EMP: [nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. EMP: [no</td>
<td>39. MAN: [nej (. ) pyt med det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. MAN: (no (. ) never mind it</td>
<td>40. gør heller ikke noget ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. doesn’t matter ha</td>
<td>41. ha hh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. ha hh</td>
<td>42. (0.8) det betyder mindre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. (0.8) it means nothing</td>
<td>43. EMP: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. EMP: yes</td>
<td>44. (2.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. (2.5)</td>
<td>45. MOH: jeg kender hvor ligger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. MOH: I know where it lies and</td>
<td>46. den alt det der xxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. all that xxx</td>
<td>47. LED: m-m (2.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. MAN: m-m (2.0)</td>
<td>48.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The employee EMP asks Mohammed 7 different questions in less than 1.5 minutes. Five of them are reformulations of the question “which trade union are you a member of”
articulated in different ways in order to find out the concrete name of the trade union. EMP’s asking technique is clearly insisting; he continues asking until even the manager has to give up and admit that she is not familiar with the trade union’s name. Fogtmann 2007 has a parallel example from her study of Danish naturalization interviews in which the interviewing police officers in a very similar way insist on an answer about whether the interviewees names appear in the crime register (“Er du kendt i kriminalregistret?”). Just as in Mohammed’s case, this is an utterly irrelevant question (but nevertheless very bothersome) as the answer can easily be looked up.

The whole atmosphere of hyper-questioning (in analogy to Erickson’s 1982 hyper-explanations) leaves the impression that Mohammed is put on trial and cross-questioned about something he either does not know or cannot quite remember. Mohamed responds by slowing down the speech rate and producing a lot of pauses and repetitions. Gradually Mohammed becomes more passive, and after line 24 when he utters “excuse me”, he practically does not participate in the rest of the conversation in the transcript. Bateson 1972 (see also Tannen 2011) calls this form for communicative withdrawal “complementary schismogenesis” by which he points out that certain ritual behaviours can activate the inhibition or stimulation of a schismogenic relationship. In this case, the more the employee insists on the name of the trade union, the more Mohammed seems to pull himself out of the conversation. Because he is unable to provide a proper answer, he is left out without being given a possibility for a new interactional contribution. His attempt to come up with the name in line 14-15

\[\text{uni- e:rhm (2.0) } [\text{engation}] (3.0)\]  
is not recognized or picked up by either the manager or the employee. On the contrary, the employee instantly puts in new requests (in which e:rm what when did you become a member (. ) when yo:u were a postman o:r=).

If we go back to the “the soldiers”-example in section 4.4.4, we see how Mohammed struggles with both grammar and pronunciation in Danish. However, the main problem is not the deviation from standard Danish but the fact that the panel and especially the manager does not give him clear signals about his difficulties with the Danish language. In the soldiers-example as soon as the manager has understood Mohammed’s point (because of the employee’s repair) she hurries on closing the topic with a blunt “okay”. The same happens in the trade union-excerpt. Mohammed’s repair attempts remain
unaddressed and mutual understanding is not established. The topic is closed by the
manager’s: *never mind it doesn’t matter ha ha hh (0.8) it means nothing*. But I wonder, if it really meant nothing, why did they use so much time on something they could easily look up?

The two excerpts showed that Mohammed is given scarce chances to express himself. The reasons are complex and several. Mohammed’s vocabulary limitations in Danish and the fact that he does not take initiatives to ask for help result in a strategy in which the panel leaves the troublesome episodes unanswered. Unfortunately, it has a negative effect on Mohammed, as he becomes even more passive. Losing and preserving face are certainly issues for the manager who aims at avoiding the embarrassing situations by closing them quickly and saying that *it means nothing*. This strategy, however, gives breeding ground for discrimination as it marginalizes Mohammed and puts him into an uncomfortable position due to the manager’s obvious misalignment with him (Erickson & Schultz’s 1982, Roberts 1992, Roberts and Campbell 2006). As later chapters reveal, alignment of panel and applicant very often creates a positive communicative environment which in many cases leads to a job offer (see also Roberts et al 2008).

4.5.3. Fluency as polylanguaging
This section analyses two job interviews with focus on polylanguaging (e.g. Jørgensen 2008) as a communicative strategy. According to Jørgensen 2010 speakers use and combine features from what traditionally is called different languages and what Jørgensen regards as ideological constructs, with intentions, i.e. in order to achieve their interactional aims. The major point of polylanguaging is that speakers do not use languages as bounded systems; they use whatever linguistic *features* are at their disposal in whatever combination that suit their interactional goals (Jørgensen 2010, see also Madsen, Møller and Jørgensen 2010, Jørgensen and Juffermans 2011). For example, languaging is not the use of one or the other “language”, but of language. Language is understood as communicative practice and “not as countable entities that are given in the natural world, but as dynamic, creative potential to speak” (Jørgensen and Juffermans 2011:1).

The features the individuals use will vary from person to person and from situation to situation as they will be dependent on how or whether the interlocutors
appreciate of them. In professional and educational contexts, some “languages” would be officially more accepted in the process of polylanguaging. For example, research has shown that English has a higher status in comparison to other foreign languages in Denmark (e.g. Kristiansen 2006, Daryai-Hansen 2010, see also Thøgersen 2008 who calls English "the default foreign language" in Denmark). Evidently, it is not unimportant what source (or “language”) is allowed to come side by side with Danish and there is no doubt that features of English are some of the most welcomed linguistic resources in addition to Danish in official professional contexts. In the following analysis, I investigate how polylanguaging is practiced successfully. I illustrate that successful communication is not constrained to a particular set of one perfectly spoken language; rather it can be achieved through employment of different sets of linguistic resources. The data I discuss differs from the data of Jørgensen, Madsen and Møller, but nevertheless illustrates a similar point.

### 4.5.4. DOMINGO: “he was so good at Danish, I mean English”

Domingo is 35 years old male from South America. He has spent 1 year in Denmark. Domingo has a broad experience as a handyman from several countries. Domingo is married to a Dane whom he met on a holiday. By the time of the job interview, Domingo has been following intensive Danish classes for several months.

The main characteristic of Domingo is his integrated use of both English and Danish, 61 % of his talk is in English. Here is an example - the underlined words and sentences are pronounced in English, the rest is uttered in Danish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOMINGO, HANDYMAN, SUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MAN: manager, female; EMP: employee, male</strong></td>
<td><strong>BEG. AT 05:07</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. MAN: erm would you begin with</td>
<td>1. MAN: øh vil du starte med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. explaining a little</td>
<td>2. at fortælle lidt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. bit about yourself</td>
<td>3. om dig selv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. from Uruguay I: have</td>
<td>5. fra Uruguay jeg har været i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. been in Dinemark h- for</td>
<td>6. Dinemark h- et år (. ) je:g=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. one year {.} I:=</td>
<td>7. MAN: [et år</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. MAN: [one year</td>
<td>8. DOM: et år ja øh jeg blev gift med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. DOM: one year yes I</td>
<td>9. dansker kvinde øh om i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. married a Dane woman erm</td>
<td>10. august to tusind otte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. for in august two thousand</td>
<td>11. og jeg startede i skole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. and eight aind</td>
<td>12. og i January så jeg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I started school in January</td>
<td>13. taler lidt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. so I speak a</td>
<td>14. dansk og jeg kan forstå</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. little Danish and I can</td>
<td>15. lidt mere men i skole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. understand a little more</td>
<td>16. og lidt af grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. but in school eh and a</td>
<td>17. grammar grammar jeg øh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are several remarkable aspects of Domino’s presentation. First, Domingo seems to have prepared himself for the panel’s question “tell us a little about yourself” which is a standard element of a job interview. Second, there is a gradual switch from Danish to English. Third, in order to establish the switch into English, Domingo asks the panel for permission. The permission is neither given nor denied (the only comment being [mm]).
Domingo might interpret the minimal response as a positive sign, or he may not have the resources to continue in Danish. Fourth, the manager keeps asking questions in Danish, signaling that she either has not permitted the switch, or does not want to or cannot speak English (the latter proves not to be the case, see further analysis). Fifth, when Domingo answers a question, he starts responding in Danish but as soon as he realizes that he lacks the terminology to explain himself further in Danish, he switches into English (line 49-54). I shall illustrate that in a while. The interview, as in Ruben’s case, is used as a pedagogic conversation (Roberts and Simonot 1987), i.e. Domingo consults unknown words with the panel to move further in the interaction.

Domingo’s vocabulary in Danish contains mainly repetitions, basic coordinating conjunctions, simple subject-verb constructions, but also a vast amount of evaluative talk. However, the most important feature of his communicative style is that whenever he is comfortable with even a small amount of Danish, he puts it into immediate action:

**DOMINGO**

**ORIGINAL LANGUAGE (TRANSLATION IN PARENTHESES)**

1. I can go to school with the lærer (teacher) they help you to to read the grammar og snakker (and talk)
2. jeg kan se filme med subtitles it is very easy (I can watch films with...)

Domingo utilizes the Danish “islands of reliability” (Deckert 1984) by sprinkling Danish words into his English narratives. Note that they are not metacommented or signaled by a pause – they are fully integrated into the narrative as "sets of repertoires" (Blommaert 2005) or "sets of resources" (Jørgensen 2010). Look at the next example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOMINGO, HANDYMAN, SUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH, BEG. AT 19:11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. MAN: ... now we’ll have some coffee do you drink</td>
<td>1. MAN: ... får vi lige noget kaffe drikker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. DOM: [xxx coffee yes &lt;MAN: (laughing)&gt;</td>
<td>3. du [kaffe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. DOM: [yeah coffee is good really nice</td>
<td>5. DOM: ([ja kaffe er godt meget fint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. MAN: yes it is; really nice</td>
<td>7. MAN: ja det er; nemlig meget fint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. MAN: indeed; ((exalted, smiling voice))</td>
<td>9. ((eksalteret, smilende stemme))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Domingo’s response in Danish in line 3 (coffee is good) comes after a long narrative in English in which he explains about his previous experience in a construction company. When he finishes, one employee representative picks up the coffee from another room and the manager asks Domingo whether he would like to have some. Domingo exclaims in Danish (line 3) that coffee is good (kaffe er godt) thus also indicating that he would very much like some coffee. His exclamation brings a smile to the lips of the manager who completely agrees (it is really nice indeed). With this common Danish phrase, Domingo demonstrates knowledge of context and signals a high degree of community membership. I shall discuss the importance of formulae in the end of the chapter.

By using both languages, Domingo is able to express himself without delay and his performance seems more convincing. Danish and English flow unproblematically into each other and function side by side. As stated in the post interview conversation, the panel considers Domingo a highly fluent speaker of Danish and English. They offer Domingo the job because he was the most qualified candidate and he was so good at Danish, I mean English! (PHONE INTERVIEW, MAY 2009). This small lapsus encapsulates the idea of polylanguaging: “Danish” and “English” are seen as one meaningful body. It seems that the panel is not focused on how much Danish and how much English Domingo has been using. Successful communication and conveying of meaning seems to count more than monolingual correctness. Polylanguaging has helped Domingo extend his vocabulary – he is able to draw on different sets of resources to serve his purposes. While English helps him to communicate job-related issues, Danish is used as an alignment strategy through which he orients towards the panel’s Danish values. As a consequence and a sign of acknowledgement, Domingo’s strategy is adopted by the rest of the panel:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOMINGO, BEG. 24:30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ORIGINAL LANGUAGE, TRANSLATION IN PARENTHESIS</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. DOM: they they live here or they come &lt;HAN: they live here&gt; ja [transl: yes]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. HAN: they do not co- come every day &lt;DOM: ja&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. DOM: no no one come from ah okay &lt;HAN: mm&gt; okay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. HAN: they go to erm school and then they come back in the evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>naï okay cos I go to school &lt;HAN: but they lives in the&gt; [transl: is that true]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. HAN: in the room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. DOM: ind i skole in [place] [into school]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The example reflects the original languages. In line 1-13 both Domingo and the employee representative speak English. However, Domingo uses small markers in Danish (ja, nå, ind i skole) to show the panel that he is still tuned in to Danish. What I find interesting is that the manager, who until that moment has only spoken Danish to Domingo, suddenly switches into English. In line 14 she provides a parallel utterance, first in Danish and then in English (men men men det her det er voksne it is grown-ups) to which Domingo immediately responds in Danish: ja ja øh seksten femten år. Domingo’s polylinguaging is gradually legalized and accepted firstly by the two employee representatives (as we saw in the previous examples), and secondly by the manager. Particularly the manager’s switch into English a few minutes before the end of the interview is a tremendous sign of acceptance. The interlocutors have established common ground, and note that it is a ground that Domingo has introduced them to. As next chapters reveal, this is one of the links between linguistic fluency, cultural fluency and ideology. Domingo’s linguistic performance is appreciated not least because he is also seen as culturally fluent – he has demonstrated knowledge of context, ambition for linguistic improvement and interest in the values of the Danish community (apart from the “coffee” example, he is also talking about his Danish wife, about their trips to known Danish destinations and about his life in general, all of which demonstrate a high degree of appreciation of Danish values).

In sum, Domingo is not just using monolithic blocks of Danish or English; he is interactively and situationally performing polylinguaging. Whenever he needs to obtain a certain interactional purpose, e.g. drawing on a larger vocabulary or professional expressions (as in the example about previous work experience), he switches into English; whenever he likes to signal an in-group relation (as in the coffee-example), he switches
into Danish and utilizes all relevant Danish words and expressions he comes across of.

Finally, it should be said that polylinguaging in gatekeeping encounters is challenging and certainly deserves further studies. We cannot ignore the fact that Domingo is in a favourable position in comparison to applicants for white-collar jobs who are much more limited to the use Danish. As *Ideologies and assessments* reveal, academic and non-academic positions require very different levels of written and spoken Danish and allow different levels of integration of alternative features.

4.5.5. TSANG - “I didn’t understand that”
Tsang is an Asian woman, aged 25, who has spent 7 years in Denmark. She is married to a Dane and has a MSc degree from a Danish university. For several months, Tsang has been applying for a number of both academic and non-academic jobs. She has been invited to a couple of interviews, but she has never been offered a job. I recorded Tsang twice – first for an academic position as an accountant and second for the position as kitchen service.

At the second interview Tsang did not mention her university degree, presumably because she was afraid of being rejected as overqualified.

Tsang speaks primarily Danish with occasional English words but, unlike Domingo, the English borrowings are not recognized as English; on the contrary, they often create misunderstandings. I provide two examples from Tsang’s interview (one repeated and one new example) to illustrate misunderstandings due to unrecognized use of English words in the Danish talk.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TSANG, KITCHEN SERVICE, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH BEG. 18:33</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. TSA: at that time I was</td>
<td>01. TSA: dengang jeg var</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. work in in xxx bakery</td>
<td>02. arbejde på på xxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. and I am erm very</td>
<td>03. konditori og jeg er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. familiar with this erm</td>
<td>04. meget øh familiar med</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. clean erm how do</td>
<td>05. den øh rengøre øh øh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. you call the cleaning tasks</td>
<td>06. hvad hedder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. tasks</td>
<td>07. rengøreøpgaverne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trouble sources:</strong> 1) the word “familiar” (also existing in Danish) is pronounced in English</td>
<td>08. MAN: det forstod jeg ikke det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) the pronunciation of rengøre (clean) and rengøreøpgaverne (the cleaning tasks) is non-standard; [ˈrɛŋɡərøː]= instead of [ˈseŋɡərøː]</td>
<td>09. sidste &lt;Tsang: ja ja ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. MAN: I didn’t understand</td>
<td>10. ja&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. that the last one &lt;TSA: yeah yeah yeah&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The turn taking structure in particularly example 2 is what Breuwer 2004 calls “doing pronunciation”. It follows the classical scheme of interactional repair in cases with misunderstandings caused by pronunciation. As pointed out previously, Tsang’s English words are not recognized as English. This is confirmed later in the interview when Tsang explains that she speaks both Chinese and Danish at home after which the manager suddenly asks: do you also speak English (taler du også engelsk), which Tsang confirms: yes I speak also English (ja jeg taler også engelsk).

Tsang’s use of English is not integrated into her Danish in the same way it was for Domingo. Because of her deviant pronunciation and the non-standard intonation in
Danish, the panel has difficulties in following her talk. Furthermore, Tsang has not introduced the use of English nor asked for permission to use English as Domingo did. In Tsang’s case, the use of an alternative set of linguistic resource for communicative purposes causes disfluency, because it is not understood as an additional resource. Completely unlike Domingo, the English borrowings create trouble sources for the panel and make Tsang appear less proficient although her vocabulary in Danish is considerably larger than Domingo’s. Instead of serving a purpose, the English hinders the mutual understanding and obstructs the establishing of a common ground. While Domingo is considered a fluent communicator because of drawing on various resources, Tsang’s linguistic performance is seen as deficient, the main problem being the huge amount of misunderstandings in her interview. I will elaborate on that in the chapter *What is cultural and what is linguistic*.

4.6. Reclaiming fluency
Contrary to what previous research on fluency has found, I argue that fluency is not the monologic command of a given L2 (and “command” only being linked to production and not to comprehension). Rather (and in line with Gumperz 1982) *it is the successful dialogical practice through which the interlocutors are able to negotiate mutual understanding and problems with, for instance, non-standard use of the target language. The success of the practice depends much on the interlocutors’ intention to bring the communication to a satisfactory end: The L2 fluency is dependent on how the interlocutors negotiate, approve of each other’s’ choices and allow each other to use alternative communicative resources, e.g. verbal and non-verbal signals of comprehension, reformulations, repeats, integration of features associated with other sets of linguistic resources (other languages) etc.*

Thus, if the listener discovers non-standard forms in the speaker’s vocabulary, pronunciation or grammar that create misunderstanding, he or she may choose either to repair or leave the trouble source(s) out. If the repair is successfully negotiated and mutually approved of (which were the cases of Ruben and Domingo), there are good chances of achieving fluency. Conversely, if the repair is left out, it will permeate the conversation and put a mark on it as imperfect and insufficient thereby inviting prejudice
and opening for discrimination (which was the case of Mohammed but see also next chapter).

The above definition of fluency is an insider definition that reflects the way the panels address the applicants’ ability to speak and understand Danish. By arguing for a dialogic approach to fluency I do not ignore the fact that the applicants need a certain amount of vocabulary and grammar in order to negotiate meanings. What I would like to highlight is that the panels’ credit certain applicants calling them “good at Danish” or “very good at Danish”, which in my data seems to be primarily rooted in the interlocutors’ ability to negotiate, ask for support and provide support. If the panels are positioned and position themselves as interactive teachers, they may boost the applicants’ Danish; if they are positioned and position themselves as passive and distant, they may contribute to a mutual experience of a weaker performance.

In the gatekeeping, stratified, multilingual context of the IO job interviews fluency needs to be reconsidered and studied through an emic perspective which becomes possible through ethnography, and which is derived from the behavior and the perceptions of the panel. As argued in the beginning of this chapter, I use the term “fluency” also because it is a common sense term with many ideological values of its own, but nonetheless it places the analysis closer to the reality of the IO job interview. Dialogic fluency is not an absolute set of features and should rather not be measured monologically. It is the jointly produced interactional effort which is much more about understanding the other person and feeling comfortable about it (Erickson and Schultz 1982).

Two factors seem to be of crucial importance: on the one hand whether the panels will do what they can to understand the applicants and on the other hand how the applicants contribute to being understood. If the interviewers do not understand, they act either less supportive (as with Mohammed) or over supportive (as with Yao in the coming chapter What is cultural and what is linguistic). Very often, non-understanding in gatekeeping situations has negative consequences (Auer 1998, Bremer et al 1996, Fogtmann 2007). As analysis showed, understanding is not necessarily tied to grammatical or phonological correctness; non-standard Danish is appreciated of as long as it is comprehensible. As one panel representative said about one successful applicant:
She didn’t speak much Danish but she spoke comprehensible Danish.

Comprehensible Danish is linked to how well applicants’ make themselves understood. Whether it is the use of alternatives sets of resources or the openly stated desire to learn more, demonstrating ambition to develop oneself linguistically counts because it is taken as a proxy for how the applicant will relate to the job. When applicants use the job interview as “a pedagogic conversation” (Bremer et al 1996) and the interviewers as “interactive dictionaries”, it has also an ice-breaking function. On the one hand it mitigates the institutional stiffness by downplaying uncomfortable face-loss because of obvious differences in the parties’ level of Danish; on the other hand it further empowers the interviewers because they are positioned as experts in Danish not by themselves but by the applicants. Once linguistic difficulties are acknowledged and roles are allocated, the interview game becomes more open and the interview develops into a more comfortable process (Erickson and Schultz 1982, Roberts 1985, Roberts et al 1996). Surely this requires a number of skills above the management of the linguistic code and the next chapter will focus specifically on that.

This is the place to discuss the use of formulaic expressions as part of the process of conveying meaning and achieving understanding. Use of formulae was highly frequent in Domingo’s and Ruben’s interviews (see appendix 6) and is particularly important for several reasons: First, formulae require high level of linguistic accuracy (grammatical and phonetical) in order to be recognized as formulae. Second, they demand pragmatic knowledge about precise situational use. Peters 1983 argues that "For mature speakers of language…. formulaic speech may serve as a shortcutting device: It saves processing time and effort, allowing the speaker to focus attention elsewhere, for instance on the social (opposed to the linguistic) aspects of a situation" (Peters 1983:3, see also Wood 2010a). Boers et al 2006:246 refers to the formulaic chunks as "zones of safety" corresponding to Deckert’s "islands of reliability" (1984). Boers et al suggest that "zones of safety" help speakers reach a certain level of linguistic accuracy. The appropriate use of the prefabricated chunks may "confin the risk of 'erring' to the spaces in between the formulaic sequences in one's discourse" (Boers et al 2006:247). Furthermore, Boers et al argues that phonological reductions in formulae automatically signal affiliation to the target language and mark co-membership by assisting the non-native speakers to sound native-like by improving their spoken fluency and reducing the hesitations.
In short, formulaic expressions create positive environments for the interlocutors and function as alignment strategies. They are the “insider” chunks that create connections between “us” and “them” because they signal clearly the efforts the applicants have made to learn Danish. Especially when the rest of the applicants’ vocabulary and grammar may need a lot of practice, the small marks of membership attachment create comfortable moments, as they point attention to shared contexts and values.

So far, the dissertation’s has tried to focus on the linguistic codes of fluency but it has been almost impossible to leave the cultural aspects out of account. The next chapter sheds light on the many unexplained parameters of fluency thus placing the concept in a broader, linguacultural context.
CHAPTER 5 Cultural Fluency

The previous chapter argued that linguistic fluency was dialogically produced and mutually negotiated; however, the analysis and the definition of linguistic fluency left certain aspects unexplained. This chapter extends the notion of fluency by placing it within both a linguistic and a cultural context. It examines interactionally produced cultural norms and expectations to shed light on cultural fluency as a factor for success at the job interview.

5.1. Approaches to culture
For many years now researchers within different fields have tried to define culture. We observe a development that stretches from static cultural relativism, goes through cultural determinism and continues into a dynamic negotiation of cultural identities. We can approach culture both on a functional level (e.g. the way we think reflects the needs we have) and on a constructionist level (e.g. the way we think creates the reality we live in). Furthermore, we have mentalist views on culture according to which culture is a cognitive abstraction, rather than a “material phenomenon” and a model of perceiving in one’s mind (Goodenough 1964:36). A contrary view is Geertz’ 1973 semiotic take on culture that sees the things we do as socially accepted symbolic acts. Moreover, culture can be perceived critically and ideologically with focus on issues of power and dominance (Asad 1980). Nowadays in both anthropology and sociolinguistics we talk about doing culture and doing language instead of having culture (e.g. Ochs 1996); Brian Street (1993) even argues that culture is a verb (see also discussion on culture and ethnography in Roberts (ed.) 2000, 46-63).

5.1.1. Language and culture
To describe the connection between language and culture, Risager 2006:196 uses the metaphor of a Velcro-fastener: the language integrates and “latches on” new (cultural) phenomena. Thus, Risager summarizes the idea of language and culture as both inseparable and separable at the same time: inseparable in a generic sense, but separable if we address languages and cultures as isolated entities.

To see language as a mere communicative tool free from culture has been abandoned long ago at least in the field of sociolinguistics. Rather, we see culture as inseparable from
language, a *languaculture* (in Agar’s words, 1994) as a blend of language and culture in which it is not always possible to distinguish what belongs to language and what to culture.

This is also the position of this dissertation. I see language and culture as inseparable entities: what is analysed as cultural fluency is built on and interconnected with one’s linguistic competences. Every linguistic act is a cultural act as well and the two chapters will notify the reader about cross-references on linguistic and cultural fluency as the analysis gradually unfolds. The analysis addresses culture and language separately only because this is the way the job applicants and the panels see language and culture.

5.1.2. Intercultural communication

It is thought provoking that culture becomes more relevant in cases in which the interlocutors do not share a common linguistic background. Often when second language learners are evaluated against “native” speakers’ standards, culture is brought into play and referred to as a possible trouble source. In such cases, the encounters are usually labeled as *intercultural communication*. But what exactly is intercultural communication?

Knapp et al (1987:8) provide following definition:

> As linguists, we can define intercultural communication as taking place whenever participants introduce different knowledge into the interaction which is specific to their sociocultural group, which is relevant in the sense that it determines how a particular interaction should normally be verbally or non-verbally accomplished, but which is taken for granted and thus can affect the process of communication.

However, as Hinnenkamp 2009:198 rightly observes,

> ... whatever definition of culture we adopt, we still have the difficulty of showing how communication at any given moment is bound by culture or how culture continuously finds expressions in communication. Even this phrasing of the problem is misleading, because it suggests two separate entities – *communication* and *culture* – whereas it has to be shown that the one is an integral part of the other, that culture has to be found *within* the use of language...

Hinnenkamp’s observation addresses very precisely the inseparability of language and culture and raises a relevant issue – we have to presume that language and culture are separate entities in order to argue for their interconnectivity.
5.1.3. Interculturality
Auer and Kern (2001) investigate three different notions of interculturality (see also the chapter *Theoretical Foundations*). They point out, for example, that many assume that intercultural communication comes up whenever two or more persons, belonging to different cultures, communicate. But the problem is – they argue – that viewing culture this way would reflect different assumptions of what is or what is not to be done in a given society. As a result, members of different cultures might expect others to communicate and behave the way they do and might be unable to adjust their behavior to the other’s. If culture is conceptualized as independent of the interaction or placed outside the interaction it will make it easier for the interlocutors to fail in an intercultural communicative situation, i.e. misunderstandings will occur. To solve this problem Auer and Kern 2001 suggest, we rather drew on interculturality as a resource. They criticize the idea of training interculturality “and call it “prejudiced” and “Eurocentric because it prepares the non-Western interlocutors for the Western encounters assuming that training will make them more suitable for the “superior” culture, thus implying that something must be wrong with them.

A great number of studies (Gumperz and Roberts 1991, Roberts and Sarangi 1993, Hinnenkamp 1989, Blommaert 1991) argue for the same idea and warn us against embracing monolithic conceptions on culture, as it will emphasize differences and overstress “us” and “them”. Hinnenkamp 1987:144 points out that intercultural communication is not what happens when two people from different cultures communicate, but is rather a brought about feature in the encounter. Rehbein (2001:194) draws attention to the fact that people tend to focus on cultural differences, but what we single out as “intercultural” might just as well be resistance or defending processes. For example, intentional use of non-standard prosody or vocabulary could be seen as identity work, or simple resistance rather than misunderstandings. In a similar vein, Hinnenkamp 2009:190 outlines a number of different loci of culture-in-communication and argues that culture may be located within the style of the speakers, that is the way they structure arguments, their behaviour and attitudes, or even in non-verbal signals, such as gaze and gestures. He suggest that culture may be located in any “brought along”of a person of his/ her in group in terms of “visible” categories such as skin colour, gender, language, dialect, or less visible ones such as nationality, ethnicity, religion and the like”
(Hinnenkamp 2009:190, but see also Zimermann 1998, Blommaert 1991:23 on culture and identity). Kecskes 2011:67 defines interculturality as a phenomenon that is not only interactionally and socially constructed but also relies on cultural models and norms that represent the speech communities to which the interlocutors belong. Intercultures are usually ad hoc creations; they come and go and are created on the spot by the speakers in the conversation:

“Interculturality has both normative and emergent components (...) They are produced in a communicative process in which cultural norms and models brought into the interaction from prior experience of interlocutors blend with features created ad hoc in the communicative process in a synergetic way. The result is intercultural discourse in which there is mutual transformation rather than transmission of knowledge and communicative behavior” (Kecskes 2011:67).

Interculturality brings indeed a number of labels and bodies of knowledge that show the limitations of it. Nevertheless I find it useful, especially because it is an ethnographic term, capturing the way panels and job applicants address culture. An important thing to pick from Auer and Kern’s critique of interculturality (2001) is that intercultural communication is not what happens each time people coming from “different” cultures talk together; rather such communication becomes intercultural in the action.

5.1.4. Interculturality in the IO job interviews
The design of the IO interviews and the special training of the IO panels, as argued in the introductory chapters, reinforce the idea of interculturality and take cultural differences for granted. Here is an example from a post-interview conversation in which one manager describes why one applicant was not offered the job:
In the example Asian background is equivalent to obsequiousness, extreme service-mindedness, and lack of independent thinking. Conversely, the manager views the Danish working culture as one revolving a non-hierarchical structure, independent thinking and informal atmosphere. The manager expresses her concern about the collision of these two perspectives: “she won’t be able to say no, and things can fall apart”. Her biggest concern is that this “different culture” will negatively affect the work integration of the new employees, and make it take a “wrong” turn. This perspective on interculturality is the monolithic one mentioned by Auer and Kern 2011 (also Gumperz 1990, Gumperz and Roberts 1991, Roberts and Sarangi 1993, Hinnenkamp 1989, Blommaert 1991), the key point being that it does not allow blends of varieties as resources but rather sees the distinctions as deficits. It is also in line with the two perspectives on cultures identified by Wetherell & Potter 1992:130-134: The first one is culture as heritage, in which culture is seen as traditional and unchangeable with links to ideas about culture clash, culture shock, rituals and traditions. The second one is culture as therapy describing an understanding of culture as an individual (unique) right and necessity, linked to identity, values, roots, pride, etc (See also Tranekjær 2008: 255 on culture as a barrier and culture as a resource).

The category “Asian” is bound to certain limitations which stand as an antipode to the category “Danish”. Thus, the “otherness” of the applicant with respect to ethnic
background becomes a barrier for her integration into the Danish professional context. I come back to that example in the chapter *Ideologies and assessments*.

5.1.3. Othering

The monolithic view on interculturality is inevitably related to the concept of othering. Othering and otherness in particular are terms that originated from the German philosopher Hegel and were later associated with the French psychoanalyst Lacan. The *other* should be understood in the binary of the self vs. the other and is an image outside ourselves that we experience in a psychological sense. Crick (1976:165) points out that “the “self” and the “other” are mutually consistent categories; a change in the value of “self” inevitably changes “other” and vice versa”.

Othering has implications when it is used to disempower people, especially when it is based on national ideologies. As Said (1993:xiii) argues: “culture comes to be associated, often aggressively, with the nation or the state; this differentiates “us” from “them”, almost always with some degree of xenophobia” (see also Said 1978, Bhabha 1985). Street & Hallam (2000) point out that the process of othering has been crucial in the formation of identities in Europe which automatically results in essentializing of the “other”. The Westerner is given the gatekeeping authority to determine what can be said and written about the *other* (Sarangi 2009, see also Tranekjær 2009). From a Danish perspective, Yilmaz (2003) points out that due to the homogenous historical development in Denmark, the Danish popular discourse has constructed the *other* as characterized by “a number of essential treats all of which are denotatively and connotatively related to the Western/orientalist perceptions of the Third World – the domain of the primitive and the traditional” (Yilmaz 2003:13). Yilmaz sees Danishness as an unmarked category which is not constructed as an alternative ethnicity to the other ethnicities but as the opposite of ethnicity. Danishness is then

a non-ethnic, non-essential, flexible identity in accordance with the demands of the modern life; it is informed by modernity rather than cultural, religious or ethnic canons. The Dane is not another individual who does things culturally but one whose cognitions and actions are individually, that is, rationally – formed and performed. Hence the hierarchization of the mutually exclusive groups, Danes as superior with immigrants as inferior
Before I turn attention to the concept of cultural fluency, I would like to point out that the purpose of this dissertation is not to define culture; neither has it aimed at critiquing or problematizing the very complex idea of culture. Culture and interculturality are brought in through ethnography as one of the objectives of the IO programme is cultural integration. As later analysis exemplifies, the tremendous focus on cultural differences vastly influences the decision making processes and often leads to stereotyping and othering.

5.2. Approaching cultural fluency
The previous chapter argued for the concept of linguistic fluency as the successful dialogical practice through which the interlocutors are able to negotiate mutual understanding and problems with, for instance, non-standard use of the target language. However, purely linguistic know-how is one of the many skills. We certainly need other resources to make the communication smoother, and these resources might be beyond the linguistic components. Linell 1996 suggests, for example, that understanding is not only about deciphering linguistic meaning; it is much more about interpretation of contexts outside the linguistic meaning.

Poyatos 1980 and 1984 are the only studies that directly address cultural fluency. According to Poyatos 1984, a culturally fluent person is one capable of making contextually correct behavior choices from alternatives, demonstrating an ability to move back and forth between cultures with flexibility. To Poyatos this includes a number of aspects (linguistic, paralinguistic, kinesic, proxemic, and chronemic forms, all of which are context-dependent). Poyatos suggests also that the somatic processes (sweating, blushing, crying) are part of perceiving fluency, although not always controllable.

My approach to cultural fluency does not include these aspects and is more in line with Goffman 1964:135-136 who points out that: “Cultural rules... socially organize the behaviour of those in the situation... Face to face interaction has its own regulations; it has its own processes and its own structure, and these don’t seem to be intrinsically
linguistic in character, however, often expressed through a linguistic medium \(^4\) (but see footnote). Surely the IO applicants should be able to understand and produce Danish, but they also need concrete knowledge of speech activities to process the moment to moment interaction. The next section goes through several theoretical concepts that categorize the job interview on the one hand as a schematic event, but on the other hand as a flexible, interactive practice of negotiation.

5.2.1 Schema, activity type, scenario and frame

Schema is a term mentioned first in experimental psychology in the beginning of the 20\(^{th}\) century. Originally, it is associated with the names of J. Piaget and F.C. Barlett (e.g. Bartlett & Kintsch 1995) and later becomes particularly interesting for educational psychology. For Bartlett schemata are sets of features that every human being possesses. Schemata are unconscious mental structures that represent the individual's basic knowledge about the world and can be used not only to interpret but also to predict situations occurring in our everyday life. In later studies (Tannen 1979, Tannen and Wallat 1987, Roberts and Sayers 1987) schemas are used to analyse interactional data and describe patterns of knowledge, expectations and assumptions about the world. Peräkylä and Vehviläinen 2003 call the patterns of knowledge professional stocks of interactional knowledge, while Levinson (1979) argues for the more general term activity type suggesting a more flexible approach to the same process.

Activity type is similar to Hymes’ speech event (1972) and Gumperz’s episode (1972, 1982), scenario or speech activity. Levinson defines it as “any culturally recognized activity but nevertheless a fuzzy category whose focal members are goal-defined, socially constituted, bounded, events with constraints on participants, settings and so on (…) Paradigm examples would be teaching, a job interview, a jural interrogation, a football game, a task in a workshop, a dinner party and so on” (Levinson 1979:368). The fuzziness, according to Levinson, stems from the fact that some activity types are much less formal than others. For example, a job interview is more scripted than old classmates’ chance meeting on the street. As culturally recognizable acts, activity types link the micro and

\(^4\) With this description Goffman does not take account of the dynamic processes of the interaction but rather sees communication as a structure. This is different from my point of view, but I find it useful to the extent that it exemplifies the interplay of language and culture through “rules” (or expectations, or norms, see later analysis).
the macro perspectives and contribute to the allocation of roles and positions within which interlocutors move and act (e.g. Fairclough 1992).

When an activity type triggers a sum of symbolic cultural knowledge, there are often several layers in the activity type situation. First, there is general knowledge about the activity type. For instance, a job interview consists of questions and answers. Usually, on the bases of the answers the applicant may or may not be given the job. Second, within the activity type we can expect that things change and shift (e.g. new scenarios may be adopted). In the context of the IO job interview, I use activity type as a category that refers to the job interview as a whole (macro activity type) and scenario as an under-category of the activity type. Furthermore, the different phases of the interview (introduction, general information, questions and answers, closing) are also micro activity types of their own because we might need different sets of knowledge to address them.

Look at the illustration below:

The figure shows two possible scenarios linked to the micro activity type “self-presentation” as part of the macro activity type “job interview”. The first scenario (Domingo) is considered standard, while the second one (Tsang) is not. I shall come back
to that in the analysis.

Frame is a concept developed by Bateson (cf. Bateson 2000) and Goffman 1974. Goffman wished to illustrate how humans interact using frameworks to help them make sense of the situations and the activities they were involved in. A frame is an analytic concept which describes a way of perceiving things in the interaction: dynamically and momentary. The metaphor of the window frames suggest how the things we see through the frame are influenced, highlighted or distorted: frame is what creates the context. Frames affect what we look at as they are interactive and situational. Paradoxically, the frame is fixed but it makes the context flexible. To explore the interactive frameworks, Goffman introduces the notion of footing which describes how the interlocutors frame given situations and activities by negotiating their interpersonal relations. He argues that “[A] change in footing implies a change in the alignment we take up to ourselves and the others present as expressed in the way we manage the production or reception of an utterance. A change in our footing is another way of talking about a change in our frame for events” (Goffman 1981:128).

5.2.2. Two scenarios
In the following two examples, two applicants for the position IT supporter are asked “Where do you see yourself in five years?” This question is emblematic for job interviews in Denmark because the candidate, in order to answer it, has to possess and master several types of knowledge. For example, the applicant must know that although the question is abstract, it requires a concrete answer. The applicant should know that the literal meaning is “where in this company you see yourself in five years” and that “five years” simply refers to the future. Additionally, the applicants should be aware that the answer will be used to evaluate their ability to imagine themselves working for the company, and simultaneously demonstrate realistic ambitions for personal development. Consider the two examples below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLE 1, HAMID, IT SUPPORT, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN: hh one last question</td>
<td>07. MAN: hh et sidste spørgsmål</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. &lt;HAM: yes please&gt; where</td>
<td>08. &lt;HAM: ja værsgo&gt; hvor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. do you see yourself in five years</td>
<td>09. er du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. (1.5)</td>
<td>10. om fem år</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05.</td>
<td>11. (1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. HAM: erm I beg your pardon</td>
<td>12. HAM: øhm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07.</td>
<td>13. undskyld</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAN: where do you see
yourself in five years
HAM: in five years
MAN: mm
HAM: what does this mean
MAN: five years five years

( MAN turns first the palm of her one hand up and then the palm of the other hand up to illustrate five years with her five fingers )

HAM: ha ha ha ha <EMP: ha ha>
MAN: do you look into the future and say where do I see myself in five years
HAM: hh(.)erm(.)hh(.)I would like to be the boss
MAN: yes
HAM: ha ha <MAN: first you have to> no ha
MAN: you have to meet her
ALL: ha ha ha ha
HAM: yeah I would like to erm become myself better become better in erm this area it- support
MAN: where do you see
yourself in five years
MAN: mm
HAM: what does this mean
MAN: five years
HAM: in five years
MAN: mm
HAM: what does this mean
MAN: five years five years
HAM: ha ha ha ha <EMP: ha ha>
MAN: do you look into the future and say where do I see myself in five years
HAM: hh(.)erm(.)hh(.)I would like to be the boss
MAN: yes
HAM: ha ha <MAN: first you have to> no ha
MAN: you have to meet her
ALL: ha ha ha ha
HAM: yeah I would like to erm become myself better become better in erm this area it- support

EXAMPLE 2, Maximillian, IT Support, Successful

01. MAN: where do you see
yourself in five years
02. MAX: hh in five years well
03. <MAN: mm> erm erm if I
04. erm got it right then
05. the idea is that erm I
06. my position will become permanent after one year
07. <MAN: mm>
08. hh and erm I find it
09. very exciting that we
10. erm I (continue)erm yeah
11. hh erm getting new infrastructures and move to new building
12. so I really imagine
13. <EMP: mm> myself (.)
14. <EMP: mm>
15. staying erm here for a longer period erm if I
16. <EMP: mm> were here erm from erm erm from the very beginning
17. <EMP: mm> myself (.)
18. <MED: mm>
19. <MED: mm>
20. <MED: mm>
21. <MED: mm>
22. <MED: mm>
23. <MED: mm>
24. <MED: mm>
25. hh <EMP: mm> and helped building up the wholetthing
26. at opbygge det hele

EXAMPLE 2, Maximillian, IT Support, Successful

01. LED: hvor er du om fem år
02. MAX: hh om fem år altså
03. <LED: mm> øh øh hvis jeg har øh forskået det
04. <LED: mm> øh øh hvis
05. jeg har øh forstået det
06. rigså det er det idéen
07. at øh jeg går over til en fast ansættelse
08. efter et år
09. <LED: mm>
10. hh og øh jeg synes det
11. lyder meget spændende
12. at vi øh at jeg (bliver)
13. ved med at øh ja hh øh
14. få nye infrastrukturer
15. og flytte til ny bygning
16. så jeg kan rigtigt forestille
17. <MED: mm> mig(.).at
18. <MED: mm>
19. hh <MED: mm> og hjalp med at opbygge det hele
20. hh øh øh fra begyndelsen
21. længere tid øh hvis jeg
22. <MED: mm> var her øh
23. lige øh øh fra begyndelsen
24. < MED: mm>
25. hh <MED: mm> og hjalp med at opbygge det hele
26. hh <MED: mm> og hjalp med at opbygge det hele
Let us look at the two scenarios. In example 1, Hamid fails to recognize the question as part of the activity type “hypothetic questions about the future”. The interviewer has to repeat the question (line 8), illustrate it with a gesture (line 15) and reformulate it to make it concrete (lines 19-22). First after asking “do you look into the future and say...” Hamid is able to answer. He answers that he would like to be the boss (line 24-25) which does not come according to the manager’s expectations (consider e.g. the pause in line 26 and the manager’s blunt “yes”). Hamid seems to fluctuate between two extreme points – first he does not know how to answer the question at all, but in the end suggests that he would like to be the boss. The laugh in line 28 could be interpreted as a way to “disarm” the tension and maybe save time while searching for the “right” answer. Finally, in lines 33-37, in a low voice, with a lot of repetitions and self-corrections, Hamid utters: yeah I would like to erm become (myself) better become better in erm this area it-support.

This episode reveals the cultural expectations hidden behind such questions. Hamid tries to act culturally fluent which clearly is difficult for him. On the one hand, he does not understand the indexical meaning of the expression and, on the other hand he seems unsure of the cultural expectations to follow with that kind of question. As a result, he fluctuates between one point in which he acts like an outsider (never heard of such a question) and another point in which he tries “too hard” to provide the desirable answer. Scheuer 2003 has a similar example in which the applicant Niels puts so much effort in establishing himself as competent and capable of doing the job, that the interviewers start perceiving him as a competitor, which has negative implications and does not result in job offer. Goffmans term “passing” (Goffman 1963) is very relevant here. Goffman uses “passing” in relation to concealing physical or mental disabilities to avoid stigmatizing and gain social acceptance from others, who, we believe, are better positioned than us. In this particular case, passing is relevant because it describes how Hamid strives to present an identity that the employers would appreciate of. However, if applicants try too hard on an identity they believe leads them to the job, passing becomes overstated and the applicants might end up discrediting themselves (see also Roberts and Campbell 2006 and see Farid in this chapter).
In example 2, Maximillian recognizes the question “Where are you in five years” which releases a longer explanatory narrative of 24 lines. Clearly, he is aware of the importance of the question and answers carefully and thoughtfully, e.g. by summing up what he thinks the idea of the job position is (if I erm got it right, line 4). He is both very concrete in his answer (getting new infrastructures and move to new building, line 12-14) and gives expression to his feelings about the future (very excited, line 10). Finally, he provides a statement of promise in which he explicitly articulates that he would like to keep the position and develop it further (so I really imagine myself (. ) staying erm here for a longer period ... and helped building up the whole thing, line 15-19 & 23-14).

As the example indicated, hypothetical answers of the above type are immensely complex: First, the applicants need to answer what they think the interviewers want to hear. The provided answers will serve as evidence of their suitability. The criteria for assessing applicants on the basis of hypothetical answers are officially invisible, but have huge consequences. Maximillian and Hamid respectively match and mismatch the expected scenario by framing the same question through different knowledge sets. Scenario and frame have a lot to do with the applicants’ cultural understanding of the communicative situation, because they are determined by cultural expectations and shared knowledge. The IO applicants are required a certain form for cultural fluency to help them navigate through the job interview. Through the next sections, the argument of cultural fluency as a factor of successful performance at job interviews is gradually built and exemplified. In the end of the chapter cultural fluency is defined and discussed in relation to linguistic fluency.

5.3. Cultural fluency: analysis

5.3.1. Hamid: “I drink vodka”
Hamid is a 41-year old Middle Eastern born applicant who has spent 8 years in Denmark together with his wife and children. In Denmark he took Danish classes and IT courses on graduate level. By the time of the job interview, he has just completed a wage subsidy job as an IT supporter in a public sector company in Copenhagen.

Hamid speaks in a very low voice; he seems concentrated but also introverted and shy. However, he is good at keeping eye contact with the interviewers and laughs often. In the
excerpt below the manager asks Hamid another hypothetical question – he must explain how he would assist colleagues with IT problems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HAMID, IT-SUPPORT, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PARTICIPANTS:</strong> HAM: Hamid, MAN: Manager, CEM: Employee 1, ITM: Employee 2</td>
<td><strong>FROM 22.56</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN: ...here we can say there are quite many erm women at work hh who</td>
<td>01. LED: her i hvert fald der er ret mange øh kvinner i faget hh som øh har denne her computer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. ...are many erm women at work hh who</td>
<td>03. ...kvinder i faget hh som øh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. ...women at work hh who</td>
<td>04. ...have denne her computer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. ...erm consider the computer (.). some of them as an evil (thing)</td>
<td>05. ...nogle af dem som et onde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. ...computer (.). some of them as an evil (thing)</td>
<td>06. ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. ...they must explain</td>
<td>07. HAM: mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. HAM: mm</td>
<td>08. LED: det er ikke særlig (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. MAN: it is not quite (.) gi-erm it is not a thing</td>
<td>09. gi- øh det er ikke det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. ...erm it is not a thing</td>
<td>10. ...som de er glade for at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ...they are happy about</td>
<td>11. ...arbejde mest med (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. ...when using it (.). h-</td>
<td>12. ...hvordan ville det være for dig ligesom at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. ...how would you feel</td>
<td>13. ...sige men hvis jeg sidder her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. ...if you were say like but</td>
<td>14. ...her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. ...if I sit here in front of the computer xxx (.). it is not really working well you gotta help me hh and then (.) try to help someone that is not really motivated-</td>
<td>15. ...at hjælpe mig hh og så (.) prøve at hjælpe så en ikke særlig motiveret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. ...the computer xxx (.). it is not really working well you gotta help me hh and then (.) try to help someone that is not really motivated-</td>
<td>16. ...foran computeren xxx (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. ...well you gotta help me hh and then (.) try to help someone that is not really motivated-</td>
<td>17. ...det fungerer bare ikke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. ...well you gotta help me hh and then (.) try to help someone that is not really motivated-</td>
<td>18. ...altså du er nødt til at hjælpe mig hh og så (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. ...and then (.) try to help someone that is not really motivated-</td>
<td>19. ...særlig motiveret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. ...and then (.) try to help someone that is not really motivated-</td>
<td>20. ...prøve at hjælpe så en ikke særlig motiveret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. ...and then (.) try to help someone that is not really motivated-</td>
<td>21. ...pc_bruger (.) altså hvordan [ser du den</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. ...pc_bruger (.) altså hvordan [ser du den</td>
<td>22. HAM: [ja]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. HAM: [ja]</td>
<td>23. LED: [-pc bruger (.). altså</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. [do you see this-</td>
<td>24. hvordan [ser du den</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. [erm first of all</td>
<td>25. ...at hjælpe mig hh og så (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. [erm first of all</td>
<td>26. ...særlig motiveret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. ...about something else not</td>
<td>27. ...at hjælpe mig hh og så (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. ...about computer okay...ha</td>
<td>28. ...at hjælpe mig hh og så (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. ...about computer okay...ha</td>
<td>29. MED: $ hh vi søger jo meget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. CEM: § hh we are very much looking for someone</td>
<td>30. ...en med øh der har den</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. ...looking for someone</td>
<td>31. ...tekniske kunne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. ...that erm that is good</td>
<td>32. ...men som også har den</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. ...at the technical stuff</td>
<td>33. ...(.). pædagogiske (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. ...but has also (.). the pedagogic (.)</td>
<td>34. HAM: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. HAM: ja</td>
<td>35. MED: hvad skal man sige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. MED: hvad skal man sige</td>
<td>36. mellemmenneskelig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. CEM: what should we say</td>
<td>37. HAM: [ja]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. ...what should we say</td>
<td>38. MED: [øh forståelse (.). hh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. MED: [øh forståelse (.). hh</td>
<td>39. ...øh (.). så øh så det gør ingenting at du er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. CEM: [erm understanding (.).</td>
<td>40. ...knap dygtig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. ...erm understanding (.).</td>
<td>41. hh på den</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. hh (.). erhm (.). so erhm so it is not that</td>
<td>42. ...tekniske t- side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. ...important that you are pretty skillful on the</td>
<td>43. ...men det er også</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. ...technical t- side but</td>
<td>44. vigtigt at kunne nå</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. ...it is also important to be able to reach (.)</td>
<td>45. HAM: [xxx]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. ...it is also important to be able to reach (.)</td>
<td>46. ...[den medarbejder]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. ...[den medarbejder]</td>
<td>47. HAM: [xxx]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
HAM: [xxx
48.
CEM: [who-
49.
HAM: [yeah you mean-
50.
CEM: [-is not quite
51.
HAM: [-wo- women- why is
52.
technical ye:ah: ma-
53.
maybe women can also
54.
good at technical stuff
55.
ha ha ha]
56.
HAM: [sam-
57.
MAN: [yes!
58.
HAM: [ja du mener-
59.
MED: [som-
60.
HAM: [ha ha ha]
Hamid’s example is interesting and in many ways emblematic. In the first part of the excerpt (up to line 27), the conversation fits very well the required scenario. Hamid is not in doubt about how to answer the question “how would you help those women that are not good at IT” and provides an explanation in which he focuses on both technical and pedagogical skills. This is also pointed out by CEM (lines 28-32). However, the rest of the conversation becomes a disastrous misunderstanding putting Hamid into a very unpleasant situation. He ends up defending himself by bringing up several Muslim taboo issues such as alcohol intake and repression of women.

Let us take a closer look at the conversation to find out how this happens. After Hamid has explained how he is going to provide IT support to less proficient users, CEM makes a longer statement (lines 29-49) about what kind of employee the company needs (§hh we are very much looking for someone that erm that will will be good at the technical stuff but will also be good at (. ) the pedagogic). This statement functions as a recap for Hamid’s report (summarized in the transcript) but is formulated in a way that might create trouble. In lines 40-46, CEM sums up Hamid’s point by saying that it is not important that you are pretty skillful on the technical side; it is also important to establish a good relation to the employee-in-need. With that reformulation CEM takes HAM’s statement to an abstract level. She uses “you” (in Danish “du”, line 42) as a generic pronoun but it makes Hamid wonder whether he did not make himself clear. To clarify that he initiates a repair (yeah you mean...). However, what Hamid does not know is that CEM is neither summarizing nor correcting him; she is reformulating Hamid’s account, using “institutional” language. I will explain this in a while.

So Hamid tries to figure out whether there has been a misunderstanding and to patch it up brings up the topic of women’s technical skills which causes heavy reactions. Hamid’s ironic maybe women can also good at technical stuff ha ha ha (line 55-56) is met with resistance. This resistance makes Hamid even more concerned with the women issue because he apparently realizes the mistake he made in lines 55-56. Immediately he starts defending himself by explaining that I from a family that (.) with a man and a woman there is equality there is no problem (lines 66-69) and continues by elaborating on how liberal he is at home and how he allows his wife to have a glass of wine at a party together with him drinking vodka. If we look back to the beginning of the excerpt, we see that the women-topic is not brought in accidentally. It is
the manager who in lines 2-3 explicitly mentions that there are quite many [women (and not just users) who find the computer difficult to use. When asked how he would address this situation, Hamid answers the question generally in regards to all IT users with problems with no particular focus on female users. However, when Hamid gets confused by CEM’s institutional reformulation, he starts looking for further explanations and perhaps tries to address MAN’s original request (lines 2-3). Hamid is not able to catch the frame shift, so when CEM reformulates Hamid’s answer, he is not aware that she has shifted to an institutional voice. Especially the use of mellemmenneskelige forståelse (“mutual” or “interpersonal” understanding, lines 38-40) might confuse Hamid as this is exactly what he has been talking about (to help each other and do things together). The frame shift is introduced by a contextualization cue in line 28 – CEM’s voice sounds firmer and lower. Recontextualization is a common strategy in institutional talk (Scheuer 1998, Roberts and Campbell 2006) but due to linguistic limitations in Danish, Hamid is not able to produce an institutional-sounding account. His account is a perfect answer to the question, but remains too personal and when CEM tries to make it more institutionally proper, Hamid gets confused. He starts a repair (yeah you mean) as to reassure CEM that he has understood her and knows about “interpersonal understanding”. Since the manager has mentioned women in her original question, Hamid brings another personal example from his own home trying to “pass for” a man with a very liberal mind-set. Actually, he delivers precisely what he has been asked to but fails in applying an institutional-sounding discourse to his accounts. When CEM does that instead of him, he does not recognize it and gets trapped in stereotypes. He is given “a linguistic penalty” (Roberts and Campbell 2006:12) resulting in a huge mismatch, first at the level of institutional discourse, and second at the level of cultural stereotypes. The episode starts as a product of a linguistic misunderstanding but results in cultural mismatch that culminates in stereotyping. This is also an example of how difficult it is to separate linguistic from cultural misunderstandings – what seems to be based on cultural views, might be linguistic in its core (Gumperz 1982).

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5 This is one of the cases in which the English translation does not fully capture the non-standardness in Danish. Hamid sounds less fluent in Danish than in the translation.
The next section provides an overview of three different discourse modes in job interviews, by which I will explain how Hamid’s non-use of institutional discourse and overuse of personal discourse negatively affects his job interview.

5.3.1.1. Personal, institutional and occupations discourses

The link between institutional, personal and occupational discourses in job interviews are examined by Roberts & Cambell 2006. They describe following three discourse modes:

a) **Institutional discourse** is the analytic and more abstract talk which candidates are expected to use to account for and rationalise their experience and attitude. The content of institutional discourse is often presented through rhetorical devices such as listing and categorization.

b) **Occupational discourse** is the descriptive talk of work experiences often presented as mini-narratives. It illustrates how actions are carried out, e.g. by bringing up issues of interpersonal and empathetic relations with team mates and customers. A particular narrative structure is favoured by interviewers and corresponds to the normative western narrative structure (Labov 1972).

c) **Personal discourse** is the talk concerned with individual’s experience and feelings. It is crucial in assessing candidate’s ability to relate to others. How the candidate relates to the interviewers is taken as a proxy for how they will relate in the workplace. Personal discourses are similar to occupational discourses in that they tend to be descriptive and deal with more interpersonal matters. They are characterized by involvement and openness, sometimes to the point of indiscretion in the context of the interview. They are used to self-disclose and so build up a more coherent and authentic picture.

(from Roberts and Campbell 2006:56,58,64,68)

One of Roberts and Cambell’s findings is that less successful candidates use a larger amount of personal discourse in comparison to successful candidates. Furthermore, they argue that key to success in the job interview is the ability to successfully **mobilise and seamlessly blend** institutional, personal and occupational discourses. In a similar vein, Scheuer 2001 argues for the combination of lifeworld (personal) and job-related (professional or institutional) styles determining success at job interviews. Scheuer 2003:144 finds recontextualization, defined as “the dynamic transfer and transformation
of something from one interaction to another” crucial for the successful outcome of the interview. Recontextualization, in line with Fairclough 1992 and Linell 1998 draws on texts, discourses, and discursive practices to show that the participants “engage with different levels of formality, intimacy, equality, etc., and they may endow the interaction with resonances of academia, casual conversation, pedagogic lecturing, and so forth” (Scheuer 2003: 144). Recontextualization, blending of discourses or style shifts require a high degree of “linguistic capital” (Bourdieu 1990) which, is an embodied part of the symbolic cultural capital and illustrates how language and culture are wired together.

5.3.2. Mohammed: mismatch of cultural expectations
We already know Mohammed from the previous chapter which provided examples of his difficulties in negotiating linguistic fluency resulting in failure to establish common ground with the interviewers. One side of the problem was Mohammed’s limited Danish, but, as previously mentioned, there were also certain mismatches at the level of mutual expectations that impaired his performance. Here is an example of that particular issue:

| Mohammed, Handyman, unsuccessful | Danish
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN: manager, female</td>
<td>MAN: beg. 12:41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOH: Mohammed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 01. MAN: yes I am just going to | 01. MAN: jo jeg skal lige |
| 02. ask [you↓= | 02. spørge↓= |
| 03. MOH: [mm | 03. MOH: [mm |
| 04. MAN =what do you like doing | 04. MAN: =hvad kan du godt↓|
| 05. most↑ (. ) which what | 05. lide at lave (. ) hvad |
| 06. is your favourite↑ (. ) | 06. kan du ↑bedst lide at |
| 07. w- working area | 07. (. b-beskæftige dig med] |
| 08. MOH: [xxx here↓ e:rhm | 08. MOH: [xxx her↓ ø:h |
| 09. MAN: yeah | 09. MAN: ja |
| 10. MOH: yes e:rhm painting (. ) | 10. MOH: ja ø:h maler (. ) det: |
| 11. i↑t good or ga-wi↑th | 11. gode eller ha-|
| 12. gardens eh↑ also | 12. me: d haver eh↑ også |
| 13. MAN: mm okay] | 13. MAN: mm okay] |
| 14. MOH: [erm | 14. MOH: [øh |
| 15. MAN: okay h°yes | 15. MAN: okay h°ja |
| 16. (2.0) | 16. (2.0) |
| 17. MOH: °e:rhm (4.0) you decide | 17. MOH: °ø:h (4.0) du bestemmer |
| 18. MAN: m↑-m↑ but I thought I | 18. MAN: m↑-m↑ men jeg tænkte |
| 19. just thought= | 19. jeg tænkte bare= |
| 20. MOH: [xxx | 20. MOH: [xxx |
| 22. most | 22. lide |
| 23. MOH: me like work (. ) | 23. MOH: jeg lide arbejde(.) |
| 24. . eh↓ | 24. . eh↓ |
| 25. MAN: [mm | 25. MAN: [mm |
| 26. MOH: I like work | 26. MOH: jeg kan lide arbejde |
| 27. MAN: you like | 27. MAN: du kan lide at |
| 28. working] | 28. arbejde |
| 29. MOH: [yes yes | 29. MOH: [ja ja |
The manager asks Mohammed about his favourite working area. After a short pause in line 08, Mohammed answers that painting is his favourite activity but is also good at gardening. The exclamation “eh↑ also” with rising intonation, is difficult to interpret. On the one hand the “also” before it may signal an attempt to finalize the answer, but the rising intonation after eh↑ is non-standard for a completion. The manager acts as if she has not quite accepted the answer: “mm okay” (line 13) sounds vague and the exhalation in “okay h°yes” (line 15) is followed by a pause of two seconds. Mohammed does not receive a clear signal whether he has performed as required. He utters a very low-voiced “erm” in line 17, waits for four seconds, and still without being given feedback, he comes with a new fast response: “you decide” (line 17). I interpret the manager’s somewhat theatrical “m↑ m↓” with first rising and then falling intonation as an indication of discontent with Mohammed’s response because she asks the same question of favourite work area anew (what do you like most line 21-22). This time Mohammed provides a general statement (me like work, line 23) and then corrects himself to I like work. The manager corrects him further (you like working, line 26) and closes the topic in the same way we saw in the previous chapter. Considering the general lack of feedback and the many pauses, MAN does not act supportively and seems to leave Mohammed quite on his own. Mohammed’s “you decide” creates a scenario that the manager is not set up to. Several times she insists that Mohammed should provide an answer but does not acknowledge any of his answers. Ironically, “you decide” is exactly what Mohammed is going to do if he gets the job because he is not free to choose; his mentor and his boss would assign different tasks for him every day. So Mohammed is supposed to do whatever is decided for him, but he is not supposed to say it in the interview. Such performance is not culturally fluent because it clashes with institutional Western expectations of how to demonstrate independent thinking in a job interview. The same pattern is seen in Roberts and Campbell 2008 where the job applicants do not expect to be asked about own preferences and tend to go for general, often deontic, statements about themselves and what a good worker should do. I shall come back to that in a while.

5.3.2.1. Discussion: cultural expectations
What goes wrong in Mohammed’s interview is different expectations of how to answer a question about preferences. One of the negative implications of interethnic communication is the interlocutors’ mutual expectations of how such communication
should proceed. The implications may be rooted in different rhetorical strategies, but often end in cultural stereotypes. Gumperz and Roberts 1991 sum up three major fields from which negative outcomes may arise. First, mismatch may occur if there are different expectations of how personal or institutional (or fact oriented) an account should sound (see also Roberts and Campbell 2008), which I demonstrated in the example with Hamid. Furthermore, Gumperz and Roberts 1991:78 argue that “Depending on the particular case, an individual may be seen as either unnecessary emotional or hostile or as lacking in personal motivation”. Second, they point out that mismatch may occur if the level of information density is perceived differently by the interlocutors, e.g. “speakers are likely to be seen as either vague or overly general or impersonal and not knowing their business, on uncooperative” (ibid). Third, differences may arise over expectations of what topics to include and what to exclude from the conversation. “Such perceived problems which are partly due to differences in cultural knowledge and partly due to differences in rhetorical conventions provide rich pickings to justify negative evaluations and refusals” (Gumperz and Roberts 1991:789).

Whatever question the applicants receive at a job interview, they would feel they are being tested. Once the job interview has finished, certain doubts will appear. People may ponder about whether a particular answer would have brought a more successful outcome. A number of external factors are also of importance: for example, the higher the number of unsuccessful interviews a candidate has gone through, the more insecure he or she will feel with respect to the answers and the general performance. This might be the case with Mohammed who has been looking for a job for a very long time. Like everybody else in the same situation, he does not want to fail the job interview by providing wrong answers. A preferred strategy of his might be to leave the decision to the manager. This strategy is a face-saving technique for Mohammed, yet it functions as a face-threatening act to the manager. And when face threatening acts are exercised in extreme assymetrical contexts, their effect is strong and has consequences. Due to a mismatch in the cultural expectations, Mohammed is not provided interactional support. At a point, the distance between him and the panel becomes insurmountable.

An important note here is that the way Mohammed acts (e.g. willing to do everything) has much less to do with an ethnicized style. Rather it is linked to ideological, cultural and
social ideas of how one is supposed to present oneself. This is one of the reasons why this dissertation does not deal with ethnicity as a socio-cultural concept but draws rather on super-diversity (Vertovec 2007) as I believe it makes more sense to talk about individual styles than socio-cultural constructions (see Ideology and Assessments).

Covert gatekeeping and inferential difficulties may be both social and cultural but nevertheless they show how language and fine details of interaction may lead to social exclusion. As Roberts (2000:115) puts it: “It is the very taken for granted quality of the inferential process which allows gatekeepers to be so assertive in their judgements when paradoxically these are at least in part based on cues which are only suggestive”. The paradox which has to do with the ideology of the interview as a proxy for other may cost the applicants dearly. As later chapters reveal, working skills, especially for manual jobs, have very little to do with interview skills.

5.3.3. Farid: The immigrant story
The way Mohammed wishes to present himself as a person who likes working and who will perform any kind of work, is also an example of what Roberts and Campbell 2006:149 call “the immigrant story”:

Born abroad candidates (...) seek to present themselves as always working hard, willing to do anything, and denying anything negative about past work experiences. The’ immigrant story’ is often problematic because a key underlying competence required by many interviews is resilience in the face of difficulties (...). So, many questions concern difficulties, dislikes and weak points. (Roberts and Campbell 2006:149)

My data is rich in examples in which applicants present themselves as “quick learners”, willing to do anything to get the job. Utterances like “I love learning new things”, “I am not afraid of learning”, “I love attending courses” “I do not have any problem with that”, “I am really good”, “I am always fresh”, “I am not professional but I am not an amateur either” are highly frequent.

In one example, the applicant Farid even suggests receiving less payment if only he could be offered a job as an integration consultant at a nursing home.
In the above example, Farid, a middle-aged, Middle Eastern applicant suggests receiving less payment for the position he applies for. In line 3-4 he explains that he is willing to refuse some part of his salary “in order to learn more”. Look at the next example:

**Farid, Integration Consultant, Unsuccessful**

**Man: Manager, Female, Man2: Manager 2, Female, Far: Farid**

| 01. | Far: I’d I pay, say, | 01. | Far: jeg vil jeg betaler hvis |
| 02. | thirty percent of my salary | 02. | det var tredive procent af min løn |
| 04. | Man2: [laughing] | 04. | Man2: [griner] |
| 05. | Man: [laughing] | 05. | Man: [griner] |
| 06. | then it’s then I’m willing to pay | 06. | så var det så var så er jeg |
| 07. | Man: mmh | 07. | Man: mmh |
| 08. | willing to pay that | 08. | villig med at betale |
| 09. | Man: yeah in order to | 09. | Man2: ja for at kunne |
| 10. | Man: mmh | 10. | Man: mmh |
| 15. | than <Man: mmh> then I’m going to have a hard year | 15. | <Man: mmh> så jeg har på bedst måde |
| 16. | and do it the best way | 16. | den hårdt år og gør det |

| 01. | Man: is there anything else you would like to (.) that is important for us to know when we will decide who to employ | 01. | Man: er der mere du vil fortælle os som har vigtigt for os at vide når vi skal finde ud af hvem vi vil ansette |
| 04. | Far: well this job that | 04. | Far: jamen for mig det der er det jo rigtig |
| 05. | Man: mmh | 05. | Man: mmh |
| 06. | looks like it is my last [chance=] | 06. | Far: og de de ser ud som det er min sidste |
| 11. | Man: okay> | 11. | Man: [okay] |
| 12. | Far: =to come on the labour market in Denmark so I will appreciate it SO much | 12. | Far: at komme på arbejdsmarkedet i Danmark så jeg sætter pris på det |
| 14. | Far: and I will give EVERYTHING I can | 14. | Far: og jeg giver ALT hvad jeg kan |
| 15. | Man: mmh | 15. | Man: mmh |
| 16. | Far: in order to obtain success | 16. | Far: for at kunne få succes |
Both lexical choice and prosody indicate that Farid is highly emotional about the possibility of working in an IO position (e.g. I’m so passionate about it). His uses pathos-loaded arguments (EVERYTHING I can, SO much, LAST chance) that make even the manager wonder (what makes you say that this is your last chance).

Farid’s account is illustrative on how applicants in a vulnerable position could be much aware of the disadvantages they face. They often seek to present themselves as strong, optimistic, willing to do anything, and even receive less payment or work extra hard. Unfortunately, as Roberts and Campbell 2006 point out, this particular self-presentation does not necessarily pay off because it does not fit the cultural stereotype of how applicants should be. On the contrary - it others them, as it increases the distance between what is required and what is performed. As we shall see in the next example, the interview game is more successful when applicants demonstrate reflective skills, critical insight and ability to solve problems.

5.3.4. Yasin: managing the egalitarian relationship

Yasin is another applicant for the position as integration consultant at the same nursing home as Farid. He is a 31-year old male born in the Middle East who moved to Denmark 6 years prior to the interview. He holds a bachelor degree in Social Sciences from his home country and a master degree in Physical Education from Denmark.

The position Integration Consultant is newly established and is tailored especially for the IO jobs. The employee who will be offered the job is expected to develop and establish a programme aimed at integrating elder citizens with a foreign background with Danish elderly persons. The position is poorly described in the job offer and the panel practically uses the job interview to find out what the position should consist of. This definitely causes difficulties as the panel often acts unprepared and chaotic. Yet, Yasin tackles the questions in a confident and relaxed manner. Consider the excerpt:
The interview has barely begun – less than three minutes have passed when Yasin starts a discussion on the concept of integration. He points out that integration is a huge thing (line 6-7) and we have to know how to address it in our field of work. Several times EMP tries to reestablish her turn (line 11) while Yasin continues on the topic of integration to find out what exactly he is supposed to work with. In lines 19-24 EMP seems to give up, suggesting that Yasin would figure it out with the principals-in-charge. Shortly after, the principal himself takes the floor in attempt to provide a clearer description of the job but, he too, has to surrender, crediting Yasin for his insightful remarks (you are totally right(.).the field is huge ha ha ha, line 23-25). This small victory means a lot for the rest of the interview. Yasin has established himself as a knowledgeable, analytic and carefully listening applicant who is not afraid of interrupting and even correcting the panel. He does that in a very subtle manner, providing logical
arguments by which he both shows and commands respect. This strategy is very different from Mohammed’s or Farid’s, who, much readily place themselves in a subordinate position. Yasin, in contrast, acts as if he controls the topic and the allocation of turns throughout the interview (similar to Ruben in the previous chapter). He is not a subordinate figure but an equally participating applicant with rights and opinions that are respected. From this position Yasin can negotiate future economic goods, e.g. a subsidy for attending an advanced Danish course. Look at the next example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YASIN, INTEGRATION CONSULTANT, SUCCESSFUL MANAGER, FEMALE, YAS: YASIN</th>
<th>DANISH BEG. AT 7:21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. YAS: but erm erm I’d like to take the exam</td>
<td>1. YAS: men øh øh jeg kunne tænke mig at tager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. only to progress (. ) well {it}</td>
<td>3. den eksamen kun for at udvikle mig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. erm if {it} gives me the possibility</td>
<td>5. selv (. ) altså det øh hvis det giver mig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. MAN: mm</td>
<td>7. den mulighed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. YAS: erm twenty percent of the time while I’m working here</td>
<td>8. MAN: mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. MAN: yeah</td>
<td>9. YAS: øh tyve procent af tiden mens jeg arbejder her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. YAS: it’ll be a good opportunity erm I and follow the</td>
<td>11. MAN: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. STUDIEPRØVE-COURSE</td>
<td>12. MAN1: okay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. YAS: skulle være en god mulighed øh jeg kan følge det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. EMP: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. MAN1: okay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. MAN1: [okay I think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. MAN1: [okay ok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. EMP: ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19. YAS: det bliver heller ikke så dyrt for afdelingen det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20. MAN: [okay det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21. MAN: [okay det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22. MAN1: [okay det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23. MAN1: [okay det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24. MAN: [okay det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25. MAN1: [okay det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26. MAN1: [okay det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27. MAN1: [okay det</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yasin has already planned which courses to attend during the 20% education time of his employment - he has surveyed the possibilities and checked out the prices. Thus, he also signals his future intentions as part of the workplace. According to the principal, Yasin gets the job because he indisputedly was the best one to reflect on some of our cryptic questions (Danish: Men Yasin var suverænt den bedste til at reflektere over nogle af vores kryptiske spørgsmål). This acknowledgement
goes in two directions: on the one hand Yasin is assessed as the best applicant among four others because of his analytic skills, on the other hand the panel admits that their own questions are cryptic and difficult to answer. Yasin is successful because he is able to tackle the interview game by navigating fluently through the different discourses. Let us look at one last similar case.

5.3.5. Maximillian: the visionary “we”
Maximillian is a 33 years old German, married to a Dane. He spent 1½ year in Denmark, studying Danish and finishing a PhD in Philosophy. I already presented an example in the beginning of this chapter in which we saw Maximillian reflecting on the question “where do you see yourself in five years”. An important feature of Maximillian’s talk is that whenever he speaks about the future, he shows the interviewers that he sees himself part of the institution. Pay attention to the use of the personal pronoun “we” in plural by which he not only shows understanding of the job but also empathizes with the required task:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maximillian, IT-Support Successful</th>
<th>Danish, Beg. at 27:45</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. MAX: …sure it is a big big</td>
<td>1. MAX: …det er sikkert også en</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. challenge if we erm move</td>
<td>2. stor stor udfordring hvis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. hh to a building and</td>
<td>3. vi øh flytter hh til en</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. there is no</td>
<td>4. bygning der og der er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. infrastructure so (to)</td>
<td>5. ingen infrastruktur så at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. think about erm how</td>
<td>6. tænke over øh hvordan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. infrastructure &lt;MED: mm&gt;</td>
<td>7. infrastruktur &lt;MED: mm&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. will look like</td>
<td>8. skal se ud</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maximillian and Yasin share a number of features which seem to work as successful strategies. First, they are both tackling the institutional demands by blending personal and institutional discourse. Second, they manage to present themselves as equal colleagues and not as subservient foreigners. In Scheuer (2001)’s words: they manage to establish an egalitarian discourse. Managers and panel representatives mention several times in the data that entering the new workplace as an equal colleague is crucial for one’s professional well-being. One of the things they look for when they interview applicants is how they establish an egalitarian relationship. For example, in one post-interview conversation, I was told that the reason why one particular applicant was offered the job was because she was able to enter this job as equal and she will be an equal colleague, also in all working conditions; this means she will be able to make demands on different things on equal terms with
the other colleagues and thus also challenge them professionally (about Hannah, see more in Two Case Studies). Equality and non-authoritarian social structure are Scandinavian (and according to the panels also Northern European) values that are mentioned and discussed a number of times in the interviews. Those applicants who manage an egalitarian relationship with the panel are more often offered the job. Managing and egalitarian relationship is a core issue of cultural fluency, the reverse side of which may lead to discrimination (Yilmaz 2006). I shall return to that in Ideologies and Assessments.

5.4. What counts as cultural fluency?
The analysis in Section 3 revealed some important facets constructing one of the main arguments in this thesis: successful applicants are those who on the one hand possess knowledge and understanding of the job interview as an activity type (e.g. timing, recontextualization, mixing discourses), and on the other hand manage the social relations in it, e.g. balance between being subservient or distant and independent or equal. I term this knowledge cultural fluency. With cultural fluency I refer to the applicants’ ability to demonstrate conventionalized knowledge, attitudes and emotions that are expected by and shared with the gatekeeper or the interlocutor-in-charge. Cultural fluency is done situationally and may change in every frame, scenario or activity type. It is often interconnected with linguistic fluency though it might function as a more abstract level of fluency that appears just as important as the pure mastering of the mechanics of language.

Cultural fluency is inseparably linked to linguistic fluency. Clearly, what makes the applicants fluent is also based on their interactional capacity to work out how to play the game. If it is in the comfort of being placed in the right context and accepted, cultural fluency can be mutually reinforced and empowered by the parties. In this sense it is dialogic and negotiable as well.

Cultural fluency functions as a code that can be negotiated and mastered if one is socialized into it. It is brought about and brought along; for some it can be worked out, made and re-made in the discourse, for others it is less flexible, more congealed and constrained by the language but also confined by one’s convictions and beliefs (e.g.
expressed in cases of resistance). Cultural fluency is a skill which we can bring along in
new situations.

Several phenomena were discussed and analysed to explain cultural fluency. The
positioning of the applicants in relation to the panel seems to play a crucial role.
Applicants like, for example, Yasin and Maximillian, who manage an egalitarian social
relationship with the panel are successful because the interviewers use what happens in
the interview as a proxy for what is going to happen in the workplace afterwards. If the
managers evaluate that the applicants get on well with them, they imagine they also will
get on well with people in the workplace. Such taken for granted assumptions allow the
gatekeepers to be assertive in their judgements although these judgements are highly
suggestive (Roberts 2000:115). Conversely, applicants who do not manage an egalitarian
relationship (such as Mohammed and Farid) and seem to “work too hard” for the job, are
not offered a position because their interviews “alert” what might happen in the job:
indecisiveness, dependence and subservience.

The managing of institutional discourse and the balanced use of both institutional and
personal accounts are some of the biggest difficulties for the job applicants, no matter if
they speak the same first language as the gatekeepers or not (e.g. Scheuer 2001). The
inferential processes here are complex and demand both linguistic and cultural
knowledge: linguistic knowledge to read the pragmatic function of what is happening (e.g.
to decipher whether the interviewer is asking for more information or not) and cultural
knowledge, as the applicants should know how to make their talk more institutional for
bureaucratic purposes. If the applicants’ stories are too personal, they might get trapped
in stereotypes because this is what the interviewers will focus on if they do not hear what
they expect to hear (what we saw with Hamid).

The so called soft skills or soft competences as e.g. communication, problem solving,
team working, an ability to improve personal learning and performance, motivation,
judgement, leadership and initiative (Grugulis and Vincent 2009:3) can also be associated
with cultural fluency. Cultural fluency has also to do with one’s ability to control the
impressions others form of one, e.g. what is known as impression management. Leary
and Kowalski 1990:34 argue that the impressions people make on us have implications for
how we perceive, evaluate and treat those people. Impression management as an aspect
of cultural fluency aligns with Goffman’s dramaturgical analysis (Goffman 1959, cf. 2002) according to which all individuals are performers on a variety of stages for a variety of audiences, so it is to the individual’s advantage to control the observations of others.

5.5. **Sum up**
This chapter created an overview of the concept *cultural fluency*. First, it introduced several approaches to culture and discussed the terms interculturality and intercultural communication. Second, it suggested an analytical framework to approach the notion of cultural fluency by addressing the job interview as an *activity type* in which, depending on the situation and the interlocutors, different *scenarios* might take place. Third, it analysed five excerpts of IO job interviews, demonstrating how cultural fluency was done situationally and changed in every frame or scenario. It showed the importance of balanced integration of both institutional and personal discourses. The successful navigation between these discourses (Roberts and Campbell 2006), or the skillful recontextualization of styles (Scheuer 2001) played an important role also for the participants in my study. The ability to blend discourses proves the interconnectivity of linguistic skills and knowledge of cultural codes. Finally, this chapter argued for the existence of certain cultural expectations that establish norms for cultural behaviour at ritualized institutional events.

The next short analytical chapter closes the cycle of linguistic and cultural fluency by shedding light on the conceptual overlap between the two concepts.
Chapter 5½
What is cultural and what is linguistic?

This chapter provides an analysis of an excerpt of a job interview with the Asian applicant Yao. It aims at highlighting some of the blind spots in the concepts linguistic and cultural fluency thus also demonstrating their interconnectivity.

Yao is a 27 years old Asian woman who has spent 4 years in Denmark. She holds a Bachelor degree in Economics from a university in Asia and a Danish Master’s degree in Political Science which she has completed in English. She applies for a job as an accountant employee but does not get the job. I remember her as a nice and friendly young woman, keeping good eye contact and listening very carefully to the panel’s introductions and questions. In my field notes I have written that she struggles with both pronunciation and grammar in Danish. Her sentences are short and she experiences difficulties in completing them, but as the interview goes on, her Danish improves and her sentences grow more complex (Field notes, July 2009).

Yao is the first applicant on the list of job interviews for the position as an accountant. Whether it is because of that or not, the interview structure seems strikingly disorganized in comparison to other job interviews. For example, the panel forgets to present themselves (but does so 14 minutes into the interview). After 30 minutes of the interview, the manager (MAN) starts asking questions about Yao’s experience from previous jobs. I notice that in the beginning of the interview MAN addresses Yao using highly complex institutional discourse constructions containing phrases like “solving tasks”, “taking the responsibility”, “making things move in another direction” which seem to challenge Yao’s Danish to the limits. At one point, however, MAN starts accommodating by simplifying her expressions and questions. Let’s look at the example:
MAN: yeah (1.5) have you been
in such situations (.)
where you worked with
where erm (.) you
have (1.5) g- erm got a
task (1.0) you (.)
made things move in
another direction
different from what the
client wanted <YAO: yeah>
because you meant it was
twist (...) have you tried

YAO: erm yes I have;
MAN: yes;
YAO: mmh; (1.0)
MAN: can you tell us about
<YAO: that I> that <YAO:
erm>
YAO: for example erm i:n er um
erm when I worked in a
?banking? erm we must
(1.0) erm we
must launch a campaign
custom launch a campaign
for: erm first erm (.)erm
clients can get some get
some (2.5) a: erm we
must (...) launch a campaign
in order to erm new goods
should come er um new
products should come to
the mark er marky [?the
market?] so <MAN: yeah>
erm (1.0) <MAN: okay> mmh
( .) we launch a: a: net
erm internet campaign;

MAN: yeah;
YAO: so ACTUALLY it was
very b- erm big erm
size
MAN: ok ay;
YAO: yes;
MAN: so it went really well;
YAO: yeah;
YAO: yeah <YAO: but>
YAO: bec- because this

product manager thought
erm they should use erm
normal er um and paper and
<MAN: yeah> marketing
Yeah;

MAN: what did YOU do <YAO:
xxxx in order to <YAO: erm>
convince him <YAO: we we>
yeah erm we start with a:
(1.0) erm a *tast* sample

YAO: okay;
I would like to call attention to the manager’s many acts of supportiveness. First, in lines 1-10 MAN addresses Yao in a cautious manner, her speech slowed down and simplified, as if she tries to make her question more comprehensible and less institutionally sounding. For that purpose, MAN elaborates on her own inquiry a number of times and repeats the key question both in the beginning and in the end (have you been in such a situation... where you // another direction.. different from // because you meant... have you tried that). Second, MAN’s huge amount of minimal responses upholds the rhythm of the conversation and gives Yao some interactional evidence that she follows and understands her. But does the manager really understand YAO? Looking at the interaction as a mechanical ping-pong game I would say yes – they do understand each other since neither MAN nor Yao ever indicate any mis- or non-understandings. MAN never asks for repairs or reformulations of content and she never addresses the issue of understanding, not even covertly. I have to admit that I find this fact a bit strange. I consider myself trained in listening to Danish as a Second Language, and yet it took me, and a number of colleagues, several times of repeated listening to decide on what Yao was saying. The transcript includes my best guesses as I sometimes find it close to impossible to decode Yao’s choices of vocabulary. Let us look again at how the manager tackles this.

In line 1-10 MAN asks Yao a question about whether she has tried a situation making things move in another direction. As MAN asks a polar question, Yao provides the minimal required answer: yes I have. However, although the manager’s question is
formed as a yes/no question, it is in fact a speech act that requires specific knowledge of how to respond. Yao is not only supposed to say yes, but to go on to give examples and to reflect on how and what she has done. But Yao does not do that. Her falling intonation in line 13 indicates that she has to all intents and purposes completed her turn (yes I have↓) and, after MAN’s yes↑ (which I interpret as an invitation to tell more), Yao further confirms that she does not have anything more to add (mhm↓). Yao indicates twice that she has answered the polar question but has not understood the speech act implied in it. In lines 16-17 the manager provides a new chance to get Yao on board, this time making the speech act clear by inviting Yao to tell a story (can you tell us about that). This time Yao readily grabs the chance and starts struggling through an ambiguous narrative about her experience with a new product campaign on the market. Yao’s narrative is characterized by a lot of repetitions, reformulations, false starts and long pauses, altogether making it quite difficult to follow the organization (see e.g. Blommaert 2010 on “truncated competence”). Therefore, when Yao in line 36 mentions an internet campaign with a falling intonation, the manager interprets it as a possible completion, which she tries to clear with Yao by asking yes↑. To that Yao provides a kind of coda-sounding utterance (so actually it was…) to which the manager reacts with the somewhat exaggerated oka:y↑ (perhaps wondering if that was her final answer). When Yao confirms (yes↓), MAN ends the sequence with an evaluation: so it went really well. This is all very good but Yao has not finished. She only seems to have given us the context: but- she continues quickly with a more concrete example about a product manager and some use of paper (which probably links to the internet campaign)6. Now, this further story engenders new troubles. After signaling a possible completion in line 51 (yeah↓), in lines 52-54 the manager asks Yao directly: what did YOU do with a notable stress on the personal pronoun “you”. Obviously, Yao ‘s story is not satisfactory for the manager. She is supposed to provide an institutionally sounding personal account of her own individual skills: By explaining how she had tackled problems from the past, she will

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6 The excerpt is an example of STAR structure (Situation, Task, Action, Result) going wrong. STAR is a common model for structuring answers in job interviews in the USA and Great Britain but it is not popular as a term in Denmark. However, the example demonstrates that the interviewers expect such a narrative structure.
demonstrate how suitable she is for the new job (see e.g. Roberts and Campbell 2005 and 2007 on “occupational discourse).

Yao accordingly begins a longer narrative in the first person plural – she uses “we”, rather than “I”. Now she really struggles with both pronunciation and grammar and is actually very difficult to understand. The manager listens very carefully and provides only one minimal response. First when Yao’s intonation in lines 60-63 falls and she says “and so”, the manager as previously interprets it as a completion (okay yes) and provides another positive evaluation: “hh↑det var flot↓. This Danish expression literally means: that was beautiful or that was wonderful. However, the quiet, low, breathy voice with an exaggerated rising intonation in the beginning and falling intonation in the end contains very much the features of a patronizing comment (á la “good girl”, “there you go”). It could certainly be used by a parent talking to a child. Maybe it is a statement provided by someone completely lost in somebody’s rambling but trying to keep up the positive spirit; maybe it is an evaluation of Yao’s extreme efforts to convey meaning in Danish.

5½.1. Discussion: What is cultural and what is linguistic?

To sum up about what happens in this job interview, I argue that MAN’s supportiveness and positive evaluations might support YAO in achieving linguistic fluency (especially in the end of the interview) but camouflages by the same token the essence and the meaning in Yao’s talk. Face work and face-saving strategies are important for the manager and as a result MAN reacts only to “surface” phenomena thus brushing off the key issue of understanding. It indicates that MAN is either not interested (because she has already decided not to give Yao the job) or that she does have great difficulties understanding Yao or perhaps both. Nevertheless, continuous avoidance of clarification almost inevitably has a negative outcome as it heightens the asymmetry between the interlocutors (Bremer et al 1996:178).

The general lack of indication of non-understanding is surprising; especially in terms of the extreme support and the obvious “applaud” of Yao’s input regardless of what she says. One explanation in line with Bremer et al 1996:178 could be that some interviewees place such high demands on the interviewer’s attention that there is too little “capacity” available for additional “monitoring” of understanding. Or, as Roberts and Sayers 1987 (129-130) argue, if interviewers have recognized second language difficulties as playing a
role in the interview, the interviewers may use the language factor as a reason for not clarifying a misunderstanding because they would perceive such a situation as “the feelings of embarrassment the interviewer suffers at moments of non-comprehension”. According to them, one of these is the interviewer’s feelings about race and the immigrant issue in general. They point out that:

In his wish to avoid any prejudice or paternalism he (the interviewer, my comment) treats the candidate as equally as possible. In other words, he affects to be “colour-blind” and “deaf to language difference”, on the wrong assumption that to treat everyone the same is to treat everyone equally. (...) The wish to treat the candidate as equal will also lead the interviewer to underplay, while listening to the candidate, any difficulties caused by the learner’s interlanguage and hence not search there for reasons to account for intuitions upon which his judgement of the candidate will be based. Judgements will be given non-linguistic rationales.

Roberts and Sayers 1987 (p. 129-130)

So what happens with Yao is that instead of clarifying the linguistic problems, the interviewer rather ignores them (this was also the case with Mohammed, see 4.5.2.). The reasons for the interviewer’s lack of engagement are complex and probably contradictory. One reason could be lack of understanding, another could be a “let it pass”-line because asking for details would break the already flimsy flow and make the applicant even more disfluent. Face matters are an important factor. Last but not least, the interviewer may already have judged the interviewee as a poor communicator, so there is no reason for false engagement.

Yao’s Danish, although assessed as worse than the other applicants’, is not mentioned as a problem in relation to getting the job. The main concern is Yao’s “personality” and the “culture”. The following is an excerpt from a post-interview conversation with the manager:

Well, I think that nr. 1 [Yao] was the one with the poorest language. But she can catch up because all four of them are some bright young ladies. Of course they will be able to learn. [...] Actually, I am not that concerned about the language. My concern is more about... it is about their personality, how they will manage the tasks in terms of... I just know what people they will be up against [...] And finally, maybe the real challenge is the culture in the long run, right...
Yao does not act according to the manager’s expectations – neither in terms of linguistic fluency nor in terms of cultural fluency. Culturally, Yao is not meeting the expectations of taking responsibility and acting as an individual. Linguistically (despite the support and the positive evaluations), she seems to be far away from the necessary stage of comprehensibility. It is difficult to be certain of whether “fake” support is helpful or not. Perhaps it is, because I see improvement in Yao’s Danish throughout the interview and I do not see evidence of Yao getting irritated because of not being understood.

Yao’s example encapsulates the idea that we cannot address linguistic and cultural fluency as two separate phenomena. What is seen as cultural can be due to linguistic problems as well (e.g. understanding speech acts in polar questions or providing too long context introductions without getting to the point, also seen in Roberts 2000 and Young 1982 on differences in rhetorical styles).

I argue that in Yao’s case understanding has not been achieved. However, the panel ignores that for the reasons mentioned above and points out cultural challenges instead. Culture becomes a catch-all term for unmet expectations at all levels. Whether this is due to a new form of “political correctness” in the Danish society in which non-standard Danish (finally) has become less stigmatized, or whether it is a common process of “different culture” being brought to surface when other discrepancies appear (Auer and Kern 2001) is difficult to decide. Nevertheless this dissertation is rich in examples demonstrating how the panels are eager to address “cultural problems” and much less prone to identify and address “linguistic problems”, also in cases in which there are no observable “linguistic problems” as chapter 6 will show.

As analysis has suggested, dialogic fluency goes much beyond the process of mechanical “surface”-scaffolding. It is rather built on two principles: On the one hand the interlocutors need to understand the content of what is said, and on the other hand they need to possess and demonstrate understanding of when and how and how much to signal the ambiguousness in the instances of non- and misunderstanding. Those two principles are irrevocably interconnected but while the first one is mostly associated with linguistic fluency, the second one is rather linked to cultural fluency.
The next step in my dissertation is to discuss and exemplify the notion of fluency as an ideological construct. As argued in the introductory chapters, assumptions about the applicants’ “good”, “appropriate” or “bad” Danish go hand in hand with the panel’s attitudes and ideological standpoints. Ideology is an integral part of the evaluation process, especially when selection criteria are less clear. The ideology of the job interview as a proxy for other skills is highly disputable but nevertheless taken for granted. These are some of the issues I address in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 6

Ideologies and assessments

Previous chapters argued for the jointly produced linguistic and cultural fluency as important elements of successful interaction at the IO job interview. However, as analysis documented in several places, the interviewees’ performance and the interviewers’ decisions are influenced by ideology. The applicants are constantly judged and the job interview is used as a proxy for how they will relate to tasks involved in the job. Since the whole notion of job interviews is based on the idea that ordinary people can speak of and for themselves in front of other people who have the right and power to access them, the next step is to find out how ideology influences the evaluation process. This chapter adds a third and important element to the analysis of fluency by studying the effect of existing ideologies to the selection process of job applicants. It argues that ideologies affect the IO job interview determining on the one hand on the managers’ decisions and on the other hand on the applicants’ linguistic and cultural performance. The chapter summarizes theoretical and practical issues of ideology and provides examples of how stereotypes, mutual expectations and prejudices feed into the selection process. It also discusses ideological aspects of language assessments (e.g. justice vs. fairness, McNamara and Ryan 2011) in the context of the job interview. Finally, it presents three separate pieces of analysis: First, an analysis of the official IO written guide, second, an analysis of the panels’ assessments of applicants for academic and non-academic positions as recorded in the post-interview conversations, and third, an interaction analysis of an example focusing on contrasting Danish workplaces with “foreign” workplaces.

6.1. Linguistic ideology

In a famous article from 1985 Silverstein argues for the existence of a so-called “total linguistic fact” by which he means that we must take the following four aspects of language into account in order to understand how linguistic signs have meaning in practice: form, use, ideology and domain. Silverstein acknowledges the tremendous importance of linguistic ideology, on a par with the formal aspects of language. Silverstein
himself defines language ideologies as “sets of beliefs about language articulated by users as a rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use” (Silverstein 1979: 193). Similarly, Rumsey 1990:346 argues that ideologies are “shared bodies of commonsense notions about the nature of language in the world”, while Irvine 1989:255 sees them as “The cultural system of ideas about social and linguistic relationships, together with their loading with moral and political interests”. What the three definitions have in common is that ideologies are about beliefs, commonsense and interests. They are subjective “interpretative filters” used to manage the relationship of language and society (Woolard and Schieffelin 1994, Mertz 1989). In other words, ideologies function as scenarios or schemas of expectations shaping interaction and processes of interpretation.

This dissertation adopts a broad definition of linguistic ideology. It views linguistic ideology as everything that has to do with individual or common values openly or covertly influencing one’s thoughts and actions, including actions performed by speech. I use ideology as a sociolinguistic and sociological term which includes beliefs and commonsense knowledge rather than addressing purely cognitive features. My point of view is in line with Irvine and Gal’s (2000:35) definition of ideologies as “the ideas with which participants and observers frame their understanding of linguistic varieties and map those understandings onto people, events and activities that are significant to them”. This view is also inspired by Billig (1991:143) according to whom commonsense is a form of ideology (cf. also Gramsci). Billig argues that the processes of everyday thinking are ideological and the contents of everyday thinking (e.g. values, opinions) are cultural products. In this connection, a stepping stone I cannot ignore is that no matter how much scientists and researchers know about ideologies, they themselves will be subjects to commonsense and ideological processing. Irvine and Gal (2000:35) suggest that ideologies are “conceptual schemas” held by everybody, including linguists and ethnographers: i.e., there is no “view from nowhere”. Awareness about linguistic ideology is thus a methodological issue rather than a psychological insight that brings us back to the discussion of ethnography (See Data and Method).

A fundamental idea for this study is the relation between ideologies and gatekeeping. The chapter Theoretical Foundations described and discussed the notion of gatekeeping as characteristic of institutional communication. It touched upon the idea that
gatekeeping is inevitably ideological as it is based on the gatekeepers’ (subjective) evaluations and hidden agendas. Erickson 1975 (see also Erickson and Schultz 1982) points out that gatekeeping is about *inclusion, exclusion* and *co-membership*; although Erickson does not directly address ideological issues, the terms through which he describes ideology have profound ideological underpinnings. The whole set of assumptions to be a part of a group is ideological. Evaluations are also based upon ideologies (Kroskrity 2000) and the ideas of bureaucratic fairness and equal opportunities itself constitute an ideological complex. We might need an “objective”, Weberian selection of who is worthy or not, but, the question is whether it is possible to decide on that, except on the basis of ideologies.

**6.2. Legitimate language and linguistic capital**

An important link to understanding ideologies is Bourdieu’s concept of “legitimate language” which Bourdieu 1991:45 defines as “a system of norms regulating linguistic practices”. Here is how Bourdieu describes the link between legitimate language, legitimate speakers, legitimate receivers and legitimate situations:

...we can state the characteristics which legitimate discourse must fulfill, the tacit presuppositions of its efficacy: it is uttered by a legitimate speaker, i.e. by the appropriate person, as opposed to the impostor (religious language/priest, poetry/poet, etc.); it is uttered in a legitimate situation, i.e. on the appropriate market (as opposed to insane discourse, e.g. a surrealist poem read in the Stock Exchange) and addressed to legitimate receivers; it is formulated in the legitimate phonological and syntactic forms (what linguists call grammaticalness), except when transgressing these norms is part of the legitimate definition of the legitimate producer (Bourdieu 1977: 650).

Bourdieu links legitimate language to linguistic capital. Linguistic capital, as one of the forms of cultural capital, involves fluency in those ways of speaking which are valued as powerful. Displaying such capital singles out the speaker as part of the dominant group within the social structure. Only speakers who play the game exceptionally well are allowed to transgress it.

Linguistic capital includes not only purely linguistic competence but also an understanding of the situations in which this capital has value. This definition of linguistic capital encapsulates to a great extent the concepts of linguistic and cultural fluency in this dissertation, as it at the same time highlights the importance of mechanical language
competences (linguistic fluency) but also the awareness of its use at a proper time and place (cultural fluency). The linguistic “sense of place” (Bourdieu 1991:82) is of the utmost importance because if speakers do not feel they are in the proper situation (no matter how legitimate they are) they will perform less well. Bourdieu explains the sense of “out of place” using the metaphor of “fish being out of water”. If the IO applicants are required to possess interview skills they do not master, they will feel like fish out of water, and it will have negative consequences for the job interview.

6.3. Ideologies and Stereotypes
Ideologies and stereotypes are closely related. While ideologies are the abstract bodies of shared commonsense, stereotypes are concrete sense-making tools. According to the social identity approach to stereotypes (Hogg 1990), they serve two purposes: first, they make it easier for us to understand social phenomena around us and, second, they fulfill our desire to present a positive image of ourselves. To stereotype means to assign individuals to certain categories which we assume they should have, often by generalizing for a whole group on the basis of what we know about a few individuals. By doing that, we endorse our own positive individual and group features. Stereotypes are important for both individuals and society; the social aspect justifies our actions and gives us responsibility, while the individual aspect strengthens our value system as humans (Tajfel 1981, Hogg and Abrams 1988).

The connection between assessments and stereotypes is contingent on the fact that we cannot assess something without having any previous experience with it or knowledge about it. Stereotypes are not necessarily wrong. Even if they are based on a group assumption, this assumption might be true for one or several individuals in the group. However, stereotypes can be used wrongly. Once emerged and dispersed, stereotypes are not easy to change. If a negative stereotype already exists, we may expect that what stimulates associations to that particular stereotype will be also assessed negatively (Street & Hopper 1982, Kristiansen 1991). Negative stereotypes will inevitably lead to othering (see also section 5.1.3). We need to classify others in “boxes” in order to gain a better understanding of ourselves or our group relations (Hudson 1996), and we need to distance ourselves from those we do not want to be associated with.
Stereotyping is both simple and complex. Simple, because it happens all the time and is easily practiced by anyone of us, and yet overly complex, because it rests on various individual and social factors, the result of which is to make sense of things. For example, if a job applicant takes an initiative but his or her initiative is overlooked or disregarded by the panel, it may feed into the stereotype of applicants of this type not taking any initiatives. Or, if the panel members expect to meet a candidate who is shy and service-minded, then, when they actually meet an applicant who is not like that but is still different enough, they may employ their original stereotype against the applicant. The following is an example featuring the African applicant Arabella who was seen as shy, fragile and dependent. The manager is concerned about employing her because she is different culturally and that will make it difficult to work with me. As the excerpt indicates, the fact that Arabella has been living in Denmark for 10 years and is married to a Dane does not make her particularly familiar with Danish culture:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>ARABELLA, HELP DESK SECRETARY, UNSUCCESSFUL</strong></th>
<th><strong>DANISH</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMP: _and you will be able to learn more about Danish culture erhm why we do as we [do=</td>
<td>MED: [så du]vil du også lære noget mere om dansk kultur øhm hvorfor vi gør som vi gør og</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARA: [mmh mmh]</td>
<td>ARA: [mmh mmh]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP: =laugh when we laugh [and_</td>
<td>MED: griner når vi griner og</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARA: [yes</td>
<td>ARA: [ja]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP: =say what we say</td>
<td>MED: siger som vi siger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARA: I have learned a bit about [that</td>
<td>ARA: det har jeg lært lidt om det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP: [yes</td>
<td>AUK: [ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARA: I have also a Danish husband</td>
<td>ARA: jeg har også en øh danske mand (.). [han er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP: yes but it can be difficult</td>
<td>MED: [ja men det kan være svært</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After 10 years in Denmark the African Arabella is still considered an outsider to Danish culture while the Western European applicant Hannah who has spent less than a year in Denmark is seen as a more appropriate candidate because the panel assumes that she to a higher extent shares cultural values with the Danes. Consider the following excerpt from a post-interview conversation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FROM POST-INTERVIEW CONVERSATION ABOUT HANNAH</th>
<th><strong>DANISH</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAR: Why do you give her [Hannah] the job?</td>
<td>MAR: Hvorfor blev det hende?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MAN: We did it because culturally we imagined that she could match the job and the existing job description better. We were all a bit concerned about the other two who were too eager for getting a job. And their cultural background contributes to the fact that since they will be cooperating with me for instance, they will become too submissive in relation to the job and to me. Whereas she [Hannah] is educated and socialized in another system and has (the) 15 years of experience. This was very important as well. In this kind of job she will be able to enter very much as an equal partner. Also the fact that she will stand as an equal colleague, also in relation to general working conditions, i.e. she will be able to make demands on equal terms with other colleagues and give them the necessary sparring.

MAN: Det gjorde det fordi vi kulturelt havde nok et billede af at hun bedst kunne matche det job og den jobbeskrivelse der er her. Vi var enige om at vi nok havde en lille bekymring om de to andre var så opsatte på at få job. Og deres kulturelle baggrund ville gøre at da de skulle samarbejde med fx mig, at de vil blive for ydmyge i forhold til jobbet og i forhold til mig. Hvor hun (Hannah) er uddannet og opdraget i et andet system og så har de 15 års erfaring. Det vægtede også meget tungt. I denne type job kan hun i højere grad gå ind som en ligeværdig. Det blev også vægtet [af] at hun blev en ligeværdig kollega også i personaleforhold, og altå gå ind og stille nogle krav på lige fod med andre kollegaer og give det kollegiale modspil.

The above statement is highly saturated with cultural issues. Culture seems to explain everything. The manager does not account for the selection of Hannah on the basis of the job interview but refers to commonsense categories, e.g. the “system” which Hannah is socialized in, in opposition to the system Arabella is socialized in. However, as we shall see in the next chapter, the manager does not know anything about Arabella’s home culture or work experience; she only assumes that it is different from the Danish and the Western European "flat" hierarchies. According to the manager, Arabella is not capable of working in Denmark because she is someone who you would want to take by the hand and invite home and then do something (for her), right? Because she really needs someone to take care of her, otherwise I don’t think she will get started. But you can’t do that at a work place. In other words, this is precisely what IO is about (viz. having a mentor and special training). Apart from that, such an evaluation is less based on Hannah and Arabella’s interactional moves or ability to communicate, and as documented in the analysis, much rather built on stereotypes about Western and non-Western Culture. I come back to that in the chapter Two Case Studies.
Stereotyping in IO interviews also happens when applicants bring themselves in a stereotypical position because of a misunderstanding. This was the case with Hamid who brought on himself the unfortunate stereotype about Muslims, alcohol and suppression of women (cf. Cultural Fluency) Hamid might have thought that he was going “the right way” by expressing how liberal he was, but unfortunately, the very act of doing it, feeds into stereotypes. This is extremely problematic for two reasons: from an interactional point of view, Hamid is doing the right thing, e.g. he is repairing an interaction which might lead to a misunderstanding; however, the content of what he is saying engenders othering. Paradoxically, the more Hamid struggles to fit in, the more he evokes stereotypical categories so that they become noticed and are used against him. In the end of the job interview Hamid was called “a pearl” (Dan: perle) by the manager - a nicer and slightly jocular edition of “paki”, but still a derogatory term. A similar process of stereotyping happens to Farid as well (e.g. section 5.3.3). He fights desperately for the job suggesting that he would even work for less pay. As such a scenario is different from what is officially expected, it automatically engenders othering (see also Auer and Kern 2001). None of the three applicants (Arabella, Hamid or Farid) were successful.

I now turn to the connection between ideologies and commonsense, which I introduced in the beginning of this chapter. The next sections discuss and exemplify the rhetoric of everyday thinking relating it to ideology, attitudes and prejudice.

6.4. Ideologies as commonsense
The term commonsense (sensus communis or a sense shared by both speaker and audience) was originally introduced by Aristotle (384-322 BC). Aristotle believed that speakers should make appeal to the sensus communis in order to maximize their speech impact. Commonsense with regard to attitudes and ideologies is primarily developed by Potter and Wetherell 1992 and in particular Billig 1991 and 1996. According to Billig 1991:43 the processes of everyday thinking are ideological. He argues that the contents of everyday thinking (e.g. values, opinions) are cultural products and that commonsense is a form of ideology. As a result, the commonsense ideology is presented as dually expressed arguments:

7 “Perle” became popular in Danish public discourse at the beginning of 2009 when a Danish policeman claimed to have told one of the activists in a police action: “Sit down, pearl!”. There was a huge debate whether he had said “perle” (pearl) or “perker” (paki). As a consequence “perle” started being used as a humorous version of “perker”.


“...the expression of an attitude is a dual expression. Most obviously, it indicates something personal about the individual attitude-holder. In addition to its individual significance, an attitude has a social meaning, for it locates the individual in a wider controversy. In this way, our attitudes refer not just to the beliefs we might uphold, but they refer to those other positions in a public argument to which we are opposed” (Billig 1991:43).

Billig points out that human thinking is not merely a matter of processing information or following cognitive rules but is to be observed in action in discussions, in the rhetorical “cut-and-thrust” of argumentation. “It is no linguistic accident”, he says, “that to propose a reasoned justification is rightly called “offering an argument”. “But”, he continues, “the context of opinion giving is a context of argumentation”. And furthermore: “Opinions are offered where there are counter-opinions. The argument “for” a position is always also an argument “against” a counter-position. Thus, the meaning of an “opinion” is dependent upon the opinions which it is countering” (Billig 1991:17, see also Billig 1987).

When we argue for a certain position, we are at the same time justifying our negative attitudes. For example, an utterance like “I am not prejudiced but...” represents an advance justification (or prolepsis) against the criticism of being prejudiced. Using this formula, the speaker attempts to deflect possible criticism, and lays claim to being a member of the moral community of the unprejudiced (see also Billig 1987 for further discussion). Van Dijk 1984 gives an example from a political campaign in Holland where one right-wing politician claimed himself to be very liberal in his attitudes towards foreigners. “I have nothing against foreigners”, he said, “but their attitude, their aggression is scaring” (Van Dijk 1984:65). Van Dijk calls this particular form of denying prejudice “the new racism”. Because of the duality in the utterance “I’m not ..., but...” the speaker justifies his position by explicitly denying prejudice though blaming others for being prejudiced. This distancing from one’s position functions as a rhetorical trick but note that it does not change one’s actual attitude. Van Dijk points out that prejudices are complex concepts, because when people want to express possibly negative experiences or evaluations, they also try to stick to social norms which force them to make a good impression, e.g. they do not want to appear as extremists or racists (see also Van Dijk 1987).

Consider the following repeated example from a post-interview conversation about an unsuccessful Asian applicant:
In this excerpt an Asian background is equivalent to obsequiousness, extreme service-mindedness, and lack of independent thinking while Danish working culture is by consequence contrasted as a non-hierarchical structure, praising independent thinking and a casual atmosphere. In line with the example in the previous section, the manager is concerned that the “different culture” will affect the integration of the new employees negatively. Paradoxically, this is in sharp contrast to the goal of the IO positions which are particularly designed to help inexperienced immigrants to Danish workplaces. But according to the above statement, the “inexperienced” immigrants, i.e. the ones who really need to learn about Danish practices, will never be able to take advantage of the IO project because they are “too different” to qualify. I shall return to that.

None of the applicants described as “culturally divergent” were employed. In the manager’s argumentation, we also find the prolepsis Van Dijk (1984) described: I myself think they are wonderful people and I love travelling in those countries but I am concerned. This formulation functions as a step-back and a justification of the manager’s actual attitude which is uttered in the end, namely that the applicant is so different culturally that this difference (in this case: the obsequiousness) will affect her
job negatively. Put straight, the Asian background the manager refers to, prevents the applicant from being seriously considered for the job.

We can also look at the statement in another way: the argument between the lines suggests that “Danish workplaces are far too dangerous for applicants like you”. It is used as if the manager wants to “spare” the Asian applicant’s efforts. It seems like she is doing the applicant a kind of favour by not letting her work there; a peculiar favour which becomes a huge disservice and an absurdity in the light of the job interview, the purpose of which is to take on suitable applicants and not to tell them to go other places, because they are “too kind-hearted” to be employed. Such logic is clearly unhelpful in the job interview situation unless it is a fine excuse to get rid of the “different” applicants. As previously stated, the design of the IO interview and the deliberate focus on cultural differences seem to encourage ideological judgments. Assessments are made constantly, but as we shall see in the chapter *Two Case Studies* they are rooted in cultural stereotypes.

The next section sheds light on the ideological aspects of assessments. It presents some basic concepts of assessment theory and relates it to the assessment practices in the IO job interview.

6.5. Assessments
Throughout centuries assessments have had life-changing and even life-ending consequences. As in the case with the Biblical shibboleth, the proper use of the phoneme [ʃ] was used to “detect” who belonged to the group of Ephraimites as opposed to the Gileadiets; failing to pass the shibboleth test was followed by immediate slaughter (McNamara and Roever 2006:151; original in Judges 12, 4-6).

Although the consequences today are less severe, there may nevertheless well be high-stake situations for assessed groups and individuals. Assessments might hit socially marginalized people badly, for example in cases in which granting asylum or citizenship are at stake. In a study of interviews for Danish citizenship, Fogtmann 2007 found no correlation between the applicants’ levels of grammatical performance and assessments made by the police officials. However, she found that the interactional moves and manners of police officials, e.g. the way they handle understandings and misunderstandings, correlated systematically with the assessments (Fogtmann 2007:6).
This is parallel to my findings in the chapter *Linguistic Fluency*. As I argued, understanding was tied to the panel’s behavior (less or more supportive) and to the applicants’ ability to ask for and negotiate interactional support.

Assessing linguistic performance together with other skills in a job interview is problematic for a number of reasons. For example, we do not know how the panels decide on what is “good enough” Danish (i.e. “not too good, not too bad” see section 2.3.4. on IO-criteria). Is listening to the applicant’s talk sufficient to determine whether he or she is suitable? How does this relate to the job skills? And how is it validated? These are some of the questions I will focus on in the next section.

### 6.5.1. Assessment theory in social contexts

McNamara’s studies (McNamara and Rover 2006, McNamara and Ryan 2011) on language testing and language assessments in migration and citizenship contexts are particularly interesting for this dissertation as they shed light on the social and ideological dimensions of assessments. According to McNamara and Rover 2006 assessments are administratively used processes aimed at assisting officials in making decisions about individuals. Assessments are based on interpretations of evidence gained from performance tasks through which authorities can reach conclusions about individuals’ skills and knowledge. Usually, the assessment process starts with gathering different forms of evidence. Assessments naturally develop into actions (e.g. the job applicants are either given the job or rejected). McNamara points out that in order to decide on an action, the authority has to agree on whether the conclusions they reach are reasonable and the actions appropriate, i.e. they would need to validate their assessments and actions (see e.g. Messick 1989, Cronbach 1988 and McNamara and Ryan 2011). Validity - put simply - aims at ensuring that a person’s chances of success on a test are not influenced by “outside” factors, or by an inadequate operationalization of the construct in the test. To validate the outcome of a job interview, for example, the panels would need to use different forms of evidence from before or during the interview (e.g. CV, application texts, interactional evidence, discussion with colleagues, etc.). In my data, for example, the post-conversational talks were one of the sources of validation, because through these talks the panels had an opportunity to argue for choices and justify decisions about successful and unsuccessful applicants. Whether their arguments were
based on actual evidence is a different question which I address in the chapter *Two Case Studies*.

McNamara and Ryan 2011:163 propose an insightful distinction between *fairness*, as the technical quality of the tests, that ensures procedural equality for test-takers in terms of construct and content, and *justice*, as the implicit values in test constructs and the social uses to which language tests may be put (See also Spolsky 1981 on ethics in language testing). So justice, according to McNamara and Ryan questions the use of the test in the first place in terms of its effects and consequences, and in the second place in terms of the social values it embodies. The tension between justice and fairness is described as follows:

> The ideal test has the quality of fairness, and the use to which it is to be put is just. This is of course an ideal; tests will be relatively fair—as fair as psychometric science and procedural care can make them—and the justice of the use of the test will be always open to dispute, as new perspectives on the use of tests develop and as social values change.

(McNamara and Ryan 2011:167)

All assessments exist in social contexts and values underline the evaluation processes. The fact that social values expressed in tests may often be implicit, i.e. they are not explicitly acknowledged or debated is problematic (McNamara and Ryan 2011:162). One obvious problem is hidden agendas. At the IO interview, a hidden agenda was that ideal applicants are those “neither too good nor too bad at Danish” and, “it is not unimportant what ethnic background the applicants have”. To apply validity to this type of assessment is practically impossible (see also Shohamy 2006 on the importance of hidden agendas and Komter 1991 on “unsayables”).

**6.5.2. Discussion: Assessments and validity in the IO interviews**

The processes of justification of one’s decisions are complex because they do not only draw on evidence from the testing situation but are built on commonsense knowledge and personal values also. The conclusions the authorities reach about individuals may be based on everyday thinking. Mesick 1989 argues that validity has an important social dimension. But that is also what is problematic about it. The social dimension inevitably opens for values and attitudes that cannot be measured or validated. Of course Mesick’s and McNamara’s studies are not designed to address interviews with hidden agendas, so it would be unfair to level criticism against the theory of validity. I was able to discuss
relevant points of assessment theory with Professor McNamara himself during one of his visits in Copenhagen (November 2012). We had an interesting talk aimed at clarifying whether the interactional evidence in job interviews is sufficient to make a professional assessment of the interviewee or not. We agreed that the interviewers might not remember the interaction but they would probably remember a “distillate” of it on which they will base their assessments. However, I suggested that this “distillate” inescapably would be saturated with ideology, because it might be difficult to determine how much of it is based on actual evidence and how much on stereotypes. We also discussed whether non-professionals should judge language proficiency as part of the job interview. McNamara considered this an interesting question because, as he said, the people who assess (professionals or not) in the very end are the ones to cooperate with the people they take on. Yet, I do not think it solves the crucial matter in job interviews: we cannot escape the fact that judgements are based on suggestive cues. In Roberts and Campbell’s words “there is a taken for granted assumption that the interview is a proxy for the job so that how candidates relate to interviewers stands for how they will talk and relate to work colleagues and superiors. This cultural assumption is not made clear to candidates or indeed acknowledged by interviewers” (Roberts and Campbell 2006:5).

Clearly applicants in the real world can be good at interview practices but less good for the position they apply for and vice versa. Roberts (2000:115) argues that “it is the very taken for granted quality of the inferential process which allows gatekeepers to be so assertive in their judgements when paradoxically these are at least in part based on cues which are only suggestive... It is in the slippage from doing the interactional business to reporting on it that the candidate or client’s performed social identity is transformed into some more permanent identity as “good” or “poor”. Obviously, the built-in logic in which the job interview is taken as a proxy for the skills in the job undermines the possibility for validation and questions the cogency in the general procedures of the interview. In this sense, the IO interviews are neither fair nor just, because of the the lack of procedural clarity and overall assessment criteria for all applicants. I suppose the only way to gain understanding of the process of evaluation and justification is through exploring individual practices. Focusing on what the panels say and do will hopefully help us understand the different agendas and the many logics.

The rest of the chapter argues for an interactional approach to ideology and
presents three pieces of analysis. First, it looks at how the official written guide describes the target group applicants. Second, it considers the assessments of successful and unsuccessful applicants for academic and non-academic jobs in data from the post-interview conversations. Third, it analyses an excerpt of an IO job interview to illuminate stereotypes and hidden assumptions.

6.6. Ideologies and assessments: analysis

Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cains (2009) suggest that attitudes and ideology should be studied in interaction as they are both created and negotiated in interaction. They discuss three kinds of discourse-based methods for analysis of language attitudes:

1. The content-based approach designed for directly expressed language attitudes as they appear within the discourse. This approach requires a large corpus of data to make sure that what is found in the content is not random noise.

2. The turn-internal semantic and pragmatic approaches examine specific linguistic features used in individual expressions of the attitudes. Attention is paid not only what is being said, but also how it is being said by considering features like assertions, presuppositions, beliefs etc. alongside with the content (cf. Levinson 1983 on the importance of presuppositions).

3. The interactional approach draws on Goffman, Gumperz and Conversation Analysis (e.g. Sacks, Schegloff, Jefferson 1974), thus containing most features of CA-based microanalysis. It focuses on the attitudes in the turns with the assumption that when responding to each other, the interlocutors’ turns provoke attitudes and put them into practice. Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain 2009 argue that the interactional approach provides a deeper analytical layer than the other two approaches, because apart from what is being said and how it is being said, it also deals with the sequentional relation between the interlocutors, and their roles and positions in the talk. In short, it takes a stance according to which attitudes are provoked or encouraged by other interlocutors in the process of interaction. The idea of studying language attitudes in interaction suggests that attitudes are not static, i.e. they are not fixed in the minds of individuals; instead, they are constructed in interaction through negotiation with interactants, in specific circumstances and with specific interactional intentions. More specifically:

Language attitudes are context dependent in at least two ways: they emerge within the context of the interactional structure, and they are expressed under the influence of the
situational context, which includes both larger ideologies present in a culture and the immediate context of the interactants and how they are seen by others (...) language attitudes are created and transmitted through talk, but they retain power through larger cultural ideologies that are perpetuated through individual instances of talk. In this sense, attitudes are both created and shaped through interaction, and brought to each individual interaction in the form of ideology. Speakers involuntarily contribute to these ideologies by asserting or rejecting them, and their positionings may be affected by them as well” (Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain 2009:203)

Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain draw also on Davies and Harré’s positioning theory (1990) according to which the way we position ourselves in a conversation has to do with “the discursive process whereby selves are located in conversations as observably and subjectively coherent participants in jointly produced story lines” (Davies and Harré 1990:48, see also Langenhove and Harré 1994). Language attitudes and ways of positioning oneself with regard to social categories are closely connected; expressing language attitudes within an interaction is simultaneously a means of positioning oneself. As Goffman 1959 points out, the way we present ourselves (our “persona”) through the interaction order and the way we do “being us” in a situation where “being us” is evaluated, is of huge importance.

6.6.1. Ideology in written texts about IO positions
A specially issued written guide in Danish (www.personaleweb.dk/IO-stillinger, 07.12.2012) describes the IO initiative and the working procedures. On page 13 the guide gives examples of target group applicants. Example 1 is Ayshe, 30 years old, female, who grew up in Turkey and moved to Denmark at the age of 26. Ayshe used to work as an administrator in a mid-sized company in Turkey but after she immigrated, despite her competences, she could not find a job in Denmark because she had difficulties in learning Danish. Another example is Senad, aged 52, a refugee from ex-Yugoslavia who spent 15 years in Denmark with many unsuccessful attempts to be employed in Denmark. A third example is Fatima, a professional pharmacist from Egypt, aged 32, who spent 3 years in Denmark; and finally Usman, aged 19, born in Denmark but as yet with no relation to the labour market.

A closer look at the target group examples reveals a number of similarities. First, they all stem from non-EU countries: either from 3rd World Countries or from Turkey. Second, the names Ayshe, Senad, Fatima and Usman are common Muslim names, and
third, the persons in the examples originate in countries relatively well represented among the immigrant minorities in Denmark (see chapter on the IO project). Clearly, the examples in the written guide suggest that suitable candidates for the IO positions are not just any immigrants but rather immigrants from certain geographical areas.

In practice however, these guidelines were not followed. For example, the year before I conducted my recordings, one applicant from Western Europe was employed in an IO position. This episode set a precedent for not following strictly the target group recommendations. Consider the following (repeated example):

**POST-INTERVIEW CONVERSATION WITH PANEL ABOUT SELECTION OF AN IT ADMINISTRATOR**

And then I feel torn between what our boss has stated for the record – we are to pick the one with the best professional qualifications, and we should not compromise, and then on the other hand what we hear from the [name]Department. And when I see that the [name]Department itself has employed a Western European who is brilliant in Danish, and who, all things considered, might not need it [...] then I start wondering – well, does he need it? And since they choose to hire him, we may also take the Western European! But emotionally I feel much more torn apart, but when it comes to qualifications, I’m not in doubt. I think it is quite difficult!

**DANISH**

Og da føler jeg mig splittet mellem hvad vores chef har meldt ud – vi skal tage den mest faglige kvalificerede, vi skal ikke gå på kompromis, og så hvad vi får meldt ud fra [navn]forvaltningen. Og når jeg også ser at [navn]forvaltningen selv har ansat en vesteuropæer der kan glimrende dansk og som måske dybest set ikke havde brug for det [...] hvor jeg undrer mig – jamen har han brug for det? Og når de vælger at ansætte ham, så kan vi vel også ansætte vesteuropæeren! Men på den følelsesmæssige side er jeg meget mere splittet, men på den faglige side er jeg ikke i tvivl. Jeg synes det er rigtig svært!

The example reveals that the written guide is followed loosely and is not seen as the primary guideline. Instead, the employment offices look to each other’s practices. The panel representative’s dilemma points in two different directions: on the one hand she would like to follow standard practice in normal job interviews viz. hire the best qualified applicant who in this case “speaks Danish brilliantly”, on the other hand, she feels she has to follow the description from the written guide and hire someone less qualified and less good at Danish. Two different logics come into play: the logic of instant profit (i.e. taking the applicant who would be able to work immediately and with highest contribution) and the logic of charity (the less fluent and less capable applicant who needs to learn about
the challenges of the Danish labour market before he or she can work independently). Since the guide does not provide explicit criteria about who exactly is suitable for an IO position and who is not, it leaves a lot of space for interpretation. This is the so-called double-bind of the IO job interview which also becomes a tragedy for both applicants and interviewers. I shall come back to this in the chapter _Two Case Studies_.

6.6.2. Assessing linguistic and cultural fluency
This section describes and discusses data from the post-interview conversations (cf. _Method and Data_) in which the panels evaluate the applicants’ Danish and their skills in relation to the job. The data is arranged in two charts displaying first, 20 applicants for academic positions, and second, 16 applicants for non-academic positions.

The following chart presents an overview of all applicants for _academic positions_. It displays: 1) job positions; 2) applicants’ pseudonyms and areas of origin; 3) amount of years spent in Denmark; 4) all panel members’ assessments of Danish in points (if available) from 1 (lowest) to 5 (highest); 5) abbreviated version of the panel’s comments. The successful applicants are highlighted.
### 6.6.2.1. Academic positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Applicant</th>
<th>Yrs in DK</th>
<th>Danish (1 to 5)</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment Consultant</td>
<td>Tui (Asia)</td>
<td>6½</td>
<td>4, 4, 4</td>
<td>“good at speaking but not so good at understanding”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unsuccessful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“she is interpreting some phrases in a different way” “A nice girl who will look nice behind a reception desk” “She looks like someone who will run away if you say “boo!”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paola (Western Europe)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3, 4, 4+</td>
<td>“She is looking for words”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Borderline, Unsuccessful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“She understood us and we understood her” “Good at grammar and syntax”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alice (Eastern Europe)</td>
<td>½</td>
<td>2, 2, 3</td>
<td>“good Danish especially because she has only recently come to Denmark”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nadja (South America)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5, 4+, 5</td>
<td>“she is the best at Danish”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Successful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“She will be able to manage the so called “problematic clients” better than Paola. She will not be feeling too sorry for [the clients]”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACCOUNTANT AND Statistician</td>
<td>Lydia (Eastern Europe)</td>
<td>½</td>
<td>2, 2½, 2, 2, 2</td>
<td>“We had to speak very, very slowly but she was actually good at Danish; “such a drive!” “Over-qualified, very technical”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unsuccessful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“A bit stone-faced. Hard to read”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natasha (Eastern Europe)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2½, 4, 3, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>“She was a bit orthodox in her beliefs. And overly detail- oriented”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milena (Eastern Europe)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5, 5, 5, 5, 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>“She had the best qualifications and is the best at Danish. She was quick at asking questions which means that she understood us! It will be easy for her to get started because she can express herself correctly and understand correctly. And she is a real &quot;workhorse&quot;!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ianna (Eastern Europe)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3½, 3½, 4, 4, 3</td>
<td></td>
<td>“She was good but Milena’s profile was better. And it is also about chemistry as well”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yo (Asia)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1, 2, 1, 1, 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>“It won’t be possible to have her at the office, judging from the way her language was. She was very difficult to understand. When she asked something, I was in doubt whether I answered that or something quite else”. “A heavy interview” “But the Asian culture is, well, she is very reserved”. “She has only one face expression” “But in the wrong direction, ha-ha”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Region</td>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT-administrator</td>
<td>Hamid (Afghanistan)</td>
<td>Unsuccessful</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maximillian (Europe)</td>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>1½</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ibrahim (Middle East)</td>
<td>Borderline, Successful</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration Consultant</td>
<td>Zeanna (Middle East)</td>
<td>Borderline, Unsuccessful</td>
<td>1½</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Farid (Middle East)</td>
<td>Unsuccessful</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Silvana (South America), Unsuccessful</td>
<td>Unsuccessful</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yasin (Middle East)</td>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACCOUNTANT</td>
<td>Yao (Asia)</td>
<td>Unsuccessful</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tsang (Asia)</td>
<td>Unsuccessful</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carla (South America)</td>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lena (Eastern Europe)</td>
<td>Borderline, Unsuccessful</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.6.2.2. Academic positions: What counts as linguistic and cultural fluency?
The chart shows that those applicants, who were offered the job, were evaluated as better at Danish than the other applicants in the same group. Both Milena and Nadia are described as “the best at Danish” and are given each 4,80 and 4,73 points respectively (out of 5,00)\(^8\). Lack of understanding is particularly mentioned as a reason for not offering the job to two applicants (Tui and Yo). Applicants whose pronunciation significantly deviated from standard Danish were also dispreferred. Especially Asian applicants were considered simply not good enough for the job because of their accent in Danish. One panel representative told me that he was very uncomfortable in highlighting Yo’s poor Danish as a reason for rejection. He explained that all applicants were given individual feedback on different skills, including possible language problems in Danish, but in Yo’s case they decided to omit the language feedback. It’s a bit embarrassing to tell her that it’s because of the Danish, he told me in a phone interview (July 2009).

The same pattern of good Danish skills correlating with success goes for those applicants who were not assigned points by their panels (cf. footnote). Maximilian, Yasin and Carla are in the post interview sessions evaluated as better at Danish than the rest of the applicants in their respective groups.

In terms of cultural fluency, the ability to navigate in the institutional discourse and to manage an egalitarian relationship with the panel seem to be of the utmost importance. Carla, the successful applicant for the job as an economist, is specially applauded for her ability to express herself in professional Danish, i.e. to use institutional discourse. She and Lena were the only two applicants who were invited for a second round. Carla was offered the job because of “skills in cooperation” and an ability to “stand out as an individual”; Lena was not considered because she was used to working in a “completely different culture”. Milena, the successful applicant for a statistician, is “a real workhorse”; Nadia, who is offered a job as a consultant in a job centre, will “manage the problematic clients better than anyone else” and “will not feel sorry for them”. Maximillian and Yasin are good at demonstrating conventionalized knowledge and ability to reflect upon abstract

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\(^8\) Unfortunately, not all panels were asked to assign points. This idea occurred to me during the field work, so only half of the panels have been through this procedure, see Method.
models drawing on institutional discourse. I will come back to that in the discussion. Now, let us look at the same parameters for **non-academic positions**.

### 6.6.2.3. Non-academic positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Applicant</th>
<th>Yrs in DK</th>
<th>Danish (1 to 5)</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help Desk Secretary</td>
<td>Hannah (Western Europe)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2,2,2½,2</td>
<td>“She has only been here for a year, right, and she spoke like okay, okay Danish, quite alright actually” “She was the one with the worst Danish, but she spoke comprehensible Danish”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Successful)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Better at Danish but seemed too fragile” “Competent but too fragile to solve the tasks and stand against the other colleagues”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Unemployment</td>
<td>Rosalia (South America)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3, 3, 3</td>
<td>“she is good at comprehension” “I am a bit nervous whether she will be able to answer the phone” “There is definitely something to work on here” “Her accent is not so strong. Spanish accent is usually quite strong” “She has a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultant</td>
<td>(Successful)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mei (Asia)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3, 3+, 3+, 3+/-</td>
<td>“She almost didn’t get anything of what we said. I do not believe in it” “Very high level of ambition” “She managed to answer some of the questions amazingly good. Good pronunciation, impressive for an Asian” “Very high level of ambition, not as prince Henrik but as princess Mary. We would like to have the Mary-model”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Unsuccessful)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maria (Eastern Europe)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5, 5+, 5+, 5+/-</td>
<td>“There is nothing you could put a finger on” “One cannot teach her much about the language” “Maybe too good at Danish for the job”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Unsuccessful)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rahiza (Asia)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4-, 3-, 3+/-, 4-</td>
<td>“great vocabulary bearing in mind how little time she has spent in Denmark but not so long sentences. Amazing that you can learn Danish in such a short period”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Successful)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Amalia (Asia)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,4,4,4</td>
<td>“Not so strong accent” “Not so good pronunciation”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Notes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handyman, Nursing Home</td>
<td>Domingo (South America)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“He was so good at Danish, I mean English”. “It is amazing how much he can learn for so short period of time”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mohammed (Middle East)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>“He could not understand English and he could not understand everything in Danish either after so many years in Denmark”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ayub (Middle East)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>NN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handyman, Day Care</td>
<td>Said (Middle East)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“His interview led to something more… He had some more to offer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Javier (South America)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>“After 14 years in Denmark his Danish is not quite good. He wasn’t really enthusiastic about courses and education; we were surprised by the fact that he didn’t want to be integrated”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitchen help, Care Centre</td>
<td>Stella (Africa)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“Vivid, committed, but maybe a little bit old for the job” (37)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Amazing that she has learnt Danish so quickly! ”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ruben (South America)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“Vivid, committed, open – will be good for the children in spite of his not perfect Danish”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Amazing that he has learnt Danish so quickly”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Good Danish”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ahmed (Middle East)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“Quite fluent but hadn’t the same “drive”, commitment, he could have got job other places as well”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tsang (Asia)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>“Too intellectual, maybe not interested in working with children” “She has lived in DK 7 years and her Danish is not so impressive”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.6.2.4. Non-academic positions: What counts as linguistic and cultural fluency

In contrast to the results in the previous section, applicants offered a manual job are not the best at Danish. For example, Hannah and Rosalia were assigned lower points than the other applicants in their respective groups. The same is valid for Ruben nor Domingo, whose Danish is referred to as “not perfect”. However, there is a remarkable consistency.
between how long the applicants have lived in Denmark and whether they are offered the job. In all five cases, the successful applicants have just recently arrived to Denmark (1 or 2 years prior to the interview). Rahiza, Hannah, Domingo and Ruben’s quick progress in Danish is appreciated by the panels, so the fact that they have learned so much Danish in such a short period of time is taken as a proxy for quick and efficient development of other skills. As one manager puts it: With that Danish she has learned within one year, after one more year... she will be able to learn as quick as lightning. (cf. Roberts et al 2007 who showed that persons who spent less than 5 years in Britain generally made more progress than those who had lived there longer). Paradoxically, learning Danish quickly is valued higher than actual work experience. Consider the example below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POST-INTERVIEW CONVERSATION ABOUT JAVIER, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAR: have you experienced that he could speak “better” in a more relaxed atmosphere</td>
<td>MAR: har du oplevet ham som en der taler “bedre” hvis han er i afslappede forhold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP: there is no big difference</td>
<td>EMP: der er ikke meget forskel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAN: no he does not speak better but he actually manages the job although he speaks so badly but nobody knew he has been living here [in Denmark] for 14 years cos this is really not very good Danish</td>
<td>MAN: nej han taler ikke bedre men han faktisk klarer arbejdet godt nok på trods af at han taler så dårligt som han gør men der var ikke nogen der vidste at han havde været her i 14 år fordi det er godt nok ikke særlig godt dansk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP: no no</td>
<td>EMP: nej nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAN: and we are actually thinking that on top of it he is even married to a Dane (.). then it is really bad Danish right</td>
<td>LED: vi er også oven i købet i tvivl om han ikke er danskgift (.). så er det rigtig dårlig dansk at tale ikke</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Javier has been invited to an IO interview for the job as a handyman because he has already been working part-time at the same place and in the same position. The manager knows that he actually manages the job and wants to give him a chance for a permanent position. But when she finds that Javier has been living in Denmark for 14 years and that he is even married to a Dane, his adequate professional skills are overridden by his really bad Danish. He is not given the job; the job is actually taken from him. The mismatch of expectations and the hidden demands of the interview thus
result in a penalty for Javier (Roberts and Campbell 2006). He is penalized for not being able to learn Danish and not being able to tackle the job interview – not for any shortcomings in actual work experience. For example, his interview is rich in misunderstandings due to the manager’s overly complicated use of institutional discourse. When the manager asks Javier about what he would do to develop [his] competences or how he would function together with colleagues, Javier provides very short and confused answers which later are assessed as really bad Danish. The penalty is exclusively ideologically based because it has nothing to do with work experience but everything to do with the panel’s ideological expectations. He actually manages the job is supposed to be what counts in order to hire Javier. However, language ideology here leads to discrimination. Had Javier not been invited to the interview, he might still have had a job. His job was given to the applicant Said, because his interview led to something more (my emphasis).

The case of Domingo (see Linguistic Fluency) is exactly the opposite: the panel does not know him at all. They have never seen him work, but his understanding of Danish and his huge progress during his first year of stay in Denmark are converted to skills which the panel believes are good in the job.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POST-INTERVIEW CONVERSATION ABOUT DOMINGO, HANDYMAN. SUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAR: yes the first one [Domingo] has only been here one year</td>
<td>MAR: ja den første har kun været her i et år</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAN: yes it was astounding how much he was able to understand</td>
<td>MAN: ja, og det var også forbløffende hvor meget han kunne forstå</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP: yes it was totally crazy</td>
<td>EMP: ja det var helt vildt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paradoxically, small amounts of one aspect of performance have large consequences for the applicants as they do “proxy” work for general assessments (Roberts 2000). If the applicants’ Danish language acquisition has been brief but efficient, panels will apparently judge such candidates as successful and efficient at the workplace. I shall come back to that in the discussion.
6.6.2.5. Conclusion: assessments of linguistic and cultural fluency

This section studied the applicants’ skills (job related as well as linguistic), as assessed by the different panels. It showed that those offered the job when the job was an academic position had the highest level of proficiency in Danish according to the panels, while, on the other hand, those offered a job in the non-academic positions were far from being the best at producing standard Danish. The consistency in the latter case lies in the positive attitude towards newcomers, as opposed to immigrants who have lived in Denmark for a longer period. It is linked to the belief that if applicants, recently arrived in Denmark, have made an effort to speak Danish – even a couple of words only – they are more desirable than applicants who have spent many years in Denmark without linguistic improvement. Quick Danish language acquisition is equivalent to good working capacity, intelligence, ambition, but also a desire for quick integration and appreciation of Danish cultural values. In contrast - if the acquisition of Danish has not been quick and efficient, it feeds into assumptions of lack of responsibility, indifference, poor ability to fit in and disapproval of Danish (cultural) values. Javier is a striking example of how the requirements of the job interview penalize applicants who might be good workers but are less capable of navigating in institutional practices. Clearly, the different agendas of the IO project are difficult to accommodate which results in discrimination of applicants who are slow learners and less good at interview practices.

6.6.3. Assessing stereotypes: “Danes and [Asians] we have very different culture”

This section looks deeper into the way panels and applicants stereotype each other. It reveals one central and common stereotype about workplace culture differences in Denmark, namely that Denmark is known for its flat and non-hierarchical structure while in other countries there are strictly ordered social hierarchies governing interaction between employees and management. This stereotype occurs in interviews for both academic and non-academic positions and is frequently mentioned by both applicants and panels.

The example below is an excerpt of an interview with the Asian female applicant Tui (the country of origin is anonymised). Tui is 34 years old and holds a BA in Education. She has spent three years in Denmark. At the time of the interview, she works as a trainee at a
nursing home for elderly people. Tui applies for a help-desk secretary position at a job centre in Copenhagen but does not get the job.

The participants in the excerpt are, apart from Tui, two managers (MAN and MA2) and two employees (EMP and EM2). The example begins with discussing IO working procedures. MA2 asks Tui how she would feel in a situation in which she might need to ask for help, e.g. due to unclarities in work procedures. Would you be able to ask us again if you do not understand, the manager wants to know, to which Tui responds: Yes, I can do that, I work with elderly people now, so... Then, after a pause of 3 seconds, Tui suddenly exclaims (line 01):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TUI, ASSISTANT CONSULTANT, UNSUCCESSFUL</th>
<th>DANISH FROM 10:51</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAN: MANAGER, FEMALE</td>
<td>01. TUI: ja (.) hh men jeg jeg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA2: MANAGER, FEMALE</td>
<td>02. jeg tænk fordi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALL: SB. FROM THE PANEL, UNIDENTIFIABLE</td>
<td>03. (smakser) hh danskere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01. TUI: yeah (3.0) hh but I I</td>
<td>04. (.) og [asiatere]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. I think because</td>
<td>05. vi har meget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. (smacking) hh</td>
<td>06. forskellig kultur (.)også-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. Danes(.)and [Asians] we</td>
<td>07. MA2: [ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. have very different</td>
<td>08. TUI: [arbejdsplads de er</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. culture(.):al[so=</td>
<td>09. meget forskellig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. MA2: [yeah</td>
<td>10. MA2: [mm ja</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. TUI: [workplace it is very</td>
<td>11. MAN: [mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. different</td>
<td>12. TUI: [hh jeg tænker-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. MA2: [mm yeah</td>
<td>13. MAN: [mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. MAN: [mm</td>
<td>14. TUI: også jeg skal lære det (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. TUI: hh I th{ink also I</td>
<td>15. MA2: mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. MAN: mm</td>
<td>16. TUI: ja (.) hvordan(.)ja jeg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. have [to learn that</td>
<td>17. skal ja (.) for for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. MAN: [mm</td>
<td>18. eksempel jeg hh nogle (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. TUI: (.) yeah how yeah I</td>
<td>19. af mine hvordan siger venner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. have to yeah (.) for</td>
<td>20. fortæller mig hh også i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. for example I hh some (.) of</td>
<td>21. danske arbejdsplads (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. my what’s it called friends</td>
<td>22. når jeg er første (.) ny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. are telling me hh also at</td>
<td>23. arbejds- (.) måske jeg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Danish workplaces (.) when I</td>
<td>24. skal lave kaffe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. am the first (.) new</td>
<td>25. (.) hver morgen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. worker- (.) maybe I</td>
<td>26. de siger (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. have to make coffee</td>
<td>27. ALL: ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. (.) every morning</td>
<td>28. MAN: nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. they say (.)</td>
<td>29. MA2: nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. ALL: ha ha</td>
<td>30. ALL: ha ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. MAN: no</td>
<td>31. TUI: nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. MA2: [no</td>
<td>32. MAN: nej nej nej nej</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. ALL: [ha ha</td>
<td>33. ME1: ha ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. TUI: [no</td>
<td>34. TUI: ha ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. MAN: no no no no</td>
<td>35. ME2: ha ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. EMP: [ha ha</td>
<td>36. MA2: ha ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. TUI: [ha ha</td>
<td>37. TUI: ha ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. EMP: [ha ha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. MA2: [ha ha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. TUI: [ha ha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
38. MA2: [ha ha]
39. MAN: we DO have-
40. ALL: [ha ha]
41. MAN: [-a coffee machine]
42. TUI: [ha oh]
43. ALL: yeah
44. MAN: and everybody can go out
45. and [take
46. TUI: [they say it is culture ha
47. MA2: is it like this at the
48. nursing home
49. TUI: [hh
50. MAN: is (...)
51. ALL: hh no
52. MA2: are there any things where
53. things at the nursing home
54. where you think hh is it
55. really different in
56. comparison to where you
57. used to work in [Asia]() hh(...)
58. TUI: [søh]
59. MA2: [because you are at a
60. Danish workplace [now
61. TUI: [yeah yeah yeah
62. yeah (...) they different
63. unlike (...) not same
64. MA2: mm(...) yeah
65. MA2: are there [any examples on=
66. ALL: [mm
67. MA2: =how is it different to
68. (...) to be at such a work
69. place (...)
70. TUI: hh (...) [smacking] how you say
71. in [Asia] you are like the
boss
72. (...) and I am (...)
73. if I am to be employed=
74. MA2: [mm
75. MAN: [mm
76. TUI: =we are not [the same (...)
77. ALL: [okay mm
78. MA2: [okay
79. TUI: yeah may[be
80. MAN: [yes
81. (...)
82. TUI: maybe you are at (...)
83. high-
84. ALL: higher yes [mm
85. TUI: [yes (we low (...)
86. MAN: okay
87. TUI: yeah (...)[so
88. ALL: [mm
89. TUI: I= I can unde- feel here
90. mm (...)
91. ALL: [sb clears her throat]
92. TUI: my boss now they [talk
93. with me also (...)
94. MAN: [mm
95. MA2: [yeah hh
96. TUI: yeah
97. MAN: [mm
98. TUI: but in [Asia] no
99. (...)
100. TUI: ja (...) når jeg snakker med
MA2: okay
TUI: yeah (...) when I speak to my boss in [Asia] I am very hh
((shows she is afraid))
MAN: ha
MA2: [yeah ha
TUI: yeah (...)like (...)
ALL: [no
TUI: yes (...)
MAN: "it happens that we also talk to our employees here"
ALL: yes indeed
TUI: yeah (...)like (...)
ALL: [no
TUI: yes (...)
MAN: °
it happens that we also talk to our employees here
°
ALL: yes indeed
TUI: ha
MA2: [yeah ha
TUI: yeah...
ALL: we(...) we
TUI: [mm
MAN: do talk (...) quite a lot
ALL: hh
MAN: in comparison to
ALL: ha
MA2: [mm
TUI: yeah it is [very
MAN: ja
TUI: different(...)hh
MA2: [yes
MAN: [mm (...)
TUI: [yes
(2.5)
MAN: [hh
ALL: but here I don’t think we can say that there’s a difference between new employees and old employees and old employees no in this relation
ALL: no (...)
MAN: then you are equally worth (...)
TUI: equ-° also e-equal°
MAN: yeah then you are equal
ALL: yeah mm (...) hh
MAN: new employees and old employees are equal (...)
TUI: they are equal° (...)
MAN: there is no such thing like making coffee in the morning only because you are [new or=
TUI: [mm hh ha
MA2: =not
MAN: or that you have to=
TUI: [no oh hh
MAN: =sharpen all the pen[cils or
TUI: =whatever=
ALL: [ha
MAN: =else it could [be
TUI: [oh
MAN: no
ALL: ha hh

min leder i [Asien] jeg er meget hh
((viser at hun er bange))
MAN: ha
MA2: ja
TUI: ja (...)[ligesom] (...)
ALL: nej
TUI: ja (...)
MAN: "det hænder også at vi taler med vores medarbejdere her"
ALL: ja da
TUI: ha
MA2: ja
TUI: ha
ALL: ha
MAN: ja>
TUI: ja
ALL: det gør vi
MAN: det (...) det
TUI: mm
MAN: det gør vi nok (...) ret meget
ALL: hh
MAN: forhold til
ALL: ha
MA2: mm
TUI: ja det er meget
MAN: ja
TUI: anderledes (...)hh
MA2: ja
MAN: mm (...) 
TUI: ja
(2.5)
MAN: men her synes jeg faktisk ikke at vi kan sige at der sådan på den måde er forskel mellem nye medarbejdere og gamle medarbejdere nej i forhold til
ALL: no (...) 
MAN: der er man ligeværdig (...) 
TUI: lige også li- lige 
MAN: ja der er man lige
ALL: ja mm (...) hh
MAN: nye medarbejdere og gamle medarbejdere er lige (...) 
TUI: de er lige! (...) 
MAN: der er ikke noget med at man skal lave kaffé om morgenen fordi man er ny eller-
TUI: [ha ha hh 
MA2: =ej
MAN: eller man skal
TUI: nej åh hh
MAN: spidse alle blyanterne eller
TUI: hvad det
MAN: åh
TUI: åh
MAN:ellers kunne være
TUI: åh
MAN: nej
ALL: ha hh
Even a quick look at this example reveals a huge number of cultural evaluations and flourishing stereotypes in both Tui’s and the panel’s utterances. Tui introduces the categories Danish employers and Danish bosses as opposed to [Asian] employers and [Asian] bosses. Such oppositions are frequent in IO job interviews and often have negative implications because they function as markers of marginalization of the job applicants. Applicants are expected to be representative of a “culture” (á la as an Asian, you must be like “that”). Now, let us take a deeper look at the transcribed excerpt to see what happens in detail. Tui’s sudden exclamation about cultural differences seems to serve a purpose. In line 14 she seeks information about specific practices for new employees at that particular workplace. She is uncertain of what might be required from her and wants “to learn that”:

| TUI | somebody told me I make coffee ha if I am new oh | 162. TUI | nogen fortælle mig jeg skal lave kaffe ha hvis jeg ny åh |
| MAN | well okay | 164. MAN | ná okay |
| MA2 | [mm (.)] | 165. MA2 | mm (.)|
| TUI | yeah (.) | 166. TUI | ja (.) |
| ALL | [mm well (.)] | 167. ALL | mm nja (.) |
| MA2 | it is not like this here | 168. MA2 | sådan er det ikke her |
| MAN | no | 169. MAN | no |
| TUI | yeah {{coughing}} | 170. TUI | ja [hoster] |
| MAN | no hh | 171. MAN | nej hh |
| EM2 | we’re not doing that no (.) | 172. EM2 | sådan gør vi ikke nej (.) |
| TUI | [yeah (.)] | 173. TUI | ja (.) |
| ALL | mm (.) | 174. ALL | mm (.) |
| MAN | yeah (.) | 175. MAN | ja |

In line 17-18 she asks “how” and gives an example: a friend of hers has told her that new employees are supposed to make coffee to old employees, “it’s culture”, she says. The coffee-making example brings out everybody’s hearty laughter. The manager’s ironic response (we DO have a coffee machine), however, does not answer Tui’s question about what exactly she is supposed to do as a new employee. Instead, MA2 asks her whether she has experienced different routines at her former workplace compared to Asia. Tui takes the chance to talk about differences and readily explains about the hierarchy in Asia: you are high…. we low (lines 99-104). Tui has experienced that this
is different in Denmark where she is not afraid to talk to her boss: I-I can und- feel here ... my boss now they talk with me also... but in [Asia] no. When I speak to my boss in [Asia] I’m very [she makes a gesture showing fear]. MAN’s reply to this is: “it happens that we also talk to our employees here”, a perhaps sarcastic remark that seems to be leveled not so much at Tui but at the other panel representatives. Although everybody, including Tui, laughs, it is difficult to be certain of whether Tui really understands the joke. The fact that MAN later reformulates the sarcasm and replaces the idiomatic it happens that we also talk with the less controversial we do talk (...) quite a lot as to be sure that Tui has understood the meaning of it, indicates that MAN wants to be sure that Tui has understood the remark as the joke it was intended to be. Tui, however, does not respond in a way that proves she has understood it. After a pause of 2.5 seconds MAN initiates a new topic explaining that at this workplace there is no difference between new and old employees (lines 146-157). She points out that they are all equal, so there is no such thing as making coffee in the morning. But Tui acts as if she is still uncertain (mhh ha oh). In line 184 she repeats in a smiling voice that somebody has told her that she was supposed to make coffee. I am not sure how to interpret the smiling voice and I wish I could have had a video recording at that point. It may indicate distance from her friend’s statement (á-la “my stupid friend told me that”) but the fact that she brings the coffee-making example up once again is not unimportant and might indicate that she still requires an answer to her question in line 18: If she is not supposed to make coffee in the morning, then how are things at that particular workplace? An answer to this question never comes, and the only thing said is: it is not like this here.

This is a striking paradox. Tui wants to learn about Danish culture which is consistent with the idea of the IO jobs. She explicitly asks for guidelines in a new situation but the panel never provides adequate information about concrete workplace practices. Apparently, it is not part of the job interview to introduce employees to local practices, and when Tui asks for guidelines on cultural differences she gets marginalized. Hence the inherent paradox: once applicants are marginalized, they are not offered an IO position. Yet another paradox is that interactionally Tui has many features of the successful candidate: she understands the panel (except for the joke) and the panel seems to understand her; she gets 4 out of 5 points on Danish language competences; she is
reflective, evaluative and quick. However, the panel’s sees her as “a nice girl who can stand behind a reception desk. She looks like someone who will run away if you say “Boo” (Danish: “Hun er en pæn pige som vil stå i en reception. Hun ligner en der vil løbe væk, når man siger ‘bøh!’”). I am not sure what this is based on and once again I wish I could consult a video version. I noted that in the beginning of the interview Tui was very nervous, especially when the manager described the job. Tui was told that she was supposed to answer phone calls and take care of the daily contact with clients. This was not mentioned in the job description and seemed to make Tui uncomfortable, which might explain the fragility the manager refers to. On the other hand, Tui is independent and self-assured enough to bring the same topic twice which at least have to be counted as not being someone who will run away if you say “Boo”.

6.6.4. Some reflections on egalitarian discourses

Now, let us go back to one important place in the excerpt and look at the remark “it happens that we also talk to our employees here” (line 109). As mentioned above, several things indicate that the remark was not addressed to Tui. First, the manager’s lower voice and intonation marks a shift in both footing and frame, as if she wants to direct the comment at another audience from the applicant. Second, the expression is idiomatic. It is said in a way that literally means “we talk very little” but idiomatically means exactly the opposite: “we talk very much”. And third, the manager later reformulates and simplifies the expression so as to remove the ambiguousness and make sure that Tui has understood it: we do talk (.) quite a lot, line 12. If we think of this particular episode as a scenario which was created not for Tui but for the audience of the panel, it displays an attitude such as “we take for granted that we treat each other as equals”. However, taking the Danish value of equality for granted, automatically celebrates a discourse of egalitarianism and downgrades other non-egalitarian discourses. Thus, the scenario is created not for Tui, but at her expense.

Danishness is constructed as a positive, unmarked category while the “others” are seen as the non-standard and wrong (Yilmaz 2003, Andreassen 2007). Yilmaz 2003 provides an interesting analysis of egalitarianism in Denmark which to him is an obstacle for ethnic equality called “The irony of Danishness”. He argues that “what are represented as
inherent Danish virtues – highly praised internationally – constitute the cognitive (re)sources that shape the dirty work of ethnic discrimination. The libertarian, egalitarian, communitarian and anti-authoritarian discourses (...) function as (re)sources for ethnic discrimination in today’s Denmark” (Yilmaz 2003:13). Through celebrating the Danish egalitarian discourse in Tui’s job interview, the panel celebrates a culture that does not provide for others, but rather expects people to act on their own (because everyone is equal). To Tui such performance is an obstacle; she would really be able to learn a lot from a project like IO, but becomes a victim of the discourse of equality. Both she and the panel contribute to other her so profoundly that she is seen as a victim of her own culture.

As previous analysis showed, culture is seen as unchangeable (what Wetherell and Potter 1992 described as “heritage”, see section 5.1.4.). This automatically ascribes to some culture(s) certain positive values, while others just as automatically are attributed certain negative values. If job applicants label themselves or are labelled as belonging to a certain category (e.g. “Asian people”), they are excluded from other categories (e.g. Danes). “Asian” will be the negatively marked antipode of “Danish”. As a consequence, evaluations made by the representatives of the “right” culture will define and justify the actions of those trying to access the “right” culture (Tranekjær 2009).

Culture is an overriding concern in the assessments. If the applicants’ language is “good enough” to be accepted, culture becomes the eye of the needle. The panels’ view on culture and cultural fluency is seen from an ethnocentric position. Culture is regarded as a brought along monolith (something that the applicants have) rather than brought about (something that the panels and applicants do together, see also discussion in the chapter Two Case Studies).

6.7. Language ideologies and assessments: conclusion
This chapter started out with theoretical issues of linguistic ideology (including stereotypes prejudice and commonsense values) and theory of assessments in social contexts (McNamara et al 2006 and 2011). It problematized the validity of assessments in job interviews in general and the IO interviews in particular, arguing that due to the particular interview design, assessments would more easily feed into stereotypes.
The analytical part focused on three pieces of data. First, it demonstrated how the target group recommendations in the official IO guide were not followed in practice. Although the IO project encourages integration, selecting applicants considered too far away from Danish linguistic and cultural standards, challenges the panel. The second analysis presented an overview of the panels’ assessments of applicants for academic and non-academic positions as recorded in the post-interview conversations. The assessments of applicants for academic positions showed a clear relation between language skills and success, i.e. those who were most proficient in Danish were offered the job. In contrast, the assessments for non-academic positions followed a totally different pattern: the applicants offered a job were not the best at Danish but those who demonstrated fast and efficient progress in Danish. Rapid linguistic success was used as a proxy for how the applicant would handle the job demands. Cultural fluency thus plays an enormous role: if the applicants acted culturally fluent (e.g. tackled the interview game easily and efficiently without causing uncomfortable moments and misunderstandings) they were offered the job despite limited Danish. The IO guidelines were perhaps followed more to the better when the panels considered applicants for manual jobs (at least on the linguistic side) because applicants with noticeably non-standard Danish were actually given a chance. However, in terms of cultural integration, those who were offered a position were often applicants who already were integrated in Denmark and managed egalitarian relationships.

The last piece of analysis concerned an example which explicitly presented how Danish workplaces were contrasted with “foreign” workplaces (in that particular case an Asian workplace). It revealed a number of stereotypes and an ethnocentric view of Danish culture which contributed to marginalization of those unfamiliar with egalitarian discourses. In this particular example, the applicant worked with the panel to establish the contrast and thus in fact othered herself irreparably.

The diffuse assessment criteria and the particular project design feed into a mentality that reinforces marginalization. As it often happens in opportunistic projects, however much the IO panels try to make the IO interview different (e.g. by giving the applicants special consideration) it ultimately comes back down to common sense normative ways of judging people. It seems that there are “good” and “bad” foreigners. The good foreigners are those closer to the majority’s cultural norms; and hence the paradox: the
IO applicants are expected to be already integrated to Danish cultural norms in order to qualify for an official integration and training programme. Ironically, successful applicants are those who are culturally "appropriate" or have learned Danish very fast (for manual jobs) or very well (for academic jobs). They are "the good foreigners" whose efforts would provide better guarantees of the institutional requirements for instant profit.

The line of thinking of the panels, as part of the postmodern "interview society" mentality (Atkinson and Silverman 1997) blurs the actual focus of the interview practice: instead of simplifying the selection process to find out who is good for a given job, it immensely challenges those applicants who are not used to interview practices. Thus, it seems easier to be a foreign worker doing a certain job than a foreign applicant doing the IO job interview.
Chapter 7  Two case studies

This is an analytical chapter aiming at exemplifying and discussing the fine-grained interplay between the three main themes in this dissertation: language, culture and ideology. It presents a sequential analysis of two job interviews for the position help-desk secretary with the applicants Arabella and Hannah. In an ideal world I would have presented a detailed sequential analysis of all successful and unsuccessful applicants, but for obvious reasons I restrict myself to the two interviews. The two interviews are selected for comparison because they share a number of similarities in structure and length. From ethnographic point of view and in terms of ecological validity (Cicourel 1996) the data in this analysis is comprehensive as it comprises all elements, i.e. interview recordings, a long and detailed post-interview conversation, and follow-up talks with both applicants immediately after the job interviews and three years after. Moreover, the panel provides a very clear account about whom they would offer the job with a reference to the applicants’ background rather than in relation to job related skills. They also stress on the importance on Danish skills for that particular job and yet, they choose the applicant whose level of Danish (according to them) is notably lower than the other applicants in the group. All these elements make the two interviews interesting for illuminating the interplay of language, culture and ideology.

The chapter is divided into three parts: First, it introduces the applicants and the members of the panel, and discusses the structure of the two interviews. Second, it presents a comparative sequential analysis of 6 larger excerpts to show how the two applicants tackle similar questions. Third, it discusses the post-interview conversation with the panel by relating the interviewers’ assessments to the findings from the sequential analysis. Finally, it evaluates the IO project by focusing on the outcome of the interplay between language, culture and ideology.

7.1. Applicants, panel and structure

7.1.1. Applicants

The successful applicant Hannah (see also sections 4.4.4 and 6.3) is a 38 year old Western European woman. By the time of the interview she had spent less than a year in
Denmark. She had met a Danish boyfriend and moved to Denmark. She is educated as an assistant pharmacist but had mostly worked as a secretary. In my field notes (August 2009) I have written down that she is sporty, might pass for a Scandinavian, light complexion, blond hair and blue eyes; chuckles a bit nervously; narrows her eyes and opens her mouth when she listens intensively; seems to have problems understanding Danish.

The unsuccessful applicant Arabella (whom we already met in section 6.3.) is 41 years old, African born woman who has spent the last nine years of her life in Denmark. She is married to an ethnic Dane and has two children. She is educated as a receptionist from a business college in Denmark and has worked both as a receptionist at a hotel in Copenhagen and as a travel agency consultant. My field notes (August 2009) say: African of appearance; straightened short black hair; regular, fine features; smiling and relaxed; stylish feminine clothes; very good at reflecting on questions.

Arabella was the first one out of three applicants to be interviewed. Hannah was the third and last applicant. The second applicant, an Asian woman, did not give permission for recording. Immediately after Hannah’s interview, the panel offered her the job.

7.1.2. Panel
Six people participated in both job interviews: the applicant (Hannah or Arabella, abbreviated as HAN or ARA), a manager (MAN, female), an IT-employee (ROB, male), an HR employee (EMP, female), another employee (EM1, male) and me (MAR) as an observer. The pictures below exemplify how the participants in Arabella’s interview (picture 1) and Hannah’s interview (picture 2) were located around the table.

The way the participants are located around the table is almost identical for both interviews but in Arabella’s case the HR employee, the IT employee and the manager sit
very close to each other and close to Arabella. In Hannah’s interview the HR employee sits on the opposite side of Hannah so there is more space between Hannah, the manager and the IT-employee. I realized the difference relatively long time after the recordings and therefore I cannot say whether it plays a role or not. It might more clearly have given the second applicant, Hannah, the correct impression that MAN is the person in charge. As pointed out previously, it could have helped to consult a video version as multimodal analysis might have shed light on that.

### 7.1.3. Structure
Hannah’s and Arabella’s interviews are both similar in structure and contain many of the same elements and questions. Hannah’s interview lasts 19 minutes and Arabella’s lasts 16 minutes. The chart below lists the basic elements in the structure of both interviews:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabella</th>
<th>Hannah</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Introduction: about the recordings, hello from everyone and plan for the interview</td>
<td>1. Introduction: about the recordings, hello from everyone and plan for the interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Establishing understanding</td>
<td>2. Establishing understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Workplace introduction and introduction of panel representatives</td>
<td>3. Workplace introduction and introduction of panel representatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Work-related questions + answers</td>
<td>4. Information about the specifics of the IO position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Information about the specifics of the IO position</td>
<td>5. Work-related questions + answers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Outside-work related questions to Arabella</td>
<td>6. Questions about IT-skills and explanation about IT in the company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Invitation to Arabella to tell more</td>
<td>7. Questions about current job in Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Questions about working in Denmark</td>
<td>8. Questions about difficulties in learning Danish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Invitation to Arabella to ask questions</td>
<td>9. Questions about jobs in Western Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Arabella asks questions about the workplace</td>
<td>10. Questions about family relations in Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Small talk and invitation to all parties to ask questions</td>
<td>11. Outside-work related questions to applicant + answers Invitation to applicant to tell more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Questions about IT skills</td>
<td>12. Small talk and invitation to all parties to ask questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Closing and agreement on contact about decision</td>
<td>13. Hannah asks questions about the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>14. Closing and agreement on contact about decision</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The ordering of both interviews as shown in the chart is almost identical in the beginning (only elements 5 and 6 change places). Hannah’s interview seems to be clearer in structure in terms of a more logical sequence of the elements. For example, all work-related questions come right after the panel’s introductory part, while in Arabella’s interview the panel keeps asking about work-related issues until the very end of the interview (e.g. element 12 which for Hannah is element 6). Another difference is that Hannah is asked personal questions (e.g. about family relations and jobs in Western Europe) while Arabella is not.

The following analysis presents a sequential comparison of Hannah’s and Arabella’s interviews. I have chosen 6 larger bits for comparative analysis and for the sake of clarity I have arranged chunks of both interviews in adjacent columns. They are translated from Danish and the originals are to be found in rough transcription in appendix 7a and 7b.

7.2. Comparative sequential analysis

The two interviews begin with introducing my project and confirming the participation agreement. Immediately after, within the very first minutes of the interview, both Hannah’s and Arabella’s attention is called to possible problems with understanding. Look at the examples below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabella 0:55-01:15</th>
<th>Hannah 01:33-01:47</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. MAN: but this time we have to</td>
<td>1. MAN: you have erm to remember to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. agree that you will tell me</td>
<td>2. tell me if I say something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. if I say something you don’t</td>
<td>3. you don’t understand if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. understand</td>
<td>4. I use some abbreviations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ARA: yes</td>
<td>5. or some words cos I’m used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. MAN: cos it might happen that I</td>
<td>6. to sit and talk about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. say what I usually say &lt;ARA:</td>
<td>7. these</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. mmh&gt; which you don’t know</td>
<td>8. things to many &lt;HAN: yes&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. cos you don’t know my</td>
<td>9. many people so do tell me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. “usual sayings”</td>
<td>10. HAN: yes of course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. ARA: yes</td>
<td>11. MAN: so that we are absolutely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. MAN: you’ll tell me then andI’ll</td>
<td>12. sure that we understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. say something else instead</td>
<td>13. each other right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. and I’ll also &lt;ARA: I’ll&gt;</td>
<td>14. HAN: yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I’ll also tell you if I</td>
<td>15. MAN: I won’t get either angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. don’t understand what you</td>
<td>16. or offended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. say so that we’re sure that</td>
<td>17. HAN: [laughs]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. we understand each other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. &lt;ARA: yes I understand that&gt;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At first look, Arabella’s 5 seconds longer excerpt contains several more explanations than Hannah’s. The vocabulary MAN uses to establish the topic of understanding seems complex and ambiguous. For example, MAN uses a personal twist of the idiom “used to doing something” (plejer at) by saying I might say something that I’m used to which you do not know because you don’t know my “used to’s or, as it is in the translation, “my usual sayings” (Dan: du kender ikke mine plejer). This statement is probably meant in the sense of “it’s not your fault if you don’t understand me because you are not familiar with the way I speak”. However, this personal will be problematic for any potential non-native speaker of Danish for two reasons: First, it is non-standard and thus not even possible to look it up in a dictionary, and second, it is used in a chunk aimed particularly at addressing problems with understanding. Arabella seems to manage it easily and without hesitation, confirming the manager’s request (yes, line 11).

Another interesting thing is that the manager points out the issue of understanding to both Arabella (as shown above) and herself (I’ll tell you if I don’t understand, my underling) but note that she does not address the same claim to Hannah. Like the case with Arabella, MAN uses a Danish colloquial expression with Hannah too (I won’t get either angry or offended), to which Hannah responds with laughter, but MAN never suggests that Hannah might cause her problems with understanding. Also the potential for misunderstandings is framed differently with Hannah. MAN puts focus on abbreviations (which any non-belongs, Danish or not, might have difficulty with) and so mitigates the fact that the misunderstandings might occur as to limited Danish.

After the manager has introduced potential problems with understanding, she starts a longer narrative about the office as part of the municipality and presents the people sitting around the interview table. I have omitted that part in the analysis. When MAN finishes the presentation, she returns to the applicant with questions about job related skills.
7.2.2.  Questioning the applicant’s skills “What are you good at”:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabela 04:07:05:32</th>
<th>Hannah 06:57:08:27</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. MAN:  ... we thought it could be nice to know about you what what would you like to do most and what are you good at 2. ARA:  I’m good at administration 3. MAN:  yeah 4. ARA:  I w- write it might be difficult with Danish language <MAN: yes yes> but I’m good at learning 5. MAN:  mmh <ARA: mmh> 6. ARA:  and mmh I’m also good at internet how you use and what’s it called erm erm xxx word 7. MAN: yes 8. ARA:  all these xxx <MAN: xxx> the microsoft package> 9. MAN:  mmm <ARA: mmh> 10. ARA:  and mmh I’m also good at net because I need routine or what do you usually do here but erm I can do that <MAN: xxx> yes 11. MAN: mmh mmh 12. ARA:  I can learn that mmh <MAN: mmh> 13. MAN:  have you had such kind of job before 14. ARA:  no not <MAN: no> the municipality <MAN: not at s> no no <MAN: no> but I have worked in a in a travel agency 15. MAN: yes 16. ARA:  yeah like job erm what’s it called travel agent 17. MAN: mmh mmh 18. ARA:  yeah travel agency {name} that arranges erm {sports’ branch} trips outside the country 19. MAN: ↓oka-y↑ it was here in Denmark↑ 20. ARA: yes 21. MAN:  yeah okay 22. ARA: mmh 23. MAN: mmh mmh interesting <ARA: mmh> 24. ARA:  yes I’ve also worked at a hotel erm {name} hotel but not for so long 25. MAN: no 26. ARA: were it was like an internship right 27. MAN: mmh mmh 28. HAN:  yes I can 29. MAN:  since <HAN: understand that> you now apply for such a position what did you think what would you like to learn here with us 30. HAN:  erm <ROB: mmh> no of course have I been one erm one secretary for many years 31. MAN:  you have↑ ↓oka-y↑ it was here in Denmark↑ 32. HAN: yes 33. MAN:  yeah okay 34. ARA:  mmh 35. MAN:  and we are also very curious to hear about <HAN: understand that> you now apply for such a job but of course there is a bit erm *differrence* because my Danish is maybe it’s not so good [laughs] as my [anon: language] so erm I think erm since the job not new to me 36. MAN: mmh mmh 37. HAN: that of course cos my Danish isn’t so good 38. MAN: mmh mmh 39. HAN:  yeah <MAN: yeah> fifteen years 40. MAN:  all right <HAN: yes> 41. HAN:  so I know job but of course there is a bit erm cos my Danish isn’t so good <MAN: mmh> 42. HAN:  mmh <HAN: erm> 43. MAN:  mmh mmh 44. HAN:  it is new to me <MAN: mmh> 45. MAN:  mmh mmh 46. HAN:  cos erm I’m not maybe not erm so fast xxx now erm so I think I’m a good possibility to enter a erm work process 47. MAN: yes 48. HAN: yes 49. MAN: yes 50. HAN:  cos it’s one one job which I know 51. MAN: yes 52. HAN: yes 53. MAN: mmh mmh 54. HAN: mmh mmh 55. MAN: mmh mmh interesting <ARA: mmh> 56. ARA:  yes I’ve also worked at a hotel erm {name} hotel but not for so long 57. MAN:  no 58. ARA: were it was like an internship right 59. MAN: mmh mmh 60. <HAN: yes> that can call
Arabella and Hannah are both asked to provide information about competences and preferences in relation to the job. However, a closer look reveals that MAN has two different strategies with Hannah and Arabella which leads to two different answering patterns. Let us look at Arabella first. She is asked what would you like to do most and what are you good at which she answers by drawing on experience in administration and IT skills from a previous job and an internship in Denmark. She points out that she can easily catch up on what she might be lacking. When she mentions her previous job as a travel agent, the manager suddenly utters: ↓oka-y↑ it was here in Denmark↑ (line 49) with an intonation suggesting surprise of the fact that Arabella has had a job in Denmark. The manager’s next reaction is mhm mhm interesting (line 53).

In contrast, Hannah is addressed with: what would you like to do here with us which seems to focus on incorporating her as part of the workplace rather than on inquiring about particular skills. Hannah explains that she has fifteen years’ of experience in administration, so her only problem would be learning Danish. In the beginning she mentions that she is not a fast learner (I’m maybe not so fast, line 31) but in the end expresses hope that one learns fast I also think (line 53). Hannah admits difficulties with Danish and also shows uncertainty of pronunciation (e.g. *beginness* (*begyndsige*) in line 69, *diferntness* line 20 (forskelligheder instead of forskelle). At the same time, the manager states that Danish is very important (lines 64-65) at that particular workplace. So there is a tension between explicitly expressed linguistic criteria in relation to the job and
Hannah’s level of Danish. MAN’s level of engagement with Hannah is also different. For instance, MAN gives more examples of the type of phone calls which makes the conversation much more shared than with Arabella. I shall return to that.

In the next example the manager hands over the floor to the HR representative (EMP) to explain the specifics of the IO contract:

### 7.2.3. Explaining the IO positions: “But it could be difficult”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabella 05:43-07:05</th>
<th>Hannah 05:24-06:55</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. EMP: so you’ll get 20% of your</td>
<td>1. EMP: it also means that the 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working hours to be used on</td>
<td>of your time basically will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your personal development</td>
<td>go for(.)it’s gonna be made</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. &lt;ARA: yes yes mmm&gt; that</td>
<td>4. if you are the one to get</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. that is we’ll gonna find</td>
<td>5. the job it’s gonna be made a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out if you got the job then</td>
<td>6. sort of a development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. what would you need</td>
<td>7. plan or action plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ARA: yeah okay &lt;EMP: oh&gt;</td>
<td>8. HAN: mmm mmm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. EMP: to develop in order to</td>
<td>9. EMP: for you () what would you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be able to enter the Danish</td>
<td>10. need &lt;HAN: yes&gt; in order to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>labour market &lt;ARA: mmm</td>
<td>11. be able to guide you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mmm&gt; <em>fully and completely</em></td>
<td>12. entirely into the Danish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. ARA: mmm mmm</td>
<td>13. labour market so you can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. EMP: erm besides there will be a</td>
<td>14. stay there &lt;HAN: yeah yeah&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kind of erm ehr network</td>
<td>15. for many many years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. with with others employed</td>
<td>16. HAN: xxx nice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in an IO position</td>
<td>17. EMP: this is what it’s all about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. ARA: yes yes</td>
<td>18. erm it also means that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. EMP: so erm there’ll be some</td>
<td>19. you’ll be assigned a mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>network meetings () you’ll</td>
<td>20. HAN: yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get a mentor erm &lt;ARA: mmm</td>
<td>21. EMP: so’ll get a person who is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mmm&gt; who'll take care</td>
<td>22. your own and personal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of you and can answer all</td>
<td>23. support so to speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your questions () we</td>
<td>24. HAN: yes &lt;EMP: xxx&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others would like to</td>
<td>25. EMP: when you can ask about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>answer them as well &lt;MAN:</td>
<td>26. anything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mmm&gt; but () we are all</td>
<td>27. HAN: yes &lt;EMP: it doesn’t mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>here but there will be one</td>
<td>28. that&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in particular whom whom</td>
<td>29. EMP: xxx you can always ask all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whom you’ll erm be most</td>
<td>30. the others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affiliated to <a href="">ARA:mmm</a></td>
<td>31. HAN: no no okay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in erm in connection to</td>
<td>32. EMP: but but erm you’ll have one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>those erm networks you’ll</td>
<td>33. in particular who by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>also be able to learn more</td>
<td>34. all means is your erm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>about Danish culture erm</td>
<td>35. mentor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. why we do as we do laugh</td>
<td>36. HAN: yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. when we laugh and=</td>
<td>37. EMP: erm there’re will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;ARA:yes</td>
<td>38. sort of a network for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. EMP: =say what we say</td>
<td>39. everyone employed in an IO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. ARA: I have learned a bit</td>
<td>40. position at the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>about that &lt;EMP:yes</td>
<td>41. municipality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. ARA: I have also a Danish</td>
<td>42. HAN: okay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>husband</td>
<td>43. EMP: so so you meet once in a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. EMP: yes but it can be difficult</td>
<td>44. while and exchange &lt;HAN:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. ARA: yes that’s right &lt;EMP:erm</td>
<td>45. okay&gt; experience about how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes&gt; [laughs]</td>
<td>46. erm to handle this and that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. ARA: yes</td>
<td>47. or what do you think it’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. EMP: so erm if it’s gonna be</td>
<td>48. difficult do you think I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you we’ll talk about well</td>
<td>49. think this is difficult do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. what what do you need to</td>
<td>50. you think so &lt;HAN: okay&gt; or</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These excerpts are premised on the idea of culture as a fixed and stable category (e.g. section 6.3.). According to that view on culture, both Hannah and Arabella have to learn about how the Danes are, what they do, how they laugh and when they might get offended. Only after becoming familiar with these things, the applicants could expect to be accepted in the society of the Danes. The “us vs. them” discourse could not be made more obvious. This discourse of culture being treated as an isolated monolith is also one of the main themes in this dissertation. To be accepted by “us”, “the others” have to learn about “our” culture, the requirement sounds. However, to be employed in the desired position, “the others” have to be very much like “us” before they apply for the job. Let us have a closer look at the sequences.

Arabella is addressed as someone who still needs to enter the Danish labour market fully and completely (Dan: fuldt og helt) although she is both educated as a receptionist in Denmark and has worked in Denmark before. This deficit view on Arabella culminates when EMP’s suggests that she should learn more about Danish culture (lines 35-37) which Arabella interrupts by saying that she already knows about that since she has a Danish husband. However, this fact seems to be ignored (yes but it can be difficult, line 44) as if Arabella’s family is not relevant when it comes to integration.
Furthermore, Arabella is actively addressed with the personal pronoun “you” (what would you need, line 7, and how can be best help you, line 52) while Hannah is addressed indirectly with the indefinite pronoun “one” (so one can learn about why we are as we are, lines 57, 58). This suggests obvious differences in the positioning (Davies and Harré 1990, Langenhove and Harré 1994) of the two applicants: Arabella is seen as an incomplete, unintegrated foreigner, Hannah is to a higher degree perceived as someone similar who does not need special cultural introduction but rather an action plan to guide her entirely into the Danish labour market so that she can stay there for many many years (repeated twice in lines 14-15 and 76). Note that when talking about the permanency of the position, Hannah is addressed directly with the personal pronoun “you”.

The narrative about the network of IO employees as a resource for learning about Danish culture, is also approached in two different ways. While Arabella is told straightforwardly that she will learn about Danish culture, there are no utterances about Hannah needing to gain insight into Danish culture. Instead, EMP talks about exchanging experience about how to handle this and that (lines 44-46), e.g. tackling possible difficulties, giving each other advice as well as some teaching in Danish culture (lines 49-55). Such a construction (although it might bear the same message) is much more nuanced, less forceful and less focused on difficulties and differences than in Arabella’s case. Clearly, regardless of her Danish education, Danish husband, Danish workplace experience and the nine years spent in Denmark, Arabella is systematically positioned as an outsider to Danish culture; while Hannah (without any of the above) is positioned as an insider who, only with a little “guidance” will be able to keep her position “for many years”.

In the next examples, Arabella and Hannah are requested to provide information about work experience from jobs in Denmark.

### 7.2.4. Working in Denmark

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabella 09:30-11:19</th>
<th>Hannah 10:00 – 10:43</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN: what s what did you see was</td>
<td>01. MAN: mmm okay do you have what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. or what what do you think</td>
<td>02. jobs have you had in Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. was the most difficult thing</td>
<td>03. HAN: oh now I work at erm the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. about working in Denmark</td>
<td>04. post office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. what was the most difficult</td>
<td>05. MAN: okay yes that’s true that’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. thing for you</td>
<td>06. what you did &lt;HAN: yeah&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. ARA: yes the first time it was a</td>
<td>07. HAN: but only on Saturdays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. bit difficult because they</td>
<td>08. &lt;MAN:or</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
they should get to know me

MAN: yes
ARA: yes and then sometimes
people are afraid of
countries
or something like that but
it wasn’t so ss- the firs-
the first week it was I
could see that it was like
what’s it
called they didn’t want to
talk so much with me or
something like that
MAN: mmh
ARA: but it doesn’t last long cos
erm I could {easily} laugh
with them and hear what they
could say and I I very much
want to
be part of of their erm
group
MAN: yes
ARA: so but afterwards a week
after
they were all my friends and
MAN: okay <Arabella: xxx> okay
ARA: mhm mhm I don’t have
problems
today
MAN: no
ARA: mhm and I like smile and xxx
eerm laugh and talk with
people and
MAN: yes
ARA: be part of conversation eh
MAN: so you don’t think <ARA:
xxx> in reality it’s
difficult
ARA: no
MAN: no <ARA: xxx>
ARA: it depends on how you are as
a person
MAN: yeah
ARA: yeah mhm
MAN: but are you the one who sort
of takes the initiative if
you think there is a group
here that <Arabella: yes> is
a little bit reserved
towards you or it could be
something else
ARA: yes I think you have to show
who you are
MAN: yes
ARA: yes not be afraid or it it
is also normally that you
think that he he or she is
afraid of
talking to you erm to to her
or xxx if you you show that
you are interested xxx be in
In lines 1-3 Arabella is asked to account for the most difficult thing about working in Denmark. The attention is drawn to a presupposition about Arabella having hard times working in Denmark. She answers the question by admitting small difficulties in the beginning and argues for the common process in making new acquaintances by referring to general truths (it depends on how you are as a person) MAN does not comment on any of that but provides only backchannelling. Backchannelling was one of the things that grabbed my attention in terms of showing positive attitude towards successful applicants, so at an earlier stage of analysis I counted the number of positive backchannellings from the members of the panel in Hannah’s and Arabella’s interviews (see also appendix 8 and 9 an overview of backchannelling in all successful and unsuccessful interviews). It turned out that Hannah receives approximately one third more backchannelling (123 yes and 35 mhm) than Arabella (86 yes and 20 mhm). Again, we see that there is a difference in MAN’s level of engagement: in Hannah’s case, MAN seems to give qualitatively different responses while with Arabella MAN acts distanced and does not seem to engage herself in the conversation. I shall return to that.

The focus on Arabella’s difficulties is upheld throughout the interview. For example, regardless of what she explains, MAN requests further evidence as if she does not seem convinced. For example, in lines 41-42 MAN asks: so you don’t think in reality it’s difficult. “In reality” here could be interpreted in terms of the Danish reality, which, as we saw, Arabella is positioned far away from. Similarly, in line 49 the manager says: but are you the one who sort of takes the initiative if you think there is a group here that is a little bit reserved towards you, although Arabella has explained that and even provided examples to demonstrate that she unproblematically can become an equal member of a new group (lines 22-27). Arabella is clearly confronted with her background and she defends herself by drawing on concrete
examples and broader humanistic reflections (e.g. it depends on how you are as a person, it doesn’t matter where you’re from or what is your religion, lines 68–70), the manager’s only reaction being mhm mhm.

As a reply to Arabella’s statement that it does not matter where you come from or what your religion is, the manager initiates a topic about the huge amount of employees with a foreign background working at the municipality:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabella, 11:20-11:50</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN: we have also many employees here in the house &lt;ARA: yes&gt; who have different backgrounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. MAN: I think mmh what; one third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. EMP: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. MAN: I think so &lt;EMP: there are quite a lot;&gt; yeah in the ho- the house here who are new Danes &lt;ARA: yes&gt; or what the heck &lt;ARA: ja&gt; one should call them &lt;ARA: yes&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. MAN: it doesn’t seem right to call them other ethnic background &lt;ARA: yes&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. EMP: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. MAN: yes &lt;ARA: yes&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Arabela: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. MAN: so it’s not a problem either</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. ARA: no &lt;MAN: in any way&gt; mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. MAN: nobody’s scared of &lt;ARA: no&gt; another religion or another skin colour or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. ARA: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. MAN: or anything else no it’s not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. ARA: yes it &lt;MAN: mmh&gt; I think so too</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this excerpt (also shown previously in *Reflections on ethnographic interventions*), the manager articulates her uncertainty about the terminology addressing people “like Arabella”. By using the classifications *not exactly foreigners* but certainly *not Danes either* (New Danes or Other Ethnic Background), she points at categories from the public debate, concluding that no matter what, it’s not a problem either (line 15). Clearly, this clarification is brought in because MAN finds it relevant to Arabella (see Tranekjær 2009 for similar categorizations).

Quite the reverse, Hannah is never confronted with her background. She is much supported by continuous positive evaluations: (excerpt 2.4, line 5: that’s true, line 24: well you’ve been there since July, line 28: so it’s quite new, and line 34: okay that’s good). I shall return to this after the next sequence.
7.2.5. Danish language

Arabella’s Danish is never specifically mentioned in the interview as a problem area by the members of the panel and is assessed as better than Hannah’s (see section 6.7.2.2.). Twice Arabella raises the issue of Danish herself. First, by mentioning writing as a potential problem, and second, when the manager explains about the general possibility of taking Danish classes, Arabella adds that there is work to be done on her Danish, but refers to it as "very normal": I still am still need some language or but it’s all very normal.

Hannah is asked openly about her Danish. Consider the excerpt below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hannah 10:44-11-24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. MAN: <em>do you have it easy</em> with Danish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. HAN: erm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. MAN: do you have mmh &lt;HAN: [laughs]&gt; I’ll just reformulate what what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. HAN: no erm yeah yes and no but erm of course it is new but erm it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. looks like erm the [anon: language]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. MAN: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. HAN: language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. MAN: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. HAN: so to read erm reading is not so so difficult for me &lt;MAN:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. no&gt; but of course I am (.) pronunciation erm &lt;MAN: yes&gt; a bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. different so &lt;MAN: that’s evident&gt; I have some problems with this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. sound -d- and &lt;MAN: yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. HAN: yes so erm &lt;MAN: yes&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. MAN: I understand that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. HAN: &lt;MAN: it is difficult indeed&gt; yeah but erm I I also think it’s o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. okay after one year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. MAN: yes of course it is &lt;Hannah: I can can&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. HAN speak little Danish so</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hannah has problems understanding and expressing herself in Danish. I already showed some of the above example in Linguistic Fluency to illustrate misunderstanding and reformulation. Now I would like to call attention to the manager’s supportive strategy. First, MAN uses a positive phrase (easy with Danish) instead of focusing on “difficulties” or “problems”. Second, she reformulates the non-understood phrase (line 3-5), and third, she expresses huge understanding of Hannah’s challenges with the Danish language (e.g. that’s evident, line 12, it is difficult indeed, line 16, yes of course it is, line 18). Such confirming statements are well documented in research on institutional interaction (e.g. Erickson and Schultz 1982, Roberts and Campbell 2006, Roberts et al 2008). Roberts and Campbell 2006:99 argue that they are “key moments of acceptance or augmentation of candidate’s responses by interviewers” and point out that
they are characteristic in the context of successful interviews when they are used to show understanding of candidates’ motivations and positively appraise their responses as well as “to make an answer institutionally relevant” (Roberts and Campbell 2006:99).

Furthermore, they argue that such statements can certainly be used by interviewers to take control over or even hinder the efforts of the applicant to produce an answer, but in that particular case I think they are used more subtly. What Arabella has to deal with is exactly the lack of the confirmatory statements which makes the interview different for her. Note that regardless of the local environment and the phases of the interview, Arabella receives very few confirming statements.

Let us look at the last sequence in which Hannah and Arabella are required to provide information about activities outside work.

### 7.2.6. Activities outside work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ARABELLA 07:59 – 08:46</th>
<th>HANNAH 13:56-15:42</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01. EMP: I thought can you tell us</td>
<td>01. EMP: can you tell me a little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02. about yourself what erm what</td>
<td>02. about what you do when you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03. what do you do &lt;ARA: ssss&gt;</td>
<td>03. don’t work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04. when you don’t work or what</td>
<td>04. HAN: oh erm yes I of course I erm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05. yeah what what</td>
<td>05. do my homework[laughs] I I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06. ARA: I like reading</td>
<td>06. practise erm afternoons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07. EMP: yes</td>
<td>07. EMP: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08. ARA: and erm I love training also</td>
<td>08. HAN: and look for erm job erm the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09. yeah gymnastics at home</td>
<td>09. job (...) it is erm I like to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. &lt;EMP: mmh&gt; and I also watch</td>
<td>10. read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. TV news and documentaries</td>
<td>11. EMP: mmh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. so many things &lt;EMP: yes&gt;</td>
<td>12. HAN: but erm but only when I’m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I also like</td>
<td>13. what is it erm when I ha-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. to erm meet the friends and</td>
<td>14. have not so many xxx how to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. laugh a little</td>
<td>15. say that when it’s not so not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. EMP: yes</td>
<td>16. so busy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. ARA: yes and also go on the cinema</td>
<td>17. EMP: yeah &lt;MAN: yeah&gt; yeah &lt;HAN:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. yeah and these sorts of things</td>
<td>18. yeah&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. &lt;EMP: yeah&gt; there are many</td>
<td>19. HAN: so I must be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. things and erm &lt;EMP: yeah&gt; I’m</td>
<td>20. EMP: yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. also a churchgoer</td>
<td>21. HAN: not so stressed [laughs]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. ARA: on Sundays</td>
<td>23. but I like 1-  erm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. EMP: mmh</td>
<td>24. like it and erm also erm in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. ARA: mmh mmh</td>
<td>25. beginning here erm I was at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. MAN: mmh mmh</td>
<td>26. erm erm what’s it erm ehr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. EMP: so &lt;ARA: it&gt; you are an</td>
<td>27. what’s it called erm pilotes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. outgoing person</td>
<td>28. MAN: yeah <a href="">EMP:yes</a> yes &lt;EMP:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. ARA: yes</td>
<td>29. yes&gt; &lt;HAN: yes&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. EMP: yes</td>
<td>30. EMP: yes &lt;HAN: [laughs]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. ARA: mmh</td>
<td>31. MAN: we know that well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. EMP: it’s also important for that</td>
<td>32. EMP: yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. kind of position &lt;ARA: yes&gt;</td>
<td>33. HAN: okay &lt;MAN: [laughs]&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. cos it’s a position with</td>
<td>34. EMP: yeah &lt;ROB: [laughs]&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. focus on service</td>
<td>35. HAN: but it’s erm a bit expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. ARA: yeah okay</td>
<td>36. now men co- yes cos I don’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. EMP: yeah</td>
<td>37. have the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Arabella presents herself as a person who likes reading, watching documentaries, going out with friends and is a regular churchgoer. Such staging sounds familiar and many Danes would probably recognize these undertakings as traditional leisure time activities (apart from churchgoing which Arabella might use for placing herself in a Christian, i.e. “similar” context). Indeed, the list of leisure activities sounds stiff and depersonalised, rather in line with the requirements of the institutional discourse, and this is exactly the way EMP addresses it: it’s also important for that kind of position... with focus on service (lines 31-34). Whether it is because of Arabella’s formal tone (maybe a reaction to the outsider-positioning) or not, Arabella’s account is met with the kind of indifference we saw before, the only comment being so you’re an outgoing person, line 26-27. As demonstrated previously, the accounts Arabella provides are not sufficient to the panel - to reach conclusions about her, they repeatedly require additional
evidence. Roberts and Campbell 2006 have similar cases in which such “recipe-like” responses are often treated negatively.

Hannah’s description includes more personal details. She is informative and reflective about the activities outside work: for example, she reads, when she finds time; she practises Pilates, but has stopped because it is expensive and hopes to continue as soon as she gets a job. The way Hannah integrates leisure with work possibilities shows an entrepreneurial self that does not compartmentalise the personal and the professional. This is also an example of seamless blending of discourses described as successful strategy by Roberts and Campbell 2006 and Scheuer 2001.

The panel representatives react positively to Hannah’s narratives. For example, when Hannah explains that she finds Copenhagen a big city, the manager immediately agrees on that while the HR employee admits that she can still lose herself in the city of Copenhagen (lines 69-70). We see how several members of the panel signal co-membership, i.e. the degree of shared interests they have in common with Hannah. Such alignment strategies, as argued by Erickson and Schultz 1982, and Roberts and Cambell 2006 reinforce the positive environment in the interview and open up for giving ‘special help’ (e.g. Adelswärd 1988) to those applicants the panel has established co-membership with (see also Roberts and Campbell 2006 on positive dynamics). Note that “co-membership” is interactionally produced. Erickson and Schultz found that co-membership had a decisive impact upon the amount of special help given to candidates, the ability of the participants to resolve misunderstandings, and in the very end their success or failure. According to Erickson and Schultz 1982:193 “the game is rigged, albeit not deliberately, in favour of those individuals whose communication style and social background are most similar to those with the interviewer with whom they talk”. In other words, the panels would consider those applicants with whom they share a co-membership as ones more likely to share a definition of the interview situation, an understanding of the work environment, and a way of being (also parallel to Scheuer 2001).

Here are two further examples on co-membership:
The positive environment is reinforced by HAN and EMPs mutual positive confirmations and the statement in line 4 (we all know that well) both of which function as markers of inclusion. As a consequence, all four participants laugh in appreciation.

A similar positive environment is also expressed in the second example:

The second example is similar. The phrase It’s a ↑DANISH boyfriend↓ you’ve got is articulated in an exalted manner, with a notable stress on the adjective Danish and a somewhat theatrical intonation pattern (rising intonation on Danish and falling on boyfriend). The same rising and falling intonation is seen in line 3 : ↑mmh mmh↓ so ↑that’s how you came here↓, followed by an appreciative assessment: that sounds nice (line 5). Remember that when Arabella mentioned her Danish husband, nobody commented on that. In the end, the manager concludes: I ↑really think you are very good at Danish. This final sign of acceptance is a huge acknowledgment. Hannah is complimented for her language skills in Danish, although her Danish is assessed at a much lower level in comparison to Arabella’s and MAN has explicitly stated that Danish was very important for the job. Therefore, the assessment in lines 5-6 is not based on linguistic evidence but is rather a marker of cultural acceptance. I really think you are very good at Danish comes after several strongly expressed signs of co-membership. It functions both as an acknowledgment and a justification, like an Austinian speech act by which the manager convinces herself and the other members of the panel that Hannah is the better candidate. Positioning Hannah as culturally fluent, although it
might be based on stereotypes, has granted her co-membership also in the domain of the Danish language. Cultural fluency has been transformed into linguistic fluency, altogether based on the predominant ideology of those like us as more suitable candidates than those different from us. As we saw in *What is cultural and what is linguistic*, the panel makes the same kind of assertive judgements based on little or no actual evidence. The identities they ascribe are products of immediate local inferences which are linked to judgements about performance and attributes such as “would or would not fit in”, “motivated”, “unreasonable” and so on (Roberts 2000:114).

The next section turns the attention to the panel’s assessments of Hannah and Arabella in a 17 minutes long post-interview session including their perspective and rationales for selecting Hannah and rejecting Arabella. It discusses the parameters of linguistic and cultural fluency and looks at issues of ideology in relation to the selection.

### 7.3. Assessments of Hannah and Arabella

#### 7.3.1. Linguistic Fluency

When asked to evaluate Arabella’s and Hannah’s skills in Danish on a scale from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good), two members assigned Arabella 3.5 points, and two assigned her 3 and 4 points respectively (3.5 in average). Hannah received 2 points by three members and 2.5 points by one member (2.2 in average). As discussed in the previous chapter, this procedure was not meant as a realistic assessment of the applicants’ language competences. Rather, the task was meant to prompt discussions on “good” and “bad” Danish and perhaps open up for ideology.

Arabella’s Danish was not discussed further but Hannah’s fast progress in Danish was addressed very positively, e.g.: she has only been here for a year, right, and she spoke like okay, okay Danish, quite alright actually, said the manager, while another panel representative meant that she was the worst at Danish (of the three applicants) but she spoke comprehensible Danish. These assessments seemed

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9 Alignments and co-membership with successful applicants are to be found in many other job interviews (e.g. Ruben, Domingo and Maximillian). Especially in Domingo’s case alignment is expressed particularly strongly, resulting in the manager’s switching into English as a helping and confirmatory strategy (although the manager has been holding very much on to Danish in the beginning of the interview).
to serve as proxies for how Hannah would perform later: with what Danish she has learned in on year, after one more year... she can learn as quick as lightning. But I think – the manager concluded – it’s true that actually the language is not so central [for the decision]. There are some quite other skills lying behind. This statement points to one of the conclusions from the previous chapter where we saw that for non-academic positions, the successful applicants were not those who scored highest but those who had proven rapid progress (see 6.6.2.4). Proficiency in Danish as a set of countable, learnable items is not in itself the main factor for success; rather it is the “other skills lying behind”, so let us look at what skills the panel has in mind.

7.3.2. Cultural Fluency
This is a repeated example from section 6.3. answering the question why Hannah was given the job:

MAN: We did it because culturally we imagined that she [Hannah] could match the job and the existing job description better. We were all a bit concerned about the other two who were too eager to get a job. And their cultural background contributes to the fact that since they will be cooperating with me for instance, they will become too submissive in relation to the job and to me. Whereas she [Hannah] is educated and socialized in another system and she has had 15 years of experience. This was very important as well. In this kind of job she will be able to enter very much as equal. Also the fact that she will stand as an equal colleague, also in relation to general working conditions, i.e. she will be able to make demands on equal terms with other colleagues and give them the necessary sparring.

The above statement is interesting and emblematic in several ways. As previously pointed out, “culture”, seems to account for everything and is the main reason for selecting Hannah. It gives the impression that Hannah is not selected on the basis of the job interview but on the basis of the “system” she is socialized in (i.e. being a Western European she is eo ipso compatible with the Danish system). Being an equal colleague is furthermore highlighted as a factor of utmost importance. The manager explained also that she saw Hannah as “more related to us” (i.e. related to the Danes and the Danish working culture), and that she had “plenty of grit” (i.e. she was familiar with the Danish value of being an independent and a daring employee). I come back to that in the discussion.

Now let’s look at how Arabella is seen:
I have to admit that this description took me by surprise. Especially the portrayal of her as fragile and helpless sounded very far away from what I had observed. I saw Arabella as independent, reflective and intelligent applicant and I could not see the subservience and the fragility she was “accused” of. Especially the description “fragile and eager” seemed contradictory and unsubstantial to me.

This challenged my analytical sense and motivated me for conducting further analysis. I decided to look for further interactional evidence that would explain the above account. An insightful data session with colleagues called my attention to the fact that Arabella’s backchannelling sometimes came too fast and seemed to overlap with the interviewer’s utterances. Especially in the section in which Arabella is presented with the idea of the specifics of the IO position (and she mentions her Danish husband), she several times overlaps the employee representative with her too fast-coming mhh’s (see example in 7.2.3.). Different modes of backcannelling in terms of culture (Hayashi 1988) and gender (Fishman 1978 and Hirschmann 1994) are documented in the literature of conversation analytical studies. Fishman 1978 for example, argues that women backchannel more frequently than men and use backchanneling of the type “mhmm” to indicate “I am listening” whereas men rather indicate “I agree”. I tried to study Hannah’s and Arabella’s backchannelling in an example of approximate equal length and similar in content (e.g. example 2.3., Explaining the specifics of the IO position, see appendix 9). I found that Hannah has a greater variation in the types of backcannelling (she uses mhmm, yes, yes okay, no and some alternative minimal confirmatory responses) while Arabella uses only mhmm, yes, yes okay, and interrupts once (mentioning her Danish husband).

Apart from that, there are neither big differences in the total number of backchannelling
produced (Hannah has 19 and Arabella has 20) nor in the total number of backchannelling in an overlap (Arabella has 9 and Hannah has 10). However, Arabella’s backchannelling falls a bit earlier in EMP’s turn so it sometimes comes as an interruption rather than a confirmation, which might explain the eagerness.

Another link to the perception of Arabella as eager might be her own stating that she is “willing to learn everything”. I already discussed that in section 5.3.3. which argued for the existence of a so-called “immigrant story”-discourse (Roberts and Campbell 2006:149). We saw how applicants who present themselves as quick learners, willing to do anything to get the job, having no problems whatsoever are by the same token perceived as problematic by the interviewers. Roberts and Campbell argue that what interviews in fact require are statements of resilience in the face of difficulties rather than presentations as always working hard, willing to do anything, and denying anything negative about past work experiences. So the way Arabella explains about her favourite activities outside work, monotonously listing so many things (section 7.2.6) is probably associated with the “immigrant story” discourse which makes Arabella less culturally fluent in the eyes of the panel. In comparison, Hannah seems to navigate much better in the discursive blend of institutional and personal. The blend of discourses contributes to a more realistic and trustworthy picture of the applicants in opposition to an unrealistic (i.e. eager) and false (i.e. not one of us) one.

Interactional evidence on fragility is, however, more difficult to find. Why is Arabella seen as fragile? To me it is rather connected to a stereotype Arabella is positioned into than her own interactional moves. The analysis in the beginning of this chapter has shown, that in many situations Arabella is positioned by the panel member’s own utterances as an outsider to Danish culture and Danish workplace procedures. After 9 years in Denmark she is still seen as “new” although she speaks Danish better than Hannah. Since I do not find interactional evidence on her “fragile manner” and it is neither the language nor the fact that she is new and inexperienced, then what makes her unsuccessful? I suggest that it is the systematic positioning as an outsider that results in othering and causes the cultural disfluency she is “accused” of. On that basis we can easier make a parallel between on the one hand “fragile” (as in helpless and dependent) and on the other hand “eager to get the job” (as in subservient and willing to do anything) as they both link to
stereotypes of people from Africa as more difficult to integrate than those from Western Europe.

### 7.4. Postscript: Three years later

**Arabella** got a job as an administrator in a private organization three months after the unsuccessful IO interview and has been working there even since. I called her exactly three years after the recordings and she told me that she remembers the time of the IO interview like a blessing in disguise because she later got a job she was really pleased with.

Arabella explained that in the rejection letter from the IO panel was written the usual stuff, nothing concrete. This was in sharp contrast to what the manager promised in the post-interview conversation. The manager particularly assured me that she will tell Arabella about her “fragile” manner, so she learns something from it.

...I’ll advise her to be more *progressive* ([Dan: fremme i skoene]) and be more like [clenches and shakes her fists] you know...

Arabella was surprised to hear that she was seen as “fragile”. Nobody describes me like that, she said. We chatted further about “being new in Denmark” and when I asked her how she felt about it, she explained:

> It’s not exactly provoking but at least it’s weird that they ask like that because I am integrated... There will always be those two blocks in the Danish society, one, that will always see you as an immigrant and the other one who confirms you in being Danish, and when you are integrated, then you are integrated (Phone interview with Arabella, September 2012)

Finally, she told me with relief that everybody at her new workplace regarded her as a Dane: they don’t have the cliché of me being a foreigner or a new Dane, they say – you are also Danish.

**Hannah** still works at the municipality of Copenhagen. The IO contract had expired after which she began working on “normal” conditions. Three years after, we scheduled a meeting and I visited her at the office. One of the first things she told me was that the job she got was different from what she had expected. The manager, whose secretary she was appointed as, was so busy out of the office that Hannah hardly saw her during the
first four months. The mentor she got was nice but not exactly helpful... I expected more guidance, she said, I didn’t know at all what I was supposed to do in the beginning. She felt she was left on her own and it was difficult to figure out what was required from her. After moving to another office, things got much better.

She recalls the interview as an overwhelming event particularly because of the many interviewers. She also remembers being surprised by the brevity of the interview: I can’t remember the questions but they didn’t ask me so much what I could do [in relation to the job] ... they gave a big presentation of themselves for a long time, and then only 3 - 4 questions to me.

When I played some pieces of the recording, she seemed surprised that her Danish was not worse than she thought: They told me I was the IO employee with the worst Danish but with the biggest experience, she said. When she heard the manager’s question: Do you have it *easy with* the Danish language, she frowned and told me she still did not understand the phrase “let ved”. I explained it to her.

When I asked about the network for cultural integration of new IO employees, she admitted that she had only been to one big meeting, after which very few people kept on using the network: We talked mostly about how we felt, not so much about Danish culture. Activities like learning about “when and why Danes laugh” had never been discussed. Hannah added though that maybe it was not so important for her, because Danish culture looks very much like [Western European] culture. I tried to make her elaborate on that and asked her whether she could identify differences in the workplace procedures or in other aspects of her everyday life, but she could not provide examples. Though she told me it was important for Asian people to know more about Danish culture, because they really need it.

Although Hannah got a job in Denmark within the very first year of her stay, she did not think of it as a piece of cake. I expected to get a job much sooner, she said. Yet, after she had talked to other people from the IO network, she had realized that she had been lucky to get a job after quite a few applications and only one job interview.

**Conclusion: Ideology and assessments**
The analysis has shown that the interactional moves Hannah and Arabella make feed into what appears to be prior assumptions about Western and non-Western cultural
backgrounds. Arabella is systematically positioned as an outsider to Danish culture and workplace procedures although very few things in her interactional moves substantiate such positioning. Particularly the discourse of “difficulties and problems” is treated very differently for the two applicants. In Hannah’s case, “difficulties” are used positively and supportively (e.g. it is difficult indeed, or it is not at all difficult to understand), while in Arabella’s case “difficulty” is used negatively either as a claim (but it could be difficult) or as a presupposition: what was the most difficult thing, suggesting that something must have been difficult. Arabella is positioned as somebody who needs to learn about things to become more independent. At the same time she presents herself as a balanced and reflective person, arguing that it is quite “normal” to experience problems with a new language or at a new workplace.

In contrast, Hannah is systematically positioned as an individual who shares the panel’s cultural context and values. There is no clear evidence whether certain interactional features make Hannah more successful or if she is successful because of the perceived “cultural similarities”. With evidence from the post-conversational interview with the panel, I rather argue for the latter. I find the panel’s accounts saturated with ideological stances. The focus on culture is tremendous: cultural background is explicitly mentioned as a factor that matters more than anything else in the interview. Danish language skills are perceived as being less important in situ; however, it is also used ideologically as proxy for other competencies: e.g. the faster the acquisition of Danish, the better the employee.

Language and culture are assessed through ideology. The panel’s decision is based on perceived cultural similarities with the idea of the IO project as a project aimed at integration is practically undermined. The applicants’ interactional and linguistic behaviour serves to reinforce the ideology; it is not simply what is brought into the interview but what is brought about in it. However, as Erickson 2004 argues, there is always some ‘wiggle room’ to act within and around constraints. Both Arabella and Hannah counter the stereotypes in some places and these may be partly accepted but mainly ignored.
7.5. The tragedy of the IO project

The story of the IO project is in many ways a tragic story. It is a story about two parties caught in the institutional machinery of bureaucratic gatekeeping. The panels are supposed to ask reasonable questions and the applicants are supposed to give reasonable answers which altogether should end in reasonable decisions. The panels are forced to discriminate, but without being discriminatory and the applicants are forced to present themselves as realistic, but without being too realistic.

Such story hungers for victims and gets its victims. As in every true tragedy both parties are victims: the panels are victims, as they need to follow unmanageable requirements. They are set up to practise an impossible scenario, in which different logics compete against each other. *The logic of instant profit* appeals to their bureaucratic identities as it tells them that those with whom they share linguistic and especially cultural similarities will cost them least and are more worth investing in. *The logic of charity* on the other hand appeals to their identities as sensible human beings but it clashes with the bureaucratic identity which gives them the feeling of being “torn apart” (see sections 2.3.3. and 6.6.1.). *The logic of bureaucratic fairness* as part of the wider conundrum about maintaining standards in a diverse society (Heller 2003) is also made relevant. The tension between the three logics is so great, that it makes the selection an extremely difficult task. When the dilemma presses on the interviewers, they cannot resist but fall back into general practices of selecting “ordinary” applicants and making “ordinary” bureaucratic decisions although the point of the IO jobs was precisely the opposite: the interviewers were supposed to take exactly those whom they would “normally” not have taken - otherwise there would not be need for an IO initiative at all. The irony is, however, that the interviewers cannot see how they have helped to construct the tragedy.

The interviewees, successful as unsuccessful, are victims of globalization. It is insurmountably difficult for Arabella to win in the interview as long as she is caught in the panel’s cultural blindness. Looking through glasses steamed up with cultural stereotypes, the interviewers inevitably prefer those applicants with whom they share perceived cultural features. Such applicants, following the instant profit logic, will easier become
one of “them”. But it turns out also to be hard for applicants like Hannah because her “similarity” does not automatically mean that she can work without support and training.

Thus, the tragedy is expressed in a number of ways. The logic of charity is tragic because it is problematic to employ people only because we feel sorry for them. The logic of instant profit is tragic because it problematizes the whole idea of the IO project as a waste of time. And the logic of bureaucratic fairness – in itself an oxymoron - is tragic, because it is utopic. If it cannot give admission to “the right ones”, would it ever be possible to create a project which would truly help the vulnerable? And finally, the “us” vs. “them” discourse is tragic because it celebrates Danishness and undermines globalization.
Chapter 8  Findings and Conclusions

8.1. Super-diverse communicative practices: reclaiming fluency

8.1.1. Linguistic fluency
I have studied fluency through an emic perspective, derived from the behavior and the perceptions of the participants in the gatekeeping, stratified, multilingual context of the IO job interviews. Contrary to what previous research on fluency has found, I argue that fluency is the successful dialogical practice through which the interlocutors are able to negotiate mutual understanding and problems with, for instance, non-standard use of the target language. The success of the practice depends much on the interlocutors’ intention to bring the communication to a satisfactory end: The L2 fluency is dependent on how the interlocutors negotiate, approve of each other’s’ choices and allow each other to use alternative communicative resources, e.g. verbal and non-verbal signals of comprehension, reformulations, repeats, integration of features associated with other sets of linguistic resources (other languages) etc. Fluency is not most fruitfully seen as an absolute set of features that can be “measured” but rather as the jointly produced interactional effort which is about understanding the interlocutor and feeling comfortable about it.

8.1.2. Fluency as negotiation
In my study fluency reflects the way interviewers address the applicants’ ability to speak and understand Danish. When the interviewers credit certain applicants for their “good” Danish, it is primarily rooted in the interlocutors’ ability to negotiate, ask for support and provide support. If the panels are positioned and position themselves as interactive teachers, they may boost the applicants’ Danish; if they are positioned and position themselves as passive and distant, they may contribute to a mutual experience of a weaker performance.

8.1.3. Fluency as understanding
Two factors seem to be of crucial importance: on the one hand whether the panels will do what they can to understand the applicants and on the other hand how the applicants contribute to being understood. If the interviewers do not understand, they act either less supportive or over supportive. Understanding is not necessarily tied to grammatical
or phonological correctness; non-standard Danish is accepted as long as it is comprehensible and as long as the applicants demonstrate an ambition to learn more.

8.1.4. Didactic fluency
When applicants use the job interview as “a pedagogic conversation” (Bremer et al 1996) and the interviewers as “interactive dictionaries”, it has an ice-breaking function. On the one hand it mitigates the institutional stiffness by downplaying uncomfortable face-loss because of obvious differences in the parties’ level of command of Danish; on the other hand it further empowers the interviewers because they are positioned as experts in Danish not by themselves but by the applicants. Once linguistic difficulties are acknowledged and roles are allocated, the interview game becomes more open and the interviewing develops into a more comfortable process.

8.1.5 Formulaic fluency
Formulaic expressions as part of the process of conveying meaning and achieving understanding are particularly important because the appropriate use of formulae limits the risk of ‘erring’ (Boers et al 2006). It also signals affiliations to the target language and marks co-membership by assisting the non-native speakers in sounding native-like. Formulaic expressions create positive environments for the interlocutors and function as alignment strategies. They are the “insider” chunks that create connections between “us” and “them”. Especially when the rest of the applicants’ vocabulary and grammar may need a lot of practice, such small markers of membership attachment point to shared contexts and values.

8.1.6. Cultural fluency
Cultural fluency is the ability to demonstrate conventionalized knowledge, attitudes and emotions that are expected by and shared with the gatekeeper or the interlocutor-in-charge. Cultural fluency is done situationally and may change in every frame, scenario or activity type. It is often interconnected with linguistic fluency though it might function as a more abstract level of fluency that appears just as important as the pure mastering of the mechanics of language.

8.1.7. Cultural fluency brought along and brought about
Cultural fluency is brought about and brought along; for some it can be worked out, made and re-made in the discourse, for others it is less flexible, more congealed and
constrained by the command of language but also confined by one’s convictions and beliefs (e.g. expressed in cases of resistance).

8.1.8. Linguistic and cultural fluency
Cultural fluency is inseparably linked to linguistic fluency. Clearly, what makes applicants fluent is also based on their interactional capacity to work out “how to play the game” (Roberts 1985). Fluency goes beyond the process of mechanical “surface”-scaffolding. It is rather built on two principles: On the one hand the interlocutors need to understand the content of what is said, and on the other hand they need to possess and demonstrate understanding of when, how and how much to signal the ambiguousness in the instances of non- and misunderstanding. Those two principles are irrevocably interconnected but while the first one is mostly associated with linguistic fluency, the second one is rather linked to cultural fluency.

8.2. Strategies for success

8.2.1. Knowledge of discourses and activity types
Navigating through different discourses requires both linguistic knowledge to read the pragmatic function of what is happening (i.e. to decipher whether the interviewer is asking for more information or not) and cultural knowledge, e.g. the applicants should know how to make their talk more institutional for bureaucratic purposes. Successful applicants are those who possess knowledge and understanding on the one hand of the job interview as an activity type, e.g. timing, recontextualization, mixing discourses, and on the other hand the social relations in it, e.g. the balance between being subservient vs. distant or independent vs. equal (cf. Scheuer 2001). Acting according to Danish cultural norms, e.g. managing an egalitarian relationship and demonstrating independent thinking, is more important than speaking flawless Danish.

8.2.2. Managing egalitarian discourses
Applicants who do not manage egalitarian relationship with the panel, act indecisively or work “too hard” for the job, are not offered a position because their interviews are used as proxies for what might happen in the job (viz. indecisiveness, dependence and subservience). As a consequence, applicants socialized into more hierarchically orientated cultural practices may suffer discrimination because they will be expected to apply egalitarian discourses but will not know how to do it.
8.2.3. Mastering institutional discourses
Applicants who master the institutional discourse and are able to balance between institutional and personal accounts are more successful than applicants whose talks contain too many personal details or too abstract institutional ways of speaking (parallel to Scheuer 2001 and Roberts and Campbell 2006). In particular if the applicants’ stories are too personal, they would get trapped in negative stereotypes resulting in marginalization and negative chances to get the job.

8.2.4. Cultural fluency counts most
Cultural fluency seems to count more than linguistic fluency. If applicants (particularly for manual jobs) tackle the interview game easily and efficiently without causing uncomfortable moments and misunderstandings, they might be offered the job despite their limited command of Danish. Also in academic positions, in which a high level of Danish skills is required, cultural fluency (as the practice of managing Danish cultural norms), is emphasized as a central criterion, more important than the purely linguistic command of Danish.

8.2.5 Culture as the eye of the needle
Culture is the overriding concern in the assessments. If the applicants’ language skill is good enough to be accepted, culture becomes the eye of the needle. Culture is seen through an ethnocentric position and Danish culture is the norm. Culture is considered as something the applicants have (static and nonnegotiable) and not a practice that applicants and interviewers do together.

8.2.6. Danish can be learned, Danish culture cannot
Due to the design of the IO project, all applicants are expected to have difficulties with speaking and writing Danish skills. Improvement of Danish is a priority during in-service training and interviewers consider Danish language skills as something applicants will learn. However, cultural differences are not perceived as something that can be developed, but as a deficiency that prevents the applicant from acting according to Danish cultural norms. Throughout the whole IO interview, the panels look for zones of cultural similarities. If they cannot find them in the interaction, they might base their final assessment on ethnic stereotypes resulting in the preference of applicants with whom they feel most culturally aligned.
8.2.7. **Integration for the integrated**
Successful applicants are often those who already *are* integrated into Danish cultural norms. This contradicts the official IO programme description, according to which the programme is established with a view to integration of those who could not be integrated in other ways. However, applicants offered an IO position are those considered culturally appropriate and those able to have learned Danish very fast (for manual jobs) or very well (for academic jobs).

8.2.8. **Fast acquisition of Danish is appreciated**
Applicants who have learned comprehensible Danish within 1 or 2 years are generally successful. The positive attitude towards newcomers is linked to the belief that if an applicant recently arrived in Denmark has made an effort to speak even a small amount of Danish, he or she will be able to perform just as efficiently in the job. Fast acquisition of Danish is also perceived as a desire to be integrated.

8.2.9. **Danish in academic and non-academic positions**
The assessments of applicants for academic positions show a clear relation between language skills and success, i.e. those who were most proficient in Danish were offered the job. In contrast, the assessments for non-academic positions follow a different pattern: the applicants offered a job were not presently the best at Danish but those who demonstrated the most rapid and efficient progress in Danish. In both cases cultural fluency becomes central for the selection.

8.3. **Special consideration in the age of super-diversity: all dressed up and nowhere to go**

8.3.1. **The double-bind of the IO project**
The IO interview as a specially designed encounter for immigrants and newcomers who experience difficulties in Denmark encourages ideological judgements and causes an immense dilemma. On the one hand the IO job interview is built on a charity principle as a first-aid package to immigrants and newcomers to Denmark, but on the other hand, as every other gatekeeping encounter, it is deeply anchored to institutional decision making practices and choices based on immediate profit. The double-bind of the IO project is a huge inconvenience and in a way a tragedy for both applicants and interviewers. When the interviewers are confronted with the dilemma, they cannot resist but fall back into
general practices of selecting “ordinary” applicants and making “ordinary” bureaucratic
decisions, although the interviewers were supposed to select exactly those applicants
whom they would “normally” not have taken.

8.3.2. Diffuse guidelines lead to diffuse assessment criteria
The lack of clear interview guidelines leads to different interview practices across
departments. Once target groups are identified and applicants who match the target
groups are selected for an interview, the interview is carried out loosely and with only
few shared standards for what applicants are supposed to do or know. In consequence,
each panel uses different selection criteria. While some panels stick more closely to the
IO description, other panels practically ignore the guidelines and take on applicants who
could just as well have applied for an “ordinary” position.

8.3.3. Double subordination
The IO applicants are doubly subordinated: first by the institutional demands, and second
by linguistic and cultural requirements. On the one hand the interviewers evaluate the
candidates’ qualifications in relation to the job; on the other hand, they simultaneously
assess the candidates’ proficiency in Danish and their cultural resources in regards to
integration. But there is a paradox: Although most of the interviewers are trained to
tackle intercultural encounters, the focus on non-standardness does more harm than
good.

8.3.4. Overt and covert gatekeeping
Gatekeeping is both overt (mutually accepted and practiced by both applicants and
panels) and covert. i.e. it deals with different communicative practices and the way they
become basis for social evaluation (Erickson and Schultz 1982). If the interlocutors are
socialized into different linguistic and cultural aspects of talk, differences will appear in
the tense communication of the gatekeeping encounter. The gatekeeping is institutional,
e.g. the applicant has to be accepted through the gates of the institution, but it is also
ideological: the applicants’ proficiency in Danish and cultural integration play an
important role for the panels, who assess the applicants through their own cultural
norms.

8.3.5. The interview as a proxy for other skills
There is a taken for granted assumption that the way applicants perform at a job interview
will show how they will carry out job tasks in practice. It is assumed that if applicants get on
well with the interviewers, they will also get on well with people in the workplace. The fact that applicants who are good at interview practices might be less good in the job (and vice versa) is overlooked. This line of thinking blurs the actual focus of the interview practice: instead of simplifying the selection process to find out who is good for a given job, it immensely challenges those applicants who are not used to interview practices. In a number of respects it seems easier to be a foreign worker doing a certain job than being a foreign applicant doing an IO job interview.

8.3.6. Othering and discrimination
Although the IO initiative is supposed to encourage integration, the whole IO-project design itself generates marginalization. As it often happens in opportunistic projects, however much the IO panels try to make the IO interview different (e.g. by giving the applicants special consideration), it ultimately comes back down to common sense normative ways of judging people. Selecting applicants considered too far away from Danish linguistic and cultural standards challenges the panels and feeds into stereotypes. The special consideration becomes an act of othering. Thus, the IO selection features one classic double bind of all anti-discrimination practices: by categorising groups as separate from the majority in order to prepare for positive action, they inevitably get marginalized.

The IO project is an institutional attempt to respond to super-diversity. Institutionally, it takes a positive action by assisting a disadvantaged group which may otherwise be discriminated against. But paradoxically, it tends to reject exactly those applicants who are most in need of being taken care of. On paper, the applicants applying for an IO position are not supposed to know anything about Danish workplaces and cultural norms, but in fact, they are evaluated according to Danish cultural norms and Danish workplace discourses. In this sense, the IO programme is neither introductory nor integrative because it actually requires from the applicants to be fluent in the stuff they will be trained in.

8.3.7. Bureaucratic fairness and super-diversity
Job interviews are an example of workplace ceremonies in which small interactional difficulties can produce large social outcomes for individuals. It is a fundamental conundrum in the society how much we acknowledge and accept difference, and how much we need to produce something that is both fair and standard. Obviously, there are a number of problems when interviewers put their gloves on. First, however much the
interviewers try to address the needs of a special group, ultimately, it has to be within a wider framework of fairness for everyone and there are certain constraints of what an institution actually can do. Second, the interviewers let their common sense be taken for granted in the ways of interviewing. At the end of the day, many of the decisions taken are taken in ways not different from those of a job interview that was not meant to be so special.

All societies that are becoming increasingly diverse have to cope with such problems. The new challenge is on the one hand to stay culturally sensitive and remain open to diversity, and on the other hand to be fair to everyone. Justice forces a rethinking of criteria. As long as institutions, organisations and companies exist, we are going to make decisions through which we exclude some people and include other people. These decisions are often based on values. The fact of super-diversity requires reconsideration and a new awareness of values that are no longer relevant today. Super-diversity is both a great struggle and a great chance to reconceptualise and develop approaches that address new challenges.

8.4. Areas of concern
Everything in the IO job interview is filtered through linguistic and cultural expectations. This is particularly problematic because leaning on common sense categories very much challenges the understanding of how language is being used and what it may cause. If people carry on with the common sense categories they have always had, they will never get a handle on the process of how language is used as a tool for social evaluation.

Following areas are particularly problematic:

1) There is an automatic assumption that a selection interview is an appropriate way for selecting people. Particularly for manual jobs, the job interview is redundant as it requires skills that have nothing to do with the job and which will discriminate applicants who are less good at interview practices.

2) There is a lack of understanding about how language works. Language is a joint accomplishment and conveying meaning is a joint responsibility. If the L2 speaker makes an effort to convey meaning, the L1 hearer should on his part also make an effort to accomplish understanding. Non-standard use of language might evoke stereotypes and
ideological assumptions about lack of competences. This is particularly unfortunate in short interactions in which small amounts of talk might have large consequences for the individual.

3) Danish values such as egalitarianism and “hjælp til selvhjælp” (help after independent action) cause marginalization of individuals and groups who are not socialized into the same practices. Evaluating through ethnocentric cultural practices is particularly problematic because it undermines diversity by considering difference in culture as an obstacle rather than a resource.

8.5. Recommendations
The recommendations must refer to two issues. On a practical level, I recommend producing educational materials and particularly interactional online tools with concrete exercises for applicants and panels based on actual job interview cases. On an abstract level, I see a need for boost in awareness of how certain performance of Danish values might have a discriminatory effect to people who are not socialized into them. I rather believe that instead of leaning on an ethnocentric “know-how”-practices, both parties would benefit more from a “tell me what to do”-approach.
References


Hinnenkamp, V. (2001). Constructing misunderstanding as a cultural event. PRAGMATICS AND BEYOND NEW SERIES, 211-244.


Resumé på dansk


Afhandlingen besvarer to centrale spørgsmål:

1. Hvilke sproglige og kulturelle resurser benytter succesfulde, hhv. ikke-succesfulde kandidater?
2. I hvilken grad spiller sprogholdninger og ideologier en rolle når ansættelsesudvalgene skal vælge en kandidat til jobbet?

Resultaterne kan opsummeres i følgende tre kategorier:

I) Rekonceptualisering af begrebet “fluency”

II) Strategier for succes i IO stillingerne
Afhandlingen viser at de succesfulde kandidater er dem som er i stand til at inddrage og blande forskellige diskurser (fx at tale både personligt og jobrelateret). Hvis kandidaterne er alt for personlige til jobsamtalen er der fare for at de bliver fanget i etniske stereotyper. Det samme gælder hvis de ikke kan opretholde en ligeværdig position til ansættelsesudvalget eller forsøger alt for ihærdigt at gøre et positivt indtryk af sig selv.


III) IO-projekts bagside
Desværre fungerer IO-projektet ikke efter hensigten. Selv om tiltaget forsøger at tage højde for indvandrernes vanskeligheder på arbejdsmarkedet og dermed mindske diskrimination, er selve IO-designet med til at afvise dem som vil kunne have haft allertørst brug for integration. Interviewerne er fanget mellem en bureaucratisk logik som kræver lige behandling for alle, en institutionel logik som kræver at de bedste og de mest effektive får jobbet, og en ”det er synd for dem”-logik som appellerer til at der gives særbehandling. Når disse logikker støder mod hinanden opstår et ulsruhe dilemma. Uanset hvor meget interviewerne forsøger at tage højde for IO-kandidatrenes særlige behov, kommer udvælgelsesprocessen til at hvile på kriterier som i bund og grund ikke tager det specielle hensyn som er intenderet.
English summary

Background
This PhD project is based on a qualitative study of 41 authentic job interviews with non-native job candidates for both academic and non-academic positions in the public sector in Copenhagen, Denmark. As part of a Danish governmental initiative (the IO project), the job interviews in focus are tailored especially to immigrants and newcomers to Denmark who, according to the governmental description, experience linguistic and cultural difficulties entering the Danish labour market.

Key questions
1. How do successful and unsuccessful candidates communicate in terms of linguistic and cultural resources?
2. To what extent the job panels’ ideologies and stereotypes intervene with the evaluations of job candidates?

Key findings
1. Reclaiming fluency in super-diverse settings
Contrary to what previous research on fluency has found, I argue that fluency is the successful dialogical practice through which the interlocutors are able to negotiate mutual understanding and problems with, for instance, non-standard use of the target language. The success of the practice depends much on the interlocutors’ intention to bring the communication to a satisfactory end: The L2 fluency is dependent on how the interlocutors negotiate, approve of each other’s choices and allow each other to use alternative communicative resources, e.g. verbal and non-verbal signals of comprehension, reformulations, repeats, integration of features associated with other sets of linguistic resources (other languages) etc. Fluency is the jointly produced interactional effort which is about understanding the interlocutor and feeling comfortable about it. An important feature of fluency is cultural fluency by which I term the ability to demonstrate conventionalized knowledge, attitudes and emotions that are expected by and shared with the gatekeeper or the interlocutor-in-charge. Cultural fluency is done situationally and may change in every frame, scenario or activity type. It is interconnected with linguistic fluency though it might function as a more abstract level of fluency that appears just as important as the pure mastering of the mechanics of language.

2. Strategies for successful performance in gatekeeping encounters
Successful applicants in my study are those who possess knowledge and understanding on the one hand of the job interview as an activity type, e.g. timing, recontextualization, mixing discourses, and on the other hand the social relations in it, e.g. balancing between being subservient vs. distant or independent vs. equal. Acting according to Danish cultural norms, e.g. managing an egalitarian relationship and demonstrating independent thinking, is more important than speaking flawless Danish.

Analysis demonstrates also that culture is the eye of the needle in the selection of applicants. Culture is assessed through an ethnocentric perspective in which Danish culture is the norm. Thus, successful applicants are often those who already are integrated into Danish cultural practices. This contradicts the official IO-project description, according to which the project is established with a view to integration of those who could not be integrated in other ways.

3. The double bind of the IO-project
Although the IO initiative is supposed to encourage integration, the whole IO-project design itself generates marginalization. As it often happens in opportunistic projects, however much the IO panels try to make the IO interview different (e.g. by giving the applicants special consideration), it ultimately comes back down to common sense normative ways of judging people. Selecting applicants considered too far away from Danish linguistic and cultural standards challenges the panels and feeds into stereotypes. The IO selection features one classic double bind of all anti-discrimination practices: by categorising groups as separate from the majority in order to prepare for positive action, they inevitably get marginalized. The double-bind of the IO project is a huge inconvenience and in a way a tragedy for both applicants and interviewers. The interviewers are confronted with a triple dilemma: on the first place they have to deal with bureaucratic fairness, on the second place they have to think about professionalism and profit, and on the third place they have to address the IO guiding principle which is supposed to take special consideration to the interviewers.
APPENDIX 1-9
### Appendix 1

#### Table 1.2: Immigrants and descendants by countries of origin, at 1 January 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Immigrants</th>
<th>Descendants</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Proportion of all immigrants and descendants in Denmark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>32,255</td>
<td>24,061</td>
<td>56,316</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>28,234</td>
<td>26,078</td>
<td>54,312</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>21,306</td>
<td>7,958</td>
<td>32,264</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>25,443</td>
<td>7,958</td>
<td>32,401</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>12,012</td>
<td>11,763</td>
<td>23,775</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>12,911</td>
<td>4,310</td>
<td>22,221</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Africa</td>
<td>17,054</td>
<td>4,586</td>
<td>21,640</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>11,159</td>
<td>9,223</td>
<td>20,392</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia (former)</td>
<td>11,021</td>
<td>5,938</td>
<td>16,959</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>16,127</td>
<td>6,704</td>
<td>22,831</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>14,563</td>
<td>1,454</td>
<td>16,017</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asia</td>
<td>11,907</td>
<td>3,509</td>
<td>15,416</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>12,098</td>
<td>3,111</td>
<td>15,259</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>13,233</td>
<td>1,021</td>
<td>15,254</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>8,919</td>
<td>4,959</td>
<td>13,878</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The UK</td>
<td>11,832</td>
<td>1,221</td>
<td>13,053</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>9,966</td>
<td>2,464</td>
<td>12,430</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>6,715</td>
<td>4,088</td>
<td>10,803</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and Central America</td>
<td>5,332</td>
<td>870</td>
<td>6,202</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>5,143</td>
<td>4,691</td>
<td>9,834</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>6,206</td>
<td>1,082</td>
<td>7,288</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>8,771</td>
<td>908</td>
<td>9,679</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>8,849</td>
<td>562</td>
<td>9,411</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Philippines</td>
<td>8,377</td>
<td>930</td>
<td>9,307</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>7,876</td>
<td>1,090</td>
<td>8,966</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other countries</td>
<td>81,884</td>
<td>12,726</td>
<td>94,110</td>
<td>67.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All countries</td>
<td>414,422</td>
<td>123,316</td>
<td>537,738</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Immigration Database of the Ministry of Integration, managed by Statistics Denmark, UMINF02.

#### Table D7: Labour market participation among 16-44-year-old immigrants from the 25 countries of origin with the largest proportions of immigrants in this age group, at 1 January 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Employed</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Outside the labour force</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-Western countries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>16,761</td>
<td>1,351</td>
<td>11,311</td>
<td>29,423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>7,255</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>9,900</td>
<td>17,544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bosnia and Herzegovina</td>
<td>9,014</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>6,381</td>
<td>15,678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>4,399</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>6,628</td>
<td>11,333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>6,084</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>4,452</td>
<td>10,779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia (former)</td>
<td>9,347</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>4,212</td>
<td>9,805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>4,002</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>4,363</td>
<td>9,978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>3,366</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>4,902</td>
<td>8,733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>5,266</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>2,418</td>
<td>7,936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>4,574</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2,972</td>
<td>7,546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>4,548</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>3,123</td>
<td>7,997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>4,991</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>2,846</td>
<td>7,972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Philippines</td>
<td>3,217</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>3,193</td>
<td>6,491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>4,201</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>1,088</td>
<td>5,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>3,956</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1,715</td>
<td>5,667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>2,341</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>2,049</td>
<td>4,551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2,380</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1,945</td>
<td>4,376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western countries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>94,928</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>6,476</td>
<td>101,632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>82,389</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>6,216</td>
<td>141,993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>6,729</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>4,288</td>
<td>11,112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>7,248</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>3,381</td>
<td>10,855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The UK</td>
<td>6,803</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>2,089</td>
<td>9,022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>3,364</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>2,490</td>
<td>5,960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>2,624</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2,570</td>
<td>5,248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>3,373</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>998</td>
<td>4,408</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Immigration Database of the Ministry of Integration, managed by Statistics Denmark, UMINF02.
Appendix 2

Transcription:

( . ) untimed brief pause
(4.0) pause of 4.0 seconds
<hello> overlap in the middle of so. else’s turn (rough edition)
[hello overlap (finer edition, e.g., for marking overlaps in words
HELLO emphasis
°hello quiet voice
he: llo sounds stretch
($) institutional voice
hello; rising intonation
hello; falling intonation
hh ex- or inhalation
xxx incomprehensible word or phrase
{{lit: hello}} explanation
[?hello?] uncertainty about a word/phrase, best guess
[*?mjallo?] uncertainty about non-standard/non-existing word, best guess
*do you have it easy with* literal translation from Danish
Appendix 3

Examples of ungrammatical translations from Danish to English

1. Definite and indefinite articles

English has natural gender whereas Danish has grammatical gender. There are consequently two indefinite articles in Danish: neuter gender (et) and common gender (en) and both of them correspond to the English a(n). Mixing up or omitting articles is a common place way for L2 speakers to deviate from standard Danish. Excessive use of the indefinite article (i.e. instead of omitting it) is also common. For example, the standard Danish for “job as a secretary” is “job som sekretær” (no article). So when applicants in the data say “job som *en sekretær” (with excessive use of the article) it becomes standard in English if translated directly. In this particular case I need to change the English translation to obtain some (similar) level of non-standardness. One way to do it is to omit the article in English but I think a better way is to translate “a” as “one” (because this is how it sounds in Danish), so “job som en sekretær” becomes “job as one secretary”.

In a similar vein, if the definite article is omitted in Danish (where the standard form requires an article), it is also omitted in the English translation: e.g.: Jeg kender job (instead of “jobbet”, def.) – I know job (instead of “the job”).

2. Declension of adjectives and nouns

Adjectives and nouns in Danish agree in both gender (common or neuter) and number (singular or plural). For example, instead of saying “jobbet er nyt for mig” (the job is new to me), one applicant said “jobbet er *ny”, thus using “ny” in common gender instead of neuter. Clearly, this type of deviation is untranslatable into English because there are no gender declensions in English. In such cases I have omitted the auxiliary verb in the English translation “the job new to me”, because the sentence is fully comprehensible but has the non-standard features characteristic for L2 speech (just like the Danish original).

3. Word order

Word order in Danish sentences is relatively fixed. There are two things to keep an eye on: first, Danish is a V2 language, and second, the adverb in main clauses and subordinate clauses takes different positions. For example, a very common deviation from standard Danish are utterances of the type: *selvfølgelig jeg har været der instead of the standard “inverted” (i.e. V2) selvfølgelig har jeg været der (literally: of course have I been there). Again, due to the lack of inversion of that type in English, it is not possible to show what the exact problem in Danish is. Therefore I have
chosen to invert the English translation instead (although I have been careful not to break the SVO structure completely as it would create even greater misunderstandings).

4. Use of English words in the Danish sentences
Many applicants borrow English words and phrases (usually professional terminology) if they are uncertain of the exact Danish equivalent. In such cases I have preserved the English word or phrase and highlighted it in the transcription to show that the applicant uses English together with Danish (See for example Domingo in chapter 4).

5. Idioms
Idioms are translated as idioms unless they create misunderstandings. In an excerpt in Two Case Studies one applicant does not know the meaning of the idiom “har du let ved” (literally: *do you have it easy with*) and asks for a reformulation. In these cases, to understand the turn and the following repair, I need to make a literal translation into English which I mark with stars at both ends (*....*)

6. Non-existent words
Few applicants provide non-standard suffixes that make the words fully comprehensible although non-existent in Danish, e.g. *begyndsigelse* instead of begyndelse (beginning). I have translated *begyndsigelse* as *beginness.*
## Appendix 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Pseudonym, Age</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Years in DK</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handyman 1</td>
<td>Domingo, 35</td>
<td>South American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mohammed, 42</td>
<td>Middle Eastern</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ayoub, 54</td>
<td>Middle Eastern</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>BL-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mindaugas, 32</td>
<td>Eastern European</td>
<td>½</td>
<td>School 10th grade</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Petrek, 39</td>
<td>Eastern European</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help-desk secretary</td>
<td>Hannah, 38</td>
<td>Western European</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Assistant pharmacist</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arbella, 41</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Receptionist from DK</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment assistant</td>
<td>Rahiza, 38</td>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>BA, Administration</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>IT courses in DK</td>
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Appendix 5

Testing monologic fluency:
Are successful job candidates those with the largest vocabulary in Danish?
FRQ is a CLAN program (MacWhinney 1995) which provides frequency circuits of, for instance, vocabulary in given files. It can be used for measuring lexical diversity. The program constructs a frequency word count for user-specified files. MacWhinney defines a frequency word count as “the calculation of the number of times a word, as delimited by a punctuation set, occurs in a file or a set of files” (MacWhinney 1995:200). The program generates a list of all words used in a file, together with their frequency counts. The program can also calculate a type-token ratio (TTR), which is the total number of unique words used by a selected speaker (or speakers) and dividing that number by the total number of words used by the same speaker(s). McWhinney points out that the TTR should be used primarily for comparison of equivalent sized samples, as the increase in the number of types will be influenced by the sample size itself.

A selection of a sample looks like this:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>freq</th>
<th>1*JAV +o +f</th>
<th>32</th>
<th>3 godt</th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Wed Oct 27 15:40:47 2010</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3 hvad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>freq (19-Sep-2010) is conducting analyses on:</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3 lavet</td>
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<td>ONLY speaker main tiers matching: *JAV;</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3 lidt</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>****</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>3 mange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>46 mm</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3 tak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>42 jeg</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3 var</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>34 ja</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3 vil</td>
</tr>
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<td>10</td>
<td>24 øh</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3 været</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>20 har</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>3 år</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>16 det</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2 Adam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>14 med</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2 Erik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>13 er</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>2 aldrig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>12 ikke</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2 alene</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>12 og</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2 at</td>
</tr>
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<td>9 arbejde</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2 de</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>9 der</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2 den</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>9 nej</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2 for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>9 okay</td>
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</tr>
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<td>22</td>
<td>8 meget</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2 få</td>
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<td>4 hh</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

(continues…….)
From this sample we are able to read that speaker abbreviated as JAV has used the word type “mm” 46 times, followed by 42 times of “jeg” (I) etc. This speaker’s total number of different word types is 146, including derivatives and grammatical forms that count as two different word types, e.g., lærer (learn, present tense), lært (learnt, perfect tense). The total number of words and tokens JAV has used in the interview is 491, which gives a TTR of 29.7%. Put very simple, the more types there are in comparison to the number of tokens, the more varied the vocabulary, i.e. it there is greater lexical variety. A high TTR indicates a large amount of lexical variation while a low TTR indicates relatively little lexical variation.

Another way of indicating proficiency in vocabulary and speech flow is by computing the mean length of each turn (MLT). The MLT program in CLAN computes the mean number of utterances in each turn, the mean number of words per utterance and the mean number of words per turn for each speaker. Roughly, CLAN counts a new utterance every time a speaker speaks. Consider the example below:

1. COM: was it [the same group
2. HAM: [yeah
3. COM: or were they different

Example. Utterances vs. turns

In the example COM takes only one turn (line 1 and 3) which HAM overlaps by giving minimal response in line. However, COM produces two utterances, interrupted by HAM’s response.
## Appendix 6

### List of formulae

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<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>RUBEN</strong></th>
<th><strong>DOMINGO</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. det er rigtig svært (it’s very difficult)</td>
<td>1. Det synes jeg også (That’s also what I mean)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. jeg er træt af chokolade (I’m tired of chocolate)</td>
<td>2. Jeg er lidt nervøs (I’m a bit nervous)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. helt sikkert (for sure)</td>
<td>3. Det er en aftale (That’s a deal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ja, præcis (yeah, exactly)</td>
<td>4. Det tror jeg (I believe so)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. hårdt arbejde (hard work)</td>
<td>5. Det er rigtigt (That’s right)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ikke nogen problem (no problem)</td>
<td>6. Det er perfekt (That’s perfect)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. den er god (that was a good one)</td>
<td>7. Kaffe er godt, meget fint (Coffee’s good, very nice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. jeg kan godt lide grill (I like barbecue)</td>
<td>8. Jeg håber det er mig (I hope it’s me)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. næh dejligt (wow nice)</td>
<td>9. Hvad tænker du (What do you mean /idiomatic in Danish/)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. jeg elsker *hest (I love *horse)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Det er spændende (that’s exciting)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. traditioner det er dejligt (traditions- that’s nice)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. det er god træning (that’s good workout)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. det var en dejlig samtale (that was a pleasant conversation)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. det er helt i orden (that’s just fine)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. helt vidt forfærdeligt (simply horrible)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. vildt irriterende hele tiden (terribly annoying all the time)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Formulaic polylanguaging (features of Danish and English)**

| 1. practice meget svært ha ha | 1. practice meget svært ha ha |
| 2. read the grammar og snakker | 2. read the grammar og snakker |
| 3. opportunity for three år | 3. opportunity for three år |
Interview with Arabella in Danish

62. Arabella: hej
63. AU Chef: hej xxx
64. Arabella: hej #
65. AU MED1: MED1
66. Marta: Marta xxx
67. AU MED2: dav jeg hedder MED2
68. Arabella: ja hej ja
69. AU .IT: .IT velkommen til <Arabella: hej>
70. AU Chef: vil du sidde her
71. Arabella: ja xxx #
72. AU Chef: vil du have en kop kaffe eller te eller vand
73. Arabella: nej tak vand
74. AU Chef: vand du får vand værsgod #
75. AU MED1: Marta vil du have en kop kaffe
76. Marta: ja meget gerne tak #
77. AU Chef: det var dejligt du ku komme <Arabella: xxx>
78. Arabella: ja okay tak
79. AU Chef: vil du ha mælk på også
80. Marta: jeg er en som ikke har noget med job samtalen at gøre <Arabella: nej okay> men jeg vil meget gerne optager dig for forskning det bliver et stort projekt hvis du gerne vil selvfølgelig
81. Arabella: ja det er helt fint
82. Marta: okay tusind tak <Arabella: fint>
83. AU Chef: det var det MED1 skrev øh i sin en mail om <Arabella: ja> det er Marta <Arabella: mmh> der er med fra Københavns Universitet
84. Arabella: ah okay
85. Marta: ja så <AU Chef: ja>
86. AU Chef: ja jeg fortæller <Marta: xxx> dig lige lidt om hvem vi er
87. Arabella: ja
88. AU Chef: hvem der sidder her
89. Arabella: ja
90. AU Chef: men denne her gang der skal vi være enige om at du skal endelig sige til hvis jeg siger noget du ikke forstår
91. Arabella: ja
92. AU Chef: fordi det ka jeg godt finde på at sige noget af det jeg plejer <Arabella: mmh> som du ikke kender fordi du ikke kender min plejer
93. Arabella: ja
94. AU Chef: så skal du sige det til mig så siger jeg noget andet i stedet for jeg skal også nok <Arabella: det skal> jeg skal også sige til dig hvis jeg ikke kan forstå hvad du siger sådan så vi er sikre på vi forstår hinanden <Arabella: ja det forstår jeg> ja lige præcis det er rigtig vigtig ikke
95. Arabella: mmh <AU Chef: det er godt> ja
AU Chef: det her det er børne_ og ungdoms_forvaltningen i Københavns kommune

AU Chef: vi har med skoler at gøre

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: jeg har med mange institutions_ledere og skole_ledere at gøre altså skole_inspektøren på skolerne og de institutions_ledere ude i børne_haverne der bestemmer ude i børne_haverne

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: dem arbejder vi med her dem sørger vi herinde for at hjælpe med det de ikke kan ude i børne_haverne og de ikke kan ude i skolerne MED3 han har været ansat her i Københavns kommune () i hundrede år og en madpakke <AU MED3: ja> han har været ansat her i fyrre år

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: <AU MED3: ja> rigtig mange år

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: og MED3 han sidder og laver nogle forskellige sekretariats_opgaver og mange telefoner <Arabella: ja> for de mennesker ude på institutionerne og skolerne

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: øh som ringer ind blandt andet <AU MED3: mmh> det er en af af MED3es vigtigste opgaver nærmest det er at tale med institutions_ledere og skole_ledere

Arabella: ja okay <AU Chef: i telefon> mmh mmh

AU Chef: han har været her i mange år

AU MED3: mmh

AU Chef: MED1 har ikke været her i så mange år hun har været her en måned

AU MED1: to

AU Chef: to undskyld

AU MED1: to måneder

AU MED1: ja <Arabella: okay>

AU Chef: MED1 laver alt det der hedder H_R human ressource_arbejde <Arabella: ja> i det hele taget øh her i afdelingen også for institutioner og skoler

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: .IT han har været her lidt over et år

AU JT: halvandet år cirka

AU Chef: halvandet år <Arabella: halvandet år> <Arabella: mmh> har han været her han laver han hjælper institutionerne og skolerne med alt det med bygninger og økonomi og

AU JT: drifter ja

AU Chef: alt hvad der kan være sådan de sidder og tænker hvor får man det der fra og hvor kan man hente noget om bleer hvor må man købe møbler og # er mit budget rigtig og alle sådan nogle ting det sidder .IT og laver sammen med en anden kollega

Arabella: ja okay

AU Chef: jeg er chef for det hele her

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: jeg er chef for alle dem der her sidder her () og alle dem der er ude på gangen <Arabella: ja> og for alle institutions_ og skoleLedere (1.0) og det er til mig () jeg har brug for en der kan hjælpe mig i hverdagen

Arabella: mmh mmh

Gæst: undskyld <AU Chef: så>

AU Chef: så hvis det er dig der skal arbejde her hos os

AU Chef: så skal du være min sekretær kan man sige

Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: min hjælper
Arabella: mmh mmh <AU Chef: til>
AU Chef: når jeg skal holde møder sådan nogle møder her og søge for der kommer kaffe og te på bordet og vand og så videre
Arabella: ja okay
AU Chef: øh indkald på mail på eh øh den elektroniske mail <Arabella: mmh>
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: til institutioner_liderne og skole_liderne når der er møder sende dags_ordener ud eller sådan tage imod besked når de mailer ind eller ringer ind
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: øhm det kunne være nogle af opgaverne rigtig mange alt sådan noget der drejer sig omkring hvad jeg laver her og hvad hvad jeg skal lave og MED3 i øvrigt MED3 er en daglig samarbejds_partner i alt det her fordi man du er ik alene der er også MED3
Arabella: ja
AU Chef: øh MED3 han har også en rolle han har bare nogle andre ting han laver ud over det
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: som du altid kan få at vide ved lejlighed hvis det bliver hvis det bliver dig der skal arbejde her ikke
Arabella: ja okay
AU Chef: men ellers så vil du være en tæt samarbejds_partner med MED3 #
Arabella: mmh det er godt
AU MED3: ja
AU Chef: det var lige for at give dig sådan et billede af hvad det er <Arabella: ja mmh> for et job så tænkte vi så ku det være rart at vide for dig hvad hvad vil du allerhelst lave og hvad er du god til
Arabella: jeg er god til administration
AU Chef: ja
Arabella: jeg s skriver det kan godt være det er lidt svært med dansk sprog <AU Chef: ja ja> men jeg er god til at lære
AU Chef: mmh <Arabella: mmh>
Arabella: og mmh jeg jeg er også god til internet hvordan man bruger og så hvad hedder det det øhm øhm xxx word
AU Chef: ja
Arabella: alle det der xxx <AU Chef: xxx microsoft pakken> mikrosoft [pron=dansk] pakke
AU Chef: ja ja <Arabella: ja>
Arabella: det er jeg også øhm der er andre ting jeg lærer hurtigt det det ikke fordi måske jeg mangler rutine eller hvordan det I plejer at lave her men øh det kan jeg godt <AU Chef: xxx> ja
AU Chef: mmh mmh
Arabella: det kan jeg godt lære [-pron=læge] mmh <AU Chef: mmh>
AU Chef: har du haft sådan noget arbejde her før
Arabella: nej ikke <AU Chef: nej> kommune <AU Chef: ik på s> nej nej <AU Chef: nej> men jeg har arbejdet på en på et rejsebureau
AU Chef: ja
Arabella: ja som job øh hvad hedder det rejse_konsulent
AU Chef: mmh mmh
Arabella: ja rejse_bureau bounty club som arrangerer [pron=arranGerer] øh golf_rejser i udlandet [pron=ulandet]
AU Chef: okay som ligger her i Danmark
Arabella: ja
AU Chef: ja okay
Arabella: mmh
AU Chef: mmh mmh spændende <Arabella: mmh>
Arabella: ja så jeg har også arbejder på hotel øh [navn]_hotel men ikke langt tid
AU Chef: nej
Arabella: være det var ligesom prak praktik ikke
AU Chef: mmh mmh
Arabella: mmh så
AU Chef: men denne her stilling den er jo sådan lidt særlig stilling
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: det tænker jeg MED1 lige skal fortælle dig lidt om så du er sikker på
Arabella: ja
AU Chef: ja
AU MED1: ja
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU MED1: altså det første år
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU MED1: øh får du fir's procent
Arabella: ja okay
AU MED1: af af start_lønnen <Arabella: mmh mmh> og det har jeg regnet mig frem til svarer til godt og vel femten tusinde kroner om måneden
Arabella: ja okay <AU MED1: ja> aha
AU MED1: så har du så også tyve procent af din arbejdskan bruges på udvikling af dig <Arabella: ja ja> <Arabella: mmh> hvor vi skal tale om hvis det bliver dig hvad er det du har brug for
Arabella: ja okay <AU MED1: øh>
AU MED1: at at udvikle for at kunne komme fuldt og helt ind på det danske <Arabella: mmh mmh> arbejds_marked
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU MED1: øh det er også sådan så det vil være nogen øhm øh net værk med med de andre der er blevet ansat i integrations_stillinger
Arabella: ja ja
AU MED1: så øhm der vil være nogle netværks_møder du vil få en mentor øh <Arabella: mmh mmh>
som som tager sig af dig og kan svarer på alle dine spørgsmål alle vi andre vil også meget gerne svarer <AU Chef: mmh> men vi er her jo allesammen men der er en bestemt som som som du øhm har <Arabella: mmh> fast tilknytning til øhm i de her netværks øhm sammenhænge vil du også lære noget mere om dansk kultur øhm hvorfor vi gør som vi gør og <Arabella: mmh mmh> griner når vi griner og
Arabella: ja ja
AU MED1: siger som vi siger [latter]
Arabella: det har jeg lært lidt om det <AU MED1: ja> jeg har også en øh danske mand
AU MED1: ja <Arabella: han er> men det kan være svært
Arabella: ja det er jo det <AU MED1: øh ja> [griner]
AU MED1: ja
Arabella: ja
AU MED1: så øh så så hvis det bliver dig skal vi også tale om jamen hvad hvad er det du har behov for at lære mere <Arabella: ja> hvordan kan vi hjælpe dig bedst muligt
Ara bella: mmh det lyder spændende mmh mmh <AU MED1: ja> ja og det der med firs procent i løn de jeg synes det er godt fordi jeg er på a_kasse nu jeg får øh dag_penge så

AU MED1: ja

Ara bella: det det er okay <AU MED1: ja> jeg vil gerne også gå på arbejde igen og

AU MED1: ja

Ara bella: mmh

AU Chef: efter et år så får du også lidt mere i løn <Arabella: ja så får jeg også>

Ara bella: ja som <AU Chef: fast> de andre <AU Chef: ja lige præcis> ja <AU MED1: xxx>

AU Chef: det er en fast stilling ikke der er bare <AU MED1: ja> sat et år af til du kan <Arabella: mmh> få noget tid i arbejdet til at gå på sprog_skole <Arabella: ja> hvis det er det du har brug for <Arabella: ja mmh> eller noget andet øh kursus du gerne vil have <Arabella: ja> vi har i kommunen ikke

Ara bella: jeg er stadigvæk mangler noget med sproget eller <AU Chef: ja> så det <AU Chef: selvfølgelig> det er helt normalt

AU Chef: ja <AU MED1: mmh> selvfølgelig <AU MED1: ja> er det det

Ara bella: mmh

AU Chef: det er godt vi vil bare <Arabella: xxx> være sikre på du ved <Arabella: ja> hvad det var øh he helt altså sådan <Arabella: ja> i detaljer hvad det er du går ind til <Arabella: jeg har læst>

Ara bella: på annoncen ja så det <AU Chef: det er godt> ja

AU Chef: det er fint nok

Ara bella: det vidste jeg godt det var det ja

AU Chef: ja <AU MED1: ja>

Ara bella: mmh

AU MED1: jeg tænkte på kan du fortælle os lidt om dig selv hvad øhm hvad hvad laver du <Arabella: ssss> når du ikke arbejder eller hvad hvad ja ja hvad hvad

Ara bella: jeg kan godt lide læse

AU MED1: ja

Ara bella: og øhm jeg elsker også motion ja gymnastik hjemme <AU MED1: mmh> og jeg ser også fjernsyn nyheder (udtales nuheler) og dokumentar så mange ting <AU MED1: ja> jeg kan også lide øh møde med vennerne og griner lidt

AU MED1: ja

Ara bella: ja og gå på biografen ja og sådan noget <AU MED1: ja> der er mange ting og øh <AU MED1: ja> jeg går også meget i kirke

AU MED1: ja <Arabella: [stønner] >

Ara bella: om søndage

AU MED1: ja

Ara bella: mmh

AU Chef: mmh mmh

AU MED1: <Arabella: det> så du er et udadvendt menneske

Ara bella: ja

AU MED1: ja

Ara bella: mmh

AU MED1: det er også vigtig i den her stilling <Arabella: ja> fordi det er sådan en service_betonet stilling

Ara bella: ja okay

AU MED1: ja

Ara bella: mmh mmh det er jeg

AU MED1: mmh
242. AU Chef: du har snakket <Arabella: mmh> med mange <Arabella: ja> mennesker rigtig mange mennesker
243. Arabella: mmh
244. AU Chef: som ringer ikke <Arabella: ja> som kommer her i huset
245. Arabella: ja
246. AU Chef: og spørger om mange ting og skal hjælpes lidt
247. Arabella: ja <AU Chef: ja>
248. AU Chef: nogle gange kan man godt synes det er nogen lidt dumme spørgsmål
249. Arabella: ja
250. AU Chef: men det er der ikke noget at gøre ved
251. Arabella: ja okay <AU Chef: vi>
252. AU Chef: vi vil svere dem <Arabella: ja> pænt allesammen
253. Arabella: mmh mmh <AU Chef: ja>
254. AU Chef: ja
255. Arabella: ja det tror jeg kan godt arbejde med det der
256. AU Chef: ja <Arabella: xxx> ja okay <Arabella: mmh>
257. Arabella: mmh
258. AU Chef: er der noget andet du synes vi skal vide om dig #
259. Arabella: kun hvis de spurgte
260. AU Chef: ja
261. Arabella: ja
262. AU Chef: ja
263. Arabella: mmh mmh
264. AU Chef: hvor s altså men du har arbejdet på den der på det der rejse_bureau
265. Arabella: ja
266. AU Chef: hvad s hvad så du så var eller hvad hvad synes du var det sværeste ved at arbejde i Danmark hvad var det der var sværest for dig
267. Arabella: ja første gang det var lidt svært fordi de de skulle lære mig at kende
268. AU Chef: ja
269. Arabella: ja [mumler] og så nogle gange folk er bange for dem der kommer og uden fra lande eller sådan noget men det var ikke så ss- det førs- det første uge det var jeg kunne sige det det var lidt hvad hedder det de ville ikke snakke så meget med mig eller sådan noget
270. AU Chef: mmh
271. Arabella: men de bliver ikke længe fordi øh jeg jeg kunne godt grine med dem og høre hvad de siger og lave et lidt kommentar [pron=kommAntar] og hvad de så de kunne sige også jeg jeg ville gerne gå ind i deres øh gruppe
272. AU Chef: ja
273. Arabella: så men bagefter en uge efter det var allesammen mine venner og
274. AU Chef: okay <Arabella: xxx> okay
275. Arabella: mmh mmh jeg har ikke problemer i dag
276. AU Chef: mej
277. Arabella: mmh og jeg kan godt lide smile og drik-øh grine også snakke med folk og
278. AU Chef: ja
279. Arabella: være ene konversation eh
280. AU Chef: så du synes <Arabella: xxx> egentlig ikke det er svært
281. Arabella: mej
282. AU Chef: mej <Arabella: xxx>
Arabella: det kommer an på hvordan man er som person
AU Chef: ja
Arabella: ja mmh
AU Chef: men er du den der sådan tager initiativet hvis du synes der er en gruppe der <Arabella: ja> er lidt reserveret over for dig eller hvad det kunne være
Arabella: ja jeg synes man skal vise hvem man er
AU Chef: ja
Arabella: ja ikke være bange eller det (udtales: de) det er også normale at man tænker og ham ham eller hende der kan ikke turde snakke med en øh med med hende eller xxxx hvis du viser jo også du er interesseret xxx være ind i gruppen så det det er helt okay
AU Chef: ja
Arabella: det det er ligemeget hvor du kommer fra eller hvad er din religion eller også ja
AU Chef: mmh
Arabella: mmh
AU Chef: vi har også mange medarbejdere her i huset <Arabella: ja> som har forskellige baggrunde
Arabella: ja
AU Chef: jeg tror mmh hvad en tredjedel
AU MED1: mmh
AU Chef: tror jeg <AU MED1: der er mange i hvert fald> ja i hu har i huset her som er ny_danskere <Arabella: ja> eller hvad pokker <Arabella: ja> man skulle kalde <Arabella: ja> det for
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: det virker efterhånden forkert at kalde dem anden etnisk <Arabella: ja [griner] altså
AU MED1: ja
AU Chef: ja <Arabella: ja>
Arabella: mmh
AU Chef: så så det det er heller ikke et problem
Arabella: nej <AU Chef: på nogen måde> mmh
AU Chef: der er ikke nogen der er forskrækket over <Arabella: nej> en anden religion eller en anden hud_farve eller
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: eller noget som helst det er der ikke
Arabella: ja det <AU Chef: mmh> det tror jeg også
AU Chef: har du noget du vil spørge os om
Arabella: ja mmh hvor mange øh mennesker der arbejder her altså
AU Chef: her i lige her på denne her etage <Arabella: ja> det er administrationen
Arabella: det er kun administrationen <AU Chef: det er>
AU Chef: kun administrationen <Arabella: mmh> og der sidder vi en sytten atten stykker <AU .IT: ja>
Arabella: mmh
AU Chef: lige her nede under
Arabella: ja
AU Chef: der sidder sunheds_plejeskerne dem der går ud i hjemmene og hjælper med de små ny_fødte børn
Arabella: mmh mmh
AU Chef: det er jo sådan en service der er til alle mødre i Danmark der føder små børn
Arabella: ja
AU Chef: <Arabella: ja> så kan man <Arabella: mmh mmh> få et besøg af sunheds_plejersken man skal ikke man kan
Arabella: ja

AU Chef: dem har vi siddende her nede de er en fem og tyve tredive fem og tyve tror jeg tyve fem og tyve stykker

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: <Arabella: okay> sundheds_plejersker de har deres egen chef som hedder Inge <Arabella: mmh> så sidder også det der hedder [navn] P_P_R pædagogisk psykologisk rådgivning det er til skole_børn primært <Arabella: ja> også til mindre børn men primært til skole_børn

Arabella: ja okay

AU Chef: så der er en an et antal psykologer de sidder her nede også

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: har de hver sådan to delt du ved huset er delt i to så sidder de i hver sin side

Arabella: ja okay

AU Chef: og der sidder psykologerne <Arabella: ja> nede med deres chef der er også nogle tale_pædagoger og sådan nogle der hjælper børnene i skolen med øh hvis de har A_D_H_D damp_børn eller de er autister eller

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: den type børn <Arabella: mmh mmh> xxx så hjælper de dem med det de hjælper dem også hvis de har svært ved at øh hvis de har nogle øh en defekt på deres sprog en med_født defekt måske <Arabella: mmh> så hjælper de med det de sidder her og så har vi hundrede institutioner og skoler som ligger her på [navn distrikt]

Arabella: ja okay

AU Chef: og det er dem der er vores samarbejds_partnere dagligt ik

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: mmh mmh

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: så vi er ikke så mange her øh <Arabella: nej> <Arabella: mmh mmh> der er rigtig mange ude

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: og det er jo dem der så ringer eller kommer herop eller vi holder møder med eller hvad det nu kunne være ik

Arabella: mmh # er distrikt også på øh dele de der øh Københavns kommune

AU Chef: det er det

Arabella: ja okay

AU Chef: der bor cirka godt og vel tres tusinde borgere jeg tror det er to og tres tusinde borgere

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: her på [navn distrikt] <Arabella: mmh> og det er jo alle de familiers børn <Arabella: ja okay> vi primært har <Arabella: mmh> i institutionerne og i skolerne ikke

Arabella: ja okay <AU Chef: ja>

AU Chef: og der er otte distriker i København

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: Københavns kommune har er en stor kommune ik

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: og så er [navn distrikt] et af dem

Arabella: mmh

AU Chef: mmh

Arabella: spændende

AU Chef: ja
Arabella: mmh

AU Chef: det er det der er også masser af <Arabella: ja> spændende ting at lære og sådan noget <Arabella: ja> det jeg tror det er et rigtig godt sted <Arabella: mmh> at komme ind og <Arabella: ja> arbejde også

Arabella: det vil jeg meget gerne <AU Chef: for en person som dig>

AU Chef: som er ny i Danmark og sådan skal se noget nyt ik det tror jeg faktisk <Arabella: ja ja> er rigtig godt ja <Arabella: mmh mmh> så

Arabella: tak mmh mmh

AU Chef: men vi skal snakke med tre i dag

Arabella: ja okay

AU Chef: som vi har vi har inviteret fem og der var to af dem der var så heldige at have fået noget andet arbejde <Arabella: mmh mmh> så er valgt fra så vi skal snakke med tre i dag

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: og vi tror da nok alle tre at vi finder en blandt de tre eller alle fire her at vi finder en
<Arabella: ja> blandt de tre som vi rigtig gerne vil pege på til at starte hos os det finder vi ud af i efter_middag så du får besked i efter_middag om det bliver dig eller ej

Arabella: ja

AU Chef: ikke

Arabella: mmh mmh

AU Chef: men vi skal selvfølgelig lige spørge dig hvornår du vil s kan starte eller vil starte eller har mulighed for at starte

Arabella: ja det er ligemeget hvornår

AU Chef: så det kunne blive <Arabella: jeg skal> den første september <Arabella: ja> ok

Arabella: mmh <AU Chef: ja> meget gerne

AU Chef: ja

AU Chef: ja

Arabella: mmh

AU Chef: ja det vil vi også meget gerne <Arabella: ja [griner] > så hurtigt som muligt det er klart <Arabella: ja> det bedste for os alene sammen <Arabella: ja>

Arabella: jeg har været hjemme hele året så

AU Chef: ja

Arabella: det er ikke sundt

AU Chef: nej <Arabella: [griner] > <AU .IT: nej> du vil gerne i gang

Arabella: ja mmh mmh <AU Chef: ja>

AU Chef: hvordan er det du har ikke har du små børn eller hvordan er det

Arabella: nej det er jeg har voksen børn <AU Chef: du har voksen> ja <AU Chef: børn>

AU Chef: <Arabella: mmh> du ser bare så ung ud <AU MED1: ja> så jeg tænkte xxx <Arabella: ja>

AU MED1: det kan jo ikke lade sig gøre

Arabella: ja <AU Chef: ja> det er godt nok

AU Chef: det er fint nok sådan <Arabella: tak for det>

AU Chef: så der er ikke nogen problemer med <Arabella: nej> <Arabella: nej> med det nej

Arabella: nej

AU Chef: fint nok

Arabella: mmh

AU Chef: så skal vi ikke sige hvis ikke du har <Arabella: ja> nogen spørgsmål så øh i jeg ved ikke om i har <Arabella: ja> <Arabella: xxx> nogen spørgsmål jeg synes vi har fået et meget

AU .IT: ja du har også fortalt <AU Chef: godt billede af dig> omkring E_D_B

AU Chef: ja <Arabella: ja>
AU .IT: du er rimelig god til E_D_B og <AU Chef: ja>
Arabella: ja <AU .IT: xxx> <AU .IT: ja> ja hvis der er noget jeg ikke ved så du kan lære det <AU Chef: ja>
AU .IT: eller xxx <Arabella: xxx> ja [griner]
AU Chef: det skal nok xxx .IT han er <Arabella: ja> .IT <AU .IT: ja> han er nørd <AU: ja>
AU .IT: <AU: [griner] > E_D_B_nørd ja
AU Chef: en sød nørd ja
Arabella: tak [griner] tak .IT [griner]
AU .IT: det var så lidt ja
AU Chef: så der skal du nok få god hjælp af ham <AU .IT: ja> hvis det er <Arabella: ja ja> men vi tales
som sagt ved i efter_middag
Arabella: ja
AU Chef: og så finder vi ud af det ikke
Arabella: okay tak for i dag
AU Chef: ja og tak fordi <AU MED1: selv tak> du kom
AU MED1: du nåede ikke at drikke så meget af dit vand vil du have lidt inden du går
Arabella: ja xxx [griner] xxx det er okay
AU Chef: ja ja sådan er det jo
Marta: jeg kommer lige ud med dig <Arabella: ja okay> xxx <AU .IT: ja>
AU .IT: hej hej
Arabella: hej hej
AU MED1: ja
Arabella: hej hej MED1 <AU MED1: hej igen>
AU .IT: hej hej
Appendix 7b

Interview with Hannah in Danish

81. Marta: hej jeg hedder Marta
82. Hannah: ja hej Hannah [griner] [griner] der er mange #
83. AU Chef: ja du har jo læst Ma at Marta hun kommer fra Københavns Universitet og laver det her
84. Hannah: ja ja det har jeg ja det har jeg ikke <AU Kvinde: det var godt>
85. AU Chef: det er derfor mar <Marta: er det fint at jeg er her og>
86. Hannah: ja er ok med det
87. Marta: det var godt
88. Hannah: ja [griner]
89. AU MED1: ja hej <Hannah: hej> jeg hedder MED1
90. Hannah: Hannah
91. Marta: jeg tror jeg er kommet til at lægge min kuglepen et eller andet mærkeligt sted
92. Hannah: [fniser] <Marta: xxx>
93. Marta: tusind tak
94. Hannah: [griner]
95. AU Chef: årh briller det var det jeg gik efter
96. Hannah: xxx
97. AU Chef: xxx mine briller det tog tid nå
98. Hannah: hov
99. AU MED3: hov
100. Hannah: [griner] en mere
101. AU Kvinde: he nu xxx vi <Hannah: [griner] > nu kommer der vel heller ikke flere <Hannah: nej>
102. Hannah: Hannah <MED3: xxx>
103. AU Kvinde: ja
104. Hannah: [griner]
105. AU Chef: der kommer ikke flere
106. Hannah: okay
107. AU Chef: blev du overrasket over vi var så mange
108. AU Chef: værsgod blev du overrasket over at vi var så mange <Hannah: ja ja>
109. Hannah: ja jeg er lidt [griner] <AU Chef: ja ja ok ja>
110. AU Chef: arh men det er ikke så slemt du skal ikke være nervøs <Hannah: okay> nu skal jeg jo lige fortælle dig hvem det er der sidder omkring men tak for din ansøgning
111. Hannah: ja det var så lidt <AU Chef: tak fordi du ville komme>
112. AU Chef: det var dejligt
113. Hannah: ja
114. AU Chef: øh jeg vil lige fortælle dig hvem det er der sidder rundt om bordet og lige lidt om øh hvad det er for et arbejde sådan i overskrifter vi synes det står meget godt i i stillings_opslaget
115. Hannah: ja xxx <AU Chef: øh>
116. AU Chef: og så vil vi selvfølgelig <Hannah: xxx> rigtig godt rigtig gerne høre noget om dig men vil også lige <Hannah: ja> fortælle lidt mere om stillingens konstruktion altså den der med lønnen og de tyve procent og så noget
117. Hannah: ja
AU Chef: så vi er helt sikre på det i 
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: vi har øhm du skal huske at sige til mig hvis jeg siger noget du ikke kan forstå hvis jeg bruger nogle forkortelser eller nogle ord fordi jeg er vant til at skal sidde og fortælle det her til rigtig
Hannah: ja mange mennesker så skal du endelig sige til
AU Chef: ja selvfølgelig
AU Chef: så du så vi er helt sikre på vi forstår hinanden ikke
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: det bliver jeg hverken sur eller fornærmet over
Hannah: [griner] så kører jeg <AU MED1: godt>
AU Chef: ja men nu har du lige xxx introduceret til Marta så hende springer vi let og elefant henover
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: han har nogle opgaver der i i i høj grad ligner nogle af de opgaver som vi søger en medarbejder til at gøre så det vil sige han bliver egentlig en tæt kollega
Hannah: okay <AU Chef: i hverdagen> okay
AU Chef: og det skal du ikke være ked af for han er såmænd god nok
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: så det var MED3
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: MED1 som i har mailet lidt sammen og du har fået noget korrespondance <Hannah: ja> fra MED1
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: fordi MED1 tager sig af alt det med H_R og ansættelser og afskedigelser og sådan noget her i distriktet har kun været her et par måneder
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: men hun er en rigtig god kollega også som jeg <Hannah: ja [griner] > er rigtig glade for at have hende her så hun er <AU MED1: jeg kan godt> hun er ny <AU MED1: xxx>
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: jeg kan godt lide at være her
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: ja
Hannah: okay ja det var godt [AU Chef og Hannah griner]
AU Chef: .IT han er midt imellem arh ikke midt imellem han har været her i halvandet år
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: han har et helt andet arbejde han sidder og tager sig af dem der er uden for huset alle vores institutions og skole Ledere
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: og man kan sige de to andre og MED1 har også rigtig meget med institutions og skoleLedere at gøre men også dem der er her i huset
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: og jeg er chef for dem alle sammen
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: jeg er også chef for skole og institutioner her på [navn distrikt] ikke i hele København
Hannah: næ næ <AU Chef: der er rigtig mange> ja ja det kan jeg godt forstå [griner] <AU Chef: ja>
AU Chef: jeg har cirka hundrede skoler og institutioner på [navn distrikt] <Hannah: på> lidt under men det er lige der omkring
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: der er mange små <Hannah: ja> og der er mange og så er der nogle store så derfor er det der er mange
Hannah: ja ja
AU Chef: men det er dem vi vi er her for og det er dem at IT for eksempel sidder og servicerer på han hjælper dem med økonomi han hjælper dem hvis de har nogle spørgsmål om bygninger så finder han nogen der har forstand på det hvis han ikke selv har forstand på det eller kan svare på det og sådan så vi er sådan et service_organ allesammen her <Hannah: okay> i forhold til de skoler og institutioner der ligger her

Hannah: ja okay

AU Chef: og [navn distrikt] er et af otte distrikter i København København er jo kæmpe_stor

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: ikke men vi samarbejder jo med dem allesammen

Hannah: ja okay

AU Chef: ja

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: så det vi sk jeg har brug for en en sekretær <Hannah: ja> jeg har brug for en der kan øh hjælpe mig rigtig meget i forbindelse med der er mange møder

Hannah: ja <AU Chef: xxx>

AU Chef: alle de her mange institutions og skole_ledere er der nogle faste møder <Hannah: okay> hver måned med med dem på skift

Hannah: okay

AU Chef: jeg har brug for hjælp til sådan noget praktisk noget jeg <Hannah: ja> har også brug for hjælp til at sende dagsordener ud via mail_systemet

Hannah: hvad er dags <AU Chef: dagsorden>

AU Chef: altså til møder

Hannah: åh

Hannah: ja ja

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: øh jeg har brug for måske også når når du er er blevet god til det at skrive nogle breve eller nogle mails ud til institutioner og skoler <Hannah: okay> nogle nyheder eller nogle informationer som bare skal ud

Hannah: ja ja okay

AU Chef: det har vi nogle systemer der kan klare altså så vi sender ud til dem allesammen på en gang

Hannah: okay ja

AU Chef: eller sådan et eller andet ik

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: det har vi <Hannah: okay> øh styr på men det jeg har brug for jeg har også brug for en der på sigt eller med tiden kan lære at hjælpe mig med styre kalinderen <Hannah: ja> fordi jeg har mange møder ud i huset <Hannah: ja ja> jeg render meget rundt omkring til mange ting

Hannah: okay

AU Chef: så det er vigtigt at have en der kan hjælpe med det

Hannah: ja ja <AU Chef: så> så det er almindelige sekretær_opgaver

AU Chef: ja det er det <Hannah: ja ja> i en i en ualmindelig stor kommune ikke altså

Hannah: ja ja

AU Chef: <Hannah: okay> som xxx det er det det er nemlig <Hannah: ja ja> sekretær_opgaver <AU MED1: ja den var god> men i en stor kommune som man så bliver en del af et system ikke

Hannah: mmh

AU Chef: får mange gode samarbejds_partnere mange gode kollegaer man kan hente ja råd og vejledning hos det er der

Hannah: okay
AU Chef: så
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: mmh det næste jeg så synes vi lige skal det er at MED1 lige skal fortælle så vi er sikre på du har styr på det der med stillingens funktion og alt det der ikke
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: løn og sådan <AU MED1: >ja
Hannah: okay
AU MED1: stillingen er jo en fast stilling øh <Hannah: ja> men det er sådan at det første år så får man kun firs procent af grund lønnen
Hannah: ja
AU MED1: øh og det vil svare sådan cirka til femten tusinde to hundrede kroner om måneden har jeg regnet mig frem til
Hannah: okay
AU MED1: det betyder også at de tyve procent af din tid egentlig skal gå på der skal laves hvis det nu bliver dig så skal der laves sådan en en øh udviklings_plan eller handle_plan
Hannah: mmh mmh
AU MED1: for dig for hvad er det du har brug for <Hannah: ja> sådan så vi kan få guidet dig godt og grundigt ind på det danske arbejds_marked så du kan blive der <Hannah: ja ja> i rigtig mange år
Hannah: xxx dejlig
AU MED1: det er det det går ud på øh det betyder også du får tilknyttet en mentor
Hannah: ja
AU MED1: så du får en person som er din helt personlige støtte_pædagog kan man nok sige
Hannah: ja <AU MED1: xxx>
AU MED1: som du kan spørge om alting
Hannah: ja <AU MED1: det betyder ikke>
AU MED1: xxx du kan også altid spørge alle de andre
Hannah: nej nej okay
AU MED1: men men øh du har en bestemt som som i hvert fald er din øh mentor
Hannah: ja
AU MED1: øh der bliver også lavet sådan et netværk for alle dem der bliver ansat i integrations_stillinger i kommunen
Hannah: okay
AU MED1: så så man mødes engang imellem og kan udveksle <Hannah: okay> erfaringer om hvordan øh håndterer du det eller hvad synes det synes jeg er svært synes du det <Hannah: okay> eller <Hannah: det var da godt> har du et godt råd eller <Hannah: ja> øh og der vil blive noget undervisning i dansk kultur
Hannah: ja xxx [griner] <AU MED1: øh>
AU MED1: så man kan lære lidt om hvorfor vi er som vi er og griner når vi griner og
Hannah: okay haha
AU MED1: øh hvordan man undgår at fornærme os og alt sådan noget tror jeg
Hannah: okay [griner] <AU .IT: mmh>
AU MED1: øh ikke fordi jeg tror vi er så nemme at fornærme
Hannah: nå <AU .IT: mmh> <AU MED1: øhm>
AU MED1: men alt sådan lidt om kulturen hvorfor er vi sådan
Hannah: ja
AU MED1: så det er egentlig primært det men det er jo en fast stilling som som man gerne skulle kunne beholde i mange år
Hannah: okay ja det lyder godt
AU Chef: mmh
Hannah: ja ha
AU Chef: og vi er jo også rigtig nysgerrige på at høre om
Hannah: ja det kan jeg godt
AU Chef: <Hannah: forstå> når du nu søger sådan en slags stilling hvad tænk hvad hvad vil du så gerne altså hvad vil du gerne lave her hos os hvad vil du gerne lære her hos os
Hannah: øh <AU .IT: mmh> nej selvfølgelig har jeg været en øh sekretær i mange år
AU Chef: det har du
Hannah: ja <AU Chef: ja> i femten år
AU Chef: nå okay <Hannah: ja>
Hannah: så jeg kender job men selvfølgelig er der lidt øh forskelligheder fordi min danske er måske det er ikke så godt [griner] som min [sprog] så øh jeg tænker lidt øh da jobbet er ikke ny for mig
AU Chef: mmh mmh
Hannah: at selvfølgelig fordi min dansk er jo ikke så godt
AU Chef: mmh <Hannah: øh>
Hannah: er det nyt for mig <AU Chef: mmh> for øh jeg er ikke måske ikke jeg er ikke øh så hurtig xxx nu øh så jeg tror jeg er en god mulighed komme ind i øh arbejds_process
AU Chef: ja
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: ja
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: fordi det er en en job da jeg kender
AU Chef: ja
Hannah: så ja
AU Chef: så du kan sætte fokus på at lære dansk
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: du kender job_indholdet
Hannah: ja <AU Chef: ja det det> ja
AU Chef: vi har mange telefoner der ringer det vil du ikke få den første dag hvis det er dig der får jobbet vel <Hannah: åh okay> selvfølgelig [latter] men men det er der der er jo rigtig meget kontakt til omverdenen rigtig mange institutioner og skoler <Hannah: ja> der kan ringe og spørge om de mærkeligste ting
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: så s så <Hannah: ja det det> sproget er virkeligt
Hannah: xxx <AU Chef: ja> selvfølgelig er jeg lidt bange i begyndside begyndside
AU Chef: begyndelsen ja <Hannah: ja>
Hannah: ja fordi
AU Chef: men det er klart det er jo altså xxx <Hannah: ja> sproget er jo vigtigt så selvfølgelig <Hannah: ja> der <Hannah: ja ja> at fokus skal være ikke
Hannah: men så lærer man snart synes jeg også
AU Chef: ja ja
Hannah: sådan
AU Chef: hvad hvad med I_T hvordan har altså det xxx
Hannah: og ja ja jeg er god med det hele windows øh <AU Chef: ja> X_P pakét og
AU Chef: okay
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: du har bare styr på det
Hannah: jeg er da ikke en øh en hemmelighed heller <AU Chef: nej> for mig

268. Hannah: [griner]

269. AU Chef: nej og du er let at lære

270. Hannah: undskylt

271. AU Chef: har du let ved at lære I_T har du let ved at lære at bruge det

272. Hannah: øh <AU Chef: altså> nej men øh

273. AU Chef: har du let ved at blive altså at lære nye systemer kan du altså

274. Hannah: ja men jeg er lærer da rigtig hurtigt

275. AU Chef: ja det var det jeg mente

276. Hannah: ja ja <AU Chef: præcis> ja <AU Chef: ja> ja

277. AU Chef: fordi vi har jo nogle systemer i Københavns kommune <Hannah: xxx> som er vores egne

278. Hannah: ja

279. AU Chef: men de lægger sig selvfølgelig op ad windows og alt det andet du kender <Hannah: ja okay> men for eksempel journaliserer vi alt hvad vi laver <Hannah: okay> <Hannah: ja> det skal vi jo alle skal jo kunne se hvad vi laver

280. Hannah: ja

281. AU Chef: det er et særligt system det skal man så lære at bruge det system ik <Hannah: okay>

282. Hannah: ja jeg tror det er ikke et problem <AU Chef: nej>

283. AU Chef: fint <Hannah: nej> nej <Hannah: ja> bare du heller ikke er bekymret <Hannah: [griner] > for øhm så er det jo også fint <Hannah: nej>

284. Hannah: xxx på det andet øhm job øh og firma var jeg

285. AU Chef: hvor var du xxx siger du <Hannah: meget>

286. Hannah: på det anden firma jeg arbejdede <AU Chef: ja> øh jeg var mange gange en øh en den en person der hjælper andre <AU Chef: okay> for at lære og øh at ja så <AU Chef: okay> ja jeg er fin med alle systemer <AU Chef: xxx>

287. AU Chef: vi har også en I_T_nørd


289. AU MED3: men han er over_nørden

290. AU .JT: det siger vi

291. AU Chef: han er god til det han er rigtig god til det han hjælper os allesammen


293. AU Chef: det er også fordi han kan lide det

294. Hannah: ja ja <AU Chef: xxx> xxx <AU Chef: ja> ja

295. AU Chef: mmh okay har du hvad for nogen job har du haft i Danmark

296. Hannah: åh jeg arbejder nu hos øh posten

297. AU Chef: nå ja det er rigtigt det gjorde du <Hannah: ja> <Hannah: ja> men kun om lørdagen

298. Hannah: <AU Chef: eller hvad var det> ja ja kun om lørdage <AU Chef: ja> jeg jeg kører rundt i bil og øh jeg øh jeg kører rundt med øh reklame og med anbefalede [pron=anflede] brav breve

299. AU Chef: mmh mmh

300. Hannah: så øh jeg har ikke så meget kontakt med de indbyggere

301. AU Chef: nej


303. AU Chef: nå du har været der siden juli
304. Hannah: ja siden juli <AU Chef: okay>
305. AU Chef: <Hannah: ja> så det er ret nyt ja
306. Hannah: ja det er lidt nyt ja [griner] <AU Chef: ja> men øh det er okay
307. AU Chef: ja
308. Hannah: <AU Chef: okay> det går fint
309. AU Chef: nå det er godt
310. Hannah: ja
311. AU Chef: har du let ved at lære dansk
312. Hannah: øh
313. AU Chef: har du mmh <Hannah: [griner]> lige omformulere mig jeg hvad hvad hed det er det svært at lære dansk <Hannah: nej>
314. Hannah: nej øh ja ja og nej men øh f selvfølgelig er det ny men øh det ligner også øh til det [sprog]
315. AU Chef: mmh
316. Hannah: sprog
317. AU Chef: mmh så at læse øh øh læse er ikke så så svært for mig <AU Chef: nej> men selvfølgelig er jeg udtale øh <AU Chef: ja> lidt forskellig så <AU Chef: det er klart> jeg har lidt problemer med den lyd d og <AU Chef: ja>
318. Hannah: <AU Chef: ja> ja så øh
319. AU Chef: det kan jeg godt forstå
320. Hannah: <AU Chef: det er også svært> ja men øh jeg jeg synes også det er okay jeg efter et år
321. AU Chef: ja det er det jo også <Hannah: kan kan jeg>
322. Hannah: tale lidt dansk så
323. AU Chef: ja ja <Hannah: [griner]>
324. AU JT: mmh
325. Hannah: ja
326. AU Chef: ja
327. AU Chef: så det ville være det der skulle fokus på
328. Hannah: ja ja
329. AU Chef: ja <Hannah: selvfølgelig ja> ja
330. Hannah: ja
331. AU Chef: er det job du har nu det er det eneste job du har haft <Hannah: ja> i Danmark
332. Hannah: ja
333. AU Chef: så har du haft masser af arbejde i [Vesteuropa]
334. Hannah: ja
335. AU Chef: ja
336. Hannah: ja
337. AU Chef: ja
338. Hannah: siden jeg var tyve år til nu arbejdede jeg <AU Chef: ja> så øh
339. AU Chef: ja
340. Hannah: ja jeg har mange arbejds_erfaring
341. AU Chef: ja
342. Hannah: ja
343. AU Chef: hvad har du jeg kan ikke huske hvad du har af uddannelse
344. Hannah: øh a apoteks_assistent
345. AU Chef: det er rigtigt
347. AU Chef: <Hannah: så øh> nej sådan er det <Hannah: nej> sådan kan man tage fej
Hannah: ja øh nej øh måske ikke men øh

Hannah: øh nu er det øh en okay job synes jeg men femten år siden nu <AU Chef: nå okay> var det en nemmeste job fordi du har kun kontakt med kunder og du giver k øh kun øh recepten og øh mediciner af øh der var det hele du giver ikke øh information og der var der var en en simpel job

AU IT: ja <AU Chef: ja>

Hannah: ja men nu er der lidt forskellig i [Vesteuropa] <AU Chef: okay> der er der forskellig nu <AU Chef: nej> så vi får mange øh øhm øh kurser og

AU Chef: ja

Hannah: giver mere information og <AU Chef: okay>


Hannah: det er rigtigt

AU Chef: ja det tror jeg er rigtigt <Hannah: så men ja> ja <Hannah: [griner] nå nå

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: ja

Hannah: men øh der er bagefter arbejdede jeg øh femten år som sekretær

AU Chef: mmh

Hannah: og øh før arbejdede jeg fire år øh som informatio ja siger man det jeg giver jeg gav information til vores kunder <AU Chef: mmh> og øh sælger_afdelingen

AU Chef: mmh mmh

Hannah: øh som mili hvad er det øh farmaceutisk information

AU Chef: mmh mmh

Hannah: og der var sjovt og der var der var en god øh stilling men øh ja job_skifte skifter <AU Chef: mmh>

AU Chef: ja ja

Hannah: så øh

AU Chef: ja

Hannah: jeg blev sekretær

AU Chef: mmh <Hannah: [griner] > ja ja det er også fint

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: har du familie her i Danmark

Hannah: nej det har jeg ikke <AU Chef: nej>

AU Chef: så du er her øh alene

Hannah: nej jeg har kun min kæreste

AU Chef: nå nå

Hannah: [griner] <AU Chef: xxx>

AU Chef: det er også en slags familie <Hannah: og MED3 familie> ja ja <Hannah: selvfølgelig> ja ja <Hannah: men øh ja>

Hannah: de bor i [by] i Jylland så det er da ikke så

AU Chef: nå det er en dansk <Hannah: så tæt> kæreste du har <Hannah: ja ja ja> okay <Hannah: ja> mmh mmh så det er sådan du er kommet herop

Hannah: ja <AU Chef: ja ja> [griner]

AU Chef: ja okay <Hannah: ja> det lyder da fint <Hannah: ja> jeg synes da du er meget god til at tale dansk

Hannah: okay tak skal du have
AU Chef: det er ikke så svært at forstå det synes jeg ikke det er det synes jeg ikke nej
Hannah: okay
AU Chef: nej det synes jeg ikke
Hannah: tak [griner]
AU Chef: xxx jamen <AU MED1: ja>
AU MED1: <AU Chef: ja> kan du ikk fortælle mig lidt om hvad du sådan laver når du ikke arbejder
Hannah: åh øhm ja jeg selvfølgelig jeg øh laver jeg min hjemme_arbejde [griner] jeg jeg øver mig øhm efter_middage
AU MED1: mmm
Hannah: og søger jeg øh job øh jobbet er jo øh jeg kan godt lide at læse
AU MED1: mmm
Hannah: men øh kun når jeg er hvad er det øh hvor jeg har ha ikke så mange xxx hvor siger man det hvor det er ikke så har det ikke så travlt
AU MED1: ja <AU Chef: ja> ja <Hannah: ja>
Hannah: så jeg må være
AU MED1: ja
Hannah: ikke så stresset [pron=stressed] [griner] <AU Chef: mmm mmm> <AU MED1: ja ja> men jeg kan godt l øh lide det og øh også øh in begyndelsen her øh var jeg på øh øh hvad er det øhm øh hvad hedder det nu øh pilates
AU MED1: ja <AU MED1: ja> ja <AU MED1: ja> <Hannah: ja>
AU MED1: ja <Hannah: [griner]>
AU Chef: det kender vi godt
AU MED1: ja
Hannah: okay <AU Chef: [griner]>
AU MED1: ja <AU .IT: [griner]>
Hannah: men øh ja det er lidt for dyrt for n ja nu fordi jeg har ikke jobbet
AU MED1: nej
Hannah: men jeg vil gerne fortsætte det
AU MED1: ja
Hannah: øh når jeg arbejder igen
AU MED1: ja <AU Chef: mmm>
Hannah: og øh jeg kan godt lide øh cykle og øh løbe og <AU MED1: mmm> at gå og <AU MED1: ja>
<AU Chef: mmm> i skole og
AU MED1: ja
Hannah: rundt om søen [griner] <AU MED1: ja> så øh ja og øh for kende af det øh København like kun xxx <AU MED1: mmm> øh for København er øh lidt for stort for mig så <AU MED1: ja> <AU Chef: ja> jeg kan godt lide at køre rundt og ja
AU MED1: ja
Hannah: ja
AU Chef: hvor er det du bor henne
Hannah: i nord_vest
AU Chef: nåh du bor i København jo
Hannah: ja ja
AU Chef: ja ja <AU MED1: ja> ja
AU MED1: arhmen det er en stor by <AU Chef: [rømmer sig]
AU Chef: ja <Hannah: ja>
Hanna: det er det

AU Chef: det er en stor by 

AU: ja 

Hannah: ja det er det

AU MED1: jeg kan stadigvæk blive væk i 

griner ja ja

AU: ja

AU MED1: mmh har i nogen spørgsmål til

Hannah: ja

AU: ikke umiddelbart nej jeg synes vi har fået svar på det vigtigste så

AU MED1: du stiger i løn

Hannah: undskyld

au: du får mere i løn end xxx <Hannah: ja okay ja > <Hannah: xxx ja okay

Hannah: griner

AU MED1: du stiger i løn

Hannah: undskyld

au: du får mere i løn end xxx <Hannah: ja okay ja > <Hannah: xxx ja okay

Hannah: griner

AU MED1: men man må stadig vok stadigvæk gerne spørge andre også om sådan noget ja

Hannah: ja ja ja ja

Hannah: øh men øh det er en firs procent job er det ikke

AU MED1: jo <AU Chef: jo>

Hannah: så det har tid [pron=tipf] øh på øh at gå to til sk skole

AU MED1: ja <AU Chef: mmh>

Hannah: ja <AU MED1: ja> kan det være xxx at øh hvornår det har fri og hvornår det går til skole og

AU Chef: <Hannah: øh> atlså jeg tror det er sådan at det er sprog skolerne

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: i København det xxx <Hannah: ja ja> det er dem man kommer ind og får nogle kurser på

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: og så det kan jo både være efter middag og for middag og det skal vi jo tale om hvordan

Hannah: ja okay hvordan det passer

Hannah: okay

AU Chef: også huset her lidt hvordan hvor om det er om efter middagen du <Hannah: okay>
eller formiddagen du kan gå men det bliver i arbejds_tiden om xxx <Hannah: ja ja> jeg vil tro det mest det bedste vil være det er om eftermiddagen

Hannah: ja det <AU Chef: der s>

AU Chef: der er mest arbejde om formiddagen og

Hannah: ja ja

AU Chef: <Hannah: ja> og møder og personalet her også er

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: det sker om formiddagen så det vil være bedst det er om eftermiddagen <Hannah: jamen
det tror jeg også> kunne man forestille sig det var fra klokken et til klokken fire eller hvad ved jeg

Hannah: ja jeg kender ikke <Hannah: jamen jeg er på>

Hannah: jamen jeg er på studie skolen <AU chef: ja> så det er også tæt på her

AU Chef: ja lige præcis

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: <Hannah: sæ> men der ville du da jo selvfølgelig kunne fortsætte

Hannah: ja det vil jeg gerne
Hannah: ja

AU Chef: på nogle eftermiddags_hold <Hannah: ja> ja <Hannah: ja> det vil du sagtens kunne

Hannah: okay

AU Chef: ja

Hannah: ja okay <AU Chef: mmh> mmh hvornår hører jeg <AU Chef: ja> mere fra dig [griner]

AU Chef: øh det gør du i eftermiddag fordi vi har <Hannah: okay> vi har haft inviteret fem til at snakke med os i dag og de to af dem havde heldigvis fået nyt arbejde

Hannah: okay <AU Chef: så>

AU Chef: de valgte at melde fra så vi har haft tre

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: ts på besøg i dag og du er den sidste af de tre

Hannah: okay

AU Chef: så når du går om lidt så går Marta lige med dig ud fordi der er lige et par spørgsmål hun vil stille dig

Hannah: ja

AU Chef: og så mens Marta er derude så taler vi sammen og så er det vores håb at vi i eftermiddag

Hannah: okay

AU Chef: finder en af de tre vi har haft til samtale og så vil du få besked i dag

Hannah: okay ja det var snart <AU Chef: så du>

AU Chef: hurtig kan få svar

Hannah: ja det var hurtigt

AU Chef: ja <Hannah: [griner]>

AU MED1: hvornår vil du kunne starte på det <AU Chef: ja lige præcis> ja <AU Chef: [griner]>

Hannah: øh <AU Chef: [rømmer sig] > ja jeg kan starte hurtigt og snart xxx men øh jeg har øh jeg taget til [Vesteuropa] [pron=xxx] fra den øh ottende til den tiende september

AU Chef: ja

Hannah: så

AU Chef: du kan bare få <Hannah: jamen> et par ferie_dage <Hannah: det er kun>

AU MED1: ja <AU Chef: ja ja> <Hannah: tre dage>

AU Chef: du har lov til at holde ferie

AU Chef: selvfælgelig <Hannah: ja> ja men du har ingen opsigelse på det arbejde du har nu

Hannah: det har jeg selvfælgelig men <AU Chef: ja> det er på lørdagen så

AU Chef: nå ja så det gør <Hannah: ja> ikke så meget nej <Hannah: nej> nej okay <Hannah: nej nej nej okay>

Hannah: så arbejder jeg <AU Chef: ja> også på lørdagen

AU Chef: ja ja

Hannah: første

AU Chef: ja

Hannah: måneder <AU Chef: ja>

AU Chef: ja ja <Hannah: xxx>

Hannah: det ved jeg ikke

AU Chef: så du ville godt kunne starte den første september for eksempel

Hannah: ja der er ikke ingen problemer

AU Chef: okay ja <Hannah: ja> jamen det lyder godt <Hannah: ja> så er det kun os der skal finde ud af

Hannah: okay

AU Chef: <Hannah: [griner] hvad vi skal vælge [griner] vi har <Hannah: ja> tre gode ansøgere vil jeg sige jeg synes også du har du har sendt en god ansøgning jeg synes det har været en god samtale

Hannah: okay tak <AU chef: så ja> skal du have ja det synes jeg også
AU Chef: det er godt
Hannah: [griner]
AU Chef: så nu er det bare os der skal finde ud af hvad pokker vi skal gøre
Hannah: [griner højt]
AU Chef: [griner]
Hannah: okay <AU Chef: så>
AU Chef: tusind tak <Hannah: må jeg [griner] > for nu medmindre <Hannah: mmh> du har flere spørgsmål så er du selvfølgelig velkommen #
Hannah: nej ikke nu
AU Chef: nej
Hannah: [griner]
AU Chef: vi må se <AU .IT: xxx>
Hannah: okay tak <AU Chef: ja> skal du have
AU Chef: ja i lige må
## Backchannel affirmative response to applicants by panel members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Candidate</th>
<th>Nr. &amp; Type of response</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Interview length</th>
<th>Average ja/mm per min.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unsuccessful (-)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Successful (+)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Help Desk Secretary</td>
<td>Arabella (-)</td>
<td>20 mm, 86 ja</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>16:25</td>
<td>6,40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hannah (+)</td>
<td>35 mm, 123 ja</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>18:50</td>
<td>8,39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Kitchen Help</td>
<td>Tsang (-)</td>
<td>11 mm, 160 ja</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>27:30</td>
<td>6,21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ruben (+)</td>
<td>11 mm, 204 ja</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>30:50</td>
<td>6,97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>IT support</td>
<td>Hamid (-)</td>
<td>134 mm, 323 ja</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>56:55</td>
<td>8,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Maximilian (+)</td>
<td>327 mm, 377 ja</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>52:58</td>
<td>13,29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Economist A, first rd.</td>
<td>Yao (-)</td>
<td>30 mm, 157 ja</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>38:00</td>
<td>4,92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Carla (+)</td>
<td>43 mm, 215 ja</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>35:31</td>
<td>7,26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Economist A, second rd.</td>
<td>Maria (-)</td>
<td>10 mm, 69 ja</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>29:50</td>
<td>2,64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Carla (+)</td>
<td>16 mm, 75 ja</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>26:32</td>
<td>3,43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Handyman B</td>
<td>Javier (-)</td>
<td>10 mm, 57 ja</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>15:00</td>
<td>4,46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Said (+)</td>
<td>9 mm, 53 ja</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>15:29</td>
<td>4,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Unemployment Consultant</td>
<td>Alice (-)</td>
<td>135 mm, 93 ja</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>21:55</td>
<td>10,40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nadja (+)</td>
<td>203 mm, 215 ja</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>33:10</td>
<td>12,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Economist B</td>
<td>Yo (-)</td>
<td>36 mm, 256 ja</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>34:12</td>
<td>8,53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Milena (+)</td>
<td>66 mm, 325 ja</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>46:30</td>
<td>8,40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Handyman A</td>
<td>Mohammed (-)</td>
<td>16 mm, 75 ja</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>15:32</td>
<td>5,85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Domingo (+)</td>
<td>39 mm, 110 ja</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>26:48</td>
<td>5,55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Unemployment assistant</td>
<td>Tui (-)</td>
<td>100 mm, 188 ja</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>22:23</td>
<td>12,86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rahiza (+)</td>
<td>185 mm, 186 ja</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>30:01</td>
<td>12,36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Integration Consultant</td>
<td>Silvana (-)</td>
<td>248 mm, 266 ja</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>58:22</td>
<td>8,80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yasin (+)</td>
<td>183 mm, 150 ja</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>42:55</td>
<td>7,76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GROUP 1: INTERVIEWS OF APP. EQUAL LENGTH (+/- 4 min)**

**GROUP 2: INTERVIEWS OF UNEQUAL LENGTH (dif. app. 8 to 15 min.)**
The charts suggest correspondence between the applicants’ success at the job interview (i.e. he or she gets the job) and the amount of backchannel affirmative responses (mm, yes, yeah) uttered by the panel.

Affirmative responses has been calculated by counting the amount of cases where either the manager or another panel representative gives a backchannel response such as “ja” (yes, yeah) or “mm”. Following can be concluded:

1. In five interviews of approximately equal length where the difference in length is maximum 4.02 minutes and minimum 0.29 seconds, **successful candidates receive on average a greater number of affirmative responses than unsuccessful candidates.**

2. In five interviews of unequal length where the difference in length is minimum 7,38 min. and maximum 15,27 min., all **successful candidates’ interviews are longer than the unsuccessful candidates’**. In only one interview the average number of affirmative responses is higher for the unsuccessful candidate.

Consider the example below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hamid, IT support, unsuccessful</th>
<th>Danish:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Hamid: yes and two thousand (.). two</td>
<td>1. Hamid: og to tusind (.). to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. two thousand three I (.). two</td>
<td>3. to tusind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. thousand &lt;Manager: yeah&gt; three</td>
<td>4. &lt;Leder: ja&gt; tre (.). i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. (.). in two thousand three</td>
<td>5. to tusind tre januar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. January I get (.). a erm (.). erm</td>
<td>6. måned jeg får(.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. internship in [CITY]</td>
<td>7. en øh (.). øh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. (.).yeah(.).</td>
<td>8. praktikplads i [BY]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Manager: yeah</td>
<td>9. (.). ja (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Manager: yeah</td>
<td>11. Medarb2: mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Leder: ja</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I am quite aware of the fact that what I have called **affirmative response** is a simplification of a complex contextual and phonological phenomenon and that “yes” and “mm” can be uttered in a number of different ways in which they might not sound affirmative at all (and Gumperz 1982a and 1982b shows that several times).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Arabella (05:43 to 07:03 = 1,25 min.)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 mm, 7 yes, 3 yes ok, 1 interruption + initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount: 20 + 1 initiative,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount of backchannelling in overlaps: 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Hannah (05:24-06:54 = 1,5 min.)** |
| 1 mm, 8 yes, 5 ok, 1 yes ok, 2 response + suppl., 2 no |
| Total amount: 19 |
| Total amount of backchannelling in overlaps: 9 |
The title is inspired by Ambalavaner Sivanandan, a Sri Lankan born British race expert who used the phrase “All dressed up and nowhere to go” to critique the race awareness training programme (RAT) in Great Britain in the 1980s. He meant that although “white people” were put through training courses they did not really go anywhere, that is change or grow in any way, since the courses dealt with individual attitude and not with structural failings (Sivanandan 1985).