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# Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms

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# **Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms**

Prepared by ICF Consulting Services Ltd

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## Terms and definitions

Invariably there are many different terms used in the literature to describe children who have learnt a different language before they enter education in a country whether that is at the start of compulsory education because they have learnt a different language at home or during compulsory education because they are recently arrived migrants from a country where another language was spoken. In all cases they are expected to learn the language which is used for instruction and assessment so that they access the curriculum and progress to higher education and employment.

In this report, these children will all be described as 'without the language of instruction' even where they are described differently in the literature being drawn on where many different terms are used depending on the country context. Where they are distinguished generically as being the children of parents who have migrated in the literature (not all of whom will have learnt a different language at home), they may be described as migrant children.

The language they have learnt at home from their parents and/or in school in another country is also often described in many different ways. Here it will be described as a 'mother tongue'.

## Executive summary

### Focus of this study

For the children of migrants, learning the language of instruction and assessment so that they can enter school or carry on their education is paramount. Education authorities in many parts of the EU are faced with this challenge because of growing levels of mobility. Enabling such children to access teaching and learning quickly is critical to ensuring they can reach their potential and progress to higher education and employment to the same degree as non-migrant children. In the process the children themselves gain linguistic and meta-linguistic skills from learning the language of instruction and assessment in addition to their mother tongue.

This research is designed to gather, analyse and synthesise existing data and research on:

- What works to enable migrant children who use a language at home different to the language of school instruction to participate in learning, attain proficiency in the language of instruction, and achieve results (qualifications, progress to higher education, progress to employment) that match their potential; and
- What works to maintain and develop the multilingual skills of migrant children which will enable them to use these competences for cultural and economic purposes.

### The challenge

Because of increasing mobility multilingual classrooms are becoming more commonplace in many EU countries as is the range of mother tongues that children have.

It is clear that:

- Migrant children without the language of instruction do not reach their potential and are more likely to leave school early and have lower levels of attainment throughout their schooling;
- Children are not always provided with support to learn their mother tongue;
- Schools can reduce the difference in attainment between native children and children without the language of instruction as they progress through their education.

It is accepted in this study that learning the language of instruction is necessary for children to reach their potential, that bilingualism increases children's cognitive skills and their ability to learn languages effectively and that barriers affect the educational outcomes that children without the language of instruction can achieve.

### Method

To address these questions, the study has comprised:

- A literature review drawing on academic research and grey literature;
- A series of round table discussions involving practitioners and experts; and
- A study visit to Cologne to see what is happening on the ground and to have further discussion with practitioners and experts.

It was important for the study to include research which was based on empirical evidence and practitioners' experiences provided that:

- The methods and their limitations were understood so that the strength of evidence could be assessed;
- The context was known so its transferability could be considered; and
- Practitioners' experience was drawn on in a systematic way (such as through workshops and action research).

The study examined evidence in relation to four themes. The key findings on each of these is set out below.

### **Reception and integration**

#### **Participation in early childhood education and care (ECEC)**

There is conclusive research evidence which shows that ECEC can have positive learning and progression outcomes for migrant children which gives them the start they need to develop their skills in the language of instruction. Practitioners believe that better results are achieved where there is outreach to ensure migrant children take up free provision of ECEC and where ECEC providers have a systematic curriculum for language learning.

#### **Placement and admission**

While migrant children are segregated and schools with higher proportions of migrant children have lower attainment, there is no conclusive research evidence that segregation is a cause and that reducing it will improve attainment. Practitioners believe that reducing segregation does however help schools to manage and that the greatest benefit of this comes from increasing cultural awareness of all children. They also believe that it is more important for education authorities to ensure that the quality of leadership and teaching in schools with children without the language of instruction can meet the challenges of multilingual classrooms and that such schools need to have additional resources and funding.

#### **Assessment of language support needs**

There is conclusive research evidence that poor measures of assessment on entering the school system have a detrimental impact on migrant children. This is because they are more likely to be allocated to special education and lower ability tracks. Practitioners have developed better systems for assessing children's language skills and other knowledge and competencies during the early stages of their reception into the education system. These address the causes of poor assessment that have adversely affected children without the language of instruction.

#### **Learning the language of instruction for integration into the school system**

There is indicative research evidence that children without the language of instruction should be quickly moved to having targeted and continued language support provided in mainstream classrooms (immersion) rather than in separate classes. The amount of time needed in preparatory education should be linked to age and previous education. Practitioners strongly support a speedy transition with teaching support because they believe this supports integration, learning the language of instruction and learning other subjects. Where separate classes are required children without the language of instruction should be enabled to make a transition to mainstream classes with a special curriculum and support from specialist teachers.

## **Access to the curriculum**

### **Support in the classroom**

There is indicative research evidence that the availability and level of support improves migrant children's educational attainment and that additional learning activities and support in school for children without the language of instruction can improve their progress. Practitioners strongly believe that classroom support has to be maintained to develop their language skills as well as access to the curriculum with the support of teaching assistants, specialist teachers and resources.

### **Support outside the classroom**

There is indicative research evidence that formal and informal learning led by trained staff and volunteers outside school enhances migrant children's interest in education, their language skills and their aspirations. This is through a variety of measures: homework clubs, out of school activities, mentoring, coaching and advice. Practitioners believe that these help and can be targeted at children who need extra support which include migrant children. It helps to achieve positive outcomes if some of the staff/volunteers have the same mother tongue/migrant background as the children and parents.

### **Adapted teaching approaches by class teachers**

There is indicative research evidence that adapting teaching approaches to accommodate children without the same level of language ability as native children has a beneficial effect. The adaptations they effectively employ are similar to those used in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) settings. There is some evidence that providing children without the same level of language competency as native children with tools and materials assists them to achieve their potential in assessment tests. Simplification of the language used in tests has been found to be beneficial. Practitioners believe that teaching approaches need to be adapted in multilingual classrooms, teachers need to be aware of this, and have strategies and resources to manage. Practitioners also believe that teachers need to have positive attitudes towards migrant children if they are to achieve their potential and overcome language barriers. There is evidence that not all teachers have these positive attitudes.

### **Parental engagement**

There is some indicative research evidence that equipping migrant families with skills to develop their children's language skills in ECEC helps to accelerate their learning. Practitioners believe that engaging migrant parents is necessary throughout their children's education to build their emotional support for their children and their cooperation with the school. These are believed to improve their children's attendance, behaviours and attitudes to learning as well as mutual trust and understanding between teachers and parents.

## **Developing mother tongue competences**

### **Non-formal and informal learning of mother tongues**

Practitioners believe that informal learning of mother tongues should be provided and encouraged both in the absence of formal learning opportunities and where formal learning of mother tongues is available. The opportunities for children to use and develop their mother tongue skills enable them to gain recognition for these skills and see they are of equal value to other language skills. Children need to be stimulated to develop and use their mother tongue skills. Parents, schools and the community have been shown to play an effective part in this. Resources are available for non-formal and informal learning.

### **Formal learning of mother tongues**

There is conclusive research evidence that learning mother tongues alongside the language of instruction enhances not only their mother tongue competences but also their competences in the language of instruction.

There is indicative research evidence that this has:

- Longer term benefits for educational attainment and reducing the gap between migrant children and native born children;
- Wider benefits in enhancing children's confidence and their cultural awareness and pride in their culture;
- Longer term benefits in increasing employment opportunities.

Practitioners generally support the benefits of mother tongue learning although teachers are not always aware of these. Some schools and teachers continue to discourage speaking in mother tongues. Bringing mother tongues into language learning and the language curriculum as well as offering formal learning of mother tongues as foreign languages through language classes and CLIL throughout primary and secondary education appear to be efficient and effective approaches to achieving the benefits described in the research evidence. This is facilitated where pluri-lingual approaches to language learning are adopted, qualified mother tongue teachers are available and mother tongues are recognised in the curriculum and school examinations.

### **Teacher education**

#### **Teacher education in language teaching skills and cultural competences**

Practitioners believe that teachers who provide language support should have

specialist training and qualifications in second-language acquisition that is aligned with

the approaches implemented in practice. Alongside this practitioners believe that all teachers require training to teach children without the language of instruction and to be able to value diversity by incorporating cultural diversity within their teaching. This should include intercultural training.

Teacher education to develop skills to support children without the language of instruction in the classroom

There is some indicative research evidence that in-service training helps teachers to build their capability and resources to teach children without the language of instruction which improves the attainment of children without the language of instruction. Practitioners strongly support this and also believe that initial teacher training ought to be adapted given the significant and growing proportion of teachers who will work in multilingual classrooms.

Schools and teachers benefit from the resources, networking and training provided by specialist centres in many countries and cities in the EU. Practitioners have found that networking between and within schools facilitates non-formal learning by teachers to support migrant children's learning.

### **Conclusions: What will make a difference?**

While the research evidence is not comprehensive in covering all the aspects of the educational system which can improve migrant children's educational achievements, it goes a long way to supporting measures targeted at children without the language of instruction to enable them to reach their potential.

There is a considerable consensus among practitioners about the causes of such children not reaching their potential and broad agreement to the types of solution which have been tested and in some cases embedded in policy and practice.

### **What are the factors working against migrant children achieving their potential?**

The evidence here broadly confirms earlier research published by the Commission that the factors which inhibit children without the language of instruction achieving their potential are:

- Schools without sufficient resources and staff with competencies to support the learning of children without the language of instruction;
- Assessment tools and assessors with negative perceptions of migrant children's abilities which allocate more of them to lower ability tracks and special education classes;
- A lack of opportunities to develop their mother tongue competences to higher levels.
- Although the segregation of migrant children occurs widely in the EU, this is not by itself a factor.

### **What brings about higher attainment and reduced gaps in achievement and progression?**

There is conclusive evidence here that ECEC for children without the language of instruction not only increases language competences but also long term educational achievements; that language competences are related to achievement in other competences; and that targeted and continued support in language learning enables this.

There is indicative evidence supported by practitioners that the following contribute to raising the attainment of children without the language of instruction:

- Supplementary education (both formal and non-formal) in school and out of school which includes help with homework, language learning (including mother tongue learning), and mentoring during activities;
- Immersion in mainstream classrooms with support from specialists and with teachers who have the competences and experience to tailor teaching to children in the class without the same level of competency in the language of instruction;
- Increasing their parents' support and encouragement in their education, including their development of language competences;
- Developing their mother tongue competences.

There is no conclusive evidence about the length of time that children without the language of instruction should spend in preparation classes but there is indicative evidence that this should be limited and should include a transition to immersion with support. It should be greater for older children (NAMS) so that they make the transition once they have a basic competency.

### **What increases children's development of their multi-lingual skills?**

There is indicative evidence that children without the language of instruction can increase these skills to higher levels where:

- ECEC enables them to learn their mother tongue as well as the language of instruction;
- Non-formal and informal learning opportunities enable them to use their mother tongue;
- Formal learning opportunities are available either in school or out of school to develop their mother tongue skills which progress towards recognition in educational achievements.

### **What improves inter-cultural education?**

Practitioners strongly believe that intercultural education is more likely to be achieved and achieved more quickly where schools are less segregated and children are more rapidly immersed in mainstream classrooms. This is because this provides greater opportunities for cultural awareness and valuing diversity through teaching and learning.

There is indicative evidence that the following is beneficial:

- Increasing all children's cultural and linguistic awareness through both language learning and other parts of the curriculum;
- Engaging parents in the school's activities and their children's education;
- Increasing teachers' positive attitudes towards migrant children's prospects and their use of their mother tongues to learn.

### **Recommendations: What will facilitate making a difference?**

For **policy makers** in national and local government, these are:

- Establish a curriculum for language learning in ECEC and a curriculum in primary and secondary education for second language learning of the language of instruction;
- Establish unbiased assessment tools for testing and monitoring competences and cognitive skills of children without the language of instruction;
- Enable the dispersal of children without the language of instruction to reduce segregation and pressure on a small number of schools having large proportions of children without the language of instruction;
- Provide schools with core funding to cover extra costs of reception and immersion of children without the language of instruction, a minimum of formal mother tongue support, and in-service training that supports all teachers to teach children whose competence in the language of instruction is lower than native children;
- Provide project funding assistance for out of school activities providing additional education and support to children without the language of instruction;
- Establish language simplification in assessment tests;
- Establish flexible policies towards foreign language learning which include the most frequently spoken mother tongues and their recognition in school qualifications and examinations of foreign language competences;
- Establish an initial teacher training curriculum to prepare teachers to work in multilingual classrooms and provide qualified mother tongue teachers.

For **policy implementers** in national and local government and schools, these are:

- Establish outreach to engage migrant parents in ECEC and in their children's education;
- Recruit bilingual staff in ECEC, outreach, and reception as well as mentors and teaching assistants;
- Establish procedures to enable a rapid transition from reception classes to immersion in mainstream classes with support which reflects children's age and the language competences they need to participate with support;
- Provide additional teaching and allocate support from teaching assistants and specialist teachers for children without the language of instruction;
- Support out of school activities for children without the language of instruction with trained mentors/volunteers;
- Provide materials and resources for mainstream class teachers to adapt pedagogies and for mother tongue learning;
- Promote CLIL teaching approaches in multilingual classrooms and longer school days/CLIL approaches to accommodate formal mother tongue learning;
- Promote positive attitudes about the potential of migrant children;
- Establish whole school approaches to learning cultural awareness through the curriculum including language learning;
- Support non-formal and informal learning of mother tongues where it is not possible to provide formal learning;
- Train staff in reception centres/schools to use good assessment methods which cover language as well as other subject competences;
- Ensure initial teacher training includes intercultural training, experience in multilingual classrooms and approaches to teaching children whose competence in the language of instruction is lower than native children;
- Build the capacity and resources of classroom teachers through in-service training and support from specialist centres, specialist teachers in second language acquisition, and networking opportunities.

For the **Commission**, these are:

- Disseminate the evidence brought together in this report of what works to enable children without the language of instruction to reach their potential and provide the benefits of increasing their mother tongue competences;
- Disseminate the good practices which exist in many parts of the EU to address these challenges successfully;
- Support research which could fill gaps in the evidence base around assessment approaches during and after reception and the extent to which children should be educated in preparatory classes before immersion and the amount/duration of support required for immersion;
- Promote evaluative research which will provide a better evidence base in this area of education policy and practice.
- Use EU funding instruments to support cooperation between Member States in order to develop any of the recommendations above.

## Introduction

For the children of migrants, learning the language of instruction and assessment so that they can enter school or carry on their education is paramount. Education authorities in many parts of the EU are faced with this challenge because of growing levels of mobility. Enabling such children to access teaching and learning quickly is critical to ensuring they can reach their potential and progress to higher education and employment to the same degree as non-migrant children. In the process the children themselves gain linguistic and meta-linguistic skills from learning the language of instruction and assessment in addition to their mother tongue. This can be a valued transversal skill.

### Purpose of this research

The European Commission has developed a report on Language teaching and learning in Multilingual Classrooms (RLMC) to provide more guidance on successfully meeting the challenges posed by teaching children the language of instruction as well as building on the opportunities they provide to broaden multilingual skills within the EU. The present report will also prepare provide policy and practice recommendations for discussion with the Member States' authorities.

As the basis for the RLMC, this research is designed to gather, analyse and synthesise existing data and research on:

- What works to enable migrant children who use a language at home different to the language of school instruction to participate in learning, attain proficiency in the language of instruction, and achieve results (qualifications, progress to higher education, progress to employment) that match their potential; and
- What works to maintain and develop the multilingual skills of migrant children which will enable them to use these competences for cultural and economic purposes.

## Context

### EU policy

Council conclusions on the European strategy for multilingualism in 2008<sup>1</sup> noted that significant efforts should still be made to promote language learning and to value the cultural aspects of linguistic diversity. Supporting multilingualism is of particular significance in promoting cultural diversity and linguistic skills as well as strongly contributing to economic and cultural relations between the EU and the rest of the world. Among other things, the Council conclusions invited Member States to increase awareness of the benefits of linguistic diversity, provide training in the local language(s) of the host country and show respect for their mother tongues. In this regard the Council invited Member States to broaden the choice of languages taught in schools to reflect personal interests of the learners and to value and make use of the linguistic competences of migrants.

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<sup>1</sup> 2008/C 320/01

Council conclusions on the education of children with a migrant background in 2009<sup>2</sup> noted that more equitable education and training systems were needed to overcome factors that were leading to educational disadvantage for the children of migrants and that to create a society that is equitable and respectful of diversity some features of education and training systems ought to be adjusted. The Council invited Member States, among other things, to adopt inclusive approaches to learning the language of instruction which are likely to be more effective in achieving equality and integration and encourage migrant children to acquire or maintain knowledge of their mother tongue because of the benefits these could bring in relation to cultural identity, self-confidence and future employability.

These have not been superseded. Indeed, in the Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training (ET 2020) (European Commission, 2009), one of the four common objectives to address education and training challenges is 'Promoting equity, social cohesion and active citizenship' (European Commission, 2014). This acknowledges that pupils from poorer social and economic backgrounds have lower attainment rates compared to their peers and that children from immigrant backgrounds also on average have lower attainment rates. It states that '*Europe needs more efficient but at the same time more inclusive and equitable education systems, which give access to quality educational provision*'.

Within ET 2020, there are four benchmarks which are of particular relevance to children with relatively lower attainment, namely:

- By 2020, the share of early leavers from education and training should be less than 10%.
- By 2020, the share of low achievement in reading should be below 15%.
- By 2020, the share of low achievement in science should be below 15%.
- By 2020, the share of low achievement in maths should be below 15%.

Eliminating inequities in achievement would help countries to meet these ambitions. The Commission's approach to Rethinking education called for '*strong action to support new approaches to teaching and learning*' which covers the ability to meet the needs of disadvantaged learners including 'those from a migrant background' (European Commission, 2012) with the ultimate focus on improving learning outcomes.

### **Commission guidance and support within the Open Method of Coordination (OMC)**

The Commission has supported Member States' actions through the OMC with research, guidance and best practice and funding for collaborative learning.

The Commission published a Green Paper in 2008 (European Commission, 2008) to support consultation on the actions needed within the EU to address the education needs of children with a migrant background. It recognised that education systems had challenges in meeting the needs of a more diverse range of pupils and that this required the skills of teachers and school leaders but that migrant children including those from a second generation were generally more likely to be early school leavers and less likely to progress to higher education. Research at the time identified that causes of these inequalities included segregation in poorer performing schools, socio-economic disadvantage, lower expectations of their attainment within schools, access to ECEC, and insufficient proficiency in the language of instruction and assessment.

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<sup>2</sup> 2009/C 301/07

The Eurydice network updated its 2004 survey of school integration of migrant pupils within the EU and Associate countries (EACEA, 2009). This included arrangements and support for mother tongue teaching and learning. It found that mother tongue learning is often supported by Member States but this is more generally outside compulsory schooling and not part of the languages curriculum. Countries' school integration policies have tended to focus more on increasing migrant pupils' proficiency in the language of instruction and assessment as it is key to educational success and social and professional integration.

More recently the Commission supported a comparative research study on newly arrived migrant pupils (NAMS) (PPMI, 2011) to identify the types of educational support policies that facilitate the integration of NAMS in education systems within the EU: linguistic support; academic support; outreach and cooperation; and intercultural education. The research identified five factors which appear to affect NAMS' inclusion and integration into education and their attainment. These are:

- The quality of linguistic support;
- Admission systems which place NAMS in schools with disproportionately high numbers of similar pupils;
- Ability tracking (streaming) which places a disproportionately high share of NAMS in lower-ability streams which may reflect their lower initial levels of educational attainment and/or linguistic capability;
- Insufficient advice and guidance on choices and pathways to higher levels of vocational or general education to prevent early school leaving;
- Parent and teacher expectations and role models.

To improve collaboration, the Commission supported the creation of the SIRIUS Network, a European Policy Network on the education of children and young people with a migrant background to promote knowledge transfer on the subject. The Network has published various reports and guidance on educational support for migrant children.

Both the NAMS research and the SIRIUS network publications have provided summative evidence for this analysis.

### **The educational achievements of migrant children**

International comparisons can use the international test data available. Across the OECD, migrant pupils<sup>3</sup> as a whole scored on average 32 points lower in the PISA mathematics assessment and 21 points lower after accounting for socio-economic status (OECD, 2013) (see Table 1.1). The data also show that:

- Migrant pupils are 1.6 times more likely than non-migrant pupils to perform in the bottom quarter of the mathematics performance distribution;
- First-generation pupils generally perform less well than second-generation pupils (10 points lower on average) while there are no significant differences in socio-economic status between first-generation and second-generation pupils (all OECD);

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<sup>3</sup> These are classified as both first and second generation migrants (parents and/or grandparents born outside the country of residence)

- There are considerable differences between pupils who speak the language of assessment at home and pupils who speak another language at home. In eleven countries (FI, BE, LU, CH, FR, AT, SI, HE, DK, NL, SE) migrant pupils who do not speak the language of instruction at home are more than twice as likely to score in the bottom quarter of the mathematics performance distribution;
- The older a migrant pupil is on arrival, the lower his or her score on the PISA mathematics assessment;
- Not all countries with relatively high proportions of migrant pupils who do not speak the language of assessment at home have a high likelihood of pupils falling in the bottom quarter. For the UK, the ratio is only a little over 1 whereas in many countries it is over 2.

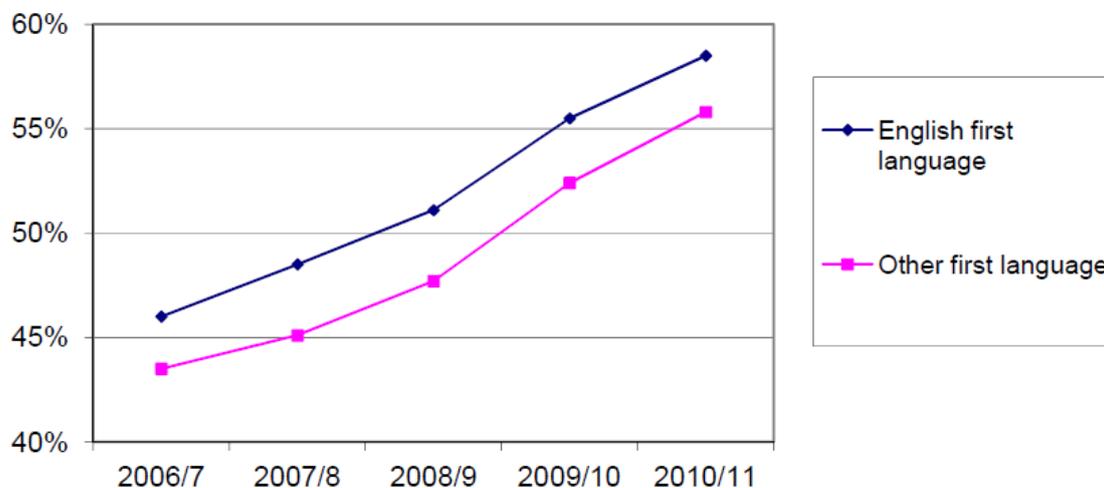
Migrant pupils' performance is more strongly associated with the concentration of socio-economic disadvantage in schools than with the concentration of pupils who speak a different language at home than the one in which they are taught at school. While there is a 30 point difference between pupils in schools with high concentrations of pupils who do not speak the language of assessment and those in schools where all pupils speak the language of assessment, the difference is almost zero when pupils' and schools' socio-economic status is taken into account.

Countries with comparative test data and longitudinal data for large samples of pupils have found similar persistent differences although in the UK they also show that:

- The differences vary between areas of the country;
- Schools can reduce the difference over the time pupils are in the education system.

In the UK (England), for example, the results from examinations for lower secondary education pupils (percentages with at least five A\*-C grades including English and Maths) showed a 2.7 percentage point difference between pupils without the language of instruction and English native speakers which has narrowed slightly over time but has been persistent (Hollingworth and Mansaray, 2012). This is shown below.

Figure 1. English first language versus other first language secondary school pupils GCSE attainment (inc. English and maths) 2008-2011



Source: Hollingworth and Mansaray, 2012

However they also show that:

- Pupils without the language of instruction and assessment do much better in some areas of England, such as London;
- Pupils from some ethnic groups (such as Chinese, Indian) perform better than White British pupils in examinations at the end of lower secondary education which indicates that second generation migrant pupils are not as educationally disadvantaged as their parents.

Longitudinal data in the UK show differences in the gaps in literacy and numeracy (Strand et al., 2015) at different ages. Using an Odds Ratio (OR) to allow a standardized assessment of the size of the gap in attainment between native English pupils and those without the language of instruction, Strand et al's study found:

- At the end of ISCED Level 0 only 44% of children without the language of instruction achieve a good level of development, compared to 54% of native English pupils. Thus the odds of achieving a good level of development are 0.67 (or 33%) lower for children without the language of instruction;
- The association between lacking the language of instruction and attainment decreases with age. The OR at age 7 rises to 0.73, at age 11 to 0.81 and by age 16 it stands at 0.90;
- Pupils without the language of instruction have better scores in maths assessments than reading assessments at every age; for maths the gap is almost eliminated by age 11 (OR=0.90) and by age 16 they outperform native English pupils (OR=1.03).
- Pupils without the language of instruction are also much more likely than native English pupils to achieve a pass grade in the lower secondary education examinations in a foreign language (OR=1.90).

This indicates that schools in some areas are more effective than in other areas and that schools can be effective in narrowing the gap by the time children leave school.

Table 1. Mathematics performance, immigrant background and language spoken at home (ranked by highest % of immigrant pupils who speak another language at home) (OECD, PISA 2012)

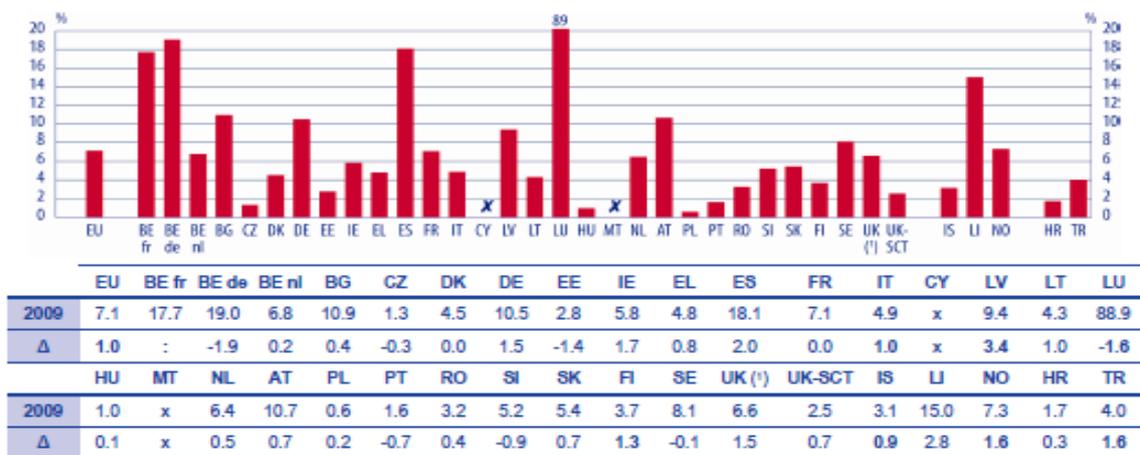
	Immigrant students who speak another language at home	Immigrant students who speak the language of assessment at home	Non-immigrant students who speak the language of assessment at home	Immigrant students who speak another language at home	Increased likelihood of immigrant students who do not speak the language of assessment at home scoring in the bottom quarter of the mathematics performance distribution
	%	%	Mean score	Mean score	Ratio
Luxembourg	32.2	11.0	527	481	2.24
Switzerland	12.1	10.9	551	478	2.18
Liechtenstein	11.4	21.9	559		
Austria	9.7	3.7	520	457	2.12
Sweden	8.4	4.2	494	438	2.00
Belgium	6.9	6.6	535	448	2.33
Norway	5.6	3.0	487	451	1.83
United Kingdom	5.7	6.6	500	501	1.07
France	5.5	6.0	511	440	2.10
Germany	4.8	6.6	530	470	1.88
Netherlands	4.7	4.0	533	473	2.01
Spain	4.7	4.9	493	438	1.80
Slovenia	4.6	3.3	508	448	2.08
Ireland	4.5	5.1	504	468	1.15
Italy	4.4	2.6	489	442	1.80
Cyprus	4.0	3.7	438	423	1.54
Greece	4.0	6.0	481	401	2.08
Denmark	3.6	3.5	509	453	2.09
Finland	2.7	0.6	524	434	2.77
Iceland	2.7	0.7	489	443	1.81
Czech Republic	2.0	0.9	503	460	1.18
Portugal	1.6	4.7	484	471	1.47
Estonia	1.7	6.4	528	468	1.91
Latvia	1.1	3.4	494	460	1.42
Serbia	0.7	7.6	450	478	0.47
Lithuania	0.4	1.2	484		
Hungary	0.3	1.3	478		
Croatia	0.3	11.9	475		
Bulgaria	0.2	0.3	451		
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.9	483		
Turkey	0.2	0.8	452		
Poland	0.1	0.1	519		
Romania	0.1	0.1	448		
OECD average	6.6	6.8	503	482	1.78

## The growth and extent of multilingual classrooms

With increased mobility between EU countries and continued in-migration to the EU, recent years have seen increases in many Member States of the linguistic diversity of classrooms and an expansion in the areas where schools have multilingual classrooms. PISA data, for example, shows that on average, the proportion of pupils not speaking the language of instruction increased by 1.0 percentage point (see Figure 2 below extracted from Eurydice, 2012). In the UK, for example, the percentage of pupils in English primary and secondary schools aged 5-16 who are recorded as not speaking the language of instruction more than doubled from 7.6% in 1997 to 16.2% in 2013. In the 2013 school census just over a million pupils in England are classified as not speaking the language of instruction (Strand et al., 2015).

Figure 2. Change in the proportion of pupils not speaking the language of instruction 2006-9

**Figure A2: Proportion of 15-year-old students who mainly speak a language at home that is different to the language of instruction, 2009**



Δ Difference from 2006 x Countries not participating in the study

Source: OECD, PISA 2009 and 2006 databases.

UK (¹): UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

Across the EU and Associate countries, on average 4.6% of pupils whose parents are migrants speak another language at home but there is a wide variation between countries ranging from 32.2% in Luxembourg to only 0.1% in Poland and Romania (see Table 2 below) (OECD, 2013). In five countries this is over 5% with a further ten between 2.5% and 5%.

As a consequence schools to varying degrees have multilingual classrooms. Table 3 shows that in many countries large numbers of pupils are in schools with a high proportion of pupils who do not speak the language of assessment at home. In nine EU countries more than 10% of all pupils are in schools where there are more than 25% of pupils who do not speak the language of assessment at home (OECD, 2013) (AT, BE, BG, CY, ES, IT, LU, LV, SE). By contrast, in countries such as Poland and Hungary more than four-fifths of pupils are in schools where all pupils speak the language of assessment at home. The approach to language learning in Luxembourg is described below.

### Luxembourg

In Luxembourg native children speak another language at home (Letzeburgesch/Luxembourgish). Pupils start to learn French and then German during primary education and later a third language, usually English. Many pupils are from migrant families who have many mother tongues although there are very large numbers of Portuguese speakers.

The government provides two years of compulsory pre-school education for children aged 4 to 6 which introduces language learning. The government is conducting research on mother tongue support for pre-school children (notably in Portuguese) and expanding bilingual education.

Language education is a large part of teaching and learning in Luxembourg. At the end of compulsory education, language teaching comprises 43% of the time for teaching all subjects. Pupils are expected to achieve high levels of competency in at least two foreign languages (at least B2 on CEFR).

Table 2. Proportions of immigrant pupils from total pupil population (OECD, PISA 2012) (ranked by highest percentage of first-generation immigrants)

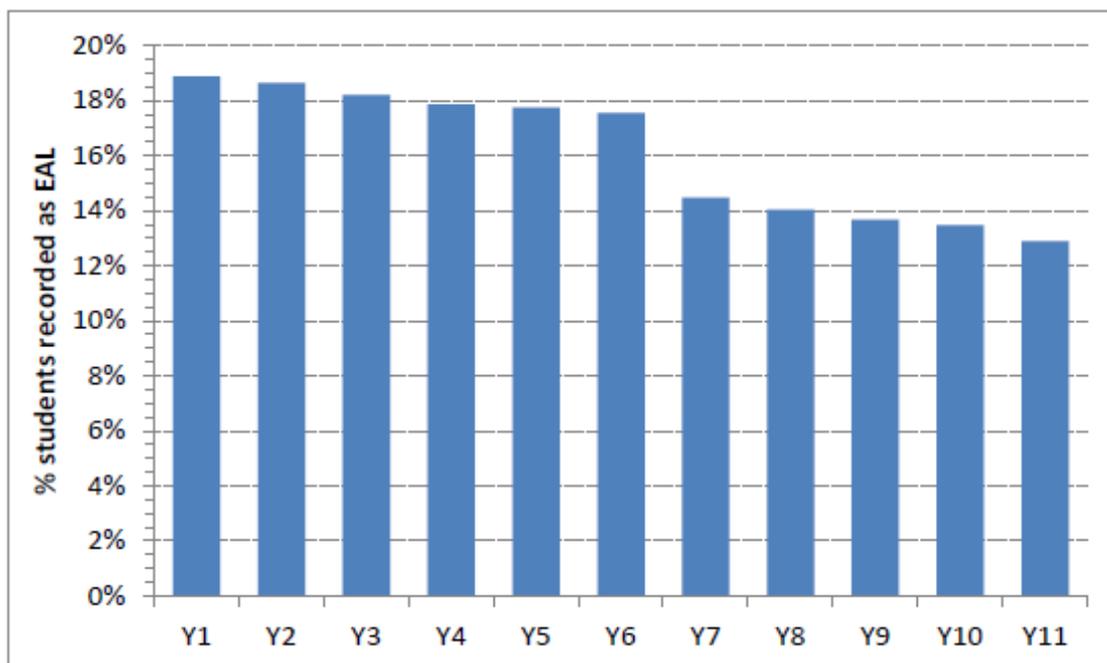
Country	Percentage of first-generation immigrants	Percentage of immigrant students who speak another language at home
Luxembourg	17.4	32.2
Liechtenstein	13.4	11.4
Ireland	8.4	4.5
Spain	8.4	4.7
Belgium	7.2	6.9
United Kingdom	7.1	5.7
Switzerland	6.7	12.1
Cyprus	6.7	4.0
Greece	6.3	4.0
Sweden	5.9	8.4
Austria	5.5	9.7
Italy	5.5	4.4
France	4.9	5.5
Norway	4.7	5.8
Croatia	3.7	0.3
Portugal	3.6	1.8
Montenegro	3.1	0.2
Denmark	2.9	3.8
Iceland	2.8	2.7
Netherlands	2.7	4.7
Germany	2.7	4.8
Slovenia	2.1	4.6
Serbia	1.9	0.7
Finland	1.9	2.7
Czech Republic	1.8	2.0
Hungary	0.7	0.3
Estonia	0.7	1.7
Latvia	0.4	1.1
Slovak Republic	0.3	0.2
Turkey	0.2	0.2
Lithuania	0.2	0.4
Bulgaria	0.2	0.2
Romania	0.1	0.1
Poland	0.0	0.1

Table 3. Concentration of pupils who do not speak the language of assessment at home (OECD, PISA 2012)

Country	% in schools where the percentage of students who do not speak the language of assessment at home is at or above 25% (high concentration)	% in schools where the percentage of students who do not speak the language of assessment at home is zero
Luxembourg	95.2	
Belgium	32.3	10.4
Spain	26.1	34.0
Switzerland	22.7	8.6
Cyprus	18.9	11.3
Italy	17.4	11.6
Austria	16.7	26.8
Bulgaria	14.8	45.3
Latvia	11.3	40.3
Sweden	11.3	33.1
United Kingdom	9.5	43.7
Slovak Republic	9.1	55.2
Turkey	9.0	64.9
Germany	6.7	41.0
Slovenia	6.0	51.8
Norway	4.5	26.9
Netherlands	4.0	35.7
Greece	4.0	43.2
Serbia	3.6	52.5
Estonia	3.6	50.7
Finland	3.1	31.3
Denmark	2.8	43.8
Lithuania	1.8	65.2
Czech Republic	1.4	66.3
France		
Hungary		80.6
Iceland		36.3
Ireland		43.5
Poland		86.7
Portugal		55.0
Croatia		75.5
Liechtenstein		
Romania		76.8
<b>OECD average</b>	<b>15.1</b>	<b>44.6</b>

National data on the language of pupils' parents and languages used at home indicate that schools in some areas and specific cities, often country capitals, have very high proportions of such pupils with a multiplicity of home/first languages spoken by pupils. This is the case in London, Amsterdam and Berlin, for example, but it is much more widely found than the country averages would suggest. It is also higher in primary than secondary education because of the more recent increase in migration (see Figure 3 below).

Figure 3. Pupils without the language of instruction by year group (ages 5 to 15), England



Source: Strand et al (2015)

### National policies and responses

#### Approaches to teaching/improving competences in the language of instruction and assessment

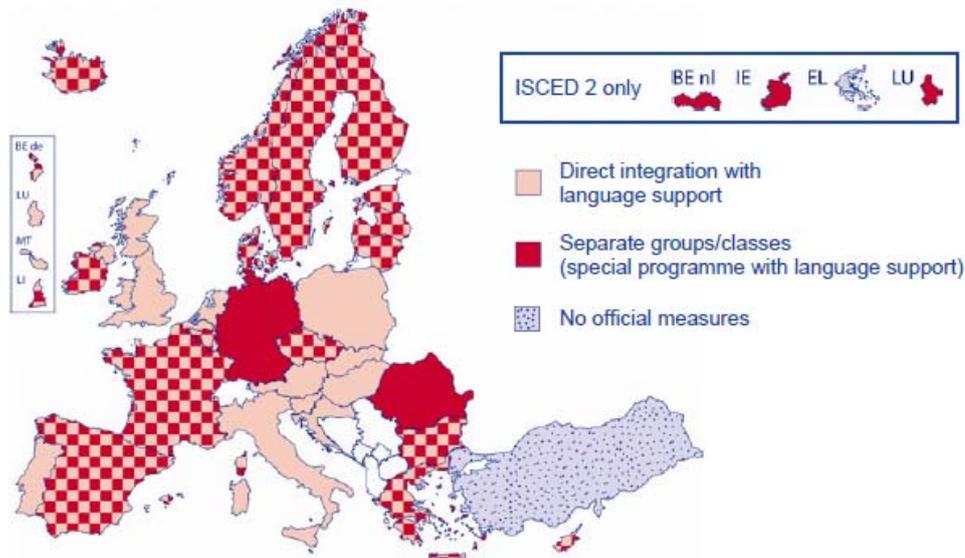
Two models exist (Eurydice, 2012). These are:

- Pupils are quickly integrated within the normal class for their age group (or in lower age group in some cases) and receive special support; or
- They are kept separate until their language skills are greater and receive tuition according to their needs.

In EU countries (see Figure 4 below taken from Eurydice, 2012)<sup>4</sup> direct integration can be commonly found in nine countries (and BEnl) while separation is common in two. In the remainder separate teaching for migrant children is provided for limited periods (although these are variable in length) or for limited periods of the school timetable. Direct integration with additional assistance in the language of instruction or relatively short periods of separation is slightly more common in primary education.

<sup>4</sup> It should be noted that in some countries, regional, local or school authorities are entitled to use their autonomy in order to decide on the best ways to meet local needs and circumstances as, for example, in Germany, Spain, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom so these models will vary.

Figure 4. Models of provision for immigrant children learning the language of instruction as a second language in primary and lower secondary education, 2010/11 (extract from Eurydice, 2012)



Source: Eurydice.

### Support for mother tongue learning

In many Member States mother tongue learning is supported by education authorities. As the Eurydice study shows (EACEA, 2009) this is generally provided outside the curriculum (lessons are out of school hours with attainment not generally recognised towards lower and upper secondary qualifications) and dependent in many cases on at least one of the following: private and voluntary providers (often cultural groups using untrained teachers), bilateral agreements with migrants' home countries, and sufficient numbers of learners.

There are some exceptions. In Austria for example, mother tongues are available in school time and can be studied towards examinations. In the UK (England and Wales), some mother tongues are available for examination at the end of lower secondary education.

### Method

#### Broad assumptions

As a starting point for this study, three broad assumptions were drawn from the contextual material above.

#### Learning the language of instruction

It is widely accepted that competence in the language used for instruction provides for children to achieve their potential, participate in and be integrated into wider society, and offer a wider choice of better paid employment. Children with poorer language skills tend not to achieve their potential with more migrant children leaving school early and fewer migrant children progressing to higher education. There are in most countries significant gaps between the educational achievements of migrant children (even to a second generation) and those of non-migrant children.

Migrant adults with poorer language skills tend to have lower paid jobs and more frequent unemployment. They also tend to be less involved in wider society and less able to draw on public services.

### **Learning languages**

Learning and achieving higher competences in several languages (bilingualism) is widely believed from physiological studies to provide cognitive benefits which include the ability to learn, higher intellectual capabilities, and higher abilities into older age. There is evidence from bilingual learning and from Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) that there are wider benefits in terms of attainment in other subjects, motivation and other skills for employability from learning through a language which is not the mother tongue as well as learning the mother tongue.

There is widely believed to be a 'proficiency transfer' from language learning as hypothesised by Cummins (2007) as people with higher competences in several languages gain greater intercultural competences from the greater knowledge and awareness of other cultures they have gained through language learning. It is recognised that Erasmus pupils achieve this and have the social and cultural skills to be mobile. Equally they gain a greater ability and confidence to learn another language.

### **Barriers affect outcomes**

There are barriers which children without the language of instruction face to achieving their educational potential. These are broadly related to:

- The ability of schools and the teachers within them to provide effective support for learning the language of instruction;
- The resources in schools and education authorities to provide support to children and the opportunities to learn their mother tongue and other languages;
- The school systems which disproportionately allocate them to lower ability streams and special needs education;
- The relative lack of migrant parents' knowledge and understanding of education systems to make choices and engage with their children's education (coupled with their language skills);
- The lower expectations teachers have of children without the language of instruction.

### **Considerations**

To meet the needs of the study to identify what works to enable pupils without the language of instruction and assessment to achieve their potential and develop their multilingual skills, an initial view of the material and the evidence underpinning found that:

- There is a considerable academic literature on theories around cultural integration and the wider benefits of language learning which is widely accepted though not necessarily supported by unequivocal empirical evidence;
- There is a considerable grey literature on what is considered to be good practice and good practice materials collected and developed by practitioners. This can be accepted as evidence of what works if the process of reviewing practices which are used is systematic and widely engages practitioners especially if transnational;

- There was no systematic search of academic literature and grey literature to identify evidence led practices and the extent that policy and practice is supported by research showing relationships between policy actions and practices and benefits for migrant children;
- There is considerable published analysis of data which shows the significant differences between the achievement of migrant children and non-migrant children at all stages in their education, with both quantitative and qualitative evidence assessing the causes of these differences.

As a consequence this study has focused on the second and third of these to identify evidence based solutions which will address the set of questions in the box below.

### Research questions

What determines lower attainment among migrant pupils who speak a language at home different to the language of school instruction, fully or partly, – i.e. what are the relative roles of language competency, overall school performance, concentration of socio-economic disadvantage in schools, streaming and other factors?

How and to what extent does speaking a language at home different to the language of school instruction affect overall school attainment, school integration, participation to the end of ISCED 3 and higher education, pupil confidence, early school leaving, and employability?

What are effective policies and measures for receiving and integrating children and young people without proficiency in the language of instruction and assessment in teaching and learning?

What are effective policies and measures for enabling children and young people whose home language is not the language of instruction and assessment to access the curriculum and achieve their potential?

What are the barriers and enablers to implementing policies and measures for supporting children and young people who use a language at home different to the language of school instruction and assessment?

What are effective policies and measures enabling children who use a language at home different to the language of instruction and assessment to develop their reading, writing, listening and speaking competences in the home language?

What are the intercultural benefits of multilingual classrooms?

How and to what extent does development of language skills in both a first and a host country language support other language learning and the attainment of other learning outcomes?

### Approach

To address these questions, the study has comprised:

- A literature review drawing on academic research and grey literature;
- A series of round table discussions involving practitioners and experts; and
- A study visit to Cologne to see what is happening on the ground and to have further discussion with practitioners and experts.

The research protocol for the literature review can be found in Annex 1. All material sourced from these searches was checked for quality and relevance. In particular it was important for the study to include research which was based on empirical evidence and practitioners' experiences provided that:

- The methods and their limitations were understood so that the strength of evidence could be assessed;
- The context was known so its transferability could be considered; and
- Practitioners' experience was drawn on in a systematic way (such as through workshops and action research).

The searches found a total of 136 publications which met the search criteria, of which 94 were research or practitioner reports from research, governmental or educational delivery bodies, and 42 of which were academic journal articles. After screening and review, 55 of these were useful for the analysis using the criteria set out above. Annex 2 contains a bibliography of the material included in this report. These cover all the research questions and draw on a wide range of contexts in the EU.

In using the material brought together to address the research questions posed, it needs to be noted that:

- The academic and government sponsored research does not cover all of the study's research questions to the same degree;
- Nor is the research always of the same depth and quality. Longitudinal research with comparative groups, which provides stronger evidence of relationships between policy actions and outcomes in this area, is not common. Where it has been carried out, largely in the United States (US), the context is not always similar to the EU and may need to be treated with caution<sup>5</sup>;
- The research is based on contexts which existed when the diversity and scale of multilingual classrooms was not as great as it is now;
- The academic research does not always provide a consistent set of results. Where there are differences, the conclusions of research based on meta-analyses and comparative studies have been used where they are available;
- Equal weight has been given to the views of practitioners and experts working in the field for many years so that best practice developed, adopted, codified and widely accepted in areas where there has been longer experience of multilingual classrooms has been treated as supporting evidence.

## **A framework for the review of evidence and this report**

With the focus on identifying policy relevant approaches and measures that are effective in delivering positive educational outcomes for children without the language of instruction, policy measures and activities have been grouped around learning the language of instruction sufficiently to be integrated into schooling (chapter 2); improving language and other skills to access the curriculum (chapter 3); and developing mother tongue competences to improve proficiencies in language learning, intercultural awareness and cognitive skills (chapter 4).

What they cover and the outcomes they would be expected to achieve for children without the language of instruction is broadly set out below.

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<sup>5</sup> In the US, studies focus on Spanish mother tongue first and second generation migrants.

## Reception and integration

This includes:

- Access to early education and child care;
- Admission processes to schools for compulsory education;
- The assessment of language competences in the language of instruction and stages reached in other curriculum subjects;
- Preparatory learning of the language of instruction before integration;
- Allocation to teaching groups;
- Parental engagement.

These would be expected to raise children's confidence and motivation to learn; their ability to catch up in mainstream classes with their age group; their learning behaviours; and their access to high quality education and training.

## Access to the curriculum

This includes:

- Out of class/school support;
- In class/school support for learning;
- Adapted teaching practices and approaches.

These would be expected to raise children's motivation to learn and attend school, the progress they make and their attainment not just in the language of instruction but all subjects, and the progress they make to upper secondary education and beyond.

## Developing mother tongue competences

This includes:

- Formal learning of the mother tongue;
- Recognition of mother tongue competences;
- Encouraging use of the mother tongue in school and other settings.

These would be expected to raise children's motivation to learn their mother tongue; and to improve children's mother tongue skills and their other language competences, their cultural education, and the cultural awareness of other children.

## Teacher education

This includes:

- In service teacher education and initial teacher training to enabling children without the language of instruction to be transitioned to mainstream classes;
- In service teacher education and initial teacher training to enable children without the language of instruction to be effectively support and developed once they are in mainstream classes with native pupils so they can reach their potential.

## Theme 1: Reception and integration

In this section measures associated with the reception and integration of children without the language of instruction from ECEC onwards towards increasing their attainment as set out above in section 1.4.1 are systematically examined to identify:

- Any evidence that the measures have any of the outputs and outcomes expected;
- What practitioners say about the value of the measure and put into practice in some places with illustrative examples;
- What are believed to be the ingredients of success in terms of policy and practice drawn from the evidence and accepted best practice.

### Participation in early childhood education and care

Participation in early education and child care (ECEC) should be expected to bring benefits to migrant children as it has been widely shown that high quality ECEC produces long-term educational benefits, such as increased reading and maths scores on various achievement tests through age 14 or 15, reduced enrolment in special education classes, and reduced early school leaving (Karoly, 2001; Schweinhart, 2004). Overall, there is empirical evidence which shows that ECEC can have positive learning and progression outcomes for children without the language of learning and assessment.

### Research evidence

Spies, Büchel and Wagner (2003) found that attending kindergarten in Germany substantially increased the likelihood of migrant children attending higher level secondary schools. They examined the relationship between kindergarten attendance and the type of secondary education which children had in the former West Germany. Using information from the German Socio-Economic Panel to compare the children of German natives and migrants, they found that while kindergarten attendance by the children of German natives had some effect, it had a more significant effect for the children of migrants. Just over half (51 %) of migrant children who attended kindergarten progressed to a Realschule or Gymnasium, compared to only 21% among those who had none. For German natives' children it was 73% compared to 60%.

Schofield's (2006) review of research evidence in the US suggests that ECEC can help to address the problem of migrant children who often start school well behind others because of their language skills. This draws on experimental programmes as well as large-scale public programmes which have had positive (although not always sustained effects) on school readiness and educational achievement. Espinosa's (2013) assessment of research on ECEC and childcare approaches for children without the language of instruction also concluded that it could increase their levels of language and literacy development and improve their school readiness and later achievement. These effects can be considerable. For example:

- Gormley, Gayer, Phillips, and Dawson (2005) showed that part- and full-day ECEC for four-year-olds from a wide variety of groups (White, African American, Hispanic and Native American) and income brackets in the state of Oklahoma increased letter-word identification scores by 53%, spelling scores by 26%, and applied problem scores by 18%;

- Gormley (2008) compared Spanish mother tongue children who had completed ECEC in Tulsa with similar children who were about to begin the programme. Children primarily speaking Spanish at home benefited more than other groups of children with gains of 12 months in pre-reading, four months in pre-writing, and 10 months in pre-maths;
- Schofield (2006) also found that longer programmes of early education have greater effects, as do programmes directed by qualified staff and classes with lower child-staff ratios and small group sizes are more successful (evidence from Barnett, 2004; Nelson, Westhaus, and MacLeod, 2003), as well as having a systematic curriculum for acquiring language skills in early education. For example, the Success for All programme in Philadelphia (in the US) combined group instruction and individual tutoring which enabled children from low-income Asian families to read nearly at grade level by the end of first grade (Slavin and Yampolski, 1992, cited in Nusche, 2009).

### **Practitioners' views and experience**

Practitioners widely believe that ECEC for children without the language of instruction is of paramount importance in developing their language skills before compulsory primary schooling begins. However, their parents are generally least likely to take it up so even where it is free, it is necessary to have outreach workers and bilingual staff to encourage participation.

The European Commission Policy Handbook on Language Learning at Pre-Primary School Level (European Commission, 2011) contains a set of guidelines and recommendations derived from national experts. These reflect examples of good practice and academic evidence on how to ensure the quality, effectiveness and sustainability of language learning in pre-primary settings. It highlights the following proven approaches for early language learning with children from a migrant background:

- Promote initiatives that help migrant families to gain a real appreciation of the importance of learning the language of instruction in the formal education system as early as possible, and of their role in this process;
- Link language learning to the promotion of intercultural awareness for both pupils and staff (e.g. encourage engagement of migrant community groups with civil society, attract and engage staff who are second-generation migrants in the early education workforce, encourage and motivate children from a minority or migrant background to use their language knowledge and intercultural experiences in the school's daily activities);
- Stimulate interest in the language of instruction as well as the mother tongue through appropriate motivation methods, particularly play-based interaction;

Ideally, staff should have a solid grounding in how language acquisition works, particularly with respect to young children without the language of instruction. Staff should also be trained to monitor language development.

**Austria**

In Lower Austria, the provincial government set out to increase intercultural awareness and improve the language of instruction of migrant children. The project trained migrants to assist pre-primary staff in the management of multilingual and multicultural groups of pre-primary children (Intercultural Advisors). The Intercultural Advisors helped children not just to learn their mother tongue but also to learn German.

They also assisted by advising staff on dealing with intercultural issues in relations with children and parents and in pedagogical approaches, acting as interpreters at parent-teacher meetings, and disseminating information to parents.

**The Netherlands**

Opstapje works with the 2-4 age group to help prepare children without the language of instruction for primary school (Nesse, 2008). It aims to strengthen the cognitive, social and physical competences of the children and their learning of the language of instruction<sup>6</sup>. Opstapje trains mothers to improve mother-child interactions and to initiate systematic learning processes. The trainer of the mother is from the same ethnic group as the family.

Samenspel is an ECEC programme for migrant children (around three years old) and their mothers. Two educators (one with the same background/mother tongue as the participants) support children to improve both their competences in both languages. The mothers receive learning and play resources and instruction in how to play with their children and develop their language skills which they can use and practise at home (Nesse, 2008).

**Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that:

- Participation in ECEC by children without the language of instruction helps their language development and their readiness for schooling;
- Active outreach to migrant parents is needed to encourage them to take advantage of ECEC and to see the value of their children learning the language of instruction before they go to school. It helps if this is carried out by staff who speak their mother tongue;
- Parents often need to be enabled to develop their children's learning of the language of instruction at home. Parents should not be discouraged from developing their children's skills in their mother tongue; and
- Teaching staff in ECEC need to be prepared for teaching children without the language of instruction both in their initial training as well as from in-service training. Teachers need to be trained in language acquisition and apply this in their work.

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<sup>6</sup> German version of the programme has been evaluated (Sann 2004). Sann, Alexandra 2004: Frühförderung für Kinder aus sozial benachteiligten Familien. Ergebnisse der wissenschaftlichen Begleitung des Programms "Opstapje - Schritt für Schritt". In: DJI-Bulletin, München: DJI Verlag (2004); Nr. 69; S. 3

## Placement and admission

Migrant children often attend schools with higher concentrations of other migrant children which are found to have relatively poorer levels of educational attainment. There is stronger evidence that supporting these schools to achieve better results for migrant children can narrow gaps in attainment than of reducing segregation through admission arrangements.

## Research evidence

Nusche (2009) points to regression analyses (e.g. Schnepf, 2004; Scheeweis, 2006) using cross-country data from studies such as TIMMS, PIRLS and PISA which shows that across OECD countries a higher degree of segregation is associated with a higher unexplained test score gap between native and migrant pupils. This relationship is believed to arise from the greater effect that socio-economic status has on children's attainment and school performance than the migration status of their parents (Brind et al., 2008, cited in Nusche, 2009).

There is no research evidence that managing school admissions to reduce segregation or encouraging children without the language of instruction to attend schools with high proportions of children with the language of instruction makes any difference to migrant children's educational attainment. This fits with the wider evidence that it is the quality of teaching and school leadership which makes a difference to individual attainment, not admission policies.

In the US, Callahan et al (2009) found that first generation migrant children had lower attainments in schools with lower proportions of pupils whose mother tongue was not English<sup>7</sup>. Using longitudinal data to measure a range of attainments (maths and science, grades achieved in lower secondary education, and progression), they found that in schools enrolling relatively few children without the language of instruction migrant children performed less well than in schools with large numbers without the language of instruction, especially in relation to progression (to graduation). They attributed this to better resources and better qualified teachers to provide support as well as greater help from children with the same background/mother tongue able to help them to overcome a variety of social, linguistic and academic obstacles. This did not translate into better progression to employment and higher education.

Field, et al. (2007) shows that migrant parents may be less well informed about the available school options. This may be because of language barriers, resource constraints, and lower levels of education or lack of knowledge of the school system. This means parents have a lesser capacity to make informed choices about the most appropriate schools. Providing information and logistical support to migrant parents may therefore be beneficial (Nusche, 2009), although there is no outcome evidence for such measures.

## Practitioners' views and experience

While segregation is not believed to have a detrimental impact on migrant children (PPMI 2013), policy makers have sought to reduce it generally to alleviate the pressure on a few schools in the system and to increase social and cultural mixing in the provision of education.

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<sup>7</sup> Students are required to attend intensive English as second language course before being integrated. School placements can be directed by the authorities

Various countries have done this for one or both of these reasons at various times through dispersing migrant children (such as Denmark and Belgium (nl)), adjusting catchments, and restricting choices to give migrants a better chance of entering what are considered by parents to be popular schools. They have generally reported that whereas setting caps on migrant children in a school has reduced levels of segregation, other measures affecting parents' choices have not.

**Denmark: pupil dispersal**

In Aarhus, there is a system for the dispersal of pupils with Danish as a second language (PPMI, 2013). No year group can have more than 20% of pupils with linguistic support needs to improve their learn Danish in each school. Pupils are spread among the 19 'receiving schools', which all have experience of supporting children with specific linguistic needs

In many countries, efforts are channelled into improving the quality of teaching and management in schools which face the biggest challenges with migrant children. In many of these schools the education authorities also provide support services earmarked for schools and pupils without the language of instruction which supplement their teaching resources.

**Switzerland: Putting Quality into Multi-Ethnic Schools**

Putting Quality into Multi-Ethnic Schools (QUIMS)<sup>8</sup> is a programme focused on schools which have more than 40% or their pupils who are not native German language speakers. It aims to raise the standard of education in these schools for all pupils, so that they will be equally attractive to native Swiss parents and pupils and migrants, and to close the gap between the achievements of different social groups (as reported by international PISA scores). A third goal is to improve pupils', parents' and teachers' satisfaction with the school environment.

QUIMS offers extra financial and professional help to these schools. All QUIMS schools customize local programming based on three obligatory areas of action:

- Language support: including promoting literacy for all pupils using language competence assessments, creative work for oral and written proficiency as well as support for integrated "native language and culture lessons;"
- Attainment support: using a variety of learning methods to support cooperative learning, problem solving and to increase the involvement of parents and mentors; and
- Integration support: Building a shared culture of appreciation, respect and understanding through the use of intercultural mediators to liaise between parents and teachers; and the establishment of parent councils.

In some countries additional funding is used to assist schools with the education of children without the language of instruction. In the Netherlands the Educational Priority Policy assigned different levels of additional funding to schools depending on their pupils' background characteristics (Nusche, 2009). For funding purposes, each native Dutch pupil was counted as one, while pupils from an ethnic minority pupils counted as 1.9. In Belgium Flanders, funding in Antwerp schools enables more teachers to be employed so that class sizes are reduced to manage the needs of migrant children and other pupils with special needs (Severiens, 2013).

<sup>8</sup> [http://citiesofmigration.ca/good\\_idea/putting-quality-into-multi-ethnic-schools-quims/](http://citiesofmigration.ca/good_idea/putting-quality-into-multi-ethnic-schools-quims/)

## Lessons for policy and practice

The evidence above indicates that:

- Schools with high proportions of migrant children require teaching and leadership that can respond to the challenges of multilingual classrooms. Raising the quality of these schools and providing additional resources and funding per pupil is necessary if these children without the language of instruction are not to be disadvantaged;
- Where schools meet these challenges, children without the language of instruction can make progress to achieve their potential;
- Where migrant parents have choices of schools, education authorities should assist them to make informed choices;
- High levels of segregation between native and migrant children do not support social and cultural education and the valuing of diversity. For these reasons education authorities need to take steps to reduce the impact of parental selection.

## Assessment of language support needs

There is strong evidence that children without the language of instruction are more likely to be allocated to special education and, where there is streaming/ability tracking, to lower ability streams as a result of the assessment which takes place.

These decisions can partly explain why more migrant children are early school leavers and participate in vocational education tracks in upper secondary education across the EU. Practitioners broadly agree on the ingredients of better assessment but there is little research evidence demonstrating the effectiveness of the different approaches used for assessment.

## Research evidence

Various studies have found a significant bias in migrant children being found in special education (OECD, 2007; Lindsay et al, 2006; Werning et al. 2008). This is ascribed to assessments not distinguishing language difficulties from learning difficulties and the perceptions of assessors.

For example, a study conducted in the German-speaking part of Switzerland of nearly 2,000 pupils in the second year of primary school (Kronig, Haeberlin and Eckhart, 2000) showed that migrant pupils were over-represented in 'special classes' (i.e. classes for children with specific problems, such as learning difficulties) compared to normal classes: 55% of children in special classes were migrant children. A longitudinal analysis of 54 migrant pupils indicated that those with poorer competences progressed more rapidly in normal classes than in special classes<sup>9</sup>. A study in Bordeaux focused on a cohort of NAMS between 1998 and 2002 (Schiff et al. 2004). It showed that 20% of NAMS were directed to 'pedagogical integration units' for pupils with learning disabilities, and that the majority of children were directed towards short-cycle professional paths in upper secondary education.

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<sup>9</sup> [http://www.skbf-csre.ch/information/publikation/tb9\\_fr.pdf](http://www.skbf-csre.ch/information/publikation/tb9_fr.pdf)

The European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (EASNIE, 2010) concluded from its study of migrant children and special education across 25 EU countries that to reduce the proportion of children without the language of instruction education authorities and schools need: better assessment tools and processes (practitioner competence in assessment, understanding special needs, standard measures) and assisting parents to understand and contribute to assessment (bilingual staff available, involvement in decisions).

Equally migrant children may not develop the linguistic and culturally relevant skills necessary to perform to their potential before being assigned to an ability track within the school they attend (Nusche, 2009). Early ability tracking (before the age of 13) has a clear impact on the educational attainment of pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds, and an especially negative effect on children from families with low socio-economic status (Wölfmann and Schütz, 2006 cited in INCLUD-ED, 2009). Migrant pupils are disproportionately grouped into lower ability tracks which have negative impacts on their potential attainment (Nusche, 2009). General studies of tracking show that the earlier tracking starts, the greater the differences in attainment between pupils on different tracks (INCLUDE-ED, 2009, OECD, 2007, cited in Nusche, 2009).

### **Practitioners' view and experience**

Practitioners believe that effective language support must involve an accurate assessment of children's language skills (in both the mother tongue and the language of instruction) and other competences at the time of entrance into the education system (Nusche, 2009; PPMI, 2013; Sirova and Essoemba, 2014).

A well-developed system of reception of migrant pupils and initial assessment of their education background can help to place migrant children into the correct age group and ability level (PPMI, 2008) as well as determining the support they need for learning the language of instruction.

A qualitative study in UK (England) (Arnot et al, 2014) based on case studies of schools in different settings admitting children from other EU countries found from practitioners that it was background knowledge on prior attainment and the curriculum taught that they most needed to make appropriate decisions about support and placement. Schools receive very little formal information on this so need to piece this together from the children and their parents.

Thürmann et al (2010) believe that a better assessment framework to assess verbal and cognitive skills at different ages tailored to children without the language of instruction would help practitioners in determining their needs. To develop a systematic and reliable cognitive and linguistic profile of each individual learner requires highly complex observational and diagnostic skills. Some steps have already been taken in that direction in several countries, such as the Netherlands (Nederlandse Taalunie's 'Framework of Reference for Early Second Language Acquisition') and Norway (Reyen et al, verbal).

In Oslo, an assessment tool with levels equivalent to those in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was developed to enable more tailored and systematic second language training and a better assessment of children's language skills. Challenges in implementing the tool were around increasing teachers' knowledge as to how second languages are acquired and skills in assessing pupils' language skills. In the US, systems of assessment have been integrated with that of measuring the progress of all pupils in ECEC (e.g. California's pre-school desired results development profile).

Many countries have standard approaches for the reception of children without the language of instruction within schools which includes assessment. For example, the reception facility in Luxembourg, CASNA (*Cellule d'accueil scolaire pour élèves nouveaux arrivants*) is a central system responsible for welcoming and placing children in a particular school based on existing education records and tests administered for language skills, and mathematics. CASNAV (*Centre Académique pour la Scolarisation des Nouveaux Arrivants et des enfants du Voyage*) in France is similar, where upon arrival pupils are given diagnostic tests in mathematics in their native language, test comprehension and written production in French.

Screening and assessment is becoming more commonplace in schools in many countries. In Germany, several Länder have introduced screening processes to identify pre-school children in need of additional language support. In Belgium (nl) schools are expected to screen all pupils with a choice of assessment tools. Practitioners argue that tests should be designed and validated for children without the language of instruction. If they are language dependent, they can disadvantage migrant children.

#### **Denmark: system of reception and integration**

There is a strong focus on learning Danish which is usually carried out using supplementary instruction (Jorgensen, 2014). Children without the language of instruction undergo early language screening at age three and receive language stimulation in a day-care institution if the screening shows that they need it (Sirova and Essoemba, 2014). Even children not receiving day care receive 15 hours of language stimulation each week. Teaching in Danish as a second language is also provided when necessary to children without the language of instruction in pre-school class and in school levels 1-9. Children undergo an assessment test before being placed in a school and when admitted to school, after first having up to six months in a 'welcoming' class, may receive supplementary instruction in Danish as a second language in the regular classroom.

Others who have insufficient language skills may be placed into a reception class for up to two years, but they are able to participate in subject teaching in the mainstream class to aid their transition.

The national **Bilingual Taskforce (Tosprogs-Taskforce)** (from 2008)<sup>10</sup> in Denmark headed by the Education Support Authority offers instruments, knowledge and guidance to schools and municipalities that want consultation and help in language instruction (Jorgensen, 2014; NESSE, 2008). Teachers have access to special assessment material for bilingual pupils that can be used by teachers to assess their language proficiency and development needs in the language of instruction at different ages.

#### **Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that:

- To avoid migrant children being disproportionately found in special education and lower ability tracks, education authorities and schools must use tailored assessment systems from their entry to ECEC and school and their reception at school if NAMS. These need to reflect what may be their limited language competences and cultural differences;

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<http://translate.google.co.uk/translate?hl=en&sl=da&u=http://www.tosprogstaskforce.dk/indsatsomraader/dansk%2520som%2520andetsprog.aspx&prev=search>

- Children without the language of instruction should have their skills in the language of instruction as well as their mother tongue and other key areas of the curriculum tested;
- Migrant children should have both initial and ongoing assessment to monitor their development in both the mother tongue and the language of instruction;
- Suitable approaches and tools for screening and assessment are widely used by practitioners to provide appropriate support and make decisions. Mixing tests with observation and interviews to understand children's capacity to learn as well as their language skills are features of these;
- Ability tracking should be delayed for children without the language of instruction if this is a feature of school systems.

### **Learning the language of instruction for integration into the school system**

Overall, the evidence points to the greater value of targeted and continued language support provided in mainstream classrooms rather than lengthy periods of separate language learning with instruction in other subjects in a mother tongue. This is because integration in mainstream classes with other pupils provides for mutual learning, cultural integration and valuing diversity. It also provides for the practice of the language of instruction to gain access to the curriculum (Callahan et al. 2009) and the mastery of academic language through the curriculum (Little 2010). There is less agreement around the extent of intensive language learning before or after admission to a school although it is more generally accepted that this needs to be very little for children under the age of six and greater for children of secondary school age (NAMS).

#### **Research evidence**

Studies in the US indicate that separate classes should be short term and the transition from specialist separate classes to mainstream classes should be smooth (i.e. not immediately leading to a significant reduction or elimination of support) to enable children without the language of instruction to progress towards the educational attainment achieved by other children.

Flores et al. (2009) demonstrated the significant value of children without the language of instruction transitioning to mainstream English classrooms as soon as possible<sup>11</sup>. Their longitudinal study based on the results of 28,000 pupils in Los Angeles who were aged 11-12 years old in 1999 over their time in school in maths and reading, attainment in the school exit examinations and early school leaving, and progression to advanced courses found that:

- Those who transferred to mainstream classes from preparation classes more quickly had better results in all the indicators selected as did those who were transferred before they reached the eighth grade (aged 13-14);
- Those who transferred earlier in their schooling had better results. Those who transferred by fifth grade (10 to 11 years old) had reading test scores about 10 points higher and maths test scores about five points higher (average score for the whole cohort on both exams was around 36) than those who had not. Those who transferred as late as eighth grade (13 to 14 years old) had improved academic outcomes compared to those who had not – they had two-thirds the odds of failing the ninth grade, and half the odds for dropping out.

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<sup>11</sup> In the US children without the language of instruction are commonly taught separately until they are English proficient.

In San Francisco (Fong, 2015), a programme of achieving earlier transition to mainstream classes increased the proficiency of children without the language of instruction in English (average level improvement a year of 28% before the programme compared to 52% after the programme was introduced). This was attributed to the access to subject teaching and other speakers of English in class.

Practices vary between EU countries in relation to the length of time children have separate language learning before they are immersed, the extent that separate language learning continues after immersion, and the extent that subjects are taught separately in the mother tongue until immersion. The research evidence does not compare systems to indicate which are better than others about the point at which children are integrated and learn the language of instruction through immersion.

Loewenberg and Wass (1997) compared the approaches adopted and the measures taken to develop the linguistic competence of children without the language of instruction in France (Toulouse) and UK (England, London Borough of Brent) at the time. In London specialist teachers were brought into the mainstream classroom, so that they worked alongside the mainstream teacher on a team-teaching basis for 2-5 hours a week. In Toulouse the children were placed for up to one year in one of three categories of separate classes within schools (remedial classes at primary school; reception classes at primary school and adjustment classes in secondary schools). The separate classes did not provide much additional teaching time for the children, required them to miss parts of the normal curriculum, had a stigmatising effect, and were taught by less qualified teachers. In the UK (England and Wales), separate classes for children with English as an additional language (EAL) were stopped because they contributed to racial discrimination (Leung, 2004, cited in Nusche, 2009) so the policy was to place learners in age-appropriate mainstream classes with support as soon as possible.

There is some evidence of the value of preparatory classes for older children who are recent migrants. In Norway, Thorshaug and Svendsen (2014) found that for pupils in lower and upper secondary education who have arrived later in their education and who have had little or no previous relevant schooling in their home country preparatory courses provide an opportunity for educational provision to be tailored to each pupil's level in the various subjects. Their qualitative study showed that the separate preparatory classes made it possible to work towards different levels of achievement for each pupil, implement work assignments that cut across subjects with a focus on language training, and use educational materials adapted to the pupils' chosen programme subjects in upper secondary education. At the same time, clear advantages of connections between such courses and mainstream schooling were identified, such as possibilities for pupils to follow mainstream schooling and take exams while attending the preparatory course.

### **Practitioners' views and experience**

Practitioners largely agree that children without the language of instruction need targeted and continued language support, and this is most effectively provided in mainstream classrooms and integrated with the curriculum (AERA, 2004, cited in Nusche, 2009, SIRIUS, PPMI, 2009). Sirova and Essoemba (2014) believe that children benefit more from immersion with some kind of language support. They also largely agree that older children need longer periods of preparation before they are accepted into a school. Where they differ in practice is over the length of time that they believe some children need separate teaching. In some countries in the EU, such as Denmark and Belgium, this can be for up to a year, especially for older children.

A survey of primary school language policies and practices in 14 countries (Christensen and Stanat, 2007) highlighted the value of immersion with systematic language support but emphasised the need for programmes with explicit standards and requirements in place. They suggested that for new migrants, especially those entering secondary school, intensive immersion programmes with a preparatory phase and continuous language support may help to facilitate the best possible transition to mainstream instruction. Where there is immersion with a preparatory phase, it is important to ensure a smooth transition to the regular classroom (i.e. gradual participation) (Sirova and Essoemba, 2014), and to continue to provide language support (PPMI, 2009).

Practitioners believe that assessment can help with judgements over the transition where children are taught separately and over the support provided in mainstream classes (Robinson 2011). In the US, schools generally provide specialist support to pupils without the language of instruction, until they are reclassified as English proficient and they have a reduction in or elimination of language support services.

### **Sweden: programmes for Swedish as a second language (SSL)**

Children without the language of instruction who are NAMS learn Swedish following a SSL curriculum with proficiency requirements similar to those for native Swedish pupils. The number of instruction hours for SSL is the same as for mainstream Swedish language courses for natives. Older children arriving in school without the language of instruction may attend a preparatory programme (for between 6 and 12 months) that introduces them to the language and the school system, but these do not have frameworks or guidelines for the curriculum.

A study of practice in schools (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2009) found that many schools offered remedial SSL teaching for pupils whose Swedish needed to improve. This included some second generation migrant children as well as NAMS.

### **France: system of reception and integration**

At primary and secondary level, NAMS are registered in ordinary classes corresponding to their level and age. In parallel, they can be grouped in special classes created to further integrate them into ordinary classes by improving their French language skills. These are called 'initiation classes in French' (*Classes d'initiation en français - CLIN*) at primary level and 'reception classes' (*Classes d'accueil*) at secondary level. The time spent in these classes depends on each pupil's needs, but is normally less than a year. Some academies have also developed more flexible language support services: after a few months in CLIN/CLA, or because of geographical constraints (e.g. rural areas), non-francophone pupils can benefit from integrated remedial courses (CRI) at primary level, or temporary reception modules (MAT) at secondary level, before integration in an ordinary curriculum.

A survey of the reception services provided to non-francophone pupils in private and public schools (Ministry of Education, 2012) showed that the support provided to non-francophone pupils has improved (at secondary level in 2011, 91% of the non-francophone pupils are supported in their learning process), but differs between regions (e.g. less than 70% of pupils benefit from a support in the academies of Poitiers and Martinique, while all non-francophone NAMS are supported in the academies of Rouen and Paris).

**Germany: preparatory education for newly arrived older children**

In North Rhine-Westphalia, vocational training institutions, such as Berufskolleg Deutzer Freiheit BK-Deutz, take in newly arrived migrants aged 16 to 23 for preparation classes because they often have little German and a relatively poor disrupted education. These classes concentrate on enabling the participants to learn German as the language of instruction (about 50% of the work load), identify skills, interests and aptitudes and provide thematic information about German society. The courses start with a joint trip of all pupils and 16 teachers to the Netherlands to team build and to start to focus the pupils on conflict prevention, civic information, promoting a healthy life style and prevention of addiction). These have been run for over 20 years and they have successfully reduced drop out to around 10% to 15% with almost all continuing education afterwards or integrate positively into work. Courses are adapted for those who are severely traumatised or less motivated to attend school or need to learn Latin script.

**Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that:

- Children without the language of instruction are likely to benefit more from being integrated into mainstream classes (immersion) with support than staying in separate classes to learn the language of instruction. Younger children should be quickly immersed;
- Separate classes should have short term aims to develop children's competences in the language of instruction and have a special curriculum (with explicit standards and requirements in place) to transition children to mainstream classes and monitor their progress in the language of instruction;
- Immersion provides greater opportunities for children without the language of instruction to learn from peers, develop the academic language required for assessment, and increase their cultural education;
- Other children can benefit from their immersion through teaching which values diversity.

**Key summary points****Participation in ECEC**

There is conclusive research evidence which shows that ECEC can have positive learning and progression outcomes for migrant children which gives them the start they need to develop their skills in the language of instruction. Practitioners believe that better results are achieved where there is outreach to ensure migrant children take up free provision of ECEC and where ECEC providers have a systematic curriculum for language learning.

**Placement and admission**

While migrant children are segregated and schools with higher proportions of migrant children have lower attainment, there is no conclusive research evidence that segregation is a cause and that reducing it will improve attainment. Practitioners believe that reducing segregation does however help schools to manage and that the greatest benefit of this comes from increasing cultural awareness of all children.

They also believe that it is more important for education authorities to ensure that the quality of leadership and teaching in schools with children without the language of instruction can meet the challenges of multilingual classrooms and that such schools need to have additional resources and funding.

### **Assessment of language support needs**

There is conclusive research evidence that poor measures of assessment on entering the school system have a detrimental impact on migrant children. This is because they are more likely to be allocated to special education and lower ability tracks. Practitioners have developed better systems for assessing children's language skills and other knowledge and competencies during the early stages of their reception into the education system. These address the causes of poor assessment that have adversely affected children without the language of instruction.

### **Learning the language of instruction for integration into the school system**

There is indicative research evidence that children without the language of instruction should be quickly moved to having targeted and continued language support provided in mainstream classrooms (immersion) rather than in separate classes. The amount of time needed in preparatory education should be linked to age and previous education. Practitioners strongly support a speedy transition with teaching support because they believe this supports integration, learning the language of instruction and learning other subjects. Where separate classes are required children without the language of instruction should be enabled to make a transition to mainstream classes with a special curriculum and support from specialist teachers.

## Theme 2: Access to the curriculum

In this section, measures associated with the teaching of children without the language of instruction once they are integrated in schools towards increasing their attainment and progression in line with their potential as set out in section 1.4.2 are systematically examined to identify:

- Any evidence that the measures have any of the outputs and outcomes expected;
- What practitioners say about the value of the measures and put into practice in some places with illustrative examples;
- What are believed to be the ingredients of success in terms of policy and practice drawn from research evidence and accepted best practice.

### Support in the classroom for language and subject learning

Classroom support from teachers, specialist teaching assistants, specialist language teachers for migrant children and volunteers is vital for children without the language of instruction to reach their potential. The extent that children have additional support during their education until their language skills match those of native children appears to be a strong influence on matching their educational attainment with those of native children.

#### Research evidence

An evaluation of a programme in Wales to increase the level of support in the classroom (as well as other support and training) for secondary age children without the language of instruction (ICF and Arad, 2014) found that this contributed to the children's improved attainment as well as their English language ability. The study found that:

- Most children continued to improve their language competences while being given classroom assistance from a teaching assistant who often had the same mother tongue;
- Pupils receiving the support and teaching staff generally believed that it made a difference. Over 80% of pupils interviewed felt that the support they received had helped them to improve their English language and around three quarters believed it had helped them achieve better results in class and in tests;
- During the programme, children without the language of instruction improved their attainment in lower secondary education examinations (GCSEs) and the gap between them and native children achieving five GCSE passes including English and Maths narrowed from 9 percentage points in 2010 to hardly any difference in 2012 in the programme area. There was no similar narrowing of the gap in the areas of Wales without the programme.

Supplementary classes and tutoring in school for migrant children can improve their attainment and educational development. In Germany, Stiftung Mercator<sup>12</sup> provided pupil teachers to lead supplementary afternoon classes for upper secondary school pupils at 29 sites in 11 federal states. These included tutoring in language and other subjects in small groups for 2-4 hours once a week. The pupil teachers were paid. Over five years, around 7,700 pupils were supported by 1,300 pupil teachers. The

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<sup>12</sup> <http://translate.google.co.uk/translate?hl=en&sl=de&u=http://www.mercator-foerderungunterricht.de/&prev=search>

evaluation examined the progress of pupils in four waves as well as surveying their motives and attitudes towards education. The evaluation found that:

- Remedial classes contributed significantly to the improvement of school performance. Improvements were seen in at least one of the main subjects (German, mathematics and English) for 40-50% of the pupils;
- Pupils benefited from support by teachers of the same ethnic origin (40% of these pupils improved their German marks by at least a grade level, compared with 25% of pupils who were taught by teachers without a migration background);
- Pupils had more positive attitudes towards education and progression.

#### **Bulgaria: Accelerating Progress in the Social and Educational Integration of Children - Asylum Seekers and Refugee**

For two years (2011 to 2013), volunteer tutors provided individual support to the children of asylum seekers and refugees in learning the Bulgarian language, other subjects through the medium of their mother tongue, and the preparation of homework. This took place five days a week from 14.00 to 16.00 in the Integration Centre.

The volunteers were trained and led by two coordinators. They generally spoke one of the mother tongues of the children, Farsi, Kurdish and others. They were able to give more individualised help and instruction than the Bulgarian language teachers at the Integration Centre of the State Agency for the Refugees. The volunteer tutors worked with three groups of children:

- Those attending an initial three-month Bulgarian language course;
- Those who had basic skills necessary to read and count;
- Those who had advanced to study in Bulgarian public schools.

The outcomes reported included improved educational progress, social integration and Bulgarian language skills which helped their integration into school.

#### **Practitioners' views and experience**

Practitioners widely acknowledge that specialist teachers and teaching assistants not only support migrant children's language development but they enable them to access the curriculum and assist classroom teachers with the teaching of other subjects (PPMI 2013, Arnot et al. 2014). Learning assistance to one or several children in a class several times a week and providing resources to teachers (ICF and Arad, 2014) are believed by classroom teachers in Wales to have a considerable impact on whether children can cope with lessons and learn the academic vocabulary. They can also engage other children with the same mother tongue but better language of instruction skills to provide peer support.

These practices are widely found in EU countries.

**UK (Wales)**

The Ethnic Minority Achievement Service (EMAS) in Wales consists of teams of experienced teachers who work in partnership with schools, parents and communities to address the educational needs of minority pupils and to raise their attainment. Among other things they monitor the progress of ethnic minority pupils, help schools in setting targets for educational progress, work with families and give advice in linguistic and cultural matters. They are generally organised and managed by the local education authorities and include teachers as well as teaching assistants.

**Sweden**

In Sweden, specialist support for children with language needs is provided by the local education authorities. In the City of Gothenburg, the Language Centre organises classes in mother tongues and modern languages, provides study guidance in mother tongues for children who cannot access the curriculum in Swedish (mainly in English and maths), and provides assessment testing of language competence (at reception) for schools in the city area. There are no standard tests used in Sweden but some areas follow the practice in Gothenburg and have a common system.

**Germany**

ZMI, Zentrum für Mehrsprachigkeit und Integration, Centre for Multilingualism and Integration<sup>13</sup> is built around a cooperative agreement between the City of Cologne, the Regional Government and the University of Cologne to support schools and integrations centres in the area. This includes projects with individual schools as well as identifying resources to support language learning including mother tongues.

While practitioners believe children without the language of instruction need classroom support depending on their proficiency compared to children with the language of instruction at the same age, a variety of means are used to assess how much support is needed and when it should be reduced or removed. These decisions are often made on the basis of resources available though practitioners have developed language assessment tools and frameworks to assess progress and benchmarks to indicate when they can manage without support or with reduced support.

**Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that children without the language of instruction benefit considerably from:

- Continued support during immersion from specialist teachers, teaching assistants and trained volunteers to reach their potential. These also help classroom teachers;
- Additional instruction such as longer school days with supplementary guided learning;
- Opportunities to check out understanding in school with teachers, teaching assistants, other pupils and volunteers who have the same mother tongue; and
- Continued systematic monitoring of their language development linked to assessing any continuing need for additional support.

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<sup>13</sup> <http://www.zmi-koeln.de/>

Education authorities and schools need to be prepared to use some of their funding for the education of migrant children to provide these resources.

### **Support outside the classroom**

Extra support outside the classroom to children without the language of instruction, such as homework assistance, additional subject coaching, and mentoring in relation to careers, further education and employment, is believed to make a difference to their attainment and ambitions. Many countries have schemes to support learning (PPMI, 2013) often provided by individuals, welfare organisations, different kinds of non-governmental organisations (NGOs), and by publicly employed social workers (NESSE, 2008).

### **Research evidence**

Homework assistance provided by trained volunteers in Denmark was found to have improved many of the children's attitudes to learning and their ambition to complete their education<sup>14</sup>. In Denmark too, role models have successfully contributed to campaigns to raise migrant children's ambitions.

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<https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/index.cfm?action=furl.go&go=/intpract/danish-ministry-of-integration-support-for-homework-cafes-2006-2009>

**Denmark: We Need All Youngsters**

The Danish Ministry of Integration ran a programme, We Need All Youngsters (*Brug For Alle Unge*), to support migrant children to complete their education. The programme provided homework clubs and ran activities to engage migrant children and their families in further education. They recruited two types of role model: young role models and parental role models. The young role models were migrants who had successfully progressed in their education. They visited graduating classes in elementary schools around the country. Parental role models organised meetings with migrant children's parents in schools and community associations.

An evaluation of the project (LXP Consulting, 2008<sup>15</sup>) found that:

- From 2003 to September 2006 We Need All Youngsters organised 80 homework assistance cafés and supported approximately 900 volunteers, who every week helped around 1,600 children and young people.
- 32% of the target group of young people with non-Danish ethnic backgrounds believed that We Need All Youngsters to a great or very great extent has improved their possibilities of completing an education.
- 50% of the target group of young people found that the role model visits to a great or very great extent have inspired them to enrol in or complete an education.
- 27% of the young people in the target group found that their participation in homework assistance or clubs for girls have improved their possibilities of completing an education.
- Over 8,000 people have visited the education and company bazaars, and this has to a great or very great extent inspired 44% of the young people in the target group to enrol in or complete an education.
- The development of courses for contact teachers and advisers has led to innovative programmes with well-functioning tools and methods, which have been adopted by schools.

**Practitioners' views and experience**

Practitioners generally believe that migrant children benefit from additional help not least because their parents have greater difficulty in providing help in their education and language skills outside school and are more likely to be on lower incomes. Crul and Schneider (2014) (SIRIUS) advocate the use of pupils in higher education and young adults from the same backgrounds who can act as role models and coaches for younger pupils, often playing the part of an older sibling. They are believed to help children to progress in their learning.

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[http://www.brugforalleunge.dk/~media/BFAU/Filer/PDF/Evalueringer/121128%20English\\_Summary\\_evaluation\\_BFAU.ashx](http://www.brugforalleunge.dk/~media/BFAU/Filer/PDF/Evalueringer/121128%20English_Summary_evaluation_BFAU.ashx)

**Denmark: Homework Cafes<sup>16</sup>.**

The project addressed the educational underachievement of migrant children, in particular boys, who were at risk of failing to complete upper secondary education. Between 2006 and 2009 the Ministry of Education funded 41 projects and a total of 342 homework cafés for approximately 3,000 children on a weekly basis.

The cafés were run by volunteers – on average 8-9 for each café. Some cafés had a paid coordinator. Large NGOs, such as Dansk Røde Kors, Ungdommens Røde Kors, Red Barnet and Dansk Flygtningehjælp played a large role in many of the projects. Some projects had outdoor facilities and also ran other activities such as excursions.

The educational achievements of the participants improved, including their grades, as well as their competence in Danish. This meant they were better prepared for upper secondary education.

**Germany: RAA (Regionale Arbeitsstellen zur Förderung von Kindern und Jugendlichen aus Zuwandererfamilien)**

RAAs were after school clubs providing not only academic, but also cultural and sports and migrant community group facilities. The participants were young children and adolescents aged from 6 to 17 (NESSE, 2008).

**New Zealand: Out of school centres**

Out-of-school centres provide migrant and minority pupils to receive individual help and feedback with completing homework assignments between 15.00 and 17.00 daily. The mentoring is done by teachers and some qualified voluntary parents. (Drexler, 2007). The pupils choose to participate though many tended to be referred and encouraged by teachers.

Mentors, coaches and club leaders can with training handle emotional, cognitive, and social problems in a holistic manner— for example, by reaching out to a pupil's parents—in a way teachers are mostly unable to realise within a school environment as well as providing independent support. It is believed that mentors can perform a role which parents and older siblings cannot. The approach is informed by the fact that children from migrant families who have older siblings perform better in school than those who are only or first-born children.

There are numerous examples of mentoring, coaching and out of school projects which practitioners in many countries believe to be effective in supplementing formal education.

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<https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/index.cfm?action=furl.go&go=/intract/danish-ministry-of-integration-support-for-homework-cafes-2006-2009>

### **The Netherlands: The Foundation for Knowledge and Social Cohesion**

The Foundation for Knowledge and Social Cohesion (*Stichting voor Kennis en sociale Cohesie* – SKC) operating in Amsterdam<sup>17</sup>. It is designed to provide positive role models for primary school migrant children (particularly Turkish and Moroccan).

The SKC currently has 300 mentors, of which 20% are volunteers and 80% are interns. The interns are recruited through agreements with universities of applied sciences, and receive ECTS credits for their work. Mentors come from diverse backgrounds, about half of them have a migrant background themselves. The project trains the mentors to engage with young people and understand their environment as well as to acquire pedagogical skills so that they can work with the children to gain the learning skills and social skills necessary for the successful transition from primary to secondary school. 1 500 mentees are currently assisted through this project, over 90% of which come from a migrant background. SKC only works with schools in lower socio-economic neighbourhoods, and where 60% of the school population has a migrant background. The mentor project is completely funded by the local government in Amsterdam.

### **Germany: Young Role Models**

*Junge Vorbilder* (Young Role Models) in Hamburg (Schneider and Crul, no date) targets pupils in grades 8 to 11 (lower secondary school) with a migrant background. Mentors are university pupils who come from migrant backgrounds and often share a similar cultural background and school experience to their mentees. Mentoring is held at the homes of the mentees to help them to get to know the family environment of the mentees and to build a good relationship with their parents. Mentoring consists of tutoring, social-emotional support as well as educational and vocational orientation. In 2013, Junge Vorbilder had 50 mentor-mentee pairs. Additionally, since 2011 the project has offered group mentoring in the form of tutoring courses in several secondary schools in Hamburg.

### **Germany: Education coaching for young migrants**

The European web site on Integration<sup>18</sup> highlights Education Coaching as an example of best practice<sup>19</sup>. In Steinbach the Caritas Association for the District of Upper Taunus e.V. in cooperation with the city administration of Steinbach Taunus ran the project from 2010 to 2013. The aim is that through one-to-one coaching young migrants from Steinbach (14 to 23 year olds) will receive qualified educational certificates and manage the transition from school to work.

Qualified volunteers (mostly pupils, academics, retirees) are trained and matched with the young migrants. There is regular contact with parents, young people and volunteers, individually and in groups. The young migrants also received group tuition (max 5 persons per group) in maths, English and German, as well as targeted application training. Assistance covered skills assessment, education and career guidance and help with applications.

In schools, the project has helped to reduce numbers leaving school only with a leaving certificate while other pupils were helped to improve their school grades. It has also helped schools to move them forward to placements with employers and further education.

<sup>17</sup> <http://www.sirius-migrationeducation.org/involving-the-community-in-education/>

According to NESSE (2009) the success of mentoring rests on the quality of mentors, the cooperation of schools and the engagement of parents as well as children. Mentors from similar backgrounds as the mentees appear to be an advantage. They are able to use their mother tongue to communicate knowledge about the school and education system and understand the family situation and problems children face.

Crul and Schneider (2014) (SIRIUS), drawing on practitioner experience, make the following recommendations for developing sustainable and effective out of school mentoring projects:

- Embedding the project within the school system or an integral part of a well-established social welfare or migrant organisation, which can help to build opportunities for long-term funding and develop professionalism;
- Fostering good relationships with the school and teachers and engaging parents;
- Establishing clear roles for mentors and ensuring that they work with both complex cases as well as children who are motivated to take part in the project, and need some extra support or a role model to achieve higher and more ambitious goals, such as access to higher education;
- Supporting mentors in the long term through good preparation and continuous training and offering rewards and benefits even if they are volunteers;
- Ensuring sustainable support through regular funding.

### **Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that children without the language of instruction benefit from:

- Extra support outside the classroom which supplements what schools and parents can do to raise their ambitions and their achievement;
- Activities provided by trained volunteers as well as paid staff, such as homework clubs, extra-curricular activities, and mentoring;
- Some of the volunteers and staff having the same mother tongue and cultural background as the children who can win their trust and get parental support for their children taking part.
- Education authorities and schools need to be prepared to use some of their funding for the education of migrant children to provide these resources.

### **Adapted teaching approaches by class teachers**

There is strong evidence in the general literature on educational attainment that the quality of teaching has a significant effect on the attainment and progression of children throughout their schooling (OECD, 2005; cited in Nusche, 2009). Class teachers who adapt their approaches to teach children whose language skills are not as high as others are believed to be better able to ensure they can participate in the learning and make the same progress as other children.

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<sup>18</sup> <https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/>

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<https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/index.cfm?action=furl.go&go=/intrpract/education-coaching-for-young-migrants-in-steinbach>

## Research evidence

A project in the UK (England), Raising the Achievement of Bilingual Learners in Primary Schools, worked with pilot schools in 21 local education authorities over three years (2004-7). It aimed to increase the confidence and expertise of classroom teachers to meet the needs of children without the language of instruction who were integrated in the class and close the attainment gap between these children and those whose first language was English.

The project consisted of:

- Providing local authorities with key tools and processes and professional development materials to use with schools;
- A diagnostic visit to the schools to evaluate the existing provision for children without the language of instruction;
- The production of a Raising Achievement Plan which identified changes needed and an action plan to meet them
- A series of up to eight Professional Development Meetings in the school, additional support in the classroom and observation, and advice to school leadership teams.

The evaluation (White, et al., 2006) found from qualitative interviews and visits to schools and local authorities that:

- Teachers gained insight into the difficulties encountered by pupils without the language of instruction; an understanding of second language pedagogy; an ability to apply new teaching models and techniques into the classroom; and (with a better understanding by school leaders of the practical difficulties) the sharing of ideas and resources, and increased motivation to innovate;
- Pupils were reported to have higher expectations of themselves; to be more confident; to ask more questions and 'expect to understand'; to be more prepared to use their mother tongue in school; and to be more 'on task' and focused.

Using two years' of end of primary school attainment data, Benton and White (2007) explored whether the pilot schools had achieved any discernible improvement in the progress of their pupils in literacy and numeracy over one year (by 2005) or two years (by 2006) compared with schools not involved in the programme. This found that:

- Schools involved in the programme made more progress in their English results between 2004 and 2006 than similar schools not involved in the programme;
- There were no significant differences in the rates of progress in relation to pupils' results in mathematics and science.

Abedi et al. (2003) investigated the extent that accommodating for the lower comprehension of children without the language of instruction in teaching science could improve their attainment. This was through teaching approaches and assessment. Their study of a sample of over 1,800 US Grade 4 pupils and around 1,600 US Grade 8 pupils drawn from 40 schools measured their science knowledge and English reading proficiency. They found that:

- Some of the accommodation approaches used were effective in increasing the performance of pupils without the language of instruction and reducing the performance gap between them and the native pupils;

- Accommodation approaches did not have a significant impact on pupils' performance in Grade 4 but did do in Grade 8. This is believed to be because at higher grade levels, complex language may interfere with content-based understanding and assessment. For example with Grade 8 pupils, a linguistic modification version of the science test helped the pupils without the language of instruction to increase their performance without affecting the performance of the native pupils.

Kieffer et al's meta-analysis of accommodations (2009) for formal assessment in maths and science found that only providing (English) dictionaries and glossaries had a statistically significant effect on the performance of children without the language of instruction in tests. This effects were generally positive but equated to only a small reduction in the average score gap between these children and natives. The authors argued that because accommodations have limited effect, teachers should focus on improving children's academic language vocabulary because this would be as effective in improving attainment.

Qualitative research into practice has found that:

- Common strategies for teaching children without the language of instruction include simplifying the language, providing translated terms, visualising explanations, using peer support (buddies) and these can be well used within schools (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2009);
- Different approaches are used even in the same schools (Arnot et al. 2014);
- Some teachers have no strategies and some are resistant to adapting their teaching approaches (Swedish National Agency for Education, 2009).

### **Practitioners' views and experience**

Practitioners believe that classroom teachers have to adapt their teaching approaches and work with specialist teachers and teaching assistants to enable children without the language of instruction to progress in all curriculum areas (SIRIUS). These echo teaching methods used in CLIL settings which are considered to be effective approaches (ICF, 2014), such as scaffolding instruction to aid comprehension, adjusting speech and language to ensure understanding, and using interactive elements in learning more frequently to ensure children use the language of instruction more and get help from their peers in the completion of tasks.

Practitioners believe it is important for children without the language of instruction to gain subject specific vocabulary so that they can better understand what is being taught.

The **ECML project, Language descriptors for migrant and minority learners' success in compulsory education**<sup>20</sup> addressed the issue that migrant children need highly developed competences in the language of schooling. This is technical specific subject area language. The project identified language competences required in the language of schooling in order to achieve educational success and reduce the support required in the class. By identifying language requirements in curriculum subjects and linking these to the levels of the Common European Framework of Reference, educators have a resource to meet the specific needs of children without the language of instruction which should enable them to succeed in learning and assessment tests.

The **"Step Together" project in Hungary**, for example, developed content based language teaching material to assist primary school classroom teachers with the teaching of children without the language of instruction. These provided suitable learning material in four areas of the National Core Curriculum (NAT) with the aim of building language competences through learning content that follows topics in the wider curriculum throughout the whole school year. It recognised that classroom teachers do not necessarily have special language teaching skills.

Many practitioners also believe that it is not just about adapting approaches but having positive attitudes to what migrant children can be expected to achieve and how they can make progress to achieve their potential (Schofield, 2006). This was also supported by White, et al., 2006 who found that schools could make a difference to teaching children without the language of instruction when they:

- Set out an action plan which sought to raise the level of achievement of all pupils (not just children without the language of instruction)
- Caused reflection on, and subsequent action on, other aspects of the curriculum and school life which could support children without the language of instruction more effectively (e.g. contact with parents);
- Trained teachers to reflect on their practice and develop new ways of teaching.

### Lessons for policy and practice

The evidence above indicates that:

- Classroom teachers who have adopted practices as a result of training and whole schools addressing the challenge of teaching children without the language of instruction are more confident to teach in multilingual classrooms and better able to adapt their pedagogical approaches;
- Children without the language of instruction make better progress in their competences in the language of instruction after teachers have adapted their practices;
- Making adaptations for the lower comprehension to children without the language of instruction in teaching approaches and assessment makes some difference to their attainment. This supports adaptation of teaching to provide academic vocabulary in mother tongue translation as well as simplifying language in tests, and using visual explanations which are techniques that are found to be effective in CLIL settings in developing language skills as well as maintaining progress in subject knowledge;
- Online resources are available to support these activities.

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<http://www.ecml.at/Thematicareas/Migrantlanguageeducation/tabid/1624/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>

## Parental engagement

There is strong general evidence that parental engagement is associated with improved educational outcomes for children (Jeynes 2005, 2007; Fan and Chen, 2001; Desforges and Abouchar, 2003; Schofield, 2006, cited in Nusche, 2009). This appears to extend to engaging migrant parents.

### Research evidence

St Clair and Jackson (2006) found that equipping migrant families with abilities to develop their children's language skills in ECEC leads to positive language outcomes for their children. They conducted a small quasi-experimental study (based on parent self-selection) which examined the effects of a parent involvement programme in kindergartens in the USA on children's English language skills. They found that by the end of first grade, children from families participating in the parent involvement training programme scored significantly higher on language measures (overall English ability and in terms of verbal reasoning, letter and word identification and writing) than children in the control group. On the overall broad English score, children whose families participated in the training achieved a mean standard score of 104 by the end of first grade, whereas children whose families did not participate scored a mean of 95.

In France, a pilot project, *Ouvrir l'École aux parents pour réussir l'intégration* (OEPRI) (Opening school to parents to facilitate integration), which covered over 400 schools across the country demonstrated some positive outcomes from parental engagement. Migrant parents, mainly mothers were given 120 hours of training in free workshops to<sup>21</sup>:

- Acquire a better knowledge of French themselves;
- Present the principles and values of the French Republic and information on the school system; and
- Provide guidance on how they could help their children during their schooling.

The evaluation found qualitative evidence drawn from the workshop leaders and participating schools that<sup>22</sup> relations with parents were better and this improved the school environment. The parents were more engaged with teachers and more involved in other types of activities, such as school trips. Teachers reported improvements as a consequence in their children's behaviour and attendance. Teachers were more aware of the cultural and linguistic barriers they had to overcome. Trainers observed linguistic progress in 70% of the participants. Maintaining parents' attendance for the whole course was a common problem. In 2012-2013, the average attendance was 73%.

<sup>21</sup> Ministry of Education: <http://eduscol.education.fr/cid49489/ouvrir-l-ecole-aux-parents-pour-reussir-l-integration.html>

<sup>22</sup> Ministry of Education: [http://cache.media.education.gouv.fr/file/47/62/9/8228\\_annexe1-synthese\\_evaluation\\_dispositif\\_377629.pdf](http://cache.media.education.gouv.fr/file/47/62/9/8228_annexe1-synthese_evaluation_dispositif_377629.pdf)

**France: OEPRI**

In the Jean Moulin primary school in Nimes, the evaluation of the OEPRI initiative highlighted a real improvement in the school climate (relations between pupils, teachers and parents) owing to the enhanced involvement of parents in school life. The positive effects observed were<sup>23</sup>:

- On parents: motivation to learn French; enhanced knowledge of the school system; better school-parents relations; concrete involvement of parents in their children schooling, who become key actors in their success; better school accessibility for the majority of participants; mutual confidence between school and parents; real progress in French for assiduous participants; better understanding of activities taking place in class;
- On teachers' practices: teachers adapted their methods to the pupils needs and accepted a dialogue on their practices, considering parents as key partners in children's success;
- On the school itself: improved school results; enhanced school climate; increased well-being among pupils and teaching staff.

**Practitioners' views and experience**

The SIRIUS Network highlighted that 'family support and involvement is critical to success. 'For policymakers, initiatives should focus not on the content of learning (such as homework) but on building confidence.... parental involvement is less about the detail of pedagogy and more about the emotional support and encouragement afforded to children' (Crul and Schneider, 2009).

The Eurydice report, Integrating Immigrant Children into Schools in Europe report (2009) set out measures which are commonly used by authorities and schools to engage migrant parents. These include:

- Providing written information on the school system in mother tongues for the parents of NAMS;
- Appointing outreach staff to welcome and guide migrant children and liaise with their families.

Siarova (2013) underlines the importance of ensuring home-school cooperation and the education of migrant parents, e.g. through parenting classes. She argued that supporting parents would help them to better understand the challenges that their children face at school, and would also enable them to adapt more easily to the host culture. The advantages of reaching out to migrant parents as important stakeholders are often not realised in European countries (Degler, 2014).

Castellotti V., and Moore, D. (2010) provide examples of various activities to bring migrant families, school and social partners closer together.

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<sup>23</sup> Library of pedagogical experimentations of the Ministry of Education: <http://eduscol.education.fr/experitheque/consultFicheIndex.php?idFiche=8743>

**Switzerland: The Odyssey handbook**

This provides a teacher-training tool based on a series of migration-related scenarios, including suggestions to facilitate the reception and integration of the new pupils in the class. The objective of the handbook is to encourage teachers to better understand the implications of migration and of status in the new country (refugee, asylum seeker, etc.), and to adapt their teaching practices accordingly.

**Ireland: Home School Community Liaison Scheme (HSCL)**

This was established in 1990 to develop partnerships between schools, parents and local communities. Through the scheme, both host and migrant communities are involved, alongside local agencies, in the daily life of the school, with the objective of enhancing pupils' learning opportunities (OECD, 2009). In 2005, it concerned 150,000 families with children in approx. 470 schools.

**Netherlands: Platform for Ethnic Minority Parents and Education**

This was a four-year project financed by the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. The platform offers workshops for teaching and administrative staff on how to systematically improve cooperation with migrant parents and communities.

**Program for Preschool Youngsters' (HIPPY)<sup>24</sup>**

In countries such as Germany and the Netherlands, HIPPY was set up to enhance immigrant parents' awareness and capacities, by making available tutors from within their communities. Regular evaluations have demonstrated that, thanks to this initiative, the cognitive abilities of participating children have significantly improved compared with control groups (cited in Sirius, no date).

**UK: INSPIRE**

Schools may also encourage parents to become engaged in school-based activities (Nusche, 2009). The INSPIRE project conducted in Birmingham (UK) involved local authorities providing training, materials and funding to schools to prepare them to work alongside parents. The approach taken in this project was to target one class per school where each child would bring a 'special' adult from home or from the community to work together with them and the teacher on activities related to the maths curriculum. Over 40 000 parents become involved every year, including those who have been hard to engage such as ethnic minority parents (Brind et al., 2008; cited in Nusche, 2009). Staff and parents reported a 70% increase in educational activity at home and 60% of teachers reported increased achievement among involved pupils (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; cited in Nusche, 2009).

Practitioners believe that building relations with libraries and enabling parents to support reading are essential in supplementing formal learning.

<sup>24</sup> <http://www.hippy-international.org/>

The **ECML Collaborative community approach to migrant education (EDUCOMIGRANT)** project explored new ways to enhance young migrants' education by developing links between schools, the home and local partners in education, such as public libraries. New ways of teaching were explored by producing multi-modal texts. Online resources as well as accompanying documents were developed in cooperation with libraries and other local partners.

### **Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that:

- Improving parents' language skills and their involvement in their children's development of language skills makes a positive difference to their children's progress in ECEC;
- Engaging migrant parents in the school and their children's education is believed to improve their children's attendance and behaviour and attitudes to learning. It also increases teachers' and parents' mutual understanding and trust;
- Through targeted communication, outreach activities, parenting classes, collaboration in learning projects and public library resources, parents can make a positive contribute to their children's learning.

This is supported by the conclusions of several reviews (PPMI (2013) and Bainski et al (2010)).

### **Key summary points**

#### **Support in the classroom**

There is indicative research evidence that the availability and level of support improves migrant children's educational attainment and that additional learning activities and support in school for children without the language of instruction can improve their progress. Practitioners strongly believe that classroom support has to be maintained to develop their language skills as well as access to the curriculum with the support of teaching assistants, specialist teachers and resources.

#### **Support outside the classroom**

There is indicative research evidence that formal and informal learning led by trained staff and volunteers outside school enhances migrant children's interest in education, their language skills and their aspirations. This is through a variety of measures: homework clubs, out of school activities, mentoring, coaching and advice. Practitioners believe that these help and can be targeted at children who need extra support which include migrant children. It helps to achieve positive outcomes if some of the staff/volunteers have the same mother tongue/migrant background as the children and parents.

#### **Adapted teaching approaches by class teachers**

There is indicative research evidence that adapting teaching approaches to accommodate children without the same level of language ability as native children has a beneficial effect. The adaptations they effectively employ are similar to those used in CLIL settings. There is some evidence that providing children without the same level of language competency as native children with tools and materials assists them to achieve their potential in assessment tests.

Simplification of the language used in tests has been found to be beneficial. Practitioners believe that teaching approaches need to be adapted in multilingual classrooms, teachers need to be aware of this, and have strategies and resources to manage. Practitioners also believe that teachers need to have positive attitudes towards migrant children if they are to achieve their potential and overcome language barriers. There is evidence that not all teachers have these positive attitudes.

**Parental engagement**

There is some indicative research evidence that equipping migrant families with skills to develop their children's language skills in ECEC helps to accelerate their learning. Practitioners believe that engaging migrant parents is necessary throughout their children's education to build their emotional support for their children and their cooperation with the school. These are believed to improve their children's attendance, behaviours and attitudes to learning as well as mutual trust and understanding between teachers and parents.

## Theme 3: Developing mother tongue competences

In this section we examine the different ways in which mother tongue competences are developed and used, how this can be done effectively, and the benefits they are found to bring to children without the language of instruction.

### Recognising and developing mother tongue competences in informal and non-formal learning

All migrant children have mother tongue skills when they come into the school system. For those under the age of 5 these are largely acquired and developed by informal learning provided by parents and peers. Practitioners believe these are not generally valorised or developed to higher levels unless informal parental education is supplemented by formal and non-formal learning. In some places, education authorities and communities provide additional opportunities for non-formal and informal learning of mother tongues which enable children to develop their competences, gain some recognition of their skills, and enhance rather than detract from their inter-cultural education.

#### Practitioners' views and experiences

Ball (2011) argues that for children to successfully retain their mother tongue while acquiring the language of instruction, they need continued interaction with their family and community members on complex issues and exposure to positive parental attitudes to maintaining the mother tongue. This should be in addition to ongoing formal instruction in their mother tongue to develop reading and writing skills.

Practitioners believe that non-formal and informal learning opportunities ensure that children see the equal value of their mother tongue skills in the absence of opportunities for formal learning (or supplementing these).

In the first instance this comes from recognising the mother tongue skills that migrant children have. Examples from Germany and France are presented below.

#### **Germany: First Language Lesson Programme (FLLP) in Cologne Museums**

A large network of schools in Cologne have developed a project to use pupils' mother tongue: the 'First Language Lesson Programme' (FLLP). Each year a group of schools have worked with an external organisation on a project which also enables them to use and develop their mother tongues within the curriculum of other subjects. The *FLLP in Cologne Museums* project enabled pupils to become museum experts and then use their language skills as guides at a family day in the museum. This also introduced them and their parents to the museum.

These projects are believed to provide children with learning opportunities outside the school curriculum, and enhance their self-confidence, cultural identity and mother tongue skills. It is also believed that this helps to change attitudes to mother tongue skills within schools and the wider community.

**France: Ministry seminar examples (2014)<sup>25</sup>:**

In Villeurbanne (Lyon region), supplementary informal French language learning is carried out using the mother tongue so that both languages are being learnt (From one language to another, *D'une langue à l'autre - DULALA*) 'as a round-trip between two languages';

In Aubervilliers (Paris region), a Bangladeshi association supports language learning through cooking and dance workshops for children and their parents; and

In Marseille, one artist created Flying Carpet Radio (*Radio Tapis volant*), which gathers migrant children with different mother tongues to participate in workshops where they create and play games based on different languages. The objective is to use bilingualism to promote the cohabitation of languages.

- Espinosa (2013) proposed a set of instructional strategies to support children' to maintain and develop their mother tongue competences:
- Creating visual displays representing the languages, cultures and family practices of the children in the classroom;
- Providing books and materials that represent the cultures and languages of pupils and their families. Encouraging parents or volunteers to help understand and read them; and
- Asking parents to introduce key vocabulary and read stories in the child's mother tongue;

In the second instance it comes from enabling children to develop their mother tongue skills and have means to recognise their progress and competences. Castellotti and Moore (2010) highlighted that the following could enhance pupils' self-awareness of their own competences in their mother tongue:

- A portfolio approach to the recognition of learning, which encourages pupils' reflection on and commitment to their learning process. Examples include the *European Language Portfolio* to record all their language skills (see Box below); *Language and learning biographies* that list pluri-lingual experiences and strategies and encourage learners to think about their linguistic and cultural paths; and *Autobiographies of Intercultural Encounters*, which aim to create awareness of cultural diversity by focusing on intercultural encounters and dialogue, and on recognising experiences; and
- Biographical journals and activities using different media (e.g. written, audio-visual, photos) and forms (e.g. videos, blogs, school projects) to provide opportunities for pupils to question their own pluri-lingualism, and pluri-lingualism in general and in their relations.

Examples from the UK (McPake and Tinsley, 2007) and the Netherlands are set out below.

<sup>25</sup> French Ministry of Culture and Communication – URL: <http://www.culturecommunication.gouv.fr/Politiques-ministerielles/Langue-francaise-et-langues-de-France/Politiques-de-la-langue/Multilinguisme/Les-langues-de-l-immigration-edition-2014-migrer-d-une-langue-a-l-autre>

**UK: Language Ladder**

In the UK, the Language Ladder scheme<sup>26</sup> has been developed, for both children and adults, as one of the outcomes of the National Language Strategy for England. The objective was to introduce a voluntary recognition scheme linked to the existing national qualification framework and the CEFR. The scheme uses 'can do' statements and offers discrete skills assessment for learners to focus on developing speaking skills, for instance. The Language Ladder also includes possibilities of self-, teacher- and external-assessment. The scheme offers accreditation in 23 languages, and additional languages should be available in the future.

**Netherlands: The European Language Portfolio in multilingual classrooms**

Pupils in the Netherlands can use the European Language Portfolio (ELP) to report their language learning activities undertaken outside the classroom (e.g. use of a mother tongue at home which is different from the host language, or contacts with family or friends in foreign countries), and can self-assess their competences. The ELP enables children learning their mother tongue to obtain recognition for language competences that are not acquired formally. A study on the ELP (Aarts and Broeder 2006) found that mother tongue learners had positive attitudes towards it, because their language competences were recognised and positively valued and they could assess and record their progress. The study also showed that the ELP enables teachers to better understand their multilingual classrooms and appreciate the strength of pupils' language competences. The ELP has also been adopted in parts of Sweden.

Ball (2011) highlighted from his research that successful implementation of informal mother tongue learning required:

- *Strengthening local capacity*: training childhood practitioners who speak children's mother tongue so that they can play a key role in children's development and family support programmes, e.g. through advanced in-service or pre-service training to become ECEC and primary school teachers;
- *Community involvement and community development*: involving parents and community members to develop successful initiatives for their children. The willingness of community members to see programmes in their mother tongue succeed in order to preserve their language and culture is a crucial success factor;
- *Parent education and community awareness raising campaigns*: promoting successful projects and community-wide awareness raising campaigns enables parents to see the added-value of mother tongue education and let their children take part in it; and
- Practitioners have argued that it is also necessary to have reading material for different ages in mother tongues in schools and libraries so that parents and other adults can support their children to read the mother language at home as well as the availability of after-school or weekend activities in which the mother tongue is the language medium. For some practitioners, 'professionalising' and formalising mother tongue teaching is not always necessary for migrant children to maintain and develop their skills alongside their formal education.

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<sup>26</sup> <http://www.assetlanguages.org.uk>

## Lessons for policy and practice

The evidence above indicates that:

- Non-formal and informal learning of mother tongues by schools, parents and community groups provide opportunities for children to develop their mother tongue competences, gain some recognition of their skills, and enhance inter-cultural education;
- Practitioners believe that migrant parents and children often have to be encouraged to develop children's mother tongue skills. Tools and resources are available for recognising progression and competences achieved;
- Providers of non-formal and informal mother tongue learning benefits from support from schools, public libraries and online materials.

## Developing mother tongue competences in formal learning

Formal learning provides structured education in mother tongue competences. This is provided in various ways in different countries during ECEC and compulsory schooling. Practitioners generally recognise the benefits of developing migrant children's mother tongue competences which are found in the research evidence and that there are greater difficulties in providing formal learning where children have many different mother tongues than where larger numbers of children share a mother tongue.

### Research evidence

Enabling children without the language of instruction to develop their mother tongue competences in ECEC is not detrimental to their acquisition of competences in the language of instruction. Espinosa (2013) concluded from a meta-analysis that early childhood education programmes in the US could support dual language learners – typically Spanish and English – to continue development in the mother tongue and achieve higher levels of competence in English in the long-term. Goldenberg (2012, cited in Espinosa, 2013), for example, found that children without the language of instruction in bilingual education performed better than children in English only programmes to improve their English. Espinosa (1995) found that where there was use of both the mother tongue and the language of instruction it led to better mother tongue skills and at least equivalent language of instruction skills, compared to children in English-only environments.

Slavin, Madden and Calderón (2011) compared the English and Spanish language and reading performance of Spanish mother tongue children randomly assigned to either a bilingual programme or an immersion programme from kindergarten for periods of up to five years. They found that, on the vocabulary and reading tests, first graders in the bilingual programme performed significantly better in Spanish and worse in English than first graders in the immersion programme. Differences diminished in second and third grades, and by fourth grade, when all pupils in the bilingual programme had transitioned to immersion programmes, there were no significant differences in English reading scores. The advantage of the children who participated in the bilingual programme was that they had much stronger Spanish skills than children who were in the immersion programme.

Other studies generally find no detriment to competences in the language of instruction where there is formal mother tongue learning:

- Burchinal et al. (2012 – cited in Espinosa, 2013) found that the academic attainments of Spanish mother tongue children were higher when they participated in Spanish/English CLIL programmes;

- Slavin and Cheung (2005) found from a meta-review of 13 experimental studies of reading programmes for English language learners, focusing on comparisons of various bilingual and English-only teaching that in nine of the studies the bilingual approaches brought about improved English reading measures, and four found no differences. They also found that 'paired bilingual strategies' that teach reading in the mother tongue and English at different times each day worked better to develop reading skills.

Qualitative evidence from practitioners in Ireland, Germany and Sweden (see boxes in section 4.2.2 below) who have introduced formal teaching of mother tongues indicates that similar results can be achieved.

Thomas and Collier (1997, 2002) examined the educational trajectories of mother tongue speakers from school entry through 11th grade in selected US schools. They found that mother tongue instruction seem to have enhanced the educational outcomes of these children:

- Children with no mother tongue instruction finished between the 11<sup>th</sup> and 22<sup>nd</sup> percentile nationally on average;
- Children with one to three years of mother tongue instruction in the earliest grades finished, on average, between the 24<sup>th</sup> and 33<sup>rd</sup> percentile nationally;
- Children with six years of mother tongue instruction finished, on average, at the 54<sup>th</sup> percentile (above national norms);
- Children placed in CLIL classrooms with native English speakers (where instruction was provided both in the mother tongue and English) finished, on average, at the 70<sup>th</sup> percentile which is well above national norms.

Thomas and Collier (2012 – cited in Siarova, 2013) also found that continued bilingual education over a longer period had the benefit of closing the achievement gap between those without the language of instruction and English speaking children; developing mother tongue competences; and acquiring proficiency in the language. They suggested that such children had four to seven years in bilingual/CLIL programmes.

CLIL programmes in general have been found in Europe to enhance not just foreign and native language learning but other competences (ICF, 2014).

There are numerous examples where formal learning of mother tongues has wider benefits:

- Wright and Taylor (1999 – cited in Ball, 2011) found that Inuit pupils taught in part in their mother tongue (Inuktitut) showed increased self-esteem and cultural pride compared to Inuit children educated only in the official language, i.e. English or French. They also had stronger competences in their mother tongue.
- Slavin and Cheung's meta-review of studies developing reading skills (2005) highlighted the following benefits of CLIL approaches to mother tongue learning:
  - Facilitating phonetic development;
  - Enabling an easy transfer to decoding any alphabetic language, once text in the home language can be decoded;
  - Serving as a bridge between languages, as phonemic awareness, decoding, sound blending, and generic comprehension strategies clearly transfer among languages that use phonetic orthographies, such as Spanish, French, and English; and

- Encouraging native-English pupils to learn Spanish from an early age
- Agirdag (2013) found that bilingual migrant children had higher future earnings than monolingual children. Based on two different data-sets covering a total of 29,000 pupils in the US, regression analyses showed that at the beginning of their careers bilingual pupils earn between \$2,000 and \$3,200 annually more than native English pupils.

### Practitioners' views and experience

Practitioners believe that introducing mother tongue teaching into the curriculum and/or providing CLIL approaches recognise the skills of migrant children and develop mother tongue competences (PPMI (2012)). A Eurydice report (2009) emphasises the crucial importance of mother tongue proficiency because it *'can make it easier for these pupils to learn the language of instruction and thus stimulate their development in all areas. In addition, the manner in which their mother tongue is viewed in the host community helps secure the self-esteem and identity of immigrant children and their families'*.<sup>27</sup>

Not all teachers are necessarily aware of the benefits of mother tongue support. Agirdag et al. (2014) studied teachers' beliefs about the use of the Turkish language by Turkish children in Belgian primary schools, as well as the consequences of language maintenance. He found no evidence that speaking Turkish – either at home or at school – harmed pupils' academic achievement (data from 2,845 pupils in a sample of 68 primary schools in Flanders, of which 435 children in 48 schools were from Turkish origin). Qualitative interviews of school principals and teachers found that many of them believed that the use of their mother tongue was detrimental to academic achievement and it was often discouraged. The Meridium (Multilingualism in Europe as a resource for immigration) project in six Member States (ES, IT, MT, PT, RO, SI)<sup>28</sup> found from surveys in each country that in general there was little awareness of the usefulness of mother tongue learning among teachers and parents, a lack of preparation for teachers to cope with multilingualism, and a more general lack of resources for them if they did.

Projects such as MARILLE have developed pluri-lingual approaches to learning the language of instruction in primary education to 'facilitate a more inclusive majority language classroom environment, with the objective of recognising, supporting and promoting pluri-lingualism'. Teachers elsewhere in France have observed that by applying these approaches they enhance social cohesion between pupils, teachers and their parents.<sup>29</sup> This was reported as a strong outcome of mainstreaming mother tongue teaching (both of Turkish and Italian) in primary schools in Cologne where it made parents more interested in their children's education and involved in the school.

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<sup>27</sup> See Eurydice 2009, Integrating immigrant children into schools in Europe, p. 51, and Migrants, minorities and education. Documenting discrimination and integration in 15 member states of the European Union, Equality and diversity for an inclusive Europe. EUMC comparative study. 2004, p. 78.

<sup>28</sup> [www.Meridium.unistrapg.it](http://www.Meridium.unistrapg.it)

<sup>29</sup> <http://centre-alain-savary.ens-lyon.fr/CAS/education-prioritaire/actualites-de-education-prioritaire-1/forum-pedagogique-drome/demarches-d2019elaboration-d2019imagiers-plurilingues-au-cours-preparatoire>

**France: Marille project**

Learners need to develop skills of investigation and language use, skills in self-directed (language) learning, and skills in interacting, networking and discussion. Teachers need to gain knowledge and understanding of first and second language acquisition processes and intercultural learning. The pedagogical skills required include management of language diversity in the classroom, building on learners' linguistic experience and skills, flexible application of methods of teaching the language of instruction as a first or second language, ability to promote autonomous learning and support ownership of learning processes, language teachers' ability to work together via an interdisciplinary approach, and collaboration with other teachers in developing the transversal role of language as a medium of teaching and learning other subjects.

Teaching is based on the structures and syntax of the pupils' mother tongue: basically children learn French by comparing its structure to the structure of their mother tongue. In schools with several pupils with various mother tongues, teachers are trained and guided to develop their classes through activities which will transfer understanding of different languages and enable a higher level of social interaction and cooperation in the classroom.

This process has intercultural benefits, since everyone is expert of his/her language (teacher and pupils) and discovers the system of the others. It develops empathy and motivates children to discover and learn both their first and a second language. Children also better understand the difficulties of other children to learn their language, and therefore put their own difficulties into perspective. Some children were interviewed after nine months in the programme, and indicated that it became easier to learn other languages. Results showed that all the children are more active in the learning process, are encouraged to use their language knowledge and skills and see how other languages relate to French. They also all continue to develop their French.

There are many examples of effective practices in promoting pluri-lingualism in the classroom in schools at all levels in EU countries within the curriculum. Some of these are described below. Practitioners involved in these believe that they enhance cultural awareness and integration because children appreciate sharing knowledge about their cultures. This makes them and their parents more involved in school life and the community.

**Greece: In the world of folk tales**

In Greece, early secondary level pupils in a multicultural and multilingual class were split into groups based on their language background (Albanian, Ukrainian, Russian, English, Polish, Urdu, Georgian and French) to choose a magic folk tale in its language, and then present it to the other groups of pupils in a short film (in their language). After viewing a video in a foreign language, each group must find out what the tale is about and then re-write or re-tell the tale in Greek. The groups also compare the different tales in terms of language structures and vocabulary used.

**UK: Language of the Month**

A primary school in the London area developed the 'Language of the Month' initiative: each month, all pupils learn simple sentences in the 'Language of the Month' selected from one of the 44 languages spoken by the school's children.

They found that pupils feel that their linguistic background is respected, and parents become more actively involved in school activities. The project is based on free downloadable web-based materials (<http://www.newburypark.redbridge.sch.uk/langofmonth/index.html>), which have been used throughout the school and in other schools in the UK and abroad.

### **France: Development of image-based multilingual approaches in pre-primary courses**

A pre-primary school in Valence where over two thirds of pupils have a mother tongue which is not French developed several learning activities. These included:

- Encouraging children to greet each other, count and list the days of the week in their mother tongue. Their parents were also present in the class and so were able to help their children to do this;
- Asking pupils to read a short story prepared in their mother tongue; practicing the pronunciation and then recording it so that the class could make comparisons between languages and cultures.

Teachers observed positive results from the approach, which has helped develop their knowledge, skills and competences as well as the children's. It was found to be a positive way of involving parents.

### **Belgium: Classes of initiation to languages and cultures of origin in primary and lower secondary schools**

Through a partnership between the Ministry of the French Community and eight countries (China, Greece, Italy, Morocco, Portugal, Romania, Spain and Turkey), primary and lower secondary schools have organised classes to broaden understanding of languages and cultures of pupils in many schools (*cours d'Ouverture aux Langues et aux Cultures* – OLC) for their pupils. In 2013-2014, the project was run across 249 schools in Belgium (fr).<sup>30</sup> Two types of course are offered: (i) language courses, which are available to all pupils whatever their origins and can be run with pupils from different schools; and (ii) courses on intercultural openness, where the culture of the country of origin is shared with all the children in the class.

These courses are delivered by a teacher from the selected country of origin. In the primary schools, the courses are a weekly lesson.

### **Ireland: Together Towards Inclusion Toolkit for Diversity in Primary Schools**

This toolkit was developed to help schools develop inclusiveness and an integrated approach to language education – including both curriculum languages (English and Irish) and migrants' home language<sup>31</sup>. The toolkit was developed with practitioners in schools in Ireland and the UK (Northern Ireland) based on three key principles: i) learners' involvement (engaging their interests); ii) reflection (self-management); and iii) spontaneous and authentic use of all languages (interaction has a key role to play). In applying the toolkit in primary schools, teachers have developed ways to engage all children further developing their multilingual repertoire.

<sup>30</sup> Le Programme d'ouverture aux langues et aux cultures (OLC) - Année scolaire 2013-2014, Belgium Ministry of Education – URL: [www.enseignement.be/lco](http://www.enseignement.be/lco)

<sup>31</sup> IILT Together towards inclusion toolkit, 2007

In one Dublin area girls-only primary school where 80% of the children have a mother tongue other than Irish/English and most of them have no or limited English proficiency before starting school in the first years of schooling, pupils are encouraged to express themselves in any language they prefer, then teachers gradually include all languages present in the classroom. Later on, English, Irish and other languages are progressively used (e.g. displays, vocabulary, games, worksheets to be completed using different languages). From the emergence of language awareness in the first years of primary education, through to more elaborate dual writing in the third and fourth years, and the ability to write multilingual texts in the fifth and sixth years, children develop proficiency in their mother tongue while gradually developing proficiencies in the language of instruction and other languages. Being agents of their own learning, pupils become more engaged in classroom interaction, all the more since their existing knowledge, skills and interests are taken into account. The school performed above the national average in the standardised tests of both English and Maths (2012-2013 and 2013-2014).

The **ECML Maledive project**<sup>32</sup> has provided teachers with web-based resources to enable them to enrich their teaching with plurilingual and intercultural approaches. The materials and pilot projects developed as part of the Maledive project show how linguistic diversity can be harnessed for the benefit of all learners and how teacher collaboration across school subjects can develop a whole-school approach to plurilingual teaching practices.

In other countries, children have access to formal mother tongue learning outside school or as an additional class. Siarova (2013) highlighted some good practice examples of countries offering these as modern foreign languages within the curriculum. For example, in Cologne (Germany) a few schools offer Turkish which can be studied for their Arbitur examination. This is also the case elsewhere in Germany, Austria and parts of the UK.

Siarova (2013) also found that from an assessment of the availability and quality of mother tongue provision for migrant children in 10 countries (BE-nl, DE, EE, EL, ES (Catalonia), HR, IT, LT, LV and NL) that the support provided was limited mainly because of financial restrictions and the lack of understanding about the benefits of mother tongue support for learning the host language. In the Netherlands, for example, mother tongue learning was more widespread but financial support was stopped in 2004 (Driessen, 2005 – cited in Söhn, 2005) although there were believed to be evident benefits.

### Sweden

In Sweden, pupils who do not have Swedish as their mother tongue have the right to receive tuition in their mother tongue. This separate syllabus also covers the literature, history and culture of the country of origin as well as learning the language. Education authorities must organise mother tongue tuition if a minimum of five eligible pupils apply for it and if a teacher with sufficient skills in both languages can be found. Pupils cannot study these towards their school leaving examinations.

<sup>32</sup> <http://maledive.ecml.at/Home/tabid/3598/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>

Most of the teaching takes place outside the normal school day. Not all children take up their entitlement which reflects in some cases children's reluctance to learn the mother tongue (time, perceived value of the language by peers/school/parents, no qualification/value towards leaving certificate unless the mother tongue is a foreign language such as Spanish which is a recognised language in the upper secondary assessments) and the school's recognition of its benefits (so they do not necessarily encourage and support).

Challenges faced in meeting demand for mother tongue learning include recruiting (and retaining) qualified teachers (pay, permanent/full time contracts, difficulties with recognition of qualifications from different countries,) and meeting needs of pupils in groups which are likely to be mixed ages/standards reached.

Positive benefits are believed to be: improved facility in learning Swedish and other languages, better grades, and self-confidence as well as a competence in the mother tongue which can be of wider use.

### **Belgium Flanders**

There is no explicit policy on mother tongue provision but schools have some flexibility within the community's linguistic policy. Since September 2014, schools are able to choose themselves any additional foreign languages to be taught (beyond the compulsory requirement of French as the first and English as the second) and these can be covered in the leaving certificate. Also, schools can use CLIL (for up to 20% of teaching) for French, English or German. Twenty-five schools have taken this up in the school year 2014-2015.

### **Austria**

In Austria, migrant pupils' mother tongues can be taught as optional subject or exercises, either in separate classes or integrated into the regular curriculum. Twenty four languages are available. In such a case, the class or subject teacher works alongside a mother tongue teacher. They are employed by Austrian school authorities like all other teachers. Until recently, mother tongue was available in the following languages: Albanian, Arabic, Bulgarian, Bosnian, Chechen, Chinese, Croatian, Farsi, French, Hungarian, Italian, Macedonian, Pashto, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Romany, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Spanish and Turkish.

### **United Kingdom (England)**

The HoLA Home Language Accreditation project in Sheffield developed approaches to record progress and accredit mother tongue learning to increase the proportion of children without the language of instruction with higher level competences and a qualification in their mother tongue. This was developed by a consortium consisting of Languages Sheffield, King Edward VII Language College and Sheffield City Council. Most teaching is out of school and the project built relations between schools and the community organisations providing mother tongue learning so that the teachers had pedagogical support and access to materials for teaching towards qualifications and accreditation.

Less commonly, mother tongues are taught in schools through their adoption as a foreign language for children to learn. In some schools this is through formal language learning classes as well as through CLIL. Germany has a quite a number of such primary and secondary schools in its larger cities with opportunities for children to

progress from primary to secondary school learning a mother tongue. The languages are varied but include Portuguese, Italian and Turkish. Practitioners recognise that the extent of linguistic diversity poses challenges for offering bilingual education in many areas unless there are large numbers of first and second generation migrants as well as qualified teachers.

### **Germany: Mother tongue learning in Cologne**

Over ten years or so, over 20 primary schools in Cologne have developed the learning of an additional foreign language which is a mother tongue for many of the children. This has brought mother tongue learning which had been offered outside the curriculum into the school's timetable (albeit a longer school day; one hour more).

At one school, the Katholische Grundschule Vincenz-Statz <http://kgs-vincenz-statz.de/> in Ehrenfeld, an area where many Italian migrants have settled bilingual German-Italian classes are provided along with German and Italian-lessons in small groups every morning. This has required one additional full-time teacher and collaboration between German and Italian teachers. The language teaching is connected to inter-cultural learning, music and sport. The teachers report that the school has greater parental involvement and that Italian mother tongue children have increasingly progressed to higher educational attainments than before the changes were made.

At the Katholische Grundschule Sankt Nikolaus [http://camerafriends.com/nikolaus/?page\\_id=2311](http://camerafriends.com/nikolaus/?page_id=2311) in Zollstock, the school has implemented dual language learning of German and a mother tongue (Turkish) as part of the KOALA pedagogy. This involves German and Turkish being taught as languages but also team teaching in other subjects such as history where for part of the lesson, the subject is taught through German for a whole class then through Turkish for the Turkish learners. Teachers in the school and ZMI staff all reported that the KOALA approach and the general openness to multilingualism make children more open and tolerant to other languages and cultures as well as contributing to successful educational progression. Where this is applied, evaluation has found that after three years there is a significant improvement in overall performance of the children concerned.

At Katharina-Henoth Gesamtschule in Höhenberg, one of the districts of Cologne with a very high percentage of families with Turkish origins: <http://www.igs-kathi.de/aktuelles/Aktuelles.html>, the secondary school offers Turkish as a second foreign language which allows children to progress from primary schools teaching KOALA. Pupils in 10<sup>th</sup> or 11<sup>th</sup> grade (16-17 years old), reported that learning their mother tongue had provided a richer understanding of their heritage and culture and opportunities to read and keep abreast of Turkish life as well as self-confidence in their identity and their ability to achieve their ambitions in a multi-cultural society. The teachers reported that the programme depended on having teachers of Turkish in the school, all certified with at least one additional subject from the teacher academy of the University of Essen.

Materials for reading and other lessons in mother tongues are needed by schools. In the Czech Republic, the Ministry of Education supported publishing and distributing textbooks and dictionaries in Vietnamese, Ukrainian and Russian.

## Lessons for policy and practice

The evidence above indicates that:

- Where mother tongue learning is part of the curriculum for children without the language of instruction it has no negative effect on their progress in the language of instruction. In some cases it has been found to enhance other educational outcomes. In all cases it has been found to develop their mother tongue competences more than would be achieved by informal learning;
- Not all teachers are aware of these benefits; some positively discourage the use of mother tongues;
- There is indicative evidence that CLIL programmes to teach mother tongues are effective and bring wider benefits to educational achievement and language learning;
- Opportunities for schools to use bilingual/CLIL approaches for teaching are available where many children have the same mother tongues which are not the language of instruction and education systems allow schools the flexibility to adopt these approaches for all or some of their pupils;
- Equally pluri-lingual approaches to language learning are believed by practitioners who use them to facilitate inter-cultural education as well as parental engagement;
- Having qualified mother tongue teachers in schools and mother tongues included in language curricula and examinations encourage mother tongue learning.
  - This is supported by research carried out into good practices by McPake and Tinsley (2007) and Ball (2011).

## Key summary points

### Non-formal and informal learning of mother tongues

Practitioners believe that informal learning of mother tongues should be provided and encouraged both in the absence of formal learning opportunities and where formal learning of mother tongues is available. The opportunities for children to use and develop their mother tongue skills enable them to gain recognition for these skills and see they are of equal value to other language skills. Children need to be stimulated to develop and use their mother tongue skills. Parents, schools and the community have been shown to play an effective part in this. Resources are available for non-formal and informal learning.

### Formal learning of mother tongues

There is conclusive research evidence that learning mother tongues alongside the language of instruction enhances not only their mother tongue competences but also their competences in the language of instruction.

There is indicative research evidence that this has:

- Longer term benefits for educational attainment and reducing the gap between migrant children and native born children;
- Wider benefits in enhancing children's confidence and their cultural awareness and pride in their culture;
- Longer term benefits in increasing employment opportunities.

Practitioners generally support the benefits of mother tongue learning although teachers are not always aware of these. Some schools and teachers continue to

discourage speaking in mother tongues. Bringing mother tongues into language learning and the language curriculum as well as offering formal learning of mother tongues as foreign languages through language classes and CLIL throughout primary and secondary education appear to be efficient and effective approaches to achieving the benefits described in the research evidence. This is facilitated where pluri-lingual approaches to language learning are adopted, qualified mother tongue teachers are available and mother tongues are recognised in the curriculum and school examinations.

## Theme 4: Teacher education

In this section we examine the how teacher education can meet the needs of multi-lingual classrooms and how initial teacher training and in-service training improve the attainment of children without the language of instruction.

### Developing language development skills and cultural competences

Linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom presents a major challenge for teachers. Teachers need specific development and learning programmes to be able to teach pupils who are learning the language of instruction, especially in primary settings and with NAMS. Practitioners believe that teachers need to receive training to meet migrant children's language needs when they are admitted and once they are immersed (Sirova and Essoemba, 2014) as well as training in cultural competences.

### Practitioners' views and experiences

Teachers who provide language support should receive training in second-language

acquisition that is aligned with the approaches implemented in practice (Christensen and Stanat, 2007). The most effective training covers implicit and explicit language support. Explicit language support requires teachers to have strong linguistic knowledge, so that they can effectively teach grammatical structures. They must also

be aware of the language structures that present the main hurdles in second-language

acquisition and how these can be overcome.

**Resources and approaches to achieving this have been developed by the ECML. ECML: Developing pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures**

The Majority Language Instruction as a Basis for Plurilingual Education (MARILLE) project<sup>33</sup> provides tools for language of instruction teachers to provide a pluri-lingual curriculum. It describes the core content of such a curriculum for language education; teacher knowledge and skills required; and strategies to enable schools to make the change.

The Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures (FREPA)<sup>34</sup> (Candelier et al. 2012) project presents teachers, teacher educators and school managers with descriptors of the knowledge, attitudes and skills considered necessary for plurilingual and intercultural education; training to develop teachers' language awareness, Integrated didactic approaches, inter-comprehension between related languages, and intercultural approaches; and teaching materials (in various languages) to use in the classroom.

The ConBaT+ (Plurilingualism and pluriculturalism in content-based teaching) training kit<sup>35</sup> provides material for combining plurilingual and pluricultural approaches with content-based instruction. It shows how the languages and cultures present in the classroom can be developed as a cross-curricular resource at primary and secondary level, and offers 26 content-based didactic units in English, French and Spanish to be used in classrooms.

Anderson et al (2010) state that supporting language acquisition and development should not be confined to those who specialise in teaching the language of instruction to learners with diverse language backgrounds and those who support pupils' continued progression, including, often, their acquisition of literacy, in their mother tongue. All teachers in multilingual schools need enhanced awareness of the linguistic demands of the curriculum and skills to make it accessible to pupils from a variety of language backgrounds.

**Spain: HOLA Online Network**

HOLA 2.0 [HELLO 2.0] started in 2007 in response to the growing number of migrant children coming to the Madrid region. It was developed by teachers, counsellors, remedial class teachers, pupils and families to support practitioners and pupils without the language of instruction. The project has its own website, a collaborative wiki and a social network; it also includes a collection of useful resources produced by the team of participating teachers to develop the Spanish competences of children with little Spanish, undertake an initial assessment and assess their progress. Pupils can learn Spanish online with guidance from the teachers.

Many practitioners argue that all teachers need cultural competences to successfully teach pupils from other cultures because culture plays a central role in learning. According to the US National Education Association (2015) this should include valuing diversity, being culturally self-aware, and adapting to diversity.

**Hamburg: Intercultural education for teachers**

<sup>33</sup> <http://marille.ecml.at/MARILLE/tabid/2316/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>

<sup>34</sup> <http://carap.ecml.at/>

<sup>35</sup> <http://conbat.ecml.at/TrainingKit/tabid/2488/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>

A training course was devised for teachers in Hamburg, Germany, a city with many children without the language of instruction and many mother tongues to ensure that prejudices and bias were eliminated and the diversity was valued and exploited. Teachers generally welcomed this because they had not been prepared for the scale of multicultural pupils in their training and teacher education. The authorities also developed materials for classroom use and encouraged school leaders to engage parents better and employ mentors to support teachers.

### **Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that:

- Language teachers of children without the language of instruction need to have specialized training either during their initial studies or through in-service training so that they can teach the language of instruction as a second language.
- All teachers require training to teach children without the language of instruction and to be able to value diversity by incorporating cultural diversity within their teaching. This should include intercultural training.

### **Developing skills for teaching children without the language of instruction**

For many teachers classrooms with pupils without the language of instruction are a relatively recent phenomenon and they benefit from in-service training. There is qualitative evidence that this helps teachers to realise the challenges and adapt their approaches (the benefits of which were shown in section 3.3 above). Practitioners believe that initial teacher training as well as in service training can support all teachers to develop their teaching approaches to meet the needs of children without the language of instruction.

### **Research evidence**

Classroom teachers in primary schools and subject specialists in secondary schools benefit from training to enable them to teach children without the language of instruction more effectively.

Part of the aim of the Minority Ethnic Language and Achievement (MELAP) project in Wales was to build the capacity of both the specialist workforce in EMAS teams and the classroom subject teachers to teach pupils with EAL needs more effectively and introduce systems for monitoring progress. For the classroom teachers in one local education authority area, a large group of history and maths teachers in secondary schools had short training sessions mixed with observation/feedback from the trainers to see how plans to change practice were implemented over 10-12 weeks. Teachers completed before and after questionnaires and a sample was interviewed. The evaluation (ICF and Arad, 2014) found that:

- Teachers believed that the training made them review and revise their practice: how they explain, the words they use, and how they allowed pupils to speak in their own language to obtain help and understanding;

- Teachers reported gains in knowledge and understanding and they appreciated the feedback and the support/assistance from specialists;
- They worked more closely with specialist support;
- They were more positive than teachers in other areas who had much shorter training.

White et al (2006) found from qualitative interviews and visits to schools and local authorities that participated in a training and development programme focused on schools with high levels of migrant children that:

- Teachers gained insight into the difficulties encountered by pupils without the language of instruction; an understanding of second language pedagogy; an ability to apply new teaching models and techniques into the classroom; and (with a better understanding by school leaders of the practical difficulties) the sharing of ideas and resources, and increased motivation to innovate;
- Children were reported to have higher expectations of themselves; to be more confident; to ask more questions and 'expect to understand'; to be more prepared to use their mother tongue in school; and to be more 'on task' and focused. In schools which participated in the training programme, children's attainment in literacy was greater than in schools which had not (Benton and White, 2007).

### **Practitioners' views and experience**

Practitioners strongly believe that initial teacher training as well as in service training is vital for teachers to be able to work effectively in multilingual schools. Teachers in some areas have considerable experience of adapting their practice but find that new teachers have little experience of teaching children without the language of instruction.

Degler (2014c) indicated that all teachers should have training to respond to the specific needs of migrant pupils so that they are aware of specialist help and resources and how to adapt teaching to the different levels of children's language skills. This needs to be supplemented by in service training. Degler (2014c) believes that school leaders need to recognise this need so that teachers are not just enabled to undertake appropriate training but also encouraged. Various practitioner led reviews (OECD, 2005; Field et al., 2007; cited in Nusche, 2009) recommend the introduction of a minimum requirement for teachers to undertake professional development in this domain, linking participation to promotion or recertification. In practice, for many schools this is a mix of longer training and short courses with one to one and small group training led by specialists in teaching in multilingual classrooms to build teachers' capacity and that of schools as a whole. Some examples can be found below.

#### **Germany: Language Support Coaches**

In North Rhine-Westphalia, Language Support Coaches (*SprachFörderCoaches*) act as training advisors in schools with an above-average proportion of children without the language of instruction (Thürmann and Vollmer (no date). About 100 senior teachers have undergone comprehensive training as advisors for schools (run by universities of Essen and Cologne in eight 1.5 day modules (seminars). The coaches are working with schools to establish their own whole-school language learning programmes and policies with related training and support.

#### **Norway: National Centre for Multicultural Education**

The Norwegian National Centre for Multicultural Education (NAFO) provides direct support to schools that are specifically assigned to NAFO ('focus schools') because they need support with the education of children who have no or limited Norwegian language skills (Severiens, 2013). Support is provided in the form of training for schools and teachers, organizing network events for the schools and providing resources for teachers through its website.

### **Czech Republic: Teaching Assistants for Migrant Pupils**

Teaching Assistants for Migrant Pupils<sup>36</sup> was run by the Society for Young Migrants (*Meta o.p.s., společnost pro příležitosti mladých migrantů*), an organization dedicated to the long-term education and integration of pupils from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds in Czech schools, from 2012 to 2014. It supported migrants with some pedagogical education experience to obtain employment and qualifications so that they can work as teaching assistants to migrant pupils in ECEC and primary schools. Participants took specially developed qualification courses on pedagogy and Czech language. Teachers in target schools were also supported through training on teaching Czech as a foreign language and how to work with the new pedagogical assistants.

### **Austria: Intercultural training**

This project in 26 primary schools in Lower Austria trained people with a migrant background to work in schools as intercultural employees (IKM)<sup>37 38</sup>. The certified training over two years provided them with practical training in schools with high proportions of migrant children alongside formal training. The project has brought adults with skills but no formal experience in teaching into schools to be teaching assistants.

Degler (2014c) (SIRIUS) reports that capacity building of teachers and school leaders is quite commonplace in countries. For example, in Austria school leaders are required to complete additional training courses in diversity management; in Estonia the Estonian Integration and Migration Foundation has co-ordinated teacher training to increase intercultural competences and didactic skills<sup>39</sup>; in Ireland, the DICE Project has supported teacher education colleges by integrating intercultural education into their curricula and ensuring future teachers can cope with cultural and linguistic diversity<sup>40</sup>; and in Lithuania an online platform, My pupil is a foreigner, has been developed to enhance teachers' (and others') intercultural competences and diversity management skills.

### **Germany: The Network of Teachers with Immigration History in North Rhine-**

<sup>36</sup> <https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/index.cfm?action=furl.go&go=/intpract/teaching-assistants-for-migrant-pupils>

<sup>37</sup> <https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/>

<sup>38</sup> <https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/index.cfm?action=furl.go&go=/intpract/intercultural-training-and-deployment-of-staff-in-40-lower-austria-lower-primary-schools-identified-via-a-study-undertaken-by-the-committee-of-the-regions>

<sup>39</sup> <http://www.meis.ee/eng-haridus-kultuur>

<sup>40</sup> <http://www.diceproject.ie/>

## Westphalia

This Network in North West Rhine-Westphalia has served as a role model for the creation of similar networks in other federal states in Germany (Baysal-Polat, 2014). It was formed in 2007 and was developed at inter-ministerial levels between the regional Ministry of School and Further Education and the Ministry of Labour, Integration and Social Affairs. The network now has more than 630 members from over 40 different countries of origin. Two full-time coordinators are provided by the regional Ministry of Education, while the regional office is financed by the Ministry of Integration.

The Network is designed to enable teachers with a migrant background to:

- Motivate others to go into teaching and give more credible advice about career choices;
- Contribute to and increase the quality of intercultural education in schools;
- Use their mother tongue competences in schools;
- Use their language skills and cultural experience to make an easier connection with migrant families.

The Network supports migrant and ethnic minority teachers by:

- Promoting the teaching profession and giving professional advice to pupils with a migrant background;
- Supporting network activities;
- Working with universities for teacher education and ensuring recognition of teacher diplomas from other countries;
- Providing in service training to existing teachers;
- Working with community bodies and industry bodies to promote transitions from school to work.

Anderson et al (2010) argue there is a need to make the connection between pupils' developing competence in the language of instruction and their broader educational progress and attainment. It should not be assumed that when pupils without the language of instruction achieve a satisfactory level of competence in the language, their educational attainment will then match that of their peers with the language of instruction. Subject and specialised language teachers must work together so that instruction in academic subjects and the host country-language is coordinated (Sirova and Essoemba, 2014).

Practitioners support in-school and between-school networking by teachers to embed these practices. Duany (2015) reported that in the US New York schools that had developed formal communities for teaching migrant children and developing CLIL approaches had supported formal training and increased children's attainment. The schools had developed network teams in some schools, communities of practice, and ongoing teacher education programmes.

A SIRIUS survey of national coordinators and a set of peer reviews (Severiens, 2013) identified the following good practices to build capacity in schools for teaching in multilingual classrooms:

- Professional learning communities to support teachers to collaborate and observe each other's classrooms as well as to reflect on and improve their practices;
- Forming networks of schools as well as relationships with centres of expertise - to teach and assess children without the language of instruction.

### **Lessons for policy and practice**

The evidence above indicates that:

- Teachers who have received in service training believe they have benefited and adapted their teaching practices. These have been found to improve the language competences of children without the language of instruction;
- It is also the case that teaching assistants and volunteers benefit from training to support migrant children;
- Newly qualified teachers may not have experience of teaching in multilingual classrooms. This has to be taken account of by schools and education authorities in the in service training they provide;
- Schools and teachers benefit from the resources, networking and training provided by specialist centres in many countries and cities in the EU;
- Networking between and within schools facilitates non-formal learning by teachers to support migrant children's learning.

This is supported by Mägi and Siarova (2014) from their examination of support for migrant children in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania.

### **Key summary points**

#### **Teacher education in language teaching skills and cultural competences**

Practitioners believe that teachers who provide language support should have

specialist training and qualifications in second-language acquisition that is aligned with

the approaches implemented in practice. Alongside this practitioners believe that all teachers require training to teach children without the language of instruction and to be able to value diversity by incorporating cultural diversity within their teaching. This should include intercultural training.

#### **Teacher education to develop skills to support children without the language of instruction in the classroom**

There is some indicative research evidence that in-service training helps teachers to build their capability and resources to teach children without the language of instruction which improves the attainment of children without the language of instruction. Practitioners strongly support this and also believe that initial teacher training ought to be adapted given the significant and growing proportion of teachers who will work in multilingual classrooms.

Schools and teachers benefit from the resources, networking and training provided by specialist centres in many countries and cities in the EU. Practitioners have found that

networking between and within schools facilitates non-formal learning by teachers to support migrant children's learning.

## Conclusions

In this section the key points emerging from the research literature, the advice and practice of those working in the field, and the round table discussions of policy makers, experts and practitioners are brought together to consider what the evidence shows to be critical to enabling children without the language of instruction to achieve their potential and what policy measures can make a difference. This addresses the original research questions set out in Box 1.1 to inform this report.

### Research evidence gaps

It is clear that the evidence is not always conclusive or clear cut which is a consequence of both the methods used and the coverage of research. In all areas where the evidence is indicative, it would be beneficial to have evaluations of policy measures which compared children who have been subject to the measure with those who have not over time. Where this is not ethical within a national education system then such studies need at least to measure change. All too often the measurement in studies is qualitative and not triangulated.

Specific gaps in the evidence are around assessment approaches during and after reception and the extent to which children should be educated in preparatory classes before immersion and the amount/duration of support required for immersion.

### What makes a difference

While the research evidence is not comprehensive in covering all the aspects of the educational system which can improve migrant children's educational achievements, it goes a long way to supporting measures targeted at children without the language of instruction to enable them to reach their potential. There is a considerable consensus among practitioners about the causes of such children not reaching their potential and broad agreement to the types of solution which have been tested and in some cases embedded in policy and practice.

### What are the factors working against migrant children achieving their potential?

The evidence here broadly confirms several of the conclusions reached in earlier research published by the Commission (see paragraph 1.4.1 above) that the factors which inhibit children without the language of instruction achieving their potential are:

- Schools without sufficient resources and staff with competencies to support the learning of children without the language of instruction;
- Assessment tools and assessors with negative perceptions of migrant children's abilities which allocate more of them to lower ability tracks and special education classes;
- A lack of opportunities to develop their mother tongue competences to higher levels.

Although the segregation of migrant children occurs widely in the EU, this is not by itself a factor.

### **What brings about higher attainment and reduced gaps in achievement and progression?**

There is conclusive evidence here that ECEC for children without the language of instruction not only increases language competences but also long term educational achievements; that language competences are related to achievement in other competences; and that targeted and continued support in language learning enables this.

There is indicative evidence supported by practitioners that the following contribute to raising the attainment of children without the language of instruction:

- Supplementary education (both formal and non-formal) in school and out of school which includes help with homework, language learning (including mother tongue learning), and mentoring during activities;
- Immersion in mainstream classrooms with support from specialists and with teachers who have the competences and experience to tailor teaching to children in the class without the same level of competency in the language of instruction;
- Increasing their parents' support and encouragement in their education, including their development of language competences;
- Developing their mother tongue competences.

There is no conclusive evidence about the length of time that children without the language of instruction should spend in preparation classes but there is indicative evidence that this should not be lengthy and should include a transition to immersion with support. It should be greater for older children (NAMS) so that they make the transition once they have a basic competency.

### **What increases children's development of their multi-lingual skills**

There is indicative evidence that children without the language of instruction can increase these skills to higher levels where:

- ECEC enables them to learn their mother tongue as well as the language of instruction;
- Non-formal and informal learning opportunities enable them to use their mother tongue;
- Formal learning opportunities are available either in school or out of school to develop their mother tongue skills which progress towards recognition in educational achievements.

### **What improves inter-cultural education?**

Practitioners strongly believe that intercultural education is more likely to be achieved and achieved more quickly where schools are less segregated and children are more rapidly immersed in mainstream classrooms. This is because this provides greater opportunities for cultural awareness and valuing diversity through teaching and learning.

There is indicative evidence that the following are beneficial:

- Increasing all children's cultural and linguistic awareness through both language learning and other parts of the curriculum;
- Engaging parents in the school's activities and their children's education;
- Increasing teachers' positive attitudes towards migrant children's prospects and their use of their mother tongues to learn.

## What facilitates making a difference

The table below sets out what the research evidence and practitioners point to as enabling migrant children to achieve their potential, gain multi-lingual skills, and become integrated. Policy makers are defined as officials and politicians in national and local governments with responsibilities for funding education and setting legal frameworks and standards for children's education. Policy implementers are in schools and education authorities who provide education to migrant children.

*Table 4. Policy enablers for effective multilingual classrooms*

	<b>Policy makers</b>	<b>Policy implementers</b>
Reception and integration	<p>Curriculum for language learning in ECEC</p> <p>Assessment tools for testing and monitoring competences and cognitive skills of children without the language of instruction without bias</p> <p>Dispersal of children without the language of instruction to reduce segregation and pressure on small number of schools</p>	<p>Outreach to engage migrant parents in ECEC and in their children's education</p> <p>Training of staff in reception centres/schools to use good assessment methods which cover language as well as other subject competences</p> <p>Bilingual staff in ECEC, outreach, and reception</p> <p>Rapid transition from reception classes to immersion in mainstream classes with support</p>
Access to the curriculum	<p>Core funding for schools to cover extra costs of reception and immersion of children without the language of instruction</p> <p>Project funding assistance for out of school activities providing additional education and support</p> <p>Curriculum for second language learning</p> <p>Language simplification in assessment tests</p>	<p>Additional teaching available and support from teaching assistants and specialist teachers</p> <p>Out of school activities with trained mentors/volunteers</p> <p>Bilingual mentors and teaching assistants</p> <p>Materials and resources for mainstream class teachers to adapt pedagogies</p> <p>Promotion of CLIL teaching approaches in multilingual classrooms</p> <p>Promote positive attitudes about the potential of migrant children</p>

Policy makers		Policy implementers
		Increase migrant parents' engagement in schools and their children's education
Developing mother tongue competences	Flexible policies towards foreign language learning which include mother tongues and their recognition in school qualifications and examinations of foreign language competences	Longer school days/CLIL approaches to accommodate formal mother tongue learning
	Qualified mother tongue teachers	Material and resources for mother tongue learning
	Funding for schools to provide formal mother tongue learning	Whole school approaches to learning cultural awareness through the curriculum including language learning
		Support for non-formal and informal learning of mother tongues where it is not possible to provide formal learning
Teacher education	Initial teacher training curriculum to prepare teachers to work in multilingual classrooms	Initial teacher training to include intercultural training, experience in multilingual classrooms and approaches to teaching children whose competence in the language of instruction is lower than native children
	Funding for in-service training that supports all teachers to teach children whose competence in the language of instruction is lower than native children	Building the capacity and resources of classroom teachers through in-service training and support from specialist centres, specialist teachers in second language acquisition, and networking opportunities

It is recognised by practitioners that there are substantial challenges to making the changes needed to create the conditions for migrant children to achieve their potential because it squeezes existing resources for education and could in some Member States require changes to curricula and assessment, admissions and teacher training. There is also the scale of the problem which is currently growing. Against this Member States must recognise that failing to address these challenges has longer term costs both to society and the economy.

Where positive outcomes are being achieved this often comes from education authorities and schools taking steps at little additional cost and then sustaining them. These include in the examples set out in sections 2, 3, 4 and 5 above:

- Drawing on the resources of specialists in education authorities to develop tools for assessment, resources, materials and in-service training;

- Adapting classroom practice;
- Offering mother tongue learning as a foreign language;
- Integrating mother tongue learning into the languages curriculum and using CLIL approaches within schools;
- Training volunteers as mentors;
- Encouraging young people from migrant backgrounds with mother tongue competences to train as teachers and teaching assistants.

## ANNEXES

### Annex 1 Research protocol

The tables below set out the criteria for study inclusion (Table A1), the sources to be consulted, and the English terms used to search for journal articles held on databases (which were translated for searches to be undertaken in French, German and Spanish).

Table A1. The criteria for study inclusion

Characteristics of the literature	Inclusions
Time period	To be agreed to build on any existing published meta-reviews (likely to be 1995-2015)
Geography	EU-28, EEA and Associate Countries, countries in North America and Australasia with family migration and asylum seekers
Type of publication	Major Commission project reports and other Commission outputs (e.g. legislation and Staff Working Documents) Peer reviewed articles Un-peer reviewed papers Publications of research organisations / think tanks / advocacy bodies Member State research outputs
Population groups	First and second generation immigrants who speak a different language at home before entering the school system First generation immigrants who speak a different language at home and have previously received instruction in that language in another country
Learning settings	Early education/pre-school Formal learning at ISCED 1 to 3 (general and vocational) Non-formal mother tongue learning
Type of policies/ interventions in scope	Assessment and setting/streaming Outreach and intercultural education Family interventions Pedagogical development Specialist linguistic teaching and classroom support Building on mother tongue knowledge and skills
Teaching and learning outcomes	Pupil overall learning outcomes (attainments) Pupil competence in the language of teaching and assessment Pupil confidence

Participation in education and training to the end of ISCED 3  
 Participation in higher education  
 Employability  
 School integration

Table 1. Sources of material

Type of source	Sources to be consulted
Journal databases	EBSCO journal database, Scopus, Google Scholar; Education Resources Information Centre (ERIC)
Specific journals	Multilingual Education International Journal of Multilingualism International Multilingual Research Journal Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis Educational Review European Journal of Education European Journal of Language Policy Journal of Linguistics Journal of Language Teaching and Research
Educational and learner data	OECD, PISA 2012 Results OECD, Family database Eurydice, Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe 2012 Eurydice, Key Data on Education in Europe 2012 Eurostat
Research institutions, networks and projects	The European Commission The Lifelong Learning Programme Sirius Network Languages in Urban Communities, Integration and Diversity in Europe (LUCIDE) Languages in Europe; Theory, Policy, Practice (LETPP) European Centre for Modern Languages - Council of Europe eg the MARILLE project The Migration Policy Institute (MPI) The Migration Policy Group Network for the exchange of information that serves to motivate language learners (MOLAN)

Type of source	Sources to be consulted
	<p>The Language Centre, London School of Economics</p> <p>The Languages Company, London</p> <p>Zentrum für Mehrsprachigkeit und Integration (ZMI) (Centre on Multilingualism and integration) - Köln, Germany</p> <p>The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) – US</p> <p>Centre for Language Learning Research (CLLR) – UK</p> <p>Centre for Language Education Research at Aston (CLERA) – UK</p> <p>The Research Centre for Foreign Language Education (ReFLEct) – Finland</p> <p>Language and Speech Laboratory (LASLAB) – Spain</p> <p>Institute of Foreign Languages – Latvia</p> <p>Education interculturelle – Belgium (fr)</p> <p>Developing school skills through heritage languages – City of Gent, Belgium (nl)</p> <p>VALIDIV and MARS projects – Belgium (nl)</p>
Government and government agencies	Education Ministries and educational/curriculum agencies in TWG countries
Other stakeholders	TWG delegates
Languages	Database, government website and other web searches will be conducted in relevant languages

Initial database search terms (each primary term will be combined with each secondary term, and in turn each secondary term will be combined with each tertiary term)

Primary	AND	AND
Multilingual*	Teach*	Integrat*
Bilingual*	Educat*	'Early school leaving'
Immigrant AND language	Learn*	Competenc*
Migrant AND language	Instruct*	Outcome
'Foreign born' AND language	Class*	Achieve*
'Mother tongue'	Pedagog*	Progress*
'Home language'	Support	Academic
	Tuition	Participat*
	School	Skill*
	Pupil	Confidence

Child*	Attain*
Young	Segregat*
Assess*	Stream*
	Track*
	Disadvantage*
	Qualification
	Employ*
	Higher*
	Perform*

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