

# Short literature review of main trends and challenges in curriculum approaches, educational practices, and social climate interventions aiming to tackle social inequalities

AUTHORS: CECÍLIA AGUIAR, GIULIA PASTORI, ANA CAMACHO, RITA GUERRA, RICARDO RODRIGUES

CONTRIBUTING AUTHORS: VALENTINO ZURLONI, SUSANNA MANTOVANI, EFFIE PENDERI, KOSTIS TSIOUMIS



# Short literature review of main trends and challenges in curriculum approaches, educational practices, and social climate interventions aiming to tackle social inequalities

AUTHORS: CECÍLIA AGUIAR, GIULIA PASTORI, ANA CAMACHO, RITA GUERRA, RICARDO RODRIGUES

CONTRIBUTING AUTHORS: VALENTINO ZURLONI, SUSANNA MANTOVANI, EFFIE PENDERI, KOSTIS TSIOUMIS

**Document Identifier**

D4.1Report on literature review WP4

**Version**

1.0

**Date Due**

M2

**Submission date**

28<sup>th</sup> February 2017

**WorkPackage**

WP4 Inclusive curricula, pedagogies and educational practices

**Lead Beneficiary**

ISCTE-IUL

## PARTNERS INVOLVED

Number	Partner name	People involved
7	Università degli Studi di Milano-Bicocca (UNIMIB)	Giulia Pastori, Susanna Mantovani, Paolo Ferri, Chiara Bove, Valentino Zurloni, Fabrizia Mantovani, Silvia Pozzi, Valentina Pagani and Caterina Falcone
10	Instituto Universitario de Lisboa (ISCTE-IUL)	Cecília Aguiar, Ana Camacho, Rita Guerra, Ricardo Rodrigues

## CONTENT

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY .....	5
1. A BIOECOLOGICAL THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	5
2. TRENDS AND CHALLENGES IN INTERVENTIONS FOR REDUCING SOCIAL INEQUALITIES AT THE CLASSROOM AND SCHOOL LEVEL .....	6
MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION AND MULTICULTURALISM .....	7
MULTICULTURAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION .....	9
MULTILINGUALISM, PLURILINGUALISM, AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE.....	10
LANGUAGE SUPPORT .....	14
POSITIVE SOCIAL CLIMATE.....	16
TARGETING BOTH COGNITIVE AND NON COGNITIVE SKILLS .....	16
3. BRIEF NOTE ON CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT .....	18
4. GLOSSARY OF KEY CONCEPTS/CONSTRUCTS RELEVANT FOR WP4.....	20
INCLUSIVE EDUCATION .....	20
CURRICULUM / INCLUSIVE CURRICULUM .....	20
PEDAGOGY / INCLUSIVE PEDAGOGY .....	21
INNOVATIVE PEDAGOGIES.....	21
SCHOOL SOCIAL CLIMATE .....	22
LANGUAGE SUPPORT .....	22
21 <sup>ST</sup> CENTURY SKILLS / KEY COMPETENCES .....	22
MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION.....	23
MULTICULTURALISM.....	23
PLURILINGUAL AND PLURICULTURAL COMPETENCE.....	23
PLURALISTIC APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING.....	23
ACCULTURATION.....	24
CONTACT .....	24
5. TOPICS AND USEFUL MEASURES FOR WP2 INTERVIEWS WITH PARENTS AND CHILDREN AND/OR WP5 SURVEY WITH TEACHERS .....	25
MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION, MULTICULTURALISM, MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE .....	25
SCHOOL CLIMATE.....	25
LANGUAGE SUPPORT .....	27
ATTITUDES TOWARD ICT .....	27
ACCULTURATION.....	27
CONTACT .....	28
REFERENCES .....	29

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This short literature review aims to document the main current trends and challenges in curriculum approaches, educational practices, and social climate interventions aiming to tackle educational and social inequalities in both centre-based early childhood education and primary education. Additionally, we aim to (1) describe the theoretical framework that will guide and support the work to be developed by ISOTIS WP4, over the next three years; (2) define main concepts relevant for WP4 in order to establish a common language and support shared understanding; and (3) identify relevant topics (and whenever possible, specific questions and/or assessment tools) to be included in the ISOTIS WP2 interview studies with parents and children and in the WP5 internet-based survey among ECEC and primary school staff.

### 1. A BIOECOLOGICAL THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As ISOTIS aims to understand and contribute with solutions on how Europe may tackle early social and educational inequalities, the bioecological model of human development, as proposed by Bronfenbrenner (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) naturally becomes the core conceptual framework for such a task, based on its comprehensive approach to the dynamic, diverse, multilevel, and interrelated influences on children's development.

Within this model, development (of both competence and dysfunction) results from recurrent and progressively more complex interactions of a developing child with the persons, objects, and symbols of his/her immediate environment. Such interactions (e.g., adult-child and child-child play, reading, etc.), called proximal processes, are the primary mechanisms producing human development. However, the power of such interactions to influence individual development varies as a function of (1) the person's behavioral dispositions, resources (i.e., ability, knowledge), and demand characteristics; (2) the features of the immediate and distal contexts; and (3) time. How interactions shape developmental outcomes depends on their regularity and intensity as well as on the interactions with and between person and context. According to Bronfenbrenner and Morris (2006), three specific person characteristics – age, gender, and ethnicity – seem to be particularly important because of their pervasive effects on development as they place individuals' in particular environmental niches, with specific roles and positions in society.

The immediate stages of children's experiences and development (e.g., family, school) are called microsystems and involve a "pattern of activities, social roles, and interpersonal relations experiences by the developing person in a given face-to-face setting with particular physical, social, and symbolic features" (Bronfenbrenner, 1994, p. 1645). Garbarino and Ganzel (2000) discuss how microsystems provide both opportunities for and risks to development. On the one hand, opportunities for development emerge from relationships that provide material, emotional, and social encouragement, compatible with children's current needs and capabilities. On the other hand, risks to development may emerge from "direct threats and the absence of normal, expectable opportunities" (p. 77). Related to sociocultural risk, social toxicity may arise from the absence of essential experiences and relationships. Garbarino and Abramowitz (1992) specified three types of microsystems that can result in the impoverishment of children's experiences: microsystems that are too small (i.e., that provide a limited set of relationships in terms of age groups, generations, and backgrounds), microsystems that are too one-sided (i.e., that lack reciprocity or power balance), microsystems that are too negative (i.e., in terms of affective tone). Consistent with this

conceptualization of possible risks within the microsystem, Leseman and van den Boom (1999) further proposed that proximal processes can be evaluated with respect to quality (e.g., responsiveness, balance), quantity (e.g., frequency, duration, dosage), and content (e.g., skills, knowledge, attitudes). These conceptualizations are also consistent with definitions of quality in educational microsystems (e.g., preschool, basic education) that incorporate both structural features (such as group size and staff-to-children ratio) and process features, which include activities and teacher-child and child-child interactions (Slot, Leseman, Verhagen, & Mulder, 2015).

Constructs such as “microsystem”, “proximal processes”, “risks to development”, and “opportunities for development” seem to be particularly important within a work package focusing on schools and, specifically, in the classroom, aiming to document how curriculum approaches, educational practices, and social climate interventions may be optimally designed to reduce educational and social inequalities, in both centre-based early childhood education and primary education, by succeeding in enhancing both cognitive and non-cognitive skills (i.e., self-regulation, creativity, cooperation) for all children, but particularly for those from disadvantage or migrant backgrounds.

*Vulnerability* and *resilience* in the child development, concepts frequently used in reference to migrant students (Moro, 1998; De La Noë, Sharara, & Moro, 2004), in a systemic perspective are not referred only to subject characteristics, but to constellations of factors of protection and of risk within the *ecological niche* of the subject’s life. *Vulnerability* describes a condition to be highly exposed to hurts (from latin: *vulnus*), while *resilience* would express a capacity to absorb ‘bumps and hurts’ without breaking (originally the concept of resilience comes from the physics of metals as a measure of the capacity to absorb kinetic energy without breaking).

Factors of protection and resilience or factors of vulnerability and risk can be located within the family, the school and the wider social context and researches give evidence to the powerful teachers’ role both as factor of risk or protection, for the crucial relationship they can build with children and families (Pianta, 2003; Cyrulnik, 2001, 2004; Moro, 1998; De La Noë, Sharara, Moro, 2004). Teachers can be tutors/protectors of resilience (Cyrulnik, 2001).

## **2. TRENDS AND CHALLENGES IN INTERVENTIONS FOR REDUCING SOCIAL INEQUALITIES AT THE CLASSROOM AND SCHOOL LEVEL**

Children with migrant backgrounds as well as native low-income children face educational gaps that hinder future adaptation and social mobility (e.g., Hillmert, 2013). Both the performance and sense of belonging at school of immigrant students differs widely across countries (OECD, 2015a), with diverse consequences for future success and well-being.

Results from PISA indicate students with an immigrant background tend to perform worse in school. This disadvantage is due to a complex array of factors, including language barriers, concentration of disadvantage in schools attended by immigrant students, and school policies such as like grade repetition and tracking (OECD, 2015b). However, narrowing performance gaps between immigrant and non-immigrant students is possible, as demonstrated by Germany’s and Portugal’s improvements in PISA results for second and first generation emigrants, respectively (OECD, 2015b).

Current evidence shows that successful inclusion<sup>1</sup> of immigrants can be facilitated through maintaining high expectations for all students; ensuring feelings of membership/belongingness; increasing proficiency in the first and second language, acknowledging the importance of both heritage languages and the language of instruction, by providing early sustained language support within regular classrooms; preparing teachers to handle linguistic and cultural diversity; avoiding ability grouping; etc. (OECD, 2015b).

A comprehensive equity scheme, based on policies on multiple levels, is thus needed to face the challenge of educational inequalities and this work package focuses on policies, interventions, and findings at the classroom and school levels, as they are important microsystems that have a direct influence on students' development and learning and are shaped by student's characteristics (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Specifically, we aim to study how curriculum (i.e., the contents or subjects elected for teaching and learning), pedagogy (i.e., educational practices), and the general social climate of the classroom/school are targeted to reduce inequalities.

### MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION AND MULTICULTURALISM

Multicultural education<sup>2</sup> provides an important framework for our task, as it aims to reform schools so that students with diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and social class backgrounds experience educational equality (Banks, 2015). For example, Banks proposes five dimensions of multicultural education, which address the target domains in this work (i.e., curriculum, pedagogy, and social climate):

- content integration (i.e., integrating ethnic and multicultural content across subjects);
- the knowledge construction process (i.e., helping students understand how knowledge is created and influenced by the racial, ethnic, and social class positions of individuals and groups);
- prejudice reduction (i.e., helping students develop positive attitudes towards different racial and ethnic groups);
- equity pedagogy (i.e., facilitating the achievement of students of low-status, namely through cooperative learning);
- and empowering school culture and social structure.

Banks (1991) further identified four major multicultural approaches to curriculum:

- the *contributions approach* that involves the inclusion of ethnic heroes to the curriculum;
- the *additive approach* consisting of adding ethnic contents (concepts, themes, and perspectives) while keeping the curriculum basic structure and purposes;
- the *transformation approach* that requires changing the basic assumptions of the curriculum and enabling students to take several ethnic perspectives and points of view;
- and the *personal, social, and civic action approach* that builds on the transformation approach and call students to make decisions and take actions related to the contents that have been addressed in class.

---

<sup>1</sup> Inclusion is chosen based on the principles of the Salamanca Statement, which is built on diversity as a value and views schools as responsible for ensuring that the needs of all students are met.

<sup>2</sup> Some authors prefer "intercultural education", emphasizing dialogue and interaction (Hadjisoterioua, Faasb, & Angelides, 2015).

The effective implementation of multicultural education requires educators to shift from the contributions and additive approaches to the implementation of the transformation and social action approaches (Banks, 1995). Also according to Banks (1995), the successful implementation of multicultural education requires the design of holistic, multi-factor, interventions to reform the school environment. To this end, Bank's (1993) Multicultural School Environment model identifies eight key variables that should be targeted by such interventions, namely:

- (1) the school norms and values towards ethnic and cultural diversity;
- (2) the school norms and values towards language pluralism and diversity;
- (3) the attitudes and values of the school staff;
- (4) the status of different student social and cultural groups within the school;
- (5) the content of the curriculum and teaching materials;
- (6) the adequacy of the teaching and motivational styles to students' social and cultural characteristics;
- (7) the impact of assessment and testing procedures on social and cultural equality; and
- (8) teachers and students' skills and perspectives to recognize various forms of racism and actions to eliminate them.

We know multicultural education approaches vary considerably across countries and schools within countries. A useful resource for a critical discussion of such approaches is Sleeter and Grant's (1987, 2006) taxonomy, which identified five approaches to multicultural education, representing diverse curriculum and pedagogical perspectives as well as social goals:

- (1) teaching the culturally different;
- (2) human relations;
- (3) single group studies;
- (4) multicultural education;
- (5) and education that is multicultural and social reconstructionist.

Multiculturalism is a complex concept, used in many different ways, for many different purposes and has several meanings. It can refer to a demographic fact, that is, pluralism which refers to the presence of cultural diversity in schools, organizations, countries. However, it can also refer to a policy, with the fundamental goals of enhancing mutual acceptance and improving the quality of intercultural relations among all cultural groups and communities. There are three main components of multiculturalism policies:

- a) cultural diversity – achieved by providing support and encouragement for cultural maintenance and development among all ethnocultural groups;
- b) social/intercultural component – sharing cultural expressions, providing opportunities for intergroup contact, and removing barriers to full and equitable participation in society;
- c) intercultural communication: promoting the learning of one or more official languages as means for all ethno-cultural groups to engage in contact and to participate in the national life of the larger society.

Multiculturalism as a policy requires that both cultural diversity/maintenance and contact are legislated and acted upon. They are both necessary parts of multiculturalism. However, most

multiculturalism education programs do not focus on both diversity and contact dimensions. Instead, most approaches focus on what Banks defined as content integration (i.e., integrating ethnic and multicultural content across subjects), and less on reducing prejudice and discrimination by fostering contact between different cultural groups. The most common forms of multiculturalism in the educational setting focus on events celebrating ethnic groups' history, culture, etc. What some authors refer to as focusing on "important differences" (Rosenthal & Levy, 2010) involves learning and drawing attention to cultural differences and foster understanding of different experiences and perspectives. Multiculturalism, however, can also take the form of "appreciate contributions", that is, learning to appreciate and value different groups' positive contributions to society. Finally, multiculturalism can also involve a focus on culture maintenance, focusing on the importance of non-dominant groups maintaining their culture and traditions.

Note that most multicultural educational programs are not properly evaluated and its efficacy is sometimes confounded with other key variables, such as promoting intergroup contact (Stephan, Renfro, & Stephan, 2004; Zickel, 2008). It is important to disentangle the effects of each of these components: content related materials that rely on a more passive strategy and have been criticized (Bigler, 1999) and those who take a more active approach (cooperative learning tasks, intergroup contact). According to Stephan et al. (2004), multicultural education programs can be classified on the basis of four dimensions: direct and indirect and didactic and interactive. Direct approaches provide individuals with information about different groups and generally focus on their history, values, and norms (e.g., multicultural curriculum). Indirect approaches promote contact, under specific conditions between different groups (e.g., cooperative learning techniques). Didactic approaches are based on traditional teaching styles involving readings, lectures, and discussions. Interactive approaches involve role-playing, simulation games, and group exercises.

Programs involving didactic techniques seem to produce less attitude change while indirect approaches based on contact with outgroup members seem to significantly change participants' attitudes and behaviors (Stephan et al., 2004). Multicultural curriculum programs that make use of increased affective components, modeling of positive intergroup behavior, and development of in-group norms countering prejudice through "extended contact" materials might be advantageous. However, cooperative learning approaches and anti-bias curricula/social-cognitive skills training are likely to be more effective in reducing prejudice in schools (Pfeifer, Brown, & Juvonen, 2007).

### **MULTICULTURAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION**

In a world transformed by migration and globalization, "multicultural citizenship education" is proposed as an innovative approach to develop and sustain culture-sensitive practices and inclusive social climates in ECEC and primary school as (Kratsborn, Jacott, & Pembecioğlu Ocel, 2008; Oxfam, 2006; Schugurensky & Myers, 2003):

- it is more than a course or a subject, an aspect of continuous education at all levels. The issue of novelty here lies in the fact that "multicultural citizenship education" can be used as an approach to develop a program of educational activities and practices that are relevant to all areas of curricula in preschool and primary school and to all abilities with an aim to help children to develop knowledge, skills and values to become critical multicultural citizens.
- "it can integrate the best traditions of multicultural and intercultural education to develop political and pedagogical strategies that contribute to overcome

discrimination, racism and ethnocentrism, and to nurture genuine, inclusive dialogue among cultural groups” (Schugurensky & Myers, 2003).

- it is about behavior and action, helping people learn to become active, informed and responsible and contributing to democratic life for all. Identity and citizenship require a vision for all members of society.
- it can fully involve children in their own learning by using a wide range of active and participatory learning methods.
- it promotes a sense of belonging, (to a group, school, setting, community ... the world) with significant impact on identity formation, a crucial element for the well-being of people and children in particular (Ben-Arieh & Broyer, 2005). However, it is reported that very few studies have considered young children’s perspectives and meanings of inclusion along with the implications that citizenship education may have for their lives and well-being, with emphasis on those belonging to at risk populations (Nutbrown & Clough, 2009).
- it is re-thought to prepare students to function within as well across national borders (Banks, 2004). It is also argued that in multinational states citizenship education may function in two ways, promoting national identity and a transnational identity (Kymlicka, 2001). This means approaching citizenship not as a shared identity, within delimited boundaries, but as an open and shared membership within networks of interconnection and interdependence (Williams, 2003). By participating in cooperative projects using ICT and virtual learning environments students from different parts of Europe/the World may develop understandings and skills to bridge the gap between local, national and global. The duality is sometimes dubbed ‘glocalisation’: global values are localised, and local values are globalised.
- it refers to the whole-child and the whole-school development (staff professional development, curriculum, decision-making processes, especially relationships between pupils, teachers, parents and the wider community).
- it permits to articulate different aspects of school life with relevant issues in the surrounding community and promotes strategies that connect schools with other agencies and organizations (like museums, libraries, neighborhoods associations, social clubs, community centres, political representatives, local media, arts and crafts clubs, and the like). This strategy could help to integrate schools with out-of-school education, face-to-face interactions with electronic forums, and children with youth and adults and seniors in intergenerational projects, developing real learning communities.

Basic objectives of such an approach are:

- promoting children express their views and perspectives;
- developing arguments (Nutbrown –Clough, 2009);
- developing skills for problem solving and dealing with difficult situations selecting and using materials through ICT;
- developing empathy (Millei-Imre, 2009; Phillips, 2010) and transformative social action to solve problems;
- establishing collaboration with parents and other local agents.

### MULTILINGUALISM, PLURILINGUALISM, AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

**All Multilingual?** Multilingualism (as social phenomenon of co-existence in one society of several languages) and plurilingualism (as individual competence in more than one language) are part of the human life from its origins, though they had different trends in historical periods. The modern and colonial age in Europe has almost halved the number of existing languages

due the nation-oriented ideology (Andersen, 1996): one nation, one language, one people. In the last decades, the massive influx of immigration from Asia, Africa, and Latin America to areas of Europe, North America, but also Australia, South-East Asia, and Japan are leading a new ethno-linguistic and ethno-cultural mixing. The languages brought by immigration in recent decades are numerous and you count that in most European cities there is a daily use between 100 and 200 languages (Arabic, Turkish, Kurdish, Hindi, Punjabi, Chinese...), and it is happening that speakers in some of these languages are becoming higher than the speakers of minority languages in the national territories of time (De Mauro, 2007). The Chinese and Arabic are now European languages in all respects. Romanian and Albanian languages are European languages and not tied to a single nation state. Sometimes described or perceived as a Babel threatening the integrity of states, linguistic diversity and vitality of languages, of all languages, are fundamental phenomena for individuals and society; the current reshuffle language, if intentionally enhanced, proves to be a crucial factor in the survival of the social systems and individuals.

Each language is not only a system of signs (semiotic), rather a profound interweaving of references and integrations, as evidenced by many studies of linguistics, psychology, sociology and anthropology of language, pragmatic of language (Hymes, 1972; Breen, Candlin, 1980; Kramsch, 2009; Levine, 2014). Language includes in itself the network of social and cultural-historical relations, within which it is located and lives. It is at the origins of the psychic life of the subject, as a chance to think about the real and themselves and is therefore an integral part of the story of self and the world, shared in the group and in the community.

In the social, forces come into play, processes and criteria for which some languages are dying, while others have seen a transnational broadcasting. There is a linguistic hierarchy that affects the vitality of languages, their prestige and sometimes their own destiny. Many languages of minority groups of immigrant origin in Europe are not recognized and are then forgotten by the younger generation, or are kept secret for self-censorship (Beacco 2005). The place occupied by a language in the hierarchy depends on several factors: the evaluation of the social group that uses a certain language or a language variety (the prestige of a language is not for the language itself, but for the class and the status of the group that speaks that language); the "*language market*", expression of Pierre Bourdieu (1982), meaning that language skills are forms of so-called "human capital", along with others, and infer their value from the value they have on the market.

Many western European countries have a *weak* model of enhancement of multilingualism in the school system (Baker, 2006); *weak* because there is not a clear view of the political, cultural, and identity consequences generated by a context that favors a monolingualism with a few forays into foreign language (English). The school often leaves much to the student or the family work to think about the connections between the different languages, known and taught, and their value, and this creates a hierarchy between languages according to the order in which they are taught (or not taught or not even named), which reinforces representations on their utility (or futility). The representations and beliefs concerning languages (their usefulness, beauty, ease of learning, prestige, access road to well-being) and multilingualism (as a value, as dynamic learning) of children and families, teachers, and other actors of the education system is crucial.

Multilingualism is promoted at international level from relatively recent times and its promotion is not always shared and enabled with sufficient competence and expertise. The value attributed to multilingualism is not even exempt from paradoxes (Coste et al., 2007): certain forms of multilingualism are considered "better" than others, "good" multilingualisms are opposed to 'problematic' multilingualisms, "lucky" or "to be rich" multilingualism to "poor" and "to be deprived" multilingualism (Coste et al., *ibid*). For instance, in the case of students with a

migrant background or from a language minority, teachers are not always convinced that it is important to preserve the mother tongue, or the 'burden' of learning multiple languages is perceived as problematic and excessive, which is why those students are sometimes excluded from learning a foreign language, while there is no question that many parents also pay very dearly for multilingualism of their children by resorting to international schools.

Studies on the representations (beliefs, attitudes, pre/misconceptions) about languages, language learning and bi-multilingualism of educators and teachers in different school and university levels, represent today an expanding field internationally (Bresnahan et al., 2002; Gkaintartzi, Kiliari, Tsokalidou, 2014; Karabenich & Noda, 2010; Sinkkonen, Kytala, 2014; Young, 2014), in recognition of the key role that ideas and ideologies play in the student-teacher relationship and practices (educational, discursive, and communicative): a role of mediator, of filter in the observation of reality, in the teaching and educational relationship. In Italy, for instance, it is still common that educators and teachers do not take into account the multilingual skills of pupils - exceptions dedicated to English or French or German - and fear that bilingual students can learn the Italian language more slowly if they speak the origin language in their family; and therefore they ask families to stop using the language of origin in order to facilitate the learning of the dominant language.

The Council of Europe (Language Policy **Division** of the **Council of Europe**,LPD; European Centre of Modern Languages, ECML) has long encouraged (see 1992, 1995, 2001, 2005, 2005-2012, 2007, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2013) member states to adopt school policies aimed at enhancing and developing the assets and capabilities of multilingual individuals, not only to form effective citizens at a national and transnational level, but also looking at the social implications that a wrong attitude towards languages can generate in individuals and in society, in relation to social inclusion, right to citizenship and to education. And several tools have been also developed (e.g., *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, 2001; *European Language Portfolio*, 2007; *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*, 2009).

**From multilingualism to a plurilingual education and curriculum.** If until recently multilingualism was considered as a factor potentially compromising for the development of intelligence and proficiency in a language, due to various hypotheses on cognitive functioning and language learning (possibility of overload, impairment of speech, permanence of linguistic interference), is now shown as the development of multilingualism is a possible and positive experience, and this has been confirmed in studies even involving children with language learning challenges (Martin, 2009). Encouraging a multilingual-intercultural perspective is also the well-established knowledge of the capacity of the human being to develop multilingual and multicultural skills, through an 'economy' of cognitive processes. Languages and cultures are not classified into mental compartments strictly separated, linguistic knowledge and experience contribute to forming a single communicative competence, in which languages (and cultures) establish mutual relations and interact. Historically they opposed two models of bi-multilingual competence, the separate model (Separate Underlying Proficiency) and the common or unified model (Common Underlying Proficiency - Cummins, 1996). According to the second model - which has strong research and a collection of empirical evidence - a significant part of the core concepts and skills are transferred from one language to another in their deepest and general aspects, even when the surface manifestations appear to be different. The transfer of competence from one language to another must be valued in education, as proposed in particular by the *plural approaches* to language teaching (Council of Europe, Candelier et al., 2013) through a teaching that draws meta-cognitive and meta-communicative capacity development. In turn, the growth of multilingual competence strengthens the cognitive, meta-cognitive, and meta-communicative abilities, in a virtuous circle: the expansion of working memory (the ability to focus, selection, concentration), the

development of mental schemes alternative and complementary to each other, with an increase in the ability to analyze, in abstract, creative and divergent thinking.

Today we also recognize many ways of being multilingual, there is no longer the only restrictive form of multilingual individual who demonstrates in two or more languages the same level of competence of the native speaker. The *diversification of multilingual skills profiles*, regarding the mastery of several languages, refers to the fact that every competence, even partial, is a linguistic and cognitive resource available to the subject. And the multilingual competence refers to the biography and *repertoire* of all the languages that the person knows more or less complete (the language of schooling, regional language, minority language or language of origin, modern foreign languages or classical languages). The introduction of a perspective of education and teaching that values and promotes multilingualism requires a major change of teaching, of its aims, the relationship between what children learn and experience inside and outside the school.

In the area of language teaching, the multilingual perspective proposes that all the languages of education - meaning by this expression all languages entering the path of socialization of a child (home languages of national and regional, foreign languages, but also languages of disciplines such as of science, history, and so on) contribute, each in different ways, to his/her cognitive, affective, social, cultural, and therefore its identity construction and to his/her knowledge. All languages present in the school are not automatically the language of the school, because the school can not take officially in its programs all languages of linguistic repertoires of students. The educational project of the school and ECEC, however, can mobilize, even if partially, adjust and extend existing repertoires, to the benefit of the first language of schooling that is the vehicle of all education, acknowledging the social and identity value of the whole linguistic repertoire (possessed by the children and families) and of inter-linguistic connections. A special place occupies the first language of the child, of his family and community socialization.

**Multilingualism as a key-entry door to intercultural communication competence.** Studies and researches distinguish and relate *multilingual competence*, *intercultural competence* and *intercultural communicative competence*. Since the seventies (Hymes, 1972), foreign language learning was addressed as a key-entry door to develop attitudes of openness and interest towards differences and to acquire a competence in communicating within intercultural situations.

A better understanding of linguistic repertoires should promote sensitivity to other linguistic and cultural attitudes of mutual respect, inclusion and availability of language (respect the languages of the other, make the effort to learn and to use, even partially; Beacco, Byram et al., 2010). The notion of *intercultural communicative competence* belongs specifically to language teaching theories. In these studies, the model centered on language proficiency has been switched to a model in which the central communicative competence weaves knowledge of psychology of language, sociology and anthropology of language related to changes and social and cultural norms concerning the use of languages, and pragmatics of language, regarding the action exerted through communicative acts and the use of language (Pastori 2015)

**Multilingualism as a key entry-door to multicultural minds.** Individuals with a 'multicultural mind' – as second generation youth can become - are more likely to acquire multilingual and multicultural skills and, the other way round, multilingualism can represent a key entry-door to develop a multicultural mind.

The construct of *multicultural mind* was first elaborated in the late nineties (Hong et al., 2000), within a paradigm shift from structure (culture as a coherent system of meanings and practices that are shared among a group over a period of time) to process (culture as fragmented, fluctuating, and context-specific) models in the psychological inquiry on culture. It represents an innovative field of research, promising in enlarging the spectrum of activities aimed at promote cultural and socio-emotional skills in dealing with diversity.

Through enduring exposure to at least two cultures, there are individuals who come to possess systems of meaning and practices of both cultures (thus defined biculturals) (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez, 2000; Nguyen, & Benet-Martinez, 2007). They can switch between such cultural orientations alternating them depending on the cultural cues (*cultural primers*) available in the immediate context (*cultural frame switching*).

Within the situated cognition model on culture (Oyserman & Sorensen, 2009), culture is considered as a loosely defined network of patterned beliefs, attitudes, and mind sets named cultural syndromes. Alternating the different cultural syndromes entails that individuals switch between the different cultural syndromes depending on the context cues (cultural frame switching; Hong et al. 2000, Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006) that are made salient in the contingent situation. The bicultural mind is therefore a situated mind in that its cognitive functioning refers to contingent aspects of experience, and rooted in the immediate context (extensive mind; Menary, 2010). The appropriation of culture takes place (Boyd & Richerson, 2005) mainly through social learning, an experience-based learning where individuals are in turn experts and novices of the practices and interpretative frames of both cultures (Rogoff, 2003). Differently from culture internalization, participatory appropriation entails that both experts and novices are actively engaged in the process, and, as they are part of, they transform practices in the same time in which they are engaged in them. The learning of culture therefore requires doing structured sequences of actions in groups of (at least) two individuals that conjunctively make sense of them. It is therefore a process that does not move from knowledge to action. Rather, it roots in actions shared by experts and novices that, in their being part of the same practice, conjunctively make sense of it. Just as cultural learning, bicultural learning needs repeated experiences in both cultures so as to be able to activate the expert-novice dynamics in univocal and coherent contexts of learning.

**ICT as a powerful support.** How to deal with and to promote inclusion and multilingualism is an open field for research, especially in reference to ECEC services and primary school, where it is possible to support children and families at an early stage. A promising and key area of study is the use of ICT in promoting multilingualism and intercultural competences/multicultural minds, since the early stages in ECEC and primary school.

## LANGUAGE SUPPORT

Language support is a cornerstone of classroom/school interventions aiming to reduce gaps between immigrant and native students. In this regard, the OECD (2010) argues for coherent language-centric policies for achieving such goals. Some policy examples are illustrative of the different approaches currently in place in different countries. Being among the countries with the most pronounced differences in reading comprehension between immigrant students and students from native families (Marx & Stanat, 2012), Germany has implemented continuous language support interventions across all levels of education - the FörMig project - with positive results. Two key elements to the success of this program are (a) the fact that it pursues a holistic approach, in which language development is not only the task of individual teachers, but of the school as an organization and of the students' environment as a whole, including parents and the local community; (b) continuous language support is aimed at

immigrant as well as native children. In contrast, Norway and Sweden have developed specific curricula for language acquisition (OECD, 2010) and designed interventions to stimulating early language learning and home support.

The focus of language supports in the classroom, avoiding pull-out interventions, is consistent with current trends in early childhood intervention and early childhood special education, based on routines-based intervention in natural environments, aiming to increase the dosage (i.e., quantity of proximal processes) and meaningfulness of interventions (McWilliam, 2010). Furthermore, evidence suggests language and mainstream subject (i.e., content) learning should be integrated early on (OECD, 2015a). The OECD (2010) has also previously highlighted the importance of whole-school approaches, providing support for immigrant students not only in specialized courses but integrated across the curriculum and throughout all-school and after-school activities. Educational systems have, indeed, tested several solutions for addressing the needs of low-achieving students including after school or summer programs, which have demonstrated positive statistically significant effects in reading and mathematics, especially if tutoring is involved (e.g., Lauer et al., 2007), and are associated with increased academic performance and motivational attributes for disadvantaged students when compared to alternative patterns of care (e.g., parental and sibling care) (Mahoney, Lord, & Carryl, 2005).

Research conducted in Germany suggests immigrant children benefit from combined implicit and explicit language support (but not implicit support alone) when considering reading performance (Stanat, Becker, Baumert, Lüdtke, & Eckhardt, 2012). Reviewing research on the reading comprehension of immigrant students, Marx and Stanat (2012) suggest older second-language learners may benefit from more explicit approaches to vocabulary and comprehension skills, including approaches that explicitly highlight similarities between students' first and second language. They advise, however, that simple drill is unlikely to be effective in building second language vocabulary, suggesting that repeatedly presenting lexicon in meaningful contexts for meaningful purposes is advantageous.

Note that pedagogical innovation in primary school (OECD, 2014) has focused on relating lessons to real life, higher order skills, data and text interpretation, and individualization. However, active pedagogies do not seem to be at the core of educational change, with lecture-style presentations remaining prevalent, among other practices that place teachers at the center of instruction.

Because performance gaps persist after accounting for language proficiency, a larger equity scheme seems to be needed, where attention is paid to providing supports for teachers in dealing with students with multi-cultural, bilingual, and diverse learning needs, etc. (OECD, 2010). Note that where school evaluations and teacher appraisals take place, they rarely focus on linguistic and cultural diversity issues (OECD, 2010). In TALIS, school principals and teachers were asked which criteria were considered with high or moderate importance in school evaluations and teacher appraisals; of the 17 proposed criteria, "teaching in a multicultural setting" was the lowest rated criterion (OECD, 2009). However, TALIS indicates that when "teaching in a multicultural setting" is given a focus, then teachers report that it has an impact on them and their teaching (Jensen, 2010). This seems to indicate that the inclusion of diversity issues in teacher appraisal and school evaluation could help schools improve their practice in this area.

## POSITIVE SOCIAL CLIMATE

The OECD (2010) systematizes several initiatives in different countries aiming at supporting schools and teachers to create inclusive school environments and improve teaching and learning in socially, culturally, and linguistically diverse schools. For instance, some countries (e.g., Norway, Sweden) have focused on the initial training for teachers, and have introduced multicultural education and cultural diversity as part of initial teacher education programs.

Other measures have focused on fostering a positive school climate (OECD, 2010). For instance, in the UK, a guide was created for school leaders to follow, highlighting several key equality and diversity actions, and providing case studies and examples. In Ireland, a toolkit aiming at providing guidelines to the whole school team was prepared following a whole-school, cross-curricular approach. Another measure that has been placed in some countries is the organization of opportunities for collaboration among schools (e.g., UK, Netherlands). Nevertheless, although several initiatives seem promising, their effectiveness has not been systematically examined. In addition, the same report highlights that teachers and schools have little access to guidelines and advice related to migrant education, as well as lack of access to relevant research and evidence on effective practices. It seems thus important to provide a scientific basis for sharing of good, effective practices between schools across European countries.

Ensuring positive learning environments is instrumental in ensuring children's social and emotional skills and behavioral regulation. However, accumulating findings suggest preschool classrooms serving disadvantaged children, the classroom level behavioral socialization practices may be negative or reactive, and generally unsupportive of positive social development (Degol & Backman, 2015). In one study conducted in the early grades in Portugal, results showed that the emotional climate was lower in schools with larger proportions of disadvantaged children, although the association was no longer statistically significant when controlling for school sector and school size (Cadima et al., 2013).

Regarding school climate, despite the potential of schools to teach children positive attitudes toward immigrant, minority, or disadvantaged peers, researchers and stakeholders in general struggle with how to best reduce negative sentiments and behaviors toward peers of different racial or ethnic backgrounds. Use of cooperative learning approaches, based on contact theory (Allport, 1954), in multiethnic schools and classrooms, seems to benefit interracial relationships but also academic outcomes (e.g., Roseth, Johnson, & Johnson, 2008). Cooperative learning models are consistent with inclusive education principles that build on diversity as a value and aims to benefit all learners, not only targeting children who may be struggling (UNESCO, 2005). Treating diversity as a value and a resource rather than a barrier for successful teaching and learning is the basis for building positive school and classroom climates where immigrant students develop a sense of belonging (OECD, 2010). In homogenous schools, where contact with minority or immigrant peers is limited, activities that incorporate social-cognitive skills training or anti-bias curricula are strongly advised if multicultural curricula are to be used (Pfeifer, Brown, & Juvonen, 2007). Such activities may include role-playing activities that promote perspective-taking and empathy, or discussions of prejudice and discrimination.

## TARGETING BOTH COGNITIVE AND NON COGNITIVE SKILLS

Central to ISOTIS goals and research approach is the growing acknowledgement of the need for ensuring that all children develop a balanced set of cognitive, academic, and socio-emotional skills that support individual lifetime success. Cognitive, language, social, and

emotional skills are interdependent and all contribute to success in life and to social progress (Heckman, 2006). Cognitive skills matter, but social and emotional skills, such as perseverance, self-control, and resilience are just as important (OECD, 2015c). For many outcomes, such as health, experience of anti-social behavior and subjective well-being (OECD, 2015c), non-cognitive skills' predictive power is actually similar to or exceeds that of cognitive skills (Kautz, Heckman, Diris, Weel, & Borghans, 2014). However, gaps in both cognitive skills (i.e., those measures by IQ or achievement tests) and non-cognitive skills (such as motivation, perseverance, and tenacity) emerge early and persist over time. For example, Becker, Klein, and Biedinger (2013) found that Turkish-origin children start with lower test scores at the age of 3 regarding German language skills and cultural knowledge (but not cognitive skills). Research suggests early interventions targeted toward disadvantaged children have much higher returns than later interventions (Heckman, 2006). The early years are instrumental in building competencies, with both cognitive and non-cognitive skills being highly malleable. Such plasticity decreases in adolescence, particularly for cognitive skills (Kautz et al., 2014).

OECD (2015c) has focused on social and emotional skills, as skills necessary for well-being and social progress, establishing there are considerable differences across countries in policies and availability of programs designed to enhance social and emotional skills such as perseverance, self-esteem, and sociability. Research findings suggest "skills beget skills", with social and emotional skills not only driving future development of social and emotional skills but also enhancing cognitive skills (OECD, 2015c).

Positive effects of integrated approaches which build on interdependence of different competencies can be illustrated by the outcomes of a preschool program developed in Germany. The KiDZ has shown that integrating academic content within the normal course of life in preschool can actually foster the development of socio-emotional skills (Kluczniok, Anders, Sechtig, & Rossbach, 2014), suggesting that concerns that preschool curricula focused more on cognitive stimulation rather than on socio-emotional skills might neglect the socio-emotional development of children are not warranted. Interventions embedded in natural daily routines - as opposed to teaching in specified planned hours, outside the classroom and away from the peer group, doing "strange" things, sometimes with "strange" adults - are also recommended practice in early childhood intervention, a field that may share important lessons to the reduction of education inequalities.

Non-cognitive skills are sometimes designated as "soft skills", defined by Oxford Dictionaries, as "personal attribute that enable someone to interact effectively and harmoniously with other people". Defining soft skills as a broad set of skills, competencies, behaviors, attitudes, and personal qualities that enable people to effectively navigate their environment, work well with others, perform well, and achieve their goals, Lippman, Ryberg, Carney, & Moore (2015) identified five key "soft skills" that foster youth workforce success: social skills, communication, and higher-order thinking skills (including problem solving, critical thinking, and decision-making); supported by the intrapersonal skills of self-control and positive self-concept. Similarly, Finegold and Notabartolo's (2008) review of 21st-century competencies considers five groups of skills: (1) analytic skills (i.e., critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, research and inquiry), (2) interpersonal skills (i.e., communication, collaboration, leadership and responsibility), (3) ability to execute (i.e., initiative and self-direction, productivity); (4) information processing (i.e., information literacy, media literacy, digital citizenship, ICT operations and concepts), and (5) capacity for change (i.e., creativity / innovation, adaptive learning / learning to learn, and flexibility). These competency frameworks may be instrumental in ISOTIS study of educational programs, projects, and interventions aiming to reducing educational inequalities.

The potential of education for enhancing a variety of skills, including the “soft” skills needed for success in the 21<sup>st</sup> century is undeniable. We now know the most effective programs for social and emotional learning incorporate sequenced training and active learning practices, are focused, and driven by explicit learning objectives (OECD, 2015c). Interventions designed to increase non-cognitive skills among disadvantaged children, such as the Perry Preschool Program and the Abecedarian Program, have shown to have long term effects (see Kautz, 2014). These early childhood interventions involve both children and parents, which has been shown to be a key feature to success. School-based interventions aiming to enhance children’s social and emotional learning, across different age groups, such as Tools of the Mind (a program focused on self-regulation) and “Mindset” interventions (teaching the incremental theory of intelligence) have also shown positive short term effects (OECD, 2015c; Kautz et al., 2014) but long-term evaluations are still lacking.

Recently, Sorensen, Dodge, and the Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group (2015), assessed the mechanisms through which the Fast Track project, serving high-risk children, reduced delinquency and arrests between ages 12-20. Findings suggested about a third of the program impact on such outcomes can be accounted for by improvements in social and self-regulation skills during childhood (ages 6–11), such as prosocial behavior, emotion regulation, and problem solving. Furthermore, a recent meta-analysis has shown that for early childhood education program to be most effective, programs should intensively and specifically address children’s social and emotional development (Schindler et al., 2015). However, not only curricular activities or interventions foster social and emotional skills. Extracurricular activities such as sports, arts clubs, student councils and voluntary work have been shown to foster social and emotional “soft skills” (OECD, 2015).

Concluding, the existent knowledge base suggests reducing educational inequalities and challenges faced by immigrant, low-income, and/or minority students requires multilevel interventions. Even at the classroom/school microsystem level, a complex array of dimensions should be targeted in order respond to the complex needs of such students, including curriculum, pedagogy, and school climate. Different countries have addressed these issues in different ways, even when addressing the same target groups (e.g., Turkish immigrants, native low-income, Romani children, etc.), with different outcomes and progress over time. Through the critical lengths of multicultural education, WP4 will identify and compare promising solutions related to curriculum, pedagogy, and social climate, aiming to propose curriculum innovations transferable across countries and settings, particularly addressing multilingualism and plurilingualism.

### **3. BRIEF NOTE ON CHILDREN’S DEVELOPMENT**

Young children may already exhibit prejudice in preschool. One interpretation is that these attitudes and behaviors in part reflect children’s cognitive limitations and lack of social sophistication (Levy, Rosenthal, Herrera, & Alcazar, 2009; Pfeifer, Brown, & Juvonen, 2007). Doyle and Aboud (1995) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the changes in prejudice between ages 6 and 9, and found that age-related decreases in prejudice are associated with children’s socio-cognitive development. However, this socio-cognitive developmental view may not account for differences in prejudice among children with similar cognitive skill levels (Levy, Rosenthal, Herrera, & Alcazar, 2009).

Nevertheless, it seems important to know how socio-cognitive skills develop during early and middle childhood, since these skills are likely to impact the effectiveness of interventions to reduce prejudice and social inequalities. Social cognition can be defined as “thinking about

people” (Hala, 1997, p. 3) and “the understanding of the social world” (DeHart, Sroufe, & Cooper, 2004, p. 232), thus entailing our attempts to make sense of human action.

Lack of cognitive and socio-cognitive skills such as conservation, classification, moral judgment, and perspective/role taking may be associated with the development of prejudice. For instance, children who have mastered conservation skills have found to be less prejudiced (Doyle & Aboud, 1995). Conservation means “the psychological criterion of the presence of reversible operations” (Piaget, 1964), also conceived in a more restricted sense as “the idea that the amount of something remains the same despite change in its form, shape, or appearance” (DeHart, Sroufe, & Cooper, 2004, p. 309). Classification is the “ability to group things by shared characteristics” (DeHart, Sroufe, & Cooper, 2004, p. 315). These skills have been addressed in Piaget’s seminal theory, which encompassed four main stages of cognitive development: sensory-motor/pre-verbal (until 2 years approximately), pre-operational (around 2 to 7 years), concrete-operational (from 7 to 11 years), and formal operational (from 11 years onwards). Piaget argued that in pre-operational stage there were yet no conservation skills, and classification skills are only developed in the concrete-operational stage (Piaget, 1964). Moral judgment concerns how the children decide whether a particular course of action is right or wrong (Hala, 1997). Perspective taking can be considered as the ability to understand and conciliate different perspectives (Carpendale, 1997). Piaget saw age 7 as a major transition point from preoperational to concrete operational thought, however more contemporary research suggests the major cognitive developments of middle childhood involves the maturation of primitive skills that already existed during preschool age (DeHart, Sroufe, & Cooper, 2004).

Overall, preschoolers begin to understand causation, understand some concepts related to quantity, start to understand classification relations, make distinctions between living and nonliving things, and the cognitive egocentrism (this is, the inability to understand other’s perspective) starts to decline. Notwithstanding preschoolers’ socio-cognitive development, some cognitive constraints remain: preschoolers find difficult to integrate multiple pieces of information, they sometimes struggle to distinguish between appearance and reality, and they also have a relative lack of attention and memory strategies (DeHart, Sroufe, & Cooper, 2004).

Regarding primary school children, some concepts of conservation emerging during the preschool years are now more developed and children can think logically about many quantitative issues. Children begin to classify objects very early in life, but only in middle childhood they are able to make effective use of classification to organize information. Their thinking is logical and systematic and use multiple pieces of information. They now distinguish more clearly appearance and reality. Primary-school children also have more control over their attentional and memory skills (DeHart, Sroufe & Cooper, 2004).

Based on cognitive-developmental theories, Bigler (1999) proposed that direct didactic approaches to multicultural education (i.e., multicultural curriculum) typically do not take into account children’s cognitive characteristics. Children are not passive absorbers of information and because they tend to focus on concrete rather than abstract aspects, when exposed to complex multicultural stimuli children are likely to develop more simplistic stereotypes of the target groups (Bigler, 1999). Conversely, Pfeifer et al. (2007) advise careful use of multicultural curricula with children under 8 years old, on the basis of cognitive limitations that may prevent learning counter-stereotypical information. Because older children are likely to have foundational cognitive abilities like multiple classification or conservation skills, multicultural curricula may be more successful from 8 years onwards.

## 4. GLOSSARY OF KEY CONCEPTS/CONSTRUCTS RELEVANT FOR WP4

### INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

“Inclusive education can be seen as a cross-cutting principle in the organization and functioning of education systems that facilitates and diversifies the teaching and learning processes” (UNESCO International Bureau of Education, 2015). Inclusive education is one of the 17 principles from the UNESCO 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which aims to “ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UNESCO, 2016).

According to the UNESCO International Bureau of Education (2016, p. 13), the definition of inclusive education entails four key elements: (1) inclusion is a process that entails a continuous search to find better answers for student diversity; (2) inclusion is concerned with the identification and removal of barriers of several types (e.g., schools organization, pedagogic practices, children’s assessment); (3) inclusion is about the presence, participation and achievement of all students; (4) inclusion involves a particular emphasis on those groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalization, exclusion and underachievement. In the view of inclusive education, each student is a unique learner that should have access to personalized learning opportunities.

### CURRICULUM / INCLUSIVE CURRICULUM

Curriculum can be defined as “the knowledge, skills and values that children are meant to acquire in educational establishments” (Sylva, Pastori, Lerkkanen, Ekery-Stevens, & Slot, 2016).

“A national Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) curriculum describes the aspirations of a country for services that will enhance children’s development and support families and communities. An ‘implemented’ ECEC curriculum (which includes those aspects which are implicit rather than explicit) also covers developmental care, interactions, children’s learning experiences and supportive assessment. The implemented curriculum is rarely set out in formal documentation. However, it is the implemented curriculum that describes the ECEC provision that advances all young children’s personal and social development, their learning and prepares them for life and citizenship in their society” (CARE consortium, 2016).

The formal curriculum of schools encompasses the planned teaching and learning opportunities for the classroom (UNESCO-IBE, 2016). It has to serve at least two purposes: (i) it has to embody all the knowledge, skills and values which a country wishes its young people to acquire; and (ii) it has to provide quality education for students, both in terms of the level of engagement it generates and the outcomes it produces” (p. 22).

An inclusive curriculum is adapted to the various needs of the learners and has embedded the universal human right to education for all (European Commission, 2016).

According to UNESCO-IBE (2016), “the curriculum is the central means through which the principle of inclusion is put into action within an education system” (p. 23). UNESCO-IBE stresses that an inclusive curriculum needs to be: (i) structured and yet capable of being taught in such a way that all students can participate; (ii) underpinned by a model of learning which itself is inclusive - therefore, it needs to accommodate a range of learning styles and to emphasize skills and knowledge that are relevant to students; (iii) sufficiently flexible for responding to the needs of particular students, communities and religious, linguistic, ethnic or other groups - it cannot be rigidly prescribed at national or central level; (iv) structured around

varying levels of entry skills, so that progress can be assessed in ways that allow all students to experience success.”

### **PEDAGOGY / INCLUSIVE PEDAGOGY**

“Pedagogy can be defined in the narrow sense as the practice (or the art, the science or the craft) of teaching” (European Commission, 2016). Here the term pedagogy refers to all intentional techniques and strategies which enable learning to take place, including interactive processes between educators and learners, as well as the provision of a rich physical and social environment.

In a broader sense, pedagogy is the theoretical foundation of an approach and set principles and values for defining specific methods (e.g., Montessori), that it is the reflection on the nature of childhood (on the values and aims of early childhood education and care), define educational goals which are implemented in the teaching approach, through planned actions (teaching actions or didactics). Therefore pedagogy inspires rather than supports curriculum and is spelled out in the general objectives (e.g., the pedagogy can be made explicit in defining goals - autonomy, strengthening of identity, development of competences and citizenship – and in the choice of terms like ‘field of experience’ rather than ‘developmental goal’” (CARE Consortium, 2016).

A culturally responsive pedagogy addresses the needs and promotes the achievement of all learners, and comprises three dimensions: (i) the institutional dimension reflects the administration’s policies and values; (ii) the personal dimension concerns the cognitive and emotional processes teachers must engage in to become culturally responsive; (iii) the instructional dimension includes materials, strategies, and activities that form the basis of instruction (Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems from the United States of America, 2004).

### **INNOVATIVE PEDAGOGIES**

The concept of innovative pedagogies can be understood as “something ‘new’ to a given context in terms of teaching practice with an emphasis, whenever possible, on identifying those which have proven to be effective. Innovation can be based on the adoption of pedagogies which are more or less available in another context whether it is a country, region, school or to a particular teacher or can refer to the introduction of something completely new.” (European Commission report on Policies promoting innovative pedagogies that are effective in tackling low achievement in basic skills, 2014).

Teaching practices, such as dialogic teaching (interactive groups that promote cooperation between students and teachers and sometimes involve other adults), peer networks and cooperative learning (peers cooperation in the learning process and reliance on sharing different capacities), and use of ICT. “Working with diverse classrooms requires applying innovative teaching techniques for which teacher preparedness and attitudes are particularly relevant. Research has suggested that teachers’ responses to diverse student populations are very different depending on whether they use innovative creative pedagogies or are informed by traditional teaching methods based on the teacher’s authority.” (Budginaitė, Siarova, Sternadel, Mackonytė, & Spurga, 2016, 2016, p. 53)

## SCHOOL SOCIAL CLIMATE

“School climate is based on norms, relationships, goals, values, methods, and organizational structures (Cohen & Geier, 2010). Key dimensions of school climate include interpersonal relationships among adults and children within the school and behavioral norms that engender feelings of safety” (Hopson, Schiller, & Lawson, 2014, p. 199).

Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, & Higgins-D'Alessandro (2013) identify five dimensions of school climate that are relevant for WP4: safety (both physical and socioemotional), relationships (e.g., respect for diversity, school connectedness and engagement, social support), teaching and learning (e.g., support for both academic and social-emotional, ethical, and civic learning), institutional environment (e.g., resources), and the school improvement process.

## LANGUAGE SUPPORT

Classroom support from teachers, specialist teaching assistants, specialist language teachers for migrant children, and volunteers for children without the language of instruction to acquire and improve language skills and reach their potential (adapted from European Commission report on Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms, 2015)

“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” (European Commission report on Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms, 2015, p. 10). “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.” (European Commission report on Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms, 2015, p. 42).

## 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY SKILLS / KEY COMPETENCES

21<sup>st</sup> century skills include basic skills such as literacy, numeracy, science and foreign languages, as well as transversal skills and key competences such as digital competences, entrepreneurship, critical thinking, problem solving or learning to learn, and financial literacy. Early acquisition of these skills is the foundation for further learning (European Commission's New Skills Agenda for Europe, 2016).

“The key competences are all considered equally important, because each of them can contribute to a successful life in a knowledge society. (...) There are a number of themes that are applied throughout the Reference Framework: critical thinking, creativity, initiative, problem-solving, risk assessment, decision-taking, and constructive management of feelings play a role in all eight key competences” (European Commission Key competences for lifelong learning - European Reference Framework, 2007).

Some of these competences already have an established place in educational systems, but others not (e.g., transversal skills). According to the Global Education First Initiative of UNESCO (2016), there is a mismatch between the competencies needed in today's world and those acquired through the current education system. The European Commission is reviewing the key competences framework in order to help more people acquire a core set of skills, including entrepreneurship and digital competences.

## MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Multicultural education aims to reform schools so that students with diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and social class backgrounds experience educational equality (Banks, 2015).

“A reform movement designed to change the total educational environment so that students from diverse racial and ethnic groups, students of both genders, exceptional students, and students from each social-class group will experience equal educational opportunities in schools, colleges, and universities.” (Banks & Banks, 2010, p. 446)

## MULTICULTURALISM

“A philosophical position and movement that assumes that the gender, ethnic, racial, and cultural diversity of a pluralistic society should be reflected in all of the institutionalized structures of educational institutions, including the staff, the norms and values, the curriculum, and the student body” (Banks & Banks, 2010, p. 447).

## PLURILINGUAL AND PLURICULTURAL COMPETENCE

‘Plurilingual and pluricultural competence refers to the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social actor has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. This is not seen as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences, but rather as the existence of a complex or even composite competence on which the social actor may draw’ (Coste, Moore & Zarate, 2009, p.V).

The concept of a plurilingual and pluricultural competence involved important paradigmatic shifts):

- it developed a holistic and multiple, rather than segmented vision, of language skills and of language, identity and culture;
- it insisted on disequilibrium and partial competence, rather than on balance of skills;
- it insisted on potential linkages, rather than on separateness of its various components;
- it developed a dynamic vision of competence, situated, contextualized, and changing over time and circumstances;
- it included circulations, mediations and passages between languages and between cultures;
- it considered competence as highly individualized, and dependent on life paths and personal biographies, and as such, subject to evolution and change, whether in or out of school. (ivi).

## PLURALISTIC APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

The term pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures refers to didactic approaches which involve the use of several (or at least more than one) variety of languages or cultures simultaneously during the teaching process. By abandoning the compartmentalised view of an individual’s linguistic and cultural competence/s (Candelier et al., 2013) Language teaching methodology has seen the emergence of four pluralistic approaches over the past thirty years: awakening of languages (*l’éveil aux langues*, language awareness); Intercomprehension between related languages; Intercultural approach; Integrated Didactic approach. Among the

pluralistic approaches, they can be also considered: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Translanguaging.

## ACCULTURATION

The classic definition of acculturation was defined by Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits (1936) and viewed acculturation as comprehending those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of either or both groups. The contemporary consensual definition (Berry, 2005), however, conceives acculturation as a bi-dimensional construct: the dual process of cultural and psychological change that takes place as a result of contact between two or more cultural groups and their individual members. At the group level, it involves changes in social structures and institutions, and in cultural practices. At the individual level, it involves changes in a person's behavioral repertoire – psychological acculturation.

Acculturation encompasses two orthogonal dimensions: the desire to preserve aspects of one's cultural heritage (desire for culture maintenance), and the desire to interact with members of another group (desire for contact). Four strategies result from the combination of these dimensions: *Integration* (high desire for culture maintenance and high desire for contact), *Assimilation* (low desire for culture maintenance, high desire for contact), *Separation* (high desire for culture maintenance, low desire for contact), and *Marginalization* (low desire for culture maintenance and contact). Recently Brown and Zagefka (2011) proposed that acculturation is a mutual, dynamic intergroup process, and elaborated upon Bourhis et al. (1997) Interactive Acculturation Model to highlight the importance of majority and minority groups' perceived acculturation preferences in determining acculturation attitudes and their outcomes.

## CONTACT

According to the contact hypothesis (Allport, 1954), intergroup contact promotes mutual acceptance under certain conditions: equal social and economic status; voluntary rather than imposed; and support by society, through norms and laws promoting contact and prohibiting discrimination. There is strong evidence that promoting positive intergroup contact (i.e., greater level and quality of intergroup contact) is associated with less prejudice, less discrimination, and more positive intergroup relations (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2011, 2006). Meta-analytic findings on field interventions that used contact based approaches (direct and extended) showed that intergroup contact is an effective strategy to reduce prejudice (Lemmer & Wagner, 2015).

Different forms of contact can be considered: *direct* (e.g., a cross-group friendship has emerged as a particularly effective form of intergroup contact among children); and *indirect* (i.e., interventions based on the principles of intergroup contact, but which do not involve a face-to-face intergroup interaction - *extended contact* - knowing that a member of the ingroup has a close relationship with a member of an outgroup results in improved attitudes toward the respective outgroup, Vezzali et al., 2014, for a review).

## 5. TOPICS<sup>3</sup> AND USEFUL MEASURES FOR WP2 INTERVIEWS WITH PARENTS AND CHILDREN AND/OR WP5 SURVEY WITH TEACHERS

### MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION, MULTICULTURALISM, MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE

- ❖ Perceptions of [school support for multiculturalism](#)
- ❖ [Multicultural efficacy](#)
- ❖ Perceptions of the [multicultural school climate](#)
- ❖ [Perceptions of racism](#)
- ❖ [Antiracist classroom practices](#)
- ❖ Attitudes towards multiculturalism: Multicultural Attitude Scale ([Breugelmans & Vijver, 2004](#); [van de Vijver, Breugelmans, & Schalk-Soekar, 2008](#))
- ❖ Teachers' attitudes toward multicultural education
- ❖ School wide [cultural competence](#)
- ❖ Perceived competence in [intercultural communication](#).
- ❖ [Teacher Cultural Beliefs Scale \(Hachfeld, Hahn, Schroeder, Anders, & Stanat, 2011\)](#): This scale assesses teacher's multicultural and egalitarian beliefs about diversity. The **multiculturalism subscale** (six items) measures how strongly participants endorse the belief that the cultural background of students and their parents should be taken into consideration in teaching (e.g., "In the classroom, it is important to be responsive to differences between cultures"). The **egalitarianism subscale** (four items) measures how strongly participants focus on cultural similarities and endorse the belief that all students should be treated equally, regardless of their cultural background (e.g., "In the classroom, it is important that students of different origins recognize the similarities that exist between them").

### SCHOOL CLIMATE

- ❖ [Perceptions of classroom environment](#): The ClassMaps Survey (CMS) includes indices of classroom relationships (teacher–student, peer, and home–school) and supports for self-regulation (self-efficacy, self-determination, and self-control).
- ❖ [Comprehensive School Climate Inventory](#) (National School Climate Center, 2002): The CSCI has versions for students, school staff, and parents, and it measures 13 different dimensions of school climate: safety; teaching and learning; interpersonal relationships; institutional environment; leadership and professional relationships; and social media.
- ❖ [Delaware School Climate Survey – Student \(Bear, Gaskins, Blank, & Chen, 2011\)](#): The DSCS—S was developed to provide schools with a brief and psychometrically student survey for assessing school climate. It encompasses five factors represented in five subscales: teacher–student relations, student–student relations, fairness of rules, liking of school, and school safety.

---

<sup>3</sup> Hyperlinks to relevant measures or studies are included, whenever available.

- ❖ [Inventory of School Climate – Student \(Brand, Felner, Shim, Seitsinger, & Dumas, 2003\)](#): ISC-S is a 50-item measure of students' experience of the following climate dimensions: teacher support, consistency and clarity of rules and expectations, student commitment and achievement orientation, negative peer interactions, positive peer interactions, disciplinary harshness, student input in decision-making, instructional innovation/relevance, support for cultural pluralism, and safety problems.
- ❖ [Inventory of School Climate – Teacher \(Brand, Felner, Seitsinger, Burns, & Bolton, 2008\)](#): ICS-T is a 29-item scale intended to measure the teachers' experiences of school climate. The scale comprises the following climate dimensions: peer sensitivity, disruptiveness, positive student-teacher interactions, achievement orientation, cultural pluralism, and safety problems. Examples of items from the dimension support for cultural pluralism: “Staff show that they think it is important for students of different races and cultures to get along with each other”; “Students of different races and cultures are given equal opportunities to participate in important school activities”; “Students do things which help them learn about students of different races and cultures”.
- ❖ [The Pedagogical and Social Climate in School Questionnaire \(Grosin, 2004; Hultin, Ferrer-Wreder, Eichas, Karlberg, Grosin, & Galanti, 2016\)](#): It is a Swedish school climate instrument (school-level measure), which consists of 95 items covering cultural, structural, and social factors (Grosin, 2014). The teacher version of PESOC comprises 11 sub-scales (Hultin, Ferrer-Wreder, Eichas, Karlberg, Grosin, & Galanti, 2016): teacher’s expectations for students’ behaviour and academic performance (e.g., “There is a norm among staff in this school that all pupils have the ability to reach the curriculum goals concerning basic knowledge and skills”); perceived teacher agreement about school goals, norms, and rules (e.g., “If a pupil requires extra teaching teachers in this school are generally willing to help”); student focus (e.g., “Social relationships between teachers and pupils are good in this school”); basic assumptions about students’ ability to learn (e.g., “In this school it is well understood that pupils can learn what is required of them even if they have less favourable home environments for learning”); communication between school and home (e.g., “It is a well-established policy in this school that parents participate in discussions concerning measures for pupils who risk not reaching knowledge goals”); teacher interaction and cooperation (e.g., I have the support of my colleagues in selecting teaching content and methods); teachers’ confidence and professional development (e.g., “The absolute majority of teachers in this school are enthusiastic and committed to their work”); teaching activities (e.g., “In this school all pupils gain knowledge and skills despite their social or ethnic background”); evaluation of students’ academic progress (e.g., “Regular evaluation of pupil results is used as the basis for planning teaching in this school”); principal’s pedagogical leadership (e.g., “The principal actively participates in teachers’ professional development”); Teachers’ perception of the school managements’ involvement and support (e.g., “There is always a member of school management accessible to discuss and give advice on issues regarding teaching and education”).
- ❖ [School Climate Survey \(Kelley, Glover, Keefe, Halderson, Sorenson, & Speth, 1986; Lee & Horn, 2003\)](#): A modified version (van Horn, 2003) of the original SCS (Kelley et al., 1986) was developed to measure school climate dimensions in elementary school. The survey has a version for teachers and principals, which encompasses nine dimensions: teacher-student relationships, security, maintenance, administration,

academic orientation, student behavioural values, student-peer relationships, community-school relations, instructional management. The version for families comprises five dimensions: teacher-student relationships, security, maintenance, academic orientation, and student-peer relationships.

### LANGUAGE SUPPORT

- ✓ The child's language competences were assessed when he/she entered the school?
- ✓ Do the teacher and the school staff help your children learn the language of instruction? How?
- ✓ Is language support provided in or/and out of the classroom?
- ✓ Does your child use the mother tongue in school?
- ✓ Does your child have the opportunity to further develop his/her mother tongue competences? Where? How?
- ✓ How is the language in tests? Is it simplified?
- ✓ Does the teacher provide academic vocabulary in the child's mother tongue?
- ✓ Did you (father/mother) receive support to develop your language competences?

### ATTITUDES TOWARD ICT

- ❖ [Attitude scale towards using instructional technologies for pre-service teachers \(Metin, Yilmaz, Coşkun, & Birişçi, 2012\)](#): Subscale designed for pre-service teachers encompassing five subscales: beliefs regarding usage of instructional technology, appreciation of usage of instructional technology, inclination to make use of instructional technology, beliefs regarding usefulness of instructional technology.
- ❖ [Perceptions towards ICTs in teaching-learning process scale \(Bas, Kubiak, & Sünbül, 2016\)](#): 25-item scale with three subscales regarding teachers' attitudes (e.g., "The use of ICTs in teaching-learning process is important"), usage (e.g., "I try to use ICTs in teaching-learning process in the classroom"), and beliefs (e.g., "I consider ICTs as valuable tools in students' learning in the classroom").
- ❖ [Survey of factors affecting teachers teaching with technology \(Papanastasiou & Angeli, 2008\)](#): 10 subscales: knowledge of common software applications, knowledge of specialized software applications, use of common applications, use of specialized applications, computer confidence, encouragement by colleagues, computer anxiety, beliefs about the computer's value, the computer as an agent for change, and technology infrastructure.

### ACCULTURATION

- ❖ *"Own acculturation preferences*: Participants indicated how much they wanted the XXXX to maintain their original culture and how much they wanted the XXXX to have contact with non-indigenous XXXX (1 = low preference to 5 = high preference, on all items).
- ❖ *"Preference for culture maintenance* was measured with a three-item scale: 'it is important to me that the XXXX maintain their original culture'; 'it is important to me that the XXXX maintain their original religion, language, and costumes'; and 'it is important to me that the XXXX maintain their original way of living'".

- ❖ “*Preference for contact* was measured with a two-item scale: ‘it is important to me that the XXXX have Non-Indigenous friends’; and ‘it is important to me that the XXXX spend their spare time also with Non-Indigenous people’”
- ❖ “*perceived acculturation preferences* – that is, participants’ perceptions of non-indigenous majority members’ acculturation preferences – were measured by asking the same questions as above but, instead of indicating their own preference, participants indicated what they thought non-indigenous XXXX found desirable.

## CONTACT

- ❖ [Frequency and quality of direct contact](#)
- ❖ [Extended contact](#) (see also Cameron & Rutland, 2006; Cameron, Rutland, Brown, & Douch, 2006).  

"Extended contact was measured with a single item, adapted from Turner et al. (2007a). Participants were asked to report “How many of the Italian people you know have friends who are immigrants?” on a scale ranging from 0 (none) to 4 (a lot)."
- ❖ [Personal discrimination and group perceived discrimination](#)  

“Perceived discrimination was measured using items adopted from Mays and Cochran (2001) and Garstka, Schmitt, Branscombe, and Hummert (2004). Four items measured group discrimination ( $\alpha_{1a} = .75$ ,  $\alpha_{1b} = .83$ ): “XXXX people as a group have been victimized by society”, “Historically, XXXX people have been discriminated against more than XXXX people” (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), “To what extent does discrimination interfere with XXXX people’s pursuit of a full and productive life?”, and “To what extent does discrimination make the life of XXXX people harder?” (1 = not at all, 4 = a lot).”

“personal discrimination: “I feel like I am personally a victim of society because of my XXXX”, “I consider myself a person who has been deprived of opportunities that are available to others because of my XXXXX” (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), and “To what extent has discrimination made your life harder?” (1 = not at all, 4 = a lot).“

## REFERENCES

- Allport, G. W. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Andersen B. (1991), *Imagined Communities. Reflection on Origins and spread of nationalism*, Verso, London.
- Banks, J. A. (1991). *Teaching strategies for ethnic studies* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Banks, J. A. (1993). *Multicultural education for young children: Racial and ethnic attitudes and their modification*. In B. Spodek (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on the Education of Young Children* (pp. 241-244, 246-248). New York: Macmillan.
- Banks, J. A. (1995). Multicultural education and the modification of students' racial attitudes. In Hawley, W. D., & Jackson, A. W. E. (Eds.), *Toward a common destiny: Improving race and ethnic relations in America*. (pp. 315-339). San Francisco: USA, Jossey-Bass.
- Banks, J. A. (2015). Multicultural education. *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences* (2nd ed.), 18-21. doi:10.1016/B978-0-08-097086-8.92097-X
- Banks, J. A. (Ed.) (2004). *Diversity and citizenship education: Global perspectives*. Wiley: Jossey-Bass.
- Banks, J. A., & McGee Banks, C. A. (2010). *Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives* (7th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Baş, G., Kubiato, M., & Sünbülç, A. M., (2016). Teachers' perception towards ICTs in teaching learning process: Scale validity and reliability study. *Computers in human behaviour*, 61, 176-185. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2016.03.022
- Bear, G. G., Gaskins, C., Blank, J., & Chen, F. F. (2011). Delaware School Climate Survey—Student: Its factor structure, concurrent validity, and reliability. *Journal of School Psychology*, 49, 157-174. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2011.01.001Ca
- Becker, B., Klein, O., & Biedinger, N. (2013). The Development of Cognitive, Language, and Cultural Skills From Age 3 to 6 A Comparison Between Children of Turkish Origin and Children of Native-Born German Parents and the Role of Immigrant Parents' Acculturation to the Receiving Society. *American Educational Research Journal*, 50, 616-649. doi:10.3102/00028312134808250002831213480825.
- Bénabou, R., Kramarz, F., & Prost, C. (2009). The French zones d'éducation prioritaire: Much ado about nothing?. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(3), 345-356.
- Bernadette Ch., JoAnn J., & Melchior A., (2006) Developing Indicators and measures of civic Outcomes for Elementary School Students. Working Paper 47.
- Bourdieu (1982), *Ce que parler veut dire: l'économie des échanges linguistiques*, Paris, Librairie Artheme Fayard.
- Brand, S., Felner, R., Seitsinger, A., Burns, A., & Bolton, N. (2008). A large scale study of the assessment of the social environment of middle and secondary schools: The validity and utility of teachers' ratings of school climate, cultural pluralism, and safety problems for understanding school effects and school improvement. *Journal of School Psychology*, 46, 507-535. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2007.12.001
- Brand, S., Felner, R., Shim, M., Seitsinger, A., & Dumas, T. (2003). Middle school improvement and reform: Development and validation of a school-level assessment of

- climate, cultural pluralism, and school safety. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(3), 570-588. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.95.3
- Breen, M.P., Candlin, C.N. (1980), The essentials of a Communicative Curriculum Language Teaching, *Applied Linguistic*, 2, pp.89-112.
- Bresnahan M.J., Ohashib R., Nebashic R., Liud W.Y., Shearmana S.M. (2002), Attitudinal and affective response toward accented English. *Language & Communication* 22, pp. 171–18.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. & Ceci, S. J. (1994). Nature-nurture reconceptualized in developmental perspective: A biological model. *Psychological Review*, 101, 568-586. doi:10.1037/0033-295x.101.4.568
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1994). Ecological models of human development. In T. Husen & T. N. Postlethwaite (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of education* (2nd Ed., Vol. 3, pp. 1643-1647). Oxford, England: Pergamon Press.
- Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (2006). The bioecological model of human development. In W. Damon & R. M. Lerner (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology*, Vol. 1: Theoretical models of human development (6th ed., pp. 793-828). New York, NY: John Wiley.
- Brookover, W. B., & Erickson, E. L. (1975). *Sociology of education*. Homewood: Dorsey Press.
- Budginaitė, I., Siarova, H., Sternadel, D., Mackonytė, G., Spurga, S. (2016). Policies and practices for more equality and inclusion in and through education: Evidence and policy guidance from European research projects funded under FP6 and FP7 (NESET II report). Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. doi: 10.2766/300891. Retrieved from <https://bookshop.europa.eu/en/policies-and-practices-for-equality-and-inclusion-in-and-through-education-pbNC0415452/>
- Cameron, L., & Rutland, A. (2006). Extended contact through story reading in school: Reducing children's prejudice towards the disabled. *Journal of Social Issues*, 62, 469-488. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4560.2006.00469.x
- Cameron, L., Rutland, A., Brown, R., & Douch, R. (2006). Changing children's intergroup attitudes towards refugees: Testing different models of extended contact. *Child Development*, 77, 1208-1219. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2006.00929.x
- Carpendale, J. (1997). An explication of Piaget's constructivism: Implications for social cognitive development In S. Hala (Ed.), *The development of social cognition* (pp. 35-64). East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.
- Chang, J.J., Sandy, S. V., & Cohen, J. (2005). *Comprehensive school climate inventory: History of events and procedures*. Unpublished paper, Center for Social Emotional Education (now known as The National School Climate Center).
- Clifford, M., Menon, R., Gangi, T., Condon, C., & Hornung, K., (2012). *Measuring school climate for gauging principal performance: A review of the validity and reliability of publicly accessible measures*. American Institute of Research.
- Council of Europe, Directorate of Human Dignity and Equality, *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*, ECRML, 1992.
- Council of Europe, European Centre of Modern Languages, *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages. A reflection tool for language teacher education*, EPOSTL, 2007.

- Council of Europe, European Centre of Modern Languages, *FREPA - A Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures: Competences and resources*, (Candelier M., Camilleri-Grima A., Castellotti V, De Pietro J., Lőrincz I., Meißner F., Noguerol A., Schröder-Sura A.), 2013.
- Council of Europe, European Centre of Modern Languages, *Plurilingual and pluricultural awareness in language teacher education. A training kit*, (LEA), 2007.
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, CEFR, 2001
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *Social representation of languages and teaching; Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe From Linguistic Diversity to Plurilingual Education* (Castellotti V., Moore D.) 2002.
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *Languages and language repertoires: plurilingualism as a way of life in Europe. Guide for the development of language educational policies in Europe: from linguistic diversity to plurilingual education* (Beacco, J.C.), 2005.
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *Un document européen de référence pour les langues de l'éducation?*, (Coste D., Cavalli M., Crisan A., van de Ven P.H.), 2007.
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *Guide For The Development Of Language Education Policies In Europe From Linguistic Diversity To Plurilingual Education*, 2007.
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *Plurilingual and pluricultural Competence*, (Coste D, Moore D., Zarate G.), 2009.
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *The linguistic and educational integration of children and adolescents from migrant backgrounds*, (Little D., ed) 2010a.
- Council of Europe, Language Policy Division, Directorate of Education and Languages, *Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education*, (Beacco J., Byram M., Cavalli M., Coste D., eds), 2010b.
- Council of Europe, Ministers responsible for Cultural Affairs of the States Parties to the European Cultural Convention, *Faro Declaration on the Council of Europe's Strategy for Developing Intercultural Dialogue: The Way Ahead*, 2005;
- Council of Europe, Observatoire Européen du plurilinguisme *Charte européenne du plurilinguisme. Assises européennes du plurilinguisme*, , 2005-2012 (<http://www.observatoireplurilinguisme.eu/>, available in 11 languages).
- Cyrulnik B., *Les Vilains Petits Canards*, Odile Jacob, 2001.
- Cyrulnik B., Seron C. (eds) (2004), *La résilience ou comment renaître de sa souffrance*, Fabert, coll. *Penser le monde de l'enfant*.
- De Mauro, T. (2007), *Nuovi linguaggi e dinamiche linguistiche del mondo contemporaneo*. Annali della pubblica istruzione, *Le minoranze linguistiche in Italia nella prospettiva*

*dell'educazione plurilingue*, La legge n. 482/1999 sulle minoranze linguistiche nel settore scolastico. Bilancio dei primi sei anni di attuazione. 5-6/2007, Ed. Le Monnier.

- Degol, J. L., & Bachman, H. J. (2015). Preschool teachers' classroom behavioral socialization practices and low-income children's self-regulation skills. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 31, 89-100. doi:10.1016/j.ecresq.2015.01.002
- DeHart, G., Sroufe, L. A., & Cooper, R. (2004). *Child development: Its nature and course* (5th Edition). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Doyle, A. B., & Aboud, E. E. (1995). A longitudinal study of white children's racial prejudice as a social-cognitive development. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 41, 209-228.
- European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture. (2014). Study on policies promoting innovative pedagogies that are effective in tackling low achievement in basic skills. Retrieved from <http://bookshop.europa.eu/en/study-on-policies-promoting-innovative-pedagogies-that-are-effective-in-tackling-low-achievement-in-basic-skills-pbNC0114096/>
- European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture. (2015). Language teaching and learning in multilingual classrooms. Retrieved from [http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education\\_culture/repository/languages/library/studies/multilingual-classroom\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/repository/languages/library/studies/multilingual-classroom_en.pdf)
- European Commission, *White paper of Education and training. Teaching and learning. Towards the learning society*, 1995.
- European Commission, *White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue. 'Living Together As Equals in Dignity'*, 2008.
- European Commission. (2007). *Key competences for lifelong learning: European reference framework*. Retrieved from <https://www.erasmusplus.org.uk/file/272/download>
- European Commission. (2016). *A new skills agenda for Europe*. Communication from the commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions Working together to strengthen human capital, employability and competitiveness. Retrieved from <http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1223>
- Finegold, D., & Notabartolo, A. S. (2008). 21st century competencies and their impact: An interdisciplinary literature review. Retrieved from the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation website: [http://www.hewlett.org/uploads/21st\\_Century\\_Competencies\\_Impact.pdf](http://www.hewlett.org/uploads/21st_Century_Competencies_Impact.pdf)
- Garbarino, J. & Gazel, B. (2000). The human ecology of early risk. In J.P. Shonkoff & S.J. Meisels (Eds), *Handbook of early childhood intervention* (2nd Ed.; pp. 76-93). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Garbarino, J., & Abramowitz, R. H. (1992). Sociocultural risk and opportunity. In J. Garbarino (Ed.), *Children and families in the social environment* (2nd ed.; pp. 35-70). New York, NY: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Gkaintartzi, A., Kiliari, A., & Tsokalidou, R. (2014). 'Invisible' bilingualism – 'invisible' language ideologies: Greek teachers' attitudes towards immigrant pupils' heritage languages. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(1), 60-72. doi:10.1080/13670050.2013.877418

- Grosin, L. (2004). Skolklimat, prestation och anpassning i 21 mellan-och 20 högstadieskolor [School climate, achievement and adjustment in 21 middle schools and 20 secondary schools]. *Forskningsrapport 71*, Pedagogiska institutionen, Stockholms Universitet.
- Guo, P., Choe, J., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2011). *Report of construct validity and internal consistency findings for the Comprehensive School Climate Inventory*. Fordham University. Unpublished paper.
- Hachfeld, A., Hahn, A., Schroeder, S., Anders, Y., Stanat, P., & Kunter, M. (2011). Assessing teachers' multicultural and egalitarian beliefs: The teacher cultural beliefs scale. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(6), 986-996. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2011.04.006
- Hadjisoteriou, C., Faas, D., & Angelides, P. (2015). The Europeanisation of intercultural education? Responses from EU policy-makers. *Educational Review*, 67(2), 218-235. doi: 10.1080/00131911.2013.864599
- Hala, S. (1997). Theoretical and conceptual issues. In S. Hala (Ed.), *The development of social cognition* (pp. 3-34). East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press. doi: 10.4324/9781315804590
- Heckman, J. J. (2006). Skill formation and the economics of investing in disadadvantaged children. *Science*, 312(5782), 1900-1902. doi:10.1126/science.1128898
- Hillmert, S. (2013). Links between immigration and social inequality in education: A comparison among five European countries. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility*, 32, 7-23. doi:10.1016/j.rssm.2013.02.002.
- Hong, Y.-Y. (2009). A dynamic constructivist approach to culture. Moving from describing culture to explaining culture. In Wyer, R.S., Chiu, C.-Y., Hong, Y.-I (eds), *Understanding culture. Theory, research, and application*, pp. 3-24. Psychology Press, New York.
- Hong, Y.Y., Morris, M. W., Chiu, C.-Y., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2000). Multicultural minds. A dynamic constructivist approach to culture and cognition. *American Psychologist*, 55, 709-720. doi: 10.1037//0003-066x.55.7.709
- Hopson, L. M., Schiller, K., & Lawson, H. (2014). Exploring linkages between school climate, behavioral norms, social supports, and academic success. *Social Work Research*, 38(4), 197-209. doi: 10.1093/swr/svu017.
- Hultin, H., Ferrer-Wreder, L., Eichas, K., Karlberg, M., Grosin, L., & Galanti, M. R. (2016). Psychometric properties of an instrument to measure social and pedagogical school climate among teachers (PESOC). *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*. doi:10.1080/00313831.2016.1258661
- Huynh, Q.-L., Howell, R. T., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2009). Reliability of bidimensional acculturation scores: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 40(2), 256-274.
- Hymes, D., *On communicative competence*, In Pride, J., Holmes, J. (Eds), *Sociolinguistic*, Harmondsworth, Penguin UK, pp.269-283, 1972.
- Jost T, John & Aaron C. Kay (2010) Social Justice. History, Theory, and Research. *Handbook of Social Psychology*
- Jost T. John & Kay C. Aaron (2005). Exposure to Benevolent Sexism and Complementary Gender Stereotypes: Consequences for Specific and Diffuse Forms of System Justification. *Journal of personality and Social psychology*. Vol 88. N. 3 pp 498-509

- Jost T. John (2001), 'Outgroup Favoritism and the Theory of System Justification: A Paradigm for Investigating the Effects of Socioeconomic Success on Stereotype Content' in Moskowitz B. Gordon (2001) *Cognitive Social Psychology: The Princeton Symposium on the Legacy and Future of Social Cognition*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, NJ pp. 89-102
- Jost T. John, Banaji R. Mahzarin & Nosek A. Brian (2004). A decade of System Justification Theory: Accumulated Evidence of Conscious and Unconscious Bolstering of Status Quo. *Political Psychology*. Vol. 25 N. 6 pp 881-919
- Karabenich S.A., Noda P. A.(2010) *Professional Development Implications of Teachers' Beliefs and Attitudes Toward English Language Learners*; Bilingual Research Journal: The Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education, vol.28, no. 1; pp. 55-75, DOI: 10.1080/15235882.2004.10162612.
- Kautz, T., Heckman, J. J., Diris, R., Weel, B., & Borghans, L. (2014). *Fostering and measuring skills: Improving cognitive and non-cognitive skills to promote lifetime success* (OECD Education Working Papers, No. 110). Paris: OECD Publishing doi:[10.1787/5jxsr7vr78f7-en](https://doi.org/10.1787/5jxsr7vr78f7-en)
- Kelley, E. A., Glover, J. A., Keefe, J. W., Halderson, C., Sorenson, C., & Speth, C. (1986). *School Climate Survey (Modified)*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.
- Kluczniok, K., Yvonne, A., Sechtig, J., & Rossbach, H. (2016). Influences of an academically oriented preschool curriculum on the development of children: Are there negative consequences for the children's socio-emotional competencies? *Early Child Development and Care*, 186(1), 117–139, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03004430.2014.924512>
- Kramsch, C. (2009), *The multilingual subject: What foreign language learners say about their experience and why it matters*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kratsborn, W., Jacott, L., & Pembecioğlu Ocel, N. (2008). *Identity and Citizenship: the impact of borders and shifts in boundaries*. London: Alistair Ross, International Coordinator, CiCe (ISBN: 978-1899764-89-1)
- Kymlicka, W. (2001) *Politics in the vernacular, nationalism, multiculturalism and citizenship*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lauer, P. A., Akiba, M., Wilkerson, S. B., Apthorp, H. S., Snow, D., & Martin-Glenn, M. L. (2006). Out-of-school-time programs: A meta-analysis of effects for at-risk students. *Review of educational research*, 76(2), 275-313.
- Lemmer, G., & Wagner, U. (2015). Can we really reduce ethnic prejudice outside the lab? A meta-analysis of direct and indirect contact interventions. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 45, 152-168. doi:[10.1002/ejsp.2079](https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2079)
- Lerner J. Melvin (2003) The Justice Motive: Where Social Psychologists Found it, How they Lost It, and Why they May Not Find It Again. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*. Vol. 7. N. 4 pp 388-399.
- Leseman, P. P., & van den Boom, D. C. (1999). Effects of quantity and quality of home proximal processes on Dutch, Surinamese–Dutch and Turkish–Dutch pre-schoolers' cognitive development. *Infant and Child Development*, 8(1), 19-38. doi:[10.1002/\(sici\)1522-7219\(199903\)8:1<19::aid-icd187>3.0.co;2-7](https://doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1522-7219(199903)8:1<19::aid-icd187>3.0.co;2-7)

- Levine Glenn S. (2014), «From Performance to Multilingual Being in Foreign Language Pedagogy: Lessons from L2 Students Abroad», in *Critical Multilingualism Studies*, 2, 1, pp.74-105.
- Levy, S. R., Rosenthal, L., & Herrera-Alcazar, A. (2009). Racial and ethnic prejudice among children. In J.L. Chin (Ed.), *The Psychology of Prejudice and Discrimination*. Westport, Connecticut: Praeger.
- Lippman, L. H., Ryberg, R., Carney, R., & Moore, K. A. (2015). Key 'Soft Skills' That Foster Youth Workforce Success: Toward a Consensus across Fields. *Unpublished document, Child Trends Inc., Washington*.
- Mahoney, J. L., Lord, H., & Carryl, E. (2005). An ecological analysis of after-school program participation and the development of academic performance and motivational attributes for disadvantaged children. *Child development*, 76(4), 811-825. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2005.00879.x
- Martin D. (2009), «Language disabilities in cultural and linguistic diversity, Bristol», in *Multilingual matters*.
- Marx, A. E., & Stanat, P. (2012). Reading comprehension of immigrant students in Germany: research evidence on determinants and target points for intervention. *Reading and Writing*, 25(8), 1929-1945.
- Metin, M., Yilmaz, G. K., Coskun, K., & Birisci, S. (2012). Developing an attitude scale towards using instructional technologies for pre-service teachers. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 11(1), 36-45.
- Miliei, Z. & Imre, R. (2009). The problems with Using the Concept of "Citizenship" in Early Years Policy. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood*, 10 (3), 280-290.
- Mobile Opportunities. Exploring positive moving average opportunities for European children – J.Vincent, on data collected in 2010 and 2014 (<http://www.lse.ac.uk/media@lse/documents/Mobile-Opportunities.pdf>)
- National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems (2004). Addressing Diversity in Schools: Culturally Responsive Pedagogy. Retrieved from [http://www.niusileadscape.org/docs/FINAL\\_PRODUCTS/NCCRESt/practitioner\\_briefs/%95%20TEMPLATE/DRAFTS/AUTHOR%20revisions/annablis%20pracbrief%20templates/Diversity\\_Brief\\_highres.pdf](http://www.niusileadscape.org/docs/FINAL_PRODUCTS/NCCRESt/practitioner_briefs/%95%20TEMPLATE/DRAFTS/AUTHOR%20revisions/annablis%20pracbrief%20templates/Diversity_Brief_highres.pdf)
- Nguyen, A.M. D., Benet-Martinez, V. (2007). Biculturalism unpacked: Components, measurement, individual differences, and outcomes. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 1(1), 101-114.
- Nutbrown, C. & Clough, P. (2009). Citizenship and inclusion in the early years: Understanding and responding to children's perspectives on 'belonging'. *International Journal of Early Years Education*, 17(3), 191-206, DOI: 10.1080/09669760903424523
- OECD. (2009). *Creating effective teaching and learning environments: First results from TALIS*. Paris: OECD Publishing. doi: [10.1787/9789264068780-en](https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264068780-en)
- OECD. (2014). *Measuring Innovation in Education: A New Perspective*, Educational Research and Innovation. OECD Publishing, Paris. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264215696-en>

- OECD. (2015a). *Helping immigrant students to succeed at school and beyond*. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/migration/Helping-immigrant-students-to-succeed-at-school-and-beyond.pdf>
- OECD. (2015b). *Immigrant students at school: Easing the journey towards integration* (OECD Reviews of Migrant Education). Paris: OECD Publishing. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264249509-en>
- OECD. (2015c). *Skills for Social Progress: The Power of Social and Emotional Skills* (OECD Skills Studies). Paris: OECD Publishing. doi:[10.1787/9789264226159-en](http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264226159-en)
- Oxfam, GB (2006). *Education for global citizenship: A guide for schools*. Oxfam Development Education, Oxfam House, John Smith Drive, Oxford OX4 2JY, United Kingdom.
- Papanastasiou, E. C., & Angeli, C. (2008). Evaluating the use of ICT in education: Psychometric properties of the survey of factors affecting teachers teaching with technology (SFA-T3). *Educational Technology & Society*, 11(1), 69-86.
- Pettigrew, T. F., & Tropp, L. R. (2011). *When groups meet: The dynamics of intergroup contact*. London, UK: Routledge/Psychology Press.
- Pettigrew, T. F., & Tropp, L. R. (2006). A meta-analytic test of intergroup contact theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90, 751–783. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.90.5.751
- Pfeifer, J. H., Brown, C. S., Juvonen, J. (2007). Teaching tolerance in schools: Lessons learned since Brown v. Board of Education about the development and reduction of children's prejudice. *Social Policy Report: Giving Children and Youth Development Knowledge Away*, XXI(2), 3-13.
- Philips, L. (2010). *Citizenship: Storytelling, Stories and social actions*. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Queensland University of Technology, Queensland.
- Piaget, J. (1964). Cognitive Development in Children: Development and Learning. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 2, 176-186. doi: 10.1002/tea.3660020306
- Pianta, R. C., Hamre, B., & Stuhlman, M. (2003). *Relationships between teachers and children*. Handbook of psychology.
- Rosenthal, L., & Levy, S. R. (2010). The colorblind, multicultural, and polycultural ideological approaches to improving intergroup attitudes and relations. *Social Issues and Policy Review*, 4(1), 215-246. doi:st10.1111/j.1751-2409.2010.01022.x
- Roseth, C. J., Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2008). Promoting early adolescents' achievement and peer relationships: The effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic goal structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 134(2), 223-246. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.134.2.223H
- Schugurensky, D., & Myers, J. (2003). Citizenship education: Theory, research and practice. *Encounters on Education*, 4, 1 – 10.
- Sinkkonen H., Kyttälä M. (2014), *Experiences of Finnish teachers working with immigrant students*; *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 29:2; pp.167-183, DOI: 10.1080/08856257.2014.891719.
- Sleeter, C. E., & Grant, C. (1987). An analysis of multicultural research in the United States. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(4), 421–445.

- Sleeter, C. E., & Grant, C. (2006). *Making choices for multicultural education: Five approaches to race, class, and gender* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Slot, P. L., Leseman, P. P., Verhagen, J., & Mulder, H. (2015). Associations between structural quality aspects and process quality in Dutch early childhood education and care settings. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 33, 64-76. doi: 10.1016/j.ecresq.2015.06.001
- Sorensen, L. C., Dodge, K. A. & the Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group. (2016). How does the Fast Track Intervention prevent adverse outcomes in young adulthood? *Child Development*, 87(2), 429-445. doi:10.1111/cdev.12467
- Stanat, P., Becker, M., Baumert, J., Lüdtke, O., & Eckhardt, A. G. (2012). Improving second language skills of immigrant students: A field trial study evaluating the effects of a summer learning program. *Learning and Instruction*, 22(3), 159-170. doi: 10.1016/j.learninstruc.2011.10.002
- Stephan, C. W., Renfro, L., & Stephan, W. G. (2004). The evaluation of multicultural education programs: Techniques and meta-analysis. In W. G. Stephan & P. G. Vogt, (Eds.), *Education programs for improving intergroup relations: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 227–242). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Sylva, K., Pastori, G., Lerkkanen, M-K., Ereky-Stevens, K., & Slot, P. (2016). Integrative report on a culture-sensitive quality and curriculum framework (Deliverable 2.4). Retrieved from [http://ecec-care.org/fileadmin/careproject/Publications/reports/D2\\_4\\_Integrative\\_Report\\_wp2\\_FINA\\_L.pdf](http://ecec-care.org/fileadmin/careproject/Publications/reports/D2_4_Integrative_Report_wp2_FINA_L.pdf)
- Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A review of school climate research. *Review of Educational Research*, 83(3), 357-385. doi: 10.3102/0034654313483907
- UNESCO Global Education First Initiative. (2016). Improve the quality of learning. Retrieved from <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/gefi/priorities/quality-of-learning/>
- UNESCO International Bureau of Education (2015). The curriculum in debates and in educational reforms to 2030: For a curriculum agenda of the twenty-first century. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002342/234220e.pdf>
- UNESCO International Bureau of Education (2016). Reaching out to all learners: A resource pack for supporting inclusive education. Training Tools for Curriculum Development. Retrieved from [http://www.ibe.unesco.org/sites/default/files/resources/ibe-crp-inclusiveeducation-2016\\_eng.pdf](http://www.ibe.unesco.org/sites/default/files/resources/ibe-crp-inclusiveeducation-2016_eng.pdf)
- UNESCO. (2005). Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access to education for all. Retrieved from [http://www.childinfo.org/files/childdisability\\_GuidelinesforInclusion.pdf](http://www.childinfo.org/files/childdisability_GuidelinesforInclusion.pdf)
- UNESCO. (2016). Sustainable development goal 4. Retrieved from <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg4>
- van Horn, M. L. (2003). Assessing the unit of measurement for school climate through psychometric and outcome analyses of the school climate survey. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 63(6), 1002-1019. doi:10.1177/0013164403251317
- Williams, M. (2003). *The non-territorial boundaries of citizenship: The functions of self-rule and self-protection*. Paper presented at the Conference on identities, affiliations and allegiances. Yale University.

Wyer, R.S., Chiu, C-Y., & Hong, Y-I (eds) (2009), *Understanding culture. Theory, research, and application*. Psychology Press, New York.

Young A.S.(2014), Unpacking teachers' language ideologies: attitudes, beliefs, and practiced language policies in schools in Alsace, France. *Language Awareness*, vol. 23, no. 1-2; pp. 157-171; DOI: 10.1080/09658416.2013.863902.

Zirkel, S. (2008a). Creating more effective multiethnic schools. *Social Issues and Policy Review*, 2, 187–241. doi:10.1111/j.1751-240



This project has received funding from the  
European Union's Horizon 2020  
research and innovation programme  
under grant agreement No. 727069