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Handbook

on applicable methodology and didactics in multilingual classroom

Developed within the project:

**“Digital technologies in language training of students
with different mother tongue: Skilled teachers
wanted”**

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room for learning



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Chapter 1. Language education in a multilingual classroom

1.1. Introduction

The main task facing modern school education is educational integration. This is a complex process in which all participants in the education system retain their specific ethnocultural characteristics by interacting in a unified educational environment. Thus, "in the process of training and upbringing, they form intercultural competences and shared civic values, preserving their ethnocultural identity and receiving equal opportunities for social realization. Educational integration requires protection of children's rights, non-discrimination and provision of adequate requirements for social realization. It does not allow segregation and self-segregation of children and students from ethnic minorities, as well as assimilation against their will and against the will of their parents. It encourages and supports intercultural exchange and the preservation and development of different cultural identities." / Penka Angelova, *Second language for children*, 2018/

Educational integration is closely related to the issue of multilingualism in our modern reality and, in this sense, to learning in the multilingual classroom.

1.2. Multilingualism and bilingualism

As you know, there are currently between 3000-6000 languages in the world. And the countries are approximately 200. This means that most of the countries are multilingual, and multilingual people are much more than monolingual. And one more thing, multilingualism is a completely normal phenomenon, and the human brain is designed for multilingualism. In some situations, we perceive it as a great advantage, in other situations it seems to acquire a completely negative sign. The truth is that multilingualism is complex and very different for different people, which makes it more difficult for teachers and parents to understand. It is obvious that in our modern reality the coexistence and communication between individuals of different ethnicities necessitates the use of more than one language.



Depending on the socio-cultural context, a common code (language) is established in which to communicate. For example, bilingualism is spoken among ethnic minorities who use one language in the family, and in public communication (for trade, education, etc.) they use the official language. "Practice shows that in multilingual communities, usually one of the languages dominates for some reason (one of them is the higher social position of its speakers), so the rest of the individuals of the community are forced to learn this particular language, which becomes a mediator for all multilingual individuals.

Therefore, sociolinguistics usually speak of bilingualism, not poly- or multilingualism. Persons forced by circumstances to master another language (or other languages) are called bilinguals or, respectively, polyglots" [Videnov 2000: 208]. In contrast to bilingualism, diglossia is a concept by which specialists mean "the mastery of more than one form of existence in the same language... In a state of diglossia, for example, is anyone who, in addition to the literary language, also masters some traditional territorial dialect" [Videnov 2000: 208].

In modern science, bilingualism is defined as a mental mechanism of knowledge, skills and habits that enable an individual to create speech works that consistently belong to two language systems. According to Zh. Boyadzhiev's definition, the term bilingualism is "the mastery and use of two languages by a given individual or a given community, joint functioning of two language systems in spoken communication" (Boyadzhiev, 1981). Boyadzhiev, Zh. (1981). Language and society. Sofia: Science and Art.

The concept of "bilingualism" is also related to the relationship between the concepts of native language and foreign language. There is a rich literature on this subject. For example, according to Prof. Mihail Videnov, the language of the family, of the so-called primary group in which the individual is socialized, can be identified as native. "Foreign to the individual is the language different from that of the primary group in which socialization takes place" [Videnov 2000: 209] Videnov 2000: Videnov, M. Introduction to sociolinguistics. Sofia, 2000.

In other words, the students educated under the condition of bilingualism practice one language (Turkish, Romany, Tatar, etc.) in the family (the primary group), and at school they study the goal-language.

In the last decade, however, linguists have united around the opinion that the concepts of native language and foreign language are not able to "cover" the variety of cases in speech practice. This is why the terms first language, second language, etc. are imposed (by degree of proficiency or by importance in social communication or by other signs).

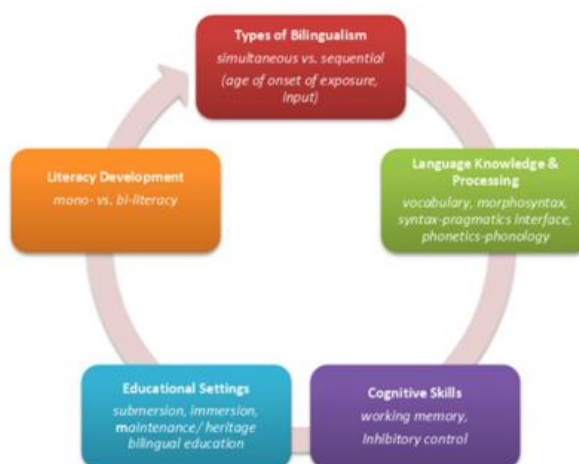
The term "Learning the language as a second language" applies to learners who have another mother tongue but live in the country concerned. In this way, a difference is made between learning Bulgarian as a foreign language and as a second language. "Learning a given language as a foreign language presupposes a foreign, little-known environment in which learners do not have access to the everyday life and social environment of the language being

studied, and such prerequisites have yet to be created for them or concepts unknown to them in the real environment have to be explained." / Penka Angelova, 2018/

Children who live in a given country and have access to a different type of information in the official language, television, other children from the neighborhood, shops and goods, as well as ongoing communication, are faced with other conditions for learning the second language, which in this case is also the official language of the country. A second language can be spoken of "when the language being studied is also the language of the environment" (Jeuk 2015, 17).

The concept of second language means that children already have some language practices in their mother tongue and start learning a second language. In this case, it is about the official language of the country. This concept was introduced in Germany on the occasion of the learning of the German language by children of immigrants. But the problem of bilingual education has been developed for decades in other Western European countries as well, with teachers becoming familiar with the problems of bilingualism and preparing specifically for working with children with another mother tongue.

In order to find appropriate didactic solutions to learning difficulties in bilingual classes, it is necessary to consider the different types of bilingualism.



The first differentiation is according to the method of acquisition of the second language. Here it is taken into account whether a person began to learn a certain language from early childhood or at a certain age at a certain stage of his conscious life. The determination of the way of language acquisition, i.e. whether a child grows up with the simultaneous use of two languages or learns the second language later largely determines his attitude to multilingualism and to the mixing or separation of languages. Here, it is important whether the language is acquired in natural communicative situations or through translation equivalents and usage rules.

The second type of distinction of the types of bilingualism is according to social conditions, i.e. the prerequisites created in society for practicing bilingualism. It is about

whether bilingualism is realized only in an individual form, or whether there are conditions for it to be practiced collectively and institutionally. Of course, these forms are interrelated, but it is still essential whether a given language can be used in a diverse social environment, in institutions, whether it is recognized, whether it can be heard on radio and television.

From the point of view of competence, three types of bilingualism can be distinguished: composite, coordinated and subordinate. In this case, it is about the ratio of languages and their use and how they are memorized in the brain (Riel, 13). Riehl, Claudia Maria (2014): Mehrsprachigkeit. Eine Einführung, WBG wissen verbindet

In composite (linked) bilingualism, the speaker has a certain idea of the concept to which he can relate in both languages; in coordinated bilingualism, in the speaker's brain there is a correspondingly certain concept of its use associated with a certain concept for the corresponding word. In subordinate bilingualism, there is idea of concepts to speak of, and the speaker simply translates the words from the first language into the second language.

The next differentiation of the nature of bilingualism is according to linguistic constellations: in this case, it is based on the premise that the so-called mother tongue is one and children must be taught the second language.

It is important to note that when practicing two languages there is always an overlap of elements from different language levels. Specialists call this overlap cross-linguistic interference. In language learning theory there is even talk of an intermediate language (in L. Selinker's term Selinker 1972: L. Selinker Interlanguage. 1972. IRAL 10, 209-31) that can be described. In fact, the intermediate language used by students educated in a bilingual environment is a function of mixing the home language (the language in the family), the language of pedagogical communication (the language of the learning process), the language of the street speech environment, the language of the media (newspapers, magazines , television, internet). (Tatiana Angelova, The role of Bulgarian language education for the integration of students in a bilingual environment, Bulgarian language and literature magazine, 2003)

That is why it is normal for bilinguals to switch from one language to the other. In science, this process is called Code-Switching, which occurs during a conversation or even in one sentence. For people who know two languages, it is quite natural to use both. "Code-Switching" is not a sign of a language deficit, but of the creativity of the speaker. Language switching takes place according to certain rules depending on the participants, the situation and the topic of the conversation. For example, if the conversation involves people who speak both languages, the languages are mixed more. If the other participants speak only one language, they do not mix. If the topic is about school, more will be spoken in the official language, and if it is a holiday celebrated in the family, more will be spoken in the mother tongue. Younger children, for example, borrow words or grammatical constructions from their mother tongue when they have not yet mastered them in the other language. Because the brain differentiates



between the two languages seamlessly, if parents mix the two languages, this does not lead to learning problems, but is part of the language acquisition process.

Although the education of bilingual children is most often considered in the context of difficulties, some specialists (R. Titone, R. Cohen, P. Sotirov) advocate the thesis that bilingualism not only does not hinder the development of bilingual children, but even expands their intellectual potential. Petar Sotirov points out that "early language training of bilingual children not only does not delay or complicate their linguistic and general intellectual development, but even accelerates and enriches it. Therefore, it is necessary... to encourage both the development and maintenance of natural early bilingualism (in mixed families and in the families of ethnic and national minorities), and the introduction of foreign language learning at school as early as possible" [Sotirov 2003: 66]. Sotirov 2003: Sotirov, P. Bilingual children - are they a problem for education. // Bulgarian Language and Literature, 2003, No. 1 <<https://liternet.bg/publish9/psotirov/dvuezichni.htm>> 12.03.2004.

1.3. Main factors for successful education of bilingual children

The successful education of bilingual children is primarily determined by:

- frequency of use of the official language in the family
- socio-economic status of the family
- sociocultural traditions of the minority community

Main factor in the degree and quality of acquisition of the official language in a country by bilingual children is the family environment. In this context, the observations made in Celine Alvarez's book "Natural Laws in Child Development" are very interesting. This book cites an interesting study entitled "The Early Crash" . The study examined language interactions between adults and children (ages 7 months to 3 years) in 42 families. The results of the study show that between 86% and 98% of the words that children use in their daily lives are borrowed from their parents' vocabulary. This only proves how important it is to practice the official language of the country in the family environment.

Putting these data in the context of teaching bilingual children, the following conclusion can be drawn: "even if they listen to a certain language on television, in the store or on the street, children form their basic communication skills predominantly in the family. For children from ethnic minorities in Bulgaria, this means that in many cases the official language in Bulgaria is actually a second language. While the mother tongue has already been mastered to a certain extent, for one reason or another there is a lack of active contact with the Bulgarian language until the moment when the children are covered by preschool preparation." / Elitsa Todorova, What is it like not to understand the language of the school, <https://prepodavame.bg/6842-2/>

In Bulgaria, unfortunately, students who communicate in the family environment in a language other than Bulgarian often have serious educational difficulties. These are primarily children from minority communities / Roma, Turks, etc./ They often lag behind in individual subjects due to the lack of language skills in Bulgarian - the language spoken at school. An essential factor for the successful education of children from minority communities is the socio-economic characteristics of the family.

The published results of the PISA study show that, in addition to the language spoken in the family, the socio-economic status of students is a significant factor in student achievement. What should be given serious attention is the fact that, according to the cited study, almost half of the youth between the ages of 15 and 16 in Bulgaria are functionally illiterate.

Table I.B1.1^[1/2] **Percentage of students at each proficiency level in reading**

	All students																	
	Below Level 1c (less than 189.33 score points)		Level 1c (from 189.33 to less than 262.04 score points)		Level 1b (from 262.04 to less than 334.75 score points)		Level 1a (from 334.75 to less than 407.47 score points)		Level 2 (from 407.47 to less than 480.18 score points)		Level 3 (from 480.18 to less than 552.89 score points)		Level 4 (from 552.89 to less than 625.61 score points)		Level 5 (from 625.61 to less than 698.32 score points)		Level 6 (above 698.32 score points)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Australia	0.1	(0.1)	1.4	(0.2)	5.6	(0.3)	12.5	(0.4)	21.1	(0.5)	25.4	(0.5)	20.9	(0.5)	10.3	(0.4)	2.7	(0.2)
Austria	0.0	(0.0)	0.9	(0.2)	6.4	(0.6)	16.3	(0.8)	23.5	(0.8)	26.2	(0.9)	19.3	(0.8)	6.7	(0.5)	0.7	(0.1)
Belgium	0.1	(0.1)	1.2	(0.2)	6.0	(0.4)	14.0	(0.6)	22.4	(0.7)	26.5	(0.7)	20.4	(0.7)	8.3	(0.5)	1.3	(0.2)
Canada	0.0	(0.0)	0.7	(0.1)	3.1	(0.2)	10.0	(0.4)	20.1	(0.6)	27.2	(0.5)	24.0	(0.5)	12.2	(0.5)	2.8	(0.2)
Chile	0.1	(0.1)	1.7	(0.2)	8.9	(0.6)	21.0	(0.9)	29.5	(0.9)	24.4	(0.9)	11.8	(0.6)	2.4	(0.3)	0.2	(0.1)
Colombia	0.2	(0.1)	3.6	(0.4)	15.8	(0.9)	30.3	(1.0)	27.7	(1.0)	15.8	(0.9)	5.7	(0.5)	0.9	(0.2)	0.0	(0.0)
Czech Republic	0.1	(0.1)	0.7	(0.2)	5.0	(0.5)	15.0	(0.8)	25.0	(0.9)	26.9	(0.9)	19.1	(0.8)	7.2	(0.5)	1.1	(0.2)
Denmark	0.0	(0.0)	0.5	(0.1)	3.5	(0.3)	11.9	(0.5)	23.9	(0.8)	30.1	(0.9)	21.6	(0.8)	7.3	(0.5)	1.1	(0.2)
Estonia	0.0	c	0.3	(0.1)	2.1	(0.2)	8.7	(0.5)	21.2	(0.9)	29.9	(0.9)	24.0	(0.8)	11.1	(0.6)	2.8	(0.3)
Finland	0.0	(0.0)	0.8	(0.2)	3.3	(0.4)	9.4	(0.6)	19.2	(0.7)	27.6	(0.8)	25.4	(0.8)	11.9	(0.7)	2.4	(0.3)
France	0.0	(0.0)	1.1	(0.2)	5.7	(0.4)	14.0	(0.7)	22.8	(0.8)	26.6	(0.8)	20.5	(0.7)	8.1	(0.6)	1.1	(0.2)
Germany	0.1	(0.1)	1.3	(0.3)	5.7	(0.5)	13.6	(0.8)	21.1	(0.8)	25.4	(0.8)	21.5	(0.9)	9.5	(0.6)	1.8	(0.2)
Greece	0.1	(0.1)	2.1	(0.3)	9.3	(0.7)	19.0	(0.9)	27.3	(0.8)	25.2	(1.0)	13.3	(0.8)	3.3	(0.4)	0.3	(0.1)
Hungary	0.0	(0.1)	1.2	(0.2)	7.0	(0.6)	17.0	(0.8)	25.2	(0.9)	26.3	(0.9)	17.5	(0.8)	5.2	(0.5)	0.5	(0.1)
Iceland	0.1	(0.1)	2.3	(0.3)	8.0	(0.7)	15.9	(0.8)	24.6	(0.9)	25.1	(0.8)	16.9	(0.7)	6.2	(0.6)	0.9	(0.2)
Ireland	0.0	(0.0)	0.2	(0.1)	2.1	(0.3)	9.5	(0.6)	21.7	(0.8)	30.3	(0.9)	24.1	(0.8)	10.3	(0.6)	1.8	(0.3)
Israel	0.7	(0.2)	5.0	(0.5)	10.4	(0.7)	15.0	(0.9)	19.4	(0.7)	21.6	(0.8)	17.5	(0.8)	8.4	(0.6)	2.0	(0.3)
Italy	0.1	(0.1)	1.7	(0.3)	6.7	(0.6)	14.8	(0.7)	26.3	(0.9)	28.2	(0.9)	16.9	(0.7)	4.9	(0.4)	0.5	(0.1)
Japan	0.1	(0.0)	0.7	(0.2)	4.1	(0.4)	12.0	(0.7)	22.5	(0.9)	28.6	(1.0)	21.9	(0.8)	8.6	(0.6)	1.7	(0.3)
Korea	0.1	(0.1)	1.1	(0.2)	4.3	(0.4)	9.6	(0.7)	19.6	(0.7)	27.6	(0.8)	24.6	(0.8)	10.8	(0.6)	2.3	(0.4)
Latvia	0.0	(0.0)	0.6	(0.1)	5.2	(0.4)	16.6	(0.6)	27.4	(0.8)	28.8	(0.8)	16.6	(0.7)	4.4	(0.4)	0.4	(0.1)
Lithuania	0.0	(0.0)	1.0	(0.2)	6.3	(0.4)	17.0	(0.6)	26.1	(0.8)	27.7	(0.7)	16.9	(0.6)	4.5	(0.4)	0.4	(0.1)
Luxembourg	0.2	(0.1)	2.4	(0.2)	9.2	(0.4)	17.6	(0.6)	23.7	(0.7)	23.5	(0.7)	15.9	(0.6)	6.4	(0.4)	1.3	(0.2)
Mexico	0.0	(0.1)	2.5	(0.4)	13.1	(0.8)	29.1	(1.1)	31.7	(1.0)	17.5	(0.9)	5.3	(0.6)	0.7	(0.2)	0.0	(0.0)
Netherlands*	0.1	(0.1)	1.3	(0.2)	7.0	(0.6)	15.6	(0.7)	23.7	(0.8)	24.3	(1.0)	18.8	(0.8)	7.9	(0.6)	1.2	(0.2)
New Zealand	0.1	(0.1)	1.0	(0.2)	5.2	(0.5)	12.7	(0.6)	20.8	(0.7)	24.6	(0.7)	22.5	(0.7)	10.7	(0.6)	2.4	(0.3)
Norway	0.1	(0.1)	1.7	(0.2)	5.6	(0.4)	11.9	(0.6)	21.5	(0.7)	26.4	(0.9)	21.6	(0.8)	9.6	(0.6)	1.6	(0.2)
Poland	0.0	(0.0)	0.5	(0.1)	3.3	(0.3)	10.8	(0.6)	22.4	(0.8)	27.7	(0.8)	23.0	(0.8)	10.1	(0.7)	2.1	(0.3)
Portugal*	0.0	(0.0)	0.9	(0.2)	5.0	(0.5)	14.3	(0.7)	23.3	(0.7)	28.2	(0.8)	21.0	(0.9)	6.5	(0.6)	0.8	(0.2)
Slovak Republic	0.1	(0.1)	2.3	(0.3)	9.2	(0.7)	19.8	(0.8)	26.9	(0.9)	23.5	(0.9)	13.6	(0.7)	4.1	(0.4)	0.5	(0.2)
Slovenia	0.0	(0.1)	0.6	(0.2)	4.3	(0.4)	12.9	(0.5)	24.5	(0.8)	29.5	(0.9)	20.3	(0.7)	6.8	(0.5)	1.0	(0.2)
Spain	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Sweden	0.2	(0.1)	1.5	(0.2)	5.1	(0.5)	11.6	(0.7)	20.6	(0.8)	25.5	(0.8)	22.3	(0.8)	10.9	(0.7)	2.4	(0.3)
Switzerland	0.1	(0.1)	1.3	(0.3)	7.1	(0.6)	15.1	(0.7)	23.4	(0.9)	26.3	(0.8)	18.5	(0.8)	6.9	(0.6)	1.2	(0.2)
Turkey	0.0	(0.0)	0.7	(0.2)	6.3	(0.6)	19.1	(0.7)	30.2	(0.9)	26.9	(1.0)	13.5	(0.6)	3.1	(0.5)	0.2	(0.1)
United Kingdom	0.0	(0.0)	0.8	(0.2)	4.2	(0.4)	12.3	(0.7)	23.0	(0.7)	27.2	(0.7)	21.0	(0.8)	9.5	(0.6)	2.0	(0.2)
United States*	0.1	(0.1)	1.1	(0.2)	5.4	(0.5)	12.7	(0.8)	21.1	(0.8)	24.7	(0.8)	21.4	(0.8)	10.7	(0.7)	2.8	(0.4)
OECD average-36a	0.1	(0.0)	1.4	(0.0)	6.2	(0.1)	15.0	(0.1)	23.7	(0.1)	26.0	(0.1)	18.9	(0.1)	7.4	(0.1)	1.3	(0.0)
OECD total	0.1	(0.0)	1.3	(0.1)	6.7	(0.2)	15.9	(0.3)	24.0	(0.3)	24.8	(0.3)	18.1	(0.3)	7.6	(0.2)	1.6	(0.1)



Table I.B1.1 [2/2] **Percentage of students at each proficiency level in reading**

	All students													
	Below Level 1c (less than 189.33 score points)		Level 1c (from 189.33 to less than 262.04 score points)		Level 1b (from 262.04 to less than 334.75 score points)		Level 1a (from 334.75 to less than 407.47 score points)		Level 2 (from 407.47 to less than 480.18 score points)		Level 3 (from 480.18 to less than 552.89 score points)		Level 4 (from 552.89 to less than 625.61 score points)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Albania	0.1	(0.1)	2.9	(0.3)	16.4	(0.7)	32.8	(0.9)	29.9	(0.8)	14.0	(0.7)	3.5	(0.4)
Argentina	1.3	(0.2)	6.7	(0.6)	17.4	(0.7)	26.7	(0.9)	25.7	(0.8)	16.2	(0.7)	5.3	(0.5)
Baku (Azerbaijan)	0.1	(0.1)	3.7	(0.4)	19.6	(0.8)	37.0	(1.1)	28.6	(0.9)	9.2	(0.6)	1.6	(0.4)
Belarus	0.0	(0.0)	0.8	(0.2)	5.8	(0.5)	16.8	(0.8)	28.7	(0.8)	28.0	(1.0)	16.0	(0.7)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.1	(0.1)	2.8	(0.4)	17.5	(1.0)	33.2	(1.1)	28.8	(1.1)	14.3	(0.9)	3.0	(0.4)
Brazil	0.4	(0.1)	5.3	(0.4)	17.7	(0.6)	26.7	(0.7)	24.5	(0.6)	16.3	(0.6)	7.4	(0.5)
Brunei Darussalam	0.3	(0.1)	5.4	(0.3)	19.1	(0.5)	27.0	(0.7)	24.5	(0.6)	15.5	(0.5)	6.9	(0.3)
B-S-J-Z (China)	0.0	(0.0)	0.1	(0.1)	0.7	(0.2)	4.3	(0.5)	14.3	(0.8)	27.9	(1.0)	30.8	(1.0)
Bulgaria	0.3	(0.1)	4.6	(0.6)	17.1	(1.1)	25.1	(0.9)	24.9	(1.0)	17.3	(0.9)	8.4	(0.7)
Costa Rica	0.1	(0.0)	1.8	(0.3)	11.3	(0.7)	28.9	(1.1)	32.1	(1.1)	19.4	(1.1)	5.9	(0.8)
Croatia	0.0	(0.0)	0.7	(0.2)	5.0	(0.5)	15.9	(0.8)	28.3	(0.9)	29.0	(1.0)	16.4	(0.8)
Cyprus	0.3	(0.1)	4.3	(0.3)	15.0	(0.6)	24.1	(0.8)	26.9	(0.7)	19.3	(0.6)	8.4	(0.4)
Dominican Republic	1.1	(0.3)	15.9	(0.9)	33.3	(1.1)	28.8	(1.0)	15.0	(0.9)	4.9	(0.5)	0.9	(0.2)
Georgia	0.4	(0.1)	7.0	(0.5)	24.2	(0.9)	32.8	(0.8)	22.9	(0.8)	10.1	(0.6)	2.4	(0.3)
Hong Kong (China)*	0.1	(0.1)	0.9	(0.2)	3.5	(0.4)	8.1	(0.6)	17.8	(0.7)	27.7	(0.7)	27.1	(0.8)
Indonesia	0.2	(0.1)	6.3	(0.6)	26.7	(1.0)	36.7	(1.1)	21.8	(1.0)	7.2	(0.8)	1.1	(0.2)
Jordan	1.1	(0.2)	4.0	(0.5)	11.1	(0.7)	25.0	(0.8)	33.8	(1.0)	20.5	(0.9)	4.3	(0.5)
Kazakhstan	0.1	(0.0)	3.5	(0.3)	22.2	(0.7)	38.4	(0.7)	23.9	(0.5)	8.9	(0.3)	2.6	(0.2)
Kosovo	0.3	(0.1)	8.7	(0.6)	31.7	(0.8)	38.0	(1.0)	17.5	(0.7)	3.6	(0.3)	0.2	(0.1)
Lebanon	6.3	(0.6)	16.9	(1.0)	23.0	(0.9)	21.6	(0.8)	17.4	(0.9)	10.5	(0.7)	3.7	(0.5)
Macao (China)	0.0	(0.0)	0.3	(0.1)	2.2	(0.2)	8.2	(0.6)	19.4	(0.8)	29.8	(0.8)	26.1	(0.7)
Malaysia	0.2	(0.1)	3.6	(0.4)	14.2	(0.8)	27.9	(0.9)	31.4	(1.0)	17.9	(0.9)	4.3	(0.6)
Malta	0.7	(0.2)	4.8	(0.4)	11.9	(0.7)	18.5	(0.9)	23.7	(0.9)	21.7	(0.9)	13.4	(0.9)
Moldova	0.4	(0.1)	3.9	(0.5)	13.5	(0.7)	25.2	(0.8)	28.0	(0.9)	20.8	(0.9)	7.2	(0.6)
Montenegro	0.1	(0.1)	2.8	(0.3)	13.5	(0.5)	28.0	(0.7)	30.5	(0.6)	18.3	(0.6)	6.0	(0.4)
Morocco	0.3	(0.1)	8.8	(0.7)	30.8	(1.3)	33.4	(0.9)	20.6	(1.2)	5.6	(0.5)	0.5	(0.1)
North Macedonia	1.6	(0.2)	7.3	(0.5)	18.3	(0.8)	27.9	(1.0)	26.6	(0.8)	14.4	(0.6)	3.5	(0.3)
Panama	1.0	(0.2)	8.4	(0.8)	23.4	(0.9)	31.5	(1.0)	23.0	(0.8)	9.9	(0.9)	2.6	(0.4)
Peru	0.4	(0.1)	5.5	(0.5)	19.6	(0.9)	28.9	(0.9)	25.8	(0.7)	14.3	(0.7)	4.8	(0.5)
Philippines	0.5	(0.1)	15.1	(0.9)	38.3	(1.1)	26.7	(0.8)	13.1	(0.7)	5.1	(0.7)	1.1	(0.3)
Qatar	1.2	(0.1)	8.5	(0.3)	17.6	(0.4)	23.6	(0.5)	23.4	(0.4)	15.8	(0.4)	7.3	(0.3)
Romania	0.8	(0.3)	4.3	(0.6)	12.9	(1.0)	22.8	(1.2)	28.1	(1.1)	20.9	(1.3)	8.7	(1.0)
Russia	0.0	(0.0)	1.0	(0.2)	5.6	(0.6)	15.5	(0.9)	28.1	(0.8)	28.0	(0.8)	16.4	(0.7)
Saudi Arabia	0.5	(0.2)	5.3	(0.6)	17.0	(0.9)	29.4	(0.9)	30.4	(1.1)	14.6	(0.8)	2.6	(0.3)
Serbia	0.1	(0.1)	2.7	(0.4)	12.2	(0.8)	22.7	(0.8)	27.8	(0.8)	21.8	(0.8)	10.1	(0.7)
Singapore	0.0	(0.0)	0.5	(0.1)	3.0	(0.3)	7.7	(0.4)	14.2	(0.5)	22.3	(0.7)	26.4	(0.6)
Chinese Taipei	0.1	(0.1)	1.2	(0.2)	4.5	(0.4)	12.0	(0.6)	21.8	(0.7)	27.4	(0.8)	22.0	(0.9)
Thailand	0.1	(0.1)	3.6	(0.5)	20.6	(1.1)	35.3	(1.1)	26.0	(1.0)	11.6	(0.9)	2.7	(0.4)
Ukraine	0.2	(0.1)	1.8	(0.3)	7.2	(0.7)	16.7	(0.9)	27.7	(0.8)	28.5	(1.0)	14.5	(0.8)
United Arab Emirates	0.6	(0.1)	5.8	(0.3)	14.9	(0.5)	21.6	(0.4)	23.4	(0.5)	18.1	(0.5)	10.8	(0.6)
Uruguay	0.3	(0.1)	4.0	(0.4)	13.6	(0.8)	24.0	(0.9)	28.1	(1.1)	20.1	(0.8)	8.3	(0.7)
Viet Nam**	0.0	(0.0)	0.1	(0.1)	1.1	(0.3)	8.3	(0.9)	26.9	(1.3)	38.1	(1.2)	20.5	(1.3)



Table I.B1.7^[14] **Percentage of low achievers and top performers in reading, 2009 through 2018**

	Proficiency level in PISA 2009				Proficiency level in PISA 2012				Proficiency level in PISA 2015				Proficiency level in PISA 2018			
	Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)		Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)		Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)		Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
OECD																
Australia	14.2	(0.6)	12.8	(0.8)	14.2	(0.5)	11.7	(0.5)	18.1	(0.5)	11.0	(0.5)	19.6	(0.5)	13.0	(0.5)
Austria	m	m	m	m	19.5	(1.1)	5.5	(0.6)	22.5	(1.0)	7.2	(0.6)	23.6	(1.0)	7.4	(0.5)
Belgium	17.7	(0.9)	11.2	(0.6)	16.1	(0.8)	11.8	(0.6)	19.5	(0.9)	9.3	(0.6)	21.3	(0.9)	9.5	(0.5)
Canada	10.3	(0.5)	12.8	(0.5)	10.9	(0.5)	12.9	(0.6)	10.7	(0.6)	14.0	(0.7)	13.8	(0.5)	15.0	(0.6)
Chile	30.6	(1.5)	1.3	(0.3)	33.0	(1.7)	0.6	(0.1)	28.4	(1.2)	2.3	(0.3)	31.7	(1.2)	2.6	(0.3)
Colombia	47.1	(1.9)	0.6	(0.2)	51.4	(1.8)	0.3	(0.1)	42.8	(1.5)	1.0	(0.2)	49.9	(1.7)	0.9	(0.2)
Czech Republic	23.1	(1.3)	5.1	(0.5)	16.9	(1.2)	6.1	(0.5)	22.0	(1.1)	7.9	(0.6)	20.7	(1.1)	8.2	(0.5)
Denmark	15.2	(0.9)	4.7	(0.5)	14.6	(1.1)	5.4	(0.6)	15.0	(0.8)	6.5	(0.6)	16.0	(0.7)	8.4	(0.5)
Estonia	13.3	(1.0)	6.1	(0.6)	9.1	(0.6)	8.3	(0.7)	10.6	(0.7)	11.0	(0.7)	11.1	(0.6)	13.9	(0.7)
Finland	8.1	(0.5)	14.5	(0.8)	11.3	(0.7)	13.5	(0.6)	11.1	(0.8)	13.7	(0.7)	13.5	(0.7)	14.2	(0.7)
France	19.8	(1.2)	9.6	(1.0)	18.9	(1.0)	12.9	(0.8)	21.5	(0.9)	12.5	(0.7)	20.9	(0.7)	9.2	(0.7)
Germany	18.5	(1.1)	7.6	(0.6)	14.5	(0.9)	8.9	(0.7)	16.2	(0.9)	11.7	(0.7)	20.7	(1.1)	11.3	(0.7)
Greece	21.3	(1.8)	5.6	(0.5)	22.6	(1.2)	5.1	(0.6)	27.3	(1.8)	4.0	(0.5)	30.5	(1.5)	3.7	(0.5)
Hungary	17.6	(1.4)	6.1	(0.7)	19.7	(1.2)	5.6	(0.8)	27.5	(1.1)	4.3	(0.4)	25.3	(0.9)	5.7	(0.5)
Iceland	16.8	(0.6)	8.5	(0.6)	21.0	(0.7)	5.8	(0.5)	22.1	(1.0)	6.6	(0.6)	26.4	(0.9)	7.1	(0.6)
Ireland	17.2	(1.0)	7.0	(0.5)	9.6	(0.9)	11.4	(0.7)	10.2	(0.8)	10.7	(0.7)	11.8	(0.7)	12.1	(0.7)
Israel	26.5	(1.2)	7.4	(0.6)	23.6	(1.6)	9.6	(0.8)	26.6	(1.3)	9.2	(0.7)	31.1	(1.3)	10.4	(0.7)
Italy	21.0	(0.6)	5.8	(0.3)	19.5	(0.7)	6.7	(0.3)	21.0	(1.0)	5.7	(0.5)	23.3	(1.0)	5.3	(0.5)
Japan	13.6	(1.1)	13.4	(0.9)	9.8	(0.9)	18.5	(1.3)	12.9	(1.0)	10.8	(0.9)	16.8	(1.0)	10.3	(0.7)
Korea	5.8	(0.8)	12.9	(1.1)	7.6	(0.9)	14.1	(1.2)	13.7	(1.0)	12.7	(1.0)	15.1	(0.9)	13.1	(0.9)
Latvia	17.6	(1.2)	2.9	(0.4)	17.0	(1.1)	4.2	(0.6)	17.7	(0.9)	4.3	(0.5)	22.4	(0.7)	4.8	(0.4)
Lithuania	24.4	(1.2)	2.9	(0.4)	21.2	(1.2)	3.3	(0.4)	25.1	(0.9)	4.4	(0.5)	24.4	(0.8)	5.0	(0.4)
Luxembourg	26.0	(0.6)	5.7	(0.5)	22.2	(0.7)	8.9	(0.4)	25.6	(0.6)	8.1	(0.4)	29.3	(0.6)	7.6	(0.5)
Mexico	40.1	(1.0)	0.4	(0.1)	41.1	(0.9)	0.4	(0.1)	41.7	(1.3)	0.3	(0.1)	44.7	(1.3)	0.8	(0.2)
Netherlands*	14.3	(1.5)	9.8	(1.1)	14.0	(1.2)	9.8	(0.8)	18.1	(1.0)	10.9	(0.6)	24.1	(1.0)	9.1	(0.6)
New Zealand	14.3	(0.7)	15.7	(0.8)	16.3	(0.8)	14.0	(0.8)	17.3	(0.8)	13.6	(0.9)	19.0	(0.8)	13.1	(0.6)
Norway	15.0	(0.8)	8.4	(0.9)	16.2	(1.0)	10.2	(0.7)	14.9	(0.8)	12.2	(0.7)	19.3	(0.8)	11.3	(0.6)
Poland	15.0	(0.8)	7.2	(0.6)	10.6	(0.8)	10.0	(0.9)	14.4	(0.8)	8.2	(0.7)	14.7	(0.8)	12.2	(0.8)
Portugal*	17.6	(1.2)	4.8	(0.5)	18.8	(1.4)	5.8	(0.6)	17.2	(0.9)	7.5	(0.6)	20.2	(0.9)	7.3	(0.6)
Slovak Republic	22.2	(1.2)	4.5	(0.5)	28.2	(1.8)	4.4	(0.7)	32.1	(1.1)	3.5	(0.4)	31.4	(1.0)	4.6	(0.4)
Slovenia	21.2	(0.6)	4.6	(0.5)	21.1	(0.7)	5.0	(0.4)	15.1	(0.6)	8.9	(0.7)	17.9	(0.7)	7.8	(0.5)
Spain	19.6	(0.9)	3.3	(0.3)	18.3	(0.8)	5.5	(0.3)	16.2	(0.9)	5.5	(0.5)	m	m	m	m
Sweden	17.4	(0.9)	9.0	(0.7)	22.7	(1.2)	7.9	(0.6)	18.4	(1.1)	10.0	(0.8)	18.4	(1.0)	13.3	(0.7)
Switzerland	16.8	(0.9)	8.1	(0.7)	13.7	(0.8)	9.1	(0.7)	20.0	(1.1)	7.8	(0.6)	23.6	(1.1)	8.1	(0.7)
Turkey	24.5	(1.4)	1.9	(0.4)	21.6	(1.4)	4.3	(0.9)	40.0	(2.0)	0.6	(0.2)	26.1	(1.0)	3.3	(0.5)
United Kingdom	18.4	(0.8)	8.0	(0.5)	16.6	(1.3)	8.8	(0.7)	17.9	(0.9)	9.2	(0.6)	17.3	(0.9)	11.5	(0.8)
United States*	17.6	(1.1)	9.9	(0.9)	16.6	(1.3)	7.9	(0.7)	19.0	(1.1)	9.6	(0.7)	19.3	(1.1)	13.5	(0.9)
OECD average-35a	19.4	(0.2)	7.3	(0.1)	18.9	(0.2)	8.1	(0.1)	20.9	(0.2)	8.1	(0.1)	22.6	(0.2)	8.8	(0.1)
OECD average-36a	m	m	m	m	18.9	(0.2)	8.0	(0.1)	21.0	(0.2)	8.1	(0.1)	22.6	(0.2)	8.7	(0.1)



Table I.B1.7 [2/4] **Percentage of low achievers and top performers in reading, 2009 through 2018**

	Proficiency level in PISA 2009				Proficiency level in PISA 2012				Proficiency level in PISA 2015				Proficiency level in PISA 2018			
	Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)		Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)		Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)		Below Level 2 (less than 407.47 score points)		Level 5 or above (at or above 625.61 score points)	
	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.	%	S.E.
Partners																
Albania	56.7	(1.9)	0.2	(0.1)	52.3	(1.3)	1.2	(0.2)	50.3	(1.9)	1.0	(0.2)	52.2	(1.1)	0.4	(0.1)
Argentina	51.6	(1.9)	1.0	(0.2)	53.6	(1.7)	0.5	(0.1)	m	m	m	m	52.1	(1.3)	0.7	(0.2)
Baku (Azerbaijan)	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	60.4	(1.3)	0.1	(0.1)
Belarus	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	23.4	(1.0)	3.9	(0.4)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	53.7	(1.6)	0.2	(0.1)
Brazil	49.6	(1.3)	1.3	(0.2)	50.8	(1.1)	0.5	(0.1)	51.0	(1.1)	1.4	(0.2)	50.0	(0.9)	1.8	(0.2)
Brunei Darussalam	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	51.8	(0.6)	1.3	(0.2)
B-S-J-Z (China)	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	5.2	(0.6)	21.7	(1.1)
Bulgaria	41.0	(2.6)	2.8	(0.5)	39.4	(2.2)	4.3	(0.6)	41.5	(2.0)	3.6	(0.5)	47.1	(1.7)	2.3	(0.4)
Costa Rica	32.6	(1.5)	0.8	(0.3)	32.4	(1.8)	0.6	(0.2)	40.3	(1.4)	0.7	(0.2)	42.0	(1.6)	0.6	(0.2)
Croatia	22.4	(1.3)	3.2	(0.4)	18.7	(1.3)	4.4	(0.7)	19.9	(1.1)	5.9	(0.5)	21.6	(1.2)	4.7	(0.5)
Cyprus	m	m	m	m	32.8	(0.7)	4.0	(0.3)	35.6	(0.9)	3.1	(0.3)	43.7	(0.7)	1.8	(0.2)
Dominican Republic	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	72.1	(1.5)	0.1	(0.1)	79.1	(1.3)	0.1	(0.1)
Georgia	62.0	(1.3)	0.3	(0.1)	m	m	m	m	51.7	(1.3)	1.1	(0.2)	64.4	(1.1)	0.2	(0.1)
Hong Kong (China)*	8.3	(0.7)	12.4	(0.8)	6.8	(0.7)	16.8	(1.2)	9.3	(0.8)	11.6	(0.9)	12.6	(0.8)	14.8	(0.7)
Indonesia	53.4	(2.3)	0.0	(0.0)	55.2	(2.2)	0.1	(0.1)	55.4	(1.5)	0.2	(0.1)	69.9	(1.4)	0.1	(0.0)
Jordan	48.0	(1.6)	0.2	(0.1)	50.7	(1.6)	0.1	(0.1)	46.3	(1.4)	0.3	(0.1)	41.2	(1.4)	0.3	(0.1)
Kazakhstan	58.7	(1.5)	0.4	(0.1)	57.1	(1.6)	0.0	(0.0)	m	m	m	m	64.2	(0.7)	0.4	(0.1)
Kosovo	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	76.9	(0.9)	0.0	c	78.7	(0.6)	0.0	(0.0)
Lebanon	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	70.4	(1.6)	0.8	(0.3)	67.8	(1.5)	0.7	(0.2)
Macao (China)	14.9	(0.5)	2.9	(0.2)	11.5	(0.4)	7.0	(0.4)	11.7	(0.5)	6.7	(0.5)	10.8	(0.5)	13.8	(0.6)
Malaysia	44.0	(1.6)	0.1	(0.1)	52.7	(1.7)	0.1	(0.1)	m	m	m	m	45.8	(1.4)	0.5	(0.2)
Malta	36.3	(0.7)	4.4	(0.4)	m	m	m	m	35.6	(0.8)	5.6	(0.4)	35.9	(0.8)	5.3	(0.5)
Moldova	57.2	(1.5)	0.1	(0.1)	m	m	m	m	45.8	(1.1)	1.2	(0.2)	43.0	(1.1)	1.0	(0.3)
Montenegro	49.5	(1.0)	0.6	(0.2)	43.3	(0.7)	1.0	(0.2)	41.9	(0.7)	1.4	(0.3)	44.4	(0.7)	0.8	(0.2)
Morocco	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	73.3	(1.6)	0.0	(0.0)
North Macedonia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	70.7	(0.7)	0.2	(0.1)	55.1	(0.7)	0.3	(0.2)
Panama	65.3	(2.6)	0.5	(0.2)	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	64.3	(1.4)	0.2	(0.1)
Peru	64.8	(1.7)	0.5	(0.2)	59.9	(2.0)	0.5	(0.2)	53.9	(1.5)	0.3	(0.1)	54.3	(1.3)	0.8	(0.2)
Philippines	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	80.6	(1.4)	0.1	(0.0)
Qatar	63.5	(0.5)	1.7	(0.2)	57.1	(0.4)	1.6	(0.1)	51.6	(0.5)	1.6	(0.2)	50.9	(0.4)	2.6	(0.2)
Romania	40.4	(2.0)	0.7	(0.2)	37.3	(1.9)	1.6	(0.4)	38.7	(1.9)	2.0	(0.4)	40.8	(2.2)	1.4	(0.3)
Russia	27.4	(1.3)	3.2	(0.5)	22.3	(1.3)	4.6	(0.6)	16.2	(1.2)	6.7	(0.6)	22.1	(1.2)	5.4	(0.5)
Saudi Arabia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	52.4	(1.5)	0.1	(0.1)
Serbia	32.8	(1.3)	0.8	(0.2)	33.1	(1.7)	2.2	(0.4)	m	m	m	m	37.7	(1.5)	2.5	(0.3)
Singapore	12.5	(0.5)	15.7	(0.5)	9.9	(0.4)	21.2	(0.6)	11.1	(0.5)	18.4	(0.7)	11.2	(0.5)	25.8	(0.7)
Chinese Taipei	15.6	(0.9)	5.2	(0.8)	11.5	(0.9)	11.8	(0.8)	17.2	(0.8)	6.9	(0.8)	17.8	(0.8)	10.9	(0.8)
Thailand	42.9	(1.5)	0.3	(0.2)	33.0	(1.4)	0.8	(0.2)	50.0	(1.8)	0.3	(0.1)	59.5	(1.7)	0.2	(0.1)
Ukraine	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	25.9	(1.4)	3.4	(0.5)
United Arab Emirates	39.8	(1.2)	2.3	(0.3)	35.5	(1.1)	2.2	(0.3)	40.4	(1.2)	3.0	(0.3)	42.9	(0.8)	4.8	(0.3)
Uruguay	41.9	(1.2)	1.8	(0.3)	47.0	(1.4)	0.9	(0.3)	39.0	(1.1)	2.5	(0.4)	41.9	(1.3)	1.5	(0.3)
Viet Nam**	m	m	m	m	9.4	(1.4)	4.5	(0.8)	13.8	(1.4)	2.7	(0.7)	m	m	m	m



	Statistically significantly above the OECD average
	Not statistically significantly different from the OECD average
	Statistically significantly below the OECD average

Mean score	Comparison country/economy	Countries and economies whose mean score is not statistically significantly different from the comparison country's/economy's score
555	B-S-J-Z (China)	Singapore
549	Singapore	B-S-J-Z (China)
525	Macao (China)	Hong Kong (China), ¹ Estonia, Finland
524	Hong Kong (China) ¹	Macao (China), Estonia, Canada, Finland, Ireland
523	Estonia	Macao (China), Hong Kong (China), ¹ Canada, Finland, Ireland
520	Canada	Hong Kong (China), ¹ Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Korea
520	Finland	Macao (China), Hong Kong (China), ¹ Estonia, Canada, Ireland, Korea
518	Ireland	Hong Kong (China), ¹ Estonia, Canada, Finland, Korea, Poland
514	Korea	Canada, Finland, Ireland, Poland, Sweden, United States ¹
512	Poland	Ireland, Korea, Sweden, New Zealand, United States ¹
506	Sweden	Korea, Poland, New Zealand, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Norway, Germany
506	New Zealand	Poland, Sweden, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Denmark
505	United States ¹	Korea, Poland, Sweden, New Zealand, United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Norway, Germany
504	United Kingdom	Sweden, New Zealand, United States, ¹ Japan, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Norway, Germany
504	Japan	Sweden, New Zealand, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Norway, Germany
503	Australia	Sweden, New Zealand, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Japan, Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Norway, Germany
503	Chinese Taipei	Sweden, New Zealand, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, Denmark, Norway, Germany
501	Denmark	Sweden, New Zealand, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Norway, Germany
499	Norway	Sweden, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Germany, Slovenia
498	Germany	Sweden, United States, ¹ United Kingdom, Japan, Australia, Chinese Taipei, Denmark, Norway, Slovenia, Belgium, France, Portugal ¹
495	Slovenia	Norway, Germany, Belgium, France, Portugal, ¹ Czech Republic
493	Belgium	Germany, Slovenia, France, Portugal, ¹ Czech Republic
493	France	Germany, Slovenia, Belgium, Portugal, ¹ Czech Republic
492	Portugal ¹	Germany, Slovenia, Belgium, France, Czech Republic, Netherlands ¹
490	Czech Republic	Slovenia, Belgium, France, Portugal, ¹ Netherlands, ¹ Austria, Switzerland
485	Netherlands ¹	Portugal, ¹ Czech Republic, Austria, Switzerland, Croatia, Latvia, Russia
484	Austria	Czech Republic, Netherlands, ¹ Switzerland, Croatia, Latvia, Russia
484	Switzerland	Czech Republic, Netherlands, ¹ Austria, Croatia, Latvia, Russia, Italy
479	Croatia	Netherlands, ¹ Austria, Switzerland, Latvia, Russia, Italy, Hungary, Lithuania, Iceland, Belarus, Israel
479	Latvia	Netherlands, ¹ Austria, Switzerland, Croatia, Russia, Italy, Hungary, Lithuania, Belarus
479	Russia	Netherlands, ¹ Austria, Switzerland, Croatia, Latvia, Italy, Hungary, Lithuania, Iceland, Belarus, Israel
476	Italy	Switzerland, Croatia, Latvia, Russia, Hungary, Lithuania, Iceland, Belarus, Israel
476	Hungary	Croatia, Latvia, Russia, Italy, Lithuania, Iceland, Belarus, Israel
476	Lithuania	Croatia, Latvia, Russia, Italy, Hungary, Iceland, Belarus, Israel
474	Iceland	Croatia, Russia, Italy, Hungary, Lithuania, Belarus, Israel, Luxembourg
474	Belarus	Croatia, Latvia, Russia, Italy, Hungary, Lithuania, Iceland, Israel, Luxembourg, Ukraine
470	Israel	Croatia, Russia, Italy, Hungary, Lithuania, Iceland, Belarus, Luxembourg, Ukraine, Turkey
470	Luxembourg	Iceland, Belarus, Israel, Ukraine, Turkey
466	Ukraine	Belarus, Israel, Luxembourg, Turkey, Slovak Republic, Greece
466	Turkey	Israel, Luxembourg, Ukraine, Greece
458	Slovak Republic	Ukraine, Greece, Chile
457	Greece	Ukraine, Turkey, Slovak Republic, Chile
452	Chile	Slovak Republic, Greece, Malta
448	Malta	Chile
439	Serbia	United Arab Emirates, Romania
432	United Arab Emirates	Serbia, Romania, Uruguay, Costa Rica
428	Romania	Serbia, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Moldova, Montenegro, Mexico, Bulgaria, Jordan
427	Uruguay	United Arab Emirates, Romania, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Moldova, Mexico, Bulgaria
426	Costa Rica	United Arab Emirates, Romania, Uruguay, Cyprus, Moldova, Montenegro, Mexico, Bulgaria, Jordan
424	Cyprus	Romania, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Moldova, Montenegro, Mexico, Bulgaria, Jordan
424	Moldova	Romania, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Montenegro, Mexico, Bulgaria, Jordan
421	Montenegro	Romania, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Moldova, Mexico, Bulgaria, Jordan
420	Mexico	Romania, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Moldova, Montenegro, Bulgaria, Jordan, Malaysia, Colombia

		Statistically significantly above the OECD average
		Not statistically significantly different from the OECD average
		Statistically significantly below the OECD average
Mean score	Comparison country/economy	Countries and economies whose mean score is not statistically significantly different from the comparison country's/economy's score
420	Bulgaria	Romania, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Moldova, Montenegro, Mexico, Jordan, Malaysia, Brazil, Colombia
419	Jordan	Romania, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Moldova, Montenegro, Mexico, Bulgaria, Malaysia, Brazil, Colombia
415	Malaysia	Mexico, Bulgaria, Jordan, Brazil, Colombia
413	Brazil	Bulgaria, Jordan, Malaysia, Colombia
412	Colombia	Mexico, Bulgaria, Jordan, Malaysia, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Qatar, Albania
408	Brunei Darussalam	Colombia, Qatar, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina
407	Qatar	Colombia, Brunei Darussalam, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Argentina
405	Albania	Colombia, Brunei Darussalam, Qatar, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Argentina, Peru, Saudi Arabia
403	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Brunei Darussalam, Qatar, Albania, Argentina, Peru, Saudi Arabia
402	Argentina	Qatar, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Peru, Saudi Arabia
401	Peru	Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Argentina, Saudi Arabia, Thailand
399	Saudi Arabia	Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Argentina, Peru, Thailand
393	Thailand	Peru, Saudi Arabia, North Macedonia, Baku (Azerbaijan), Kazakhstan
393	North Macedonia	Thailand, Baku (Azerbaijan)
389	Baku (Azerbaijan)	Thailand, North Macedonia, Kazakhstan
387	Kazakhstan	Thailand, Baku (Azerbaijan)
380	Georgia	Panama
377	Panama	Georgia, Indonesia
371	Indonesia	Panama
359	Morocco	Lebanon, Kosovo
353	Lebanon	Morocco, Kosovo
353	Kosovo	Morocco, Lebanon
342	Dominican Republic	Philippines
340	Philippines	Dominican Republic

Research data shows that in the majority of participating countries and economies, students' socio-economic status has a significant role in their performance in all areas of assessment. The relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of students and their achievements is tracked using a special index².

The PISA socio-economic index makes it possible to assess the fairness of the given education system - how far it gives access to all students, regardless of the environment they come from, to receive a quality education and acquire the necessary knowledge and skills. The stronger the correlation between the index and the individual result of the student, the more unfair the educational system.

In Bulgaria, students with a favorable socio-economic status are ahead of students with an unprivileged socio-economic status by an average of 106 points in reading (with an 88-point difference on average for OECD countries). There is a significant reduction in the gap compared to the previous two editions of PISA (142 and 124 points, respectively), but this is largely due to the decrease in average scores also among students with a favorable socio-economic status.

Unfortunately, in Bulgaria, most of the children with low socio-economic status do not speak Bulgarian well. In this sense, for this group of students from some marginalized communities, successful inclusion in the education system is an opportunity to break the cycle of poverty, a chance for active inclusion in society and a better life.

Generally speaking, bilingual children's second language acquisition is determined by:

- the age of the child;
- individual language abilities;

- the quantity and quality of language interactions;
- the education and language culture of parents and significant adults;
- the motivation to speak the language and others.

1.4. Difficulties in learning in a multicultural environment

In order to solve the problems of learning in a bilingual environment, it is necessary to identify the difficulties encountered by students in a certain area, under certain socio-cultural conditions, and then to prioritize and differentiate these difficulties.

The identification of difficulties implies determining whether they are of: a) communicative nature, b) of native language nature or c) of informative nature.

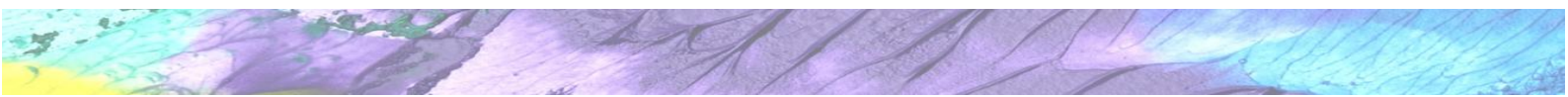
As Tatiana Angelova notes, "Students who are not aware of the goals and conditions of communication encounter communication difficulties. These students hardly take into account or do not take into account who are the participants in the communication and what are their roles, their social status. They do not understand what communicative task they are expected to solve within the lesson. (Teachers teaching in a bilingual environment share that students who do not speak Bulgarian are unable to participate in the learning process.) No less important are the difficulties with the selection of words and the way they are combined, so learners to "clothe" their thought in accordance with the communicative task.

Native language difficulties suggest whether the student has a sufficient vocabulary and syntactic constructions. Is there interference of elements from one language in the word usage of the target language - the literary Bulgarian language. Difficulties of an informative nature can sometimes be the most serious. They refer to whether the student knows the subject of the speech well, whether he has sufficient knowledge of the subject of the text.

Role of the teacher to overcome difficulties in education of bilingual children

The family is the first "institution" for the socialization and education of the child. The personal development of each child depends on the goals set by the parents and the strategies used for education and interaction with the school. The weak connections between the school, the teachers and the families of the children from some minority communities have a significant contribution to the lagging behind in the learning process and dropping out of school already at the beginning of the junior high school stage of a large part of the students.

In order to ensure prevention, during the pedagogical interaction with parents, the teacher must take into account the socio-cultural traditions that build the value system of the ethnic group. The fact that the positions of the teacher and the student in both societies are perceived differently is also particularly important. This makes it necessary to know very well the specifics of each ethnic group, and from there - to break the pedagogical interaction through the prism of its culture and traditions (Gabrova 2002).



The teacher is required to change the attitudes of the parents regarding the possibilities for development, for social integration. A large part of the parents of Roma origin have a low educational status, do not know the Bulgarian language and, in general, are not aware of their responsibilities and obligations to ensure good conditions for their children's educational work. Therefore, the teacher must maintain a close relationship with the parents, motivate them to be more responsible for the educational process of their children.

In general, the work of a teacher in a multilingual environment is particularly specific.

For the teacher it is important, above all, to take into account that children of different ethnicities have different respect for education and make demands specific to their own culture.

The main emphasis in the work in the specified conditions is the speech development of the students. The speech development of children from minority communities is of interest from a pedagogical, psychological, linguistic and social point of view.

The psychological-pedagogical aspect of the problem is expressed in the search for such an organization of training, in which the influence of the slower pace in mastering the language on the psychological development of children is minimized. The main task of the modern teacher is to form in the students responsibility for the learning results, to direct them towards the needs for the accumulation of individual cognitive experience. In this regard, working with bilingual children is very specific.

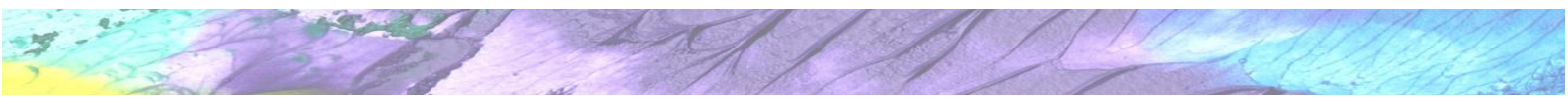
Very often, bilingual children enter school with a very limited vocabulary of the Bulgarian language, and this creates a number of difficulties in their education. Bilingualism is seen as a mental mechanism of knowledge, skills and habits, allowing a person to create speech works that consistently belong to two language systems.

For children from minority groups, bilingualism is inevitable, and this requires them to operate with the signs of two language systems. During communication, there is an interaction between the two language systems, which causes difficulties in speech activity.

When learning the Bulgarian language, for example, children of different ethnicities perceive this language through their mother tongue. This gives rise to their mistakes in Bulgarian speech. Petrova notes: "Students' phonetic errors are often due to the lack of certain sounds in the mother tongue, which leads to difficulties in pronouncing certain sounds from the Bulgarian language (ц, х, ъ) or to the softening of others (l, m, n).

Taking into account the students' bilingualism, the teacher looks for ways and forms for effective teaching, taking into account the degree of correspondence and inconsistency between the phenomena in the two languages.

Taking into account the students' bilingualism, the teacher looks for ways and forms of effective teaching, considering the degree of correspondence and inconsistency between the phenomena in the two languages. Working with bilingual children is not an easy challenge. In order to meet the state educational requirements, the teacher needs to know the peculiarities of the thinking and expression of these students.



The competencies related to age and physiological characteristics, as well as the specifics of the culture to which bilingual individuals belong, are also mandatory. Only then can the weaknesses and problems of students be assessed in order to properly guide the educational and developmental process." (Petrova 2023)

Ensuring a more effective education system requires seeking appropriate strategies and techniques, applying adequate principles, methods, and approaches to enhance motivation. These efforts aim to overcome difficulties in acquiring new knowledge and skills, adapting educational content to students' experiences, interests, and needs, and creating better organization of their learning activities and preparation.

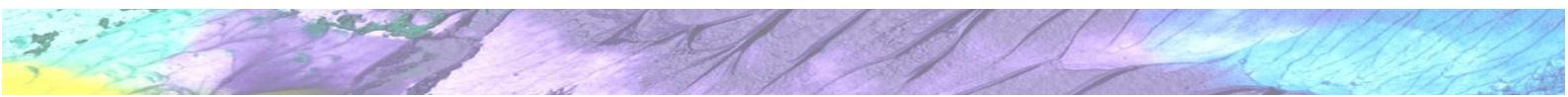
The first condition for bilingual children to master the official language well is to communicate with them and place them in an active speaking position. Rich visual aids in presenting linguistic material also contribute to this. The teacher should utilize all suitable situations to enable students to acquire skills to listen and understand what is being said to them (to ask, explain), and to respond verbally (not only to ask questions but also to answer them).

A specific didactic task for a teacher working with bilingual students is related to modifying the educational content according to the characteristics of the learners and their cognitive experience. Teaching should be vivid and visually oriented. This is necessary due to the varying levels of proficiency in the official literary Bulgarian language. When a significant number of students do not possess the necessary lexical and syntactical minimum in terms of speech, differentiation in the teaching process is required, taking into account the individual needs of the learners.

Practice shows that almost all students can achieve a high level of performance in educational standards, but at different times and through different paths. This can be achieved by adapting the educational content to facilitate comprehension based on simplified vocabulary. It is also essential for the teacher to be ready to wait for the development of the thought process when answering questions because bilingual children exhibit what is known as a two-way thought process.

Part of the systematic work of a teacher working with bilingual students is preparing and assigning individual tasks for independent study to compensate for difficulties in mastering the study material.

Errors are entirely normal in the acquisition of a language. They are part of language development and are not random; they have a certain system and play an important role in the learner's grammar. The teacher should not correct the children's errors directly by naming them (explicit correction). It is better to model the child's statement by repeating the incorrectly structured sentence correctly (implicit correction).



1.5. Models for educating language minorities in bilingual settings

In global practice, there exist numerous and diverse educational programs related to the education of bilingual individuals. Various types of education are summarized by Rumyana Tankova (Tankova 2014).

Name	Rumyana Tankova (2014)
Year	2014
Types of Education	1. Immersion education in the official language 2. Education with optional mother tongue studies 3. Education through mother tongue mediation 4. Bilingual education in a mixed language environment 5. Multilingual education for children from language minorities

1. Immersion education in the official language

This model of education is still the most prevalent when it comes to educating children from language minorities around the world. In this approach, during preschool and early primary education, children do not use their mother tongue at all; instead, they are taught exclusively in the official language of the country. The aim of this type of education is to master the official language as quickly as possible to ensure success in acquiring the necessary knowledge. Such education is implemented in classrooms where the official language of the country is the first language for the majority of students, and it is a second language for no more than 30%. The primary method of instruction involves group work among students with varying levels of language proficiency.

2. Education with optional mother tongue studies

The difference from the previous model lies in creating conditions for children with a different first language than the official language to also study their mother tongue, either as a mandatory or elective subject. The purpose of teaching the mother tongue in such situations is to support the culture of the respective language minority. This education is typically delivered within a few hours per week, allowing children to become familiar with the socio-cultural specificities of their nationality.

In many countries, education in the mother tongue is offered outside of regular school hours, often referred to as "Sunday schools." Currently, there are 370 such Sunday schools

worldwide for Bulgarian children living abroad, where they study the Bulgarian language, history, and geography of Bulgaria.

3. Education through mother tongue mediation

This model of education can primarily be applied in classes where the majority of students share the same ethnic background, different from the official language of the country. In these cases, children learn the official language based on their linguistic knowledge of their mother tongue, meaning that when acquiring the second language, they transfer the knowledge and skills acquired while learning their first language. This way, at the end of their education, these students are equally proficient in both languages, achieving symmetric bilingualism.

In Bulgaria, this model is not implemented because the acquisition of the official language usually takes a long time, between 5 and 7 years.

4. Bilingual education in a mixed language environment

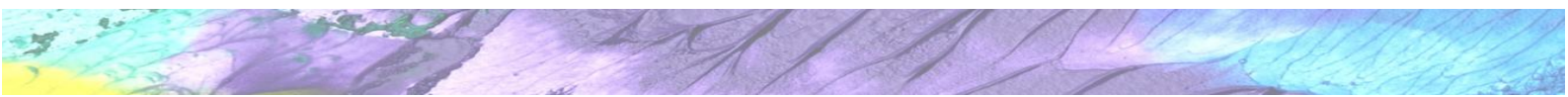
This model is an alternative to the immersion model and the model of education through the mediation of the mother tongue. It is aimed at both students from specific language minorities and students who are native speakers of the dominant language in the country. In bilingual education in a mixed language environment, minority students are educated alongside their peers from the language majority. This type of education is implemented when both languages are considered equally valuable and useful for the children in the school community. The greatest effectiveness is achieved when the ratio between the two groups in the classroom is approximately equal.

In this case, students from the language minority study the country's language as a second language, while students who are native speakers of the official language study the minority language as a foreign one. This way, each of the two languages is learned through the mediation of the other, ensuring a balanced acquisition of knowledge.

When implementing this model, children from the language minority typically receive education in the official language during physical education, music, fine arts, and constructive activities classes. Their education in their mother tongue is focused on academic subjects directly related to building the foundation for students' cognitive development. The goal is for the acquisition of mathematical and scientific knowledge to occur in the language that the child is most proficient in, namely their mother tongue. This way, by the end of primary school, both groups of students in the class are expected to be equally proficient in both languages, not only in speaking but also in writing. This approach achieves a balance in terms of language competencies in both languages.

5. Multilingual education for children from language minorities

This model of education is necessary due to the emerging linguistic diversity in contemporary society and the need to eliminate barriers to intercultural dialogue. In this model, students simultaneously acquire three or more languages. This typically occurs in countries with two official languages. In such countries, children who primarily use one of the two official



languages are given the opportunity not only to learn the other official language but also to gain competencies in a foreign language for the country. Most commonly, this foreign language is English, which gradually establishes itself as the dominant language in global intercultural communication.

In Bulgaria, the education of children with a mother tongue different from Bulgarian is mainly carried out through:

- Optional mother tongue language learning
- Multilingual education.

The Bulgarian state, through the Ministry of Education and Science, actively supports the optional mother tongue language learning for minority communities. This is implemented through special programs for mother tongue education, established by Order No. RD09-5835/07.12.2017 of the Minister of Education and Science.



REPUBLIC OF BULGARIA
Ministry of Education and Science

<https://web.mon.bg/bg/2221>

The educational programs cover instruction in Turkish, Armenian, Romani, and Hebrew in optional or elective classes. The programs encompass education from first to seventh grade, covering the initial and lower secondary stages of basic education.

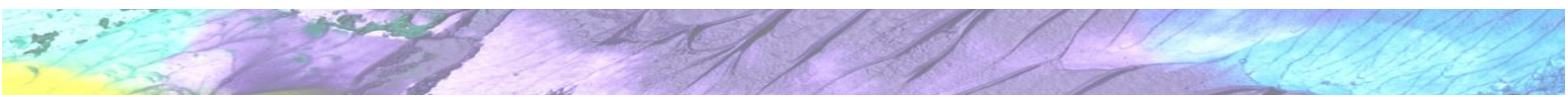
In Bulgaria, multilingual education for children from linguistic minorities is also implemented through mandatory early foreign language instruction, which starts from the second grade. Every Bulgarian student studies a foreign language of their choice, most commonly English. This is why the Bulgarian education system also offers multilingual education for children with a dominant mother tongue. This applies to students of Turkish ethnicity who study the Turkish language as an elective subject. In addition to that, they also study Bulgarian as a second language, as well as English as a foreign language. If this education is successfully implemented, these children could develop into trilingual individuals. However, there is currently no data regarding its effectiveness. Only the results of external assessments in Bulgarian language at the end of the fourth grade are clear, unequivocally indicating low achievements among students of Roma and Turkish ethnicities in Bulgaria. After a thorough analysis of educational programs in Bulgaria and abroad, the conclusion is drawn that each of the five models mentioned above for bilingual education of children from linguistic minorities has been implemented in the Bulgarian school system, but only on an experimental basis."

In recent years, special attention has been given in Bulgaria to the integration of migrants of school age into the Bulgarian educational system. With this in mind, an Educational Program in Bulgarian Language for asylum seekers or migrants has been created. This program is designed to work with students who will be studying the Bulgarian language as a foreign language under the conditions of additional education, as per Article 10, paragraph 3, item 3 of Regulation No. 6 of August 11, 2016, for the acquisition of the Bulgarian literary language.

What is specific to this education is that it runs concurrently with the regular class curriculum according to the parallel class the foreign student is enrolled in. The education through this program has two objectives: firstly, for students entering school for the first time to gain an initial understanding of the communicative possibilities of the Bulgarian language for use in everyday life and to integrate into their new social and cultural environment through language. Secondly, for students continuing their education to adapt to the specific conditions in the Bulgarian school. Therefore, the program is constructed in two parts. The first part focuses on initial familiarity and orientation in the peculiarities of the Bulgarian lexical, phonetic, and grammatical system, primarily on a practical level (CEFR level A1). The second part directs the attention of the learners towards the fundamental theoretical principles of the Bulgarian literary language system and the use of terminology associated with this theory. This involves the development of language competencies in Bulgarian at CEFR level B1 and mastering it as a second (working) language.

The program takes into account the fact that the learners have attended school in their country of origin, where they have acquired a certain level of education corresponding to a specific grade according to the Bulgarian education system. Differences in curriculum and expected outcomes in academic subjects between education in the country of origin and Bulgaria necessitate a focus on acquiring specific terminology related to the subjects of the grade or stage the learners are continuing their education in. This circumstance implies that when applying the second part of the program, an approach should be taken to establish a connection between what has been learned in the foreign school and the corresponding knowledge/competencies according to the curricula in the Bulgarian school. This involves forming, on an empirical level, knowledge and skills for using certain terms related to fundamental concepts in basic sciences studied in all educational systems - linguistics, mathematics, natural sciences.

At the core of the Educational Program is the understanding that the integration of the foreigner into the Bulgarian cultural environment should primarily occur through the mastery of the key carriers of information in the structure of the language in their mutual interdependence and necessity for successful communication - words, sentences, text. The development of communication skills requires a gradual but intensive acquisition of the meaning of an increasing number of words and their successful application in meaningful contexts. The program is designed in such a way that understanding through listening and creating comprehensible language constructions through speaking should be combined with



mastering the graphic system of the literary language as a condition for indirect communication through reading and writing.

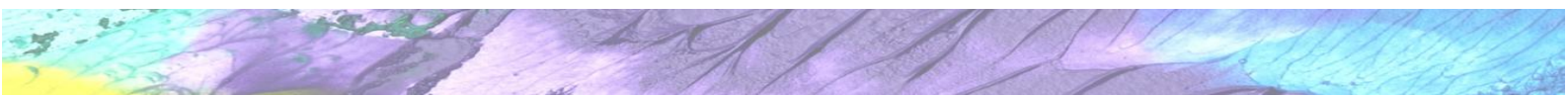
In accordance with Article 13, paragraph 12, and paragraph 13 of Regulation No. 6 of August 11, 2016, for the acquisition of the Bulgarian literary language, the implementation of the Educational Program is carried out to varying extents of instructional time - up to 90 instructional hours for students in the initial stage of basic education, up to 120 instructional hours for students in the pre-gymnasium stage of basic education, and up to 180 instructional hours for students in the first gymnasium stage of secondary education for a maximum duration of 12 months. The first part of the Program is taught within the framework of 90 instructional hours for students in the initial stage and for no more than half of the instructional hours for students in grades 5 to 10, while the second part (acquisition of additional competencies in Bulgarian language, mathematics, natural sciences, and geography) is taught within the framework of no less than half of the instructional hours for students in the pre-gymnasium stage of basic education and for students in the first gymnasium stage of secondary education. The allocation of instructional hours is determined by the Bulgarian language teacher based on the specific needs of the learners.

The diversity of children with a different language than the official language of the country necessitates the search for and discovery of optimal approaches when educating them simultaneously in a multilingual classroom.

1.6. Principles of teaching in bilingual classes

Although the principles of teaching the discussed group of students have been the subject of analysis in various studies, here we adopt the viewpoint of Yeuk (2015, p. 128), according to which the specifics of teaching in a multilingual classroom are as follows:

1. Teaching all subjects is also simultaneous language instruction in the country's language. This means that the new knowledge acquired by students in various areas should be accompanied by the expansion of the language competencies of the learners.
2. School is a place for intercultural education. The multilingualism of the children is part of the education. Therefore, songs, texts, customs of the cultures represented in the classroom should be part of the educational culture. Elements from other language cultures can become an opportunity for linguistic reflection, for example, in grammar classes.
3. The foundation of all lessons is speech acts. This means that language learning is based on daily communicative situations in school. The principle of visualizing knowledge also plays a special role in this.



4. The language errors of students can be used as a means of reflection and achieving the goal. Targeted reflection by the teacher on the basis of a child's mistake can influence the child's further success or lag behind.

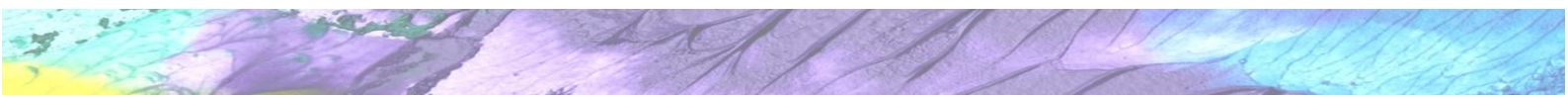
5. Learners should always have the opportunity to seek help and ask questions. This includes the possibility to explain the meaning of an unfamiliar word through translation, paraphrasing, or with the help of a dictionary. Both the teacher and other students who are proficient in the official language of the country participate in this process.

6. The primary example of correct language usage is the teacher. From this perspective, it is very important for the teacher to speak slowly, clearly, and grammatically correctly. Situational speech acts are also important in everyday situations, especially when children are beginning to learn the language.

7. The language should be taught in such a way that students gain knowledge not only of the language itself but also about the language, i.e., to foster what is called "language awareness" in bilingual learners. The understanding of language structure should be systematically organized so that the function of its forms can be applicable in communication (Röss 2003, 2004, Shader 2013).

8. An important condition for acquiring the official language of the country is the application of imitative communication, meaning the participation of students in communicative situations similar to already presented models.

9. Language teaching should be aimed at developing both productive skills (speaking and writing) and receptive skills (listening and reading).



Chapter 2. Bilingualism, identity issues and implications in class

2.1. Particular issues/phenomena in bilingualism

2.1.1. Transfer of data from one language to another

A frequently occurring phenomenon at all stages of second language learning is *interference*, i.e. the use of linguistic elements, structures and types from the mother tongue or even the maintenance of a foreign accent that directly refers to the mother tongue, as well as the avoidance or excessive use of certain types (Bella 2016:27-28). Interference can be detected in written and spoken speech, both at the phonological level and at the morphological/syntactic level, as well as in vocabulary. At the phonological level it can take the form of *foreign pronunciation*, especially in adult bilinguals, or the use of phonetic elements not present in the other language system. At the syntactic level, interpolations occur by incorrectly arranging words within a sentence (usually following the syntactic formulas of the mother tongue), while at the lexical level interpolations are common, taking the form of word-for-word translation or using incorrectly equivalent words that mean absolutely nothing in the other language code (Sellas-Mazi, 2006:55).

2.1.2. Language code switching

The phenomenon, however, with the highest incidence in the case of bilinguals is *code-switching*. The latter can be distinguished according to Blom & Gumperz (1972) into *situational*, when a bilingual person feels the need to respond in this way to a change of circumstance, and *metaphorical*, when the bilingual person wants to put more emphasis on his/her tone or words, to make a joke or to relax the serious tone of a conversation (McKay & Hornberger, 2009:106). Saville-Troike & Milory (1987) have coded the topic/object of conversation, the faces of the interlocutors and the relationship between them in a given communicative situation, as well as space and time as the key factors that decisively influence the occurrence of the code-switching phenomenon. In this case, the bilingual person uses - intentionally or even unconsciously sometimes - certain linguistic elements in order to get closer to his/her interlocutor by adapting to his/her own linguistic community or to distance himself/herself from him/her and the corresponding linguistic and cultural community (Sellas-Mazi, 2006:81). This is the theory of *conversational attunement* by Giles, Bourhis and Taylor, who in their study have analysed that this switching can occur when the individual feels that his/her linguistic and cultural identity is threatened and feels that he/she has to defend it. Precisely to emphasize this distance, he expresses his feelings ranging from rudeness to hostility. The degree of linguistic convergence depends on the interlocutor's linguistic stock (how rich or poor he/she is respectively) and the specific circumstances, which may intensify the need for greater social approval or

communicative functionality. The particular circumstances could be relations of tension (political, socio-economic or cultural) between the two ethnolinguistic groups, so we are called upon to investigate each time whether the interlocutor seeks to identify with the members of the other group or, because of the rupture in relations, he or she neither identifies as an equal member nor seeks to identify.

2.1.3. Special distinctions of the phenomenon of code-switching

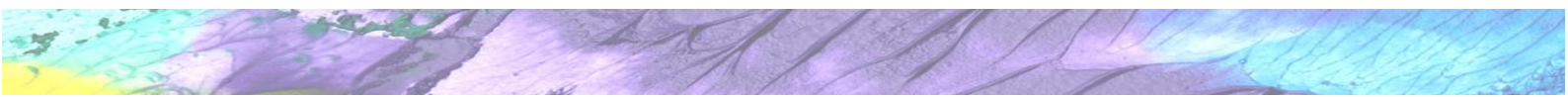
Language code-switching is mainly used in spoken speech, with the juxtaposition of phrases or words from two different language systems or subsystems at the time a conversation is taking place (Gumperz, 1989:59), while in the case where there is a change of language within the same word the term *interlanguage code-switching* is used (Nishimura, 1985). When code-switching is detected within the same sentence it is called *intra- propositional*, while when it is detected between different sentences of the same communication it is called *inter-propositional* (Tsokalidou, 2012:55).

Words, toponyms from the other country, phonologically, semantically similar words in the two languages, as well as words derived from borrowed and/or culturally loaded words reinforce and encourage code- switching in communicative discourse. Although many would think that code-switching would contribute to limiting the use of the weaker language, in fact the exact opposite happens: it preserves and reinforces it.

The phenomenon of code-switching, as well as the other phenomena related to it and constituting specific features of bilingual speech (interpolation, borrowing), are linguistic events, which are used in order to satisfy very specific communicative needs, while at the same time constituting a source of expressive richness and communicative completeness.

2.1.4. Design of a curriculum

It is noteworthy to study the way in which a community or a state institution - in charge of language policy issues - chooses to design a curriculum in direction of teaching a second foreign language. It is crucial that teachers, who have been involved in such a process, provide input in terms of the teaching aspect, interaction with students, and evaluation of the practices they have implemented. This could be a very useful material for the development of curricula that listen to the needs of a 21st century learner and that is probably far from the textbooks and ministerial circulars of the 20th century. The curriculum should be designed in such a way that it takes into account the need to integrate into a particular language community, but also the simultaneous need to integrate into the society of the host country with



the dominant language (Seedhouse, 2006). It should therefore be curricula that take into account the globalized social and political environment, but at the same time show the required respect for the cultural and linguistic specificities of local communities (McKay & Hornberger, 2009:581-583).

In societies open to diversity and new technologies, multicultural and multilingual, the design of education and language policy should go hand in hand. It should incorporate contemporary challenges, embrace even those issues and proposals that cause cracks and challenge normality, and be open and receptive to the new. To the synthesis of a new reality, making rational use of older and tried and tested materials and methods, but with a new, fresh perspective, capable of contributing to the development of people with a complex identity, just as the world around us is complex.

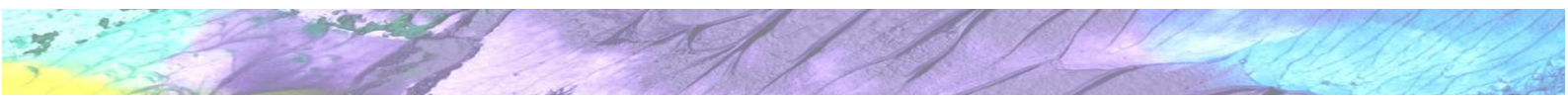
The school educational process is charged with the difficult task of combating the linguistic uncertainty and insecurity caused to a bilingual child by exposure to constant language mixing. In order to prevent marginalisation and social exclusion, emphasis is placed on learning the dominant language as adequately as possible. As a result, the danger, which often arises, is the retreat of language of the parents, its overshadowing by the language that will help the child to fully integrate into the social fabric, especially in cases where we refer to economically and socially underprivileged populations (Skourtou, 1997:145; Sella-Mazi, 2006:36-37 and 97).

The fact that the vast majority of modern states have opted for the establishment of a single language, which often stands as a symbol and a pole of national unification, does not automatically imply that the possibility of training and developing a multilingual education is negated (Sella-Mazi, 2006:118). A crucial element emerges the recognition of a relationship of parity between languages in order to lead to even better educational outcomes.

2.2. Learning a second foreign language

2.2.1. Theoretical approaches

The Counterfactual Analysis, which was chronologically formed first in the 1950s and 1960s, was based on the theory of behaviourism from the field of psychology. Both the linguistic and any form of educational process has as its primary source the human's ability to imitate, responding to a stimulus (Bella, 2016:55). The more often this pattern is repeated, it develops into a habit and the more correct the response, the more the individual receives approval for this behaviour. The aim of the teacher becomes the correction of the learner's mistakes (use of linguistic elements from his/her mother tongue) and the presentation of the correct linguistic forms and



structures, which the learner should follow during the educational process (Bella, 2016:56-58).

This early theoretical approach was strongly challenged by Chomsky, a challenge which led to the formation of the *Diaglossia*. The linguistic environment is no longer sufficient as a sufficient condition for learning a second language.

Every child is equipped with a kind of "internal grammar", an element that allows him to master a second language. This theory, developed by Corder (1967) on the basis of Chomsky and Selinker's original idea, seems to prioritise an internal mechanism over the external environment (Bella, 2016:58-59).

The further development of *Diaglossia* led to the development of the theory of *Creative Construction* in the 1970s, by H. Dulay and M. Burt. Taking Chomsky's thesis that "*language is inherent in humans and develops in their brains*" (Bella, 2016:72) as a starting point, the more modern theoretical approach attempts to and continuous testing are an inalienable and valuable part of language acquisition in an effort to produce creative speech. Students are asked to learn precisely through their mistakes, not by constantly trying to avoid them. In other words, it is a process that tries to focus on the learner and adapt the teaching methodology to him/her, and not the other way round, as was the case until then (i.e. trying to make the learner respond to the teaching methodology). This translates as an attempt for curricula to move away from sterile learning of grammatical and syntactic formulas and focus on the psycho-emotional development stages of students and more interactive/interactive/communicative practices. Language ceases to be treated as grammatical and syntactic types and linguistic elements focus on the substance: the fact that they are *carriers of meaning*. They convey information of substance, which is meaningful to the learner in his/her attempt to devise a message (Bella, 2016:205- 207).

Moving from the usual methodological proposals to a fundamentally communicative approach, the crucial goal is the utilization of grammar and syntax in such a way that we are led to the most complete communicative result (Mitsis, 1996:154).

2.2.2. Modern approaches

Any theoretical construction is not carved in stone. This means that we cannot expect immediate, ready-made solutions for such a complex process as the educational process, with so many parameters, which teachers are called upon to carry out in classrooms and curriculum developers to take into account. The problems that can arise, the particular aspects of a subject evade - and will always evade - a theoretical approach, precisely because life itself, people, and the socio-economic and cultural environment are a wealth of complexities and exceptions to even the most well-

formulated scientific and theoretical canon. The aim is to formulate, each time, the most appropriate methodological tools, capable of responding to the challenges of each era and each society, to help students to master a second foreign language.

By teaching a second foreign language as if it were an end in itself, we depart from its basic mission, which is oral and written communication between people. The 'biblical' method, which defines students as being competent when they are able to understand, memorise and recall whenever necessary the contents of a textbook, cannot be considered a satisfactory goal for learning a foreign language. Language learning is a tool. It is a means to achieve other objectives and not an end in itself, as geography, for example, could be considered, even if we are talking about applied sciences, such as mathematics or physics, which have a self-sufficiency and autonomy.

Language - any language - contains an immeasurable amount of information, knowledge and human experience. Many contemporary scholars propose learning a second foreign language as a tool for the learner to communicate his/her thoughts and the information he/she wants to share, rather than treating it as an additional lesson among the others in the curriculum (McCaul, 2016).

It is not enough to transmit as information to a child the grammatical and grammatical rules, the structure and pronunciation of a language in order to automatically equip him/her with the ability to understand and use it in the natural conditions in which its speakers use it as a first language (Azez, 1999:96). Language is something alive and constantly evolving. You cannot therefore teach a foreign language by cutting it off from everything that constitutes the everyday life of a modern person. Television, newspapers, magazines, computers and all kinds of technological media, advertising, music, cinema, literature. This is the most attractive way for a child to feel the need and desire to be exposed to this language and to learn it to a sufficient degree to be able to communicate using it.

The second language - like the first - is intended for human interpersonal relations. In the knowledge and information exchanged, the whole emotional world of the child is involved. It is therefore crucial for the child to reach a language level where he or she can communicate not only knowledge and thoughts, but also emotions. Only in this way does the second language become an integral part of the child's personality and identity, becoming part of the child himself. It is therefore obvious that the need to introduce the factor of cultural and social context, which means that a curriculum is called upon to select cultural elements that are close to the cultural environments of the bilingual learner in order for him/her to accept them (Skourtou, 1997:58).



2.3. Diversity and school literacy

In school, however, literacy is the main educational objective of education. There are two categories of pupils: those who come from communities where they have an exclusively oral tradition and those where literacy is also central to their mother tongues. In the first case, the school acts as a rival to the mother tongue, and in the second as an extension of the mother tongue (Cummins, Brown, Sayers 2007).

Take for example a bilingual Roma student in a Bulgarian school, who is bilingual, but only in the oral form of the language, as Romani is not written, unlike Bulgarian. The linguistic dimorphism of these children is clearly a new situation, since they are 'forced' to learn Bulgarian in its written form, the equivalent of which they do not know from their first language.

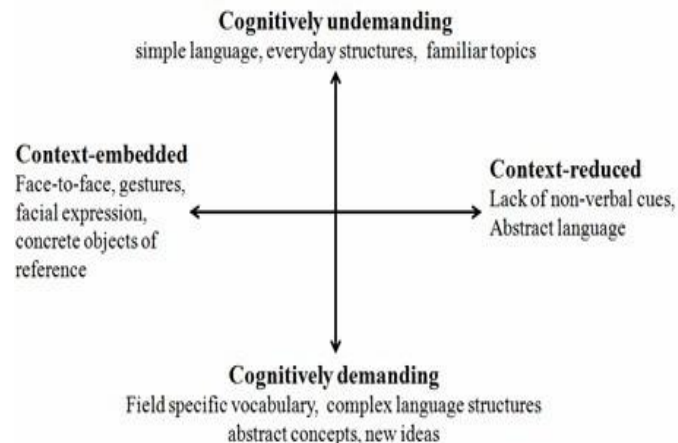
On the other side, where the languages spoken by the bilingual user are also bilingual, the ideal is for one language to function complementarily with the second language, at the level of spoken and written, standard and everyday language, bilingualism and biliteracy. In this case we have a continuous, simultaneous development of bilingualism and biliteracy and in the transition from one language to another, from old to new knowledge (Hornberger, 2009). The second language acts as an amplifier of the first and, accordingly, the first is connected and bridged to the second (Wolfram, 2001).

2.3.1. How bilingualism is perceived by teachers

Teachers, depending on their personal perception of bilingualism, can perceive it in the school context either as a 'problem', a 'right' or a 'source of enrichment'. The learning difficulties experienced by bilingual students in school should not only be attributed to linguistic factors, but also to misconceptions about language on the part of teachers, which clearly contribute to the increased difficulty of these students.

The minority of teachers consider the other languages as a problem to be eliminated or cured. When a mother tongue, usually a migrant language nowadays, is introduced uninvited into the school system, or any other place, it can be seen as a problem for the successful integration of its speakers. Esser (2006) and Hopf (2007) argue that having a strong mother tongue does not necessarily have a positive influence on the learning of the mother tongue (German in their case).

The majority of teachers consider that the choice and use of language in the private, and not only, space of the individual is an integral right. This is seemingly a very democratic position, but it actually "exonerates" the teacher who is indifferent to other languages and chooses to conduct his/her lessons in the dominant language. He essentially implements a fixed language policy in his classroom, relieved of responsibilities of teaching bilingualism, because the teacher believes that he has no possibility to intervene consciously and that children do not have the personal "right" to choose language use (Skourtou, 2008).



The notion that other languages constitute a unique linguistic, social and educational treasure that teachers should try to unearth by investing in their bilingual students is not widespread enough (Skourtou, 2011). However, according to the third view, the different language is a huge source of enrichment that concerns the whole society, always depending on the particular field of action, and implies a conscious management of bilingualism inside and outside the classroom in order to obtain the expected, and sometimes not so much, benefits. (Gaidartzi & Tsokalidou, 2008; Kamaroudis, 2010).

2.3.2. Language support from the physical and school environment

The first and main distinction that needs to be made about a language when it is learned is whether it is contextualized or decontextualized as a basis for understanding the nature of children's literacy. Essentially, the difference between the first and second level is whether the meaning that is conveyed is accompanied and assisted by "interpersonal or contextual clues (such as gestures, facial expressions, intonation, etc.) or depends on linguistic markers that are, to a large extent, independent of the direct communicative context" (Cummins & Swain, 1986).

Indeed, as Cummings (2003) points out, the power relations that develop between the dominant population and any cultural or linguistic minority are very much responsible for the biases of success and failure of bilingual students in school. When the above phenomenon becomes evident, the teacher has to make a choice: either accept the present situation and willfully or not reproduce the existing power relations exercised by the dominant society or challenge them (Cummins & Swain, 1986).

In the first case, he will be accused of being unresponsive to the various communities, without having offered anything beyond the curriculum to his students. If he chooses the second, he is just as likely to be blamed for his choice, but it is more likely that his students will learn something from him. Bilinguals, culturally different, the 'others' in relation to the mainstream population, pass through schools, often without adding knowledge, as 'monolingual teachers helplessly watch their progress' (Kourtti-Kazouli, 2000).

2.3.3. Language movement - preservation - spread.

Linguistic drift is the downward movement of a mother tongue and the strengthening of the dominant language. The majority language and the mother tongue, as mentioned above, very often come into contact and several times into conflict with each other. The relations between the two languages depend on economic, social, cultural, linguistic and political factors and often on the interests of the groups (Cummins & Swain, 1986).

Language spread refers to the growth of language to users, but also in our time to social or electronic networks and their corresponding uses (Cooper 1989). Language maintenance is the stability of language in terms of its use and its preservation by children and adults who know it in particular places (home, school, places of worship) with relative stability of language in terms of the number and distribution of its users (Baker, 2001).

Language shift is defined as a change in the dominant language of use by an individual. This can be done either of the user's own volition, due to migration, or to secure a job, a higher salary, or against his/her will, by means of coercion such as captivity. Fortunately, the latter part tends to diminish nowadays. The development of both communication and information technology has a great impact on the users of these media, as they constantly expose him to dominant languages such as English and Spanish (Baker, 2001).

Language

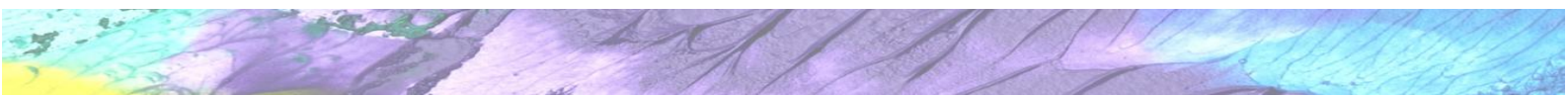
Interlanguage refers to linguistic structures where the first language is a reference point to find and explain the causes of language errors during foreign language learning (Varlokosta & Triandafyllidou, 2003; Bella, 2007; Tsiplakou, 2010). It is essentially a bridge between the two languages, an intermediate linguistic construct of the speaker from the native language to the target language (Anastasiadis-Simeonidis et al., 2008). The most interesting part of the interlanguage is that it functions as continuous feedback from one language to the other (interlanguage continuum) (Hornberger, 2007).

2.3.4. Code Switch

Code-switching is the combined use of two or more languages or forms of the same language in the same communicative act (communicative issue). According to Chocalidou (2000), it can be done inter-propositional, intra-propositional or intra-lexical in oral as well as written speech. In practice this means that elements belonging to different languages may coexist in different or in the same sentence or even in the same word, producing for the unfamiliar listener or reader a "wrong" or "strange" result. (Tsiplakou, 2009).

Code Switching with Bilingualism

Bilingual speakers selectively make linguistic combinations in flowing speech regardless of factors such as language use, context and communicative situation. The basic premise of code-switching is that the place of use allows it (Skourtou, 2011).



The bilingual speaker may need, in order to fully express his/her meaning or explain something, to use a combination of languages, as long as the bilingual speaker always has a good knowledge of both (Gotovo, 2005). This alternation does not show us a *lexiphenia*, but on the contrary it shows us a linguistic surplus, as it presupposes the knowledge of at least two languages.

Dorfmler-Karpuz (1993) argues that insecurity about the bilingual speaker's sense of identity motivates him to use two codes as a defence against using only his first language in the public sphere. As mentioned above, the regulator of code-switching is the boundaries set by the space of use.

The rules for the choice of one or two languages or forms of language, its level and the "license to use" code switching depends on the "place of use". The particular space (school, court, stadium, cafeteria, festival) in which bilingual people are located allows, delimits, strictly or not, tolerates or prohibits, depending on its nature, code-switching (Skourtu, 2011). There are spaces (service meeting) that strictly impose the use of only one language, but there are also spaces with less strict specifications for the choice of languages and their forms (friendly company).

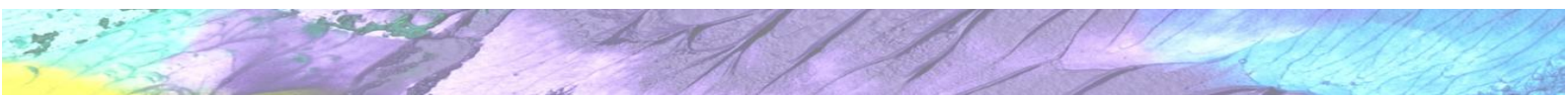
2.4. Learning paths of bilingual students, issues of identity

2.4.1. Communication and self-awareness

The facilitation of communication and the use and expansion of students' conceptual background are important factors that lead to learning, which is why we have particularly emphasised the value of the first language. With this, we wanted to point out that the practice of cutting off the learner's first language from the learning processes not only does not promote learning, but is detrimental to the learner's overall linguistic and cognitive progress.

The discourse about the recognition and positive meaning of the elements that make up the identity of the migrant student or the discourse about the "negotiation of the student's identity" contains, by its very formulation, a difficulty that needs to be taken into account. This lies in the fact that the term 'identity' of the migrant learner sounds so vague in itself that it is difficult to accurately describe its content for two main reasons. The first reason has to do with the fact that subjects today are not characterized by a single identity, but by the synthesis of many (Heller, 2003) and often contradictory identities. The second reason is that it is not easy to attribute to give the concept of "identity" a scope commensurate with its meaning and to define what it does and does not include. Consequently, any attempt to attribute a precise content to the concept of 'identity' would risk falling into the trap of seeing subjects' identities as closed, immutable and limiting (Laplantine, 1999).

However, it is very difficult to conceive or describe a society in which subjects can exist either as individuals or as groups, without identifying their status with certain categories. It is



very difficult to conceive or describe a society in which subjects at some stage of their lives do not ask themselves "who I am", "who you are", "who we are", "who you are" etc. Similarly, it is very difficult to conceive of a school in which pupils from linguistically and culturally diverse groups at some stage of their lives do not reflect on the above questions.

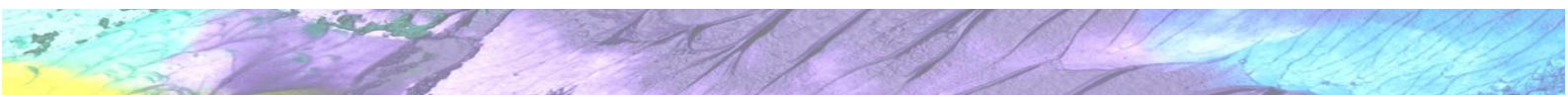
In any case, these questions are linked to human experience and mark the social, cultural and political space of every encounter, exchange or coexistence. They touch on issues of the subjects' personalities, questions of anthropological values and sociological categories (e.g. social class), due to the fact that as constructions, identities are constructed at the ethnic, social level, in relation to one's self-image, personality and social prestige (André, 2003). Given these issues, we maintain the use of the term "identity" also in the pedagogical discourse on migrant students, because the issues related to their "identity" (ethnic, religious, cultural, etc.) are so complex and complicated that only a general term covers us, precisely because it encompasses many different situations.

According to Doron and Parot's (2003) dictionary of psychological terms, identities are conscious constructions of cognitive, developmental and emotional representations of the self (soi) and the self in its environment. The concept of 'identity' refers to the perception individuals have of themselves and the place of the self among other individuals with whom they form social groups.

Again, according to Camilieri and Cohen Emerique (1989), the sense of identity performs three functions in subjects: one related to stability, one related to change and a third "functional" one. The first, which can be described as the 'ontological function of identity' (fonction ontologique), provides subjects with a sense of continuity (that which remains the same and which constitutes the subjects' reference point). The second concerns the way in which change is incorporated so that subjects adapt to ever-changing social contexts. This is a very important function, on the one hand, because in the whole process of acculturation, subjects are called upon to co-exist cultural codes and values that are in conflict with each other, and on the other hand, because it allows subjects, instead of choosing "either one or the other", to be able to choose "both one and the other", to be able to relate "one to the other" and to establish relations of "relevance" and "coherence" between them (Camilieri and Cohen Emerique, 1989). The third category (the functional) (instrumental) is the one that allows subjects to consciously choose the identity they wish to bring to the surface each time in their social interactions. It is the function that makes subjects display or conceal one or more aspects of themselves, depending on social circumstances.

2.4.2. Migrant student - identity negotiation

To a large extent, the positive or non-positive meaning of students' identity has to do with their self-image, their self-definition and, in general, the perception they have of themselves. Their attitude towards themselves as an object or the way they evaluate themselves refers to self-esteem. Self-esteem and recognition are fundamental human needs



because identity is experienced as a positive construct when it is recognized both at the interpersonal and the broader social level (Taylor, 1997). A strong motivation for people is to maintain this self-esteem and this applies to both individual and social identity, it activates much of social behavior and is expressed in the tendency to positively evaluate one's membership in a group (Dracona, 2001: 35).

When the migrant student, in the process of self-identification, wants to preserve those elements that constituted his/her identity before the change of school and language environment, then we are dealing with a student who positively evaluates the cultural load he/she carries and recognizes its value. When the student in the process of self-definition in the new environment does not want to retain those elements that make up his cultural identity, then we are dealing with a student who does not recognize the importance of the cultural elements he carries. This student wants to become something other than what he or she is and is at odds with an identity that he or she wants to eliminate (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988: 19). Finally, in a third case, we have students who try to create "coherence" (cohérence) between the two identities (Baugnet, 1998) and compose a new identity by (a) retaining elements of what they bring by coming to the new school and (b) taking elements from the new environment. The creation of coherence is very important for students who do not want to discard elements of both identities. In any case, however, in these three cases of self-identification we are dealing with a conscious process, determined by the student's personal motivation.

Very close to this third case, i.e. the retention of elements from both identities, is what Bhabha defines as 'hybrid identity' (Bhabha, 1994: 114). Only that 'hybrid identity' is formed through less conscious processes than the creation of relations of affinity. For Bhabha, hybridity refers to a process in which subjects attempt to interpret the identities of subjects from other groups. But as subjects try to interpret the identities of others on the basis of specific categories of reality perception, i.e. on the basis of their own frames of reality perception, they fail. From this process something new is produced, which has the effect of challenging and questioning absolute (essentialist) cultural identities. Hybridity is the antidote for Bhabha to anything that is absolute (essentialist) as a value.

In any case, of course, whichever of the three aforementioned cases applies, whatever the extent of the elements that the migrant learner wishes to take on or eliminate, the identification with a social group or category, the self-identification, the negotiation and the meaning-making of identity for the learner, who changes language environment, begins on the basis of his/her already existing and formed identity. This thesis occupies a central position in the development of our argument about the negotiation of migrant students' identities in the context of the local school and about investing in them in order to create conditions for optimizing their learning outcomes. As we have already mentioned, the dialectical nature of cultural, linguistic and cognitive capital implies that at least at an initial stage, even if the student does not realize their value, he or she uses them, because they are the only means available to him or her to understand the world around him or her and to communicate.

Whether he or she realizes it or not, coming to a new language and school environment,



the migrant learner brings a range of experiences. He has already formed an image of himself and has placed himself in certain categories (Tajfel and Israel, 1972). In other words, he negotiates his identity (individual and social, role, position and value in the new group, etc.) in the new environment, initially based on what he carries; based, that is, on his skills, knowledge, habits, but also on his attitude and the evaluations he makes towards all of these.

2.5. Identity and everyday school practice

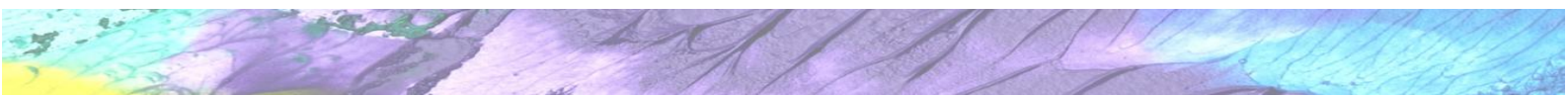
2.5.1. Identity determination

This process of identity determination is, according to Taylor (1997: 81), a process of dialogue and sometimes confrontation with all that some 'meaningful' persons wish to see in us. The dialogical character of human life is reflected in a dialogical version of identity formation. In a sense, however (Minick, 1996: 33), as a higher psychological activity in which the learner's experience so far is organized and internalized, negotiation about identity constitutes an important tool of social behavior in contact with signifiers. For the migrant student involved in this dialogical process, significant persons in the school are both teachers and classmates.

On the basis of this logic of the dialogical construction of identity in contact with the teacher and classmates (Taylor, 1997: 81), we can hypothesize that, in general, each phase of identity negotiation goes through certain stages. These stages, under ideal circumstances, are as follows: "the disclosure" of elements that make up the learner's identity, the "recognition" of these elements by the other individuals involved in the interaction, the "familiarization" of the group with the new elements and, finally, the "acceptance" (internalization) (or not) of the new elements by the other individuals involved in the negotiation.

To understand this process better, let's take the example of a student who uses facial expressions or gestures when communicating. The negotiation of such a form of behaviour can be instrumental in communication and, by extension, in negotiating a positive image of the migrant learner in the new environment. A student who uses gestures or facial expressions in communication is either, in the simplest case, trying to find channels and avenues of communication with the rest of the class or may come from a group where this form of behaviour is common in the everyday life of its members. But however strange or excessive this behaviour may seem in the eyes of native students, for the migrant student it is perfectly normal and, in any case, facilitates communication and negotiation around language, identity or cognitive capital.

In this negotiation process, in a first stage, the student externalises this trait in front of the whole class, which in turn recognises it as a characteristic of that particular student. Subsequently, this paradoxical way of communicating can take the form of a game, e.g. mime, and be adopted by the whole class both in communication with the foreign student and between native students.



2.5.2 Identity elements

- "Disclosure."

"Publicity" is a process of projecting what the migrant student brings as cultural, social, etc. capital. It is a disclosure to the "common" elements that make up its identity. It is a "sharing", a "communing". In the example cited, the disclosure occurs rather spontaneously, effortlessly, and with the immigrant student's impression that his or her behavior is normal in the eyes of his or her interlocutors.

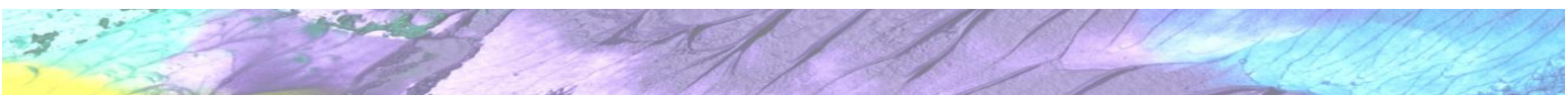
- "Recognition"

Immediately after the disclosure of the trait, there follows a classroom identification stage. Stimuli are taken up by the signifiers of the interaction and processed. This is followed by identification or not of the new element of external reality with elements already known and awareness and acceptance of the existence and authenticity of the new element or situation. The refusal to acknowledge the existence of students' particular traits runs the risk of leading them to devalue their efforts to formulate (a) new orientations based on the meaning-making of their cultural capital and (b) their participation in the classroom events (Govaris, 2001). It also involves risk leading them to isolation and entrapment in a deprived way of being (Taylor, 1997: 72).

For Habermas (1998: 229), the identity of a group goes beyond identification with certain values to include its potential for social participation. Whereas, for Taylor (1997: 92), identification goes beyond accepting the equal value of subjects' potential to include the equal value of the ways in which their 'potential' can be realised. Therefore, what becomes particularly valuable for migrant students is that the host group creates those conditions that allow migrant groups to participate in the school's life and to positively recognize themselves in the new environment. In the context of communicative action and intersubjective interaction, democratic participation and recognition play a crucial role in the positive identification of subjects (Habermas, 1996: 196). Only that in multicultural societies a number of views are not heard and not recognized at all.

For Goffman (1959) and for Honneth (in Govaris, 2001: 193), recognition is the deepest motivation of all communication. Communication is based on the participants' expectations of mutual recognition. Self-awareness depends on the experience of social recognition. When social expectations are not fulfilled, "trauma" to the individual's psyche occurs. Consequently, recognition is an essential element in the formation of a positive self-concept for the individual (Govaris, 2001: 193).

Taking into account, therefore, that the identity of the subjects is constituted in the context of "intersubjective communication and recognition", the educational dimension of cultural and communicative inclusion is defined as the fair distribution of opportunities for the



presentation of the arguments of all students in the circle of interlocutors (Govaris, 2001: 173).

- "Transmission"

Perhaps the most central role in identity negotiation is the extent to which the subjects can become familiar with elements that constitute the identity of individuals from different groups and whether genuine and authentic communication can take place on the basis of these characteristics. It is important that in communication, in addition to the exchange of linguistic messages, learners are involved in a process of constant negotiation of their identity, since this process gives special meaning to their own lives (Kotzias, 1996: 27).

Messaging cannot be based on speech processing alone. Moreover, communication does not rely only on this kind of decoding (Minick, 2005: 45). Written and spoken language are means of communication, but not communication. Communication exists when discourse becomes a vehicle for a number of deeper psychological and other processes, directly related to the personality and identity of the individual and the encounter of individuals in society (Minick, 2005: 46). In the case of contact between individuals from different groups, communication in fact exists when this discourse contributes to the deeper touch of the participants, when there is a parallel negotiation of identities and familiarity with elements that constitute the identities of interlocutors of different groups.

2.5.3 Identity negotiation

In this light, the negotiation of identities is a process, a consequence of the interaction of the participants in communication. It is based on the disclosure and recognition of the cultural load of the learner, but it goes even further. It is a complex and multidimensional process, which is not limited to a presentation of aspects of the self or an attempt to boost one's self-esteem in the eyes of others, depending on the circumstances. It is not even limited to the simple positioning of subjects on a series of issues that concern or problematise them. Negotiation in the context of the subjects' daily contact includes all of the above, but not only these. This is true because the bilingual learner, who will participate or engage in such a negotiation process, must be able to transmit what he or she carries as a cultural load, as a personality, as an identity, to get it out of him or her, so that it can be adopted by those around him or her as a characteristic of that learner.

A simple example: we often ask students to write a paragraph or an essay about a national holiday. The migrant student, who knows little about this celebration (often nothing), has much less to write about than other students, but also identifies himself or herself little (perhaps not at all) with this celebration. Although the balances are sometimes delicate and care and tact is needed in dealing with such situations, there is always the possibility, if he wants to, to describe a similar celebration in his own country. If he gets involved in this process, motivated by a sense of affirmation of his cultural burden, of his identity, he will want to make a greater effort. Thus, he will also engage in more cognitive and linguistic processes and negotiate his identity.

This negotiation also allows for the disclosure of the bilingual student's identity to the teacher and classmates and for the latter to identify and familiarise themselves with it. Writing, moreover, about this identity is an interactive rather than a one-way process. It is a dialogical production where otherness and individuality meet. The role of the teacher in this process is to encourage the student to make public and negotiate his or her identity. If this is done, the student will engage in another process, that of positioning himself critically towards his identity and towards the elements that constitute the identity of the host group (Wells, 1999, 2002).

But when teachers follow exclusively ministry-determined programmes or when they apply in the classroom teaching practices and methods with exactly the same assessment criteria for all students, then the results of the learning process will be uncertain for those students who, de facto, cannot possibly identify with or respond to these practices. But when they engage in a process of personal exploration and transformation (Shor and Freire, 1987; Wells, 1999, 2002), when they seek to learn and understand their students, when they invest in their strengths and talents, when they include in the lesson the expectations and experiences of students and their families, then undesirable situations such as prejudices, fears and insecurities are certainly removed from the school.

Through the interactive process of interaction in the classroom, the student defines himself in the new environment based on the identity he carries. Self-definition on the basis of an active participation and a critical approach does not come without problems. This persistent work requires a focus of attention in all areas of school life and may be accompanied by conflicts. But conflicts and problems are necessary and necessary, according to Shor and Freire (1987), in order to bring about changes in school reality.

The negotiation of the identities of migrant students, apart from the benefits it has for them, is also important for the rest of their classmates, since it contributes in the long run to their acquaintance and familiarization with the "foreigner" (Govaris, 2002b), to their acquaintance and familiarization with the multicultural social reality and to their shielding against xenophobic perceptions (Kanakidou and Papagianni, 1998: 29). Students are not asked to accept and adopt norms that they do not appropriate through their own active participation. Instead, through active interaction with difference, they cultivate long-term critical attitudes towards events and norms imposed by the tendencies to reproduce and maintain social reality.

In these processes of active interaction with difference, Baynham (2000: 80) calls those individuals who make their own relevant skills available to others, on a formal or informal basis, in order to fulfil specific literacy goals 'literacy mediators'. In the case of negotiating identities in school, bilingual migrant students can themselves become negotiating mediators to the extent that they can and do make their own skills and particularities available to others on a formal or informal basis in school life, and to the extent that their actions are surrounded by particular values and ideologies and that they are harnessed towards achieving communicative goals (Baynham, 2000: 324). And when their actions are consciously accompanied by intention

on their part, then, according to Kendon (1997), this is due to factors related to the context surrounding the learner. But what is important is that, when students negotiate their chapter, they themselves can become mediators of communication and negotiation.

As far as language communication is concerned, it is important, as mentioned (Krashen, 1981, 1995), that the learner understands the speech and makes meaning. But meaningful communication exists when through this speech we have more than mere transmission of information. We have substantial communication, mutual understanding and contact between subjects in intercultural encounters when in everyday linguistic interaction we also have the negotiation of identities (Minick, 200:46). In this spirit, for us, language contributes even more decisively to the substantial communication of subjects, insofar as it contributes to the negotiation of their identities and insofar as it makes the bearer "capital" (cultural, cognitive...) of each learner available and identifiable to others.

According to this perspective, language goes beyond the role of a simple means of exchanging information and understanding and becomes a tool for shaping higher psychological processes that take place in the learner (Vygotsky, 1997). The bilingual learner is liberated and participates in the school act based on the capital he/she brings by coming to the new school. As time passes and the student learns the language of the host country, the importance of negotiating identity remains significant, only that, at the same time, the importance of the target language as a means of negotiating identities increases.

Based on Vygotsky's (1986, 1997) social historical theoretical approach, we understand the negotiation of identity as something as important as the role of 'action' in achieving the 'goal'. The learner's speech and actions are part of a single complex psychological function and are directed towards solving the problem at hand (Vygotsky, 1997: 54). The importance of words and actions increases with the complexity of the actions required and with the difficulty of solving the problem.

Since the interaction in the classroom involves not only the migrant student, but also the teacher and classmates, the negotiation of identities is two-way. Therefore, both the teacher and the class become mediators of the negotiation and communication. What matters to us is that all participants in communication, regardless of their level of language proficiency, transmit and receive messages and make their relevant capital available to others, so that, ultimately, they fulfil specific communication and literacy goals.

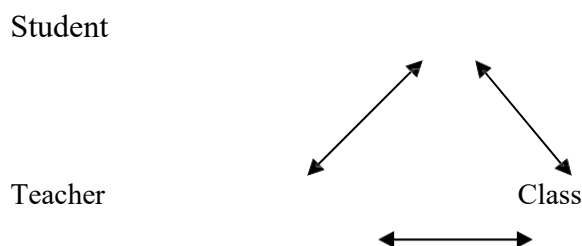


Figure. Interactions between participants in classroom communication.

Through interaction in the new environment, negotiation and feedback occurs, leading to new communicative experiences for each student. After negotiation it is important that the learner comes out strengthened and not broken. Then the student gains positive self-esteem and continues to strive (Taylor, 1997).

- "Acceptance" of the new element and cultural integration

The notion of acceptance of the new element in the process we are describing is not only related to a notion of tolerance of difference, since the process we are describing already contains the element of recognition and acceptance of the otherness of the other. In this sense, the acceptance of the new element in the context of the encounter of students with linguistic and cultural specificities completely eludes what Baumann (in: Govaris, 2001: 216) understands as a kind of tolerance of difference, which constitutes a covert strategy of reaffirming the subordinate importance of the other.

For us, the process of acceptance refers to a process which, in purely psychological terms, involves the following:

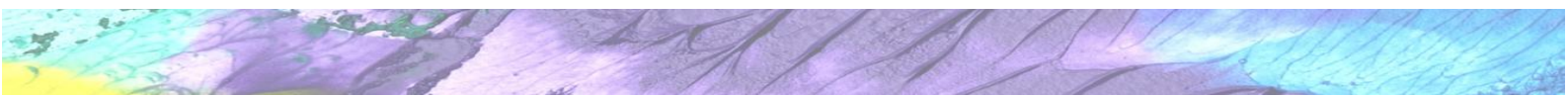
- (a) A function that initially represents an external activity is reconstructed and begins to occur correspondingly internally in the subjects.
- (b) An interpersonal process is transformed into an intrapersonal process. Every function that concerns the child's cultural development occurs twice, once at the social level and once at the individual level.
- (c) The transformation of an interpersonal to an intrapersonal process is the product of a long series of developmental events (Vygotsky, 1997: 104).

Speaking always in psychological terms, one question that arises around the processes of "acceptance-internalization" is whether Vygotsky's "cultural tools" (in the example of the imitating student, the "tools" are gestures, etc.) or the subjects themselves. For Daniels (1996: 20), the answer is that in fact 'tools' and subjects are interconnected, since on the one hand 'cultural tools' cannot be understood outside human action and outside specific contexts, and on the other hand subjects cannot act without the mediation of cultural tools.

In any case, however, in the process of the subjects' interaction with the cultural tools, there is an "acceptance - internalization" of the new element that the migrant student brings, with the ultimate aim of its positive meaning, as it can be developed through the integration into a particular social group, as well as in the process of recognition of this identity and the ties that derive from it in the context of "public dialogues" (Govaris, 2001: 172).

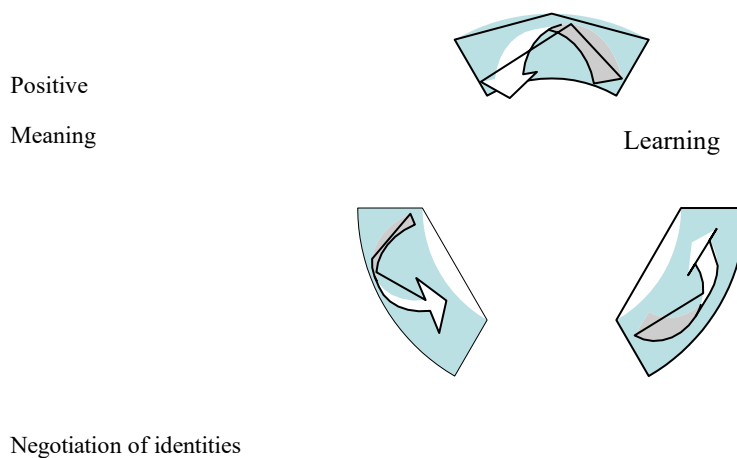
2.5.4. Identity signification and learning

Based on what was mentioned above about the emotional state of the migrant student and the school practices of acceptance and recognition of different forms of perception of reality, we can make the observation that the dominance of one style or one model of knowledge



in school leads to the marginalization and exclusion of students who are carriers of different cultural capital. For this reason, it becomes particularly meaningful that the aim of the school is not to establish a single model of knowledge and create a uniform and homogeneous public space, but to create and promote diverse categories of discourse.

The participation of all students in the communicative process of the school is of particular value to the extent that the positive or negative negotiation of their identity can have a positive or negative impact on learning, which in turn influences the development of cognitive level, leads to positive self-esteem and a willingness to negotiate identity positively. This has been particularly evident in the past in the case of students of Finnish origin residing in Sweden and Australia. In Sweden, where students were stigmatised and labelled by the host group as low-level immigrants, students had low learning outcomes. In contrast, in Australia, where they were identified by the host group as high level migrants, they had much better learning outcomes (Romaine 1989: 216). For this reason, the positive promotion and appreciation of various categories of discourse is of particular value in the context of the local school. The formation of a democratic school has as a prerequisite the early recognition of different identities and the provision of opportunities for their emergence and glorification through the participation of all students in the communicative process of the school (Govaris 2001: 197).



Negotiating identities ↔

Figure. The above figure shows us how practices of positive meaning-making of students' identities in school can lead to optimization of learning performance, which in turn works positively in stimulating self-esteem and further positive meaning-making of cultural capital.

Chapter 3. Situation of language courses in Austria

Austrian language institutes organize several German courses that have been commissioned by different institutions and are part of various projects. The clear majority of these are financed either by the Public Employment Service Austria (AMS) or the Austrian Integration Fund (ÖIF).

Unemployed people take part in AMS courses. They are sent to a German course by the AMS so that they have better chances on the labour market by learning the majority language better. As a result, these courses are very heterogeneous in terms of language. Languages from various EU countries are represented in these courses, as well as minority languages and third-country languages such as Arabic or Dari/Farsi. There are AMS courses for people who have completed compulsory schooling or less and courses for people with a school-leaving certificate or university degree.

In contrast, only refugees and immigrants take part in ÖIF courses. As a result, these courses are less heterogeneous. Significantly fewer languages are represented here, such as Arabic, Pashto, Dari/Farsi, Ukrainian or Somali. However, it is not uncommon for the majority of participants in a course to be Arabic speakers, or in some cases even all participants.

3.1. Factors that influence the learning of the second language

Trauma

Most refugees come from war zones and/or have been persecuted in their countries of origin. Many have also experienced a number of things with a high potential for traumatising on the way from their home country to Austria (e.g. sexual violence, abuse, hunger, torture, etc.). As a result, many of the participants in German courses are also traumatised by what they experienced in their countries of origin or on their way to Austria (Spratler 2019:6).

Even if these people escape war and persecution, they still experience isolation, poverty, health problems and discrimination in their new country and are under pressure to learn a new language and find work. All these experiences can have a negative impact on the mental health of the participants. Many studies have shown that refugees are significantly more likely to suffer from depression, anxiety disorders and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) compared to the rest of the population. However, the mental health of students plays a very important role in successfully learning a second language (Ilyas 2019:62f.) Persons who are affected by trauma are often unable to concentrate in class, are forgetful, cannot do their homework or have panic attacks during lessons. Sometimes behavioral problems also occur that disrupt lessons, such as fidgeting or interrupting. Other symptoms can include aggression, outbursts of anger, feelings of anxiety, social withdrawal, frequent crying, etc. PTSD can be a long-term consequence of trauma (Spratler 2019:16f).

For these reasons, it is particularly important that the German course is a safe place, i.e. the teacher should come to class on time and the teachers should not always change.

Traumatized person need a continuous reference person, in this case the same teacher. Otherwise, re-traumatization can occur.

It is also important that the coping mechanisms and self-care strategies of the affected participants are accepted in the classroom (Spratler 2019:22).

Contact with the German language outside of the course

Motivation is very important for second language acquisition. It can be influenced by several factors. One of the most important is the prospect of staying, i.e. the expected future contact time with German language. Many learners conclude that it would not be worth learning the target language if their stay in the target country is only short-term. Attitudes towards the second language and target culture, fear of loss of identity and experiences of discrimination are also three important factors influencing motivation, because if the language to be learnt is held in low esteem, possibly even before arrival in the target country, it will be avoided. The fear of losing one's own identity by learning this language leads to even less contact with people who speak this language. Furthermore, if the participants are also discriminated against, these prejudices are confirmed and those affected isolate themselves even more from the target society (Scheible & Rother 2017:11ff).

If there is a lack of motivation to learn a second language (primarily due to fear of losing their identity or experiencing discrimination), it is easier for participants to avoid contact with Austrians or people who speak languages other than their own and to isolate themselves. If this is the case, even if the participants are obliged to come to the German course, they often do not have the opportunity to apply what they have learnt there. However, the situation is very different when participants have contact with the German language outside of the course. If they must interact and make themselves understood with other speakers, they can learn the language much better and more efficiently. Examples of contacts outside the German course would be Contact with German-speaking friends or life partners, with their own children if they attend a German-speaking school, with neighbors, work colleagues or contact with society in general through the consumption of German-language media (cf. Scheible & Rother 2017:11ff).

Liebau & Schacht (2016) have shown that the use of German at work is the most efficient factor:

"[...] the predominant use of German at work is statistically significantly related to positive language development of refugees and other migrants. [...] More frequent use of German, especially in the workplace, was associated with better German language skills." (Liebau & Schacht 2016: 747)

Gruber et al. (2021: 147 f.) criticize the management of German courses in Austria. They find that people are forced to take part under threat of a reduction in state benefits. However, one problem that the legislator has not considered is precisely the fact discussed here that the acquisition of a language "essentially takes place through social contacts outside of language courses, where dialect is most frequently spoken." (ebd.) However, dialect is not a topic in

German courses at all and students are expected to find out for themselves which language is actually used in everyday life. The differences between the language spoken in society and the variety taught in the German course are also recognized from the beginning. This can have a very demotivating effect, especially if they feel that the language course is useless and that they are forced to learn two languages at the same time: standard language and dialect. The inability to understand the dialect can also prevent migrants from socializing with locals, as they do not understand them.

"From a linguistic perspective, social marginalization could be understood as the result of a lack of poor knowledge of German, not as a lack of willingness to integrate: migrants exclude themselves (or are marginalized by the resident society) because they do not understand the dialect and not because they have not learned the standard language enough or do not have sufficient command of it." (Gruber et al. 2021: 148, emphasis in original)

Educational level in the mother tongue

Migrants and refugees come from all social classes in their countries of origin. Better educated participants, who may already know one or more foreign languages or, in other words, who are used to schooling systems in general, can acquire the German language more quickly. They already have more autonomy and are more familiar with learning strategies (cf. Scheible & Rother 2017: 16, Liebau & Schacht 2016: 745 f.).

Education also contributes to motivation. Better educated people are more likely to appreciate the value of language and learning itself. If better-educated people also want to pursue the professions they have learnt in their country of origin, they have an even stronger motivation to learn the language. Higher qualified jobs, which are also better paid, often require a good knowledge of German:

"For well-educated immigrants with strong professional aspirations, good L2 skills can then open up new opportunities on the labour market. Migrants with little education, on the other hand, can often find employment in ethnic enclaves or low-skilled job segments for which rudimentary language skills in the national language are sufficient." (Scheible & Rother 2017:12)

In contrast, people with low literacy levels and illiterates find it very difficult to learn a second language. As they have no written language skills, they are obliged to learn the second language exclusively through oral communication, "which makes systematic language learning almost impossible." (ebd.)

According to official statistics from the ÖIF, 70 per cent of refugees had literacy needs in 2022. For male refugees, the rate is significantly higher at 84 per cent. Of these, around 50 per cent are primary illiterates, i.e. they cannot read or write in their native language. The other half are second-language learners. Between 2015 and 2019, the need for literacy among refugees doubled from 24% to 48%. The majority of participants in literacy courses have Syrian origins (86%). 78% of Syrian refugees had literacy needs in 2022, compared to people from



Afghanistan, only 47% needed literacy courses. Around 75% of people with literacy needs are under 35 years old. Over 50% of participants in ÖIF courses have no more than a compulsory school leaving certificate. They have "little learning experience and similar difficulties in learning German" (Rothbauer 2023:19), meaning that only a few of them pass the subsequent exams. From 2015 to 2019, for example, only 25% of participants with literacy needs passed the A2 exam, while 48% of learners without literacy needs passed the B1 exam in the same period.

3.2. Methods and approaches of foreign and second language teaching

The grammar-translation method (GÜM; germ. Grammatik-Übersetzungsmethode)

The oldest teaching method in language teaching is the GÜM. It was developed in the 19th century for teaching Latin and Ancient Greek in grammar schools. At that time, only a small "elite" of children went to grammar school, which was very homogeneous in terms of language. The aim of the lessons was to be able to decipher or read texts from antiquity, such as those by Plato, Aristotle or Cicero, in the original. Somewhat later, when modern languages were also introduced in these grammar schools, foreign language lessons were organized according to the same principles (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:237 f., Gehring 2018:60). In some countries, a modified GÜM is still used today (cf. Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:76).

Foreign language lessons based on the GÜM were very analytical and characterized by memorization. Vocabulary work took place with the help of bilingual word equations. These word lists had to be learnt by heart. The grammar rules were explained very comprehensively, and these explanations also helped to understand the text. Grammar exercises also played a very important role, to the extent that "language knowledge is equated with grammar knowledge" (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:76). However, the grammar exercises consisted of disjointed individual sentences and the participants were not expected to apply the grammar rules freely themselves. The grammar and vocabulary were applied by translating the texts from the first language into the language being learnt and vice versa. The language of instruction was the learners' first language and not the language to be learnt. (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:238, Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:77)

The GÜM was heavily criticized for the fact that memorization and language structure analysis do not necessarily enable learners to express themselves in the foreign language. The ineffectiveness of GÜM has also been scientifically proven. For this reason, the GÜM method was rejected by methodology and didactics. (cf. *ibid.*)

Nevertheless, as already mentioned, GÜM is still used. From personal experience, some participants are expected to work according to the method. When they receive a text from the trainer in German, they insist on translating it into their native language first, and only then they complete the tasks I have prepared for them if they still have time. Other participants immediately take out their smartphone and have the text translated into their first language

using the Google Lens app. In my opinion, this could also be a consequence of the expectations and ideas of many participants that (successful) text comprehension means being able to translate the text into their native language.

Direct method, audiolingual method and audiovisual method

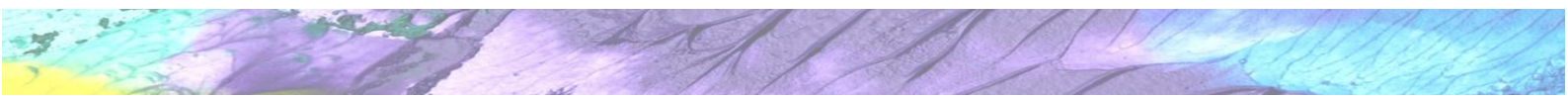
The direct method was developed after GÜM. It was seen as the opposite of the GÜM-method (cf. Doff 2016:323) It was attempted to eliminate all aspects of language teaching that were recognized as negative. Not only is the language of instruction no longer the mother tongue, but the use of the mother tongue is completely forbidden. Teaching now takes place in the language to be learnt. Vocabulary is no longer explained or translated, but illustrated with the help of pictures. Literature is no longer used, as in the GÜM, but dialogues on topics relevant to everyday life. A particularly important role is assigned to repeating and imitating the teacher. The idea behind this was that the acquisition of the foreign and second language should take place in the same way as the acquisition of the mother tongue:

"Linguistic input was given as a pattern, which the learners repeated. This repetition of patterns, which was also used in other learning contexts, is also known as pattern drill." (Biebighäuser 2021:239)

Repetition and imitation became so important because spoken language, rather than written language, now played the main role in language teaching. With the higher priority of spoken language the demand for correct pronunciation became more important. The teaching of grammar also changed. Grammar explanations were excluded and students were expected to develop a feeling for the language with the help of pattern drills. Grammar rules were already given, but at the end of the lesson as a kind of summary. (cf. *ibid.*, Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:78f.)

As teachers had to be imitated, they were expected to speak without an accent. Since the majority of teachers did not have an accent-free pronunciation, audio recordings began to be used in lessons. This method is called the audiolingual method (ALM). Lessons no longer took place in a course or classroom, but in a language laboratory. Students sat in booths with headphones and microphones, where they listened to the audio recordings and spoke into the microphone. This was then recorded and could be listened to and assessed later. This way students could also do their language exercises either alone or in pairs (cf. Biebighäuser 2021: 239f.).

The principles of ALM are: Monolingualism, error avoidance, the priority of spoken language, inductive grammar teaching and teacher-centeredness. Monolingualism was required for both, avoidance of interference from the students' other languages and in the interest of forming the habit of expressing oneself in the language to be learnt. Repeated mistakes become bad habits, so it was important that these were corrected immediately by the teacher. Priority given to spoken language means that listening is given a very important role and is practiced as the first skill, followed by speaking and only then reading and writing. The texts used in class are also everyday dialogues. It is not necessarily about listening comprehension, especially in



beginner lessons. Instead, the aim was to practice phonetic listening and correct pronunciation and to automatize speech patterns. Neither grammar nor vocabulary is explicitly explained in ALM. Grammar is not taught deductively, as in GÜM, but inductively, i.e. the learners were expected to be able to work out the grammar rules themselves. Teacher-centered teaching means that the teacher plays the main role in the language lesson and the most common social form is face-to-face teaching (cf. Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:83 f.).

In the closely related audiovisual method (AVM), which was developed independently in France, students are also shown images at the same time as the audio recordings to support their understanding of the recording (cf. Biebighäuser 2021: 240, Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:87).

ALM is based on contemporary findings from linguistics and psychology: behaviorist learning theory, American structuralism and contrastive analysis. Pattern drills and imitation of the teacher were developed under the influence of behaviorism. The primacy of spoken language over written language comes from American structuralism. The idea of the mother tongue as a problem in language learning, which could lead to interference and disruption, emerged under the influence of contrastive linguistics. However, this could be predicted and prevented through language comparison (cf. Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:80 ff.).

According to behaviorist learning theory, language learning, like all learning, is a series of habit formations. A stimulus is followed by a reaction, which is either positively reinforced if the behavior is desired, or negatively reinforced if the behavior is not desired:

"The foreign or second language learner receives a stimulus from the teacher, e.g. a linguistic utterance in the language to be learnt or/and a picture. This stimulus influences the learner and evokes a reaction, an utterance in the target language. If this is praised by the teacher, positive reinforcement takes place, i.e. the learner is encouraged to repeat his/her linguistic behaviour and this repetition makes it a habit. Negative reinforcement (criticism or rejection of the utterance) is intended to ensure that the learner's linguistic reaction does not occur again in the future so that a false habit is not formed." (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:81)

In the textbooks designed for ALM and AVM, there were also written texts, usually dialogues, which were accompanied by a picture. The grammar was illustrated using these texts but was now introduced with "an increasing level of difficulty, here we can speak of a grammar progression for the first time." Accordingly, these texts mostly appeared artificial: "The paradoxical situation must also be criticized that it was about spoken languages, but that these were printed in artificial-looking textbook texts, which clearly showed a hidden grammatical progression." (Biebighäuser 2021: 240)

The direct method is still used today, especially in Berlitz schools. The ALM still has a major influence on many textbooks today. Cueing exercises, cloze texts, rephrasing and insertion exercises were introduced with the ALM and can be found in many contemporary textbooks (cf. Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:84 f., Gehring 2018:61).



The mediating method

The mediating method attempts to reconcile the methods mentioned above. It originated in adult education in German-speaking countries. The learner groups were therefore linguistically very heterogeneous, but had a common goal of learning German and using it in practice. Now, for the first time, the goals of the learners are considered (Biebighäuser 2021: 241).

The teaching materials designed for the teaching method are monolingual and relate to life in German-speaking countries. Here too, the grammar is hidden in the text. There is also a grammar section of the textbook in which the linguistic phenomena and their exceptions are explained. There are also exercises for the grammar topics, e.g. usage exercises, rephrasing exercises and cloze texts: "The focus here is on linguistic correctness. Exercises from the ALM are used, but the learning objective corresponds to the GÜM" (ebd.).

This attempt to compensate for the weaknesses of the GÜM and the ALM by mixing these methods was not without its problems. This resulted in the contradiction:

"for example, foreign language learning was understood as a cognitive process according to the GÜM, but the tasks du [sic] exercises corresponded to repeating and imitating patterns according to the ALM/AVM." (Biebighäuser 2021: 241)

The communicative approach

The communicative approach was developed in the 1970s and is based on findings from pragmalinguistics and speech act theory. Language is no longer seen as a fixed system, but rather as action and interpersonal contact and communication. Learners must therefore be enabled to act independently in the language they are learning. It was therefore recognized that vocabulary and grammar knowledge are not enough, but that you need social and cultural knowledge in order to be able to communicate competently. As a result, the aim was no longer to teach sentence patterns, as was the case with ALM/AVM, but to emphasize communicative competence. Aspects of communicative competence are, for example, speaking competence, dialogue competence, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence (cf. Biebighäuser 2021: 241, Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:91 f.).

"Essentially, this initially meant a methodologically open organization of foreign language teaching with a focus on fluency while at the same time dispensing with formal correctness (accuracy)." (Doff 2016:324)

This resulted in framework guidelines in which the goal of language teaching is declared to be the "ability to communicate" (Biebighäuser 2021: 242). At this time, the Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache (German as a Foreign Language Certificate for Adults) exam, which requires communication skills, also appeared. However, this was not entirely new, because communication skills were also required for ALM/AVM, but:

"[...] now, however, grammar skills and cultural knowledge were explicitly subordinated to communication. They were no longer the goal of foreign language teaching, but a means to

the end of being able to communicate appropriately." (Biebighäuser 2021:242).

Grammar is therefore still taught, but subordinated to communication, i.e. grammatical phenomena are treated in the order in which they are often used in everyday situations and no longer according to complexity, as was previously the case. Accordingly, the textbooks themselves were no longer structured according to grammatical progression, "but rather a cyclical progression of linguistic communication skills in relation to speaking intentions" (ibid.). Sometimes grammar topics were completely omitted because no suitable topics could be found on which to play dialogues (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:242, Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:96).

In this approach, errors are no longer seen as a disruptive factor, but rather as normal steps in the learning process, which is now understood as creative: "Learners access the linguistic data of the target language step by step, form hypotheses and develop a constantly changing interlanguage/learner language" (Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:94).

The communicative approach was also developed under the influence of developments in pedagogy, such as the criticism of behaviorism. From now on, learning is recognized as a cognitive process and no longer as a mere change in behavior. Social and technological developments in German-speaking countries, such as the so-called economic miracle, which led to more mobility, and the increasing acceptance of mass media, such as telephones and televisions, also had an impact on this (cf. Biebighäuser 2021: 241, Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:92).

Student-orientation is another principle of the communicative approach, in contrast to the approaches discussed above, which were teacher-orientated. This means that the needs of the learners must now be considered when selecting topics and learning content (cf. Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:94). The choice of topics is also orientated towards everyday situations. Short, authentic texts, such as newspaper adverts or recipes, were now important. The aim was to introduce students to as many text types, communication situations and language registers, as possible and to prepare them "to make assumptions about the content through the text type." (Biebighäuser 2021:242)

Communicative language teaching remains monolingual. The use of the first language is still not desired (cf. Kniffka & Siebert-Ott 2009:98).

3.3. Current trends

Nowadays, there is no longer necessarily talk of one method in didactics. It is more common to speak of a mix of methods, i.e. the use of different methods depending on the needs of the learners. The following topics are important in second and foreign language didactics: competence orientation, cognitive foundation and the didactic-methodological principles (as opposed to global methods) of second and foreign language teaching (cf. Biebighäuser 2021: 245, Gehring 2018: 199 f.).

Beginning with the communicative turn and increasingly since the introduction of the



Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) in 2001, the focus on competences in language teaching has become more and more important (cf. Klippel 2016: 317, Biebighäuser 2021:246). The levels described in the GeR are defined based on can-do descriptions. The language tests that are taken at the end of the courses must now certify that these levels have been reached. Accordingly, those are criticized in the specialist literature for "creating a very narrow concept of competence, as these tests test easily verifiable skills rather than real competences" (Biebighäuser 2021:246). The task as an "authentic linguistic-intercultural challenge of real life tends to fade into the background in favour of the question of the measurability of specific sub-competences" (ibid.).

Cognitive approaches to language teaching also play a major role in the specialized discourse. These are based on cognitivism (learning as a cognitive process), in contrast to behaviorism (learning as a change in behaviour), on which the direct method and its closely related methods, ALM and AVM, were based. The cognitive approaches combine communicative and cognitive processes. Now the learners' mother tongue and other foreign languages are also considered. The aim is to enable learners to reflect on the languages they have already learnt and mastered and to compare these with the language they are learning (cf. ibid.).

The focus remains on meaning, but language and grammar structures can also be explicitly considered and automatised. However, this should only be done when the learners express their need to do so, "and not when it is specified in a task model" (ibid.).

The didactic and methodological principles of foreign language teaching are Action orientation, content orientation, task orientation, individualization and personalization, promotion of autonomy, interaction orientation, promotion of reflection, automation, transparency and participation, evaluation culture, multilingualism and learning culture sensitivity (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:246ff.).

Action-orientation is understood to mean that the most important goal of language teaching is to enable learners to act in the second language, unlike the earlier approaches already discussed, where there were other goals, such as perfect pronunciation or grammatical knowledge. Here, not only productive but also receptive skills are important: "learners should be guided from understanding to independent expression (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:246).

Content-orientation means that the texts used in lessons and the topics covered must be relevant to the learners. Authentic texts, language and materials are considered particularly relevant and motivating at the same time. These should prepare learners for using the target language in everyday life. In addition, the content of an utterance is perceived as more important than grammatical correctness (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:246, Klippel 2016: 318).

Task-orientation is closely linked to action-orientation. If the aim of the lesson is to be able to act in everyday life with the second language, then the lesson should simulate everyday situations through the learning tasks it contains so that learners are well prepared for these situations. Language skills and grammar are covered and practiced in order to be able to

complete the task (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:246f).

As each learner group and each participant brings their own interests, prior knowledge and talents to the course, it is important that these are taken into account. The individualization and personalization principle states that the learning tasks should be adapted to the participants and their needs. As it is not possible to create a different task for each individual participant, the number of tasks is recommended to be "limited to two or three levels to which the individual learners are assigned." (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:247)

Promoting autonomy means that learners can reflect on their own learning process and determine what they want to learn in the future. It is important that participants are taught learning strategies. However, complete learner autonomy is not possible, but "can only be seen in the field of tension with heteronomy." (ibid.) This also means that the teacher keeps their speaking time to a minimum in favor of the learners and uses frontal teaching sparingly. Social forms - face-to-face teaching, partner and group work - should be used in a balanced way. However, the teacher's language is an important linguistic input and should not be neglected under any circumstances (cf. Klippel 2016: 318).

Interaction-orientation means that learning takes place through exchange between learners and exchange with the teacher. Consequently, exchange should be the goal of language teaching. This results in "learners working together through collaborative learning" (ibid.).

Reflection in this case means thinking about one's own learning process and about linguistic structures. This must be encouraged in language lessons so that procedures and knowledge can also be transferred to other areas. (cf. ibid.)

Automation takes place when skills are performed frequently and "no longer need to be deliberately initiated [...] and do not need to be mentally checked and controlled" (ibid.). As a result, more cognitive capacity is available for other processes, e.g. content. However, if you don't pay enough attention, language errors can also become automatized. This is why it is particularly important to repeat without error during automatization exercises. What needs to be repeated are not individual words, but "relevant linguistic routines" (Biebighäuser 2021:248).

Transparency and participation require the involvement of the participants in the design of the lesson. The opinions and wishes of the learners are considered at the decision-making meeting and they are informed about the methods and objectives of the lesson. (cf. ibid.)

Evaluation culture is related to transparency and participation. Teachers and participants reflect together on the lessons, a "joint and individual evaluation of the lessons with the aim of further developing and improving the lessons in relation to the needs of the learner group" (ibid.) should take place.

The multilingualism of the participants must be considered in second language lessons. This should be viewed by the teacher as a linguistic resource (cf. ibid.). Language learning experiences also vary within the learner group. If the teacher shows interest in these languages,



this can not only be very motivating for the participants, but also helpful:

"By valuing these linguistic resources and signaling interest in the learners' languages, teachers create a pleasant learning atmosphere on the one hand, and on the other, the inclusion of other languages can lead to a contrastive approach that highlights similarities and special features of German and promotes language awareness [...]." (Biebighäuser 2021:249)

Nevertheless, the language to be learnt should be used as intensively as possible (cf. Klippel 2016: 318).

Learning culture sensitivity is required because learners have certain expectations of language teaching and the methods used in it. These should be taken into account when planning lessons in the interests of smooth learning (cf. Biebighäuser 2021:248).

Excursus: personal experience- from trainer perspective

I have taught both AMS and ÖIF courses. In my experience, you can work through much more material in groups of unemployed people in the three months that a German course lasts than with refugees. The main reasons for this, in my opinion, are the lower proportion of traumatized participants and the longer contact with the German language, including at work. The negative role that trauma can play in learning really shouldn't be underestimated. I had several refugee participants who couldn't pay attention and were unusually forgetful. Others had panic attacks in class and had to go outside, or suddenly refused to join in, and when I insisted, they started crying or suddenly threw a tantrum. I can't diagnose these people, of course, but I think that trauma could be a possible explanation, at least in some cases.

In addition, participants who had already worked in Austria not only had more prior knowledge, but also more motivation compared to newly arrived participants who had perhaps never worked in this country before. The difficult living conditions of refugees can also have negative consequences. Many refugee participants have told me that they can't do their homework or study at home because they live in a small space with five or six other refugees. They don't even have their own table where they can write. Even when they try to study at home, they disturb their flatmates. Many participants also admit that they have hardly any contact with the German language outside of the course.

In the more linguistically heterogeneous courses, it was much easier to keep the proportion of German-language utterances high. In courses that were more linguistically homogeneous, however, it would have been almost impossible to eliminate the use of the mother tongue. Every utterance on my part was translated into the mother tongue of most participants, which in most cases was Arabic. This is a natural consequence of the fact that some participants are somewhat stronger learners and more motivated than others and they want to help the weaker ones. On the other hand, some participants seem to rely on the translation into their mother tongue. However, the risk of this is minimized if there is as little frontal teaching as possible. In addition, speakers of languages that are a minority in the course are at a disadvantage.

Nevertheless, I did not forbid the use of the mother tongue. On the contrary, when I explain something organizational, I give the stronger participants time to explain it in their mother tongue. I often have the explanation translated into the "minority languages" of the course myself using machine translation programs.

I also often have the participants translate the new vocabulary into their first language after I have already explained it in German or, at lower levels, illustrated it with pictures or mime, and I try to repeat the words. The participants sometimes find this funny if my pronunciation is poor, but it also motivates them because I, as a teacher, also show an interest in their languages. Another advantage of this is the fact that the participants who didn't understand or weren't paying attention when I explained the words the first time still have a chance to write them down. The others will hopefully also remember the vocabulary better if they hear it several times and in several languages. When a new grammatical phenomenon is introduced, I ask whether it exists in the languages of the participants. In this way, I want to teach the participants to compare languages as a learning strategy.

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Chapter 4. Key factors for successful bilingual child education in Romania

4.1. Introduction

When discussing Eastern and Central Europe, it is considered that this region was one of the most ethnically divided areas. This ethnic complexity known in Eastern and Central European states makes it extremely difficult to establish the historical roots of minority problems. The number of nationalities is not only three times higher than that of Western Europe, but the heritage of the ethnic model shows unprecedented wealth. This area has been the subject of many tensions and conflicts in history, which also recorded periods of coexistence between different minority groups.

There are several languages spoken in Romania, although Romanian remains the only official national language. It is spoken by about **90% of the population** as a native language, other important minority languages being: Hungarian, Romani (Romani language), Ukrainian, German, and Turkish¹.

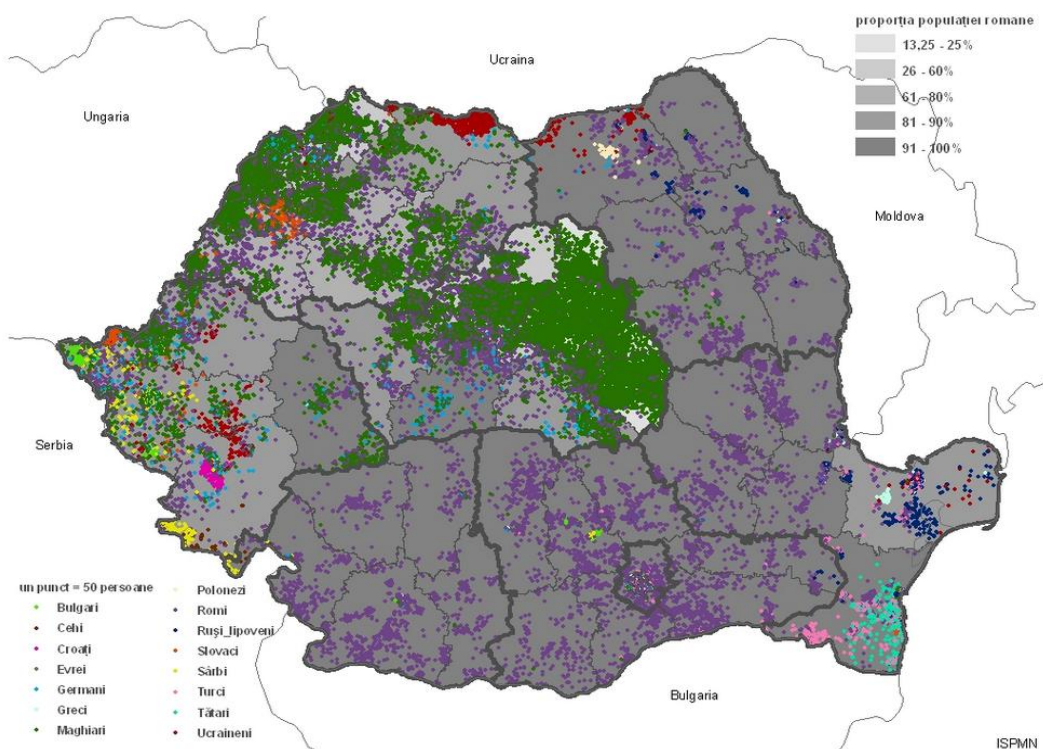


Figure 1 Ethnic and national minorities in Romania

¹ <https://ispmn.gov.ro/> - Institute for Study Problems of National Minorities

According to the Romanian Constitution, **20 national minorities** are recognized: Hungarian, Romani, German, Ukrainian, Russian, Turkish, Tatar, Serbian, Slovak, Bulgarian, Croatian, Greek, Armenian, Italian, Polish, Czech, Hebrew, Bosnian, Ruthenian, Macedonian.

4.2. The legislative framework to protect the rights of national minorities

Romania is considered to be one of the countries with the most developed legislation in Europe in terms of minority rights, these also having the right to use their own language in local administration and the judicial system, in cases limited by the current normative acts.

A report recently published by the Committee of Experts that monitors the implementation of the *European Charter of Regional or Minority Languages*² recognizes that Romania has a solid legal framework and policies to protect minority languages. The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages has been in effect in Romania since 2008 and it includes 20 languages. Ten of these languages - Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, and Ukrainian - receive enhanced protection due to Romania's commitment to promoting their use in public spheres. This includes areas like education, justice, administration, mass media, economic and social life, culture, and cross-border exchanges.

The Law on Local Public Administration provides that "in the administrative-territorial units in which citizens belonging to national minorities have a share of over **20%** of the number of inhabitants, the local public administration authorities, the public institutions under their subordination, as well as the decentralized public services ensure the use, in relations with them, of the mother tongue".

Hungarian is a regional language of Romania, spoken in Transylvania, Banat, Crișana, Maramureș, and Moldova by the Hungarian minority. The ethnic Hungarian population is the majority in the counties of Harghita (84.6%) and Covasna (73.8%), and significant proportions of the ethnic Hungarian population (over 20%) also exist in the counties of Mureș (39.3%), Satu Mare (35.2%), Bihor (25.9%) and Sălaj (23.1%). It has more than 6.6% of the population of Romania. The Hungarian community benefits from numerous pre-university and university education institutions in the mother tongue, as well as from numerous broadcasts dedicated to the Hungarian minority, on public radio and television stations. The main organization that groups Hungarians in Romania politically is the Democratic Union of Hungarians in Romania, represented as a political party in Parliament.

² <https://www.coe.int/en/web/european-charter-regional-or-minority-languages/about-the-charter>

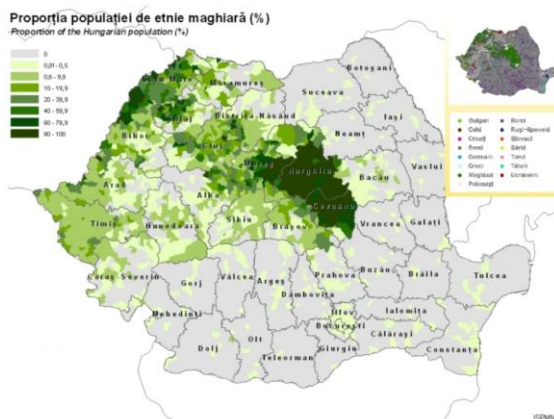


Figure 2- The proportion of the ethnic Hungarian population³

The **Roma minority** knows a continuous growth in the territory of our country. The Romani language is spoken by 1.2% of the country's population. After 1989, a real explosion of the Roma movement and the Romani language took place in Romania. If in the beginning few Roma spoke the Romani language, today it is standardized, it is studied in schools and universities, it is used in culture and in the mass media, like the other languages of the national minorities. The Romani language is studied in 41 of Romania's 42 counties, with 420-460 Romani teachers teaching the Romani language in schools.

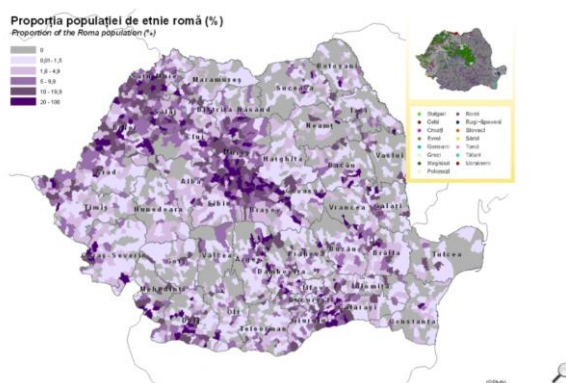


Figure 3 - Proportion of the Roma population

The **Ukrainian** language has remained in use despite the fact that, over the years, its use has often been limited or even forbidden, and it has been preserved by Ukrainians in folklore, music, and literature. Nevertheless, in recent years, there have been sustained efforts to support Ukrainian refugees. Thus, there are over 50 schools with Ukrainian language instruction that offer children access to education, and Ukrainian refugee teachers have the possibility of getting involved in the education of these young people.

³ <https://ispmn.gov.ro/maps>

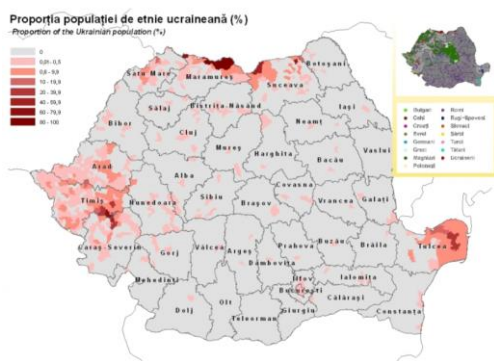


Figure 4 - Proportion of the Ukrainian population

The **German** language is spoken by 2.4% of Romanian citizens, and this is due to the fact that German is taught in 10% of schools in Romania. Approximately 0.2% of the country's population is German.

Most of the **Turks** in Romania live in the historical Dobrogea area, especially in Constanța County, where 24,602 Turks live. Romania's national education system incorporates pre-university education with partial instruction in Turkish. This includes preschool and high school programs where Turkish serves as a partial language of instruction. Following requests from the Turkish and Tatar communities, study groups and classes dedicated to Turkish language learning were established within Romanian schools in the counties of Constanta, Tulcea, and Bucharest, beginning in 1990.

University-level education in Turkish is offered at two institutions: Ovidius University of Constanta and Bucharest University (where it's considered a modern language). Both universities offer Turkish language programs with options for studying Turkish alongside Romanian or English.

The Romanian educational system, as a whole, guarantees a **high level of support** for several minority languages. Teaching in most minority languages is provided for in the school curriculum, with exceptions regarding Albanian, Macedonian, Ruthenian, Tatar and Yiddish. At the university level, Romania promotes most minority languages. The German and Hungarian languages benefit from a very favorable situation in the education system, but, nevertheless, the Romanian authorities are faced with the problem of insufficient teaching staff, which also affects the education in the Czech and Romani languages, especially through incentive measures to make this profession more attractive.

4.3. Key factors for successful bilingual child education

Regarding the key factors for successful bilingual child education in the official language as second language in Romania, it's important to mention that there is no single "recipe" for successful bilingual education, and the specific factors that contribute to success will vary depending on individual circumstances and contexts.

However, we identified several factors, grouped in the following categories:

Individual factors:

- **Age of starting:** Starting early, ideally before age 5, is often considered advantageous for natural language acquisition.
- **Motivation and language learning aptitude:** Children with higher intrinsic motivation and natural language learning abilities tend to achieve better results.
- **Cognitive abilities:** Strong cognitive skills like memory, attention, and processing speed can support bilingual learning.
- **Positive attitudes towards both languages:** Positive attitudes towards both the child's first language and Romanian are crucial for engagement and success.

Family and home environment:

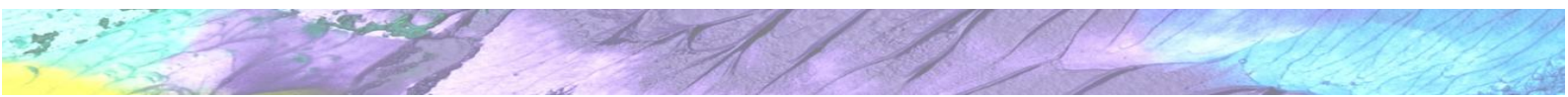
- **Exposure to Romanian outside of school:** Regular and meaningful exposure to Romanian outside of school settings is essential for building proficiency. This can include reading stories in Romanian, watching movies or TV shows, and conversing with native speakers.
- **Positive language practices at home:** Encouraging communication in both languages and valuing both cultures strengthens children's identity and motivation.
- **Parental support and involvement:** Parental engagement in their child's education, including learning some Romanian themselves, can greatly benefit their progress.

School and educational factors:

- **Qualified and well-trained teachers:** Teachers who are proficient in both languages and trained in effective bilingual education methods are crucial for success.
- **High-quality language programs:** Effective bilingual programs should be well-structured, engaging, and culturally appropriate.
- **Sufficient resources and support:** Schools need adequate resources like textbooks, audio-visual materials, and support staff to implement bilingual programs effectively.
- **Positive and inclusive school environment:** A welcoming and inclusive school environment that values linguistic diversity is essential for children's motivation and self-esteem.

Social and community factors:

- **Positive attitudes towards bilingualism in the community:** A community that values bilingualism creates a supportive environment for children and their families.
- **Opportunities to use Romanian outside of school:** Access to community events, activities, and interactions where Romanian is used naturally can further support language acquisition.



➤ **Collaboration between schools, families, and community:** Strong partnerships between schools, families, and communities can create a network of support for bilingual education.

The frequency of using the Romanian language among national minorities in Romania varies significantly, being influenced by a number of factors, including:

1. The size of the minority: Larger national minorities, with a significant weight in certain geographical areas, tend to use the Romanian language more frequently in various contexts. For example, in Harghita County, where Hungarians make up the majority of the population, Romanian is frequently used in administration, education and commerce.

2. The level of integration: National minorities more integrated in Romanian society tend to use the Romanian language more frequently. This is especially true for the younger generations, who attended school in Romanian and have a more intense interaction with the majority population.

3. Access to education in Romanian: National minorities who have access to quality education in Romanian tend to use it more frequently. In Romania, there is a network of schools with teaching in the languages of the national minorities, but also classes with teaching in the Romanian language within the schools with teaching in the majority language.

4. Public policies: Public policies that promote the learning of the Romanian language and the integration of national minorities can contribute to increasing the frequency of using the Romanian language within these communities.

5. Social context: The frequency of using the Romanian language can vary depending on the social context. For example, Romanian is used more frequently in formal contexts, such as administration or education, and less frequently in informal contexts, such as in family or with friends.

4.4. The socio-economic status

The link between **the socio-economic status** of national minority families and the use of the official language is complex and multifactorial. Factors such as income, education, occupation, ethnic identity, cultural values, parental language proficiency, access to language resources, social context, and public policies play an important role in this interaction.

- **Economic factors:**

Income: Families with lower incomes may have limited access to educational resources and opportunities to learn the Romanian language, which may lead to less use of it.

Education: The level of education of the parents is an important factor that influences the use of the Romanian language in the family. Parents with a better education tend to be more motivated to teach their children Romanian and provide them with opportunities to use it.

Occupation: Parents' occupation can influence children's exposure to the Romanian language. For example, children whose parents work in fields that require interaction with the majority population may have a more frequent use of the Romanian language.

- **Cultural factors:**

Ethnic identity: Families with a stronger ethnic identity may be less motivated to use the Romanian language, preferring to speak the mother tongue in the family.

Cultural values: The cultural values of national minority families can influence their attitude towards the Romanian language. Families who consider learning the Romanian language as important for their children's success will be more motivated to use it.

- **Linguistic factors:**

Linguistic competence of the parents: The level of competence of the parents in the Romanian language can influence the way they use it in the family. Parents with weaker language skills may be reluctant to speak Romanian with their children.

Access to language resources: National minority families may have limited access to language resources in Romanian, such as books, audio-video materials, etc., which may limit children's exposure to the language.

- **The social context:**

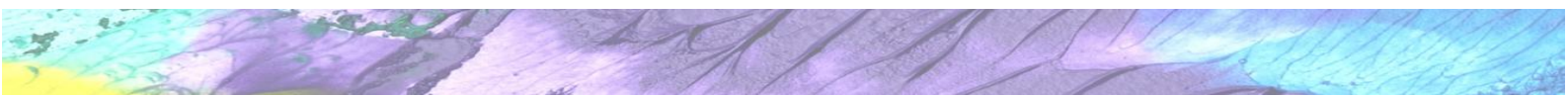
Community: Families of national minorities living in communities with a high share of the majority population may be more motivated to use the Romanian language.

Public policies: Public policies that promote the learning of the Romanian language and the integration of national minorities can contribute to increasing the use of the Romanian language within these communities.

A special situation is in the Roma community. Romania has the largest Roma population in Europe, with an official number of 535,000 or 2.5% of the total population and an unofficial number of Roma between 1,800,000 and 2,500,000 or between 8.3% and 11.5% of the population.

According to data from the last population census: 41.9% of Roma in Romania declared that their mother tongue was Romanian, while 57.1% declared that their mother tongue was Romani. 63.7% of Roma in Romania declared that they could speak Romanian, while 36.3% declared that they could not speak Romanian.

Among the factors that influence the low level of use of the Romanian language, we list the **lack of access to education**, many Roma do not have access to quality education, which limits their opportunities to learn the Romanian language. In addition, Romanians of Roma ethnicity are often **segregated** from the rest of society, which limits their exposure to the



Romanian language. **Stereotypes and prejudices** discourage Roma from using the Romanian language.

The Roma poverty rate is three times higher than the average poverty rate in Romania. This high level of poverty is caused by several factors, such as the poor state of health and education, limited opportunities on the labor market, discrimination, all fueling a vicious circle of poverty and exclusion.

In general, the parents of Roma children have low expectations from their children, the reason being the parents' low level of education. Roma children lack a role model and have to do various household and income-generating activities, which limit their study time. Seasonal migration of Roma families, including children from rural areas and early marriages are other barriers to school enrollment.

Compared to the majority of the population in Romania, these are just some of the obstacles faced by Roma children regarding enrollment and graduation.

4.5. Models of educating children with a different mother tongue in Romania

Romania's education system offers various models for educating children with a different mother tongue from Romanian.

These models aim to provide a quality education while also preserving and promoting the children's native language and cultural identity.

“Primary education in Romania starts when students are six years old and lasts for eight years. After that, students can enroll into secondary schools, which are either theoretical (grammar), technological, or vocational schools. At the end of the 12th grade, all students in Romania must pass the graduation exam in several subjects, including Romanian language and literature. The official national passing rate of the graduation exam in Romanian language and literature has been between 55 and 76%. The scores from the graduation exam count towards the admission to universities”⁴.

Starting from kindergarten and then throughout primary and secondary education, students in schools with minority language instruction learn the official language of the country. Yet, those who belong to the Hungarian, German, Ukrainian, Serbian, Slovak, or Czech national minorities have the right to education in their first language from kindergarten to secondary school, and in some cases at university level, too.

⁴ “Creating the illusion of speaking Romanian well”: Hungarian speakers’ teaching and learning the majority language in Romania, From the journal [Multilingua](#)

Regarding bilingual education, García and Kano (2014) ⁵ make a **typology** of educational models according to how the majority language is being taught to minority language students: it can be a taught subject or the language of instruction. Classes with mother language as the language of instruction in Romania can be characterized as the first type, and within that following a maintenance type of bilingual education, organized either in separate schools or in schools with parallel classes in Romanian and in a minority language.

In the past decades, the social capital accessible through the knowledge of the country's official language has undergone major shifts in Romania. For the generation who took part in education during the state socialist period, Romanian was the language of social mobility: education in Romanian was a way to get employment and be able to participate in the mainstream society. The end of Ceaușescu's regime and Romania's eventual EU integration resulted in large numbers of people from minorities from Romania migrating to study and work in Western Europe⁶.

Parallel to the linguistic market value of the knowledge of Romanian, the legislative framework of its education as a second language, or a non-native language ("limbă nematernă" in Romanian) has changed too.

Until the 1995 Law on Education all students, regardless of which language of instruction they had at school, were learning Romanian according *to the same curriculum*, not taking into account the students' linguistic and cultural background. Conversely, all teaching material was in Romanian language only. Teachers of Romanian are trained in Romanian language and literature programs at all major universities in Romania and there is no differentiation of the study program based on students' first language or whether they would be teaching Romanian as a first or as a non-native language.

The 2011 Law on Education stipulates that in all phases of public education, students studying in a language of instruction that is not Romanian should study the subject Romanian language and literature according *to curriculum designed for them* and from textbooks other than those used by their peers for whom it is a first language. As reforms are introduced gradually and no special curriculum, textbooks, and testing methods have not been made so far for secondary school students. Therefore, the gradual introduction of the differentiated curriculum means that the program of the graduation exam in Romanian language and literature for the generation who will have the exam in the forthcoming years does not differentiate evaluation criteria based on the first language of the students; it only has minor differences

⁵ García, Ofelia & Naomi Kano. 2014. Translanguaging as a process and pedagogy: Developing the English writing of Japanese students in the US. In Jean Conteh & Gabriela Meier (eds.), *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges*, 292–299. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

⁶ Idem 4

between the humanities theoretical track and pedagogical vocational education as opposed to the science theoretical track and all other tracks of vocational and technological education.

The law specifies that persons belonging to national minorities have the right to education in their mother tongue at all levels, in all types and forms of pre-university education. Groups, classes and schools with a curriculum in a minority language can be established at the request of parents or legal guardians, and the number of children required for such educational formations may be lower than the minimum number required for education systems in the Romanian language. It is also specified that schools offering educational programs in a minority language are granted the legal status of public institution only if they are the only public units offering such educational programs in the municipality. The Education Law includes nursery school programs up to the pre-school education system university, so that groups of nursery school children with teaching in the minority language can be created at request.

Each ethnicity has its specific problems. The small ones are dispersed, and it is difficult for them to gather the minimum number of students to form a class with teaching in the mother tongue. The middle schools have a well-established educational system, but they fear that by merging the classes it will disappear. The lack of teachers is another problem: either there is no money to pay them, or there are no teachers who can master the language well. The old manuals and even their total lack is another problem brought up by some ethnic groups. Other minorities, usually small ones, do not have state education in their mother tongue at all and organize language courses at their own headquarters.

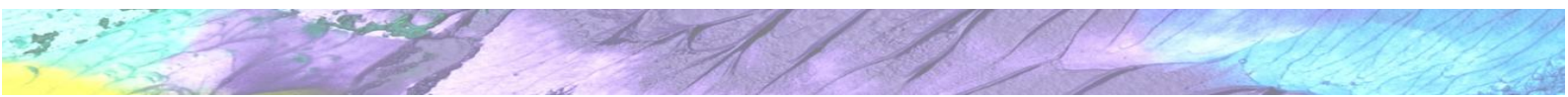
The main models used are:

1. Simultaneous education:

Teaching is carried out **simultaneously in Romanian and the mother tongue**, with subjects taught in both languages. This model is commonly used in areas with a significant share of ethnic minorities.

For instance, Secondary School No. 1 Baia Mare, located in Baia Mare, Maramureş County, offers simultaneous education in Romanian and Hungarian. The school was founded in 1957 as a Hungarian school. In 1990, it became a bilingual school, offering education in Romanian and Hungarian. The school offers a wide range of subjects taught in Romanian and Hungarian. **Subjects taught in Romanian include Romanian**, mathematics, sciences, history and geography. **Subjects taught in Hungarian** include Hungarian language, Hungarian literature, Hungarian history and Hungarian geography. The school has approximately 1000 students. Most of the students are Hungarian, but there is also a significant number of Romanian students. There are approximately 50 teachers. Most of the teachers are native speakers of Hungarian, but there is also a significant number of teachers who are native speakers of Romanian.

Advantages include promoting bilingualism, maintaining cultural identity and facilitating social integration.



Disadvantages may include difficulty managing the dual curriculum, the need for qualified teachers for both languages, and additional costs.

According to recent data published by the Ministry of Education, there were:

- 535 schools with simultaneous teaching in Romanian and Hungarian, totaling approximately 125,000 students;
- 132 schools with simultaneous teaching in Romanian and German, totaling approximately 17,000 students;
- 23 schools with simultaneous teaching in Romanian and Romani language, totaling approximately 4,000 students.

Besides these, there were other schools with simultaneous teaching in Romanian and languages of other ethnic minorities, such as Ukrainian, Serbian, Turkish and Tatar.

The number of schools with simultaneous teaching in Romanian and minority languages may vary from year to year, depending on various variables, such as local demographics, available financial resources, and parents' educational options. In addition to public schools, there are also private schools that offer this type of education, where there is demand.

2. Education with teaching in the mother tongue:

In Romania, in areas with a significant concentration of ethnic minorities, there are schools teaching in the mother tongue, with an emphasis on learning **Romanian as a foreign language**.

Some examples include: Harghita County: "Szent László" Miercurea Ciuc High School (Hungarian language), "Márton Áron" Gheorgheni National College (Hungarian language), Covasna County: Sfântu Gheorghe "Kőrösi Csoma Sándor" High School (Hungarian) "Mihai Viteazul" Sfântu Gheorghe National College (Hungarian), Mureș County: "Bolyai Farkas" Secondary School Târgu Mureș (Hungarian language), "Alexandru Papiu Ilarian" National College Târgu Mureș (Hungarian language), Timiș County: "Nikolaus Lenau" Secondary School Timișoara (German language), "C.D. Loga" National College Timișoara (German language).

Teaching is carried out in the mother tongue, with an emphasis on learning Romanian as a foreign language.

The **main features of education in minority language** schools include:

1. Teaching subjects in the mother tongue: Subjects such as mathematics, science, history and geography are taught in the students' mother tongue. This facilitates the understanding of concepts and contributes to the maintenance of cultural identity.
2. Emphasis on learning Romanian as a foreign language: Romanian language courses are organized as a foreign language, adapted to the students' level of competence.

Knowledge of the Romanian language is essential for the social and professional integration of students.

3. **Qualified teachers:** Teachers in minority language schools must have advanced language skills in both their mother tongue and Romanian. The pedagogical training of teachers is essential to ensure a quality education.

4. **Adapted teaching resources:** Textbooks and didactic materials specially developed for schools teaching in the minority language are used. The adaptation of didactic resources to the cultural and linguistic specifics of the students contributes to increasing the efficiency of the educational process.

5. **Promoting interculturality:** Various activities are organized that promote tolerance, mutual respect, and the values of cultural diversity. Intercultural education contributes to combating stereotypes and prejudices and building a more inclusive society.

Although there is no exact number, it can be estimated that in Romania there are **approximately 40 schools** with exclusive teaching in the minority language.

There are several debates regarding the **appropriateness** and **effectiveness** of exclusive minority language education. Proponents of this model believe that it is essential for preserving the cultural and linguistic identity of minorities. Critics believe that it can lead to the social isolation of students and difficulties in integrating into the labor market.

It is important that education in the minority language is balanced with learning the Romanian language and promoting the values of **interculturality**.

3. Other models of education of children with different mother tongue include:

✓ **Intercultural education:** it promotes the values of cultural diversity and mutual respect; it includes elements specific to ethnic minority culture in the curriculum. This model helps to combat stereotypes and prejudices.

✓ **Classes with intensive teaching of the Romanian language:** organized to facilitate the integration of students with a different mother tongue. It focuses on the development of linguistic skills in Romanian.

✓ **Extracurricular programs:** It supports learning the mother tongue and culture specific to ethnic minorities. They can include language classes, music, dance, traditions, etc.

The main challenges:

Lack of financial resources: Implementing intercultural and bilingual education models can be expensive.

Lack of qualified teachers: There is a lack of qualified teachers for teaching in the mother tongue and for teaching the Romanian language as a foreign language.

Stereotypes and prejudices: Stereotypes and prejudices can affect the social inclusion of children whose mother tongue is different from Romanian.

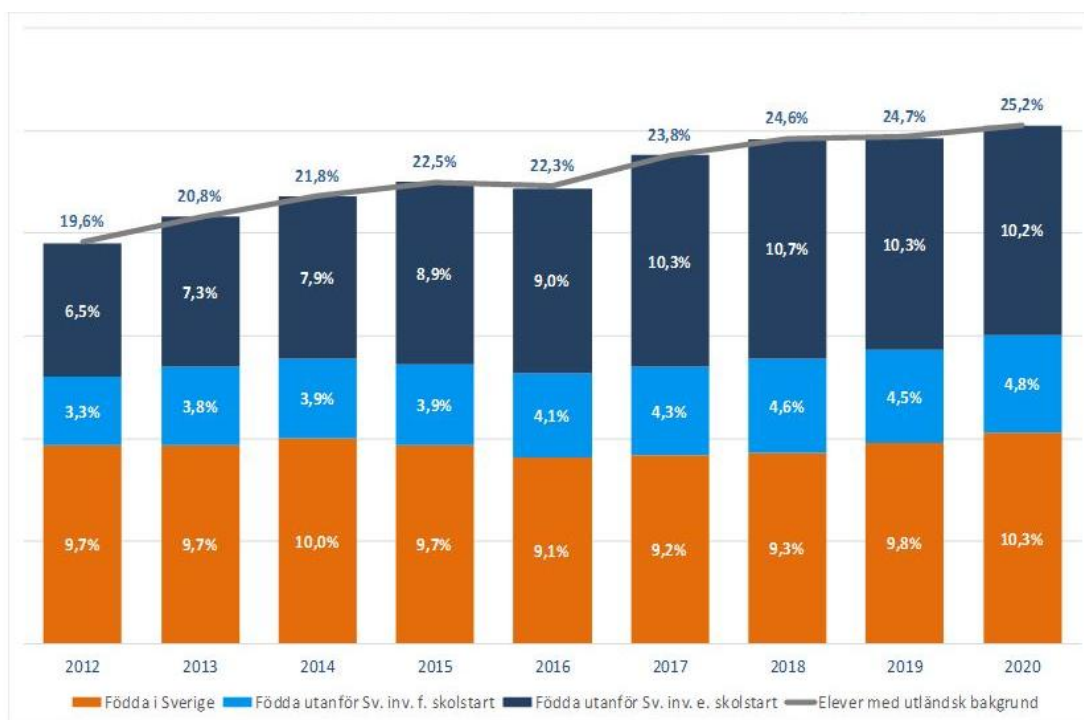
Chapter 5. Second language teaching in Sweden

5.1. Overview

Sweden has a ten-year compulsory school. Pupils start school the year they turn six and then attend preschool class. The year they turn seven, they start year 1. After year 9, students can choose to study at upper secondary school if they have passed grades in the basic subjects from year 9. About 85% of young people in Sweden today start upper secondary school directly after grade 9. For newly arrived pupils who do not have the grades to start upper secondary school, there is a language introduction programme, which focuses on giving pupils the basic knowledge that is necessary.

Almost a fifth of the pupils in Swedish compulsory schools today have a foreign background, either born abroad or born in Sweden to parents with a different origin.

Percentage of pupils with a foreign background in Swedish schools, 2012-2020



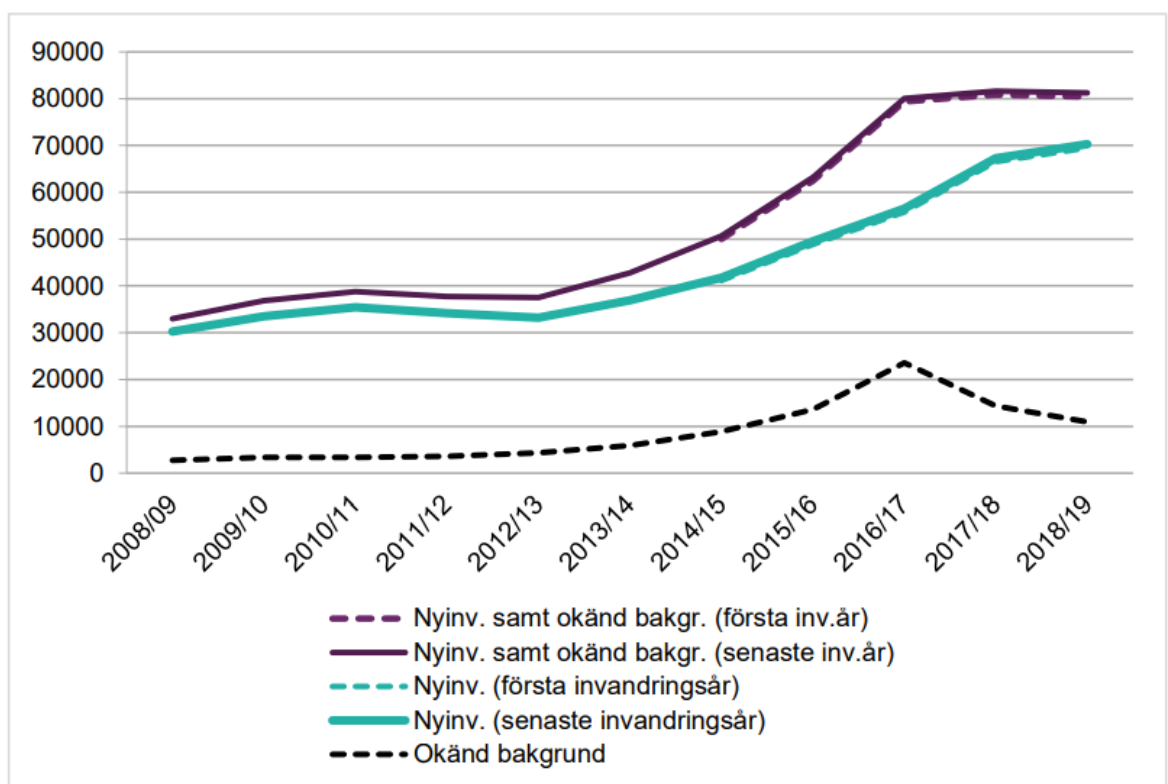
New arrivals

In Sweden, a pupil is considered a newcomer during his or her first four years of school, provided that the pupil started school after the regular start of school in the autumn term of year 1. Children who arrive in Sweden as asylum seekers must be received at school no later than one month after arrival. When the pupil starts school, an assessment of their knowledge is made. The results of the assessment are then taken into account when deciding which year the student should start in and whether the student is in need of an individual study plan.

One way to support newly arrived pupils is to allow them to receive part of their teaching in another teaching group, a preparatory class, while at the same time being placed in a regular class and having some part of the teaching there. The purpose of the preparatory class is to give newly arrived pupils the knowledge they need to be able to take part in the teaching in the regular teaching group full-time as soon as possible. It is not allowed for a student to attend all his or her time in a preparatory class and a student may not attend a preparatory class for more than two years. Schools are not required to set up preparatory classes and usually there are only preparatory classes in those schools that have a high intake of new arrivals over time.

The number of newly arrived pupils in compulsory school has increased significantly in recent years.

Number of newly immigrated pupils and pupils with unknown background in compulsory school academic years 2008/09 - 2018/19



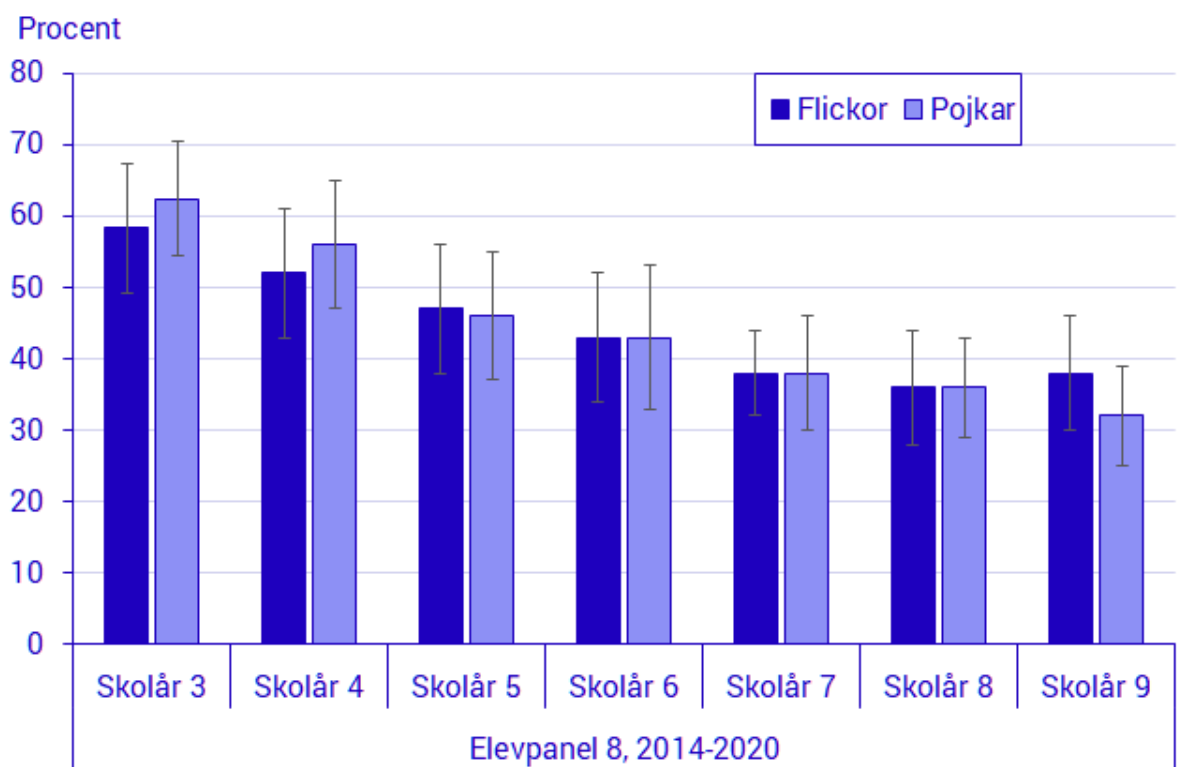
The subject Swedish as a second language

In Sweden, you can study Swedish as a second language, which is based on a second language perspective, in primary and secondary school instead of the subject Swedish. Students can study Swedish as a second language if they:

- Have a language other than Swedish as their mother tongue.
- Have Swedish as their mother tongue and have been admitted from schools abroad.
- Have Swedish as their main language of contact with a guardian.

Students in these groups do not study Swedish as a second language automatically, but only if they need it. It is the principal of the school who formally decides whether a pupil should receive instruction in Swedish as a second language. Pupils can switch from Swedish as a second language to Swedish at any time during their schooling and vice versa. Today, about 13% of all pupils in compulsory school study Swedish as a second language. The number has doubled in the last 10 years

Share of foreign born pupils with teaching in Swedish as a second language by sex and school year, 2014-2020



How the teaching of Swedish as a second language is organised is up to each school. There is no formal obstacle to teaching being organised in such a way that pupils who study Swedish as a second language and Swedish are taught in a single class.

In adult education, a student can study Swedish as a second language if they want to study compulsory school or upper secondary school and have a mother tongue other than Swedish.

Mother tongue teaching

In Sweden, you also have the right to mother tongue tuition under certain circumstances.

Mother tongue teaching gives pupils with a mother tongue other than Swedish the opportunity to study their mother tongue as a subject in school. The purpose of the teaching is to give the student the opportunity to develop knowledge in and about his or her language. A well-developed mother tongue provides good conditions for learning Swedish, other languages and other subjects.

The head teacher decides on a pupil's mother tongue tuition in the compulsory forms of school, upper secondary school and special needs upper secondary school.

Pupils in compulsory school, special needs compulsory school, special school and Sami school shall be offered instruction in mother tongue that is not a national minority language if:

- One or both guardians have a language other than Swedish as their mother tongue
- Language is the pupil's daily language of interaction at home
- The pupil has a basic knowledge of the language.

The principal is only obliged to arrange mother tongue tuition in a language if:

- There are at least five pupils entitled to instruction in that language
- These pupils want to be taught the language
- There is a suitable teacher.

Pupils who belong to one of the national minorities have a stronger right to mother tongue education than other pupils. There is no requirement that the language should be the pupil's daily social language or that the pupil should have any knowledge of the language.

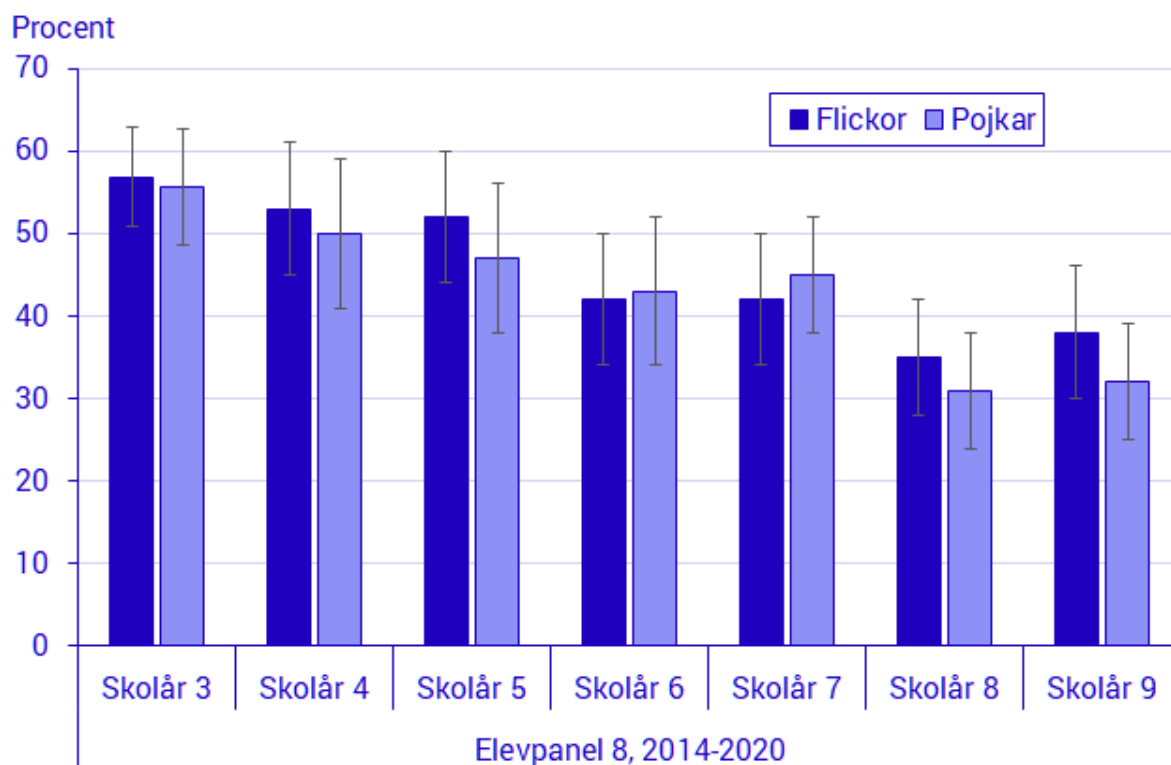
The national minority languages are Finnish, Yiddish, Meänkieli, Romani and Sami.

The principal is obliged to arrange mother tongue tuition in these languages if:

- A student wants to be taught
- There is a suitable teacher.

Share of foreign-born pupils who participated in mother tongue education, by sex and school year,

2014–2020



Study guidance in the mother tongue

According to the Education Act, pupils who do not master the Swedish language sufficiently to be able to follow the lessons have the right to study guidance in their mother tongue. There is no regulation on the extent to which this should be done, and for many pupils it is about one hour a week.

Foreign language

All pupils in Swedish schools begin studying English in year three at the latest.

By year six, pupils also begin to study a foreign language. All schools must offer at least two of the modern languages German, Spanish and French. Instead of a modern language, a student can, if the conditions are right, choose to study their mother tongue, Swedish or Swedish as a second language, English or sign language.

5.2. Key factors for successful education for bilingual children in Sweden

Factors that enable knowledge development/successful education for bilingual children are knowledge and understanding of translanguageing and that educators who teach children work based on a language and knowledge development approach. In Sweden, it is advocated that teachers teach based on a language and knowledge development approach, which is the Swedish National Agency for Education and the National Centre for Swedish as a Second Language. A language and knowledge development approach means:

- High-quality teaching that gives pupils with different experiences and linguistic backgrounds equal opportunities to develop and learn all subjects in school.
- The teacher uses language consciously and in a structured way, partly as a tool for learning where pupils can converse, read, write, but also where language learning is an end in itself.
- Students need to be challenged to use language in meaningful contexts. Meaningful contexts mean, among other things, that the pupils are allowed to use a language that is
- Teaching should not be simplified for pupils with a mother tongue other than Swedish, but rather expectations and the level should be raised both linguistically and subject-wise. It is important to keep in mind that the students receive good support due to the high expectations so that the students develop an understanding of the different subjects and school work.
- Language and knowledge development teaching means that you read and write a lot, but above all you should talk a lot about the subject content that the students will read and so on.
- The teacher needs to use visual support where he/she, in addition to telling the story, also shows what is expected of the students.
- Students should be given plenty of practice before they are assessed.
- When teaching is planned based on a language and knowledge development approach, the teacher needs to make an inventory of pupils' prior knowledge and experience to enable the best possible language and knowledge development.

Furthermore, the possibility of study guidance has also proven to be successful. Pupils who are given the opportunity to receive support in their school work with the help of a guidance counsellor find it easier to understand the content of the lessons. With the help of guidance counsellors, pupils in need of support in the Swedish language have the opportunity to develop their knowledge of Swedish, both in everyday language but above all with the school language.

Bilingualism and the use of Swedish in families of foreign origin

Today, Sweden is a multilingual society where up to 150 different languages are spoken. Many people grow up with several mother tongues and the vast majority of people living in Sweden learn more than one language at some point in their lifetime. For example, according to Eurobarometer (2012), 86 percent of the Swedish population can speak English and about 40 percent state that they speak it very well and use it daily.

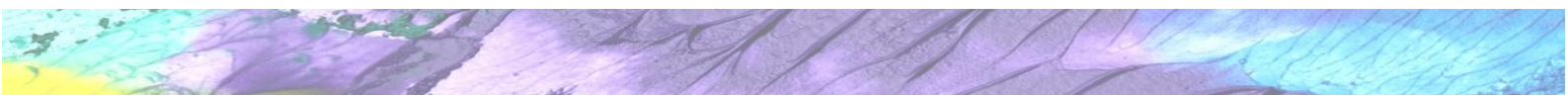
There are no official statistics on how many pupils in Swedish schools speak Swedish at home. But in 2021, Sweden participated in PIRLS, an international knowledge survey that addresses reading ability and attitudes to reading in grade 4. It can be seen that almost half of the students who participated from Sweden (47%) spoke a language other than Swedish at home. This is an increase of 16% compared to 2016.

In Sweden, bilingualism is encouraged and parents with a different mother tongue are encouraged by, among others, the Swedish National Agency for Education to speak the language they master best with their child because it contributes best to the child's language development. However, studies show that many children in bilingual families often want to speak Swedish at home and that most bilingual pupils both read and write better in Swedish than in their mother tongue.

Socio-economic factors, families of foreign origin

Studies in Sweden show that socioeconomic factors play a major role in how well students succeed in school. Pupils with a foreign background often have worse conditions than pupils with a Swedish background. For example, schools with less favourable socio-economic backgrounds have, on average, fewer qualified teachers. Despite several measures in recent years, such as extra salary increases for teachers in vulnerable areas, this has not been reversed. In recent years, it has been seen that the socio-economic background of pupils has become increasingly important for pupils' grade results. In recent years, foreign-born pupils have found it more difficult to achieve good school results as the age of immigration has risen and the socio-economic status of their parents has deteriorated. The socio-economic background has also become more important for pupils with a Swedish background, but the increase is significantly smaller than for foreign-born pupils.

Of the socio-economic background factors, the parents' level of education has the greatest impact on the results of grades. The importance of the level of education has not really increased over time, but on the other hand, the parents' income has become more important and



appears to be the central explanation for the increased importance of socioeconomic background for the grade results.

In Sweden, pupils from the second half of the 2000s have also been increasingly divided between schools based on socio-economic background and whether the pupils have some form of foreign background.

5.3. Models for the education of children with a mother tongue other than Swedish

Training with full immersion in the official language.

Traditional teaching is often based on the assumption that newly arrived pupils should learn Swedish first and then take on other subjects.

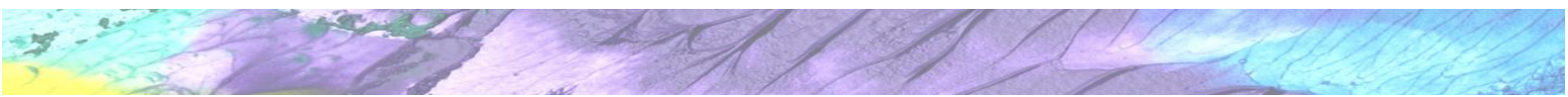
It takes an average of five years for a student to become so good at Swedish that they can assimilate all the subjects in school in their new language in a satisfactory way. During that time, students risk stalling in their knowledge and language development as well as developing low self-esteem and a sense of alienation, which can affect success in school for many years to come. In Sweden, the Swedish National Agency for Education instead highlights other methods for language learning, where students are also allowed to use their home language.

Teaching Swedish as a second language

The Swedish National Agency for Education has conducted a study on the teaching of Swedish as a second language. The subject of Swedish as a second language was introduced as a separate subject in compulsory school and also in the entire school system in 1995. The fact that Swedish as a second language was introduced as a separate subject in schools means that it has the same status as all other school subjects and should not be conducted as a form of remedial teaching. In 1997, it was also introduced that grades in Swedish as a second language are equal to grades in Swedish for admission to upper secondary schools, universities and colleges.

The purpose of the study is to increase the knowledge of how different schools around Sweden work with Swedish as a second language.

What emerges from the study is, among other things, that the teaching of Swedish as a second language is not equal around Sweden. It differs in several areas, ranging from how to



assess who needs to study Swedish as a second language to how students are assessed in the subject when it comes to grading. The majority of schools in Sweden do not have teachers in Swedish as a second language, which means that pupils with a need for the subject have to study "normal" Swedish.

The study also shows that newly arrived pupils do not receive equal education in Swedish as a second language because of how the syllabus is designed and formulated. Teachers believe that the syllabus does not take into account students with no or low prior knowledge of Swedish, which makes it difficult to assess students based on the syllabus's goals and grading criteria.

Separate teaching of Swedish and mother tongue

In Swedish schools, under certain conditions, you have the right to mother tongue instruction and study guidance in your mother tongue if you have Swedish as your second language. Mother tongue tuition often takes place outside of school hours, while study guidance takes place during the pupil's regular school day. Often it is one hour of mother tongue and/or one hour of study guidance per week.

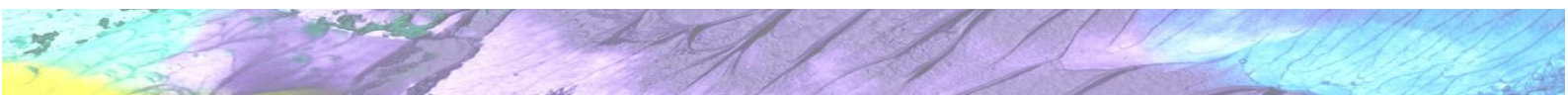
In order for the extra teaching in mother tongue and/or study guidance to give the best possible results, it is important that there are opportunities for cooperation between regular teachers and teachers of mother tongue/study counsellors.

This is an area where the National Agency for Education has identified that there are opportunities for improvement in today's schools.

Translanguaging

Translingual teaching means that teachers work strategically to use all the pupils' languages in teaching. The teacher in the classroom does not need to know all the languages themselves, but allows the students to use all their linguistic resources. For example, pupils can talk to each other in their mother tongue, work in language groups or first write in their mother tongue and then translate into Swedish. Many teachers have also developed the use of digital tools in order to increase the participation of those students who are the only speakers of a language. By using their mother tongue, pupils can have better opportunities for understanding while increasing their self-confidence and willingness and opportunity to participate.

Translingualism is a relatively new concept in schools in Sweden, which has received increasing attention in recent years. Several studies have been carried out in Swedish multicultural schools showing that children and young people who come to Sweden should be



able to continue to use their mother tongue, interspersed with Swedish, in order to be able to absorb the teaching in the best way.

In research on language development, four areas of importance for multilingual pupils' opportunities for school success are highlighted: identity development, knowledge development, literacy development and collaboration with guardians.

The curriculum for elementary school in Sweden states that language, learning and identity development are closely linked and that one of the school's tasks is to create a secure identity. When it comes to identity development, it can be seen that translanguingual education has a major positive impact. Studies have shown that affirming cultural and linguistic diversity is a prerequisite for positive identity development. In order for multilingual people to feel affirmed as the multilingual and multicultural individuals they are, it is important that they are allowed to use all their languages in teaching.

Studies in Sweden have shown that children and young people who are allowed to continue using all their languages in school cope better with the knowledge requirements - in all subjects, including Swedish.

5.4. Data and results

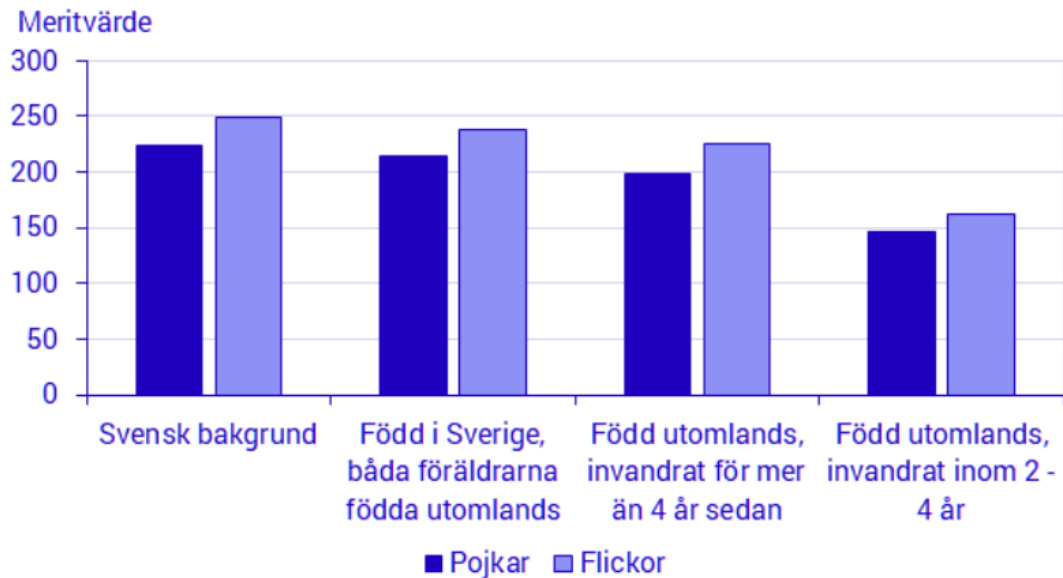
How well students perform in school depends on many different factors. In Sweden, researchers have identified social background, gender and ethnicity as individual factors that affect a student's educational outcome.

When it comes to social background, it can be seen that the parents' educational background has a great impact as well as their expectations and ambitions for their children. How involved they are in school work and how well they know the "school language" also has an impact. Pupils with a foreign background often have worse conditions than pupils with a Swedish background. Their parents often have lower education and lower incomes, and have not always attended Swedish schools themselves. The housing situation may also look different compared to pupils with a Swedish background.

Gender is another, very clear, individual factor that affects school success in Swedish schools. Girls generally get better grades than boys, regardless of their background. Girls with a foreign background who have attended a Swedish school for more than four years perform better as a group than boys of Swedish origin.

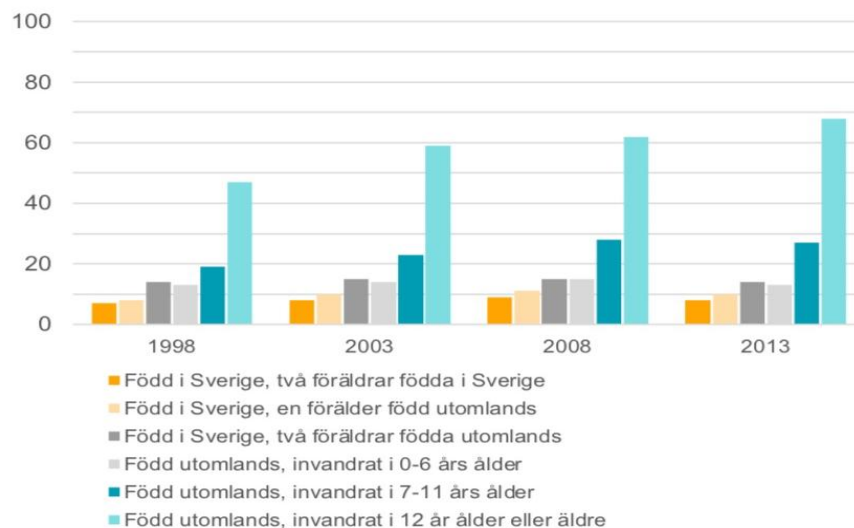


Pupils who received final grades from grade 9, 2016-2018



The school results of pupils with a foreign background vary depending on whether they were born in Sweden, have lived in Sweden for a long time or have recently immigrated. The age at which language learning takes place is considered to be the most crucial factor for how pupils with a foreign background achieve the goals in Swedish schools.

Proportion of ineligible students for upper secondary school in year 9 by born in Sweden/foreign born persons and length of stay in Sweden.



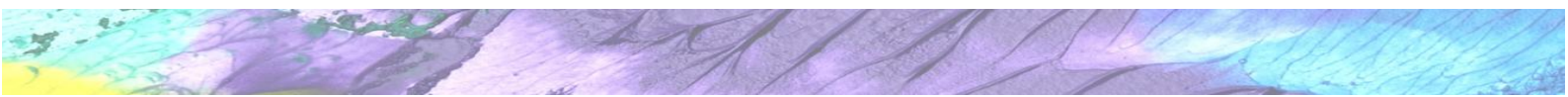
Chapter 6. Key factors for successful bilingual child education in Turkey

6.1. Introduction and contextual overview

The forces of globalization, technological advancements, and the dynamics of human migration have rendered interactions among individuals from diverse national and cultural backgrounds nearly unavoidable. As of 2017, the global landscape saw 260 million individuals residing outside their native countries, 1.3 billion instances of international tourism, and approximately 5 million students pursuing higher education abroad. (OECD, 2018) These figures have shown a consistent upward trend in recent years; (OECD, 2018; UNWTO, 2019). The realm of international commerce, encompassing both goods and services, significantly contributes to more than half of the worldwide GDP (World Bank, 2019). In light of these developments, mastering multiple languages has become a necessity for a vast number of individuals to facilitate communication and interaction across cultural divides. Educational frameworks across various nations are evolving to meet this linguistic challenge, with an increasing focus on the acquisition and teaching of foreign languages. English, in particular, has emerged as the predominant foreign language within educational policies and learning environments.

The process of learning languages extends beyond enhancing communicative abilities; it serves as a pathway to understanding the vast diversity of human cultures and languages. Language education enables individuals to explore and connect with different cultures, broaden their cultural sensitivity, and grasp the complexity of various societal values (Curtain and Dahlberg, 2004; Gudykunst, 2003; Marian and Shook, 2012). Learners of foreign languages come to realize the limitations of translatability, fostering an appreciation for the diverse perspectives through which the world is viewed and comprehended. Moreover, acquiring a foreign language can lead to the discovery of one's cultural and personal identity from alternative cultural viewpoints. By emphasizing communication with individuals outside one's linguistic community, foreign language education promotes intercultural communicative skills and plays a crucial role in citizenship education. Such education is vital for fostering an understanding of various cultures and worldviews, a prerequisite for active engagement in a globalized society. The Council of Europe recognizes linguistic, communicative, and plurilingual competencies as among the eight essential skills for fostering democratic cultures (Council of Europe, 2020).

General competencies, which encompass an individual's knowledge of the world and their capacity and willingness to learn, are intrinsically linked to non-linguistic factors that significantly influence language acquisition. In discussing the language learning experiences of immigrant children, two critical concepts emerge: reception and interaction. These concepts are integral to communication and the construction of knowledge. For an immigrant child in a foreign country, initial communication typically occurs within the family unit, followed by



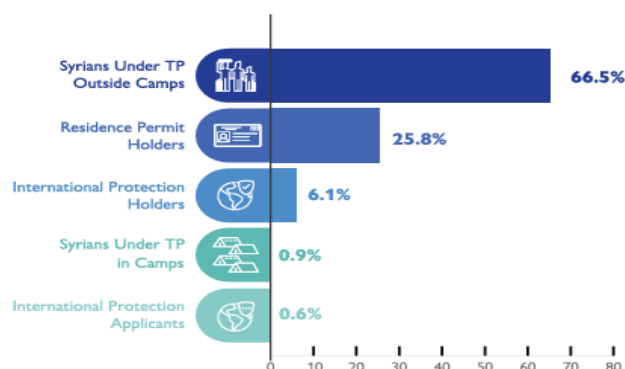
interactions with peers at school. Thus, the inclusion of foreign language students in daily activities at home and school is imperative for effective language learning.

The inherent multilingualism of Europe and its individual Member States within the Council of Europe constitutes a pivotal characteristic that is integral to the formulation of social policy across the continent. Consequently, the formulation and execution of language education policies emerge as critical components of social strategy, aimed particularly at fostering inclusivity and a collective sense of democratic citizenship among European populations. Therefore, the discourse surrounding language teaching and its acquisition transcends mere pedagogical considerations, aligning more closely with the strategic imperatives of language education policy. The spectrum of policy responses to multilingualism encompasses a dichotomy of strategies: those advocating for the diminution of linguistic diversity and those supporting its preservation and enhancement. These strategies are advocated under the auspices of augmenting international mobility, facilitating mutual linguistic understanding (intercomprehension), and stimulating economic growth. The Council of Europe, along with its member states, advocates for the latter approach, emphasizing the promotion of linguistic diversity as a cornerstone of language education policy. This stance is predicated not only on the benefits of mobility, intercomprehension, and economic advancement but also on the imperative to safeguard European cultural heritage, within which linguistic diversity plays a crucial role.

Thus, the agenda extends beyond the mere development or conservation of languages to encompass the empowerment of European citizens through the enhancement of their linguistic competencies. Language education, therefore, is conceptualized as the cultivation of individual linguistic proficiency—a comprehensive understanding of languages that transcends utilitarian or professional objectives to include an education in respecting linguistic diversity and the languages of others. Language education policies, hence, should advocate for the acquisition of multiple languages by all individuals throughout their lifetimes, enabling Europeans to evolve into plurilingual and intercultural citizens. This evolution is essential for ensuring that Europeans are equipped to engage comprehensively with fellow Europeans across all facets of life, embodying the ideals of a truly inclusive and linguistically diverse society.

6.2. Ethnic and Linguistic Diversity in Turkey

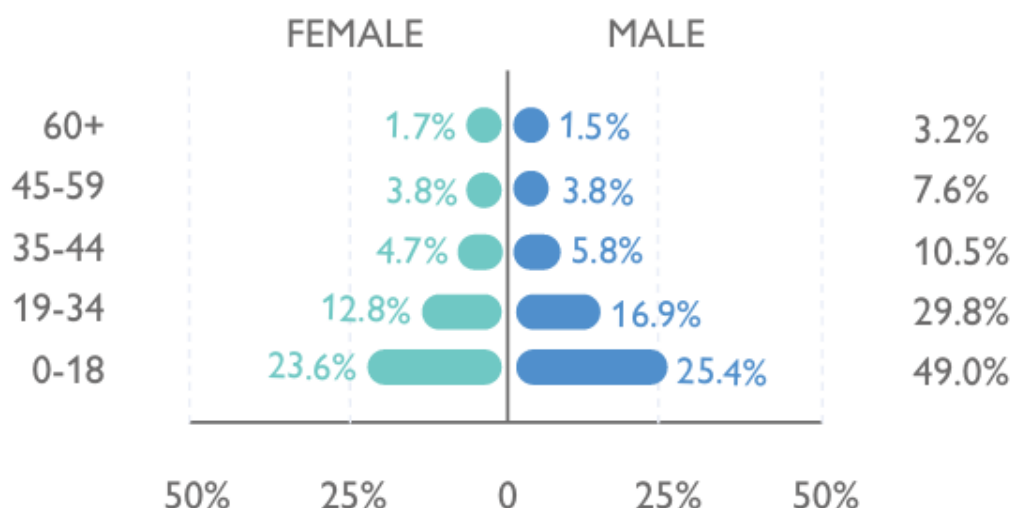
Legal Status of the Foreign Nationals Present in Turkish Territory



Source: MPM TÜRKİYE Annual Report 2022

Figure Above indicates Syrians who reside in Turkey due to the war. One of the results of this war affects enormously children. Below figure shows a percentages of Syrian immigrants.

Demographic Breakdown of Biometrically Registered Syrians



Source: MPM TÜRKİYE Annual Report 2022

Nearly half of these immigrants from Syria are between the ages of 0-18. This fact underlines the importance of both native and second language education. Not only Syrians but many other nationalities are present in Turkey. Figure below sheds light on the numbers and the need for considering language education in priority.

An Examination of Turkey: Influential Factors on Language Acquisition Amidst Ethnic Diversity

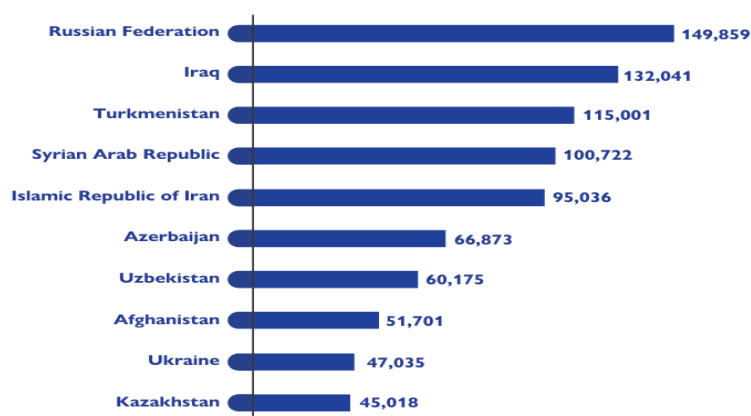
In the discourse on ethnic diversity within Eastern and Central Europe, Turkey's intricate cultural and linguistic landscape merits significant attention. This complexity engenders both challenges and opportunities for bilingual education, as a multitude of minority languages exist in tandem with Turkish, the official language of the nation. Turkey is distinguished by its rich assortment of ethnic and linguistic communities, which enrich its cultural fabric. Although Turkish predominates, spoken by approximately 90% of the populace, there exists a notable presence of significant minority languages, including but not limited to Kurdish, Arabic, Laz, Circassian, and Armenian. Turkey has undertaken considerable efforts to acknowledge and safeguard minority rights, inclusive of linguistic rights. The ratification of the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages in 2008 stands as a testament to Turkey's commitment to the protection and promotion of minority languages, offering enhanced safeguards, particularly within the realms of education, governance, and media.

Recent data from the Turkish Presidency of Migration Management (PMM) indicates the presence of over 5.2 million foreign nationals within Turkey's borders, with 3.9 million seeking international protection. Predominantly, these are Syrians (3,535,898 individuals), who have been accorded temporary protection status in Türkiye. A notable decrease in the number of Syrian nationals has been observed, with a reduction of 201,471 individuals from the previous year. As of the end of 2022, the PMM reported 33,246 international protection applicants, primarily from Afghanistan, Iraq, and Ukraine, further diversifying the foreign national demographic seeking humanitarian and legal protection in Turkey.

The year 2017 witnessed Turkey registering approximately 466,000 new immigrants, as per official statistics from TurkStat, with foreign nationals constituting 364,600 of this figure. This period saw a decrease in the influx of Turkish citizens by 5,300 individuals, contrasted with an increase of 90,700 in foreign citizen arrivals. Notably, over 50% of these foreign arrivals were male, compared to approximately 58% among Turkish immigrants. The demographic of international students in Turkish universities has seen a rapid increase, reaching 125,000 in the 2017/18 academic year, marking a 16% rise from the previous year and quintupling the figure recorded at the start of the 2010s. Syria has emerged as the leading country of origin since the 2016/17 academic year, with one in six international students being Syrian (20,700) in the 2017/18 academic year. Following Syria, Azerbaijan and Turkmenistan are significant contributors to the international student body, with 17,000 and 12,000 students, respectively, and a notable sixfold increase in German students since the 2016/17 academic year, totaling 4,000 in 2017/18.

Furthermore, Turkey's role as both a destination and departure point for migrants is underscored by its dynamic immigration and emigration patterns, as well as its adjustments to citizenship-by-investment schemes, which have implications for the nation's demographic and linguistic landscape. This multifaceted scenario presents a unique context for examining the factors influencing language acquisition and the complexities of implementing bilingual education strategies within a nation characterized by profound ethnic and linguistic diversity.

Top 10 Nationality Groups for Residence Permit Holders



Source: MPM TÜRKİYE Annual Report 2022

As mentioned earlier, Turkey has a very specific geographical location between Asia and Europe even Africa. Figure explicates the countries that chose Turkey as destination country

Main Countries of Origin for RP Holders in Türkiye for 2022



Source: PMM, 31.12.2022

Note: This map is for illustration purposes only. The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by IOM.

Social and Cultural Background of Immigrants or Newcomers to Turkey

In a very brief explanation there are different foreign population in Turkey with different reasons:

1. Resident Permit obtainers thru investment or realestate
2. Marriage
3. Moving from colder climate to hot ones
4. Tourism
5. Economic reasons
6. Disasters (wars, holocost, natural disaster, etc)
7. Better life standarts
8. Education
9. Religious reacons
10. Brain drain

The total number of reasons can be hundreds if one to one interviews conducted, every migration case has its own history behind. Every history has different economic story. For instance, an Arab sheik buys an expensive resident or a land then becomes a resident whilst a war survivor passes the border with no shoe.

6.3. Overview of second language teaching in Turkey

Turkey has a compulsory education system lasting twelve years. Students typically start primary school at the age of six, attending preschool classes beforehand. After completing the eighth grade, students can opt to continue their education at a high (Lysium) school. Approximately 85% of Turkish youth proceed directly to high school after completing the eighth grade. For newly arrived students who do not meet the requirements for secondary school, there is a language introduction program designed to provide them with the necessary foundational knowledge. A significant portion of students in Turkish schools today have a foreign background, either being born abroad or born in Turkey to parents of foreign origin.

New Arrivals:

In Turkey, students are considered newcomers during their initial four years of schooling if they begin school after the regular start date in the first grade. Asylum seeker children must be enrolled in school no later than one month after arrival. Upon enrollment, students undergo an assessment of their knowledge to determine their appropriate grade level and whether they require an individualized study plan.

To support newly arrived students, some schools offer preparatory classes where students can receive part of their instruction while also being integrated into regular classes. The goal of these preparatory classes is to equip students with the necessary skills to fully participate in regular classes as soon as possible. However, students are not permitted to attend preparatory classes exclusively, and the duration of attendance is limited to two years. The number of newly arrived students in compulsory schools has seen a significant increase in recent years.

The Subject Turkish as a Second Language:

In Turkey, students have the option to study Turkish as a second language, which is based on a second language perspective, instead of the standard Turkish language subject. This option is available to students who have a mother tongue other than Turkish, have been educated in schools abroad, or primarily use Turkish with a guardian. Enrollment in Turkish as a second language is not automatic and is determined by the school principal based on the student's needs. Students can switch between Turkish as a second language and standard Turkish during their schooling. Currently, approximately 13% of all compulsory school students in Turkey study Turkish as a second language, a number that has doubled over the past decade.

Mother Tongue Teaching:

In Turkey, students also have the right to mother tongue instruction under certain conditions. Mother tongue instruction allows students with a mother tongue other than Turkish to study their language as a subject in school, aiming to develop their language skills and knowledge. The decision to provide mother tongue instruction is made by the school principal,

with specific criteria for eligibility. Additionally, students belonging to national minority groups, such as Kurds, Arabs, or Circassians, have a stronger right to mother tongue education.

Study Guidance in Mother Tongue:

Officials have a great debate related to students who do not sufficiently master Turkish have the right to study guidance in their mother tongue or not. While the extent of this guidance is not regulated by the rules, it typically amounts to about one hour per week for many students. There is a tendency that supports mother tongue at home turkish at school.

Foreign Language Instruction:

All students in Turkish schools begin studying English by the second grade at the latest. However, there are private schools where language education starts earlier and in some cases third language is in their curriculum. By the ninth grade, students also begin studying a second foreign language, with schools required to offer options such as German, French, or others. Alternatively, students may choose to study their mother tongue, Turkish, Turkish as a second language, English, or sign language. There are also schools named Islamic Divinity High Schools in which students learn arabic to be proficient in religious terms

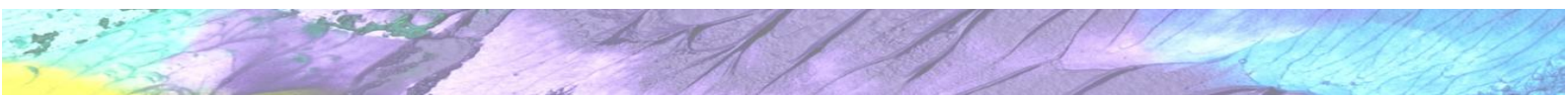
Key Factors for Successful Education for Bilingual Children in Turkey:

Successful education for bilingual children in Turkey is facilitated by a comprehensive understanding of translanguageing and the adoption of a language and knowledge development approach by educators. This approach emphasizes high-quality teaching that provides equal opportunities for students of diverse linguistic backgrounds, challenging students to use language in meaningful contexts, and maintaining high expectations for both language and subject learning.

Models for the Education of Children with a Mother Tongue Other Than Turkish:

In areas with concentrated minority populations, schools may offer instruction primarily in the minority language, with a focus on teaching Turkish as a second language. This model emphasizes cultural preservation alongside language acquisition. Some schools incorporate intercultural education, fostering mutual respect and understanding among diverse communities. This approach integrates elements of minority cultures into the curriculum to combat stereotypes and promote inclusivity

Several models exist for the education of children with a mother tongue other than Turkish in Turkey, including full immersion in the official language, teaching Turkish as a second language, separate teaching of Turkish and mother tongue, and the practice of translanguageing. Each model has its benefits and challenges, requiring collaboration between educators and policymakers to ensure effective implementation and support for bilingual



students. This approach is followed by foreign schools operating in Turkey. For instance in Antalya province there is a Russian School established due to Russia-Ukraine war where official language of teaching is Russian and Turkish, German, and English are as second languages.

Also, classes with Intensive Turkish Language Instruction to facilitate the integration of students with diverse linguistic backgrounds, schools may offer intensive Turkish language classes. These programs aim to develop students' proficiency in Turkish, essential for social and professional integration such as TÖMER (Turkish Teaching Center).

In conclusion, successful bilingual education in Turkey requires a multifaceted approach, encompassing legislative support, diverse educational models, and efforts to address challenges such as resource limitations and societal attitudes. By valuing linguistic diversity and fostering inclusive educational environments, Turkey can empower its diverse communities and promote social cohesion.

6.4. Conclusion

In an era marked by unprecedented global migration, the management of multilingual classrooms presents both challenges and opportunities for educational systems worldwide. This article delves into the intricate dynamics of multilingual education, with a specific focus on Turkey's response to the linguistic diversity prevalent in its immigrant student population. Through a thorough review of existing literature, educational policies, and empirical evidence, this study examines the role of advanced digital technologies in mitigating linguistic barriers and fostering language acquisition among immigrant students. By analyzing Turkey's multifaceted strategies and initiatives, this article provides valuable insights into the effective integration of digital tools in multilingual classrooms, thereby contributing to the ongoing discourse on innovative approaches to language education in diverse sociocultural contexts.

In order for better language acquisition there are some caveats to keep in mind.

1. Needs Assessment:

Conduct a comprehensive needs assessment to understand the linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds of immigrant children entering Turkish schools.

Identify the languages spoken by immigrant children, their proficiency levels in Turkish, and any specific learning needs they may have.

2. Utilize Digital Language Learning Platforms:

Integrate digital language learning platforms that support Turkish language acquisition for immigrant children.

Choose platforms with multilingual support and interactive features to facilitate language learning in a dynamic and engaging manner.

3. Implement Blended Learning Models:

Adopt a blended learning approach that combines traditional classroom instruction with digital resources.

Use online tutorials, educational videos, and interactive exercises to supplement classroom teaching and provide additional practice opportunities for Turkish language acquisition.

4. Promote Collaborative Learning:

Encourage collaborative learning among immigrant children and their Turkish peers through digital collaboration tools.

Facilitate language exchange activities where immigrant children can practice Turkish with native speakers and vice versa.

5. Incorporate Culturally Relevant Content:

Integrate culturally relevant content into the curriculum to foster cultural understanding and appreciation among all students.

Use digital resources, such as videos, articles, and multimedia materials, that reflect the diverse cultural backgrounds of both Turkish and immigrant children.

6. Provide Differentiated Instruction:

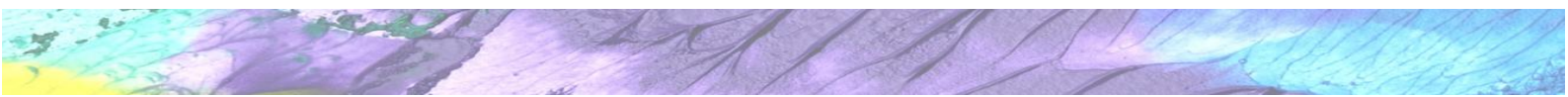
Offer differentiated instruction tailored to the language proficiency levels and learning needs of immigrant children.

Use digital tools to provide individualized support, adaptive learning pathways, and personalized feedback to help immigrant children succeed academically.

7. Ensure Accessibility and Equity:

Ensure that digital resources and technologies are accessible to all students, including immigrant children with diverse linguistic and technological backgrounds.

Provide training and support for teachers to effectively use digital tools and accommodate the needs of immigrant children in the classroom.



8. Assess Learning Outcomes:

Use digital assessment tools and techniques to assess the language proficiency and academic progress of immigrant children.

Employ formative assessments, quizzes, and performance-based tasks to monitor learning outcomes and provide targeted support as needed.

9. Professional Development for Teachers:

Offer professional development opportunities for teachers to enhance their skills in multicultural education and language teaching.

Provide training on culturally responsive pedagogy, effective strategies for teaching Turkish as a second language, and the integration of digital technologies in language instruction.

10. Continuous Improvement and Reflection:

Continuously evaluate the effectiveness of the methodology in supporting the integration and academic success of immigrant children.

Solicit feedback from teachers, students, and parents to identify areas for improvement and refine the approach over time.

By implementing these mentioned above, the Turkish Republic can effectively address the needs of immigrant children in its schools, promote their language acquisition and academic success, and foster an inclusive learning environment that celebrates linguistic and cultural diversity. Overall, Turkey's strategic geographical location, relative stability, economic opportunities, access to services, and liberal migration policies contribute to its attractiveness as a destination for immigrants and refugees seeking safety, security, and better prospects for themselves and their families. According to the latest available figures from the Turkish Presidency of Migration Management (PMM), there are more than 5.1 million foreign nationals present in Türkiye, 3.8 million of whom are seeking international protection. Most are Syrians (3,435,298- individuals) who have been granted temporary protection status. In addition, international protection holders from countries including Iraq, Afghanistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran constitute another group of foreign nationals.

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