OECD Reviews of Migrant Education

Closing the Gap for Immigrant Students

POLICIES, PRACTICE AND PERFORMANCE

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Foreword

This publication is intended to be a quick reference guide for policy makers in the process of policy design and implementation in different settings for immigrant students. It presents facts, policy issues, good practices and lessons learned about the education of immigrant students.

To be a practical guide, this publication focuses on actions rather than theories or ideologies and presents concrete examples of country practices on key policy issues. The examples are mainly drawn from the experience of policy makers and practitioners of the countries which participated in the OECD policy review of migrant education (*i.e.* Austria, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden). Additional examples are drawn from other OECD countries with a long history of immigration and with accumulated experiences of adjusting education policy for immigrant students.

In reading country examples, there are a couple of points that should be borne in mind. First, what works in one country may not necessarily work in others, especially on this highly political and sensitive topic, along with different compositions and sizes of immigrant populations. This should be taken into account in considering the effectiveness of these country examples. Second, many of the country examples have been launched recently and very little evaluation has been carried out to examine their effectiveness. Third, these examples are only part of the examples collected in the project. Additional country examples can be found online at *www.oecd.org/edu/migration/policytools*.

The materials included in the publication were prepared by the OECD Migrant Education Policy Review Team under the guidance of Deborah Roseveare, Head of the Education and Training Policy Division, Directorate for Education, OECD. The team was led by Miho Taguma with members – Moonhee Kim, Deborah Nusche, Claire Shewbridge and Gregory Wurzburg. Administrative assistance was provided by Kelly Makowiecki. Elke Lüdemann, Janna Teltemann and Sunhwa Jang assisted with the statistical analysis in Chapter 2. Esther Cho assisted with mapping the country examples collected in the project.

The national co-ordinators of the countries opting for a country review have been a key source of information for this publication, notably they managed the completion of country surveys and the organisation of country visits. They provided abundant information on which to build a knowledge base with promising country examples and policy lessons. The Group of National Experts set up for this review also helped steer the development of this publication.

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See also OECD (2010), "Closing the Gap for Immigrant Students – Policy Tools" website, available at *www.oecd.edu/migration/policytools*. This site includes detailed lists of migrant education policy examples by the following policy areas: Language Support; Teaching and Learning Environments; Parental and Community Involvement; Managing Variations and Concentration; Funding Strategies for Migrant Education; and Monitoring and Evaluation.

Executive Summary

Immigrant students often face tougher challenges than others in achieving good education outcomes and they have diverse needs.

Net migration to OECD countries has tripled since 1960. Today, immigrant students comprise 10 to 20% of the student population in many OECD countries. Some countries have long histories of immigration; others have experienced an unprecedented increase in the last decade. Immigration is a local phenomenon, and there are large variations in the geographic distribution of immigrant students; however, teaching immigrant students is becoming an important part of the reality facing teachers every day.

With some exceptions, immigrant students, on average, have weaker education outcomes at all levels of education. They often have more restricted access to quality education; are less likely to participate in pre-primary education; more prone to drop out before completing upper secondary; more apt to have lower academic scores; and more likely to attend schools with peers from less advantaged backgrounds. But immigrant students are not homogeneous. In all of the review countries, there were immigrants representing close to or more than a hundred languages. Students who speak a language at home other than the language of instruction face different problems from those who do not. In some countries, older immigrant students arriving at a later stage in their education do not have the same experience as younger immigrants. In other countries, second-generation immigrant students, though born in the country, still face particular challenges; and there may be a performance gap between them and native students.

Performance gaps between immigrant and native students are largely explained by language barriers and socio-economic differences.

The differences in language spoken at home and socio-economic background account for a large part of the performance gap between native and immigrant students. This indicates that immigrant students would benefit from language-centric policies and policies targeting more broadly less socio-economically advantaged students. However, even after accounting for these two factors, significant performance gaps still remain. This highlights the need for targeted support measures for immigrant students as part of a larger equity scheme. Other factors associated with better educational performance for immigrant students include: participation in early childhood education and care, early home reading activities, more hours for learning language at school, educational resources at home, a more advantaged school average socio-economic composition, and school accountability measures.

Migrant education policy involves complex interactions of discrete policy tools that need to be well-co-ordinated.

Governments typically use eight tools to steer migrant education policy at the national, regional and/or local level:

1) setting explicit policy goals for immigrant students within broader education policy goals;
2) setting regulations and legislation;
3) designing effective funding strategies;
4) establishing standards, qualifications and qualifications framework;
5) establishing curricula, guidelines and pedagogy;
6) building capacity (especially training and teacher support);
7) raising awareness, communication and dissemination;
8) monitoring, research, evaluation and feedback.

Effective alignment of these discrete steering tools is required for maximum effect of migrant education policy. For effective implementation, it is essential to recognise "heterogeneity" among immigrant students; take a holistic approach and shared responsibility at all levels and among all key stakeholders; and find the right balance between universal measures for all students and targeted measures for immigrant students.

School capacity needs strengthening in language teaching, diversity training for teachers and school leaders, and school-home co-operation.

Dealing with diversity is a longstanding challenge for some early childhood education and care institutions and schools and is relatively new for others. School leaders and teachers often do not feel qualified or sufficiently supported to teach students with multi-cultural, bilingual and diverse learning needs. In order to close the achievement gap, institutional changes must be made at the school level, including changes in language teaching, school leadership, teaching methodologies and school-home co-operation.

Proficiency in the language of instruction is a major tool and precondition for learning. It is essential that school practice is guided by an explicit coherent language policy that is informed by research and adapted to the different levels of the education system. Teachers and school leaders need to establish a positive school and classroom climate that treats diversity as a resource rather than an obstacle for successful teaching and learning. With a whole-school approach, support for immigrant students should be provided not only in specialised courses but in an integrated way across the curriculum and throughout all-school and after-school activities. Schools should develop new ways of communicating and collaborating so as to better engage immigrant parents and communities in school activities. Parental and community involvement can influence students in the classroom as well as students' learning environments at home.

System level policies need to manage concentration within schools and localities, funding strategies, and monitoring and evaluation.

Immigrant students may experience different educational opportunities depending on where they live and which school they attend. Policies at all levels of the education system need to ensure that the same quantity and quality of language and other targeted support is consistently offered to immigrant students. Review countries have made significant efforts to improve system management, and it appears that these have some beneficial effects. Challenges include managing variations and concentration; effective funding strategies; and monitoring and evaluation. Progress will be beneficial for native students as well.

It is crucial to ensure more consistent provision of educational support and manage the opportunities and challenges that arise in particular areas or schools with large concentrations of immigrant students. This requires strong political leadership; accountability; sharing good practices among municipalities, schools and teachers; and providing sufficient information about the education system and schools among immigrant parents. Funding could be one means to manage inequities by targeting discrete areas, schools or student groups – or in combination – after careful consideration of educational priorities. Monitoring and evaluation could help improve school performance by permitting timely tracking of student outcomes, identifying those who need help, and designing appropriate interventions.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Net migration to OECD countries has tripled since 1960. As an immediate policy challenge, the integration of immigrants into labour markets has become a high priority and a research topic. However, very little research has focused on the integration of immigrant children into school. The OECD policy review of migrant education was launched to compare education outcomes of immigrant students to those of their native peers and, where gaps exist, to determine what actions policy makers could take to close the gaps.

This introduction provides an overview of the project and introduces cross-cutting policy issues. It first explains why the OECD launched the policy review of migrant education. It then introduces eight government tools that are often in use for steering migrant education policy. They are: 1) setting explicit policy goals for immigrant students within broader education policy goals; 2) setting regulations and legislation; 3) designing effective funding strategies; 4) establishing standards, qualifications and qualifications framework; 5) establishing curricula, guidelines and pedagogy; 6) building capacity (especially training and teacher support); 7) raising awareness, communication and dissemination; and 8) monitoring, research, evaluation and feedback.

It also presents the key cross-cutting, general messages, which will set the scene for Chapters 2, 3 and 4. The messages highlight: the importance of paying attention to "heterogeneity" among immigrant students; the significance of a holistic approach and shared responsibility at all levels and among all key stakeholders; and the challenge of finding the right balance between universal measures for all students and targeted measures for immigrant students.

Background

Net migration to OECD countries has tripled since 1960. By 2006, more than 20% of the population in Australia, Canada, Luxembourg, New Zealand and Switzerland was foreign-born, and more than 10% in Austria, Belgium, Ireland, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States (OECD, 2008a). The integration of immigrants into labour markets became the immediate policy priority, with international research undertaken on immigration policy and labour market integration (*e.g.* OECD 2007 and 2008b). However, until recently, there was very little international research focusing on the integration of immigrant children into school (*e.g.* Eurydice, 2004; OECD, 2006).

The challenges and opportunities that increasing migration pose to education policy vary according to country, as the size and composition of the immigrant student population differ. Furthermore, some countries have experienced a sudden inflow over recent years while others have a long standing history of integrating immigrant students into school. In some countries, immigrant students perform better than or the same as their native peers (*e.g.* in Australia, Canada, Ireland and New Zealand). Yet in many other countries, they tend to have more restricted access to quality education, leave school earlier, and have lower academic achievements than their native peers.

Against this background, the OECD carried out a review to compare education outcomes of immigrant students to those of their native peers and, where gaps exist, to determine what actions policy makers could take to close the gaps. The overarching question of the project was: What policies will promote successful education outcomes for first- and second-generation immigrant students?

The review included in-depth policy reviews of six countries – Austria, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden. These countries also prepared Country Background Reports. Other countries – Finland, Hungary, Italy, Korea, Mexico, Spain, Turkey, and the United Kingdom – provided information through a short international questionnaire. The new data and evidence from these countries, combined with findings from literature reviews, statistical data from PISA and other international assessments, as well as other OECD policy reviews form the basis of this publication. All documents delivered by this project are available at *www.oecd.org/edu/migration*.

To ensure synergies with other international initiatives, the project team has been working closely with the European Commission, the Council of Europe and the United Nations for Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). The project complements the Green Paper adopted by the European Commission that addresses how education policies may better respond to the challenges posed by immigration and internal European Union mobility flows as well as the strand on education of the Migrant Integration Policy Index.

Contents

Chapter 2 sets the scene by describing the situation of immigrants in OECD education systems. It first shows how history and economic factors affect migrant education policy, under different country-specific conditions and in different education systems. It then presents an overview of how immigrants fare in school in comparison to their native peers. It also identifies factors that may affect their school performance, which suggest some policy implications.

Chapter 3 analyses the policy issues that are likely to impact on policy and practice at the level of schools and classrooms. The key themes are: language; teaching and learning environment, and pedagogy; school climate, curricula and school leadership; and parental and community involvement.

Chapter 4 analyses policy issues that are best addressed at the system level. The key themes include: managing variations and concentration; funding strategy; and monitoring and evaluation.

In Chapters 3 and 4, policy issues are presented and followed by: a set of questions that policy makers need to consider in addressing these issues; options to improve policies; and some concrete examples of promising policy responses identified in the country reviews and desk-based research. The lists of policy options are not intended as a panacea for all countries: the relevance and priority of these options will vary from country to country depending on their differing stages of policy development and political climates.

Annex 1 provides definitions of some key terms, describes the scope of the projects and documents how country reviews were conducted. An overview of existing policy interventions for immigrant students can be found online at *www.oecd.org/edu/migration/policytools*. The collected country examples are organised by key policy themes, corresponding to Chapters 3 and 4. Where available, evaluations of the policy interventions are also presented.

Government tools for steering migrant education policy

Migrant education policy is, in fact, built upon the complex interactions of discrete policy tools. Some deal specifically with the situation of immigrant students, others are more systemic and universal. These government tools are used in combination to steer migrant education policy. This section gives an overview of how governments could use different policy tools to tackle the issues which are thematically introduced in Chapters 3 and 4. There is a brief introduction of different types of steering tools for migrant education – with some country examples – and an illustration of how they can relate to each other. Chapters 3 and 4 provide further details of country examples, focusing on individual tools.

Governments typically use eight tools to steer migrant education policy, at the national, regional and/or local level, depending on country-specific constitutional, political, and institutional arrangements:

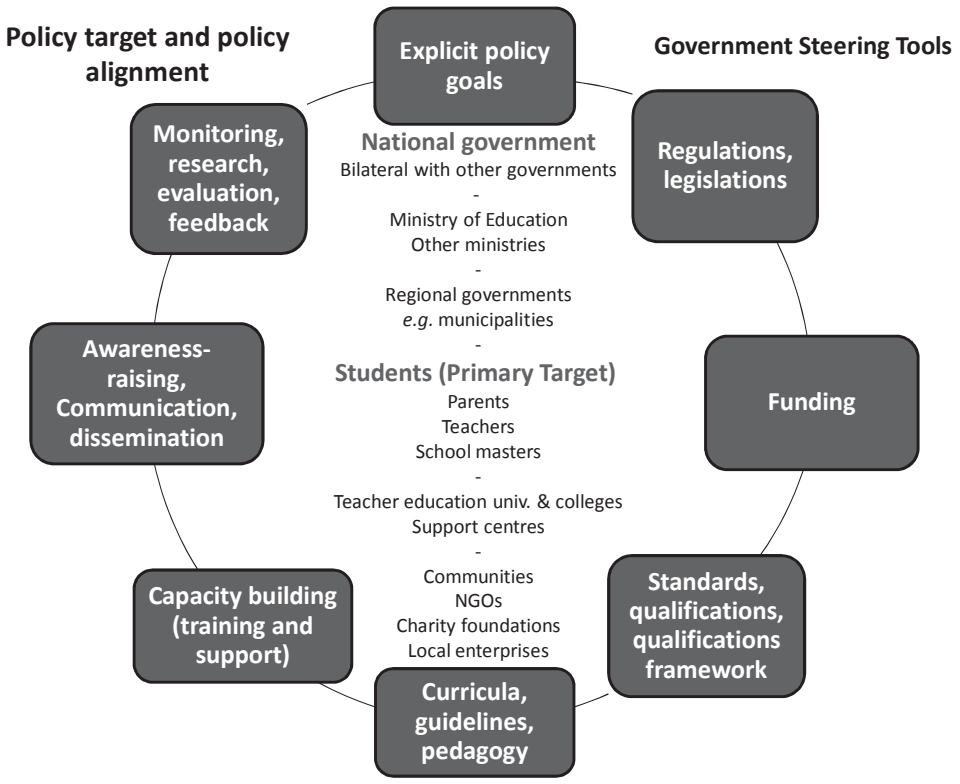
1) setting explicit policy goals for immigrant students within broader education policy goals;
2) setting regulations and legislation;
3) designing effective funding strategies;
4) establishing standards, qualifications and qualifications framework;
5) establishing curricula, guidelines and pedagogy;
6) building capacity (especially training and teacher support);
7) raising awareness, communication and dissemination;
8) monitoring, research, evaluation and feedback.

To ensure effective formulation and implementation of migrant education policy, it is essential to: map out all relevant stakeholders; place the interest and needs of immigrant students at the centre (the primary target); and align the discrete steering tools for maximum effect (Figure 1.1).

Explicit policy goals

In addressing issues for immigrant students, there are tensions over how migrant education fits within the larger goals of education policy. In the countries covered by the review, it is argued that migrant education serves two broad objectives: to favour natives' greater openness to cultural and linguistic diversity and to facilitate and support efforts to integrate immigrants.[1] These objectives are compatible. But in practice many countries attach a higher priority to the second objective and place substantial responsibility on immigrant students to adapt to the culture and language of the host countries (*e.g.* Hodes, 2000; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). This leads to different, sometimes conflicting, practices within the countries participating in the OECD review.

Figure 1.1. Steering tools for migrant education policy



Setting clear objectives for migrant education within the broader goals of mainstream education policy is a fundamental tool that governments can use. It can both clarify the vision and timeline of what needs to be achieved and help build consensus or "buy-in" from key

stakeholders at the frontline.[2] Clear objectives for migrant education will also encourage and facilitate the evaluation of migrant education.

Regulations and legislation

Legislation is the most typical tool that governments can use to manifest a strong political commitment. Although often debated politically, Sweden, for example, currently articulates its social value and political commitment through legislation, valuing the language of immigrant students' heritage. Legislation guarantees:

- mother tongue assistance/support in early childhood education and care;
- mother tongue tuition at compulsory school, if certain criteria are met;
- Swedish as a Second Language as a subject in compulsory and upper secondary school;
- mother tongue study guidance for those who need extra support in their mother language;
- language support (Swedish for Immigrants) for adult immigrants seeking employment.

When rights are given, there are two lessons to bear in mind. First, the individuals granted such rights should be aware of them. Lack of awareness means that rights are not exercised and they remain simply a political statement. Second, granted rights go hand-in-hand with responsibilities. This balance is essential to sustain political and general support for migrant education. While immigrants are granted certain rights, they are expected to bear the responsibility of integrating in the host country, *e.g.* by learning the language of the host country, getting a job, paying taxes, respecting the given laws, sending children to school, etc. Integration is a two-way process; rights come with responsibilities.

Funding

Funding can be used to support both universal and targeted measures. Targeted funding is often used as a means of closing the gap for immigrant students, *e.g.* by allocating more resources to a target area / student group or particular level of education, etc. For example, in France special funding is allocated to disadvantaged areas (*Réseaux d'ambition réussite*), and in the United Kingdom special funding targets certain immigrant groups, *e.g.* the African Caribbean Achievement project.

However, targeting funding specifically to immigrant students may be too narrow a focus and miss some other students who are in need of support. For example, both the Netherlands and the Flemish Community of Belgium target disadvantaged groups, which include many immigrant students, but also native students facing educational challenges.

Where there has been significant financial support for migrant education, research often shows mixed or modest results. Funding alone does not suffice. A carefully designed funding strategy (considering who to target, at what level and how) should be used in combination with other steering tools.

Standards, qualifications and qualifications framework

Arranging adequate standards, qualifications and qualifications framework are other useful tools to steer migrant education. For example, setting standards for language teachers

is a means to ensure quality of language support, an integral part of migrant education. In English-speaking countries, universities often offer high-level qualifications for language teachers, *e.g.* Master's level qualifications in English as a Second Language (ESL) or Teaching English as a second language (TESOL).

Establishing national qualifications in the different languages spoken in the immigrant community is a way to value assets which immigrant students already have. For example, in Ireland, some immigrants may obtain certification in their native language through national examinations at the end of compulsory education.

Setting up a qualifications framework may also help immigrant students and their parents. Recognition of foreign qualifications will facilitate immigrants' integration into the workforce in their relevant field of expertise, *e.g.* engineering, construction and nursing, therefore, offering them greater chances for better economic and social standing.

Curricula, guidelines and pedagogy

In many countries, curricula, guidelines and pedagogy are used to ensure minimum quality standards and scale up good practices across early childhood education and care institutions and schools. Typically, migrant education policy employs these tools to mainstream second language teaching, language assessment and intercultural education in the classroom. For example, Ireland has developed guidelines for language assessment with assessment tool kits and intercultural education guidelines for pedagogy to integrate language learning and content learning; and Austria prepared a national curriculum framework for early language learning in kindergarten and standards for second language learning.

Building capacity (training and support)

Teachers and school leaders are central to making school life different for immigrant students, especially teachers who have direct contact with them every day. School leaders set standards for teachers and may also have direct contact with students, parents and local communities. Both teachers and school leaders need training and support such as diversity training and second language learning. Teachers are also expected to develop generic skills in formative assessment, team-teaching, effective communication with parents, etc. School leaders are expected to link school and local community, manage media as well as human and financial resources, etc. The presence or absence of these skills and know-how among school leaders and teachers determines the capacity of the education system to deliver migrant education policy.

Capacity building takes time and money. Education systems are so broad that it is difficult to ensure that all language support teachers get the in-service training they need. For example, in Denmark and Ireland, although language support specialists are most likely to have received special training, it is still insufficient. Moreover, among the review countries, many believe that all subject specialists and regular teachers should be trained to provide ongoing language support and all school leaders should receive some diversity training to better meet the diverse learning needs of both immigrant and native students.[3]

Raising awareness, communication and dissemination

Awareness raising is a tool which can optimise the effect of other tools. For example, in the Netherlands, to promote exercising school choice, a platform for ethnic minority parents

was established to give immigrant parents a voice and to promote the importance of parental involvement in their child's school.

Effective dissemination of good practices throughout the education system is of critical importance. Governments could help schools and teachers identify good practices in schools and strengthen the means and incentives for other schools to adopt them. The "Idea Schools for Multiculturalism" in Sweden and "This Works in Our School" in Denmark are two examples of initiatives that foster sharing and adopting innovation to improve migrant education. Ireland created a web-based portal as a one-stop shop for all migrant education-related materials and now needs to raise awareness among teachers to use it.

Monitoring, research, evaluation and feedback

Migrant education is a comparatively new challenge for many countries, and consequently, there are many unanswered basic questions in practice and policy. Collecting basic data and information about immigrant students is necessary to monitor progress and advance research on migrant education. Whether or not to recognise the heterogeneity among immigrant students in data collection is a matter of political choice, but the identification of different student groups can provide useful diagnostic evidence on which to base policy and design effective funding strategies. In the past, data on education inputs have been more readily available than data on outcomes. However, data on outcomes are increasingly available in many countries, as well as from international surveys such as the IEA's PIRLS and TIMSS, and the OECD's PISA. In some cases, outcome data are linked to student background data and illustrate the importance of family background and initial resources on student outcomes.

Among the review countries there are few policy evaluations, especially large-scale quantitative research. In part, this is because many policy initiatives in migrant education have only recently been launched. However, existing empirical studies often lack data on immigrant students, and qualitative research is used in proxy. Policy analysis of migrant education needs to draw on research from many disciplines including educational science, cognitive science, psychology, anthropology, sociology, including "teachers as researchers" and "action research" in classrooms, etc.

Visible and effective channels for turning lessons learned from social science research into policy and practice are either lacking or *ad hoc*. However, there are some promising examples of evaluation and feedback. For example, school quality reports and dialogue in Sweden, evaluations by inspectorates in the Netherlands and Ireland, and new arrangements in Ireland to follow up schools where inspectorate evaluations identify significant weaknesses. Feedback can be exercised at all levels – national, regional, school and classroom.

Key general messages

Key general messages have emerged from the migrant education review. They can help the reader to relate contexts, facts and policy making on migrant education in the following chapters.

A "one size fits all" policy may fail to meet individual immigrant student needs, especially those most at risk

Immigrant students are linguistically, culturally, economically and academically diverse (see Chapter 2). Language spoken at home, socio-economic background and previous educational experiences may be influenced by various immigration policies in different countries (*e.g.* selective immigration policy for highly-skilled workers, immigration for family reunification or humanitarian reasons, and immigration from former colonies) as well as the manner in which they are applied. Some immigrant students may come from relatively advantaged or comparable socio-economic backgrounds to their native peers and/or may not be at an educational disadvantage. Others may have less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds, limited or no previous education, and/or difficulties with developing competencies in their own language. Some newly arrived immigrant children may have no prior knowledge of the host country language. Others may already master the host country language, a similar language or a dialect, *e.g.* immigrants from the United Kingdom to New Zealand, immigrants from Finland to Sweden, immigrants from Africa and the Caribbean to France, the United Kingdom and the United States, etc.

Recognising such diversity among immigrant students within a given country is the first step towards designing effective policy. Different immigrant students have different learning needs. It is of particular importance – from an equity perspective – that the most vulnerable or marginalised immigrant student sub-group not be further marginalised by the absence of public policy. Children of asylum seekers and economic refugees are often found to have particular needs among immigrant children (Arnot *et al*., 2005).

A holistic approach and shared responsibility is critically important at all levels

At the national level, co-operation among different ministries is necessary to tackle issues such as poverty, unemployment, under-employment, inadequate housing, or discrimination. At the regional level, co-operation is necessary especially between regions with similar patterns and compositions of immigrant students. Peer-learning among regional or local authorities may be a more effective strategy for change than prescriptions from the national government.

The first step is to identify the key stakeholders who are involved in the policy formulation and implementation chain between national government and immigrant students. Teachers, parents and often school leaders – the persons that students contact in their daily life – are key in implementing policy and making change happen (see Chapter 3). It is important that different teachers within school (language teachers, mainstream teachers and other subject teachers) and across different levels of education should be able to monitor and

ensure holistic and transitional child development to ensure quality learning environments within schools and classrooms as well as at home. Extra attention such as counselling and orientation may be needed to ensure smooth transitions between different stages of education.

Teachers also need adequate pre- and in-service education and training to better respond to the child's need. Parents should also be helped to ensure a good learning environment at home. School and home are not the only places where students can learn. Communities, non-governmental organisations, charitable foundations and local enterprises often offer learning environments for immigrant students.

Under certain circumstances bilateral co-operation might be arranged between countries concerned. If there are sufficient numbers of immigrant students from a particular sending country, the integration of the immigrant students may become an issue of mutual interest to both sending and receiving countries. For example, the German government and the Turkish government have started to discuss the integration issue bilaterally.

Finding the right balance between universal and targeted measures is a challenge

One way to address the gaps among children's' different needs is through targeted strategies that offer different services. A well-established part of school financing schemes is to provide unequal inputs to achieve a more balanced education. This is done, for example, to accommodate differences in needs between urban and rural areas, or to compensate for differences of mainstream students and those with special education needs. All the review countries need to find a pedagogically appropriate and politically sustainable balance between targeted measures for immigrant students and universal measures for all students. Moreover, in the review countries, nearly all of the immigrant students face additional challenges, *e.g.* adapting to a new home and culture, and for many, learning a new language.

The implied difference between universal and targeted measures is less when compensatory services focus on identified functional need, rather than immigrant status *per se*. For example in the case of language support, the simple criterion of "immigrant status" sometimes inefficiently screens in immigrant students who are not in need of extra compensatory services, while screening out native non-migrants who indeed need support. To respond to this mixed need, Norway, for example, has prepared a curriculum called "Basic Norwegian for language minorities", instead of "Norwegian as a Second Language", targeting those minority students that are in need of extra language training in Norwegian. In Denmark, the language stimulation programme that was initially intended for pre-school-age immigrants has been extended to a significant number of Danish children who were also found to be in need of extra language help.

It is worth noting that universal measures – such as raising the quality of all teachers, implementing individualised adapted education, and strengthening the accountability of school performance – can be relevant to both native and immigrant students. To find the right balance, it is crucial to identify various gaps by collecting basic data on student enrolment with student and school characteristics as well as performance, making it possible to differentiate between immigrant and native students. It is also important to gather evidence that allows teachers and education administrators to better understand the reasons for such gaps (see Chapter 4).

Notes

1. In pursuing the first objective, migrant education is embedded in larger education goals of preparing immigrant and native students for life in a society that is culturally and linguistically diverse. The second objective has the narrower target of educating the newly arrived in the language and culture of their host country.

2. Chief executive officers of the education ministries of OECD member countries met in Korea in 2008 to discuss the challenges of policy implementation in education. They noted that "Policymakers need to build consensus on the aims of education reform and actively engage stakeholders in formulating and implementing the policy responses" (OECD, 2008c).

3. The 2009 Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) found that on average, nearly 90% of teachers reported having received in-service training sometime over the 18 months preceding the survey; yet the duration tended to be short. More than half reported that they would have liked to receive more. Four of the six countries participating in the review also took part in TALIS; in all of them the duration of training fell below the TALIS average (OECD, 2009).

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Chapter 2

Key challenges and opportunities

The size and the composition of the immigrant share of the student population in schools is changing; this poses challenges to education systems as they strive to meet the learning needs of immigrant students. This chapter identifies key challenges and opportunities for immigrant students. It first describes history and identifies economic factors affecting migrant education policy. It then presents facts about education outcomes of immigrant students, identifies factors that may help explain the gaps, and suggests policy implications.

On average, immigrant students face greater difficulties in education than their native peers. Their performance in reading, science and mathematics in compulsory education is comparatively lower than that of their native peers. In some countries immigrant students (first-generation) are less likely to attend early childhood education and care institutions and more likely to repeat a grade, attend vocational schools and drop out from secondary education. They have more limited access to quality education. They are more likely to attend schools that are located in big cities that serve students who are on average from less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds and usually also immigrant students.

*The performance gap between immigrants and native students is largely explained in most countries by parents' occupations and educational background and the language spoken at home. Other factors associated with better educational performance for immigrant students include: educational resources at home, early home reading activities, attending early childhood education and care institutions, a more advantaged school average socio-economic composition, more hours for learning language at school, and school accountability measures (*i.e. *informing parents of student performance and the use of performance data).*

Background factors affecting migrant education policy

OECD countries' concern with the education of immigrant students is rooted in three factors: i) changes in the impetus behind migration; ii) changes in the composition of immigrants; and iii) changes in the size of the immigrant population relative to the native population. Together, these factors have increased the scale and visibility as well as transformed the challenges education systems face in addressing the learning needs of immigrant children.

A common pattern of increasing and more diverse migration

OECD countries have experienced increases in immigration over the past decade (Table 2.1). The extent of the increases, the impetus behind them and the composition of migration flows vary across the six countries participating in the OECD policy review of migrant education.

- Austria, Denmark, and Norway have had fairly similar migration trends. For years, immigration was fairly stable shaped by guest-worker programmes in the 1960s and 1970s with many workers coming from Turkey, as is the case of Austria. Citizens from other Nordic countries and guest-workers from Pakistan, Morocco and Turkey dominated immigration to Norway. As for Denmark, citizens from other Nordic countries and guest-workers from Pakistan, Turkey and the former Yugoslavia made up the majority of immigrants. In the late 1980s and 1990s, the numbers increased dramatically as conflicts in the Middle East, the Balkans, the former Yugoslavia and Africa pushed immigrants out of their home countries. Strong economic performance in recent years has also pulled in immigrants from EU accession states, particularly Poland, towards other EU member states.

- In Sweden, until the 1970s, immigrants were mostly from Nordic and other European countries (no guest-workers). With conflicts arising in other parts of the world combined with relatively liberal asylum conditions and a generally healthy economic climate, more immigrants began coming from Chile (1970s). In the 1980s, migration flows from Poland, Iran and Iraq were followed by an influx from the former Yugoslavia, Somalia and other parts of Africa. Since then, Sweden also hosts immigrants from the Middle East, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Turkey.

- Until the mid-1970s, immigrants in the Netherlands were mostly guest-workers from Morocco and Turkey. "Immigrants" from former colonies were not considered immigrants, though some experienced the same problems as subsequent immigrant groups due to language, cultural and religious differences. Since the mid-1990s, the same factors that increased emigration from other parts of the world increased the number and diversity of immigrants in the Netherlands.

- Ireland experienced the most abrupt and largest shift in migration patterns. Until the mid 1990s Ireland's net immigration rate was negative with more Irish citizens departing than immigrants arriving. Until that time, the bulk of Ireland's immigrants

were from Commonwealth countries and the United States. This profile changed after the late 1990s when the economic boom of the "Celtic Tiger" began in earnest. Rising wages, employment growth, and job shortages attracted workers and their families, particularly from the EU accession countries (post-enlargement in May 2004), Africa and Asia. The economic pull in Ireland was stronger in comparison with the other countries (and virtually everywhere else), and the number of immigrants roughly doubled between 1998 and 2007. There was a policy decision to allow entry to all newcomers from the European Union accession states, except Bulgaria and Romania,

Table 2.1. Stocks of foreign-born population in selected OECD countries

Percentage of population

	1998	2000	2007	Change 1998 to 2007 (%)
Australia	23.2	23.0	25.0	8.0
Austria	11.2	10.5	14.2	26.4
Belgium	10.0	10.3	13.0	29.6
Canada	17.8	18.1	20.1	12.5
Denmark	5.4	5.8	6.9	27.9
France (a)	..	7.4	8.5	14.0
Germany (b)	12.2	12.5	..	5.8
Ireland	7.8	8.7	15.7	101.8
Luxembourg	32.2	33.2	36.2	12.4
Netherlands	9.6	10.1	10.7	11.3
New Zealand	16.5	17.2	21.6	30.9
Norway	6.1	6.8	9.5	55.0
Portugal	5.1	5.1	6.1	19.8
Spain	3.2	4.9	13.4	321.6
Sweden	11.0	11.3	13.4	22.0
Switzerland	21.4	21.9	24.9	16.4
United Kingdom	7.4	7.9	10.2	37.0

Note: (a) 2000 to 2007; (b) 1998 to 2003.

Source: OECD, 2009a.

All of the six countries, like other OECD countries, experienced sharp increases in work-related immigration from EU Accession countries, with immigrants attracted by the promise of better chances of employment and higher wages than in their own countries. Though asylum seekers have been a constant presence among the immigrant population, they are rather few and have become less since 2002.

It is uncertain, however, whether recent migration trends will continue. Two developments could slow international migration in the six countries covered by this study: i) the financial and economic crisis; and ii) changes in immigration policies.

The financial and economic crisis: implications for migrant education

So far, the financial and economic crisis seems likely to affect the situation of immigrants in at least three different ways. First, the negative consequences for employment

and earnings are likely to fall disproportionately on immigrants. A recent review of international experiences finds that more immigrants are unemployed than natives. They tend to be over-represented in jobs that are susceptible to business downturns, have less employment security, and are more concentrated in low-skilled jobs often not commensurate with their qualifications. They are more likely to be victims of discrimination in hiring and firing. Additionally, companies owned by immigrants are, on average, more at risk of bankruptcy (OECD 2009b). This development is likely to aggravate the precarious position of immigrant children and their families, particularly those from lower socio-economic groups.

A second possible consequence of the crisis would be on immigration and emigration, including return migration flows. As employment prospects in receiving countries decline, the attraction for immigrants will diminish. However, to what extent that occurs will depend on whether prospects in sending countries are comparatively better or worse. Presently, it is probably too early to tell in the cases of Austria, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands and Norway. In Sweden, analysis of past trends suggests that, over the long term, there is little relationship between the immigration and business cycles. However, in Ireland, there was a 49% decline in the issuance of Personal Public Service Numbers (issued to non-Irish workers) from 2008 to 2009. This was similar to the decline in work permits issued to non-EU workers for the 12-month period ending in February 2009 (OECD, 2009b).

Overall, inward migration has been decreasing since 2008; though there are some signs of immigrants, and even host-country natives, leaving. Immigrants with families often settle down and show no signs of returning to their home country. Another way to gain insights into the trends is to look at the experience of particular groups of immigrants. Polish nationals were heavily represented in migration flows that began after EU enlargement. But work permits issued to Polish workers in the United Kingdom declined by more than half between Q4 2007 and Q4 2008 (OECD, 2009b).

A third possible consequence of the crisis would be reductions in public spending on education and other programmes that benefit immigrant children. It is too early to fully evaluate the extent to which this is happening. Ireland has faced stringent budget problems with cuts in nominal increases in education spending. Some teaching posts have been eliminated, including posts to support language instruction for immigrant students. The full impact of the financial and economic crisis on migrant education remains to be seen.

If history is any guide, the effects of the current crisis on work-related migration flows are likely to be temporary. As economies, employment and wages pick up, migration related to employment is likely to as well. Regardless of that, migration for family reunification and humanitarian reasons tends to be less sensitive to economic developments (OECD, 2009b).

Immigration policies are changing as well

Changes in immigrant admission and regularisation policies could also affect migration flow. A fairly consistent pattern shows national authorities progressively tightening up admission conditions. To slow the increase in asylum seekers in Ireland, the government has established a list of countries of origin and now prioritises applications according to asylum seekers' country of origin. Between 2003 and 2005, citizenship requirements changed, revoking the automatic right to citizenship for Irish-born children with non-Irish parents. Ireland has also tightened up requirements for issuing work permits as it seeks to fill most

low-skilled jobs with job seekers from within the EU, as the majority of Ireland's immigrants are EU nationals (Irish Department of Education and Science, 2009).

In the Netherlands, where migration policy has been an issue for decades, the changes take a different form, but with similar effect. After years of pursuing a policy of "cultural pluralism" that emphasised accommodating cultural diversity, the government shifted its strategy in the mid-1990s to emphasise integration. Language requirements are now imposed as a condition of entry. Immigrants must also assume greater responsibility for their integration into Dutch society (Shewbridge *et al*., 2009). Austria, Denmark, Norway and Sweden have adopted various policies that put greater emphasis on integration, such as strengthening host country language proficiency, and sometimes explicitly de-emphasise mother-tongue instruction. Language and other education-related policies are discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Some governments have adjusted and reinforced the structure of policy portfolios to minimise the risk of immigrant issues falling between different areas of responsibility. In 2009, the Austrian Ministry of Education created a Department for Migration, Intercultural Education and Language Policy to bring together and co-ordinate all the factors contributing to the educational success of immigrants (Wroblewski and Herzog-Punzenburger, 2009). In Ireland, in 2007, the government established the post of Minister of State for Integration who is responsible for, among other things[1], ensuring that education policies "take into account the need to integrate immigrants and their families…" and "co-ordinating the work of the Department of Education and Science on the integration of newcomers with the related work of other relevant Departments and State Agencies" (Taguma *et al*., 2009). In Denmark, the Ministry for Integration works closely with the ministries responsible for education and housing as well as other ministries to better ensure that different policies impinging on immigrants do not work at cross-purposes. Governments also appear to be re-thinking the time and the place for policies targeted at immigrant children and other discrete and identifiable groups. This challenge is addressed in the next section.

A last aspect of policy change with possible eventual implications for migrant education is the initiatives adopted in some countries to encourage their native émigrés to return. For example, Poland, whose nationals have dominated increased migration flows into other EU countries over the past few years, adopted measures in 2007 to encourage nationals to return. It is difficult to separate the effect of such measures from other factors such as exchange rate fluctuations, which seriously curbed the United Kingdom's attractiveness for employment, and differences in the relative economic performance of sending and host countries. However, the fact that such measures exist should remind policy makers that migration flows – and the implications of such flows for education – are subject to factors well beyond the control of governments in host countries (OECD, 2009b).

Table 2.2. Compulsory education and enrolment

	Compulsory schooling (age range)	First age of selection	Percentage enrolled in education		
			4-year-olds	5-year-olds	17-year-olds
Australia	6 - 15	16	52	100	85
Austria	6 - 15	10	84	94	89
Belgium	6 - 18	12	100	100	100
Canada	6 - 16(18)	16	m	m	m
Denmark	6 - 16	16	95	86	84
France	6 - 16	m	100	100	91
Germany	6 - 18	10	94	95	92
Greece	6 - 14.5	15	56	81	85
Ireland	6 - 16	15	46	100	91
Italy	6 - 15	14	99	100	83
Luxembourg	6 - 15	13	93	95	79
Netherlands	5 - 18	12	99	99	92
New Zealand	6 - 16	16	95	100	77
Norway	6 - 16	16	94	95	93
Portugal	6 - 14	15	81	93	80
Spain	6 - 16	16	98	98	83
Sweden	7 - 16	16	100	100	98
Switzerland	6(7) - 16	12	39	93	89
United Kingdom	4(5) - 16	16	91	100	75

Note: "m" indicates that data are not available.

Source: OECD, 2009c; OECD PISA 2006 database; OECD Education database.

Educational system

Education outcomes are influenced by a variety of factors including the overall configuration of education systems (*e.g.* age of compulsory education, resources). Tables 2.2 and 2.3 provide basic information on participation, allocation of financial resources and learning time in the education systems of all countries included in the analysis of educational outcomes for immigrant students. The ages of compulsory schooling are fairly uniform across countries; but, in terms of enrolment, the rates vary across countries, especially for four-year-olds. The most important systemic differences are found when comparing the age at which first selection occurs in education systems. Although selection does not occur in most countries until age 15 or 16, selection occurs much earlier in a substantial number of countries. The relationship between financial inputs and instructional time is not evident.

Table 2.3. Resources and learning time

	Expenditure on schools per student per year (USD PPP, 2006)		Average hours per year of total intended instruction time (2007)		15-year-olds in language learning at school[1] %
	Primary	Secondary	Ages 7 to 8	Ages 12 to 14	
Australia	6 311	8 700	954	1006	53.2
Austria	8 516	10 577	735	958	16.0
Belgium	7 072	8 601	m	m	46.0
Canada	x	7 774	m	m	65.3
Denmark	8 798	9 662	671	900	85.5
France	5 482	9 303	913	1 060	58.6
Germany	5 362	7 548	634	883	43.3
Greece	m	m	828	953	28.3
Ireland	6 337	8 991	941	907	36.5
Italy	7 716	8 495	990	1 089	67.1
Luxembourg	13 676	18 144	847	782	40.4
Netherlands	6 425	9 516	940	1 027	15.9
New Zealand	4 952	6 043	m	m	72.1
Norway	9 486	11 435	656	826	38.6
Portugal	5 138	6 846	889	905	26.0
Spain	5 970	7 955	793	956	41.5
Sweden	7 699	8 496	741	741	16.6
Switzerland	8 793	13 268	m	m	43.9
United Kingdom	7 732	8 763	m	m	47.4

1. 15-year-olds who report spending at least 4 hours per week learning the language of instruction in regular lessons at school.

Note: "m" indicates that data are not available; "x" indicates that data are included in secondary education.

Source: OECD, 2009c; OECD PISA 2006 database.

Other contextual factors affecting migrant education

Migrant education policy is not formulated and implemented in isolation. Its shape, scale and impact are subject to the external factors outlined above that influence the flows and stocks of immigrants in the general population.

However, interactions with other government policies and institutional arrangements are also important. "Concentration" of immigrant students is a recurrent theme in discussions on which learning environments best support the education performance of immigrants and their integration into the host society. Yet the concentration of students in particular schools heavily depends on residential segregation patterns that are influenced by a range of factors from policies involving the availability of affordable housing and employment, to discrimination and immigrant settlement practice.

Education outcomes, factors and policy implications

The performance of immigrant students, their participation and access to quality education tend to differ from those of native students. This section describes these patterns and identifies related factors that may help explain the outcomes of immigrant education. This section concludes with some policy implications.

Facts about education outcomes of immigrant students[2]

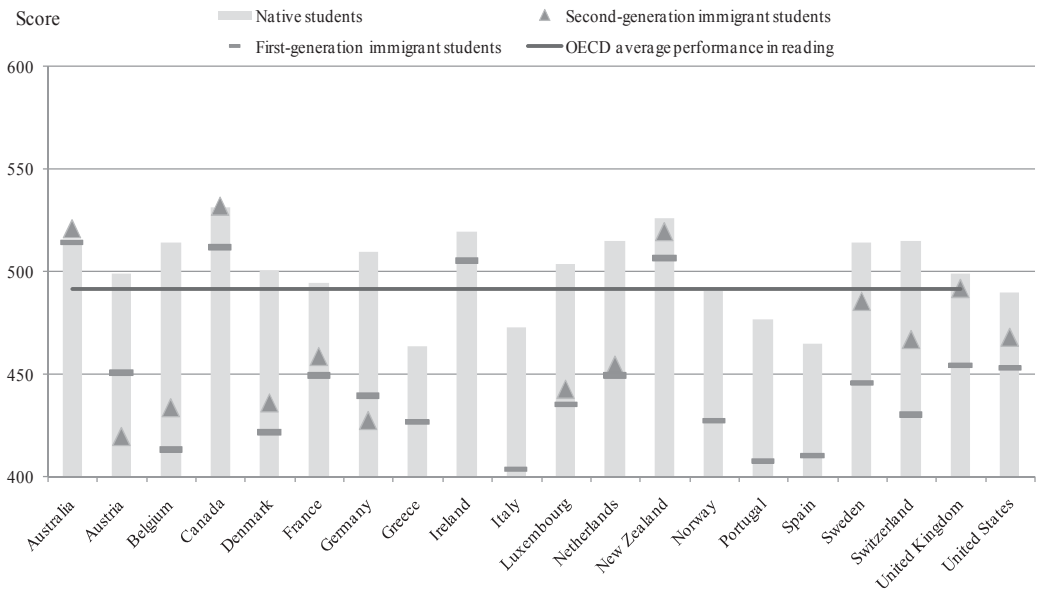
Performance

In most countries, immigrant students do not perform as well as native students on average. The performance gaps are more pronounced for immigrant students who speak another language at home other than the language of instruction, and for immigrants from low socio-economic backgrounds.

- There are marked performance differences in reading between native and immigrant students at age 15 in many, but not all, OECD countries (Figure 2.1). In all countries except Australia, Canada, Ireland and New Zealand, immigrant students perform well below the OECD average in the reading test (492 points), while native students in all countries except in Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain perform around or above the OECD average.

Figure 2.1. Differences in reading performance at age 15 (PISA 2006)

By immigrant status



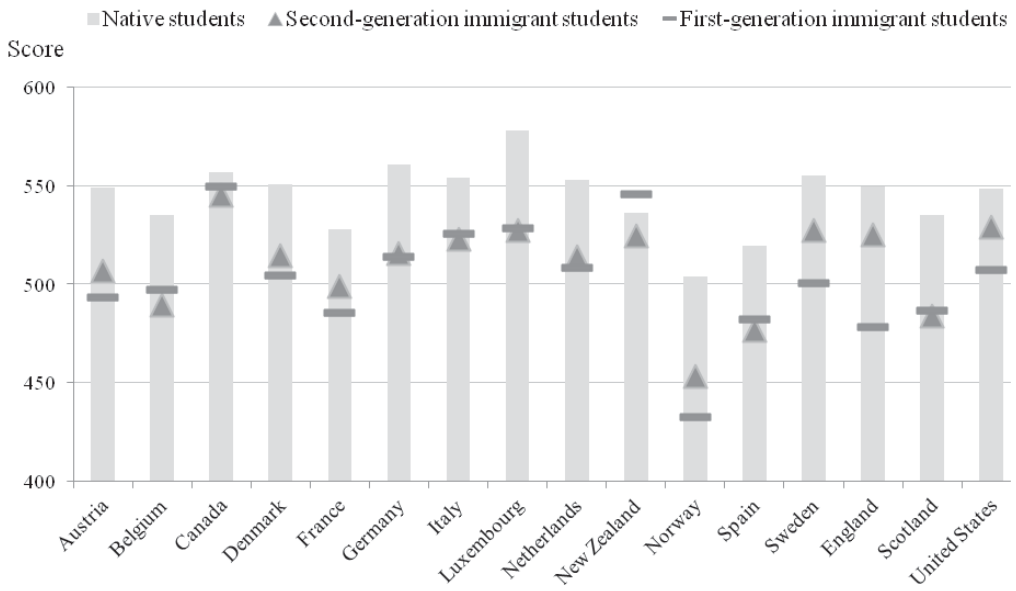
Note: A difference of 38 scores points is roughly equivalent to a year of schooling. Data for the United States are from PISA 2003.

Source: OECD PISA 2006 database; OECD PISA 2003 database.

- In all countries except Austria and Germany, second-generation immigrant students show stronger reading performance than their first-generation peers at age 15.
- In all countries except Canada and New Zealand, differences are evident in primary education between native and immigrant students in average reading performance (grade four; see Figure 2.2).
- Despite the observed performance gap in primary education, immigrant students perform around or above the international average in the reading test (500 points) in primary education in all countries except France, Norway, Spain and the United Kingdom. This contrasts with their results at age 15.
- Reading performance in primary education is similar for first- and second-generation immigrant students, except in Sweden, England (the United Kingdom), the United States and Norway where second-generation immigrant students perform better than first-generation immigrant students and in New Zealand where first-generation immigrant students perform better than their second-generation peers.

Figure 2.2. Reading performance in primary education (grade 4), by immigrant status

Mean reading performance in PIRLS 2006



Source: IEA, PIRLS 2006 database.

- Average performance results mask a range of differences with some immigrant students among the top performers and others who are unable to perform the most basic tasks (Table 2.4).
- In all countries except Denmark, Italy, Portugal and Spain, at least 25% of first-generation immigrant students perform above the OECD average in the reading test at age 15. However, in the majority of countries first-generation immigrant students are more likely to have weaker reading skills than their native and second-generation peers (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4. Low and high performing students in PISA 2006 reading

By immigrant status

	Low performers (1)			High performers (2)		
	Native	Second-generation	First-generation	Native	Second-generation	First-generation
Australia	455	463	448	578	585	585
Austria	434	342	367	573	499	538
Belgium	451	367	330	636	563	558
Canada	474	473	448	596	595	585
Denmark	445	375	361	560	503	484
France	431	390	377	568	537	530
Germany	448	350	369	581	515	531
Greece	403	n.a.	362	534	n.a.	497
Ireland	461	n.a.	440	583	n.a.	588
Italy	408	n.a.	324	548	n.a.	491
Luxembourg	448	377	356	566	509	519
Netherlands	457	386	370	582	524	530
New Zealand	460	445	429	597	600	587
Norway	426	n.a.	341	562	n.a.	510
Portugal	414	n.a.	339	546	n.a.	472
Spain	411	n.a.	345	525	n.a.	480
Sweden	454	431	374	580	543	513
Switzerland	460	402	353	575	533	507
United Kingdom	434	434	377	569	553	534

1. Maximum score for the bottom 25% of students in each sub-group.
2. Minimum score for the top 25% of students in each sub-group.

Note: The PISA reading scale has a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100. Students who score below 407.5 points are only able to complete the simplest reading tasks and below 335 points are not able to routinely show the most basic reading skills.

Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

- The average performance disadvantage for immigrant students diminishes when taking into account that immigrant students are more likely to come from less socio-economically advantaged families, but it remains significant in many countries (see below).

- When comparing expectations of native and immigrant students with comparable performance levels in mathematics and socio-economic backgrounds, immigrant students are more likely to expect to complete a university-level education programme than native students (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5. Educational expectations, by immigrant status

Odds ratio[1]

	AFTER accounting for student socio-economic background and mathematics achievement		BEFORE accounting for student socio-economic background and mathematics achievement	
	2nd-generation	1st-generation	2nd-generation	1st-generation
Australia	**2.92**	**3.16**	**2.03**	**2.39**
Austria	**3.49**	**2.39**	1.04	**0.70**
Belgium	**2.41**	**2.56**	**0.60**	**0.70**
Canada	**2.77**	**3.90**	**2.29**	**3.22**
Denmark	**6.23**	**6.96**	**1.77**	**2.23**
France	**3.63**	**2.64**	1.19	0.85
Germany	**3.16**	**3.03**	**0.58**	0.70
Luxembourg	**2.34**	**3.35**	1.02	1.01
Netherlands	**5.47**	**5.21**	1.16	0.97
New Zealand	**3.19**	**2.77**	**1.75**	**2.36**
Norway	**3.86**	**2.44**	**1.95**	1.13
Sweden	**3.29**	**5.70**	**1.70**	**1.93**
Switzerland	**2.66**	**3.67**	0.87	0.90
United States	**2.05**	**1.43**	1.15	**0.76**

1. An odds ratio of 1.0 indicates that native students and immigrant students are equally likely to expect to complete a university-level education programme, while an odds ratio of 2.0 indicates that immigrant students are 2.0 more times likely. Values that are significantly different to educational expectations reported by native students are indicated in bold.

Source: OECD PISA 2003 database.

Participation/completion

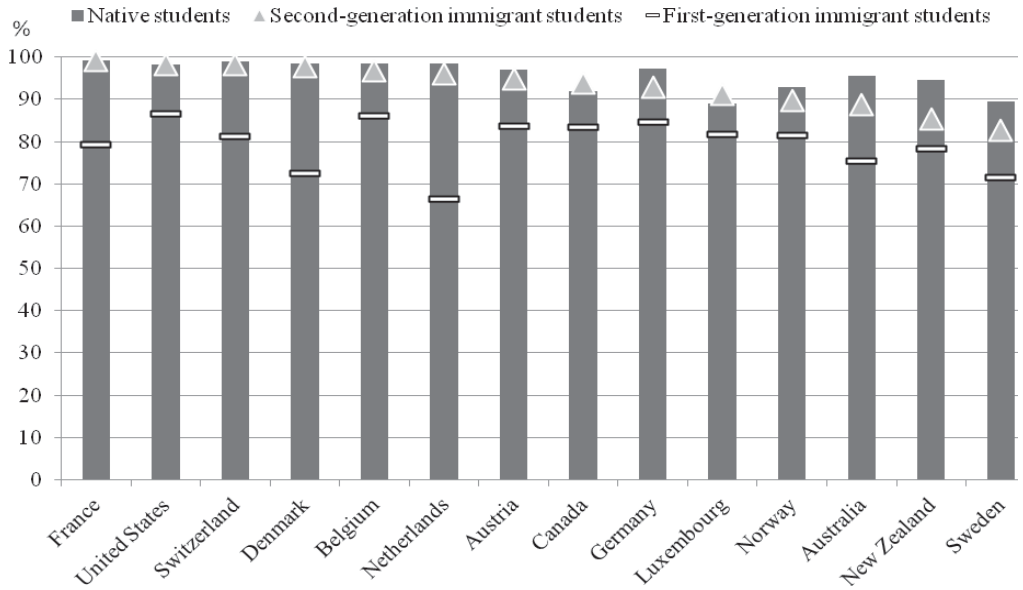
Participation in early childhood education and care institutions appears to facilitate the integration of immigrant students; however, first-generation immigrants are less likely to participate than second-generation and native students. Immigrant students tend to repeat more than native students, and are more likely to drop out.

- Second-generation immigrant children have similar pre-school (ISCED 0) [3] participation rates to native children; however, first-generation immigrant children are less likely to attend pre-school compared to their native and second-generation immigrant peers, according to student reports at age 15 (Figure 2.3).

- Many countries place high priority on increasing the participation levels of children with immigrant backgrounds in early childhood education and care institutions. In some countries, however, participation gaps between native and immigrant children are particularly pronounced among the youngest age groups in early childhood education and care (ECEC) (see Country Background Reports).

Figure 2.3. Participation in pre-school, by immigrant status (PISA 2003)

Percentage of 15-year-olds reporting that they had attended pre-school[1] for at least one year



1. Experience of centre or school-based programmes designed to meet educational and developmental needs of children at least three years of age and with staff qualified to provide an educational programme for the children.

Source: OECD PISA 2003 database.

- In some countries, immigrant as well as native students commonly repeat a grade; while in other countries, this practice is very rare. In countries where grade repetition is more widespread, immigrant students are significantly more likely to repeat a grade in either primary or lower secondary education than native students. In some countries, these differences are particularly marked in primary school where gaps of 10% or more are observed in several countries (Table 2.6).

Table 2.6. Grade repetition, by immigrant status (PISA 2003)

Percentage of 15-year-olds reporting that they had repeated a grade

	Primary education (ISCED 1)		Lower secondary education (ISCED 2)	
	Immigrants	Native	Immigrants	Native
Australia	7	8	2	1
Austria	10	2	10	3
Belgium	38	15	19	7
Canada	5	6	3	6
Denmark	7	3	3	1
France	23	16	29	30
Germany	20	8	19	14
Luxembourg	24	14	27	30
Netherlands	31	21	10	11
New Zealand	4	3	2	1
Sweden	6	2	2	1
Switzerland	25	12	12	9
United States	6	8	4	4

Source: OECD PISA 2003 database.

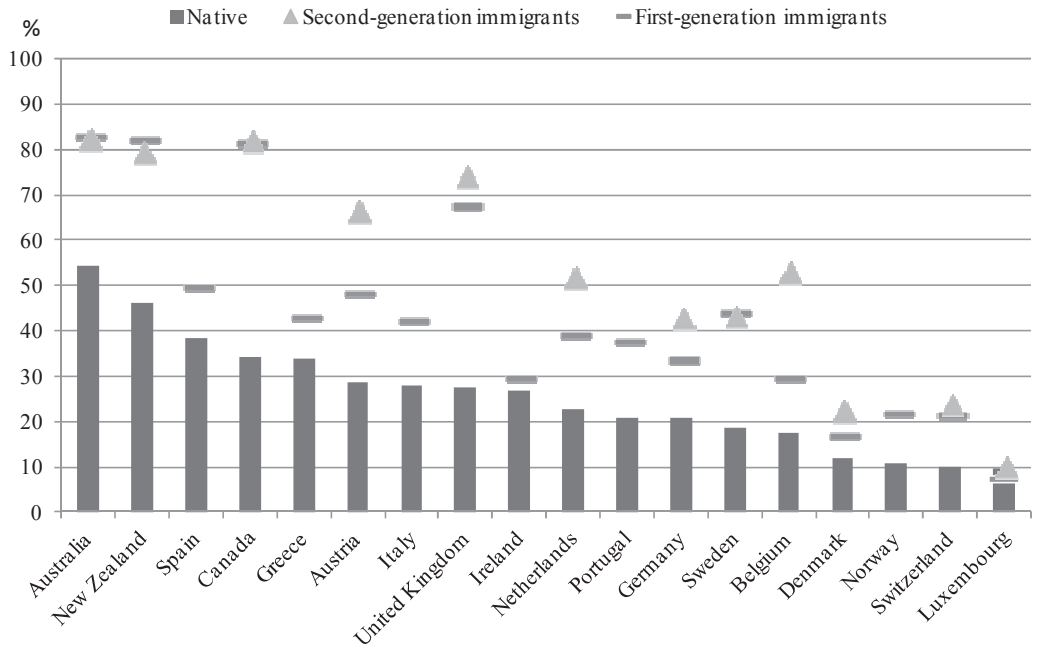
- In the OECD review countries, except Ireland, immigrant students, and in particular first-generation immigrants, tend to have a higher risk of dropping out from secondary schools than their native peers.
- In some countries, immigrant students are often over-represented in vocational tracks and are more likely to drop out, in particular, from the most basic vocational programmes (*e.g.* Austria, Denmark and the Netherlands).

Access to quality education

- Immigrant students are more likely than native students to be enrolled in urban schools with high concentrations of students from immigrant and/or less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds. They are more likely to enrol in lower level and vocational programmes, and less likely to enrol in academic programmes leading to advanced qualifications. In most OECD countries, immigrant families are more likely than natives to be concentrated in big cities in which their children more likely will attend schools (see Country Background Reports; OECD 2007). In the majority of countries, at least 40% of immigrant students were enrolled in schools in big cities (Figure 2.4). This may reflect the availability of employment opportunities as well as the preferences of immigrants.

Figure 2.4. Students attending schools in big cities, by immigrant status

Percentage of students attending schools in a city with more than 100 000 residents



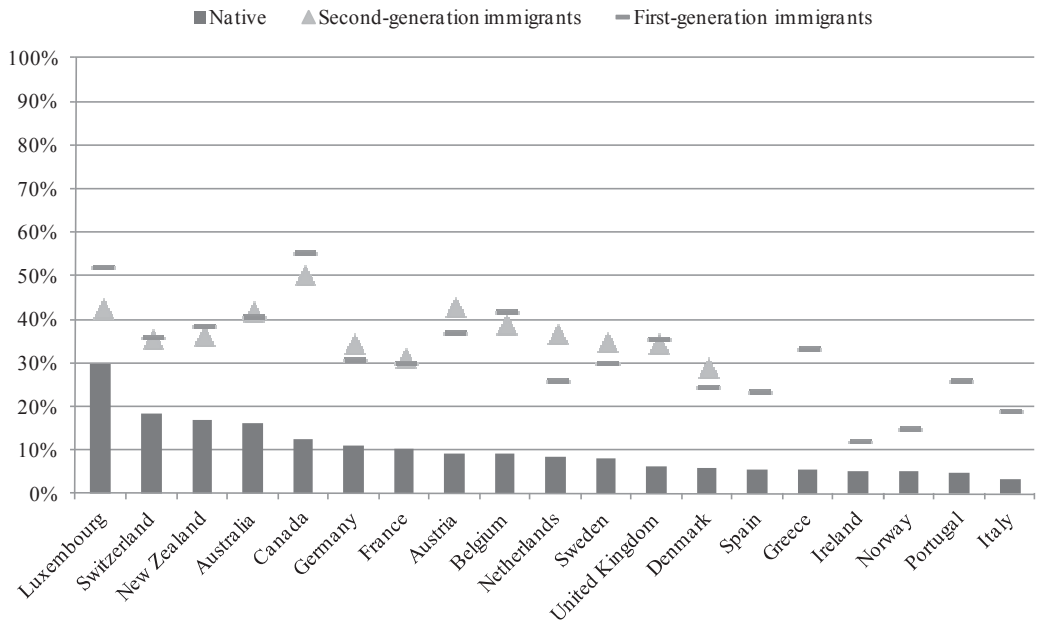
Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

- In countries with early selection and vocational tracks (*e.g.* Austria, Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands), immigrant students are more likely to go to vocational schools and non-academic tracks of education programmes than their native peers.

- In all OECD countries, immigrant students are, on average, more likely than native students to attend schools with a higher concentration of immigrant students (Figure 2.5). In some countries, the level of concentration of immigrant students in schools that first-generation immigrant students attend is more than four times higher than that of their native peers. To a certain extent, this may reflect residential patterns and school choice, but it is also influenced by other factors.

Figure 2.5. Concentration of immigrants at school

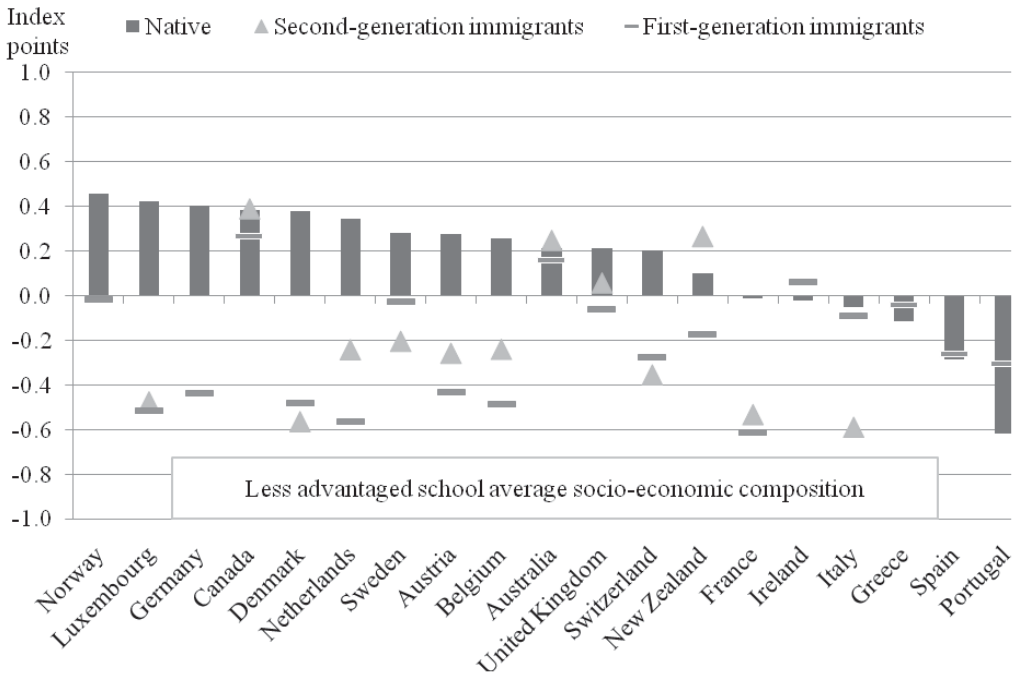
Percentage of immigrant students in the schools that immigrant and native students attend



Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

- In the majority of countries, immigrant students – in particular first-generation immigrant students – are more likely to attend schools with less socio-economically advantaged[4] student populations than their native peers (Figure 2.6). The exceptions are three of the traditional settlement countries, Australia, Canada and New Zealand and two new immigration countries, Ireland and Greece, in which immigrant students and native students attend schools with comparable (or more advantaged) socio-economic compositions.
- Immigrant students in some countries are more likely than native peers to attend schools with less favourable learning environments according to the results from PISA 2003 (OECD, 2006).[5] In these countries, immigrants are more likely to be in a school environment characterised by high levels of student absenteeism and a poor disciplinary climate.
- However, in the majority of countries, there is no significant difference in native and immigrant students' access to schools in terms of the quality of their educational resources proxied by student/teacher ratios, the extent of teacher shortages and quality of the school physical infrastructure (OECD, 2006).[6]

Figure 2.6. School average socio-economic composition, by immigrant status



Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

Major factors linked to education outcomes of immigrant students

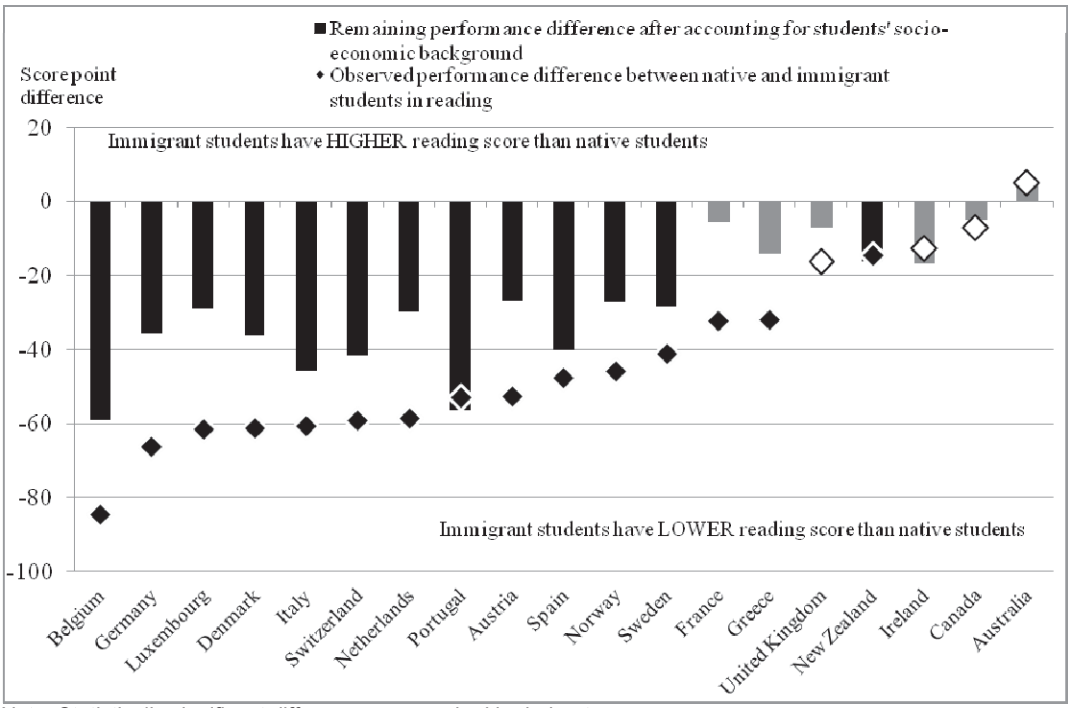
What are the factors associated with positive education outcomes for immigrant students? Results from international student assessments and research findings suggest:

- Immigrant students come from diverse cultural and socio-economic backgrounds. Although immigrants are a very heterogeneous group, significant proportions of immigrant students come from less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds. Parents' occupations and education backgrounds are important factors associated with better performance for both native and immigrant students (OECD, 2007).

- Socio-economic background is strongly associated with student performance; performance differences are substantially reduced after accounting for socio-economic factors such as the occupation and education level of students' parents. However, it does not fully explain the observed performance disadvantage for immigrant students, and in most countries, substantial performance gaps for immigrant students remain even after accounting for socio-economic backgrounds (Figure 2.7).

- Many immigrant students speak a language at home other than the language used at school. This, together with their socio-economic background, largely explains their comparatively lower performance in many countries. But in some countries, the performance gap between immigrant and native students still remains even after accounting for language and socio-economic background (Figure 2.8). This implies that the performance disadvantage of immigrant students cannot be attributed solely to background characteristics of immigrant students.

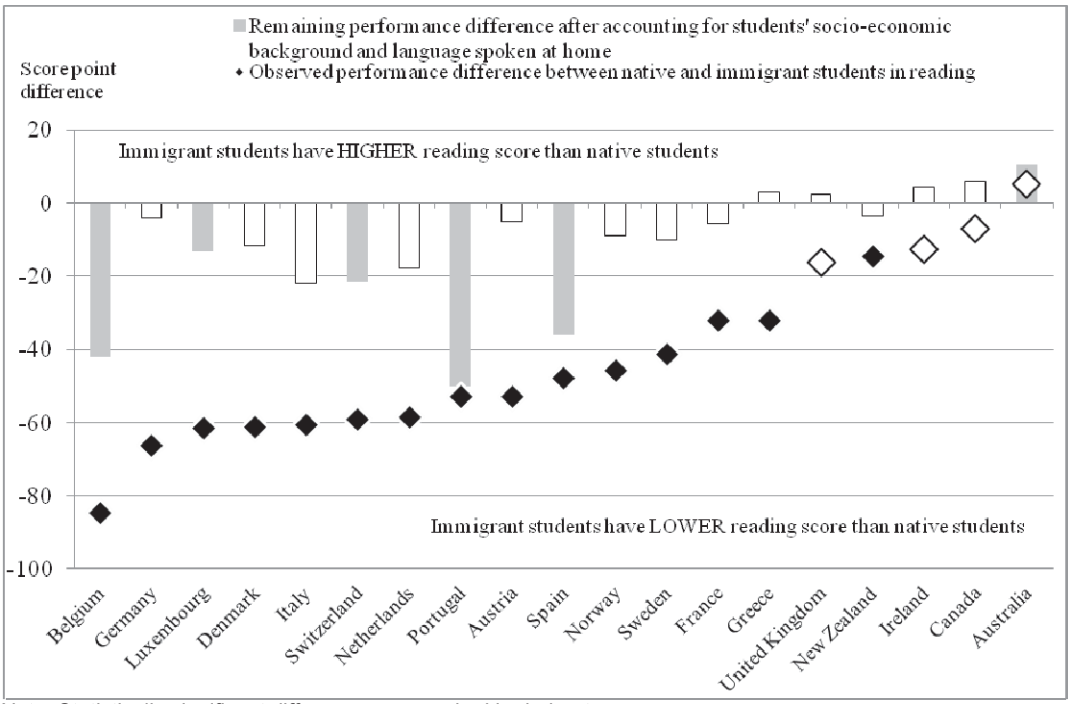
Figure 2.7. Effects of socio-economic background on student performance



Note: Statistically significant differences are marked in darker tones

Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

Figure 2.8. Effects of socio-economic status and language on student performance



Note: Statistically significant differences are marked in darker tones.

Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

- Evidence also indicates that support for learning in the home is an important element to success. In addition to the educational level of parents, the availability of educational resources at home such as a desk, books for school work, calculator, computer and a quiet place to study are all important factors associated with better performance for immigrant students in many countries (Table 2.7).

- Furthermore, reading at home at a young age (*e.g.* reading books and telling stories to children before beginning primary school) is positively associated with student performance in primary education (Table 2.7).

Table 2.7. Effects of home learning on education outcomes for immigrant students

	Nature of support (as reported by students):			
	Educational resources to learn at home (PISA 2006)		Early home reading activities (PIRLS 2006)	
	2nd generation	1st generation	2nd generation	1st generation
Australia	+	+	n.a.	n.a.
Austria	~~	+	+	+
Belgium	+	+	n.a.	n.a.
Flemish Com.	+	+	+	+
Canada	+	+	+	+
Denmark	~~	+	~~	n.a.
France	n.a.	n.a.	~~	n.a.
Germany	+	+	+	~~
Greece	n.a.	+	n.a.	n.a.
Ireland	n.a.	+	n.a.	n.a.
Italy	n.a.	+	n.a.	~~
Luxembourg	+	+	n.a.	n.a.
Netherlands	+	~~	+	n.a.
New Zealand	+	+	+	+
Norway	n.a.	+	+	n.a.
Portugal	n.a.	+	n.a.	n.a.
Spain	n.a.	+	n.a.	~~
Sweden	~~	+	~~	+
Switzerland	+	+	n.a.	n.a.
United Kingdom	+	+	n.a.	n.a.
England	n.a.	n.a.	~~	+
Scotland	n.a.	n.a.	~~	n.a.
United States	n.a.	n.a.	+	~~
+	Positive relationship with performance			
~~	No relationship with performance			
n.a.	No data available			

Source: OECD PISA 2006 database; IEA PIRLS 2006 database.

- In addition to individual and family factors, there is some evidence of school and institutional factors that are positively associated with immigrant student performance. For example, participation in pre-school is strongly associated with better education outcomes at age 15, even when socio-economic background is considered (OECD, 2004).

- In many countries, immigrant students may perform better if they attend schools with students from more advantaged socio-economic backgrounds (Table 2.8).
- Evidence from individual countries shows that students perform better in schools with a higher average socio-economic composition regardless of their own socio-economic background, possibly due to positive peer influences and/or role models (for Denmark, see Rangvid, 2007).
- The relationship between the level of concentration of immigrant students in a school and education outcomes is less clear. Van Ewijk and Sleegers (2009) conducted a meta-analysis of several studies and found that the concentration of immigrant students in schools has little effect on the outcomes for immigrant students and no effect for those of native students. However, several researchers have found that a high concentration of immigrant students in schools is negatively associated with student performance (*e.g.* Karsten *et al*., 2006; Nordin, 2006; Szulkin and Jonsson, 2007). Further, it can be argued that attending schools with fewer native students may hinder immigrant students' opportunity to develop competencies in the language of instruction, and reduce their chance to interact with native students.

Table 2.8. School factors associated with education outcomes of immigrant students

	More advantaged socio-economic composition of school		More average hours per week spent learning at school	
	2nd generation	1st generation	2nd generation	1st generation
Australia	+++++	+++++	++	++
Austria	+++++	+++++	- - -	- - -
Belgium	+++++	+++++	+++	++
Flemish Com.	+++++	+++++	+++++	++++
Canada	++++	+++++	+	+
Denmark	++++	~~	~~	~~
Germany	+++++	+++++	~~	~~
Greece	n.a.	++++	n.a.	++
Ireland	n.a.	+++++	n.a.	~~
Italy	n.a.	+++++	n.a.	+++
Luxembourg	+++++	+++++	+++++	+++++
Netherlands	+++++	+++++	~~	~~
New Zealand	+++++	+++++	+++++	++++
Norway	n.a.	+++++	n.a.	+++
Portugal	n.a.	++++	n.a.	++++
Spain	n.a.	+++	n.a.	+++
Sweden	++++	++++	~~	~~
Switzerland	+++++	+++++	++	++
United Kingdom	+++++	+++++	+++	~~
~~	Relationship with performance is not statistically significant.			
- / +	Less than 20 score point change in reading performance.			
- - / ++	Between 21 and 40 score point change in reading performance.			
- - - / +++	Between 41 and 60 score point change in reading performance.			
- - - - / ++++	Between 61 and 80 score point change in reading performance.			
- - - - - / +++++	More than 80 score point change in reading performance.			

Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

- In many countries, more hours of learning the language of instruction in regular lessons at school are associated with better outcomes for immigrant students (Table 2.8).
- In some countries, there is a positive relationship between performance and the presence of arrangements for reporting student performance results against some standards (*e.g.* in comparison with students in the same grade in the same school, students in the same grade in other schools, or comparison against national or regional benchmarks) (Table 2.9).

Table 2.9. Accountability and education outcomes for immigrant students

	School informing parents of children's performance relative to….					
	National or regional benchmarks		Other students in the same grade in the school		Students in the same grade in other schools	
	Native students	Immigrant students	Native students	Immigrant students	Native students	Immigrant students
Australia	+	~~	++	++	~~	~~
Austria	~~	+++	~~	~~	~~	~~
Belgium	- - -	~~	++	+++	~~	++++
Flemish Com.	~~	+++	++	++++	~~	++
Canada	~~	~~	+	~~	~~	~~
Germany	~~	~~	~~	~~	- -	~~
Greece	~~	~~	++	~~	~~	~~
Italy	++	~~	~~	+++	~~	+++
Luxembourg	++	-	+	- -	++	++
Netherlands	++	++++	~~	~~	~~	~~
Portugal	~~	~~	~~	~~	~~	+++
United Kingdom	~~	- - -	~~	~~	~~	~~
~~	Relationship with performance is not statistically significant.					
- / +	Less than 20 score point change in reading performance.					
- - / ++	Between 21 and 40 score point change in reading performance.					
- - - / +++	Between 41 and 60 score point change in reading performance.					
- - - - / ++++	Between 61 and 80 score point change in reading performance.					

Note: Results are from school principal reports in PISA 2006. The table presents results only for countries where there are significant relationships with performance.

Source: OECD PISA 2006 database.

Policy implications

Countries face challenges in catering to the diverse needs of immigrant student groups and narrowing the gaps in education outcomes between native students and immigrant students. International and national evidence suggest that strategies to raise education outcomes for immigrant students need to focus on school level and system level tools:

- preparing school leaders and teachers to meet the needs of diverse student groups;
- stimulating language learning at an early age through institutional arrangements such as expanded participation in ECEC, as well as pedagogy, such as systematic continuous language support for children throughout their education;
- increasing student opportunity to learn language in regular school lessons;

- supporting students from less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds to stimulate their learning at home (better information and use of libraries, home-visiting programmes, etc.);
- ensuring flexible learning opportunities for adult immigrants, in particular those with limited education or language proficiency;
- encouraging family support for their child's education;
- encouraging schools to effectively co-operate with families and communities to support immigrant students' learning activities;
- increasing provision of compensatory educational support outside regular school time;
- prioritising support to immigrant students who are at risk of not achieving basic academic standards;
- managing the student composition of schools;
- collecting appropriate data on educational outcomes for immigrant students;
- using effectively student performance data (*e.g.* using data for identifying challenges for immigrant students and offering timely targeted support).

The following chapters examine how countries are developing and implementing such strategies. The chapters will also examine other strategies identified in country reviews and qualitative research. Notwithstanding the lack of empirical evidence, such strategies are equally important as they present stories which statistical analysis cannot tell due to the unavailability of relevant statistical data.

Notes

1 . The minister is responsible for coordinating integration topics across the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, the Department of Community, Rural and Gaeltacht Affairs, and the Department of Education and Science.

2. The selected countries include Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Scotland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.

3. Pre-school (pre-primary education, ISCED 0) is defined as the initial stage of organised education, designed primarily to introduce very young children to a pedagogical environment. ISCED level 0 programmes should be centre or school-based, designed to meet the educational and developmental needs of children at least three years of age, and have staff that are adequately trained (*i.e.* qualified) to provide an educational programme for the children.

4. The PISA index of economic, social and cultural status (ESCS) was derived from the highest international socio-economic index of occupational status (HISEI) of the father or mother, the index of highest educational level of parents (HISCED), and the index of home possessions (HOMEPOS). It has been constructed to have an OECD mean of zero and a standard deviation of one, which means about 68% of students are between +1 and -1 of ESCS values.

5. Learning environments include: 1) students' views on attitudes towards school and sense of belonging at school; and 2) school principals' views on: their perceptions of teacher morale and commitment, teacher-related factors (*e.g.* low expectations of students), and student-related factors (*e.g.* student absenteeism). For details, see pp. 169-172 (OECD, 2006).

6. School resources include: 1) quality of the physical infrastructure; 2) quality of the educational resources (*e.g.* instructional materials, computers for instruction, library, etc.); and 3) teacher shortage. For details, *ibid.*

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Chapter 3

School level policies

The country reviews have shown that to close the achievement gap between native and immigrant students, it is not enough to develop policies and curricular adaptations at the national level. Institutional changes must be made within every school, including changes in school leadership, teaching methodologies and school-home co-operation. This chapter focuses on policies and practices at the school level that can help school leaders and teachers respond to the increasing cultural and linguistic diversity of their students.

The first section of this chapter is dedicated to promising language support policies and practices. Proficiency in the language of instruction is a major tool and precondition for learning. But second language development is only one aspect of responding to diversity in the practice and planning of the school. The second section, on teaching and learning environments, suggests that a whole-school approach is needed to ensure that support for immigrant students is provided not only in specialised courses but in an integrated way across the curriculum and throughout all school- and after-school activities. Finally, the third section points to the importance of developing new ways of communication and collaboration to support parental and community involvement in schools with a diverse student intake. Taken together, these three approaches can help establish a positive school and classroom climate that treats diversity as a resource rather than an obstacle for successful teaching and learning.

Language support

Policy Issues

Proficiency in the language of instruction is a critical factor for immigrant students to participate and perform well in school. Language competencies are essential for students to grasp subject content and interact with their teachers and peers. Those who do not master the language of instruction will face significant academic challenges (Schnepf, 2004; Christensen and Stanat, 2007). Therefore, language support should be a priority in migrant education policy.

Indeed, almost all OECD countries provide special assistance to meet immigrants' particular language needs; however, the organisation of such provision – *e.g.* the amount, contents, and pedagogy – vary considerably from country to country and from school to school (OECD, 2006; Eurydice, 2008). Countries with relatively small performance gaps between immigrant students and their native peers have provided sustained and time-intensive language support in primary and secondary education, with clearly defined goals and standards for the teaching of the language of instruction. In contrast, countries with a large gap between these students tend to provide less systematic support (OECD, 2006).

Some features of successful examples include: offering sustained language support across grade levels; centrally developed curriculum documents; teachers specifically trained in second language teaching; assessment of individual student needs and progress with adequate diagnostic materials; early language interventions and parental involvement in language stimulation; a focus on academic language and integration of language and content learning; and valuing of different mother tongues. Building capacity of the school team through these features will require careful planning and implementation.

Promoting a positive and consistent approach to language development at all levels of education

Many countries lack an explicit and consistent language policy that promotes a common approach to language development within the education system. Language support at different education levels and school types is often fragmented, with little coherence in curricular goals and instructional approaches. Often, language support is increasingly present in pre-primary and primary schools but is less systematically provided in secondary schools, where it can be most needed, particularly if immigrant students do not enter the education system in the host country at the beginning of their education.

Continuous language support throughout all levels of education is particularly helpful to ensure successful transitions from one level of education to another. While students generally acquire communicative language skills relatively quickly, developing the discrete language skills and more academic language used in school environments takes significantly longer (Cummins, 2000). Language development should thus be seen as an important and continuous mission of kindergartens and schools from ECEC to upper secondary education.

It is also important to ensure that schools adopt a positive approach to multilingualism and language development. In some schools, the approach to language development focuses disproportionately on the "deficits" that immigrant students may have in the language of instruction and not enough on the benefits and linguistic resources that these students bring to the school system. Such a deficit-oriented approach could lead to teachers lowering their academic expectations for immigrant students.

A clear and explicit language policy for the entire education system could help create much needed co-operation and consistency. Such a policy should take a positive approach to immigrant students and focus on their linguistic resources and potential. The language policy should state that all school types and levels of education share responsibility to develop the language competencies of students. In addition, the language support should be guided by centrally developed curricula and guidelines, provided by qualified teachers and be based on the assessment of individual student competencies (see below).

Centrally developed curriculum

Consistent curricula and guidelines for language development support can help create coherence for students' language learning as they transfer from one level of education to the next. Most countries have explicit curricula or guidelines for second language teaching in place, or have started recently to develop them (OECD, 2006). But country experiences show that implementation of such curricula at the school level is a critical issue. It will require conscious efforts and strong leadership by governments; a well thought out implementation plan; sufficient time; awareness, understanding and confidence of school leaders and teachers; and practical tools to support practitioners.

Teachers trained in second language acquisition

A lack of focus on second language acquisition as a distinct competency and low status of the language support courses are often reported as an issue for teachers. To increase the number of qualified specialist teachers in second language development, some countries have introduced second language development as a subject of pre-service and in-service training. For successful implementation, it is essential to give clear incentives. Otherwise, take-up may suffer, especially of current teachers. They often report a lack of time and incentives as a reason for non-participation in professional development.

Assessing language competencies

To provide optimal language support, it is essential to first assess the language competencies of each student. Presently, however, language support sometimes seems designed to suit the organisational needs of the school rather than the language development needs of the student. Some countries require language screenings for all children at an early age like three or four while others assess immigrant children when they first enter the education system. A lack of capacity or testing materials that take into account language and cultural differences is often reported as a challenge. The Council of Europe has set up the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages to validate language competencies at different levels (*www.coe.int*).

Early language stimulation and parental support in language learning

Language stimulation and support should begin before children enter the school system. Some second-generation children, despite having spent all their childhood in the country, may have limited proficiency in the language of instruction when they start primary school (AERA, 2004; Knapp, 2006). Providing early language stimulation is an important part of improving the linguistic school readiness of immigrant children. This can be done effectively by encouraging immigrant children to participate in high quality early childhood education and care programmes.

Reading at home is a powerful way of stimulating language development. However, immigrant parents may not have the habit of reading books to their children in their mother language or may not be able to read books in the language of the host country due to a lack of proficiency in that language. In this respect, language support in the language of instruction and information on how to teach at home should be given for parents through adult and other further education programmes.

Focusing on academic language

Early language stimulation is important, but the school system is still important in supporting continued language development of immigrant students throughout primary and secondary schools. Teachers sometimes report that the benefits of early language support seem to diminish towards the end of primary education, as instruction becomes more complex in nature. Being at ease with the language of instruction does not mean that students adequately master academic and written language. To prevent immigrant students from falling behind their native peers in the higher grades, it is essential to provide ongoing language support at all levels of education where language needs are identified and to integrate aspects of language support into all subject teaching.

Integrating language and content learning

Language development and cognitive development are closely connected. Language learning seems to work best when students can use the second language as a tool for learning. However, some countries report that language support has little connection to the wider school curriculum. Lack of communication between language and subject teachers may limit the possibilities for integrated language and content learning.

To improve the integration of language and content learning, not only specialist language teachers but all subject teachers should be trained in taking students' language needs into account. If subject teachers are also trained in second language acquisition, they may communicate better with language teachers. If these teachers can work together to teach content and language in a coordinated, reinforcing way, this can help improve pedagogy for immigrant students, *i.e.* by avoiding postponing the content learning (Watts-Taffe and Truscott, 2000) and developing both cognitive, linguistic and communicative capacities at the same time (Au, 1998).

Countries that place students with insufficient knowledge of the language of instruction in separate groups often find that an important issue is whether or not the regular class is ready to welcome the student. It is of particular importance that he/she can make a smooth transition and continue to receive language support in the regular class. Integrating language

and content learning also helps overcome the problem of immigrant students having to choose between language learning and other courses.

Support for newly arrived students at a later age

Students who arrive in the country at a later age will need particular language support to facilitate their successful integration into the education system. Some students – often refugees or asylum seekers – may lack basic competencies in education whereas they may not be able to read well even in their mother language. These students need special language support combined with other basic educational support, without stigmatising their lack of proficiency in certain areas, but emphasising their competencies.

Although the human brain continues to be receptive to new semantic information throughout life, research suggests that second language might be acquired more easily and faster in primary than in secondary education and that policy needs to take into account how the brain processes information and knowledge for that particular age (OECD, 2002). New arrivals especially at a later age are now a high policy focus in some OECD countries.

Valuing and validating mother tongue proficiency

Immigrant students may have knowledge of or be proficient in several languages that could be an asset in the school system and in society more broadly. The sheer number of different languages represented in immigrant communities and the significant challenges in logistics and resources mean that it is not practical to teach every student in their mother tongue. There are many different ways for education systems to use the native languages of students to differing degrees to help them achieve in education.

Such approaches can include offering immigrant languages as modern foreign languages within the curriculum, using bilingual classroom assistants, providing team teaching with a mother tongue teacher and training teachers to support their students in using their language competencies as a learning tool.

Valuing the mother tongue of immigrant students is an essential part of developing a positive and appreciative approach to diversity and identity. It means seeing students' language capacities as part of their personal, social and cultural identity and welcoming it as a tool for learning and understanding (Holmen, 2008). It can also help students bridge the gap between home and school, build their confidence and raise motivation (Driessen, 2005; Brind *et al*., 2008). Research indicates that competencies acquired in one language can be relatively easily transferred to another language (Cummins, 1979; 1980; 2000).

Questions that policy makers need to consider

- Is there a clear language policy outlining the main principles for language support in the education system? Is the language policy communicated effectively to all stakeholders?
- Is language support consistently offered in all school types and levels of education? Do kindergartens, primary schools and secondary schools co-operate to support coherent language learning of students across transitions?

- Are elements in place to standardise the language support offer to meet the needs of each student, *e.g.* through earmarked resources, clear assessment and criteria for eligibility, a right to language support for all students with an identified language need, entitlement to a certain number of hours, rigorous curricula and clear goals and standards to be attained?
- Is there an adequate supply of training for teachers to become specialists in second language support? Are mainstream teachers sufficiently prepared to support the language development of students across the curriculum? How could the existing materials or tools for language support be most effectively disseminated to teachers?
- Is the language development of all children assessed at an early age in order to provide pre-school language support for children who need it? Are measures in place to ensure that all children benefit from this measure, including children who do not attend kindergarten?
- Are parents receiving clear messages from the school system about how to best support their children's language learning? Who in the institutional landscape of the host country is well positioned to advise parents?
- Is language support explicitly linked to the mainstream curriculum? Is language development the responsibility of the whole school and of all subject teachers? Are specialists in second-language acquisition available to support the subject teachers?
- Is there a clear policy on how to best integrate new arrivals, *e.g.* separate classes, language support within regular classes, mainstreaming with some additional support classes? Can immigrant students make a smooth transition from language to mainstream classes?
- Are approaches in place to value and validate proficiency in the mother tongue, *e.g.* assessing mother tongue proficiency, allowing students to take their mother tongue as a discrete subject in secondary education, organising team teaching with a mother tongue teacher?

Some policy options

- Provide continuous and systematic language support across different grades and education levels. Develop a clear language policy with principles and goals for language development support across the entire school system. Pay special attention to newly arrived older immigrants.
- Design curricula and guidelines that define goals and standards for language acquisition. The guidelines should help facilitate integrating language and content learning.
- Design assessment criteria and procedures carefully to identify the individual language support needs of each student and develop practical tools such as assessment kits and guidelines that are age and culturally appropriate. Establish guidelines on how to share student information and diagnoses across transitions to provide optimal support.
- Provide special resources (financial or additional teachers) to schools with immigrant students who need language support.
- Provide an early start in language stimulation and support parents in reading at home both in their mother language and the language of instruction.

- Train all teachers in second language acquisition to ensure smooth transition from induction to integration, *i.e.* extend support measures beyond the initial settlement phase.
- Communicate clearly with parents about language support opportunities together with other general information about education systems. Encourage schools to find local solutions to provide translated materials and interpreters in a cost-effective manner, such as by sharing these materials and interpreters and finding interpreters from communities. Encourage immigrant communities and parents to be involved as sources of mother language teaching and role models.
- Value mother languages of immigrant students. Offer elective subjects in the mother language as foreign language learning in the official curriculum and/or allow the mother language to be a subject as part of the state examination system.

Examples of promising policy responses

Continuous language support at all levels of education

- In **Germany**, the model programme "Support for Children and Youth with a Migration Background" (*Förderung von Kindern und Jugendlichen mit Migrationshintegrund – FörMig*) aims to develop and implement innovative ideas for language support at all levels of education. The focus points are: 1) language support based on individual language assessments; 2) continuous language support across the entire school system; and 3) language support in the transition from school to the labour market. The programme structure is geared to enhance co-operation between different school levels and types, the educational administration and other partners such as parents and local agencies.

Developing curricula for language acquisition

- **Sweden** developed curricula for "Swedish as a Second Language" for immigrant children and "Swedish for Immigrants" for adult immigrants. The curriculum for early childhood education and care institutions stresses the right of multilingual children to be supported in their all-round language development both in Swedish and in their mother language.
- **Norway** has developed curricula for "Basic Norwegian for language minorities" for minority students with Norwegian language proficiency difficulties. It is a transitional, level-based, age-independent curriculum. Norway has also developed a curriculum "Mother Language for language minorities". It is a level-based curriculum and aims to enhance the students' proficiency in Norwegian by supporting their proficiency in their mother language.

Offering language assessments and tailored support

- In **Denmark**, all children undergo language screening at age three and are obliged to complete a language stimulation course if professionals decide that they need it. In addition, all immigrant students also undergo language evaluation when they first enter the school system, to determine if they need language support. The Danish Ministry of Education has made language evaluation materials available to municipalities at no

cost. The Ministry also financed the development of special assessment material for bilingual students which can be used by teachers to assess their language proficiency and development needs in the language of instruction at different ages. The material was developed by a researcher in second language acquisition and is made available to schools and municipalities on the internet.

- In **Norway**, children's language development is assessed at age four both in their mother language and Norwegian at health clinics. Access to quality early childhood education and care and a stimulating language environment in kindergartens are seen as important in the follow up of children with special needs. On the basis of the evaluation, closer assessment and diagnosis will be offered to tailor language teaching and education to the needs of children. Moreover, diagnostic tests have been developed by the National Centre for Multicultural Education (NAFO) to help teachers assess a student's ability considering language development, dyslexia and impairments to their cognitive development. Such tests are being developed in different languages in order to distinguish problems associated with cognitive development and Norwegian language skills.
- In **Ireland**, Primary and Post-Primary Language Assessment Kits have been prepared for teachers to enable them to make an initial assessment and to continuously assess their students' language progression. The assessment kits use the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. In primary school, the kit recommends that students are continuously assessed at levels A1, A2 and B1 and that "when pupils are capable of performing in the assessment tasks at this level [B1], and of achieving the scores indicated, then their full integration into mainstream learning is possible". All four separate language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing must be assessed.
- In the **United States** (California), students identified as English Learners (EL) in K-12 public schools are required to receive services designed to meet their linguistic and academic needs based on assessments made by the local employing agency. English Learners receive English language development and specially designed academic instruction in English provided by teachers authorised for such instruction until the students are reclassified as English proficient.

Stimulating early language learning and home support

- **Norway** recently revised the "Framework Plan for the Content and Tasks of Kindergarten". The revised framework requires kindergartens to actively support children in using their mother language and, at the same time, to promote their Norwegian language skills. A policy paper has also been prepared to manifest a strong focus on language development in early years. Models to stimulate all-round language development are being piloted, involving families and communities ("Family Learning Models"). One model, called "Open Kindergarten with Library" aims to stimulate children's language learning by inviting parents to stay with their children any time during the day and participate in learning activities.
- In the **Netherlands**, *Samenspel* aims to improve both the host and the mother language of children. It is directed towards mothers and children around age three who live rather isolated from the general community. Two educators – one native and one immigrant teacher – support language learning through adopting a playful approach. Mothers receive learning items to practice at home.

- In the **United States**, the "Success for All" programme focuses on early literacy training. It features a combination of group instruction and individual tutoring at the pre-school and primary level. The programme has been implemented in 1 300 schools in 500 districts across 48 states. An evaluation conducted in Philadelphia showed some positive effects on reading skills for certain immigrant groups: children from low-income Asian families who began "Success for All" in kindergarten were reading nearly at grade level by the end of first grade (Slavin and Yampolski, 1992).

Connecting parents' and children's language learning

- In **Austria** (Vienna), the "Mum Learns German" programme is designed so that mothers are connected to their children's language learning. They receive German courses at the kindergarten or school attended by their children. Although no data are available on the impact on student performance, an evaluation shows that the programme is highly accepted among school managers, teachers and parents. A positive impact is also reported on school climate and school-parent communication (Wroblewski and Herzog-Punzenberger, 2009).
- In the **United States** (Massachusetts)**,** the "Intergenerational Literacy Project" (ILP) is a collaborative project between a school district where the majority of families are new immigrants, a local university (Boston University) and community organisations. It provides opportunities for adults to read and respond to literacy materials; a selection of books, strategies and ideas for adults to support their children's literacy development; and a forum through which adults can share their family literacy experiences (*www.bu.edu/ilp/staff/index.htm*).
- In **Ireland**, one sixth of primary and one fifth of post-primary schools offer English language classes to immigrant parents (Smyth *et al*., 2009).

Ensuring a smooth transition from language classes to mainstream classes

- In the **United States**, the "Newcomer Schools Program" is designed specifically for new adolescent immigrants with limited schooling / low literacy and no or low English proficiency. It aims to promote a smooth transition of newcomers into mainstream schools through individualised language support. The curriculum is designed to cover one to three years and includes both first language development and second language instruction. The level of English as a Second Language (ESL) classes is based on individual placement assessments and students' progress is frequently assessed throughout the programme. The programme includes not only language courses but also instruction in core academic subjects as well as activities (*i.e.* field trips, cultural activities, special events), study skills development, career counselling, extracurricular activities, and "email buddies" with students from local mainstream schools.

Integration of language and content learning

- **Ireland** has developed "Intercultural Guidelines" for both the primary and post-primary sectors to assist teachers in including intercultural education throughout the curriculum and to encourage the inclusion of language learning in all aspects of the curriculum. Specific tips are provided in the guidelines, *e.g.* to present material that is cognitively optimal for immigrant students, to provide instructions accompanied by

actions and visual aids, and to provide learning materials with context for understanding.

- In the **United Kingdom** (England), the focus is on placing English language learners in age-appropriate classes as soon as possible, rather than keeping students in separate language classes. All teachers are expected to provide development opportunities in English as an Additional Language (EAL) through special curriculum activities in mainstream classes. In addition, EAL specialist teachers provide advice and guidance to subject teachers on how to include English language learning opportunities in content lessons. The specialists also collaborate with mainstream teachers to provide collaborative support in classes with EAL learners (Leung, 2004).
- In **Denmark**, many schools have assembled teacher lessons and other language support resources in a centre within each school, usually called the language centre used by a few teachers who spend a significant portion of their working time teaching second language and mentoring their colleagues. Evaluations have shown that these centres, when well-implemented, have a positive effect on the learning environment for immigrant students (UC2 and KLEO, 2004; EVA, 2007).
- In **Austria**, children aged six to ten can learn German and play sports during their holiday camp. The "Talk Sports" programme aims to improve their German in their leisure time.

Valuing and supporting the linguistic resources of immigrant students

- In **Ireland**, a number of full curricular languages are available in the Leaving Certificate examination: French, Spanish, German, Italian, Russian, Arabic and Japanese. EU students can take EU mother tongues as non-curricular languages in the examinations.
- In the **Netherlands,** students can choose their mother language as their second foreign language as part of the curriculum.
- In **Sweden**, immigrant children in early childhood education and care institutions are entitled to mother language support. Immigrant students in compulsory education and in upper secondary education are entitled to mother language tuition as a school subject if certain other criteria are met (*e.g.* that there are more than five children in the school who want tuition in that language and a teacher can be found). The syllabus covers the literature, history and culture of the country of origin. The grades in this subject are considered equivalent to those in other subjects. It is in most cases an extracurricular activity outside normal scheduled lessons but students may be able to study the subject as an alternative to the second foreign language as a school option.

Using resources in immigrant communities and parents for mother language support

- In **Austria** (Upper Austria; Salzburg), the "Backpack Parents Project" aims to empower mothers as the experts in their mother tongue. Parents are invited to school to learn how their children are taught and receive materials to teach their own children in their mother tongue. The evaluation of the project, although not a quantitative evaluation but involving interviews with teachers, parents and children, showed that parents were satisfied with the project and felt that their children were learning.

- In **Norway**, "Reading Friends" aims to develop both children's mother language and Norwegian, strengthen the multicultural perspective in school and kindergarten, develop good co-operation between schools, kindergartens and home, and increase the use of local library among immigrant families. Children aged ten prepare themselves to tell stories in their mother language. They practice reading books at school and read for their families at home. After practicing, they visit two kindergartens, where they sit with kindergarten children sharing the same mother language and read the stories to them. The parents of the kindergarten children can borrow the same books after the reading sessions.

Sharing web-based resources for mother language support

- **Sweden** has developed a web-based teaching aid, *Tema Modersmal* (*modersmal.skolverket.se*), to address logistical and cost-related challenges in offering mother language support. The website hosts different mother tongue rooms and provides tools for communicating in different languages. These rooms are run by mother tongue teachers at both early childhood education and care and school level. To benefit from this initiative, **Norway** has started to collaborate with Sweden in using the website and has contributed resources in several languages. Norway has developed a Norwegian version of the website, which is interconnected with Sweden's website.

Teaching and learning environments

Policy issues

For immigrant students to succeed in schools, it is essential to create inclusive school and classroom environments that focus on nurturing and developing the competencies of all students. According to an OECD study on teacher education, "a successful programme treats diversity as a source of potential growth rather than an inherent hindrance to student performance" (Burns and Shadoian-Gersing, 2010).

Beyond language support (see previous section), research highlights the following pedagogical and organisational strategies as particularly relevant to improve teaching and learning in socially, culturally and linguistically diverse schools: formative assessment, differentiated teaching, safe and orderly classroom and school climates, high expectations, distributed school leadership, monitoring and evaluation of progress, sharing of good practices, and co-operation with parents and local communities (OECD, 2005, OECD, 2006; Field *et al*., 2007; Pont *et al*., 2008; Nusche, 2009). Such strategies will support school improvement and be beneficial for all students, not only the immigrant students. They need to be supported via strong initial training and professional development for teachers and school leaders.

Ensuring positive learning environments for diverse students

As student groups are becoming increasingly diverse in their cultural and linguistic backgrounds, teaching methodologies must be sensitive to what different students already know and can do and must actively build on this knowledge. Teachers must be able to

conduct formative assessments and give tailored feedback that provides challenge and encouragement to each student (OECD, 2005; OECD, 2010). Teaching and learning strategies should be consistent with clear goals and expectations, so that students can fit their activities within larger objectives.

Moreover, the OECD study on *Innovative Learning Environments* points out that learning is not just about cognitive development but also about students' motivations and emotions (OECD, 2010). The results from PISA (OECD, 2006; 2007) show that immigrant students report similar or higher levels of motivation than their native peers in almost all OECD countries. This is a very positive finding, on which teachers and school leaders should build in order to reach better education outcomes for these students.

Learning is also a social process which occurs not just within individuals, but through interaction, negotiation and co-operation (OECD, 2010). The social interactions in the classroom may influence students' well-being, learning attitudes and behaviour. In socially and culturally heterogeneous classrooms, particular attention needs to be paid to the climate for learning. For example in Norway, evidence from the annual pupil survey indicates that while the incidence of reported bullying is low overall, it is slightly higher in schools with higher shares of students speaking minority languages. Teachers in multicultural schools need to attend to classroom discipline and co-operative learning, with early identification and responses to cultural conflicts, peer pressure and bullying.

Raising expectations

A consistent body of literature points to the importance of high teacher expectations for student achievement. Inversely, low expectations can have negative consequences on student motivation and performance. In fact, experimental research indicates that erroneous teacher expectations can become "self-fulfilling prophecies", *i.e.* they can lead students to perform at levels consistent with these expectations (Rosenthal and Jacobson, 1968; Brophy and Good, 1974; Rosenthal and Rubin, 1978).

There is evidence from several countries that immigrant students tend to experience lower teacher expectations and/or a less well developed culture of achievement than their native peers (*e.g.* Beady and Hansell, 1981; Ehrenberg *et al*., 1995; Dee, 2005; Rangvid, 2007; Van Ewijk, 2009). The country reviews indicate that the diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds of immigrant students are sometimes perceived by teachers as a problem or deficit rather than a resource and opportunity. It is thus essential for policy makers to ensure teachers become better prepared to deal with heterogeneity.

Ensuring adequate diagnosis of student performance and potential

In the country reviews, teachers often reported that they did not have the diagnostic competencies and tools at hand to assess their immigrant students' linguistic and cognitive capacities properly. Without assessment materials that take diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds into account, there is a risk that language development needs could be misinterpreted as special educational needs, or inversely that such needs are overlooked because of language difficulties.

There is also a risk that low expectations towards immigrant students and/or biases in assessment procedures may lead to immigrant students being disproportionately allocated to less challenging educational tracks and classes. Studies from a range of countries have

revealed that at similar achievement levels, immigrant, minority and less socio-economically advantaged students were more likely than other students to be placed in special needs education or in the lower tracks or non-academic/vocational programmes of mainstream education (Resh, 1998; Prenzel *et al.*, 2005; Strand, 2007; Field *et al.*, 2007; Nusche, 2009).

Training teachers for diversity

Teaching students from a range of different backgrounds takes a complex set of skills that many teachers have not gained through formal training. In most countries, the teacher training does not include a mandatory module on dealing with diversity in the classroom. In the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), 47% of teachers across participating countries reported a high or moderate professional development need related to teaching in a multicultural setting (OECD, 2009; Jensen, 2010).

Specific training in intercultural education can help teachers to become more aware of diverse student needs, to focus on potentials and opportunities rather than deficits, and to develop didactic skills to support second language learners. To equip all teachers to meet the challenges connected with an increasingly diverse student population, several countries have included diversity training in initial teacher education. Given the fact that in many countries diversity is now a significant and permanent feature of schools, such training should be part of the core pedagogical training of all teachers. To make such training relevant to different subject teachers, elements of intercultural education and second language acquisition should also be mainstreamed in all teacher training subjects. While better pre-service training is essential to prepare the next generation of teachers, countries also need to extend in-service training in order to increase capacity among the existing teacher force.

Placement of qualified and experienced teachers

Schools with high proportions of immigrant students often face greater problems in terms of teacher inexperience and attrition. Research has shown that, in some countries, teacher preferences direct the more qualified and more experienced teachers to schools enrolling mostly native and well-off students (Hanushek *et al.*, 2001; Bénabou *et al.*, 2003; Karsten *et al.*, 2006). It is therefore essential to take the concerns of teachers seriously and to provide incentives and working conditions that can attract high quality teachers to the schools which need them the most.

Hiring additional teachers in schools with high proportions of immigrant students can help provide better conditions for teachers and more responsive schooling for immigrants. It can allow for team teaching and collaboration between mainstream teachers and second language teachers.

Higher teacher density can also allow schools to create smaller classes, which may improve the classroom climate and enable teachers to provide more individualised support. A review of international research on class size seems to show that while the impact of smaller classes on mainstream students is rather modest, class size reductions do have a significant effect on disadvantaged students including immigrant, minority and low income children and that the effect is greatest in the earlier grades, particularly kindergarten to third grade (Santiago, 2002; Nusche, 2009).

Teachers with immigrant background

In many countries there is a growing disparity between an increasingly diverse student population and a relatively homogenous (largely native, middle-class, female) teacher workforce. This can make the educational experience more challenging for immigrant students.

To make the teaching workforce more representative of the student population, some countries have implemented initiatives to hire more teachers from ethnic minority or immigrant backgrounds. Immigrant-origin teachers who are familiar with the experiences, culture and language of immigrant students can serve as role models and enhance the self-confidence and motivation of immigrant students. They can also play an important role in school-home liaison and help bridge the gap between families and schools.

Positive school climate, effective leadership and whole-school approach

Several countries participating in the OECD review report that more attention needs to be paid to the overall school climate in schools with a high concentration of immigrant and less socio-economically advantaged students. Creating a positive school climate requires early identification and responses to safety and behavioural challenges and to issues related to peer culture and bullying. In addition, some immigrant students with a refugee background may need not only pedagogical but also psychological support which the school could facilitate in co-operation with other partners.

School leadership plays a key role in adapting school environments to the specific mix of students and local circumstances (Pont *et al*., 2008). While effective leadership matters for all schools, it is especially important for schools in more challenging circumstances (Leithwood *et al*., 2004, Mulford *et al*., 2008). Common features of successful leadership in challenging schools have been found to include a culture of high expectations, a core belief that all students can achieve irrespective of context or background, alignment of others to shared vision and values, distributed leadership, staff development and community building (for a review, see Mulford *et al*., 2008).

Moreover, effective collaboration of the school with parents, communities and other partners is an essential part of the whole-school approach (see next section). Schools can play an important role in reaching out to social service agencies and communities to impact on the conditions which influence their own work with students (Pont *et al*., 2008).

Despite the increasing diversity of student bodies, in most countries school leaders have no formal training on diversity, intercultural pedagogy and language development. Thus, they may lack the awareness, knowledge and skills necessary to guide their teachers in providing quality support to students with a range of different learning needs. Diversity training for school leaders could be embedded in whole-school professional development programmes, which offer possibilities of tailoring the training to the need of the individual school and involve both teachers and leaders.

School evaluation and teacher appraisal policies

International research highlights the importance of school leaders and teachers continuously monitoring their schools' performance in order to improve their practice (Robinson, 2007; Wößmann *et al.*, 2007). However, it appears that schools in many OECD

countries operate in a relatively unenlightened situation concerning their performance and progress in catering to the needs of immigrant students.

On average across countries participating in the OECD TALIS study, 20% of teachers worked in schools that had never been evaluated (through external or internal evaluations) over the last five years, and 29% of teachers reported that they had never received any appraisal and/or feedback on their work (OECD, 2009).

Moreover, where school evaluations and teacher appraisals take place, they rarely focus on linguistic and cultural diversity issues. In TALIS, school principals and teachers were asked which criteria were considered with high or moderate importance in school evaluations and teacher appraisals; of the 17 proposed criteria, "teaching in a multicultural setting" was the lowest rated criterion (OECD, 2009).

However, TALIS indicates that when "teaching in a multicultural setting" is given a focus, then teachers report that it has an impact on them and their teaching (Jensen, 2010). This seems to indicate that the inclusion of diversity issues in teacher appraisal and school evaluation could help schools improve their practice in this area.

Access to research and good practice examples

A major challenge identified in all country reviews is the fact that there are insufficient support structures, guidelines and accessible advice related to migrant education and quality management. This means that even if teachers and leaders are better trained in assessment and identifying weaknesses they are not necessarily well prepared to respond to signs of underperformance, as they lack access to relevant research and evidence on effective practice. Networking and sharing of good practice between schools, between different levels of education and across regional boundaries is still rather limited across participating countries.

It is therefore essential that greater emphasis is placed on constant monitoring and evaluation of practices and on communicating and disseminating research results. Policy makers should consider funding national research on effective teaching strategies specifically for teaching immigrant students. Another way of stimulating the development of effective methods is to fund development activities at schools in well-defined areas that can be thoroughly evaluated. Once effective practices have been developed, they need to be collected, shared and disseminated. This can be done through a clearinghouse designated for this purpose and through more localised structures and peer learning networks.

Questions that policy makers need to consider

- What training and competences do teachers in multicultural schools need? Do teachers in multicultural schools presently have these competencies?
- Does pre-service teacher training include a mandatory module on teaching multilingual and culturally diverse student populations? Are teachers trained in dealing with heterogeneous classrooms? Are in-service training offers in this area available/ mandatory for teachers?
- Is there evidence that schools with high proportions of immigrant students have difficulties in attracting and retaining quality teachers? If yes, what support and incentives can be provided to attract and retain teachers in these schools?

- Does the composition of the teaching profession reflect the composition of the student population in terms of demographic diversity? What programmes are in place to encourage immigrant-origin students to enrol in teacher training? Or to facilitate teachers qualified in one country teaching in another country?
- Do teachers have the competencies to diagnose bilingual learners' needs? What types of diagnostic tools are available for teachers to use? Are such tools adequate to diagnose the learning needs for students of different ages? Are they culturally sensitive?
- Do school leaders promote a shared vision and values with respect to an inclusive and orderly school climate? Are they aware that all school staff have a role in integration and inclusion?
- Do school leaders have the awareness and competencies to work towards improving the education outcomes of immigrant students? Is there mandatory pre-service training for school leaders? Does it include structured training on diversity issues including second language development? Is in-service training for diversity available/mandatory for school leaders? Are there effective whole-school professional development offers in diversity management?
- Do schools embed assessment, teacher appraisal and school evaluation in their strategies for school improvement? Do school leaders and teachers have competencies to analyse data for improvement and design their own tools for assessment and evaluation?
- Is there a research institute or clearing house to collect and disseminate information on good practice in migrant education? Are there centralised feedback channels for schools to share experience and successful strategies?
- Are guidelines or web-based information structures available for school leaders and teachers to learn about effective practice in migrant education? Are there formalised networks for schools with high proportions of immigrant students to share and spread effective practice in migrant education?

Some policy options

- Review existing policies on initial and in-service teacher education to ensure that they consistently and explicitly address the needs of immigrant students. Include modules on formative assessment, differentiated instruction and dealing with diversity in mandatory teacher training courses.
- Ensure that all teachers have specific knowledge about second language development, understanding of language and literacy development, second language acquisition and academic language growth.
- Strengthen the diagnostic competencies of teachers and develop diagnostic tools and materials that teachers can use to monitor progress and performance of their students.
- Offer targeted initial and in-service training on diversity for school leaders, as well as whole-school professional development opportunities.
- Hire additional teachers in schools with highly diverse student populations to create smaller classes, enable teachers to provide more individualised support and to collaborate with classroom assistants and second language teachers.

- Increase the share of immigrant-origin students in teacher training and recruit more teachers with immigrant backgrounds, especially in schools with high proportions of immigrant students.
- Encourage the distribution of leadership in schools by offering training possibilities for leadership teams and middle managers and by recognising and rewarding teachers' contributions to leadership.
- Monitor and evaluate how teacher and school leader training for diversity translates into practice, to find out which types of training are most effective.
- Provide guidelines and support for school leaders and teachers in multicultural schools to help them address diversity issues and organise second language development across the curriculum.
- Strengthen the capacity of teachers and school leaders in assessment and evaluation. Provide tools, incentives and feedback mechanisms for schools to engage in school-self evaluation and continuously improve performance.
- Support research on effective practice in teaching immigrant students. Designate a research body or clearinghouse to bring together evidence and examples of good practice in this area and to disseminate such knowledge to schools.
- Increase school co-operation and ideas sharing, especially among schools with similar proportions of immigrant students. Provide for formalised networks of schools and especially school leaders to allow school professionals to learn from each other.

Examples of promising policy responses

Teacher training for diversity

- In **Norway**, the national strategy plan "Equal Education in Practice!" (2007-09) focuses on strengthening multicultural and inclusive teaching. Norway has introduced multicultural education and cultural diversity as a mandatory part of all four-year teacher education programmes. Most universities and university colleges in Norway also provide optional, in-service, supplementary education programmes (ranging from short, one-to-five-day courses to a full Master's degree) in multicultural understanding and multicultural pedagogy.
- In the **United States** (California)**,** the English Learner (EL) Authorisation requires all California K-12 teachers with at least one EL student to be able to provide English language development (ELD) and specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE). The authorisation can be obtained by 1) completing coursework for the Cross-cultural Language and Academic Development (CLAD) Certificate or 2) the California Teachers of English Learners (CTEL) Examination.
- In **Sweden**, through the programme "A Boost for Teachers", nearly a quarter of all teachers will receive further education over the next few years. Some 30 000 fully qualified teachers will be offered a chance to study at a higher education institution. The programme is available for qualified teachers who want to deepen their knowledge in different subjects. The courses available are arranged by universities and colleges. The state finances the programme by offering a government grant to municipalities, so

that teachers who participate in the programme can still receive 80% of their salary. The programme is co-ordinated by the National Agency for Education.

- In **Denmark**, aspects of intercultural education, especially being aware of students' language needs and adapting teaching accordingly, are now part of the mandatory initial teacher training. Student teachers can also choose Danish as a Second Language (DSL) as one of their main subjects of specialisation in initial teacher training. In addition, a number of resource centres offer in-service training in intercultural pedagogy and second language development that can be ordered by schools or municipalities and be tailored to their needs. Schools or municipalities can make it mandatory for their teachers to attend. In the municipality of Copenhagen, about half of the teachers have now taken training related to teaching in diverse classrooms. Shorter courses for subject teachers focus on integrating language and content learning throughout the curriculum. Longer courses may lead to a pedagogical diploma degree and include training related to formative assessment, intercultural pedagogy and second language acquisition. An evaluation report concludes that pre- or in-service training of teachers in these areas improves the everyday teaching practice at schools (EVA, 2007).
- In the **United States** (California), "Multicultural/Multilingual (M/M) Teacher Preparation Center", an academic programme at California State University at Sacramento is specifically designed to prepare future teachers to work in multicultural and multilingual settings. Emphasis is placed on teachers who are committed to increasing social justice and educational equity for low income and culturally and linguistically diverse groups.

Prioritising formative assessment and differentiated teaching on the policy agenda

- In **Finland**, teachers are trained early in initial training to deal with heterogeneity, using a broad spectrum of methods to differentiate instruction and respond to the needs of each student. Finnish schools tend to group students more according to their interest in certain subjects than to their intellectual potential. Only a small number of children attend special schools, and Finnish classrooms are heterogeneous in terms of students' abilities and backgrounds. This demands efficient learning in small groups, with teachers ready to arrange new groups where necessary. Research appears to indicate that in Finland mixed ability classes have greatly benefitted lower-achieving students, while higher-achieving students are not negatively affected by changes in the composition of a learning group (OECD, 2004).
- An OECD report on formative assessment (OECD, 2005) shows the increased focus on such practices across countries: In **Denmark** and **Italy**, formative assessment receives high visibility in central legislation. **Australia, Canada, Finland, New Zealand** and **Scotland** encourage the use of summative data for formative purposes. **Scotland** is moving towards a more teaching and learning oriented system of formative assessment, where external tests are only used occasionally (where pupils need a summative record of achievement). Guidelines on formative assessment have been embedded in the national curriculum and other materials in **Australia, Canada, New Zealand** and the **United Kingdom**. A web-based library of guidelines, tools and case studies on "assessment for learning" has been made available in the **United Kingdom** by the Department for Children, Schools and Families to help school leaders and teachers guide and implement formative assessment.

Personalised support and learning pathways

- In **Sweden**, all students have the right to receive academic and career guidance prior to selecting an educational programme or occupation in compulsory school. In upper secondary school, guidance counsellors usually offer personal counselling sessions about educational programmes and occupations. They may also assist with study planning, changes and transfers (Swedish Ministry of Education and Research, 2008). Some immigrant students are old enough to start in upper secondary education but without the necessary qualifications for the national programmes. Such students are able to study in an "individual" programme. The aim of the programme is for the student to acquire the necessary qualifications to be entitled to a national upper secondary education programme.

Hiring more teachers to reduce class size and/or provide more personalised support

- In the **United States**, Tennessee's Project STAR (Student/Teacher Achievement Ratio Study), which was based on a randomised experiment involving 11 000 students, found that class size reductions had a significant (positive) effect on test scores, especially for students from less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds.
- In 2007/08, **Austria** introduced the "25 Plus" initiative which aims to reduce the maximum number of students per class to 25 in all primary and lower secondary schools while at the same time strengthening the capacity of teachers to personalise teaching and learning.
- In **Ireland**, the EAL programme targets schools with a certain number of immigrant students who speak English as a second language. Additional resources include additional teaching staff (*i.e.* teachers for English as additional language) and teaching materials. The number of additional English teacher resources allocated to schools is determined by the number of students enrolled for whom English is a second language. A significant amount of resource material is available on the Department of Education and Science Accessing Intercultural Materials (AIM) Portal (*www.education.ie* and *www.integration.ie*).

Attracting immigrant-origin students to teacher training

- In the **United Kingdom** (England and Wales), the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) has introduced measures to attract more visible ethnic minority entrants to the teaching profession. These measures have included targeted advertising, mentoring schemes, taster courses, training bursaries, and the setting of recruitment targets for initial teacher training institutions (Carrington and Skelton, 2003).
- In **Denmark**, a national campaign to attract immigrant-origin teachers included targeted advertisement, flyers, a website, conferences and other events where "role models" provided information about the career pathway of teachers. One teacher training college, which already had an above average share of immigrant students (21% in 2006), reported an important increase of new students with an immigrant background following the campaign: in 2008, 50% of the newly enrolled students had an immigrant background.
- In **Canada** (Toronto), the "York University Urban Diversity (UD) Teacher Education Program" intentionally recruits teacher candidates from widely diverse racial, ethnic,

linguistic, religious, and social class backgrounds; and to prepare teachers through experiences that link schools, university, and urban communities, candidates are required to take part in community-based projects. The evaluation of the programme shows a wide variation of results and experiences. Some came to see the community as a valuable partner in education and were challenged in their assumptions about urban, inner-city communities.

Increased employment of bilingual teachers

- In **Denmark**, the Ministry of Education recommended that municipalities should employ bilingual teachers in schools with a high proportion of immigrant students. In the municipality of Copenhagen, the school authorities have created a wage structure that recognises the mother tongue and cultural competences of immigrant-origin teachers as a qualification that makes them eligible for a higher salary in the same way as formal qualifications. This reflects the view of the school authorities that teachers' familiarity with the language and culture of immigrant children is considered a professional asset.

Flexible recognition of foreign teacher training qualifications

- In **Norway**, persons with bilingual/multicultural backgrounds who have basic teacher training from their native countries and who wish to become formally recognised teachers in Norway are eligible for stipends/grants so that they can acquire the supplementary education they need to qualify as teachers. In 2004, nine university colleges in Norway developed a common framework for a net-based three-year teacher education programme for mother-tongue teachers, bilingual teachers and bilingual assistants who wished to complete their competence. The aim was to provide a bachelor's degree in bilingual education to participants who successfully completed the three-year programme. This programme, which started in 2005, has been very successful. Today, eight university colleges are offering the programme. In 2007, seven teacher education colleges and universities received financial support from the government for a project running from 2007-10 that is developing and testing a bachelor's degree for multilingual early childhood education and care teachers.

Strengthening school leadership through guidelines and training

- In the **United Kingdom** (England), the National College for School Leadership has developed a "Guide to Achieving Equality and Diversity in School and Children's Centre Leadership". The guide highlights the need for a clear diversity policy at the school level and outlines key equality and diversity actions for school leaders to follow, along with case studies and examples.
- In **Australia** (Victoria), guidelines for managing cultural and linguistic diversity have been prepared for school principals to affirm cultural and linguistic diversity and uphold the rights and responsibilities of individuals and groups in the education system.

Whole-school approach to school capacity development

- In **Ireland**, the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) distributes "Guidelines on Intercultural Education" which take a whole-school, cross-curricular approach and provide advice to the whole school team. A cross-border "Toolkit for

Diversity" has also been developed and sent to all primary schools in Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. The Toolkit aims to assist schools with ensuring the creation of a welcoming and intercultural learning environment that is respectful of all students.

- In the **United Kingdom** (England), the whole-school professional development programme "Raising the Achievement of Bilingual Learners" has helped raise the confidence of teachers to support their bilingual students and has led to improved student performance (White *et al*., 2006; Benton and White, 2007). The programme involved the following elements: support with building school leadership teams and creating an inclusive school culture; appointment of a second language consultant within the schools; diagnostic visit by a specialist; development of a migrant achievement plan; professional development for teachers; and additional support in the classroom.
- In the **United Kingdom** (England), the "Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant" supports whole-school change to narrow the achievement gaps between underachieving minority groups and native students. The programme provides additional funding to local authorities and schools with students from nationally underachieving ethnic minority groups and English language learners. The local authorities that were successful in raising student performance provided good practice guidelines and advisory services for schools. Many also offered professional development opportunities to train school managers and governors, with a focus on disseminating good practice, addressing the needs of ethnic minority students, and monitoring progress in the education outcomes of immigrant students.
- In **Switzerland**, the Quality in Multi-Ethnic Schools (QUIMS) programme provides extra financial resources and professional support to schools with 40% or more students from immigrant backgrounds. It aims to provide language instruction, adaptation of assessments to the needs of linguistic and socio-cultural diversity, and an inclusive and non-discriminatory school ethos.

"Extended schools" co-operating with the schools' environment

- In **Spain**, multicultural schools aim to build dialogue and collaboration between schools, teachers and immigrant communities. They organise discussions between immigrant associations and primary and secondary school teachers who serve students represented by the local community associations.
- In the **United Kingdom,** "Full Service Extended Schools" were developed in every local area to provide comprehensive services such as health care, adult learning, community activities, study support and childcare. These extended schools aim to address social, health and other concerns of students and their families while always highlighting education as the pathway to achievement, employment and inclusion. The final evaluation of the initiative found that the approach positively affects pupils' attainment and that these results are clearest for pupils facing difficulties. The initiative also had a positive impact on engagement with learning, family stability, adult learning and employment (Brind *et al*., 2008).
- In the **Netherlands**, municipalities organise community schools to enhance development opportunity for students, in particular students with disadvantaged backgrounds in various ways through creating a network with other local agencies for youth such as school boards, welfare services, health care, sports and cultural

institutions. Each community school may provide different activities to help disadvantaged students develop their potential based on the characteristics of students. Community schools are present in more than half the municipalities. Almost all primary schools in Amsterdam now offer extended services.

Dissemination of good practice

- In the **Netherlands**, there are national centres for pedagogical research disseminating advice and good practice for schools and teachers. For example, the National Centre for School Improvement (APS) has published a selection of pedagogical theories, strategies and tools for learning and education. It covers areas such as adaptive learning, co-operative learning, language learning, and learning as a group. Each of the 22 pedagogical theories gives a brief description of the pedagogical theory, describes how it can be applied along with examples of applications in schools, reflections on the educational practice, references to Dutch or international sources, and contacts at the National Centre for School Improvement who can give further advice to interested teachers. The Handbook is available in English at *www.apsinternational.nl*.
- In **Ireland**, the government has recently developed an information portal, "Accessing Intercultural Materials" (AIM) to bring together and share existing information with practitioners and stakeholders to facilitate the education of immigrant students.

Evaluation of school projects for immigrant students

- In **Denmark**, the "Task Force for Bilingual Pupils" enters into partnerships with municipalities and schools to fund specific development projects based on existing knowledge about good practice in order to create more robust information on different methods through testing them in different settings. Another Danish project, "This Works at Our School", examined schools with well performing immigrant students, identified elements of good practice and disseminated them through a website along with contact details of the schools. This allowed teachers and school leaders to get in contact with other schools and exchange information on relevant practice. The project was very well received by teachers.

Sharing of good practice between schools

- In **Sweden**, through the project "Idea Schools for Multiculturalism" the National Agency for School Improvement selected a number of successful schools that had a high proportion of pupils with a different ethnic, social, linguistic and cultural background. The selected schools served as role models for other schools, participated in school networks, received visits from other schools, answered questions and presented their work on the project's web site. In the evaluation report it is noted that the project has benefited the "idea schools" themselves the most, through the act of describing the work to others, and the contact with other "idea schools". The methods used have also benefited from the in-service training offered to participating schools.

Parental and community involvement

Policy issues

Parental involvement is an important characteristic of effective schools in building inclusive and culturally responsive education (Brind *et al*., 2008; Heckmann, 2008). Research shows a positive relationship between parental involvement and students' performance (Henderson and Mapp, 2002; Office for Standards in Education, 2002; Jeynes, 2005). Furthermore, parental involvement is positively related to student achievement regardless of their backgrounds such as immigrant status or ethnicity (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003; Schofield, 2006).

Parents can be rich resources for schools. Compared to native parents, however, immigrant parents are often less likely to get actively involved in their children's education. In the country reviews, several schools reported that they had invested a great deal of efforts in engaging parents, but that they had varying degrees of difficulty in effectively communicating with immigrant parents. On the other hand, parent unions sometimes reported that the education system lacked initiative to provide education to best benefit children whose parents are less in a position to help with homework or pay for private tutoring.

Two forms of parental involvement are often found to be beneficial to children's educational achievements: 1) support at home such as discussing school activities and homework assistance; and 2) communication with school such as parent-school meetings and participation in school activities (Smit *et al*., 2007; Nusche, 2009). To be fully involved, immigrant parents need sufficient language proficiency in the language of instruction to provide rich learning environments at home and communicate with the school. However, some immigrant parents may themselves have limited education, which can be an additional barrier to supporting their child's learning at home and may require heightened support from schools and communities.

Communities can also offer a wide range of valuable resources to schools and students. The partnerships between schools and different levels of education, various local communities and business sectors can bring extra resources (such as additional language teachers, role models and opportunities for work experience) for immigrant students' learning and have positive effects on students' achievement.

To benefit from parental and community involvement, governments should stimulate schools' and teachers' initiatives to reach out to wider groups of immigrant parents and communities.

Language barriers

Research from different countries indicates that immigrant parents may not be able to be actively involved in children's education due to their own proficiency constraints in the host language or due to their own educational experiences, despite their willingness (Smit *et al*., 2007). In some countries, the language barrier is less problematic as the majority of immigrant parents are well-educated and already speak the language of the host country as a prerequisite to work in the local labour market. However, in some contexts, it is reported that even these well-educated immigrant parents might not have sufficient language proficiency to interact effectively with schools, teachers and communities (McGorman and Sugrue, 2007).

Insufficient knowledge about the host country education system

Research indicates that the greatest obstacles to engaging immigrant parents include lack of knowledge of the educational system in the host country and low self-confidence to play a role in their child's school (Smit *et al*., 2007; Heckmann, 2008; Schofield, 2006). It is important that they are empowered and understand what roles they could play in helping their children's learning.

Research indicates that immigrant students and their parents experience difficulties adjusting to new school life due to cultural differences (Smyth *et al.*, 2009). Cultural differences may also hinder immigrant parents to become actively involved in their children's school life and communities. In some cultures, immigrant parents may simply trust teachers and schools and may not participate actively in their children's school life. It is important that schools consider cultural differences and adapt communication methods to reach out effectively to different immigrant parents.

Working conditions of immigrant parents

Even with the right knowledge and empowerment, immigrant parents may not be able to take an active role because they often hold labour-intensive jobs and have little time for school activities or help with homework. Schools should compensate for this through various actions, such as helping with homework and reaching out to parents and communities.

Resources and learning environments at home

On average across OECD countries, immigrant students tend to have less advantaged socio-economic home backgrounds than native students (Chapter 2). Lack of parenting resources and adequate study environments at home may hinder immigrant students to perform to their full potential (Heckmann, 2008; Schofield, 2006; Brilliant, 2001).

In some countries, immigrant students, often those who came as refugees or for family reunification, live in big cities and often in a small apartment. They usually lack study space at home, like a desk, as well as books for study and reading for pleasure. They frequently do not receive assistance with their homework at home.

In some countries, the types of homework are changing and require more parental support at home. Project-based homework, unlike paper-based homework, can require multiple skills such as using interactive media and site visits. Schools or communities could set up homework centres where children could be helped when their parents cannot. They can also encourage students to use public libraries to study and to access educational and other books, including those in their mother tongue.

After-school time and summer holidays

In countries providing half-day schooling, there is more responsibility on parents to provide educational support to their children. This can often be challenging to immigrant parents who may have limited skills in the language of instruction and in some cases may have low education levels. They may be working, thus not at home in the afternoon. Immigrant students, therefore, may not get sufficient opportunity to develop their academic abilities to the same level as their native counterparts.

Similarly, school holidays provide excellent opportunities for children to learn and have new experiences outside school. Parents with less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds may be less in a position to offer such opportunities due to lack of financial resources or vacation time. To prevent immigrant and less socio-economically advantaged children from falling behind over the summer holidays, schools can collaborate with communities and parents to provide summer school and after-school activities to students.

Getting voices of immigrant parents heard

The country reviews showed that immigrant parents often have less of a voice in official school/parent partnership channels, *e.g.* they are less likely to be represented on school boards and advisory councils (Smit *et al*., 2007). School boards need to invest more to realise effective partnerships with all parents. Schools need to provide a framework and encourage immigrant parents to voice their concerns through a formal channel.

Capitalising on the resources of immigrant communities and local partners

Schools may find additional financial and/or non-financial resources by establishing partnerships with communities, local businesses, private foundations, charitable organisations and NGOs. There are various practices of partnerships in many OECD countries. However, evaluating the effect of such partnerships is not well-developed. The challenge is how to identify good practices, share them among schools and scale such good initiatives up to the national level.

One promising example identified across many OECD countries is finding mentors from communities to support learning for students from disadvantaged backgrounds, including immigrant students. Mentoring, especially by mentors of immigrant backgrounds – so-called ethnic mentoring – is often found to be an effective approach in providing additional educational support and raising the self-confidence of immigrant students (European Commission, 2008; Brind *et al*., 2008). Immigrant adults with the same background as immigrant students can become "community liaison coordinator" to facilitate communication between immigrant families and schools.

Questions that policy makers need to consider

- Are major obstacles of parental involvement for immigrant families well-identified? If so, what are the major obstacles? How can central governments address these challenges in co-operation with local educational authorities and schools?
- Are there enough opportunities for adult immigrants to learn the host country language and receive information on educational system of the host country?
- Is information on the educational system and existing resources easily accessible to immigrant parents? If so, is this information provided in major immigrant languages and in different formats?
- Are there national platforms for immigrant parents? How do they support schools, teachers and immigrant parents in order to improve the immigrant parents' involvement?

- Are different communication strategies used to reach out to parents with limited capacity in the host country language? For instance, are adults with immigrant background used as "community liaison" coordinators between schools and parents?
- To what extent are immigrant parents and community members engaged by schools as resources for their children's education?
- Are school leaders and teachers ready to engage in partnership with parents and communities? Is building partnerships with parents and communities included in required programmes for initial teacher education? Is in-service training of building partnerships available to current teachers and school leaders?
- How could the whole-school approach best facilitate school communication with parents, communities, NGOs, and other schools?

Some policy options

- Ensure accessibility of information on the education system and on existing support for immigrant parents and their children. Provide information in major immigrant languages and disseminate information by a web-based portal as well as by face-to-face consultation.
- Consider establishing home/school/community liaison coordinators within schools to facilitate contacts between teachers, families and communities.
- Develop a national-level platform to promote and support immigrant parent involvement. Central governments can support a national platform that assists schools and local education authorities involve immigrant parents in their children's education through connections with local platforms.
- Support and evaluate experimental programmes in municipalities and schools to involve parents in their children's education. Based on the evaluation, identify good practices and disseminate such practices to other schools.
- Make training (initial teacher education and in-service training) available on building partnerships with parents and communities to teachers and school leaders.
- Ensure that schools, in co-operation with relevant authorities, where possible, develop plans for parental involvement. Monitor and evaluate adequacy of plans and progress towards achieving the objectives of such plans (by educational inspectorates).
- Capitalise on the resources of immigrant parents to reach out to other immigrant parents (*e.g.* home visitors) .
- Ensure that schools engage local businesses and community members (particularly immigrants) as additional resources for immigrant education and as role models for immigrant students.
- Engage college students with immigrant backgrounds to help immigrant students in primary and secondary schools through mentor programmes.
- Enhance cross-sectoral co-operation between schools, social welfare, health and housing to improve education outcomes of immigrant students.

Examples of promising policy responses

Providing adequate information through various communication channels

- In **Austria**, the Ministry of Education, the Arts and Culture developed a DVD for parents showing information on the education system and on how to get involved with other parents and existing initiatives.
- In **Ireland**, the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment's DVD *The What, Why and How of Children's Learning in Primary School* is an example of an information resource for parents. It is available in English with language subtitles in four other languages (*www.ncca.ie*).
- In the **United States** (California), the Puente programme provides non-traditional forms of counselling, which facilitates the contact between schools and parents, offers information about the requirements for college and helps create a supportive network for students and parents (*www.puente.net*).
- In **Denmark**, some schools have "hot lines" for parents to help them if they have queries, others organise father/son or mother/daughter/son clubs.

Establishing partnerships between schools and parents

- In the **United States,** schools receiving federal funding (through Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act) are required to establish partnerships with parents to support students' success in education.
- In **Ireland**, the Home School Community Liaison (HSCL) scheme has established collaboration between parents and schools. The HSCL scheme targets schools in disadvantaged areas, and works with disadvantaged parents, rather than just immigrant parents *per se*. Immigrant status is not a criterion used to determine disadvantage. The scheme provides various supports for parents to become more involved in their children's education. The examples include courses and training in parenting skills, a parent room that is used to support parent activities and parental development and home visits by HSCL coordinators.

National platform for immigrant parents

- In the **Netherlands**, the Platform for Ethnic Minority Parents and Education (*Platform Allochtone Ouders en Onderwijs, PAOO*) was established in 2006 in addition to the general parents' association, which takes a leading role in promoting parental involvement among immigrant parents throughout the country. The government has financed the platform. There are local platforms in 30 large municipalities, which carry out their own activities supported by the national platform. The activities of platforms include: helping immigrant parents understand the Dutch school system and the importance of parental involvement in their children's education; supporting training programmes through which teachers better understand the social and cultural context of immigrant families; participating in home visits; providing homework supervision; and supporting mixed school initiatives to mitigate segregation in education.

Involving parents in early childhood education and care

- In **Australia, Chile, Germany, Israel, New Zealand** and the **United States**, the Home Instruction for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) programme has been widely implemented, which targets disadvantaged families including low-income, immigrant and ethnic minority parents. The programme involves home visits by tutors from the same background to teach parents how to facilitate their children's learning at home using workbook activities. It aims to improve parenting skills and enhance parents' awareness of their possibilities as home educators (Nusche, 2009). The evaluation results from various countries have shown benefits such as significant performance advantages for participating children.
- In **Sweden**, open pre-school activities are a drop-in form of activity that children and their parents can attend for social and educational stimulus. Open pre-school is primarily designed for children who do not attend any other form of pre-schooling.
- In **Norway**, the "Family Learning" project aims to develop different models for the education of linguistic minority children, students and participants. Examples of models include:
  - "Open Kindergartens with Library: Better School Start for Children and Families", among other goals, aiming to stimulate children's language learning and increase parents' participation in language stimulation and homework;
  - "Family Learning including Norwegian Education for Early Childhood Education and Care Children and Their Mothers" aiming to offer Norwegian language stimulation to four-to-five-year-old immigrant children who do not attend kindergarten with mothers' more active involvement in their children's education; and
  - "Reading Friends": Collaboration between Kindergarten, School and Library aiming to develop both children's mother language and Norwegian, strengthen the multicultural perspective in school and kindergarten, and increase the use of the local library among family members.

Involving parents in classroom instruction

- In **Austria** (Salzburg and Upper Austria), through the "backpack parents" project, parents are invited to school to learn about pedagogical approaches used in school and receive materials to teach their own children in their mother tongue at home. The idea is to empower mothers and involve them as the experts able to provide additional support in the mother tongue.
- In the **United Kingdom** (Birmingham), "Involving School Parents in Reading and Mathematics" (INSPIRE) aims to encourage the involvement of parents in their children's literacy and numeracy in all of Birmingham's 370 primary and nursery schools. Networking is a key element of the programme building partnership between schools and various local agencies such as health agencies, libraries and social services (GTC, 2007). Through the programme, in one class per school, each child brings a 'special' adult from home to work alongside the teacher on activities related to the curriculum (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003). The programme evaluation shows positive results (GTC, 2007; Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003). These include:

- over 40 000 parents become involved every year including those who have been difficult to engage such as ethnic minority parents
- educational activity at home has increased in 73% of schools
- parental understanding of children's learning has increased in 88% of schools
- in 61% of schools, achievement in literacy and numeracy has increased
- participants (children, teachers, parents) have reported feeling more confident in working together and in mathematics

Assisting and upskilling immigrant parents

- In **France,** the pilot project "Opening schools to parents to achieve integration" *(Ouvrir l'école aux parents pour réussir l'intégration)* was launched in 2008. It aims to support immigrant parents in learning French and understanding the French school system. The programme may include French as a Second Language instruction to facilitate professional integration; a presentation of the values of the Republic to facilitate social integration; and information on the French school system including rights and responsibilities of students and parents. Participation in the programme is voluntary and free of charge. The courses may last up to 120 hours, and the balance between the different modules is decided at the local level based on an analysis of parents' needs.
- In **Sweden**, language training, so called "Swedish for Immigrants" (SFI) comprises an essential part of the introduction programme for newly arrived immigrants. The primary purpose of the training is to help immigrants find employment and, therefore, the training is focused on raising Swedish proficiency for occupational purposes combined with work experience. The training period varies between 18 and 36 months. Language proficiency is assessed through a national standardised test. Based on the test results, labour offices decide if the applicant is "ready" for the labour market or should continue with the language training. Recently, the Swedish government introduced "Swedish for Immigrants (SFI) initiative – better quality and tougher requirements", which focuses on strengthening the incentives and means for achieving better quality and outcomes of the programme.
- In **Norway**, adult immigrants with a residence permit have the right and obligation to attend free Norwegian language courses. In 2007/08, about 23 000 immigrants took part in Norwegian language courses. Municipalities are responsible for disseminating information on the Norwegian language courses available for adult immigrants. Moreover, all adults (including adult immigrants with a residence permit) without primary and lower secondary education have the right to basic education. In 2007/08, 4 128 adults participated in basic education programmes, of which 70% spoke a minority language. Around 95% of participants in basic education programmes for adults were immigrants. Municipalities are responsible for disseminating information of Norwegian language courses available for adult immigrants and adults' rights to basic education.

Setting up "ethnic mentoring / role models" programmes

- In the **United Kingdom** (Leeds), the "Leeds Black and Ethnic Minority Mentoring Programme" was developed to target ethnic minority students (African Caribbean, Black Other, Pakistani and Bangladeshi) who have the potential to move on to higher education, but who are also at risk of leaving education early due to lack of motivation

and/or academic support. In a cohort study to establish the added value of mentors in increasing achievement, 83% of ethnic minority students met or surpassed their "value added" target in national tests at age 16 (Brind *et al*., 2008, p. 65).

- In the **Netherlands**, ethnic minority secondary school students receive support from a mentor, often a college student, who provides counselling in choosing further courses and acts as a role model (Herweijer, 2009). Municipalities with a high proportion of immigrant students have practiced mentoring projects. For instance, the "Moroccan Coaching Project" in The Hague, financed by the city council and schools, aims particularly at youngsters of Moroccan descent in a risk situation (Brind *et al*., 2008). The experience of mentoring projects indicate a positive effect on social skills and behaviour of ethnic minority "risk students" (*i.e.* students in the lowest tracks of pre-vocational secondary education) and preventing school dropout (Herweijer, 2009).
- In **Denmark**, "We Need All Youngsters" *(Brug for alle unge*) campaign was started by the Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration in 2002. Among other initiatives of the campaign, role models with immigrant background are used to motivate and retain immigrant students in vocational education and training. The role models are immigrants themselves and they share experiences with the young immigrants about learning the Danish language and general aspects of the Danish education system (Danish Ministry of Education, 2008). According to the evaluation done by LPX Consulting (2008), half the students of the target group found that the role models had inspired them to enrol in or complete an education.
- In **Germany**, the idea of "ethnic mentoring" has been developed by the Mercator Foundation. The project of "Educational Support for Children and Youth with a Migration Background" aims to support participating immigrant students but also mentors who are students in teacher training. Through the project, mentors gain experience in teaching immigrant children and are thus better prepared for their future role as teachers in increasingly diverse classrooms (Heckmann, 2008).

Encouraging community involvement in providing opportunities for young immigrants

- In **Germany**, as part of the National Integration Project, local authority organisations have initiated a number of voluntary programmes. Some examples include the following:
  - the nationwide network *SCHULEWIRTSCHAFT* (SCHOOLBUSINESS), arranges for partner companies and schools to train immigrant students for better vocational training
  - the "Turkish Community in Germany" (*Türkische Gemeinde in Deutschland*) organises an education campaign for parents of Turkish origin and establishes academies for parents and appoints 100 education ambassadors
  - public broadcasters and commercial broadcasters consider migration issues to be presented more sensitively in all programming and broadcasting
- In **Germany,** the "Integration of Young Migrants" (*Integration junger Migranten*) programme is run by Robert Bosch Stiftung Foundation. It supports promising project ideas from organisations for integrating young migrants in kindergartens, schools, and community activities. Prerequisites stipulate that these immigrants are actively involved in the planning and implementation of the project. Special consideration is given to projects which are implemented jointly by local people and immigrants (as

well as immigrants from different backgrounds), include voluntary work and involve the parents of young immigrants in their activities.

Providing additional learning time and after-school support

- In **France**, the voluntary programme *accompagnement éducatif* offers after-school support and activities to students in lower secondary education (*collèges*). It includes homework support, sports practice, artistic and cultural activities as well as support in French as a second language. In addition, the *dispositif de réussite scolaire* (successful learning approach) prolongs this offer into upper secondary schools (*lycées*), providing individualised support based on each student's needs both during the school year and during the school holidays.
- In the **United States** (Massachusetts), the "Expanded Learning Time" (ELT) initiative has been implemented in 26 public schools, serving a total of 13 500 students in 12 districts. The initiative includes more project-based and experiential learning, after-school activities and community-based partnership for students. It also provides for regular professional development and joint planning time for teachers. Preliminary results from the Massachusetts experiment suggest that the longer school day has positive effects on students' achievement in English, mathematics and science. Furthermore, ELT appears to help mitigate the achievement gap between white and minority students, in part by providing enrichment activities for minority students with disadvantaged home learning environment (Massachusetts 2020 Foundation, 2009).
- In **Sweden**, school-age childcare for children up to 12-years-old is open before and after school and during school breaks. After-school centres are mainly located close to the schools and co-operation between the teachers and the staff at the after school centre is important to enable the children to complement their school activities with recreational activities. After-school centres have the same curriculum as the early childhood education and care classes and the compulsory school. At school-age childcare, teachers can, for example, help students with homework.
- In **Germany** (Saarland), the summer school "Migrant children learn German during the holidays" offers a three-week intensive language support and social experience. The summer school systematically combines German as a Second Language support and language-related theatre workshops. It is also aimed to help build intercultural and social contacts and further self-esteem, self-confidence and understanding.

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Chapter 4

System level policies

This chapter focuses on policies and practices to ensure coherent provision of migrant education throughout the education system. The country reviews have revealed many examples of promising practices at different levels of education. The challenges ahead will be to learn from these practices and to implement them on a wider scale. Of critical importance are political leadership, adequate resources and incentives, knowledge management and clear policies informed by a strong evidence base.

The first section of this chapter is dedicated to promising policies and practices in the area of managing variations and concentration. Ensuring equal opportunities for all immigrant students – regardless of which school they attend – is of critical importance. The second section, on funding strategy, presents approaches to managing inequities through targeted funding to disadvantaged areas, schools or particular student groups after careful consideration of educational priorities. Finally, the third section underlines the importance of monitoring and evaluation in ensuring the quality of migrant education. This includes improving the quality of data on outcomes and effective policies as well as training practitioners to effectively exploit this information. In combination, these three areas play a key role in managing the system to provide high quality education to immigrant students.

Managing variations and concentration

Policy issues

Governments are universally committed to ensuring immigrant students have equitable access to high quality education. But transforming national goals into local reality is not always easy.

Unequal distribution across different schools and regions

In many countries, immigrant students are not evenly distributed geographically within the country, within municipalities or even within cities (see Chapter 2). It follows that immigrant students form varying proportions of the school populations. Such variations in the proportion of immigrant students among schools present different opportunities and challenges to providing high quality education in terms of resources, capacity building and integration throughout the system.

For example, where immigrant students do not speak the language of instruction at home, their opportunity to develop language skills through social interaction at school is lessened when there are fewer native speakers to interact with. This would seem counterproductive to an education system's goal to develop student competencies in the language of instruction (see Chapter 3). However, schools with a higher concentration of immigrant students could organise more effective targeted support, as immigrant students in these schools could benefit from more structured support.

School admittance policy, catchment area models, and school selection

School composition often reflects the social and economic characteristics of the surrounding communities and residential areas. On average in OECD countries, 47% of 15-year-olds were in schools where the principal reported that residence in a particular area was either a prerequisite or high priority for admittance to their schools (OECD, 2007). This was by far the most commonly reported school admittance policy.

In such "catchment area" models, school composition reflects a high degree of *de facto* socio-demographic segregation in housing. In areas where property prices and rents are higher, schools are perceived to be of better quality. Good quality schooling thus often has an implicit price in the housing market and immigrant students from less advantaged socio-economic backgrounds may not have access to it (Field *et al*., 2007).

In systems where students are selected into different school types based on their academic ability at an early age (see Chapter 2), immigrant students may more often be assigned to less academically demanding schools. For example, this is the case in Austria, Germany and the Netherlands where higher proportions of immigrant students are found in vocational education and in the lower tracks of compulsory education.

Immigrant students may not have had adequate opportunity to develop academically in time for the selection into different secondary school types and thus find themselves in

secondary schools with lower academic expectations that do not sufficiently develop their inherent abilities.

Potential risks with parental choice – segregation/self-segregation

Parents often have a choice of schools in their area. On average in OECD countries, 60% of 15-year-olds were in schools where the principal reported that there was a choice of two or more schools in the area (OECD, 2007). The choices parents make regarding the school in which they enrol their children can also influence school composition. Research shows segregation by immigrant status between schools has been heightened because native parents tend to be more likely than immigrant parents to opt out of schools where there is a high concentration of immigrant students (Hastings *et al*., 2005; Rangvid, 2007). Recent research from Denmark indicates that parental choice of schools is more influenced by concerns about the quality and security of the school environment than about the overall school performance.

Other studies show that socio-economic segregation is strong, as immigrant parents from more advantaged socio-economic backgrounds also exercise school choice more often.

Schools may also be segregated by religious belief with some schools drawing a high concentration of immigrant students of a particular religious affiliation.

Varied commitment to migrant education among political and school leaders

Increasing diversity is a reality in many education systems and leaders and practitioners need to be given the right tools to effectively adjust their education offer accordingly. In education systems where there is more autonomy at the school or local government levels, other dynamics may come into play that could pose opportunities and challenges to managing variations in quality migrant education.

Schools with strong leadership prioritising migrant education would find effective local solutions to improve educational support to immigrant students. Similarly, strong political leadership at local government level would significantly advance efforts to improve educational support to immigrant students in local schools. However, challenges to migrant education arise where it is not prioritised on a political level or the implementation of national policy is delayed due to limited resources or capacity.

The core issues here, therefore, include: establishing a legal and financial framework that secures rights and provides incentives for immigrant students, their parents and schools; finding out what is working well and sharing this knowledge among the key players to build capacity in providing quality education to immigrant students; and providing incentives to schools and local governments to improve migrant education.

Questions that policy makers need to consider

- Does the quality of educational provision to immigrant students vary significantly among schools, towns and regions? Are immigrant students evenly distributed nationally? Do certain regions or cities have higher concentration of immigrant students?

- Is there significant variation in the capacity of local authorities to organise appropriate educational provision for immigrant students? Is there an established channel for consultation between national and local governments?
- Is there significant variation in the capacity of school leaders to promote a school climate to improve education outcomes for immigrant students?
- In countries with school choice, what practices are effective that provide parents with information on the school quality and help them make informed school choices?
- What local policies are in place to encourage parents to choose their preferred local school?
- Have "bussing"/"quota" policies that aim to influence the socio-demographic mix of students proven successful?
- How can the quality of teaching and learning be improved in schools with high concentration of immigrants, *e.g.* additional resources and teaching staff, after-school support, all-day offer, bilingual education offers, extra focus on work with parents, etc.?
- What incentives could be given to schools to co-operate and/or take affirmative action to more evenly balance the distribution of immigrant students?
- Are there agreements between local government and schools to manage enrolment of immigrant students and plan new schools?
- In systems with selection into different school types at an early age, are there efficient policies to promote academically able students at a later age to more academic tracks?
- Is there an adequate legal framework to ensure the rights to quality education for immigrant students? Are schools obliged to offer a place to a student who meets their entry requirements? Are there clear responsibilities for immigrant students and their parents to pursue successful basic education?
- Are there financial barriers for some immigrant students to fully participate in education? At what level of education? Do such barriers act as a disincentive for immigrant students to excel academically?
- Is there sufficient knowledge of what works well at the local and school level? Is knowledge effectively shared? Does the education system learn from its strengths? Are there established channels for practitioners to feed into national policy development?
- Is knowledge of best practice systematically fed back to teacher training institutions?
- Are there nationally developed tools available to schools to effectively support second-language learners?
- Are there incentives for schools to address the needs of different learners? Do schools have the means to do so? (see also Funding strategy)
- Are there specific targets for schools to reduce the gap in education outcomes between native and immigrant students?

Some policy options

- Prioritise the provision of quality education in schools with a diverse student population.

- Provide information in accessible media and support so that all parents can make an informed school choice.
- Support local initiatives to encourage native parents to consider the quality of educational provision at schools with mixed student population.
- Encourage relevant authorities and schools to agree on targets for enrolment of immigrant students.
- Recognise that early selection without accompanying supports can lead to segregation and be an obstacle to integration.
- Establish immigrant students' rights to quality education, including effective language support and adequate information on school choice.
- Provide means-tested grants to participate in post-compulsory education.
- Subsidise participation in early childhood education and care for children whose families have less capacity to develop language skills in the language of instruction.
- Embed strategies for improving immigrants' education outcomes in the mainstream strategy for raising education outcomes.
- Establish or designate a "clearinghouse" for collecting and disseminating information on effective practices in migrant education.
- Support initiatives to share ideas, advice and know-how on migrant education among education professionals and local government officials.
- Encourage schools to critically evaluate the success of their own approaches to migrant education.
- Engage schools that are leaders in good practice to lead workshops and develop networks.
- Set specific targets to reduce disparities in education outcomes of immigrant students, *e.g.* reduce the proportion of low achievers or reduce the gap between native and immigrant students.

Examples of promising policy responses

Political support to disadvantaged regions or cities

- In **France**, the inter-ministerial initiative *Espoir banlieues* was launched in 2008 to promote educational strategies to support young people from socio-economically disadvantaged areas. The objectives of the initiative include: 1) promoting a more mixed school intake, for example by experimenting with bussing plans; 2) promoting educational achievement through enhanced individualised support as well as linguistic, cultural and artistic development offers; 3) reducing absenteeism and dropout through better diagnosis and early identification of students who fall behind; and 4) identifying failing schools to examine their potential closure if their situation appears irreversible.
- In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, the Minister of Education launched a project (*flankerend beleid*) with the authorities in major and provincial cities in which unemployment and poverty rates are high. Local authorities should design and implement locally contextualised policies that complement national policies.

Monitoring school attendance is an important pillar of this policy as are initiatives such as homework classes, raising awareness of early childhood education, etc. *Flankerend beleid* aims to complement national and school policies to create a climate that helps families and students at risk.

Interventions to encourage a more diverse school intake

- In **Denmark**, some municipalities have introduced "bussing" policies to distribute immigrants more evenly across different schools. In Copenhagen for example, through the "Copenhagen Model for Integration", schools with a predominantly native Danish student population are receiving immigrant students from other neighbourhoods. However, immigrant parents raised the concern that this system lessens their contact with their child's school thus limiting co-operation between the school and immigrant parents and communities. Results have been somewhat positive in Aarhus, for example, where 34% of pupils bussed to a new school experienced an above normal progression in their linguistic development, 45% had developed as expected and 20% below expectation (Danish Ministry of Education, 2009).
- In **Denmark**, an NGO of Danish parents runs the campaign "Use your local school", which aims to convince a critical number of native parents to choose their local school. This is led in neighbourhoods where schools are becoming increasingly concentrated with immigrant students (OECD policy review visit).
- In the **Netherlands**, the government established a "knowledge-centre for mixed schools". The centre started pilots in seven cities to identify effective interventions at the local level to reduce segregation in education. For example, the municipality of Rotterdam runs bus tours to take parents around the choice of local schools. During the tours it is hoped that parents will discuss enrolment options and agree to use their local schools to ensure schools do not become further segregated (OECD policy review visit).

Improving quality in schools with a high concentration of immigrant students

- In **Switzerland**, the programme Quality in Multi-Ethnic Schools (QUIMS) allocates extra resources and support to schools where immigrant students comprise 40% or more of the school population. The aim of the programme is to raise the quality of education in these schools so as to attract native Swiss and more socio-economically advantaged students to the school (Gomolla, 2006). Other countries also use special weighted funding schemes to provide educational support to schools with high concentration of immigrant or socio-economically disadvantaged students (see "funding strategy").
- In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, the King Baudoin Foundation has sponsored some pilot projects in inner cities to enhance the reputation of "black" schools and stop "white flight". The success of these projects has not yet been evaluated.
- In **Germany**, all-day schools are becoming increasingly present in priority areas in all regions (*Lände*), although to varying degrees. All-day schools provide students with additional opportunity to learn, compared to the traditional half-day school offer. A government website provides guidelines to opening all-day schools, as well as examples of participating schools and their evaluation in recent inspections.

Improving availability and clarity of information for parents

- In **Austria**, the government developed a DVD providing information on the education system, school choices and translated school information brochures into several different languages (Wroblewski and Herzog-Punzenberger, 2009).
- In the **United States** (North Carolina), one school district ran school choice campaigns to encourage immigrant parents to exercise school choice. Features of the campaign include a district-wide information fair, school choice information stands in shopping areas, as well as information hotlines in English, Spanish and Vietnamese (Godwin *et al*. 2006). In another school district, officials used paid advertisements, outreach to news media and face-to-face communication to get their message out about public school choice options.
- In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, there are national guidelines to facilitate fairer and more inclusive enrolment policies, including commonly agreed dates to start enrolment, legal possibilities to increase the diverse mix of socio-economic backgrounds in the student body. However, informed choice is still the major driver for enrolment in a particular school.
- In **Ireland**, the Department of Education and Science (*www.education.ie*), the National Educational Welfare Board (*www.newb.ie*) and the Jesuit Refugee Service (*www.jrs.ie*) has produced information for parents in eight languages.

Encouraging agreements to reduce school segregation

- In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, local co-ordinating platforms were established in 2003. They bring together school leaders and a wide variety of stakeholders. The main objective is to help design locally contextualised equal opportunity policies which is not always easy as schools compete for students. Co-operation among all local stakeholders may reduce competition and increase educational benefits for the most disadvantaged students.
- In the **Netherlands**, school boards and local authorities have only recently been required by law to reduce segregation between native Dutch and ethnic minority pupils and students. The number of local authorities developing policy in this area has increased since the introduction of this requirement (Peters *et al*. 2007), although it is still too early to observe any effects of this statutory requirement at the level of students and schools in terms of less segregation.

Promoting initiatives to increase immigrant student access to academic tracks

- In **Austria**, the "New Middle School" project was launched in 2007 to promote educational opportunities for students who were not selected for academic schools at age ten. Through the use of state-of-the-art teaching techniques promoting individualised learning and a section of the week devoted to academic teaching these innovative schools aim to qualify students for access to academic schools at age 14 (Wroblewski and Herzog-Punzenberger, 2009).
- In the **Netherlands**, successful students in vocational education can accumulate qualifications and access higher education after one to three extra years of study. Many immigrant students make use of this longer route to higher education (Herweijer, 2009).

Establishing an appropriate legal framework

- In **Norway**, pupils in primary school, lower and upper secondary school who have a mother tongue other than Norwegian or Sami have a statutory right to adapted language teaching in Norwegian and instruction in their mother tongue, if necessary (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2008). The municipality charts the pupils' proficiency in Norwegian before making a decision about special language education. A pupil who has the right to special education has the right to a maximum of two years' additional upper secondary education and training if necessary regarding the pupil's individual education objectives.
- In **Sweden**, the Education Act stipulates that "All children and young people shall, regardless of gender, geographic residence, social and economic situation, have equal access to education in the public school system. The education provided within each type of school should be of equivalent value, irrespective of where in the country it is provided". Further, students also have the right to tuition in their mother tongue if they wish and certain other criteria are met.
- In the **Netherlands**, all students must leave school with a basic qualification (ISCED 3) and consequently the age of compulsory education was extended to age 18 for those students who had not yet achieved basic qualification.

Supporting knowledge sharing and capacity building at the local level

- In **Norway,** there are four consultative meetings a year between the government and the umbrella organisation that represent the interest of local authorities. These are opportunities to discuss efficiency and financing measures and can be used to highlight effective practices.
- In **Denmark**, the government established a "Task Force for Bilingual Pupils" in 2008. It aims to assist municipalities in improving the quality of the education offered to bilingual children. The work of the Task Force is overseen by a steering group of representatives from the Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration Affairs, the Ministry of Education and the municipalities. It evaluates pedagogical approaches to migrant education, identifies promising practice and facilitates networking with interested teachers.
- In **Sweden**, the umbrella organisation for local authorities carries out an annual benchmarking exercise among municipalities based on school results which are publicly shared. Both municipalities and schools analyse the results and, through a "quality dialogue", define the vision and goals for improvement.
- In the **United Kingdom**, the government launched The New Arrivals Excellence Programme (NAEP) in July 2007 to provide knowledge and resources to local authorities and schools on how to most effectively welcome students to school and offer the best way to learn English as an additional language. NAEP offers advice, guidance and training as well as a comprehensive list of websites and resources.[1]

Encouraging school networks and exchange of good practice among practitioners

- In **Denmark,** a publicly funded study "This Works in Our School" was carried out by the Rambøll Corporation between 2006 and 2008 to identify, document and evaluate examples of what teachers consider to be successful strategies for meeting the learning

needs of immigrant students. Reports on good practice, quality development, student composition and municipal support and co-ordination are available on a website for stakeholders to consult. This increased reliance on the experience and expertise of practitioners complements academic research in migrant education.

- In **Finland,** the Ministry of Education has set up teacher networks to help in matters related to immigrant education.
- In **Sweden**, "Idea Schools" are another approach to exchanging experience and ideas between schools and education professionals facing similar challenges. "Idea Schools" was a government initiative carried out until end 2008 by the Swedish National Agency for School Improvement and the Regional Development Centres. The aim was to create networks, disseminate knowledge on effective practices and stimulate and inspire other schools to improve their educational provision.
- The National Leaders of Education and National Support Schools in the **United Kingdom** were established in 2006 to mentor schools in difficulty. In 2008 the great majority of schools being mentored had improved results in national student tests (Hill and Matthews, 2008). The Office for Standards of Education (OfStEd) published a report in 2009 presenting examples of secondary schools "excelling against the odds". The report provides recommendations on achieving, sustaining and sharing excellence and provides concrete examples of practices in twelve secondary schools.
- In the **United States**, the International Resource Centre established a network to support high schools offering English language support to immigrant students who arrived in the United States at a later age.

Promoting knowledge mobilisation and the spread of good practice

- In the **Netherlands,** the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture launched the "Knowledge Centre on Mixed Schools" two years ago. The Centre acts as a clearing house for existing research on mixed schools and disseminates this through a website and newsletter. Successful examples of inner-city schools with a representative mix of both native and immigrant students are those that promote school quality, enjoy strong support from school leaders, teachers and having open doors to the community, including hosting information meetings and other public relations activities.

Setting targets to reduce the gap between immigrant and native students

- In the **United States**, a core feature of the federal education legislation "No Child Left Behind" is to target both the mean performance and the performance of subgroups thus addressing the problem of chronic under-achievement of ethnic minorities and immigrants, as well as special education students. This should allow local authorities and schools to take a more structured approach to the development of remedies where targets are missed.
- In **Germany**, an Education Summit in 2008 brought together relevant high-level policy makers from the federal government and regional authorities (*lände*) to agree on a set of guiding principles and specific objectives to further improve the education system and to provide opportunities to all students in Germany. These include a specific measure to increase school performance of young immigrant students relative to the average student performance, plus a measure to increase provision of education in German as a Second Language at early ages.

Funding strategy

Policy issues

Equity and adequacy are two important criteria for allocating resources to schools. Equity here means "equal educational spending per student" and adequacy means "sufficient level of funding for adequate education to every student". One question or dilemma that policy makers often face is whether to pursue universal or targeted measures for funding. Moreover, one of the most difficult issues for additional funding is to determine the right target group(s).

Different approaches can be considered targeting specific student groups or schools located in specific areas. As the school population becomes heterogeneous, many countries have introduced compensatory funding to schools based on criteria reflecting different student characteristics and needs (Eurydice, 2000; Field *et al*., 2007). The selected approach and the degree of compensatory funding for migrant education differ from country to country.

Allocating extra resources to disadvantaged areas

Countries could offer additional resources to schools using different criteria such as the location of the school and its surrounding community. This may often reflect educational disadvantages, if linked to areas with a high proportion of low-performers, and socio-economic disadvantages, often linked with unemployment rates or the proportion of social housing.

Mixed approach to funding

Some countries practise a mixed approach, allocating extra funding to schools in disadvantaged areas and to students from disadvantaged backgrounds irrespective of where their school is located. The challenge is how to establish proper funding indicators (or criteria) and to assign weights to these criteria for allocation of extra funding to most effectively meet immigrant students' educational needs.

Allocating extra resources to disadvantaged students

It is challenging to decide whether "immigrant students" should be considered as a target group for specific funding. Some countries have immigrant-targeted funding programmes. Others have developed multiple indicators as conditions for funding, such as: low socio-economic background, low performance, students' immigrant status by language spoken at home, and parental education level.

Governments often assume policies allocating additional resources to schools with students from less advantaged socio-economic background will be sufficient to capture immigrant students. However, this approach seems to be insufficient as, in the majority of OECD countries, immigrant students' educational disadvantage remains even after accounting for their socio-economic background (see Chapter 2).

Identifying priority levels of education

Another policy issue is determining which level of education to prioritise in providing extra funding. Empirical studies suggest that investment in earlier levels of education yields

the highest rate of return to education (Cunha *et al*., 2005; Heckman, 2006). This may indicate a need for investment in early intervention for efficient use of public funding.

On the other hand, brain research indicates that immigrant students arriving in the country at a later stage of schooling may need more support to develop the required level of proficiency in the language of instruction (OECD, 2002). This may imply a need for extra funding and support for students in higher education level for effective language acquisition.

Different approaches to distributing extra funding

There are two different approaches for central governments to distribute additional funding to schools: 1) direct funding to schools; 2) indirect funding to schools via local authorities. In either approach there are two major types of funding arrangements: 1) targeted/earmarked funding; 2) general (untargeted) funding without specific assignment of spending. In the case of indirect funding, research has shown that it is important to earmark funds allocated to local authorities to ensure such funding is actually used for the designed purpose rather than for other local priorities (Nusche, 2009; Field *et al*., 2007; Ahlin and Mörk, 2005).

In what form additional funding can be most equitably distributed is another policy issue. Extra resources can be directly delivered to target students/families such as subsidies to cover school fees. In the majority of countries, additional resources are often delivered directly to schools with target students rather than directly to these students and their families. Direct financial supports to these students exist often through private foundations in several countries (Nusche, 2009).

Monitoring the use of extra funding

The efficient management of extra funding is an important policy issue requiring systemic monitoring and evaluation tools and processes. Various options exist:

- Local authorities can provide active support/guidelines in management and co-ordination of additional funds (Tikly *et al*., 2006).
- The government can set targets and goals to be achieved with the additional funding. For instance, the goal of the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant in the United Kingdom is to improve the educational performance of underachieving minority ethnic groups and English language learners (DFES, 2004).
- The government can promote and support in-service training for school leaders and teachers on how to use the extra resources effectively. Otherwise, school leaders and teachers may not know how to use extra resources within their school development plans (Karsten, 2006).
- The effectiveness of extra funding should be carefully monitored and evaluated both as an integral part of a school's regular monitoring and evaluation process and as a stand-alone evaluation on the effectiveness of the particular extra funding programme.

Questions that policy makers need to consider

- At what level are decisions made about "compensatory funding"?

- Are weighted indices used to allocate funds to schools? If so, what are the criteria? Who determines the target criteria?
- To what extent is earmarked funding used for migrant education?
- How can additional funding to improve the education outcomes of immigrant students fit within a policy of equity of education for all students?
- Is it necessary to integrate or co-ordinate extra funding for migrant education with other financial support offered for students from disadvantaged backgrounds?
- What measures can be taken to ensure that schools use extra funding allocated to improve the education outcomes of immigrant students for that purpose?
- What role do local authorities play in providing and managing extra funding for migrant education?
- Does extra funding stimulate school leaders' and teachers' initiatives to improve integration and education outcomes of immigrant students?
- Are school leaders and teachers equipped with the required skills to use resources effectively? Is there any further guidance or professional training for them on how the resources can be used effectively?
- How are the effects of targeted funding evaluated? Is the flow of resources monitored, and cost-effectiveness of different initiatives evaluated?
- After feedback, how is the funding adjusted? How are the criteria adjusted?

Some policy options

- Find priority areas of migrant education (*i.e.* level of education, areas of supports, exact target groups) based on empirical research on education outcomes (access, participation and learning outcomes) of immigrant students. Provide earmarked funding to address educational problems in priority areas.
- Develop a clear and transparent funding formula to ensure that schools easily understand eligibility criteria for extra funding and their responsibility in effectively spending the money.
- Combine direct funding to schools with indirect funding through local authorities, to both support school autonomy and actively engage local authorities to improve the education outcomes of immigrant students. Ensure local authorities' involvement with extra funding for migrant education.
- Balance universal and targeted measures in providing extra funding. Implement innovative approaches to help immigrant students without sacrificing overall equity of education. This includes: combining area-driven and student-driven funding approaches; developing proper funding formulae that can accommodate multiple target groups within a funding strategy.
- Provide necessary professional development opportunities and training to school leaders and teachers to use extra funding efficiently.
- Ensure schools' accountability in spending extra funding for immigrant students by creating systemic monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

- Evaluate the cost-effectiveness of additional funding schemes regularly and redesign funding schemes based on the results of the evaluation.

Examples of promising policy responses

Targeting immigrant students and/or those with low language proficiency

- In the **United States**, *Title III Immigrant Education Program of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act* provides financial support for state education agencies (SEAs) to sustain supplementary programmes and services to assure that immigrant children meet state standards; formula grants are awarded annually depending on the number of limited English proficient and immigrant students; it is the responsibility of SEAs to distribute the financial support accordingly to local education agencies upon receipt of the grant (also called "English Language Acquisition State Grants").
- In **Ireland**, the English as Additional Language (EAL) programme targets schools with a certain number of immigrant students who speak English as a second language. Additional resources include more teaching staff (*i.e.* teachers for English as an additional language), teaching materials, and professional training. The number of additional English teacher resources allocated to schools is determined by the number of students enrolled for whom English is a second language. Since summer 2007 the minimum number of EAL students required for a school to gain an EAL post is 14. However, schools with less than 14 students for whom English is a second language may have financial resources based on the number of such students and their needs. The number of language support teachers available to schools with English as a second language students has been reduced somewhat from September 2009 due to recent budgetary constraints.
- In **Canada** (British Columbia), English as a Second Language (ESL) funding is provided for each eligible student for up to five years. In order to receive funding the following conditions must be met (and documented):
  - an annual assessment of English language proficiency has determined that the student's use of English is sufficiently different from standard English
  - an annual instructional plan is designed to meet the needs of the student
  - specialised ESL services are provided for each student
  - progress in the acquisition of English is reported to parents in regular reporting periods (five times a year)
  - an ESL specialist is involved in planning and delivering services
  - additional ESL services must be provided

Targeting particular groups among immigrant students

- In the **United Kingdom,** "Aiming High", the African Caribbean Achievement Project, was launched in 2003 to provide extra resources to 30 schools with the aim of raising achievement of Black Caribbean students. All "Aiming High" schools were required to conduct an initial audit with a survey for students, parents, teachers and Governors on issues and areas of concern that impact on educational achievement and experiences of African Caribbean students. The project included leadership training and external consulting services. Common features of the project were strategic use of data, strong leadership, curriculum, staff training, mentoring and parental involvement. The

evaluation on the project found that the funding strategy was highly effective in raising awareness of African Caribbean educational issues. There was also some evidence that educational attainment of African Caribbean students had increased. Furthermore, in some schools the gap in performance between African Caribbean and native students was closed, although these improvements were not consistent across all the Aiming High schools.

Targeting low-performing immigrant students and those needing language lessons

- In the **United Kingdom**, the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant (EMAG) is allocated based on the number of students from underachieving minority ethnic groups and English language learners (DFES, 2004). The aim of the EMAG is to raise the achievements of particular underachieving ethnic minority groups. Schools are required to use ethnic monitoring, which allows collecting and analysing achievement data in relation to students' ethnic backgrounds. Eighty-five percent of EMAG funding is directly allocated to schools in order to enable them to respond most effectively to their particular needs and the remaining 15% retained by local authorities are to be used to improve the results of underachieving ethnic groups (Kendall *et al*., 2005). The evaluation study shows that the grant had a positive effect on mitigating the performance gaps for Pakistani and Bangladeshi students, although the report identifies some of the grant's weaknesses (Tikly *et al*., 2006).
- In the **United States,** the Teacher Incentive Fund focuses on low performing students and supports efforts to develop and implement performance-based teacher and administrator compensation in order to increase the number of effective teachers teaching minority and disadvantaged students in hard-to-staff subject areas; teachers are rewarded for increases in student achievement.

Targeting disadvantaged areas and/or schools with a high level of immigrants

- In **Switzerland**, the Quality in Multi-Ethnic Schools (QUIMS) programme offers extra financial resources and professional support to schools with 40% or more immigrant students. The programme aims to close the achievement gap between students from different social backgrounds and to raise the quality of education in QUIMS schools to attract more native students to enrol. Each QUIMS school develops a strategy to achieve the goals of the programme based on local needs. The programme has a clear focus on the processes of teaching and learning instead of on performance data (Gomolla, 2006).

Targeting various disadvantaged students through weighted indicators

- The **Flemish Community of Belgium** has developed multiple indicators. They are designed to include:
  - low socio-economic status;
  - low performance (living in the area where a high level of grade repetition is observed);
  - language spoken at home;
  - low level of mother's education.[2,3]

- In the **Netherlands**, a weighted funding system for primary schools has been in place since 1985. The target group had always been students from disadvantaged background. In August 2006, extra weight was given to immigrant students as follows: 0.25 for native students whose parents have a low level of education; 0.9 for ethnic minority students whose parents have a low level of education. This meant that, primary schools received more money for immigrant students with poorly educated parents than for their native counterparts. Since August 2006, students' immigrant status is no longer included in the weighting system. Instead, parents' level of education is the sole criterion and the following weights are used: 0.3 for students whose parents have no more than lower vocational training (LBO) or prevocational education (VBO) qualifications; 1.2 for students who have one parent with only a primary education and one parent with no more than a LBO/VBO qualification. The extra funding based on the weighting system goes directly to schools who can decide how to use the funds to support education for students with a potential educational disadvantage. Although an accurate evaluation on the effectiveness of the weighting system overall is not feasible due to the universal nature of the weighting system (*i.e.* there are no schools with similar students who do not receive additional funding), from the end of the 1990s schools receiving extra funds have shown improvement.
- In **Sweden**, school funding is provided through resources by the municipalities and a general government grant to municipalities, which is linked to a special equalisation system (*i.e.* income equalisation, cost equalisation, a structural grant, an implementation grant and an adjustment grant/charge). Each municipality decides how to allocate resources to schools. Some municipalities with high proportions of immigrant students use students' immigrant status as one of several student criteria in allocating resources to schools. For instance, Botkyrka, has an immigrant population of around 50% and distributes 25% of school resources based on criteria of student background (*i.e.* parents' educational level, gender and immigrant status).

Monitoring and evaluation

Policy issues

Governments need to know whether their policies and programmes are well-conceived, adequately implemented, achieved their stated aims, and efficient. Monitoring and evaluation helps answer these questions by obtaining feedback on performance – at the individual student and classroom up to the system level. Importantly, systems need feedback that not only relays information on how strong or weak performance is, but also provides insights into possible explanations for what is observed, and how weak performance might be improved (OECD, 2008).

Lack of evidence on outcomes for immigrant students

There are remarkable gaps in basic information on the situation of immigrant students and their education performance. Typically, countries either do not collect or do not publish data that make it possible to determine whether systems are effective or equitable in reaching immigrant students and meeting their learning needs. In these countries, the publication of

international assessments provided unprecedented information on how immigrants were doing and how they compared to native students (OECD, 2001; OECD, 2004a; OECD, 2006).

The absence of breakdowns between immigrant and native students on basic measures of access, participation and performance, has direct and indirect consequences for migrant education. It renders invisible the particular problems of immigrant students, either by not revealing shortcomings, or by masking them behind average measures of performance.

In this respect, the Netherlands stands out as the exception among the countries participating in this review. For years, Dutch education authorities have broken down results of the national longitudinal study, periodic subject-specific assessments, and international surveys (PISA, PIRLS, TIMSS) to gauge the situation and performance of ethnic groups and immigrant groups, and to compare it with that of native Dutch students (Herweijer, 2009).

Measuring the effects of different policies and practices

Without data, it is difficult to determine how well different policies and practices address the learning and other needs of immigrant students. Gaps in availability and use of feedback at a system level have negative consequences for education performance. A comparative analysis of institutional arrangements in several countries that performed well on PISA concluded that well-developed arrangements for system monitoring were strongly associated with good performance on PISA (OECD, 2004b). Subsequent analysis of PISA 2000 and 2003 data showed that higher student achievement is associated with teachers being autonomous to decide how to teach and held accountable for outcomes through the involvement of principals and external inspectors in monitoring lessons (Wößmann *et al*., 2007a; Wößmann *et al*., 2007b).

Assessment, appraisal and evaluation are equally important at the school level. Robinson (2007) cites four studies showing that setting teaching performance standards and regular classroom observation helped to improve teaching (Andrews and Soder, 1987; Bamburg and Andrews, 1991; Heck, 1992; Heck *et al*., 1990).

Need for evidence on the effectiveness of targeted measures

Monitoring and evaluation are also related to how to achieve balance between universal and targeted strategies. Targeted strategies are justified because populations are becoming more heterogeneous (due to migration, for example), universal strategies that treat everyone equally, generate unequal outcomes because the starting points for individuals are different. In the case of immigrant children, they often start school with host-country language skills that lag far behind those of their native peers, and they are unfamiliar with the prerequisites and possible outcomes of alternative education trajectories. Most of the countries involved in this study have embraced some form of targeted programmes in dealing with migrant education (language support, tutoring and mentoring, etc.).

The successful implementation of such approaches, however, is critically dependent on knowing which students are in need of extra support (as identified through proper assessment tools) so as to choose appropriate targeting criteria, and providing appropriate levels (weightings) of extra resources. Monitoring and evaluation of targeted programmes are helpful for ensuring that targeted programmes achieve their objectives efficiently.

Lack of tools and training in use of assessment for practitioners

Closer to the operational level educators often lack the diagnostic tools and training needed to track performance of students, identify problems as they occur, and effectively address them. These gaps in capacity are particularly detrimental in the case of immigrant students, particularly in countries where the nature and scale of challenges in migrant education have transformed in a relatively short time. In these cases teachers often are "flying blind" when it comes to identifying problems before it is too late, and testing out alternative teaching strategies.

Evaluation and monitoring are critical to understanding the scope, nature, and scale of the challenges facing immigrant students, and important determinants of how well and how quickly education systems "learn" about what works and why, and react accordingly. But alone, the information obtained from good monitoring and evaluation is insufficient for ensuring that systems are fully responsive. Actors at various levels of education have to know what to do with such information and how to use it. The challenge for policy makers is to find ways of enhancing the capacity to obtain and apply such information, and strengthening the incentives for doing so.

Questions that policy makers need to consider

- Do decision makers responsible for resource allocation have the information they need to determine appropriate criteria and weightings for targeting resources? At what levels are such gaps found?
- What are the barriers to obtaining breakdowns in demographic data that would make it easier to identify and count students with an immigrant background, and evaluate their need?
- What are the barriers to obtaining information needed to evaluate the effectiveness of migrant education, as well as other possible target groups? How important are the legal, regulatory and technical constraints? To what extent do actors at different levels of systems lack the knowledge or training to analyse information?
- Are there well-developed means and channels for using information? What other kinds of data (*e.g.* residency, language spoken at home) are needed, and what are the barriers to obtaining such data?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses of international surveys as a source of information on the effectiveness of migrant education? What additional information collected within countries would help?
- What can be done to enhance capacity of teachers, parents, school leaders, municipal/regional authorities, and national authorities to make better use of evidence from monitoring and evaluation exercises?
- What can be done to strengthen the incentives to apply the lessons learned from monitoring and evaluation?

Some policy options

- Improve the quality and coverage of data on the strengths and weaknesses of migrant education, and that permit better understanding of how the immigrant student performance might be strengthened.
- Evaluate progress towards reaching achievement targets, and identify reasons for underperformance and possible remedies.
- Strengthen the role of the inspectorate and central government in overseeing the quality and equity of migrant education.
- Strengthen the capacity of schools to better assess the learning needs of immigrant children, evaluate their education performance, and feed such information back into improving migrant education.

Examples of promising policy responses

Providing diagnostic tools for migrant education

- **Ireland** has recently introduced language assessment kits for primary and post-primary schools to help teachers diagnose and monitor progress of students with English language proficiency needs (Irish Department of Education and Science, 2009). The primary and post-primary assessment (language) kits and the data they provide are important sources of information for both mainstream and English as an Additional Language teachers. Ireland also has recently put in place a range of tools to encourage evaluation and assessment. The publication "Assessment in the Primary School Curriculum: Guidelines for Schools" 2007 by the National Council on Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) provides an introduction to the principles and practices of assessment for general learning; the NCCA continues to provide support for its use in schools.

Training practitioners in the effective use of evaluation

- In **Finland**, pre-service training of teachers requires at least a Masters degree and includes a strong emphasis on developing the capacity to carry out robust assessment and evaluation (Stewart, 2008).
- **Denmark** and **Ireland** have included testing and assessment issues in in-service training for language support teachers and mainstream teachers working in schools with immigrant students.

Promoting the use of individual learning plans within schools

- In **Denmark** and **Sweden,** teachers use Personal Education Plans/Individual Development Plans to record past performance, monitor day-to-day progress, and set learning targets for individual students. They are a useful tool for following progress of individual students, identifying their strengths and weaknesses, evaluating mother-tongue language proficiency, and personalising instruction. These plans have proven to be a valuable basis for a dialogue between teacher, students and their parents.
- The **Australia** (Victoria) Department of Education and Early Childhood Development has found that individualised plans are especially useful for students with language

difficulties, and provide considerable support to educators as they prepare and use them[4].

Using standardised tests in selective systems

- The CITO tests administered at ages 11 to 12 in the **Netherlands** have proven to be a reliable predictor of students' future pathways in lower secondary education. School leaders and teachers in the Netherlands, are in a strong position to support their recommendations on the type of lower secondary (academic or vocational) school their students should attend. In the few cases where teacher recommendations deviate from these results, students change type of school at a later stage.

Engaging practitioners as partners in effective assessment

- In **Norway**, 78 educational institutions (primary, lower and upper secondary schools, plus adult education centres) are participating in the "Better assessment practice" project (*Bedre vurderingsprakis*). The project runs from November 2007 to August 2009 and aims to establish clearer regulations on assessment and to promote a more relevant assessment of students' work done in different subject areas.

Strengthening the role of central authorities to oversee quality and equity

- In **Ireland**, the Inspectorate plays a role beyond monitoring and promoting compliance with regulations and increasingly proactively promotes and supports school improvement. The Inspectorate encourages schools to analyse assessment information gathered at the classroom and school levels. Thematic evaluations, conducted by the Inspectorate, on specific aspects of educational provision can provide evidence for organisations such as the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) to gauge the extent of implementation of curriculum. The Inspectorate, through its annual inspection programme, its review of school-level assessment data in the context of whole-school evaluations, and its access to the teachers' programmes, plans, resources, and self reviews is in a pivotal position to bring about a greater focus on effective provision of support for immigrant students.
- In the **United States**, "Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives" aim to increase English language proficiency and academic achievement. States are required to establish English language proficiency standards aligned to state standards, annually assess English language learners (ELLs) and measure and report progress of English language proficiency and academic achievement in order to achieve Adequate Yearly Progress for the ELL subgroup.

Improving the quality and coverage of data

- In the **Netherlands,** data are available by individual students and ethnic group. Results from national tests such as the longitudinal study COOL (formerly PRIMA) and the national standard assessment at the end of primary education (the CITO test in grade eight for 11-to-12-year-olds) used by 85% of primary schools are a rich resource and demonstrate improved education outcomes for certain ethnic groups over the last 20 years. There are also national periodic assessments in different subjects in primary education (Periodic Assessment of Educational Achievement [PPON]) in which immigrant students' performance is monitored.

- In **Denmark**, municipal authorities began to take steps to improve information on performance and support school improvement where evidence showed that performance was lagging. In 2007, Local Government Denmark, the association of the 98 municipalities in Denmark together with the Danish Government and Danish Regions launched a project to determine what kinds of indicators were needed in order to monitor the quality of the *Folkeskole* in Denmark. Local Government Denmark reports that most municipalities now have experts on evaluation or at least have persons who have had some training in the field so as to help schools with the development of personal education plans and to prepare quality reports (both requirements of the initiatives discussed earlier).
- In **Norway**, schools are legally obliged to register students' absence each term. Such data collection can be useful in early intervention at different levels of the education system. The Ministry of Education and Research has recently changed the regulations of the education act so that lower-secondary schools are obliged to record absences on the school leaving certificate. Drawing on national test results and contextual information collected from administrative data, preliminary value-added models have been developed in Norway with the aim of presenting a fairer picture of school performance by taking account of the various factors outside the control of school that can affect student performance (Haegeland, 2006). Such measures could not only provide additional information on school performance but also help identify schools producing the best learning results for particular student groups, including immigrant students.
- In **Germany**, the federal government launched the Programme for Empirical Education Research in 2007, with core elements such as research on outputs and evidence-based steering processes. As part of this, an Education Panel started in 2009 to gather representative long-range data on individual education processes and will allow analysis of immigrants. A first report on integration indicators was published in June 2009 as a starting point for biennial monitoring. The federal government is about to formulate a National Action Plan Integration with a focus also on the education of migrants. As a further development of the National Integration Plan of 2007 the intention is to have clearly defined and screenable political aims. This will be done in close partnership with the *Länder* and other stakeholder such as migrant organizations.

Notes

1. *www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/primary/publications/inclusion/newarrivals/.*
2. Low socio-economic status is identified by students' eligibility for scholarship that depends on family income. The Ministry of Flemish community has implemented a family-income-based scholarship scheme in which 25% of students in pre-primary, primary and secondary schools receive a scholarship.
3. The Flemish decree can be found at *http://jsp.vlaamsparlement.be/docs/stukken/2007-2008/g1667-5.pdf* and the parliamentary documents can be found at *http://jsp.vlaamsparlement.be/docs/stukken/2007-2008/g1667-1.pdf.*
4. *www.education.vic.gov.au/studentlearning/programs/lsp/mod3-2.htm.*

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Annex 1

Description of the project

The Thematic Review of Migrant Education was launched in January 2008. The Group of National Experts was set up as a subsidiary body of the Education Policy Committee to guide the methods, timing and principles of the thematic review as well as to share information and experience on the theme and to keep in touch with the emerging findings of the exercise.

The overarching policy question of the project was agreed to investigate: What policies will promote successful education outcomes for first and second generation immigrant students?

Definitions and dimensions

- Education outcomes – To examine the overarching question from the most policy relevant perspective, education outcomes are defined in terms of access, participation and performance. While noting that these three aspects may interact with each other and evolve in a multi-directional and non-linear way, the review addressed the following empirical and policy questions:
  - Access – Do immigrant students have the same access to quality education as their native peers? If not, what policies may facilitate or hinder their access?
  - Participation – Do immigrant students drop out more easily or leave school earlier than their native peers? If so, what policies may influence immigrant students' completion of schooling?
  - Performance – Do immigrant students perform as well as their native peers? If not, what policies may effectively raise immigrant students' performance at school, especially for those from low socio-economic backgrounds?
- First-generation immigrant students – Those students, as well as their parents, who were born outside the country of assessment.
- Second-generation immigrant students – Those who were born in the country of assessment to parents who were born in another country, *i.e.* they have followed all their early childhood education and care institutions/schooling in the country of assessment. If they are born in the country and have one native-born parent, they are considered as native students. Previous research indicates that these students perform similar to their native students (Gonzalez, 2002; OECD, 2006).

Scope of the project

- Migrant education – The Group of National Experts agreed to focus on international migration. Therefore, the project will not look into the issues of Roma, indigenous or other minority students.
- Levels of education – The education levels will include early childhood education and care, primary school, and post-primary school.
- Education policies – The project analysed education policies that may improve education outcomes of immigrant students. It is important to bear in mind, however, isolating these educational links from other links that exist in society does not reflect reality. Non-education policies (*e.g.* policies related to immigration, housing, family unification, citizenship, etc.) may also affect education outcomes. In turn, education policies may influence non-education outcomes (*e.g.* youth employment rates, health indicators). Education outcomes (*e.g.* dropout rates from school) themselves may also affect non-education outcomes (*e.g.* juvenile delinquency rates), and vice-versa. These links may point to some educational policy implications. Keeping these perspectives in mind, however, the scope of the project focuses on educational links, education policies and education outcomes.

Framework for policy review

Effective and reliable policy evaluation requires a framework that clearly sets out a purpose, an approach, a procedure, evaluation criteria, and data sources. The OECD conducts policy reviews in a wide range of sectors via peer reviews, thematic reviews, and single country reviews. The performance of the countries in these reviews is assessed against different principles, criteria and standards (OECD, 2003).

This review followed the procedures below:

Step 1) identify problems that policy ought to address;

Step 2) investigate possible causal links or associations between education policies and outcomes;

Step 3) identify possible policy alternatives; and

Step 4) select the most feasible and effective policy alternatives for the country concerned.

Each of these four steps addressed core questions as a framework (Box A.1). The core questions are put together to help answer the overarching question of the project and facilitate the review process.

Box A.1. Core questions as a policy evaluation framework for migrant education

Step 1: Identification of problems that policy should address

- Do immigrant students have the same opportunities to access and participate in quality education? Do they perform as well as their native peers?
- What are the overall goals and expectations of the education systems, and how well are systems meeting these goals with respect to immigrant students?

Step 2: Investigation of possible causal links or associations between policies and outcomes

- What matters?
- Where can policies make a difference?
- What conditions support or hinder the policy implementation?
- What are the tools and support to help with effective implementation?

Step 3: Identifying possible policy alternatives

- What is working/not working with migrant education policy?
- What are the policy alternatives?

Step 4: Selection of the most feasible and effective policy alternatives for the country concerned

- Which alternative(s) may work best for the country under review?

Process of policy reviews

The evaluation framework was put into practice with four phases and working methods: 1) pre-visit desk-based analysis, 2) fact-finding visit, 3) policy review visit, and 4) post-visit analysis.

Pre-visit desk-based analysis

To establish general criteria and assessment for policy review, the Secretariat carried out analytical work preceding the country visits to establish a knowledge base. During this phase, the project focused on establishing facts about education outcomes of immigrant students, taking stock of existing research on effective migrant education policies, developing an analytical framework (both qualitative and quantitative) to answer the policy question of the project, and collecting data on what is happening, what is working and what is not working from countries through country background reports, literature reviews and other supplementary information.

Preparation and organisation of the fact-finding mission also took place in this phase. For each country, the focus and scope of the policy review was tailored to make the policy review most policy relevant to the country visited.

Fact-finding visit

The main purpose of fact-finding visit was to: 1) consolidate knowledge base facts by identifying further evidence or counter-evidence; 2) identify migrant education issues that are most policy-relevant to be reviewed for the country concerned and to define the scope of the

policy review (to be detailed and finalized in terms of reference); and 3) carry out initial analysis of possible effects and formulate possible hypotheses as policy effective interventions. At the end of the mission, a session with the National Steering Committee was held to discuss preliminary findings of the visit.

Policy review visit

Furthering the preliminary findings of the fact-finding visit, the tentative diagnoses and policy suggestions were prepared by the review team after evaluating the current policies and practices against the project's knowledge base. The evaluation helped shed light on the strengths and weaknesses of the current policies and programmes. The tentative diagnoses and policy suggestions were circulated among key stakeholders prior to the review visit to effectively elicit views and reactions during the visit.

The main purpose of policy review visit was to test the diagnoses and preliminary policy suggestions with a wide range of key stakeholders against the six criteria of feasibility, timeliness, cost-effectiveness, robustness, implementation issues and sustainability. The visit also aimed to facilitate open policy dialogue among key stakeholders. At the end of the mission, a session with the National Steering Committee was held to narrow the focus of the policy suggestions for the country.

Post-visit analysis

The post-visit phase focused on delivering a timely country note with the selected policy suggestions that are specific to the country visited. The suggestions were examined and selected on the basis of various types of "evidence" in order to assist countries shift from opinion-based decision making to evidence-based policy making. Although there is increasing interest among OECD countries in greater accountability in education policies, evidence to advance informed policy making is still limited either because there is not enough policy evaluation or because research that is available may not be designed relevant to policy needs (OECD, 2007). This applies to the policy evaluation and research on migrant education. Therefore the policy suggestions were made not only on the available evidence, but also other factors such as experts' professional judgement, country experience, societal values, and feasibility of these suggestions judged on the basis of policy dialogue among key stakeholders in the reviewed country.

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OECD Reviews of Migrant Education

Closing the Gap for Immigrant Students

POLICIES, PRACTICE AND PERFORMANCE

In many OECD countries, immigrant students have more restricted access to quality education, leave school earlier and have lower academic achievement than their native peers. That makes improving the education of immigrant students a policy priority.

While there has been extensive research on the integration of migrants into labour markets, little work has been done internationally to examine the education outcomes of their children and explore education policy interventions to improve their performance. The *OECD Reviews of Migrant Education* were designed to help policy makers develop and implement migrant education policy that will make a difference.

The OECD conducted policy reviews of migrant education in Austria, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden and examined the migrant education experience in many countries. This book offers comparative data on access, participation and performance of immigrant students and their native peers and identifies a set of policy options based on solid evidence of what works. The report has been structured as a concise action-oriented handbook for policy makers. It will also be of special interest to teachers, school leaders, parents and all those who are active in immigrant communities.

For more information on the OECD's work on migrant education, visit *www.oecd.org/edu/migration*.

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