

# Scienza e Pace

## *Science & Peace*

ISSN 2039-1749

Vol. XII, No 1 (2021)

### **A Research Agenda for a Multilingual Education Policy in Immigratory Contexts**

Anna Malandrino

*Online Journal of the “Sciences for Peace”  
Interdisciplinary Centre - University of Pisa*



***This paper has been refereed through double-blind peer review***

Received: 15 March 2020.

Accepted: 25 November 2020.

To cite this article:

Malandrino A. (2021), "A Research Agenda for a Multilingual Education Policy in Immigratory Contexts", *Scienza e Pace*, XII (1), pp. 69-89.

Creative Commons BY-NC-SA 4.0



## A Research Agenda for a Multilingual Education Policy in Immigratory Contexts

Anna Malandrino\*

### Abstract

The goal of this paper is to introduce a new topic into the public policy debate: the policy implications of multicultural and multilingual education have been largely neglected by public policy and administration scholars, despite the multiple interesting research perspectives implied. Discussing the numerous aspects of multilingual education is all the more important in light of the superdiversity generated by migratory waves as well as of the role played by immigrants in the socioeconomic fabric of their host countries. After introducing the subject by framing it within the political and policy debate, the article presents the different angles from which the multilingual education issue should be tackled, starting with an overview of the social, economic, and human right/legal aspects involved and proceeding with a proposal of investigation of the implications for public policy and administration, with a focus on teachers as street-level bureaucrats delivering policies in close contact with target groups.

**Keywords:** public policy, education policy, language policy, immigration, public administration.

### Abstract

L'obiettivo di questo articolo consiste nell'introduzione di un nuovo argomento nel dibattito sulle politiche pubbliche: il tema dell'educazione multiculturale e multilingue è infatti poco presente in tale dibattito, nonostante le molteplici e interessanti prospettive di ricerca che esso comporta. L'articolazione di una discussione sui numerosi aspetti dell'educazione multilingue è tanto più importante alla luce delle configurazioni di *super-diversity* generate dai processi migratori, nonché in ragione del ruolo svolto dagli immigrati nel tessuto socioeconomico dei paesi ospitanti. Dopo aver introdotto l'argomento, l'articolo presenta le diverse angolazioni da cui la questione dell'istruzione multilingue può essere affrontata, partendo da una panoramica degli aspetti sociali ed economici e di quelli relativi ai diritti umani, e procedendo con una proposta di indagine delle implicazioni per le politiche pubbliche e l'amministrazione, con un focus sugli insegnanti come pubblici ufficiali

---

\* Anna Malandrino has been Visiting Scholar 2019-2020 at the Center for European Studies, Harvard University. E-mail: [malandrino.anna@gmail.com](mailto:malandrino.anna@gmail.com)

che attuano le politiche per l'istruzione a stretto contatto con i gruppi target.

**Parole chiave:** politiche pubbliche, istruzione, lingue, migranti, pubblica amministrazione.

## **Introduction**

Education shapes societies of the future. It is crucial for the acquisition by individuals of fundamental skills, which in turn brings benefits to the firms, households, and society in which those individuals are involved (McMahon 1999). Therefore, countries enroll their citizens in schools to equip the available human resources with the required abilities for socioeconomic development (Arkorful *et al.* 2020). Alongside the attention paid to the content or pedagogy of the educational curriculum, states cannot be neutral with respect to such educational issues as language policy (Kymlicka 1995; Olssen *et al.* 2004, 223).

Language education policies are characterized by a multifaceted identity that needs examination from different angles. Languages are never the exclusive domain of linguistic sciences (cf. Lambert 1999; Zolberg 2001): the preservation, protection, or suppression of languages implies adherence to theories of political systems, always has social implications, and is linked to identity and power issues. The relationship between language and politics also develops in the opposite direction: political rhetoric and theories often imply consequences on the linguistic level, usually in the sense of reaffirming the superiority of the dominant language over minority languages (Blackledge 2009, 84). Within this framework, the preservation of minority languages is *inter alia* aimed at avoiding language loss, which is not only a linguistic issue, but primarily a question of power (Chomsky 1979, 191).

Despite the intimate connection between language, politics, and power, as well as the implications that multilingualism entails for the European Union construction, minority rights, and democracy, cultural diversity is a topic that is often overlooked in the elaboration of traditional political, sociological and legal theories (Kjær and Adamo 2011, 1), with language being often “examined in isolation from the social and political conditions in which it is used” (May 2009, 255).

In political science, a few significant contributions have been written on public policies involving language issues (cf. for instance Schmidt 2009; Bratt Paulston and Heidemann 2006). However, not only can language be ultimately framed as a study subject relevant to the field of social sciences (Ricento 2009c, 10), but

language education policies in particular represent a breeding ground to promote a synergy between scientific rigor and social advocacy (Ricento 2009a, x-xi).

In multicultural contexts, the language education services whose users are immigrants can be divided into two main categories, while keeping in mind that a variety of policy delivery modes are in place: policies for learning or using the dominant language of the host country and policies for the protection of linguistic diversity and the preservation of immigrants' languages of origin. While the former ones have been the subject of a multitude of studies (mostly of a sociolinguistic and linguistic nature), the latter ones have been largely neglected by social scientists. Given the subject's remarkable complexity, the introduction of immigrant languages into the school curriculum of migratory countries should be investigated from several research perspectives. The goal of this research agenda is to present them.

## **2. Research Perspectives**

In the following subsections, I will present the different perspectives according to which social science research concerning education policies and in particular language education services in migratory contexts should be shaped, building on the assumption that the preservation of immigrant languages can be justified well beyond mere "moral and 'naturalness' arguments" (Ricento 2009c, 11).

### *2.1 Social Perspectives*

On a societal level, assimilation and multiculturalism can be understood as two ends of a conceptual continuum:

The concept of assimilation is based on the premise that cultural differences between IM (immigrant minority) groups and established majority groups should and will disappear over time in a society which is proclaimed to be culturally homogeneous from the majority point of view. At the other end of the spectrum, the concept of multiculturalism is based on the premise that such differences are an asset to a pluralistic society, which actually promotes cultural diversity in terms of new resources and opportunities. While the concept of assimilation focuses on unilateral tasks for newcomers, the concept of multiculturalism focuses on multilateral tasks for all inhabitants in changing societies. In actual practice, established majority groups often make strong demands on IM groups to assimilate and are commonly very reluctant to promote or even accept the notion of cultural diversity as a determining characteristic of increasingly multicultural societies (Extra *et al.* 2009, 11).

Multiculturalism is a framework within which we confront the presence of differences in society, with particular regard to those related to globalization and migratory

flows. It is based on principles of respect and tolerance, and its central idea is that the differences brought about by human groups of different origins must be preserved, promoted and safeguarded from the risk of dissolution, based on a view of difference as a resource, rather than a problem (Dei 2006, 40).

Assimilationism and language pluralism are therefore antithetical terms:

In order to give individuals fair equality of opportunity to realize their own conception of a good life, the state must try to provide equally effective support for the structures of each component ethnolinguistic community making up the country. This would seem to provide powerful and reasoned support for a language policy in support of multiple languages in a multilingual country (Schmidt 2009, 106).

However, a distinction has been highlighted between multinational countries and multiethnic countries, where national groups who have been incorporated through conquests or annexations are more entitled to full cultural and linguistic protection than ethnic groups that have arrived voluntarily in a country as immigrants (Kymlicka 1995; Ricento 2009b, 8).

The dialectic between homogenization and diversification can be framed first of all in terms of the pressure that the host country and its communicative space exert on immigrant groups and new languages. The role that the education system can play in these processes is of great importance: the drive towards the formation of an identity pivoting on host country national values has its formal location at school, where the diversity of conditions and capabilities is also at stake. The degree of acceptance of immigrant languages at school, as well as having a symbolic value in relation to the motivation towards maintaining their original identity, has a direct implication on their effective maintenance in terms of competence and use (Vedovelli 2007, 367).

The preservation of the language of origin can also contribute to the mitigation of migrants' cultural shock which derives "from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" (Oberg 1960, 177), as well as to the avoidance of language anxiety phenomena detected among immigrant populations due to a lack of proficiency in their language(s) of origin in contexts where the importance of relationships with the community of origin still endures (Sevinç 2017, 718; Sevinç and Backus 2019, 706-710; Sevinç and Dewaele 2016, 163). Mother tongue education in immigratory contexts is also believed to favor literacy and school success for children (Corson 1995), which are in turn functional to their socioeconomic development (Bratt Paulston 1998, 9).

Migrants' drive towards the acquisition of the host country language must also be identified and evaluated. Immigrants are bound to the need for mutual comprehension with host country natives both for instrumental reasons and to take

advantage of the symbolic function of language, as a way of acquiring social prestige. On the other hand, the motivation for identity conservation at the individual and immigrant group level must be considered, which is interrelated with religion, social position, and the ability to elaborate a migration project, including in terms of the intended duration of stay in the host country (Vedovelli 2007, 367). Therefore, immigrants' perceptions of language preservation and teaching must be surveyed. Few studies have been conducted on the subject, so far. In a survey conducted on the English community in Israel, for instance, the parents of immigrant children showed an overall positive attitude towards having their children learn English, with such attitude reflecting instrumental motivations rather than emotional features linked to the land of origin. On the other hand, according to the same study, the Russian community in Israel was found to support bilingual education in the destination country partly by virtue of greater attachment to their culture of origin (Kayam and Hirsh 2013, 323-324).

Migrants' perceptions can be hypothesized to partially depend on the values attached to specific immigrant languages as well as on the socioeconomic context in which those languages are used. Moreover, while assessing those perceptions, attention should be paid to the prominent reasons that have pushed individuals to move from their homeland, with one of the main differences existing between immigrants and refugees. While immigrants might almost freely have chosen to move to another country, although this occurs in circumstances normally considered negative, refugees have been somehow forced to emigrate from their countries of origin due to considerable adversity.

From the point of view of the host society, the acquisition, especially by young people, of intercultural skills able to transcend the local level and allowing them to communicate and think globally implies learning that people with different religions, languages, and values do not constitute a threat to their identity (Süssmuth 2007, 195-197, 202-203). Intercultural dialogue, moreover, is key to counter the diffusion of ill-informed discriminatory opinions (Bryers *et al.* 2014, 21-22), with its presupposition being precisely the overcoming of sterile ethnocentric and self-referential monologues, in view of the enrichment possibilities that the other can offer as a precious opportunity to develop a complex cultural identity, capable of incorporating and integrating diversity (Coppola 2012, 7).

A reluctant attitude towards immigrant groups is often caused by perceived or real threats to political and economic power, but also by symbolic threats to the worldview of a particular native group (Moldes-Anaya *et al.* 2018, 94-95). Economic outcomes affect values, thus "interacting with 'civic virtues' and helping to strengthen or deplete the moral fabric" (Becchetti *et al.* 2010, 81). These (real or perceived) threats as well as their interaction with the values of the host society should therefore be investigated, as well.

## *2.2 Policy Financing and Economic Perspectives*

The resources flowing into compulsory education in Europe are typically managed by state or substate public authorities (European Commission 2014). In times of austerity, the introduction of multilingual education including immigrant languages into the school systems of immigratory countries raises important questions regarding the resources allowing governments to pay for their implementation.

So far, two main financing patterns have been identified: the user-pay model and the taxation model. However, the user-pay method is considered problematic to use for non-measurable goods, with substantial risks of free-riding. Furthermore, if the use of a service can generate benefits for the entire society, charging only users the entire price of a service might not be desirable. Taxation, on the other hand, is a contribution method which operates independently from the use or non-use of a service (Grin and Vaillancourt 2000, 105-106), therefore seeming more appropriate to finance language education policies.

Interestingly, the adoption of a taxation-based model to finance language policies would imply the assertion of a principle along the lines of “no taxation without representation,” modified into “no taxation without language recognition.” However, justifying the pursuit of policies of public support for multilingualism under a distributive perspective (“because it is right”) might not be as effective as justifying it on allocative grounds (“because it is efficient”). The allocative justification for the implementation of multilingualism policies rests upon the recognition of each language as an asset and of a plurality of such assets as desirable (Grin and Vaillancourt 2000, 107-109). If we consider languages as economic assets, an individual who “owns” a plurality of those assets should be regarded as a resource to the nation, while at the same time his/her social position and economic opportunities would be enhanced by their possession of the linguistic assets (Clyne 2000). Migrants’ maintenance of contact with their native language can, for instance, favor an increase in the number of bilingual workers and thus represent an important factor of economic and productive growth for the host country (Ruiz 1988; Vedovelli 2014, 72).

On the other hand, the distributive justification seems more appropriate where the danger of linguistic diversity loss to the detriment of linguistic minorities is the result of oppressive policies previously pursued by the majority community, which would for instance explain the protection of certain linguistic minorities in the United Kingdom (Grin and Vaillancourt 2000, 107-109).

Research should also assess whether immigrants are willing to finance their own immigrant language education, since their migrating is often caused by economic inequality (Della Posta 2017, 2), which means that, on the one hand, migrants might have fewer resources than the host country population, and on the other one, they



might not be willing to give up the perceived “integration” benefits stemming from privileging the host country language, especially for their children.

### 2.3 Human Right/Legal Perspectives

Language rights derive from individual human rights such as freedom of expression, the right to private life, and non-discrimination (de Varennes 2001, 15). In a context of increased diversity due to higher mobility and significant immigration waves, it is of interest to investigate the existence of a right to immigrant language education in international soft law as well as in the European Union and European nation-states’ legal frameworks. Granting language rights does not only mean to allow individuals to use their first language in their private lives but implies that governments assume an obligation to take appropriate measures (Skorupa-Wulczyńska 2019, 96). However, the existence of a right to heritage language education enforceable by immigrants is highly uncertain at all levels. Few legal tools provide obligations for European states to provide the related learning opportunities, and even when doing so they present significant limitations. The prevalent orientation of both international and supranational organizations, on the one hand, and nation-states, on the other, is towards assimilation rather than integration and intercultural dialogue (Malandrino 2020).

The difference between new minorities and historical/national minorities in terms of entitlement to mother-tongue language education and preservation rights should also be investigated. In the Italian legislation, for instance, systematic protection is currently granted only to historical minorities (Italian Law No. 482/1999). The act is aimed at the preservation of the language and culture of the Albanian, Catalan, Germanic, Greek, Slovenian, and Croatian populations and of those speaking French, Franco-Provençal, Friulian, Ladin, Occitan, and Sardinian. Its scope of application therefore covers only historical minority languages and, notably, does not include immigrant languages, i.e. those languages that were brought by new immigration waves which do not possess the two basic requirements to be classified as historical minorities: historicity and territoriality (cf. Coluzzi 2006; Paciotto 2009; Vacca 2016).

### 2.4 Policy Formulation and Adoption Perspectives

Historically, European countries’ public policies underlined a firm belief in the strong relationship between language and nation, thus building their own identity on the identification between language unity and national unity (Wright 2011, 46-47). On the other hand, the European identity is *de facto* largely determined by its cultural and linguistic diversity (Extra *et al.* 2009, 8), not only at a continental level, but also within each of its states. Such diversity was accentuated by the more recent migratory waves, to the point of generating what was labeled as super-diversity (Vertovec 2006, 4; Wiley 2014) or hyperdiversity (Suárez-Orozco *et al.* 2011, 314), whose main cause is a kind of migration that materializes on several levels, with

increased mobility as well as the intersection between exogenous and endogenous immigratory flows. To this heightened complexity, nation-states have mainly reacted by reinforcing entry barriers and by implementing policies to control this new type of immigration, not least in an attempt to control multiculturalism and plurilingualism (Hogan-Brun *et al.* 2009, 5). In the European Union, immigration from outside the EU borders represents a highly conflictual political issue, with the notion of outsiders of Europe developing faster than the new European identity itself, which is still being built (Della Porta 2000, 109).

The word “integration” is often used with reference to the need to incorporate immigrant minorities into the socioeconomic fabric of European nation-states. In theory, the very meaning of integration would imply an adjustment effort on the part of both immigrants and the host society (Eisikovits and Beck 1990, 178). In practice, the adoption of integration policies translates into the implementation of cultural assimilation policies. Assimilation can be defined as a process through which immigrants adopt the habits, language, customs, culture, and values of the host society. In most cases, the so-called integration policies force immigrants to choose between the imitation of the dominant culture and the acceptance of lower social and political status (Cainkar 2013, 141). Furthermore, the public opinion in favor of multiculturalism becomes subject to severe criticisms after the occurrence of violent episodes, which gives rise to generalizations and leads to the adoption of less tolerant policies (Rutter 2013, 22-23) in a declared attempt to satisfy bottom-up requests.

The arguments adduced in favor of host country language education measures are multiple. The idea is widespread that if migrants learn the local language, this will instill a sense of security and trust in the population (Shohamy 2009; Van Avermaet 2009). Moreover, as far as employment and gender are concerned, national language learning should bring about better job opportunities for migrants and more participation of women in the labor market (Villareal 2009, 21), although it has also been pointed out how access to better jobs and education and ultimately social mobility lead to language knowledge, rather than the opposite (Van Avermaet 2009).

The rationale underlying most integration policies considers migrants as a resource as long as they conform to the native community's language and customs (Ros i Sole 2014, 60). The tendency to evaluate the use of the dominant language as more desirable than the use of the language of origin is determined by extralinguistic factors that refer to theories of the social good, including the minimum criteria to facilitate equality and justice from a socioeconomic point of view (Ricento 2009a, 4).

Most European countries are oriented towards increasingly assimilationist policies (Extra *et al.* 2009; Hogan-Brun *et al.* 2009), thus focusing on the requirements that immigrants should fulfill to participate in the host country life, for instance in order to

obtain a residence permit. This orientation often translates into a type of integration obtained through measures for learning the language of the host country rather than through the promotion of multilingualism and intercultural dialogue (Extra and Yağmur 2012b, 20-21).

Despite this prevalent policy orientation, a few countries in Europe have established education policies aiming to promote immigrant languages either among immigrants only or for the benefit of all students, including Austria, Denmark, France, Spain, and Switzerland (Extra and Yağmur 2012a, 8-10). However, in some of the countries where immigrant language education is provided as a school subject, the perception of schools offering immigrant first language courses tends to be that of middle-to-lower status schools, while in the case of some specific minorities the provision of language courses has proven to be rather difficult to justify since these people often speak multiple varieties departing from the standard immigrant language, i.e. Arabic (Merry 2005, 11).

The reasons behind the adoption of specific education policy measures in migratory contexts should also be investigated. In France, for instance, immigrant language education measures were mainly adopted in the light of an assumedly temporary migration phenomenon, with the expectation that the children of migrants would return to their respective countries of origin (Hélot 2003, 262-263).

Not least, the kinds of policies under examination should be analyzed through the lens of their transferability to other polities. Education policies are traditionally likely to be subject to policy transfer from one national context to another through policy learning, but such transfer also implies adaptation to the specific “destination” context in which the policy is to be adopted, not least through policy assemblages (Lippi and Tsekos 2019; McCann and Ward 2012; Radaelli 2000; Stone 2012).

## *2.5 Policy Implementation/Administrative Perspectives*

The adoption of multilingual education policies in migratory contexts should be studied from the point of view of the institutions delivering them, drawing upon the variety of epistemological approaches and methods that the public administration field allows for (Ricucci 2010, 1).

Teachers represent the main category of street-level bureaucrats delivering education policies (cf. Maynard-Moody and Musheno 2003). As street-level bureaucrats, they structure and transmit policy expectations (Lipsky 1980; Radin and Benton 1988, 15) and have to adapt their daily tasks to the policies to be delivered as well as to meet the multiple demands stemming from the environment (Thomann 2015, 179). The pedagogical foundations and implications of immigrant language education policy are likely to significantly affect the recruitment and professionalism of this key category of education policy deliverers. If governments

opted for multilingual education policies, this would require wise bilingualism management: while the absence of policies recognizing and preserving bilingualism can have disastrous effects on mental health and consequently on the social integration of migrants, the promotion of bilingualism in immigratory contexts must consider the personal and family circumstances of the child and imply educational as well as clinical and family efforts (Toppelberg and Collins, 2010).

The introduction of a new, more inclusive and multicultural approach to education would bring with it a degree of complexity that significantly implies change in the professionalism of the entire teaching staff, for instance in order to develop effective methods to enable teachers without immigrant language knowledge to exploit the potential of immigrant languages. The consequences of policy change should therefore be assessed with regards to teacher training, together with the issues regarding the recognition of qualifications possessed by teachers with foreign education, in an attempt to make teachers more responsive to the demands of their clients (Whitty 2002, 64).

For the purpose of observing and introducing best administrative practices, regard should also be had to the countries that have already adopted and implemented immigrant language education policies, including by drawing lessons from the evaluations carried out in those countries (Furubo 2003). The public accountability of educational bureaucracies in those countries should also be considered, since “public accountability mechanisms must provide the conditions for bureaucratic ‘learning’, encouraging best practice public administration for the future” (Grube 2014, 222). As learning organizations, schools should therefore deal with such aspects as personal mastery, mental models, creation of a common vision and team learning, as well as systemic thinking (Paraschiva and Draghici 2019, 257-258).

## **Conclusions**

The article introduces a new subject into the public policy and administration field for further investigation, while starting from and integrating it with social, economic, and human right/legal questions equally needing additional research.

The adoption of a multilingual approach to education policies apt to take into account the background of immigrant students, which is a reality in a few European countries, is still considered a utopian idea in many other countries. However, it would not be forward-looking not to consider the premises and consequences of their introduction into more European countries’ policy agendas. In contexts where immigrants are a vibrant part of the socioeconomic fabric, important as they are as labor force (cf. Esposito *et al.* 2019) and as a linguistic and cultural addition to the host country resource portfolio (cf. Clyne 2000), multicultural education policies

cannot be disregarded and deserve to be studied from a multitude of perspectives, as suggested in this research agenda.

## References

Arkorful, V. E., Basiru, I., Anokye, R., Latif, A., Agyei, E. K., Hammond, A., Pokuaah, S., Arkorful, E. V., Abdul-Rahaman, S. (2020). "Equitable Access and Inclusiveness in Basic Education: Roadblocks to Sustainable Development Goals". *International Journal of Public Administration*, 43(3), pp. 189-202.

Becchetti, L., Rossetti, F., Castriota, S. (2010) "Real household income and attitude toward immigrants: an empirical analysis". *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 39(1), pp. 81-88.

Blackledge, A. (2009). "Being English, Speaking English. Extension to English language testing legislation and the future of multicultural Britain". In G. Hogan-Brun, C. Mar-Molinero, P. Stevenson (eds), *Discourses on language and integration: critical perspective on language testing regimes in Europe*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 83-107.

Bratt Paulston, C. (1998). "Linguistic Minorities in Central and Eastern Europe: An Introduction". In: C. Bratt Paulston, D. Peckham (eds), *Linguistic Minorities in Central and Eastern Europe*, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, pp. 1-17.

Bratt Paulston, C., Heidemann, K. (2006). "Language Policies and the Education of Linguistic Minorities". In T. Ricento (ed), *An Introduction to Language Policy: Theory and Method*, Malden, MA: Blackwell, pp. 292-310.

Bryers, D., Winstanley, B., Cooke, M. (2014). "Whose integration?" In D. Mallows (ed), *Language issues in migration and integration: perspectives from teachers and learners*, London: British Council, pp. 19-34.

Cainkar, L. (2013). "Global Arab world migrations and diasporas". *The Arab Studies Journal*, 21(1), pp. 126-165.

Chomsky, N. (1979). *Language and Responsibility*, London: Harvester.

Clyne, M. (2000). "Promoting Multilingualism and Linguistic Human Rights in the Era of Economic Rationalism and Globalization". In R. Phillipson (ed), *Rights to*

*Language: Equity, Power and Education*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, pp. 160-163.

Coluzzi, P. (2006). "Minority Language Planning and Micronationalism in Italy: The Cases of Lombardy and Friuli". *Journal of multilingual and multicultural development*, 27(6), pp. 457-71.

Coppola, D. (2012). "Chi insegna italiano non riceve spari". Prospettiva dialogica e interculturalità nell'insegnamento di lingue e culture altre". *Scienza e Pace*, 14, pp. 1-16.

Corson, D. (1995). "Realities of Teaching in a Multiethnic School". In O. Garcia, C. Baker (eds), *Policy and Practice in Bilingual Education: a Reader Extending the Foundation*, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, pp. 70-84.

De Varennes, F. (2001). "Language rights as an integral part of human rights". *International Journal on Multicultural Studies*, 3, pp. 15-25.

Dei, F. (2006). "Sul concetto di società multiculturale". In L. Benedettelli, F. Masotti (eds), *Migranti e migrazioni. Tra storia, storiografia e didattica*, Grosseto: ISGREC, pp. 29-38.

Della Porta, D. (2000). "Immigration and Protest: New Challenges for Italian Democracy". *South European Society and Politics*, 5(3), pp. 108-132.

Della Posta, P. (2017). "Thematic Issue 'Economic Inequality: Crises, Conflicts and Threats for Peace'", *Scienza e Pace*, VIII (2), pp. 1-6.

Eisikovits, R. A., Beck, R. H. (1990). "Models Governing the Education of New Immigrant Children in Israel". *Comparative Education Review*, 34(2), pp. 177-195.

Esposito P., Collignon S., Scicchitano S. (2019). *Immigration and unemployment in Europe: does the core-periphery dualism matter?*, Rome: INAPP.



European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice (2014). *Financing Schools in Europe: Mechanisms, Methods and Criteria in Public Funding (Eurydice Report)*, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Extra, G., Spotti, M., Von Avermaet, P. (2009). "Testing regimes for newcomers". In G. Extra, M. Spotti, P. Van Avermaet (eds), *Language Testing, Migration and Citizenship*, London: Continuum, pp. 3-33.

Extra, G., Yağmur, K. (2012a). "Key Findings and Discussion". In G. Extra, K. Yağmur (eds), *Language Rich Europe. Trends in Policies and Practices for Multilingualism in Europe*, Cambridge: CUP, pp. 8-12.

Extra, G., Yağmur K. (2012b). "Towards European Indicators of Language Policies and Practices". In G. Extra, K. Yağmur (eds), *Language Rich Europe. Trends in Policies and Practices for Multilingualism in Europe*, Cambridge: CUP, pp. 13-27.

Furubo J.-E. (2003). "The Role of Evaluations in Political and Administrative Learning and the Role of Learning in Evaluation Praxis". *OECD Journal on Budgeting*, 3(3), pp. 67-85.

Grin, F., Vaillancourt, F. (2000). "On the financing of language policies and distributive justice". In R. Phillipson (ed), *Rights to Language: Equity, Power and Education*, New York: Lawrence Erlbaum, pp. 102-110.

Grube, D. (2014). "Administrative learning or political blaming? Public servants, parliamentary committees and the drama of public accountability", *Australian Journal of Political Science*, 49(2), pp. 221-236.

Hélot, C. (2003). "Language policy and the ideology of bilingual education in France". *Language Policy*, 2, pp. 255-277.

Hogan-Brun, G., Mar-Molinero, C., Stevenson, P. (2009). "Testing Regimes. Introducing cross-national perspectives on language, migration and citizenship". In: G. Hogan-Brun, C. Mar-Molinero, P. Stevenson (eds), *Discourses on language and integration: critical perspective on language testing regimes in Europe*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 1-13.



Kayam, O., Hirsh, T. (2013). "Israel's English Speaking Immigrant Parents' Family Language Policy Management: Language in the Education Domain". *International Journal of Linguistics*, 5(1), pp. 320-331.

Kjær, A. L., Adamo, S. (2011). "Linguistic Diversity and European Democracy: Introduction and Overview". In A. L. Kjær, S. Adamo (eds), *Linguistic Diversity and European Democracy*, Farnham/Burlington: Ashgate, pp. 1-15.

Kymlicka, W. (1995). *Multicultural Citizenship: A Liberal Theory of Minority Rights*, Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Lambert, R. D. (1999). "A Scaffolding for Language Policy". *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 137, pp. 3-25.

Lippi, A., Tsekos T. N. (2019). "Importing or Constructing Austerity? Global Reforms and Local Implementation as a Case of Policy Transfer". In A. Lippi, T. Tsekos (eds), *Local Public Services in Times of Austerity across Mediterranean Europe. Governance and Public Management*, Cham: Palgrave Macmillan.

Lipsky, M. (1980). *Street-Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Services*. New York: Russell Sage.

Malandrino, A. (2020) "A Right to Immigrant Language Education in Europe?", paper presented at Workshop "Migration, Rights and Democracy: Conceptual Reappraisals" - COST Action CA 16211 Reappraising Intellectual Debates on Civic Rights and Democracy in Europe (RECAST), 15-16 Jun 2020.

May, S. (2009). "Language policy and minority rights". In T. Ricento (ed), *An Introduction to Language Policy*, New York: Blackwell, pp. 255-272.

Maynard-Moody, S., Musheno, M. (2003). *Cops, Teachers, Counsellors: Stories from the Front Lines of Public Service*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

McCann, E., Ward, K. (2012). "Policy Assemblages, Mobilities and Mutations: Toward a Multidisciplinary Conversation". *Political Studies Review*, 10(3), pp. 325-332.

McMahon, W. (1999). *Education and development: Measuring the social benefits*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Merry, M. S. (2005). "Social Exclusion of Muslim Youth in Flemish- and French-Speaking Belgian Schools". *Comparative Education Review*, 49(1), pp. 1-23.

Moldes-Anaya, S., Aguilar, F. J., Bautista, F. J. (2018). "Actitudes hacia la inmigración en España a través de la Encuesta Social Europea". *OBETS. Revista de Ciencias Sociales*, 13, pp. 93-119.

Oberg, K. (1960). "Cultural Shock: Adjustment to New Cultural Environments", *Practical Anthropology*, 7, pp. 177-182.

Olssen, M., O'Neill, A.-M., Codd, J. A. (2004). *Education Policy: Globalization, Citizenship and Democracy*, London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Paciotto, C. (2009). "What Do I Lose if I Lose My Bilingual School? Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of the Value of a Slovene Language Maintenance Program in Italy". *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(4), pp. 449-475.

Paraschiva, G. A., Draghici, A. (2019). "Experimental Research on Schools as Learning Organisations: The Case of Romania". *Management*, 14(4), pp. 257-270.

Radaelli, C. M. (2000). "Policy Transfer in the European Union: Institutional Isomorphism as a Source of Legitimacy". *Governance*, 13, pp. 25-43.

Radin, B. A., Benton, B. B. (1988). "Linking Policy and Management in Human Services". *Public Administration Quarterly*, 12(1), pp. 6-31.

Riccucci, N. M. (2010). "Envisioning Public Administration as a Scholarly Field in 2020: Rethinking Epistemic Traditions". *Public Administration Review*, 70, pp. s304–s306.

Ricento, T. (2009a). "Preface". In T. Ricento (ed), *An Introduction to Language Policy*, New York: Blackwell, pp. x-xii.

Ricento, T. (2009b). "Language Policy: Theory and Practice – An Introduction". In T. Ricento (ed), *An Introduction to Language Policy*, New York: Blackwell, pp. 3-9.

Ricento, T. (2009c). "Language Policy: Theory and Practice – An Overview". In T. Ricento (ed), *An Introduction to Language Policy*, New York: Blackwell, pp. 10-23.

Ros i Sole, C. (2014). "The paradoxes of language learning and integration in the European context". In D. Mallows (ed), *Language issues in migration and integration: perspectives from teachers and learners*, London: British Council, pp. 57-78.

Ruiz, R. (1988). "Orientation in Language Planning". In S. L. McKay, S. L. C. Wong (eds), *Language Diversity: Problem or Resource?*, New York: Newbury House, pp. 3-25.

Rutter, J. (2013). "Back to Basics: towards a successful and cost-effective integration policy". London: Institute for Public Policy Research.

Schmidt, R. (2009). "Political Theory and Language Policy". In T. Ricento (ed), *An Introduction to Language Policy*, New York: Blackwell, pp. 95-110.

Sevinç, Y. (2017). "Language anxiety in the immigrant context: Sweaty palms?" *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 22(6), pp. 717-739.

Sevinç, Y., Backus, A. (2019). "Anxiety, language use and linguistic competence in an immigrant context: a vicious circle?" *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 22(6), pp. 706-724.

Sevinç, Y., Dewaele, J.-M. (2016). "Heritage language anxiety and majority language anxiety among Turkish immigrants in the Netherlands" *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 22(2), pp. 159-179.

Shohamy, E (2009). "Language tests for migrants. Why language? Why tests? Why citizenship?" In G. Hogan-Brun, C. Mar-Molinero, P. Stevenson (eds), *Discourses on language and integration: critical perspective on language testing regimes in Europe*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 45-60.

Skorupa-Wulczyńska, A. (2019). "Language Rights in the Light of International Law". *Comparative Law Review*, 24, pp. 89-128.

Stone, D. (2012). "Transfer and translation of policy". *Policy Studies*, 33(6), pp. 483-499.

Suárez-Orozco, M. M.; Darbes, T.; Dias, S. I.; Sutin, M. (2011). "Migrations and Schooling". *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 40, pp. 311-328.

Süssmuth, R. (2007), "On the Need for Teaching Intercultural Skills". In M. M. Suárez-Orozco (ed), *Learning in the Global Era. International Perspectives on Globalization and Education*, Berkeley: University of California Press, pp. 195-212.

Toppelberg, C. O.; Collins, B. A. (2010). "Language, Culture, and Adaptation in Immigrant Children". *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 19, pp. 697-717.

Thomann, E. (2015). "Is Output Performance All About the Resources? A Fuzzy-Set Qualitative Comparative Analysis of Street-Level Bureaucrats in Switzerland". *Public Administration*, 93, pp. 177-194.

Vacca, A. (2016). *Rights to Use Minority Languages in the Public Administration and Public Institutions: Italy, Spain and the UK*, Turin: Giappichelli.

Van Avermaet, P. (2009). "Fortress Europe? Language policy regimes for immigration and citizenship". In G. Hogan-Brun, C. Mar-Molinero, P. Stevenson (eds), *Discourses on language and integration: critical perspective on language testing regimes in Europe*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 15-44.

Vedovelli, M. (2007). "'Lingue immigrate' del Mediterraneo e nuove modalità di rilevazione sociolinguistica", *Plurilinguismo: contatti di lingue e culture*, 14, pp. 363-384.

Vedovelli, M. (2014). "Il neoplurilinguismo italiano. Una risorsa per il sistema produttivo, una sfida per la linguistica educativa". In P. E. Balboni, D. Coste, M. Vedovelli (eds), *Il diritto al plurilinguismo*, Milan: Edizioni Unicopli, pp. 65-92.

Vertovec S. (2006). *The emergence of super-diversity in Britain*. Oxford: Centre on Migration, Policy and Society.

Villareal, F. (2009). *Enseñanza de la lengua a inmigrantes: estudio de las políticas de integración lingüística en tres países europeos y retos para el caso español*, Madrid: Centro de Publicaciones del Ministerio de Trabajo e Inmigración.

Whitty G. (2002). *Making Sense of Education Policy: Studies in the Sociology and Politics of Education*, London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Wiley, T. G. (2014). "Diversity, Super-Diversity, and Monolingual Language Ideology in the United States: Tolerance or Intolerance?" *Review of Research in Education*, 38, pp. 1-32.

Wright, S. (2011). "Democracy, Communities of Communication and the European Union". In A. L. Kjær, S. Adamo (eds), *Linguistic Diversity and European Democracy*, Farnham/Burlington: Ashgate, pp. 35-55.

Zolberg, A. R. (2001). "Language Policy: Public Policy Perspectives". In N. J. Smelser, P. B. Baltes (eds), *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences*, Amsterdam: Elsevier.