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INTEGRATION MAPPING OF REFUGEE AND MIGRANT CHILDREN

Working Paper #5

COMMON CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This project has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 822536

IMMERSE is a Horizon 2020 funded project aimed at mapping the integration of refugee and migrant children in Europe IMMERSE main goal is to define a new generation of indicators on the integration and socio educational inclusion of refugee and migrant children in Europe incorporateing all relevant stakeholders children and their families researchers, NGOs, policymakers educators or learning institutions in the co creation and validation of a dashboard of indicators in order to reflect their particular needs and expectations.

Author

This paper has been written by Inmaculada Serrano Sanguilinda, Mercedes Fernández García, Ángela Ordoñez Carabaño, Eva Bajo Marcos, Sandra Miguel Somavilla from IUEM COMILLAS

Edition and layout

INFODEF

Provisional version

May 2019

IMMERSE partners

Universidad Pontificia Comillas ICAI ICADE SPAIN
Zabala Innovation Consulting SPAIN
INFODEF Instituto para el Fomento del Desarrollo y la Formación SPAIN
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1. INTRODUCTION

Between 2013 and 2017, around 2 million newcomers have yearly arrived from outside the EU (EUROSTAT, 2019). Among them, 20% approximately are children, many of whom are unaccompanied or separated from their families1. They are one of the most vulnerable groups and require appropriate protection and guarantees that their human rights will be upheld, as committed in the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). The lack of opportunities and vulnerability to poverty, as well as the growth in the number of those trafficked for sexual and labor exploitation are factors that need to be urgently addressed. The increased and diverse flows of recent years are putting national administrations in European countries under pressure and have exposed gaps and shortcomings in the protection and support of all categories of migrant children. Every European country is impacted, either directly or indirectly, as countries of origin, transit, destination or resettlement countries.

As emphasized by the OECD, the ability of societies to maintain social cohesion in the presence of large migration flows depends on their capacity to integrate foreign-born populations (OECD, 2018a). In other words, one of the most fundamental challenges lying ahead for the EU consists of the successful integration of these recent arrivals, as well as of longer-established migrant populations, and their descendants. More than 38 million people born in non EU 28 countries are currently living in the European Union, representing a 7.5% of the population in Europe. In addition, 21.8 million, 4.25% of the population had been born in a different EU Member State. In countries such as France, United Kingdom, Netherlands, Belgium, Germany and Spain migrants and their descendants already made up to 15% of the population (EUROSTAT, 2019). In 2015, almost one in four 15-year-old students in EU countries was either foreign-born or had at least one foreign-born parent (OECD, 2018a).

National education systems are especially impacted by this situation since they need to embrace growing cultural, linguistic, socio economic and ethnic diversity. In particular, the growing number of children arriving in recent years is leading to a re-examination of how best to integrate foreign-born children. This re-examination is not only a necessary step for the fulfilment of international obligations, but particularly important given that most of these young migrants will likely permanently settle in their country of destination (OECD, 2018a). Therefore, schools, migrant reception centres across Europe and policymakers are in urgent need of policy recommendations in order to support migrant children, especially newly arrived refugees and unaccompanied minors.

A lack of integration can lead to significant political, social and economic problems. It entails political costs and instability, it erodes social cohesion, and it fosters negative public attitudes that constrain the political space in terms of appropriate management of migration (OECD/ EU,

[1] *According to IOM, UNCHR and UNICEF, during 2017 20,000 unaccompanied and separated children arrived in Europe in 2017 c*https://www.unicef.org/eca/emergencies/latest-statistics-and- graphics-refugee-and-migrant-children

2018). The lack of integration also leads to economic costs in terms of lower productivity and growth. In fact, while migration flows undoubtedly pose challenges for receiving countries, they also represent significant opportunities. Such opportunities are to be found, above all, in the value of diversity for social progress and economic innovation. Migrants contribute to building a more open and culturally diverse society. So fostering their integration and inclusion is an investment that will relay benefits for the whole society. Migration also offers significant opportunities for the demographic revitalisation of ageing societies, for economic growth, and for the increased sustainability of existing welfare states (OECD, 2018a).

But to unlock the benefits of migration, effective education and social policies are necessary to integrate migrant children successfully into society (OECD, 2018a). Early integration in schools has proved to be the best way to build up an inclusive and equal society, avoiding future social exclusion leading to poverty, labor and sexual trafficking or exploitation and even terrorism. However, due to a deficiency of high quality data on migrant children's integration and monitoring tools, no consensus strategy has been reached. Similarly, the SDGs 2030 (and more specifically SDG 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all)2 set an ambitious education agenda – in relation also to migrant populations – and have raised the significant challenge of designing and implementing monitoring targets. Summing up, the integration of refugee and migrant children in Europe is still "under construction", and up to date integration seems to be ad-hoc, devised locally usually revolving around education and schooling. Schools, migrant reception centers across Europe and policymakers are in urgent need of policies and recommendations in order to support migrant children, especially newly arrived refugees and unaccompanied minors.

The general objective of IMMERSE is to define a new generation of indicators on the integration and socio-educational inclusion of refugee and migrant children in Europe. Data analysis will draw a representative image of national and Europe's reality on refugee and migrant children's integration allowing to develop policy papers with specific recommendations targeting both policymakers and educational institutions to foster diverse and inclusive societies. To fulfill this objective, IMMERSE will follow the worklines of the European Commission and the Council of Europe, such as the Action Plan on Protecting Refugee and Migrant Children in Europe (Council of Europe, 2017) and all the legislative documents related to the European Agenda on Migration (European Commission, 2015) which aim to manage the refugee crisis and the migration flows in Europe.

In this document, we introduce the conceptual framework that will underpin the dashboard of indicators. In Part I, we review the academic debate on integration of migrants/refugees and the socio-educative inclusion of migrant/refugee children. We also discuss existing attempts at measuring these process and the methodological issues involved. In Part II, we discuss the conceptual and analytical approach that we propose at this stage in order to build the dash-

[2] *Technical Cooperation Group on the Indicators for SDG 4 http://tcg.uis.unesco.org/ and global indicators for SDG 4* *http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/11-global-indicators- sdg4-cheat-sheet-2018-en.pdf*

board of indicators. It is important to notice that the conclusions of Part II will be revisited at a later point, in order to incorporate the conclusions of qualitative research we will conduct with key stakeholders (children, parents, schools, organizations and authorities) in the following months.

The conceptual framework (D1.1) is the cornerstone on which the whole project will build and develop. Although the initial due date of this deliverable was M3, the timing of the project, starting in December (M1), has meant that a significant time of the foreseen 3 months has been occupied by holiday periods that were either compulsory (institutions closed) or committed prior to the start of the project and hiring of the contracted personnel that is to prepare this deliverable. For this reason, and given the importance of this deliverable, it has been finally submitted in M6. This delay has not affected other tasks or deliverables.

PART I. THE INTEGRATION OF REFUGEE AND MIGRANT CHILDREN

1. The integration of migrants

In migratory studies, the term 'integration' refers to the process of incorporation/adaptation/adjustment of immigrants to their new environments. In the *United States, the word 'assimilation' is more commonly used, whereas in Europe authors* rather speak of 'integration'. Both concepts respond to the historical contexts, normative frameworks and policy models within which they emerged, and their meanings also evolved in parallel to those. For this reason, a historical overview of immigration and integration concepts in Europe and the United States (where integration theories originate) is required.

1.1. Historical overview

The United States of America (US) have been built upon successive waves of very diverse immigrant populations (Jiménez, 2011). Starting at the colonial period and until 1880, most immigrants came from northern Europe (England, Germany, and Ireland) - and people of African descent were brought as slaves.[3] A massive migration period took place between 1880 and 1920, when foreign born people reached 15% of US population. This massive wave came primarily from southern and eastern European countries (Italy, Poland, Russia, and Hungary), but also from Mexico and Japan. The period between 1920 and 1960, comprising WWI, the Great Depression and WWII, was characterized by restrictive immigration laws – establishing quotas for Asians and southern and eastern European immigrants. After the 1960s, less restrictive immigration laws facilitated a new wave of migrations arriving primarily from Latin America, Asia, and the Caribbean.

It is in this context, where diverse immigrant cultures coexisted, that integration theories and the assimilation paradigm emerged during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The 'assimilation' term became then connected to the expectation that migrants might become similar to the majority (mainstream), in particular from a linguistic perspective (English),[4] while assuming diversity as a characteristic of 'mainstream'.[5]

3 Immigrants from China began arriving towards the end of this period.

4 IOM defines assimilation as the "adaptation of one ethnic or social group – usually a minority – to another. Assimilation means the subsuming of language, traditions, values and behavior or even fundamental vital interests and an alteration in the feeling of belonging" (IOM, 2011)

5 In Europe, instead, assimilation to the 'majority' (which is more culturally homogeneous in European countries) points to an ideal of cultural homogeneity.

Studying 'successful assimilation' mainly meant to measure the degree of incorporation into patterns of economic and social success (Schneider & Crul, 2010).

In contrast, European countries are more culturally homogeneous, and they have traditionally constituted an immigrant sending rather than receiving area. This changed after WWII. At the end of 1950's Europe's most prosperous countries started experiencing labor shortages and commenced recruiting foreign workers. At that stage it was taken for granted that immigrants arrived just to work and that coexistence would only rely on labor market principles. The recession following the 'oil crisis' in 1973 led to a reduction in economic activity and a surplus of workers. Immigrants were then expected to return to their countries of origin. Instead, many stayed and many others continued to arrive, particularly through family reunification. The countries with the largest migrant populations feared that unemployed or underemployed immigrants would become a burden on society, and the reaction was to close the borders to new arrivals. Conflicts also emerged with the young people of the second generation (born in Europe) and xenophobic parties were born or consolidated in a number of countries (Tornos Cubillo, 2002). It was only after the 1980s that the failure to close borders was acknowledged in a landmark report of the Council of Europe (Council of Europe, 1991). That report stated that there could be no social peace or citizen security in Europe without policies conducive to the social integration of immigrants into the normal coexistence of their receiving countries.

Debates were then imposed in Europe on the so-called 'integration models', in which the different ways of understanding the predominant migratory phenomenon in the different countries were examined and discussed, whether as full assimilation to civic traditions (French model, or republican model), or as differentiated inclusion for the different cultural collectives (English model). That is, the different routes to integration as understood in each country (Schnapper, 1992) and the extent to which national modes of integration influence outcomes. For this reason, European research tends to place a large part of the responsibility for the success or failure of the integration in governmental integration policies and in their acceptance by citizens. This gave rise to a style of integration studies in which the focus of integration tends to be less on immigrants and their children, and more on governments and native citizens (Aparicio & Portes, 2014).

The term 'integration', preferred by European researchers and policymakers, contains structural aspects of incorporation into society, such as educational and employment achievements. But in Europe, 'successful integration' is frequently seen as the opposite of subgroups that live with little or no connection to the society as a whole. In this sense, economic success within more or less isolated ethnic subgroups is not considered a positive or successful model of integration. Moreover, the European perspective suggests that this notion of mainstream or majority (into which migrants would assimilate) is dynamic and it leads to changes on both sides (Schneider & Crul, 2014).

1.2. Integration as a process

Penninx & Martiniello (2006:128) speculate that there are as many definitions of integration as there are authors writing about the topic. But there is wide consensus on defining integration as a process of interaction between immigrant populations, on the one hand, and the receiving society on the other. Several authors have emphasized integration as a process or dynamics that fluctuates over time (Bauböck, Heller, & Zolberg, 1996; Garcés-Mascareñas & Penninx, 2016; Government of Spain, 2011). This process is influenced by two major factors: the context of the host society – the environment in which the process of integration occurs – and the group characteristics and adaptations of arriving immigrants (Lee, 2009). Just as newly arrived immigrants bring with them characteristics that will influence their own integration into host societies, host societies react to and provide contexts that impact the paths to integration for different immigrant groups. In this sense, integration is a process undertaken by two parties, the immigrants and the receiving society. The interaction between these two players determines the outcomes of the integration process. Nevertheless, the receiving society, and especially its institutional structure and reaction to newcomers, is much more decisive for the outcome of the process than the immigrants themselves (Garcés-Mascareñas & Penninx, 2016).

This is a list of the most relevant definitions of the integration process:

- Council of the European Union: 'a two-way dynamic process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and residents of Member States that implies respect for the basic values of the European Union.' (Council of the European Union, 2004)

- European Commission: "Integration should be understood as a two-way process based on mutual rights and corresponding obligations of legally resident third country nationals and the host society which provides for full participation of the immigrant. This implies on the one hand that it is the responsibility of the host society to ensure that the formal rights of immigrants are in place in such a way that the individual has the possibility of participating in economic, social, cultural and civil life and on the other, that immigrants respect the fundamental norms and values of the host society and participate actively in the integration process, without having to relinquish their own identity" (European Commission, 2005)

- IOM: "The process by which immigrants become accepted into society, both as individuals and as groups. The particular requirements for acceptance by a receiving society vary greatly from country to country; and the responsibility for integration rests not with one particular group, but rather with many actors: immigrants themselves, the host government, institutions, and communities" (IOM, 2011)

- UNHCR: "Integration is understood as a dynamic and multifaceted two-way process with three interrelated dimensions: a legal, an economic and a social- cultural dimension. Integration requires efforts by all parties concerned, including preparedness on the part of refugees to adapt to the host society without having to forego their own cultural identity,

and a corresponding readiness on the part of host communities and public institutions to welcome refugees and to meet the needs of a diverse population" (UNHCR, 2005)

1.3. Inclusive interculturalism as integration model

Integration models are the responses to the new diversity that, in a more or less systematized manner, are developed in the receiving contexts. The following table shows the **main integration models**, from exclusion and segregation, to interculturalism as an example of inclusive model.

MODELS OF EXCLUSION **(Obstacles to incorporation)**	**SEGREGATION AND DIFFERENTIAL EXCLUSION**	- Segmented societies, in a relatively autonomous groups, dominant, ones, and subordinate, others. Some degree of interaction within the - economic sphere.
INCLUSIVE MODELS **(Promoting incorporation)**	**NON PLURALIST MODELS**	
	ASSIMILATION	- Unilateral adaptation of the immigrants to the values, culture and lifestyle of the host society - Gradual elimination of the differences
	MELTING POT	- Two-way interaction process in which the dominant and subordinate sectors interact to shape a new nation Agreement on equal formal status -
	PLURALIST MODELS	
	MULTICULTURALISM	- Interethnic relations model that supports social equality and equal opportunities and, at the same time, the right to be different. Promotion of cultures of ethnic minorities. -
	INTERCULTURALISM	- Dynamic culture concept. - Creation of a new cultural synthesis.
		- Construction of a social unit that emphasizes commonalities.

Source: (Ares & Fernández, 2018) based on Based on Giménez (1996).

Classic integration models are divided into two major types, models of exclusion and inclusive models (Castles, 1995; Giménez, 1996).

In the exclusion models, immigrants are incorporated into certain areas of society (e.g. the labour market) but denied access to others (welfare systems or political participation). And membership of civil society (as workers, taxpayers, etc) does not confer a right to citizenships. As a result, immigrants become ethnic minorities excluded from full participation in society. This model was found in European countries which recruited gastarbeiters (guestworkers) in the 1960s (Germany, Austria and Switzerlnd) but also in more recent immigration countries as Japan.

For their part, inclusive models can be split into two, nonpluralist and pluralist models.

- Non pluralist models propose a one-sided process of adaptation: immigrants are expected to give up their distinctive linguistic, cultural or social characteristics and become indistinguishable from the majority population. Immigrants can become citizens only if they give up the group identity. Such assimilationist approaches have been tried in many immigration countries: it was the prevailing approach in the early 20th century USA when first wave of massive migration took place. It was also the approach of several post-1945 immigration countries, including Canada and Australia. And it can be found today in France. Indeed, up until the late 20th century it was presumed that ultimately all migrants would end up assimilating to the host culture. It could last two or three generations, but finally there would be no differences among the immigrants (and their descendants) and the receiving society, excluding their physical characteristics and names. Some researchers suggested assimilation would imply that both sides would leave some parts of their native culture and personal identity, and preserve others, that would also merge with other essential elements of migrant and host cultures. As a result, a completely new culture would emerge. This process was described with the metaphor of the melting pot, widely used within the US understanding of migration within the last century (Brown & Bean, 2006).

- In some cases, assimilation policies have been abandoned over time, and replaced with pluralist models. This happened in response to the recognition that recent immigrants were not assimilating, but were becoming concentrated into particular jobs and residential areas. This led to the emergence of ethnic communities, which maintained their mother tongues and established social, cultural and political associations (Castles, 1995). The pluralist models emerged in the early 70s in Canada and imply accepting immigrants as ethnic communities which remain distinguishable from the majority population with regard to language and culture. Immigrants are granted equal rights, without being expected to give up their diversity, based on the commitment of respecting the key values of the receiving society (Kymlicka, 2012; Taylor, 2016). This model, formerly identified with multiculturalism, is to be found today in 'classical immigration countries' like the USA, Canada and Australia, where the process of building new nations has led to the inclusionary notion that anyone permanently residing on the territory should be offered citizenship. Openness to immigration goes together with encouragement of family reunion, naturalisation and access to civil and political rights. The multicultural model has two main variants. Firstly, the 'laissez-faire' approach typical of the USA or the UK, where difference is tolerated, but it is not seen as the role of the state to assist with integration or cultural maintenance. The second variant is explicit

multicultural policies, with a high degree of state involvement, as in Canada, Australia and Sweden.

Nevertheless, and mainly in Europe, there are serious concerns about the isolation and social exclusion of migrant populations and their descendants. The public disorders in the United Kingdom in 2001 and those in France in 2005 are seen on this light. In 2008 the Council for Europe generated and discussed a landmark White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue (Living together as equals in dignity) in which interculturalism was strongly advocated for dealing with the so-called failures of post-war multicultural segregation. The Council of Europe has thus played a leading role in accelerating the movement towards interculturalism within Europe (Barrett, 2013). Interculturalism builds on the foundations of multiculturalism: it values cultural diversity and pluralism; it defines integration as a two-way process in which both minorities and majorities make accommodations towards each other; and it is concerned with underlying structural political, economic and social disadvantages. But interculturalism also assumes that cultures are not fixed, but plural and permeable, and it emphasizes intercultural dialogue as a way to foster understanding of cultural beliefs and practices, and in order to reduce prejudice and stereotypes in public life. In turn, this facilitates relationships between diverse national, ethnic, linguistic and faith communities and a sense of common purpose and cohesion (Barrett, 2013). The rise of interculturalism is nonetheless confronted by parallel processes of anti-multiculturalism, cultural racism, and the demise of the spaces within which the class-race dialectic can be articulated (Keval, 2014).

2. The inclusion of refugee and migrant children

2.1. Children in immigration contexts

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989) defines 'child' generally as person below the age of 18. This category includes early childhood, adolescence and post-adolescence, all of them critical stages of cognitive, emotional and social development and socialization, with fundamental implications for the full development of a person's potential, both individually and in terms of contributions to society (Jackson & Goossens, 2006; Lerner & Steinberg, 2009; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000) . These are also life stages of particular vulnerability, until the person reaches full maturity (European Commission/ EACEA/ Eurydice et al., 2019). Schools, as primary contexts for children's education and socialization are key for achieving this full development in many different ways.

Children are nonetheless an extremely heterogeneous population, no less than adult populations, which includes the existence of different barriers and difficulties to achieve this full potential. In the case of children in immigration contexts, there are a series of specific barriers and difficulties that need to be dealt with – from cumulative losses as a result of migration, to acculturation processes and dynamics of discrimination and social exclusion. Focused on migrant children, solutions must take into account linguistic barriers, children's cultural and ethnic background, gender issues, socioeconomic and psychological status of the migrant children and refugees while listening to their own voice and expectations. Teachers and institutions should be provided with tools to tackle the obstacles and problems faced by migrant

pupils in schools and their classmates should also be targeted to boost an inclusive, open minded and respectful environment.

However, there is also significant variation within this population, in terms of individual characteristics (e.g. age, gender, cognitive abilities) and also in terms of family and cultural context, and contexts of origin and settlement in destination. All of these may pose specific challenges and opportunities. For instance, age at arrival is a key factor to take into consideration. Adolescence is a critical phase for physiological and emotional growth, but also a period of great vulnerability (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019). Adolescents of a foreign culture have more risks for acculturative stress and mental health problems because they face other challenges in life that a domestic adolescent would not have to face (Perez, 2016). The problem is that the risks or the effects on mental health and social well-being are often overlooked or ignored (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019).

Historically, schools have been the "great equalizer", enabling students from diverse backgrounds, neighbourhoods, and income levels and young immigrants to have the opportunity for success (Clauss-Ehlers, Serpell, & Weist, 2013). Schools are the main agents for cultural integration or acculturation of immigrant populations in a process that lasts for two or three generations (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019). Education systems have a major impact both on the opportunities offered to migrant populations and their ability to participate in the labour markets and to feel part of their communities (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019). More generally speaking, how school systems respond to migration can have an enormous impact on the economic and social well-being of all members of the communities they serve, whether they have an immigrant background or not (OECD, 2016b). For all these reasons, schools in immigration countries must regard the integration and academic achievement of migrant students as one of their central tasks. It must be part of their professional identity (Heckmann, 2008). In the next sections, we discuss the historical and potential responses of educational systems to diversity, and in particular to the integration of children of migrant background. This historical and conceptual review revolves around similar concepts of integration and social inclusion as those used in the debate about migrant integration, which also calls for further clarification.

2.2. Socio-educative inclusion

During the 20th century, the educational discipline and practice have undergone a significant transformation process (Wulf, 2003). This includes a transformation of the dominant models or responses to diversity. Similarly to general models of integration: from exclusion and segregation to integration and finally inclusion (Buchem, 2013; *Verdugo, 2003). Nowadays, inclusion has become the most widely supported approach at* the international level (UNESCO, 1994), with some authors claiming that this should be recognized as a paradigm shift in education (Ainscow, 2005; Barton, 2005b; Slee & Allan, 2001; Tomlinson, 2005; Troyna, 1994).[6]

DISCARDED MODELS OF DIVERSITY IN EDUCATION: EXCLUSION AND SEGREGATION

At the start of the 20th century, the expansion of the principle of universal education required incorporating plenty of students who had been historically excluded from the educational system. Social Darwinism, eugenics, psychometrics and the intelligence quotient – all of them dismissed after the end of the Second World War (cf. Thomas & 6 A paradigm is defined as a corpus of commonly reognized scientific achievements that provides models (rules, theories, instrumentation and practices) to resolve scientific problems and explain reality (Kuhn, 1970).

Loxley, 2007b) – were used at the time to justify segregation of disabled people and minorities, following the special schools model that had appeared during the 19th century for children with sensorial disabilities. In this way a basic universal education was available without ordinary schools having to deal with a diversity of students, that in most of the cases were considered as a burden to society (Kavale & Forness, 2000). Students categorized as "special" took separate units or classes, with lower standards and specific tracks. This social categorization was not applied only for special vs. ordinary schools. It was also applied within mainstream schools. For example, in many schools of the United States, the curriculum was outdated and the practice of streaming in elementary school acted as a mechanism of social selection. A clear division was established among students preparing to enter the labour sphere as managerial workers (stream A), semi- skilled workers (stream B) or unskilled workers (stream C) according to the position held by the parent of the child. Also, there was a strong distinction between genders: the curriculum of male students was oriented to the performance of manual works and the curriculum of female students was oriented to work on factories or offices (Tomlinson, 2005).

There was a perception that this segregated system was a natural organization of the educational system, and even a positive one, involving low ratios, high specialization and training of the teachers, homogenization of the classroom, and a strong labor market orientation and vocational training of the special schools. However, the homogenization of the conditions in special schools, using the same practices for very diverse particular cases, prevented any normalization and made more difficult the development of new educational programs in mainstream educational settings. The special educational system also led to a stratification of society into who was considered "normal" or "special". These labels were a sign of deviance from the expected behaviour and were supported by "formal and informal measures relating to place, class, gender, race, perceived ability and disability, academic performance and assumptions about learners" (Armstrong, 2002, p.443). The belief systems, attitudes and values of the time made it possible to select and to label children as "special" without a correct application of the scientific method, over-representing some groups of the population regarding school placements, attainments, gender, ethnicity and socio-economic backgrounds (Tomlinson, 2016). These developments changed the way in which members of society thought about differences and it gave rise to a medical perspective of diversity (Thomas & Loxley, 2007b). Labeling was central in the process, serving as a mechanism for the social categorization of the person that arranged the roles, identity and power relations to adopt. The consolidation of both public elementary schools and special schools in the educational system configured in this way a new historical and social context.

During the period of economic growth between the end of the Second World War and the civil rights movements, the orthodoxy of a segregated school system was consolidated, building

on the categorization of the students based on psychological and medical evaluations (Tomlinson, 2016).7 By the 1960s, the lack of expected outcomes from the special system (Slee, 2012) turned the balance towards more inclusive perspectives. The Brown vs. Board of Education decision in the United States in 1954 (Kavale & Forness, 2000) marked a turning point in the legislation of the country by declaring that racial segregationist practices violated the Fourteenth Amendment of the US Constitution. During the next two decades, many social movements also claimed for the effective inclusion of women, people with disabilities, low income and diverse ethnic groups in education. Additionally, the expansion of the framework of universal human rights particularly during the 1970s and 1980s, and the consolidation of postmodern perspectives, critical theories and social constructivism, sparked a theoretical and political debate about the reorganization of the educational system in order to achieve effective universal basic education.

INTEGRATIVE SCHOOLS

A new integrational discourse emerged that criticized the inadequate daily activities and infantilized settings, uses of the language, instructional approaches and practices applied in the special schools and institutions. In addition, it considered that special environments were restrictive environments that prevented children from fully developing. The aim of the integration process was to restore the dignity of segregated individuals and guarantee their social rights by giving them the needed support for educational success. The emergence of integrated schools began with the introduction of the 1981 Educational Act in England, which was motivated by the Warnock report (1978). This report upheld the normalization principle,[8] which stated the right of self-determination of disabled people and advocated for the creation of external conditions through which their choices, wishes, desires, and aspirations were taken into consideration. The Warnock report included for the first time the term "special educational needs" to refer to different degrees and types of learning difficulties.

The integrational approach requires the educational system to provide an adequate setting, opportunities and institutional support for previously segregated children in order to guarantee universal access to the ordinary school system. This provoked structural changes of the educational system (Lipsky & Gartner, 1996) and the introduction of affirmative notions of self-determination, equality and accommodation of differences against the orthodoxy of the previous system (Bradley, 2000). In this period, the social perception of diversity in education started to be considered part of the normal social environment, and there was increased attention to terminology, attitudes, power relations and rights.

7 It is against this historical context that the 1944 Educational Act was approved in England, emerging as a referent for highly segregated educational systems. Its essentialist perspective established the creation of special schools according to a classification system with eleven categories of handicap (Armstrong, 2002).

8 The normalization principle is defined as the "utilization of means which are as culturally normative as possible, in order to establish and/or maintain personal behaviours and characteristics which are as culturally normative as possible" (Wolfensberger, 1972 p. 28).

After the initial development of the field and the application of programs and protocols, criticisms emerged both within and outside the integrationist movement due to the lack of a detailed methodology asserting the best educational and instructional practices. Additionally, empirical evidence suggested that effective integration was not achieved yet. In some cases, only re-placement policies had been implemented, and schools continued to maintain the same curriculum and practices.9 In other cases, the shift to integrationist models was reduced to the mere provision of economic resources for special educational methodologies applied in mainstream classrooms and to a minimization of the time that the student was segregated from the rest (Slee, 2012). Many students were still categorized as children with special educational needs, especially over-representing immigrants, students of color and girls (Lipsky & Gartner, 1996). This manifested in discriminatory treatment by the teachers and peers. Some authors pointed out the presence of prejudices, like the expectation that these students would never be functionally integrated. In this sense, integration was perceived as an "assimilationist" process (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002).

INCLUSIVE SCHOOLS

During the late 1980s, the consensus in academia was that full integration could not be accomplished by just altering the language or assimilating the students. A fundamental change in values and practice in education was required, starting with the appreciation that everybody has the potential to participate and succesfully contribute to the community. The challenge involved deconstructing the preestablished views on education and to construct a new framework. Inclusive education emerged then as an educational model and a frame for action in order to overcome the difficulties in the integration of diverse students. The Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994) became a landmark in the inclusive movement as the first official document that reflects not only the term "inclusion" per se, but also the recognition of a novel approach to education for the whole community.[10]

Many different definitions of inclusive education have been proposed, and there is not "one perspective on inclusion within a single country, or even within a school" (Ainscow, 2016). First, inclusion is about the presence, participation and achievement of all students,[11] and it is community-based because it promotes collaboration (Ainscow, 2016). Diversity is considered positive and a stimulus for fostering learning. Second, inclusion promotes equality, Emphasizing the responsibility to ensure that the groups with a higher risk of exclusion are active parts of

9 The term 'main-dumping' is used in the United States to describe the cases in which children are just transferred from special schools to mainstream schools without enough preparation or resourcing (Stainback & Stainback, 1990).

10 The first attempts at inclusion were made for students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms of Canada during the mid and late 1980s. At that point, Canadian authorities started to develop transversal programs for children with diverse types of disabilities in mainstream classrooms. These initiatives were soon adopted in the United States. By the 1990s inclusion came into the United Kingdom in the form of several conferences redefining ideas about integration (Topping & Maloney, 2005).

11 Here 'presence' is concerned with where children are educated, and how reliably and punctually they attend; 'participation' relates to the quality of their experiences whilst they are there and, therefore, must incorporate the views of the learners themselves; and 'achievement' is about the outcomes of learning across the curriculum, not merely test or examination results (Ainscow, 2016).

their community and their educational system. This requires actively identifying and removing barriers.[12] Finally, inclusion is process-based: as the aim of inclusive schools is to look for better ways to respond to diversity of the pupils, inclusion becomes a constructive and deconstructive process to deal with the challenges established and learn from it (Ainscow, 2016). As a result of this, there is also a variety of educational and instructional approaches within the inclusive framework. Summing up, inclusive education consists of a declaration of values establishing a long- term goal and a technical approach to reach that goal (Slee, 2012)

Therefore, there has been a progressive broadening of the original idea of integration, which originally focused on the mainstreaming of students through their relocation into ordinary schools and classes, into an inclusive way of thinking in terms of diversity and social justice (Thomas & Loxley, 2007a). Integrative school models in this context amount to a previous step for inclusion at schools, which further poses the need of fundamental changes in patterns of life and daily conditions in order to overcome exclusion. In this way, inclusive education does not relate only to the educational setting, but it also transcends to the social dimension, encompassing a liberal and pluralistic culture that celebrates diversity and equality of opportunity. [13]

INTEGRATION EMPHASIZES	INCLUSION EMPHASIZES
Special needs of "special" students	Equal rights of all students
Changing/remedying the subject	Changing the school
Benefits to the student with special needs of being integrated	Benefits to all students including all
Professionals, specialist expertise and formal support	Informal support and the expertise of mainstream teachers
Technical interventions	Good teaching for all

Adapted from Walker's contrast of inclusion and integration in Thomas, Walker, & Webb (1998)

[12] *It is fundamental to collect and account for the perspectives and interpretations of children and especially of those vulnerable to exclusion (based on gender, ethnicity, disability, poverty or social class). If planning is based on stereotypical images or outdated models of childhood, there is a risk that marginalization and exclusion will continue (Topping & Maloney, 2005).*

[13] *"Inclusion is not a new idea. Although recent concern about inclusion can be traced to the civil rights movements of the 1960s, the ideals behind inclusive education have much deeper roots in liberal and progressive thought." (Topping & Maloney, 2005, p.15).*

STATE OF THE ART

Despite the general acceptance of inclusive education, there is still an active research community advocating against integration. One type of criticism poses that normalization processes impose a homogenization of the student body (Kauffman, 1993), and it advocates for the availability and provision of special schools for people with severe learning difficulties (Norwich, 2008; Warnock & Norwich, 2005) in opposition to full inclusion (Barton, 2005a).14 On a recent work, Shaw (2017) also pointed out the deficiencies relating to the provision of resources for mainstream schools, teachers' and teachers' assistants' expertise, as well as issues related to bullying and peers' acceptance, while acknowledging the positive impact of inclusive schools in terms of non- stigmatization and increased visibility of diversity. But the main criticisms against the emergence of inclusive approaches contend that research advocating for this model was contaminated by ideological premises and that a broader and that a broader empirical base was needed, in particular to strengthen effective ways of improving and evaluating new programs, strategies and policies (Kauffman, 1993).

In fact, empirical studies, including longitudinal studies and meta-analyses, have concluded that special schools not only disproportionally selected children from ethnic and lower socio-economic minorities, but also had smaller effects in academic outcomes than inclusive practices (Bradley, 2000; Carlberg & Kavale, 1980; Forness, Kavale, Blum, & Lloyd, 1997; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1993; Kavale, 2007; Lipsky & Gartner, 1996; Salvador Mata, 1997). Empirical findings suggest that inclusion in mainstream schools with additional resources is particularly successful in achieving better academic, social and personal outcomes. However, the quality of the resources provided is the main factor determining these better results (Shaw, 2017). In this sense, several authors have tried to identify the factors and specific features that make possible and ensure effective inclusion and schools, with a consensus emerging around the following: base was needed, in particular to strengthen effective ways of improving and evaluating new programs, strategies and policies (Kauffman, 1993).

- Successful inclusive education requires an effective leadership that encompasses the official agendas on educational standards and social inclusion as well as the local school culture. So in order to foster effective inclusive schools, it is necessary to address policies, besides school practices (Ainscow, 2016).
- Effective leadership is also needed at the school level. This requires a publicly engaged leadership with a vision of equity, equal opportunities and inclusion (CEC, 1994). It involves having a shared framework that maintains a positive attitude towards the students and their ability for learning (Topping & Maloney, 2005).
- Collaborative teamwork is also important, with different authors emphasizing the importance of a clear planning of professional roles, including the effective use of support staff (Giangreco, 2007) but also the importance of flexible roles and responsibilities (CEC, 1994). Collaborative cultures are considered the best for inclusion and effectiveness because they function as reality definers and achieve an organized and safe learning environment and a consensus in the values and ways to treat with diversity (Ainscow, Hopkins, Southworth, & West (2014).

[14] *Paul & Ward (2009) conclude that this conflict must serve to formulate new explicative models that embed the improvements made from each perspective, and propose a pragmatic approach to an interactional model in order not to disregard neither individual characteristics nor environmental factors. This approach conceptualizes the person's level of need as the result of an interaction between the person strengths/weaknesses, the level of support available and the appropriateness of the education and instruction provided. However, this approach has not been widely implemented in practical contexts yet (Elshabrawy & Hassanein, 2015)*

- Adequate training of the teacher body is key for effective inclusive education, since teachers should have enough knowledge about learning difficulties and skills to develop specific instructional methods (Shaw, 2017; Topping & Maloney, 2005).
- Inclusive schools should involve programs that include the social adaptation of the children and should deploy systems for cooperation within the school fostering natural support networks across students and staff (CEC, 1994)
- Family involvement is also a major recommendation. In particular, this would entail establishing partnerships with parents to involve them in the planning and implementation of inclusive school strategies (Topping & Maloney, 2005).

Based on longitudinal studies carried out in several European countries, Ainscow and his colleagues (2016) find that the development of inclusive schools has not only positive educational outcomes, but also social and economic ones. These researchers consider that the reason for this is that inclusive approaches make the system respond to the individual needs of the students, being able to adapt in a flexible way to the diversity of the pupils and building the basis of a socially just and non-discriminatory society. In addition, this approach is less costly than maintaining highly specialized and complex schools for different groups of children (Ibid.).

To conclude, empirical research on effective education shows that inclusion is a relevant education framework that benefits outcomes for students, their communities and the society. Although still more research is needed to reach a consensus about the best educational practices for fostering socio-educational inclusion, existing research provides a promising basis to manage diversity in schools (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Heung, 2006; UNESCO et al., 2016; World Education Forum, 2000).

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

When discussing more specifically about inclusion of migrant children and ethnic minorities, another landmark document is the UNESCO'S 'Guidelines on Intercultural Education' (2006). The principles of intercultural education, as defined in this document, consist of:

(1) Respecting the cultural of the learner through the provision of culturally appropriate and responsive quality education for all

(2) Providing every learner with the cultural knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary to achieve active and full participation in society

(3) Providing cultural knowledge and skills that enable them to contribute to respect, understanding and solidarity among individuals, ethnic, social, cultural and religious groups and nations

In short, Intercultural Education aims to go beyond passive coexistence and it aims to achieve a developing and sustainable way of living together in multicultural societies through the creation of mutual understanding, respect for and dialogue between the different cultural groups (UNESCO, 2006, 2010). Intercultural education brings together in practice the principles of interculturalism and inclusive schools in order to realize the full potential of all students, including migrant and native children (UNESCO, 2018).

3. Children's outcomes and their determinants

In this section we discuss the most relevant outcomes in terms of the successful inclusion of migrant children in society. These outcomes include: (1) legal status, (2) linguistic competences, (3) psychosocial well-being and health and (3) educational achievement. We discuss how each of these outcomes plays a fundamental role in achieving successful integration. And for all of them we also review the main individual and situational factors that affect their realization (barriers and facilitators). All outcomes are highly interconnected and interrelated, and the section helps map the complex relations of dependency among them. In this way, we can identify important and key areas of relevance for assessment and intervention.

When we refer to "migrant children" we refer to the whole general population of children with migrant backgrounds. When needed, we will refer to more specific sub-groups:

(1) "First generation" children refers to children born outside the host country, in contrast to "second generation" children.

(2) "Refugee children" refers to children who are either asylum-seekers in an European country, or who have been provided with some type of international protection

(3) "Unaccompanied (and/or separated) children" refers to children who have arrived in the country without their parents or legal tutors (and/or who have become separated from them)[15]

3.1. Legal status (access to rights)

Migrants are a particularly vulnerable subject because they must undertake a process of legal recognition by a country other than their own. This means that the satisfaction of their basic needs, as well as their margin for vital possibilities and personal development depend, in the first place, on the degree of recognition and guarantee of their legal status and of the social rights attached to it (García Cívico, 2010). Rights and citizenship represent in fact the basis upon which expectations and obligations for the process of integration are established (Ager & Strang, 2004)

In the case of migrant children, international and EU legislation establishes that their rights are primarily defined by their status as children – and so by those rights enshrined in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, among others – and not by their migrant status. This includes the right to access education in particular, as well as health care and other basic fundamental rights. Moreover, the best interest of the child must

15 *According to Directive 2011/95/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council, an unaccompanied minor is "a minor who arrives on the territory of the Member States unaccompanied by an adult responsible for him or her whether by law or by the practice of the Member State concerned, and for as long as he or she is not effectively taken into the care of such a person; it includes a minor who is left unaccompanied after he or she has entered the territory of the Member States"*

always prevail in any administrative decision by state authorities, which is a particularly salient issue in the case of unaccompanied minors (UNHCR, 1997)

Aside from the set of rights that is accessible to migrant children – including also access to health care, among others – the legal status outcome must be observed from a dynamic perspective. This means that migrant children with different legal statuses at entry should have opportunities to reach superior legal statuses that more fully guarantee and ensure their participation in society. In particular, once they become adults.

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

Country of origin, circumstances of arrival and family resources are all determinant in establishing the legal status at entry – or at birth in the case of second-generation children – and can also condition the capacity and ability to opt for superior legal status at a later point. All of these factors and circumstances are most frequently outside the control of the child.

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

The legal status at entry – or at birth in the case of second-generation children – is largely conditioned by the legal paths and channels defined by national legislation and migration policies. Additionally, international and EU law establish the relevant criteria to provide international protection statuses, including that of unaccompanied minors. In the case of unaccompanied minors, their entry most frequently happens through unauthorized channels, but either they seek and are granted international protection (as asylum seekers) dor they should in any case be granted a residence permit (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019)

Although international and European legislation also guarantee some fundamental rights for all children irrespective of migration or legal status, restrictive immigration policies and inconsistencies among laws may prevent in practice the fulfilment of these rights (UNESCO, 2018). For instance, the right to education is enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) (Article 26) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) (Article 28).16 However:

- Immigration legislation can prevent undocumented migrants from enrolling by insisting on complete documentation or the threat of deportation keeps children out of school.

16 The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families also recognizes the right to education for immigrant children irrespective of their official migrant status (1990) (Article 30), but only one out of four countries, almost all of which are immigrant-sending, have ratified it

- Unaccompanied minors[17] are a particularly vulnerable group: they are very mobile, difficult to count and vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. Age assessments that categorize them as adults, and the frequent age range of these children, close to or above compulsory education age, also place limitations.[18] They are also increasingly held in detention centres, where they often lack access to education. For all these reasons (UNESCO, 2018), the educational needs of unaccompanied minors are frequently unmet (UNICEF, 2018).

- Even asylum-seeking children and youth are often detained in some countries, frequently with limited or no access to education.[19]

The legal paths available towards superior legal statuses, and eventually citizenship, also depend on national legislation on migration and citizenship.

3.2. Language and communication (linguistic competence)

Linguistic competence is a fundamental variable to study migrant integration. As the medium of communication in any human society, the capacity to communicate in the national language of the receiving society – or a lingua franca, depending on the context – [20] is a precondition for the integration process, that is, for full participation in society and full development of the person's potential. Access to formal institutions and full realization of legal rights, educational achievement, or developing private relations with members of the receiving society all fundamentally depend on the capacity to communicate in a shared common language. In fact, language competence is related to different dimensions of inequality in society (Heckmann, 2008). At the same time language is a marker of ethnic belonging and ethnic difference: the way we speak, articulate, listen, and communicate reflects some of our values and beliefs, which can be seen in the tone of our voice, our nonverbal messages, our accents, and words of choice (Heckmann, 2008; Perez, 2016). This can lead to disadvantages beyond structural ones, for instance in the form of discrimination.

17 Globally, the number of unaccompanied minors increased nearly fivefold from 66,000 in 2010–2011 to 300,000 in 2015–2016 (UNESCO, 2018)

18 In France, unaccompanied minors cannot attend school until they receive child protection care, a process which can take a very long time. Older children tend to be placed in special programmes, which may increase the risk of dropout. In Germany, more than 60% of unaccompanied minors under age 16 attended a regular school in 2017, while about 30% attended special classes for newly arrived students. By contrast, almost 85% of those over age 16 attended special classes (UNESCO, 2018).

19 In Hungary, asylum-seeking families with children, and unaccompanied children above age 14, stay in one of two transit zones without access to education, except that provided by civil society organizations (CSOs), while their applications are processed (UNESCO, 2018).

20 Societies characterized by linguistic pluralism (frequently as a result of immigration) necessitate a medium of general communication: a language defined and practised as lingua franca (Heckmann, 2008).

In this sense, the acquisition of the national language is a fundamental resource and a significant handicap for those who are not sufficiently competent (Heckmann, 2008). For this reason, linguistic competence is often treated as an independent variable, for example, to explain low achievement.[21] However, linguistic competence can also be treated as a dependent variable, given that it is an intrinsic and necessary part of the integration process (Ager & Strang, 2004; Heckmann, 2008). Achieving linguistic competence is dependent on a number of individual and structural factors.

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

Age. For migrant children who do not speak the national language (or lingua franca), age is an important factor in the acquisition of language skills. The literature on the critical period hypothesis concludes that second language learning is possible at all ages, but that there is a gradual decline in learning ability after puberty. Second language acquisition is then easier up to puberty, after which greater effort and motivation are required. The implication is that language learning should happen as early as possible (preferably in preschool age). And special support is necessary for young immigrants who arrive during puberty and older – and for the second generation adolescents who do not know the national language well enough (Esser, 2006).

First language/ mother tongue. In 2015, 67% of first-generation and 45% of second- generation immigrant students did not speak the language of the PISA test at home (OECD, 2016b). The linguistic and cultural distance between first and second language is a factor that affects language acquisition (Chiswick & Miller, 2004). Nonetheless, the value of bilingualism is non-controversial, as well as the positive effects of maintaining one's first language. The literature on the interdependence hypothesis – which states that good proficiency in a native language is a solid basis for achieving competence for a second language – has not yet provided consistent evidence (EUMC, 2004). In fact, there is the simple historical observation that many millions of immigrant children have quickly learned the national languages of their new countries through linguistic immersion, without first achieving solid knowledge of the language of their mothers and fathers (Heckmann, 2008).

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

Family. The family factors that affect language acquisition are largely the same conditions that affect general educational attainment (see more below): the cultural, economic and social capital of the family (Heckmann, 2008) and also, in particular, the language spoken at home.

School. Schools are crucial for children learning the language (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017) and they are so in a several ways.

21 E.g. EU wide EUMC report on education of migrant children and youth (EUMC, 2004).

Schools frequently provide preparatory classes for recently arrived children that provide time and space for the teaching and learning of the language of instruction than is available in mainstream classes (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019).[22] This is particularly important at secondary level when students are older and therefore less likely to pick up the new language.[23] In Europe, the duration of language preparatory classes for newly arrived migrants for primary and lower secondary education varies, from one year or one school year in Belgium, France and Lithuania to two years in Cyprus, Denmark and Norway, three years in Latvia and four years in Greece (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017).

Most importantly, desegregated schools and classes strongly support national language learning, an effect that might help compensate for the negative influence of large ethnic concentration (Heckmann, 2008). For this reason, preparatory classes can also hinder language acquisition (and integration more generally) when they are too prolonged, by separating migrant students from their native-born peers (European Commission/EACEA/ Eurydice et al., 2019).

Bilingual education – when two languages are used as the language of instruction – is increasingly frequent in European educational systems. In the case of immigrants, the evidence points out that concentrating effort and time on one language (national language or lingua franca) better ensures language skills acquisition by children from disadvantaged families – i.e. from rural background and low levels of education, in opposition to children from international "elite" families of urban origin and high educational levels (Heckmann, 2008).

Nonetheless, the first language of migrant children can be incorporated to the general curriculum for learning other languages, particularly after a firm command of the national language has been reached (Heckmann, 2008). UNESCO has been advocating home- language teaching in pre-primary and primary education since 1953. Over the years, scientific research has consistently highlighted the positive effects of such teaching on students' social, cognitive and linguistic development (European Commission/EACEA/ Eurydice et al., 2019 p.99).

Public attitudes. Prejudice and xenophobia towards migrants by the native population has a negative influence on language learning (Portes & Rumbaut, 2006).

3.3. Psychological well-being and health

Health is defined as "a state of complete physical, mental and social wellbeing, and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (World Health Organisation, 1946). The World Health Organization defines positive mental health as "a state of well-being in which every individual

22 In OECD countries, new arrivals are often mainstreamed into classes matching their age and are offered language support, but only one-third of countries assess language skills on arrival (UNESCO, 2018). In 2012, an estimated 53 of low-literacy first-generation immigrant students were in extra out-of-school literacy courses in 23 countries, from 13% in Slovenia to almost 80% in Finland and Sweden.

23 Moreover, in secondary education, the curriculum subjects and requirements are increasingly complex and so demand a good command of the language of instruction (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019)

Being exposed to ethnic discrimination may influence the way people view themselves and their life situations, making it more likely that individuals will appraise new situations as threatening and harmful, adding to their overall stress burden (Castaneda et al., 2015). Discrimination may have become more subtle in some countries, yet it is still noticeable for adolescents with an immigrant background, especially for boys (Schachner et al., 2018). Family cohesion (Pottie et al., 2015) and group identity affirmation and belonging can alleviate the negative effects of discrimination, acting as a protective factor (Liu & Zhao, 2016).

Promoting inclusion and positive intergroup attitudes at the school level is key in order to lower perceived discrimination among adolescent immigrants. This concerns both the attitudinal climate in the (mainstream) society at large and in the school as a more proximal (mainstream) context (Schachner et al., 2018). Moreover, and contrary to public opinion, incorporating students' ethnic culture in the school context does not lead to more separation but contributes to integration (Schachner, Noack, Van de Vijver, & Eckstein, 2016). Members of the receiving society frequently perceive the maintenance of ethnic links and identities as a threat, and the subsequent rejection leaves migrants confronting a choice between full assimilation into mainstream society or separation. Confronted with this choice, and in light of discrimination, separation would be usually preferred in order to retain psychological adjustment (Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999). But empirical results show that ethnic maintenance does not exclude the simultaneous adoption of the mainstream culture (Schachner et al., 2018).

Mohamed and Thomas also find that children who did not have friends from a similar background felt less acculturated and lonelier, and many reported that they had more of a sense of social identity when they were around people from similar ethnic backgrounds (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017). Much of the literature about migrant children, and particularly young refugees, suggests that there are benefits to them sustaining links with their own communities: maintaining a sense of identity, building self-esteem and confidence and combating feelings of isolation (Fazel, Reed, Panter-Brick, & Stein, 2012; Schachner et al., 2018). Increasing the number of teachers with an immigrant background may also provide role models for immigrant students and create a bridge with mainstream society (Schachner et al., 2018). In fact, there is some research evidence that the presence of teachers of the same ethnicity and / or migration status as the students has a positive influence on minority student achievement (Schofield, 2006).

3.4. Social relations (social capital and social bridges)

Social networks consist of the structural connections—the presence or absence of links—among individuals or groups. Networks play an important role in social movements as conduits for information, resources, and affect, and as bridges between diverse individuals and groups. Social networks constitute the structural basis for social capital, and serve as pathways for the transmission of values, attitudes, and behaviours (McLeod & Lively, 2003).

27 Phongsavan, Chey, Bauman, Brooks, & Silove (2006) demonstrated that having higher levels of trust and feeling safe are consistently associated with low levels of psychological distress, also after adjusting for socio- demographic characteristics and health conditions.

opportunities and permanent private accommodation, are associated with superior outcomes (Porter & Haslam, 2005).

Some of the most relevant outcomes affected by these stressors are self-esteem and sense of belonging. Self-esteem can be damaged by the social challenges involved in the acculturation process (i.e. inability to communicate well with others and cultural conflicts, discrimination, bullying or social violence), and a damaged self-esteem can lead to depression and other mental-health disorders (Perez, 2016). A sense of belonging is a basic human need (Maslow, 1943). A person needs to feel accepted and respected by other people and to have a place in his/her community in order to develop further (García- Mina & Carrasco, 2002). Although the mechanism for these personal developments and positive outcomes is unclear (Khawaja et al., 2017), researchers theorize that some factors influence in a positive way: personal characteristics such as resilience (Khawaja et al., 2017), group identity (Liu & Zhao, 2016), school belonging (Due, Riggs, & Augoustinos, 2016).

In general, children of immigrant have lower health results, although this highly varies per migrant group and context of migration. In fact, there is a large body of literature in Canada, the US, the UK, and Australia documenting an "immigrant mental health paradox", whereby despite exposure to psychosocial and economic adversity, immigrant youth in these countries generally have better mental health (Kim et al., 2018; Pottie et al., 2015). However, efforts to study immigrant adolescent health outcomes internationally are just beginning (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017)

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

Adversity or risk factors are stressors26 which threaten healthy development, whereas protective factors provide buffers against those stressors. One of the main protective factors at the individual level is resilience (or the capacity to overcome adversity). Resilience consists of personal qualities and strengths such as the capacity and ability to cope and adapt and confidence in one's abilities, including also the ability to access environmental and interpersonal resources to overcome stressors. All of this is associated with higher levels of well-being (Khawaja et al., 2017). Importantly enough, resilience is not merely an innate trait, but an ability that can be enhanced and developed over time through the accumulation of skills and resources at different times and to varying degrees (Khawaja et al., 2017). Fonagy, Steele, Steele, Higgitt, & Target (1994) outlined the general predictors of resilience, which they describe as "reassuringly predictable", including within-child factors (e.g. high levels of cognitive ability and social competence, being female), within-home factors (e.g. socio-economic status of parents/ carers, education levels and parental responsibility) and outside-home factors (neighbourhood influences and school aspects).

25 One of the most common areas studied with this population is post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), but also depression and anxiety, survivor guilt, anger, and ambivalence (Clauss-Ehlers et al., 2013; Mohamed & Thomas, 2017). Research has found wide ranging prevalence rates of PTSD among children affected by war span a range from 7 to 75% (Butcher, 2013; Clauss-Ehlers et al., 2013)

26 Maes, Vingerhoets, & Van Heck (1987) define stress as "a state of imbalance within a person, elicited by an actual or perceived disparity between environmental demands and the person's capacity to cope with these demands" (p. 567).

Within this resilience framework, **group identity** is considered an important mechanism that helps protect minority children from acculturation and cumulative stress, and in particular from the negative effects of discrimination (Liu & Zhao, 2016). According to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) those individuals with positive feelings of belonging to a group will remain strongly committed to that group and feel good about their group membership. Those positive feelings may enhance self-concept and help counteract the negative consequences of outside threats. Moreover, researchers suggest that this sense of affirmation and belonging to one's group, which is a critical dimension of group identity, may play a key role in maintaining psychological health (Eccles, Wong, & Peck, 2006). Many migrant children report that they have "more of a sense of social identity when they were around people from similar ethnic backgrounds" (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017).

Age and gender. Adolescence is also a particularly vulnerable stage of the child emotional development, compounded by all the stressors enumerated above. Adolescent immigrants are "likely to report feelings of vulnerability, exclusion, and lack of confidence" (Perez, 2016). It has been found in several studies that younger refugees display greater resilience, and that female refugees had slightly worse mental health outcomes than male refugees (Porter & Haslam, 2005). However, across different immigrant groups, boys are often found to have more adjustment problems than girls. This is explained in terms of different expectations concerning their acculturation orientations and being confronted with different stereotypes in the mainstream society. As a result, they may differ in their discrimination experiences (Schachner, Van de Vijver, & Noack, 2018).

Language. Speaking a primary language, at home in particular, which is different from the national language or lingua franca is a major factor that produces acculturation stress (Perez, 2016). Language problems lead to adjustment difficulties, misunderstandings, and loneliness, which in turn can lead to anxiety and depression (Cho & Haslam, 2010, p. 371, cited in Perez, 2016). Speaking a different language also increases the risk of alienation from classmates and being bullied (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019). In primary education, students who speak the language of instruction at home usually report a higher sense of belonging and fewer experiences of bullying at school than those who speak another language at home, in almost all education systems (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017).

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

Family

Immigrant children significantly benefit from cohesive families. Those immigrant children who are not living together with their parents experience a higher level of life stress and suicidal thoughts than their counterparts living with intact families (Pottie et al., 2015). Relationships in the family also play an important role, and in particular can exacerbate the stress of acculturation (on top of the stress of going through adolescence for adolescent migrants), particularly when migrant adolescents acculturate faster and even more so when adolescent children are translating for parents and helping them (Perez, 2016).

The mental health of parents and family members greatly influences that of children (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017). Among refugees, higher levels of education and socioeconomic status before displacement is associated with worse mental health outcomes, since such status implies a greater subsequent loss of status (Porter & Haslam, 2005). The legal status (and uncertainty

Language. Linguistic and communicative barriers constitute a barrier to the establishment of fluid social relations. Additionally, there is evidence that speaking a different language may lead to social exclusion, discrimination and harassment. Studies have found that first-generation students who do not speak the language, and students who do not speak the language of instruction at home, are more exposed to bullying and peer aggression. This effect is more acute in primary education and decreases in lower secondary education (Pottie et al., 2015).

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

Family. According to Santagati's review of research on the Italian case, low family status affects the size of the school network among non-Italian students, and social class is also a catalyst for episodes of school violence (Santagati, 2015). Additionally, separation from mainstream society, conflict and aggression are more likely to occur when the host culture and family cultural origins promote conflicting values (Pottie et al., 2015). Moreover, this may lead to straining of social bonds or social bridges, diminishing also the social support of the child.

School.

Schools, and particularly compulsory-level schools are a pivotal place for the increase of social connectedness and social capital of migrant children (and their parents). For immigrant students, classroom relations are crucial for the dynamics of exclusion and inclusion in school, in local community, in informal networks, and they impact on the shape and organization of social networks following migrationeve (Eve, 2010). In the Italian case it has been found that interethnic exchange that takes place within school boundaries is not extended outside. However, the schools remains the crucial context within which young people can access wider relational circuits that can generate exchanges, trust and participation (Santagati, 2015).

Research on the social contact hypothesis (Allport, 1954) has proven that social contact influences general attitudes towards immigrants positively (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006) when the necessary conditions – such as similar status, and collaboration toward attainment of a common goal – are fulfilled (Moody, 2001). Intercultural education projects and programs are similarly based on the assumption that there were more similarities than differences among people and that when people from different racial, ethnic, and religious groups had an opportunity to get to know each other they would learn acceptance and respect (Escribano González & Martínez Cano, 2013). But forcing people from different backgrounds to share the same space does not, in itself, make educational contexts inclusive (Slavin, 1995). In fact, the prevailing attitudes towards migrants and refugees in many European societies are still predominantly negative (Bešić, Paleczek, Rossmann, Krammer, & Gasteiger-Klicpera, 2018). This is exacerbated in contexts with limited economic opportunities and prospects and in contexts where immigration is generally perceived to be more of a threat, particularly in terms of job market competition, welfare costs and security issues. For instance, some studies have highlighted a form of open hostility among young Italians towards foreigners, connected to a degree of uncertainty and worries for their own future, which is particularly present in more depressed regions and more salient than among young people from other European countries (Santagati, 2015). In these contexts, discrimination may increase based, not on prejudice, but based on social group pressure, and in

depends on being accepted and valued by peers and teachers. Having friends is of key importance for adolescents to feel well at school and to be able to thrive (García- Mina & Carrasco, 2002). And there is also a positive relationship between parental support and school belonging, highlighting the importance of involving parents in the school community (Due et al., 2016). School belonging is related to a number of positive outcomes for adolescents, including improved self-esteem and motivation, and lower levels of depression and peer rejection (Due et al., 2016). The sense of belonging may increase students' self-confidence and academic motivation and decrease school related anxiety (García-Mina & Carrasco, 2002). For students from migrant backgrounds, and/or for those who speak a language at home which is different from the language of instruction, having a sense of belonging is particularly important if they are to be successfully integrated within their school community and, ultimately, if they are to achieve their academic potential.

Empirical results regularly confirm that inclusive and integrative climates at school (and at home) help the adjustment of children migrants and adolescents in particular, especially concerning psychological aspects of adjustment. Importantly, the representativeness of migrants in the school's curriculum (materials, textbooks) is important, in order not to damage the self-esteem and self-image of these children, which would reduce their chances of success (Heckmann, 2008). For instance, curricula and textbooks often include outdated depictions of migration and displacement (UNESCO, 2018). Research has also documented that language teaching – including language of instruction and second languages learned as foreign or additional languages – is not neutral, but it can expose students to a variety of texts and representations of culture generally, and of specific cultures in particular. In this sense, emphasizing a critical understanding of both culture and 'language as culture' can help develop students' critical understanding of the cultural aspects of language and cultural representations and an awareness of self and identity (Perry & Southwell, 2011).

Neighbourhood

Researchers have found that poor connectedness of migrant children to the neighbourhood is associated with depression (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017). In contrast, living and socialising alongside people of the same ethnic origin constitutes a significant protective factor. Feeling socially excluded, that they do not belong to any group either in school or their locality, is usually attributed to not having others from their ethnic background in the school or local area (European Commission/ EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019).

Perceived neighbourhood safety is also associated with mental health, in particular with feelings of unsafety. In this sense, experiences of discrimination may even lead to migrants having to avoid certain public places (Castaneda et al., 2015).

Public attitudes: discrimination and exclusion

Discrimination is consistently associated with increased symptoms of depression, social anxiety, lower life satisfaction levels, lower self-esteem and loneliness (Castaneda et al., 2015; Liu & Zhao, 2016). Experienced discrimination also has a consistent association with feelings of unsafety and low trust towards different institutions in society across migrant groups.27 Being exposed to ethnic discrimination may influence the way people view themselves and their life situations, making it more likely that individuals will appraise new situations as threatening

and harmful, adding to their overall stress burden (Castaneda et al., 2015). Discrimination may have become more subtle in some countries, yet it is still noticeable for adolescents with an immigrant background, especially for boys (Schachner et al., 2018). Family cohesion (Pottie et al., 2015) and group identity affirmation and belonging can alleviate the negative effects of discrimination, acting as a protective factor (Liu & Zhao, 2016).

Promoting inclusion and positive intergroup attitudes at the school level is key in order to lower perceived discrimination among adolescent immigrants. This concerns both the attitudinal climate in the (mainstream) society at large and in the school as a more proximal (mainstream) context (Schachner et al., 2018). Moreover, and contrary to public opinion, incorporating students' ethnic culture in the school context does not lead to more separation but contributes to integration (Schachner, Noack, Van de Vijver, & Eckstein, 2016). Members of the receiving society frequently perceive the maintenance of ethnic links and identities as a threat, and the subsequent rejection leaves migrants confronting a choice between full assimilation into mainstream society or separation. Confronted with this choice, and in light of discrimination, separation would be usually preferred in order to retain psychological adjustment (Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999). But empirical results show that ethnic maintenance does not exclude the simultaneous adoption of the mainstream culture (Schachner et al., 2018).

Mohamed and Thomas also find that children who did not have friends from a similar background felt less acculturated and lonelier, and many reported that they had more of a sense of social identity when they were around people from similar ethnic backgrounds (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017). Much of the literature about migrant children, and particularly young refugees, suggests that there are benefits to them sustaining links with their own communities: maintaining a sense of identity, building self-esteem and confidence and combating feelings of isolation (Fazel, Reed, Panter-Brick, & Stein, 2012; Schachner et al., 2018). Increasing the number of teachers with an immigrant background may also provide role models for immigrant students and create a bridge with mainstream society (Schachner et al., 2018). In fact, there is some research evidence that the presence of teachers of the same ethnicity and / or migration status as the students has a positive influence on minority student achievement (Schofield, 2006).

3.4. Social relations (social capital and social bridges)

Social networks consist of the structural connections—the presence or absence of links—among individuals or groups. Networks play an important role in social movements as conduits for information, resources, and affect, and as bridges between diverse individuals and groups. Social networks constitute the structural basis for social capital, and serve as pathways for the transmission of values, attitudes, and behaviours (McLeod & Lively, 2003).

27 Phongsavan, Chey, Bauman, Brooks, & Silove (2006) demonstrated that having higher levels of trust and feeling safe are consistently associated with low levels of psychological distress, also after adjusting for socio- demographic characteristics and health conditions.

There are three types of social connections that are relevant from the perspective of migrants integration (Ager & Strang, 2004; Spicer, 2008)

(1) Social bonds are social connections within communities defined by ethnic, national or religious identities. Social bonds are then crucial for keeping a sense of identification and belonging, as pointed out in the previous section.

(2) Social bridges relate to connections between communities, which is an important outcome of the integration process for its many implications. Social bridges are essential to establish the bidirectional interaction at the heart of integration and inclusive models. Creating bridges to other communities supports social cohesion and opens up opportunities for broadening cultural understanding. But it also widens economic opportunities for the more disadvantaged groups.

(3) Social links are connections with institutions, agencies and services, both governmental and non-governmental, which are also relevant to assessing integration.

Social networks (and all three types of connections) are very important in promoting migrants integration. First, as discussed above, social relatedness[28] has important consequences for mental health and well-being. Additionally, social networks provide practical support – including assistance in accessing rights and services, but also material and emotional support (Spicer, 2008). Social support provided through social connections is considered to be a significant predictor of well-being because it acts as a buffer for risk factors as migrant children negotiate transitions and changes in identity (Khawaja et al., 2017). Additionally, social capital – defined as the resources that exist within a social structure of relationships and that is available to actors (Santagati, 2015) – is similar to other forms of capital, such as physical and human capital, in the sense that it provides present and future opportunities for the person. It is important to distinguish among the possessors of social capital; the sources of social capital and the resources themselves (Portes, 1998). This means that social capital is not only a matter of quantity of connections, but also of quality of the sources that can provide the resources. The existence of social bonds as well as social bridges is in this sense of paramount importance.

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

Age and gender. Age at arrival and number of years of residence in the country condition the breadth and heterogeneity of the relational network, as found in an exhaustive review of research on the Italian context. Additionally, gender is a catalyst for episodes of school violence (Santagati, 2015).

28 Defined as social exchanges and relationships with significant others, including care givers, peers, and teachers, who constitute an important part of the socialization process.

Language. Linguistic and communicative barriers constitute a barrier to the establishment of fluid social relations. Additionally, there is evidence that speaking a different language may lead to social exclusion, discrimination and harassment. Studies have found that first-generation students who do not speak the language, and students who do not speak the language of instruction at home, are more exposed to bullying and peer aggression. This effect is more acute in primary education and decreases in lower secondary education (Pottie et al., 2015).

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

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order to avoid negative social sanctions and obtain benefits (Heckmann, 2008).

School climate – defined as the quality of relations between classmates and with teachers – is in fact a key variable on the overall wellbeing migrant (and native) students, as well as on belonging and attachment to the group (Agirdag, Van Houtte, & Van Avermaet, 2011).

Intercultural education is a means of promoting understanding between different people and cultures by providing cultural knowledge and skills that enable students to develop a critical understanding of culture, language, self and identity.[29] This in turn contributes to students' respect, understanding and solidarity across ethnic, social, cultural and religious groups. As a result, it helps to ensure a positive learning climate that respects diversity among students, and facilitates the building of social bonds across different groups (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019). By not addressing diversity in education, countries would be ignoring their power to promote social inclusion and cohesion, as well as empirical evidence on favorable public attitudes: 81% of respondents in EU countries agreed school materials should cover ethnic diversity (UNESCO, 2018).

Intercultural education seeks to explore, examine and challenge all forms of prejudice, stereotypes and xenophobia. Among the European education systems, 26 promote intercultural education as a curriculum subject or theme, included in the curriculum as a general objective or defined as a cross-curricular theme (European Commission/ EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019). Importantly, updating general curricular contents and approaches within the classroom constitute also a relevant opportunity. The ways in which teachers use examples and content from a variety of cultures and groups to illustrate key concepts and theories can help students understand and investigate how implicit cultural assumptions, frames of reference and biases within a discipline influence the ways in which knowledge is constructed. There is evidence nonetheless that such interventions work best when children are young, whereas it becomes increasingly difficult to modify racial attitudes and beliefs at later points (Banks, 1993, 1995).

Initial teacher education and continuing professional development play an essential role in providing teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge to deal with the multitude of issues related to integrating migrant students into schools. In a majority of countries, education authorities provide in-service opportunities for teachers to develop new or additional competences on issues related to the integration of migrant students (European Commission/ EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019).[30]

29 Principle III of Intercultural Education as defined by UNESCO (UNESCO, 2006, 2010)

30 For instance, resource centres or websites providing specific teaching materials.

3.5. Educational achievements (human capital)

Education serves the purpose of providing students with the resources and competences required to adapt themselves to the environment and to succeed in everyday life. Knowledge, skills and attitudes all constitute competencies that are relevant for the job market, but also to interact successfully with other people and to manage successfully their lives. Educational achievements foster the further employability and economic growth not just in the benefit of the migrant family but also of broad communities and society. Thus, the provision of quality education for migrant children with successful results translates in an increase of social cohesion and economic and social development in host countries (Ager & Strang, 2004). In this way, educational systems are a fundamental locus of opportunities (and barriers) for the successful inclusion of migrant children (Fernández-Hawrylak & Heras Sevilla, 2019).

However, children with immigrant backgrounds face important challenges and difficulties and they systematically obtain lower academic achievements than native children without immigrant background, which can be summarized in two important educational gaps:

1. Academic performance (skills). Results of international surveys on academic performance systematically show that, on average across OECD countries, the performance of students of immigrant background is lower than their native peers (OECD, 2016b). Based on PISA results, among first-generation students, 51% fail to reach basic academic levels in reading, mathematics and science, compared to 28% of students without an immigrant background (OECD, 2018a). In addition, there a difference of 31 score points on average in science performance, although this difference shrinks to 19 score points after controlling the effect of the language spoken at home (OECD, 2016b), which points out to one important determinant of educational achievement: language acquisition. In fact, the educational gap also exists between second generation children and native children without immigrant background, although this gap is lower in average. These differences appear very early, with migrant children scoring significantly lower than native children already at the end of primary school (Heckmann, 2008). This is important because results during compulsory education determine to a large extent the choice and possibilities of continuing higher education studies (Cebolla-Boado & Finotelli, 2015). In turn, such choices and the low skill level attained are most likely to hinder employability and job aspirations of migrant students (Keeley, 2007). Finally, immigrant students are generally more delayed than their non-immigrant peers in their progression through school grades (OECD, 2016b)

2. Levels and types of education attained. Overall, migrant students remain for shorter durations within de system (Heckmann, 2008). In most European countries, the proportion of natives that reach upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education levels is much higher than that of migrant students (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019). Additionally, enrolment of migrant students in secondary education levels commonly takes place in less academically demanding and of shorter duration schools. They are overrepresented in vocationally oriented centers that do not prepare for a tertiary education

levels, in non-formal education, as well as in the category of "drop-outs" (OECD,2016b). Such vocational programmes lead to less exposure to academic content useful for the development of their human capital (OECD, 2016b).

Educational research has highlighted the links between the academic performance of the students, their social background and the learning environment. The academic outcomes of migrant students result from different resources and circumstances associated with the family and communities of origin, the disadvantages of the schools in which they are enrolled, stratification policies that result in different opportunities for learning, and the attitudes towards immigrants, as well as individual factors such as mastery of the language of instruction (OCDE, 2015).

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS

Ability and motivation. Cognitive abilities are undoubtedly a significant factor in educational achievement. However, the development of such cognitive abilities is conditional to a number of situational factors that have to do with psychological well- being and emotional development, and other individual and situational factors that shape motivation and aspirations. In fact, educational aspirations are key predictors of future educational attainment (Gil-Hernández & Gracia, 2018), and these are fundamentally shaped by family factors and by educational systems (Wolter & Zumbuehl, 2017). Optimism and upward social mobility aspirations have an important role in the educational aspirations of minority students (Gil-Hernández & Gracia, 2018) and some migrant groups present very high educational aspirations. Some authors theorise that ambitions of (upward) social mobility and strong motivation of the migrant parents seeking to overcome their background disadvantages, lead them to transmit high educational aspirations to their children. These aspirations are related to social background and educational performance, what make of them important predictors for educational success (Gil-Hernández & Gracia, 2018).

Age and prior school attendance. PISA tests shows that, in most educational systems, the performance of first-generation immigrant students who have spent more time in the host country tends to be better than those who have spent less time in the country.[31] The performance of second-generation immigrant students is better than the one of first- generation immigrant students and worse than the one of their non-immigrant peers. The most vulnerable immigrant students tend to be those arriving at a late age, with limited mastery of the language and with limited previous educational levels (OECD, 2016b). Conversely, children arriving at earlier ages

31 The length of stay in the recipient society is a key variable in explaining the differentials in educational attainment between non-Italians and nationals (Santagati, 2015).

present smaller educational gaps compared to the native children and reach sooner reading proficiency (Hippe, Ralph Jakubowski, 2018), and also seem to be more likely to attain tertiary educational levels (Flisi, Meroni, & Vera- Toscano, 2016)

Language. According to the UNESCO (2018) non-native speakers were 1.5 times more at risk of not reaching PISA proficiency level two in mathematics, reading and science than native speakers. Students with an immigrant background score 54 points lower than non- immigrant students who speak the language of assessment at home and more than 20 points lower than their immigrant peers who have greater familiarity with the test language in PISA (OECD, 2016b). Children themselves seem to perceive language competence as key to their academic progress (Mohamed & Thomas, 2017).

Legal status. Children migrants who access educational systems in vulnerable positions due to legal status (e.g. asylum-seekers, irregular migrants, unaccompanied minors) are at a significant higher risk of attaining lower academic level and to drop-out (European Commission/EACEA/ Eurydice et al., 2019). The main issues appear after leaving the compulsory educational levels, with the overrepresentation of migrant children in special educational needs and in the placement of migrant children in in lower than their age- appropriate grades (Heckmann, 2008).

SITUATIONAL FACTORS

Family. Family cohesion is a relevant factor in children's well-being, as pointed above, and also in their academic achievement. Some aspects of the family structure and background are associated with children academic outcomes: the fathers absence and co-residence with grandparents are negatively associated to childrens' outcomes, and this relationship is stronger for cognitive versus non-cognitive skills (Radl, Salazar, & Cebolla-Boado, 2017).

In almost all countries, the early leaving rate, the lower educational performance of students from migrant backgrounds and the impact of immigrant background on students' opportunity to learn seem to depend more of socio-economic status than of the migration process (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019; OECD, 2016a). Relocation decisions are commonly related to the desire to improve the living standards. As a result of displacement and adjustment periods, immigrants often bear economic burdens and difficulties and precarious living conditions (OECD, 2016b). Parental occupation determines economic status of the family and is considered one of the most influencing factors of children academic performance interacting with migrant background and establishing a double disadvantage (Santagati, 2015).

Household resources and family structure are then amongst the most important predictors of the migrant children's attainment and performance *(Breen & Jonsson, 2005).* Parental unemployment and job loss impact children's educational achievement through their influence on cognitive outcomes (Levine, 2011), children's schooling effort (Andersen, 2013) and grade retention (Stevens & Schaller, 2011). In addition, the association of children's educational attainment and household resources is sensitive to the economic context (e.g. (Acemoglu & Pischke, 2000). As a result of this, the economic environment exerts some influence in the academic development of the migrant children. External economic difficulties alter educational expectations increasing

the degree of inequality of expectations by social origin and mediates the children's perception of the *investment return of the benefits of education (Salazar, Cebolla-Boado, & Radl, 2019)*

Social class derived from the family economic integration explains approximately half of the educational gap between migrant children and natives and 70% of the distance between the second generation and natives in Italy (Azzolini & Barone, 2013; Santagati, 2015). In line with de family resources, Breen & Goldthorpe (1997) described three mechanisms through which class differences in educational outcomes might originate:

- Relative Risk Aversion: migrant families consider that a high educational level minimizes the risk of downward social mobility.
- Probability of success: attributions towards success at the next educational level emerges as a function of individual effort and individual's innate ability.
- Resources: parents of higher socioeconomic believe that economic, cultural and social resource compensate effort in academic performance.

Parental education and cultural capital of the family are important determinants of cognitive abilities of the children and one of the best individual-level predictors of test scores (Schnepf, 2006). Parents' expectations are very relevant. Parents' concern for academic success and parental reinforcement is a key factor in preventing early drop-out (Santos, Godás, Ferraces, & Lorenzo, 2016). Parental socioeconomic background and educational performance are strongly associated with educational aspirations and therefore, exert an important influence on the educational attainment of the children in general and migrant children specifically (Gil-Hernández & Gracia, 2018).

The parents' successful socio-economic integration reduces the risk of drop-out and educational segregation in professional schools. Parents' mastery of the language of the host country is an important factor that shapes relations with the school. When parents have not enough domain of the language relationships with the school are colder, hinder them from getting involved in the child's education (Perez, 2016). The involvement of parents in formal and non-formal educational institutions is relevant for the academic performance of the children because of its potential to develop close relationships between parents and children and because parents often lack knowledge of the education system and the country (Heckmann, 2008)

Schools and educational systems

Inclusive practices and the co-habitation in classrooms with native children not only enchance the academic performance of migrant children but also their educational aspirations (Minello & Barban, 2012; Van Houtte & Stevens, 2010). European countries have committed to implement inclusive educational systems, but physical and social segregation often takes place as a result of housing segregation: neighbourhood segregation leads to school segregation. The concentration of migrant students in socio- economically disadvantaged neighbourhoods and in schools with lower academic standards and performance levels, negatively affects their education achievement. In addition, the effects of segregation is intensified when native students move to wealthier neighbourhoods or when

the native families get to evade diversity policies (Heckmann, 2008; UNESCO, 2018). Countries use different tools to combat segregation, with mixed success (UNESCO, 2018). De facto segregation is common among European schools (Santagati, 2015; Save the Children, 2019).

Intensive learning support must be provided by the schools in order to ease cognitive and emotional challenges that newly arrived children (Nilsson & Axelsson, 2013; Sinkkonen & Kyttälä, 2017). Educational systems and schools that provide preparatory classes allow having more time and space for the teaching and learning of the language of instruction help to the integration of students in the system. These measures are especially important at secondary levels where students have more difficulties to acquire a new language and the contents demand a good mastery of the language (Khöler, 2017). In some cases, preparatory classes can hinder integration by separating migrant students from native peers, maintaining migrant students for too long, or delay curricular learning due to the importance given to the language acquisition (Nilsson & Bunar, 2016).

In fact, transition from preparatory to mainstream classes can become problematic for students who do not have access to effective language and learning support. That is the reason why targeted support period for newly arrived migrants usually prolongs longer the time they stay preparatory classes (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019; Nilsson & Axelsson, 2013). The duration of language preparatory classes for newly arrived migrants for primary and lower secondary education ranges from one to four years within the European countries (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017). In the case of schools that do not provide preparatory classes, new arrivals are often designated to their classes according to an age criteria and offered language support (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017). But frequently, newly arrived migrant children are placed in lower than their age-appropriate grades due to language limitations and lack of previous schooling. The situation becomes problematic when the new immigrants remain in the situation due to a lack of encouragement, motivation and / or support for catching up with the peers (Heckmann, 2008)

Teachers are not always prepared to cope with the needs of children that have faced migration and displacement. On top of language difficulties, migrant children frequently have to adapt to new ways of learning and new contents that not always relate to their previous cultural knowledge and culture (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019; Trasberg & Kond, 2017). Teachers require skills for managing multilingual classrooms, training on intercultural skills and competences and training in psychosocial support or how to deal with traumatised children (Bourgonje, 2010). To these limitations is added the lack of additional specialized teachers in many educational systems (UNESCO, 2018). Increasing the number of teachers with a migrant/minority background may provide role models for migrant students (Schachner et al., 2018) and it has a positive influence on minority student achievement (Schofield, 2006, 97, cited in Heckmann, 2008).

Adequate training of the teacher body is key for effective inclusive education, since teachers should have enough knowledge about learning difficulties and skills to develop specific instructional methods (Shaw, 2017; Topping & Maloney, 2005). According to the meta-analysis conducted by Solis, Vaughn, Swanson, & McCulley (2012), the model of a teacher providing the majority of instruction and a special education teacher providing support, represented gains (albeit small ones) compared

to other types of instruction. Similarly, the students perceived alternative grouping formats as positive, which also seems to be associated with improved outcomes for students. Another way to favour the integration of migrant children and boosting their school performance is using individual or small group peer-mentoring. Ethnic mentoring is an innovative form of mentoring which helps to improve school performance. Usually this kind of support is assumed by private individuals, welfare organisations, different kinds of NGOs, and by publicly employed social workers (Heckmann, 2008; UNESCO, 2018).

Extra-curricular activities are an additional measure that boost social integration and academic performance, however less than half of all education systems have regulations or recommendations relating to migrant students (Kraszewska, Knauth, & Thorogood, 2011). These extracurricular activities are mostly provided in schools but can be carried out by external bodies such as municipalities, NGOs, and migrant or other volunteer organisations. (Nilsson & Bunar, 2016). Measures such as the instalment in schools of learning and homework centres after the regular classes, help reach the educational needs of migrant children and provide support for parents who cannot either support or monitor the homework of their children (Drexler, 2007, 66, cited in Heckmann, 2008).

Most education systems sponsor learning support for migrants within programs for special educational needs. These learning support measures include setting upper limits on class sizes to ensure better learning conditions, or providing specific teaching material adapted to the needs of students. They also include different forms of pedagogical support that are usually under the control of teachers, such as differentiated teaching, individualised or group-based learning support, or types of support provided with the help of other students, such as peer education or mentoring (European Commission/ EACEA/Eurydice et al., 2019a). But there needs to be additional economic support for schools with high immigrant and refugee populations (Heckmann, 2008). To make it possible there need to be targeted resources contemplated in budget. The reality is that only a few of high income countries explicitly contemplate migration status in school budgets, although funding is usually triggered for other dimensions of disadvantage, including neighbourhood deprivation and limited language proficiency often associated with migrant students (UNESCO, 2018). Measures of the efficacy of the educational systems can be used to monitor the learning progress of students from migrant backgrounds and to identify any additional support needs.

The early tracking of students has shown to have a negative effect on children achievement, and specifically on migrant children that often are selected for substantially lower demanding tracks compared to native children (Stanat, Bommes, Gogolin, & Klemm, 2007, 43, cited in Heckmann, 2008). Students with low achievement may be sent away from academic courses into technical or vocational tracks at key transition points. This practice is prevalent among immigrant communities concentrated in separated neighbourhoods with disadvantaged schools, and particularly disadvantaged male students due to the interaction with the gender variable (UNESCO, 2018). It is specially important to pay attention to these practices among children in the compulsory schooling age limit, who may be stated no ready for secondary schools and transferred to special courses (FRA, 2017)

Public attitudes

Social psychological research – especially in the United States – has made a strong effort for a long time to look into the consequences of stereotyping on the achievement of minority children (Heckmann, 2008). Stereotyping can seriously threat the educational achievement of immigrant and minority students through their own beliefs and expectation about themselves and the ones of the people of their closer environment. The effects of stereotyping have been noted in the performance of children producing: avoidance of challenge, self-handicapping, rejection of feedback regarding one's performance and academic disengagement (Schofield 2006, 93, cited in Heckmann, 2008)

Low expectations negatively influence academic achievement of students. Pygmalion effect or Golem effect in the case of migrant children explains how the teachers' expectations affect the performance of the students (Farley, 2005, 401, cited in Heckmann, 2008).The gender is transversal to the effect of teachers attitudes and expectances, for instance primary school teachers had more positive attitudes towards ethnic minority girls than ethnic minority boys (Bešić, Paleczek, & Gasteiger-Klicpera, 2018). This predjudice can be translated in discrimination or denied support, which can determine the educational achievement of children.

4. Measuring integration

This section aims to map, in a very synthetic way, the main theoretical and practical attempts at conceptualizing and measuring integration processes. First, we review several analytical approaches on how to conceptualize and characterize the complexity of integration processes, and secondly, we overview existing integration indicators systems.

4.1. Analytical approaches

Integration is a complex process that involves different aspects of human experience. Several authors have conceptualized the different dimensions or domains that are part of that process. These analytical approaches facilitate the selection and observation of variables that measure the degree of an individual's integration in specific areas, although emphasizing that these areas are not hermetic and are in fact interrelated.

(Esser, 2001) refers to four dimensions: culturation (similar to socialization), placement (position in society), interaction (social relations and networks), and identification (belonging) (Garcés-Mascareñas & Penninx, 2016). Similarly, (Heckmann & Schnapper, 2003) distinguish between structural integration (participation in the labor market,education and occupational training, housing, access to healthcare), cultural integration (or acculturation) (intercultural competences; for instance, language identity, cultural awareness and empathy and cultural values), interactive integration (acceptance of immigrants within primary relationships and social networks of the host society), and identificational integration (feelings of belonging to and identification with groups, particularly in forms of ethnic, regional, local and/or national identification). From this perspective, integration dynamics and tempos are viewed as different for each dimension, and processes of structural marginalization and inequality become key.

Lacroix (2013) distinguishes three possible levels of integration: systemic integration, measured through employment status and integration into the wider civic system; social integration, measured through individuals' interpersonal and associational networks and their skills in the language and culture of the receiving country; and identity integration which, unlike the other two levels, is a subjective process centered around the influence of social structures -- a subjective process of identity balance between the different influences received.

The model proposed by (Ager & Strang, 2004) emphasizes the processual and interrelated nature of the integration process and distinguish between four domains. (1) Means and markers represent major areas of attainment that are widely recognised as critical factors in the integration process (employment, housing, education, health). (2) Social connections are also considered critical attainments, divided into three types: social bridges (mixing with other cultures), social bonds (belong sense and relationships with people of the same culture) and social links (social connection with institutions, associations, etc.). (3) Facilitators represent key facilitating factors for the process of integration: language and cultural knowledge (influencing social relationships and many other domains), and the feeling of safety and stability (absence of racial harassment, crime and other negative circumstances drive development and improvement of the other domains). (4) Finally, rights and citizenship are labelled as "foundation" of the integration process, since these represent the basis upon which expectations and obligations for the process of integration are established.

Penninx & Garces Mascarenas (2016) propose a disaggregated approach to the concept of integration, distinguishing three dimensions (the legal-political, the socio-economic, and the cultural-religious), two parties (the immigrants and the receiving society), and three levels (individuals, organizations, and institutions). The basic definition of integration encompasses three analytically distinct dimensions in which people may (or may not) become an accepted part of society, and that correspond to the three main factors that interplay with immigration and integration processes: the state, the market, and the nation. The legal political dimension is referred to residence and political rights and statuses. In this respect, the immigrants' 'degree of integration' has two extreme poles: on the one hand is the irregular immigrant (who is not part of the host society in the legal- political sense, though might be integrated in the other two dimensions); on the other hand is the immigrant who is already naturalised. In between there is enormous variety of situations. The basic question here is whether and to what extent are immigrants regarded as fully-fledged members of the political community. The socio-economic dimension analyses the social and economic position of residents, irrespective of their legal status. The outcomes, particularly when they are unequal, provide useful inputs for policies. Finally, the cultural-religious dimension deals with the perceptions and practices of immigrants and the receiving society as well as their reciprocal reactions to difference and diversity. This dimension informs about the degree of coexistence and tolerance between different cultures, taking into account both the position of migrants and host society. Perceptions and reactions of migrants and natives are taken into account regarding situations of cultural diversity and differences.

Although these dimensions and levels can be considered in some way independent (there can be different combinations of levels of integration, and a high integration in one of the dimensions does not guarantee a high integration in the other two), they are not really independent but highly interrelated. A good political integration can condition the process of economic and social

integration or the process of cultural-religious integration, by allowing access to different services, for example. Similarly, institutions largely determine organizations' opportunities and scope for action, and can significantly influence on immigrant organizations performance. Conversely, individuals may mobilize to change the landscape of organizations and may even contribute to significant changes in general institutional arrangements. In addition to these dimensions, levels and parties, Garcés- Mascareñas and Penninx (2016) also propose an analysis of the policies oriented towards integration. To that end, they recommend considering the vertical and horizontal aspects of both framework policies and concrete measurement policies.

The measurement of the socio-educational inclusion of migrant children has points in common with the measurement of integration among migrant population in general, but also some specific characteristics. Booth & Ainscow (2002) created an Index for Inclusion for the measurement of inclusion in the educational environment. This proposal is not exclusive for migrant children, but seeks educational inclusion in a more global way. The authors propose three interconnected dimensions to measure the educational inclusion of children in educational environments: cultures, policies and practice. They describe the Index as a Russian doll involving these dimensions and their specification into sections, indicators and questions (see Table below). By having indicators and associated questions that can be studied, the Index aims at making it is easier to create policies and monitor them, through a continuous process of asking the educational community, creating inclusive policies adapted to the reality of the school, implementing those measures, and starting over.

Dimension	**Creating inclusive CULTURES**	**Producing inclusive POLICIES**	**Evolving inclusive PRACTICE**
Sections	✓ Community ✓ Inclusive value	✓ Developing the school for all (EFA) ✓ Organising support for diversity	✓ Orchestrating learning ✓ Mobilising resources
Indicators (examples)	✓ Everyone is made to feel welcome. ✓ Students help each other. ✓ Staff, governors, students and parents/carers share a philosophy of inclusion. ✓ Students are equally valued.	✓ The school makes its buildings physically accessible to all people. ✓ All new students are helped to settle into the school. ✓ 'Special educational needs' policies are inclusion policies ✓ Bullying is minimised.	✓ Teaching is planned with the learning of all students in mind. ✓ Students learn collaboratively ✓ Staff expertise is fully utilised ✓ Community resources are known and drawn upon.

4.2. Existing indicators systems

Building on the different analytical approaches to integration and socio-educational inclusion, there have been numerous attempts to measure the integration in immigrants, also in Europe, although there continues to be gaps affecting data collection that negatively impact the development of the integration systems and policies. This is even more so in the case for migrant children, who are a particularly vulnerable group within the migrant population, with very specific needs as well as opportunities. Specific indicators systems also exist for children and educational outcomes generally, although it is not always possible to disaggregate by migrant status. In this section we discuss the main existing indicators and information systems on which we will build in order to measure the integration and socio-educative inclusion of migrant children.

INTEGRATION OF (ADULT) MIGRANTS

The EU's 11th Common Basic Principle on Immigrant Integration policy (Council of the European Union, 2004) state the necessity to develop clear goals, indicators and evaluation mechanisms in order to evaluate progress on integration and adjust policy accordingly. The Zaragoza Declaration, adopted in April 2010, proposes a set of common indicators to assess this process, grouped into four areas: employment, education, social inclusion and active citizenship (Kraszewska et al., 2011). The Member States also agreed that the indicators should be based on existing and comparable data for most Member States, limited in number, comparable over time, productive and cost-effective, simple to understand and easy to communicate and focused on outcomes. The EU's migrant integration indicators follow the Zaragoza Declaration and attached proposals (Huddleston, Niessen, & Dag Tjaden, 2013; Kraszewska et al., 2011), and they are meant to be in line with the Europe 2020 headline indicators that aim for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. The indicators use Eurostat and OECD data (EU-LFS, EU-SILC, PISA, Eurostat migration statistics). The table below illustrates the four areas and some core indicators as examples.

Policy area	Employment	Education	Social inclusion	Active citizenship
Indicators	✓ Employment rate ✓ Unemployment rate ✓ Activity rate	✓ Educational attainment ✓ Low-achieving ✓ Early leavers	✓ Median net income ✓ Risk of poverty rate ✓ Perceived health	✓ Residence permits ✓ Migrants among elected representatives ✓ Migrants that acquired citizenship

The Migrant Integration Policy Index (Huddleston, Bilgili, Joki, & Vankova, 2015) is one of the major initiatives in this field, very related to our project. MIPEX measures the success of integration policies implemented by governments in 38 countries (mostly high incomes countries), in order to examine if they meet the international standards for promoting integration in eight different areas: labor market mobility, education, political participation, access to nationality, family reunion, access to health, permanent residence and anti discrimination. Policies in these areas are evaluated through 167 parameters, which are coded to mark whether the condition is met, not met, or met to some extent. Additionally, MIPEX also collects data from secondary sources to establish the size and characteristics of the migrant population, as well as the outcomes of the evaluated policies, using largely Eurostat and OECD indicators. MIPEX is a useful tool that allows to establish comparisons between the different participating countries, as well as to guide the policies aimed at the integration of this population with a focused and realistic view. It is important to monitor this data to know if policy recommendations are being implemented and whether they have the expected results. The Education domain has been one of MIPEX focus areas since 2011. One of the dimensions of this area explores whether the specific needs of migrant students are being addressed (targeting needs), for example, with specific training for teachers. In this case, the Nordic countries and the United States score better than the countries of southern Europe.

The areas, dimensions and some indicators of these policies are:

Area	Labor market mobility	Education	Political participation	Access to nationality	Family reunion	Access to health	Permanent residence	Anti-discrimination
Dimensions	▪ Access to labour market ▪ Access to general support ▪ Targeted support (for migrants) ▪ Workers' rights	▪ Access ▪ Targeting needs ▪ New opportunities ▪ Intercultural education	▪ Electoral rights ▪ Political liberties ▪ Consultative bodies ▪ Implementatio n policies	▪ Eligibility ▪ Conditions ▪ Security of status ▪ Dual nationality	▪ Eligibility ▪ Conditions ▪ Security of status ▪ Rights associated	▪ Entitlements ▪ Access policies ▪ Responsive services ▪ Mechanisms for change	▪ Eligibility ▪ Conditions ▪ Security of status ▪ Rights associated	▪ Definitions ▪ Fields of application ▪ Enforcement mechanisms ▪ Equality policies
Indicators (examples)	✓ Over-qualification gap ✓ In-work poverty gap ✓ Recognition of academic qualifications	✓ Low-achievers gap ✓ Access to pre- primary education and compulsory education ✓ Teacher training to reflect migrants' learning needs ✓ Measures to support migrant parents and communities	✓Share of immigrants naturalized ✓Share of enfranchised non-EU citizens ✓Public funding/support for regional immigrant bodies	✓ Right to vote in national elections ✓ Right to association ✓ Public funding/support for regional immigrant bodies	✓ Minor children ✓ Pre-entry integration requirement ✓ Maximum duration of procedure	✓ Health entitlements for legal migrants ✓ Provision of 'cultural mediators' or 'patient navigators' to facilitate access for migrants ✓ Collection of data on migrant health	✓ Permits considered ✓ Costs of application ✓ Duration of validity of permit	✓ Law covers direct/ indirect discrimination, harassment, instruction ✓ Social protection ✓ Public bodies obliged to promote equality

Retrieved from (Huddleston et al., 2015)

The OECD Integration indicators, regularly reported and analyzed in the organization's "Settling in" documents (2012), cover 34 key indicators in areas such as employment, education and skills, social inclusion, civic engagement and social cohesion, in a coMparative perspective across all EU as well as OECD of integration outcomes.

SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL INCLUSION OF CHILDREN

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the 2030 Agenda have been established by the United Nations General Assembly in 2015 for the year 2030 (UNESCO, 2018) The overall objective is raise awareness of issues of great importance to reach higher levels of equality, quality and inclusion. The aim is to get national administrations to increase the investment in measuring and monitoring these mechanisms. The most relevant SDG for the IMMERSE project, is SDG 4: 'Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all' (UNESCO, 2018). This framework does not only sets an ambitious education agenda but also poses the challenge of monitoring targets that include multiple learning outcomes, inequality dimensions and curricular content. While some criticize the monitoring framework as too ambitious, its key role is to be formative, drawing countries' attention to core issues absent before 2015. It should trigger investment in robust national monitoring mechanisms of education equity, inclusion and quality. Several initiatives by countries, CSOs and multilateral institutions ensure the education sector is well placed to report at the first formal review of SDG 4 at the 2019 High-Level Political Forum. UNESCO largely relies on OECD and Eurostat data, among others, to produce these indicators. The following table presents a few highlights on the established targets, based on the most recent available data.

Target 4.1: Primary and secondary education: Completion rates, minimum proficiency in reading and mathematics

Target 4.2: Early childhood: Non-compulsory education prior to primary education has been shown to be related to a good subsequent performance and a decrease in inequality. Countries are encouraged to invest in this type of education as well as in their measurement and monitoring of outcomes.

Target 4.3: Technical, vocational, tertiary and adult education: These indicators are directly related to the increase of opportunities when entering the labor market.

Target 4.4: Skills for work: Related to technology and information sciences in countries with a high income

Target 4.5: Equity: great differences between urban and rural areas in low and middle income countries.

Target 4.6: Literacy and numeracy: A bigger problem in low-income countries; within developed countries, the highest percentage of illiterate people corresponds to elderly people.

Target 4.7: Sustainable development and global citizenship: Few countries report that the teaching of these principles is sufficient

Target 4.a: Education facilities and learning environments: Increase and improve basic services such as access to water or toilets.

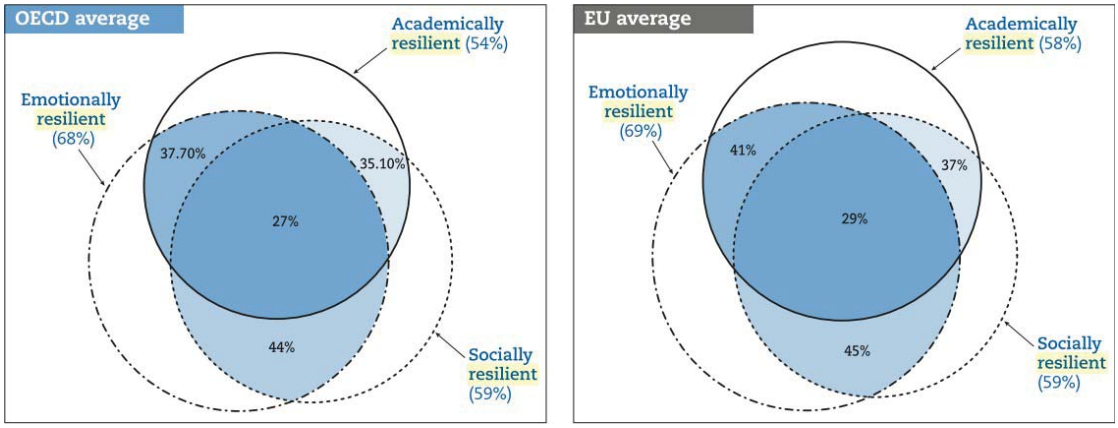
Target 4.b: Scholarships: There has not been much progress since 2010

Target 4.c: Teachers: Monitor, for example, teacher training or student / teacher ratio

Finance: Evaluate spending on education by governments and households. (United Nations, 2018)

In the educational sphere, the OECD's PISA assessment (OECD, 2016c, 2016b, 2017, 2018b) has become a reference worldwide, and the data produced are used in several indicators systems, including the ones above.[32] It collects extensive information on socio educational outcomes (of children enrolled in schools and aged 15) since 1997 in over 70 countries. PISA tests students on their ability to adapt the knowledge they acquire at school to real-life situations as opposed to how they master a specific curriculum. Factors influencing their performance and potential for lifelong learning are also explored in the background questionnaire in which they are asked about their approaches to learning and their social background. The organisation of schools is also taken into account through a questionnaire filled out by school principals. PISA covers many area related to academic achievement, including health, personal relationships, and national policies and education systems.

The information collected in PISA allows disaggregating by country of birth, among others, enabling the production of specific analyses and comparisons between students with a migrant background and native students (OECD, 2006, 2012, 2015). In one of the most recent studies the emphasis is put in the resilience of migrant students, considering academic, social and emotional resilience (OECD, 2018b).33 From this angle, risk factors and protective factors are analyzed to achieve boosting resilience in this group, assuming that these factors have a multilevel nature: Child, Family, School and Education system.



The overlap of immigrant students' resilience: Percentage of students who are academically, socially and/or emotionally resilient (OECD, 2018b).

32 Similar specialized surveys also include TALIS, TIMSS, PIRLS, ICCS, among others.

33 Academically resilient immigrant students are immigrant students who reach at least PISA proficiency level two in all three PISA core subjects – math, reading and science. Socially resilient immigrant students are immigrant students who reported that they "agree" or "strongly agree" with the statement "I feel like I belong at school" and "disagree" or "strongly disagree" with the statement "I feel like an outsider at school". Emotionally resilient immigrant students are immigrant students who reported a life satisfaction of 7 or above on a scale from 0 to 10. (OECD, 2018b).

The Organization of Iberoamerican States for Education, Science and Culture (OEI) also collects and analyzes indicators of immigrant students from Latin America in the European context. The indicators are collected for three areas: reception and welcome; equity and diversity; and educational community and social cohesion. The areas can be used as a framework to structure and track the search for data, on the one hand, and as educational measures of the integration of immigrant students (Organización de Estados Iberoamericanos para la Educación la Ciencia y la Cultura, 2008). As in other frameworks, the areas and indicators are not isolated but interrelated, influencing each other.

Area	Reception and welcome	Equity and diversity	Educational community
Dimensions	▪ Information about the education system ▪ Mechanisms for information dissemination ▪ Initial assessment ▪ Host tutoring ▪ Welcome classrooms ▪ Families ▪ Teacher's training ▪ Welcome programs assessment ▪	▪ Balanced distribution, school results and educational reinforcement ▪ Intercultural education an language training ▪ Absenteeism, abandonment and continuity	▪ Family and educational context ▪ Extracurricular activities and open centers ▪ Environment plans or other programs ▪ Internal educational networks ▪ External networks ▪ Migrant networks ▪ Other agents in non- formal and informal education.
Indicators (examples)	✓ Number of languages in which the welcome guide is published ✓ Number of students per (welcome) classroom. ✓ Number of family meetings with the counselor, or tutor.	✓ Proportion of new students with curricular lag ✓ Proportion of teachers who have received initial and ongoing training in interculturality and / or language teaching. ✓ Proportion of centers that have specific measures to prevent absenteeism	✓ Share of participation of immigrant families in school organizations. ✓ Types of extracurricular activities. ✓ Existence of evaluation commissions. ✓ Existence of immigrant organizations directory.

2. PART II. IMMERSE DASHBOARD OF INDICATORS

1. Normative framework

Social indicators are "statistics, statistical series or any form of indication that makes it easier for us to study where we are and where we are going with respect to certain objectives and goals, as well as to evaluate specific programs and determine its impact" (Horn 1993, p147). In general, an indicator is an instrument that serves to observe what is essential about those objectives and goals, as well as about the process leading to them, which is complex and we cannot directly observe. In this sense, the indicator is part of an information system composed of other indicators, but also of the criteria on what data to observe and how to process it (García Cívico, 2010). To define this information system it is necessary to (1) identify the goals and objectives, (2) the processes and outcomes that bring us closer to those goals, and *(3) the criteria to select and process the specific* data.

The definition of **goals and objectives** always implies a given normative framework that helps select and prioritize among different results. For IMMERSE, this normative framework is the inclusive and intercultural model that we have described in the previous sections (Council of Europe, 2008; UNESCO, 2006). In this sense, the *dashboard of indicators must serve to observe to what inclusion objectives and goals, as implied by this model, are achieved. The main objectives under this framework are:*

(1) that migrant (and other) children reach their full potential in the most relevant outcomes (i.e. legal status, language, psycho-social well-being and health, social relations and educational achievement)

(2) that migrant (and other) children, as well as their families, become an accepted part of society with fully recognized membership at the formal and informal levels.

(3) Under this framework, the responsibility for integration goals rests with all actors involved: migrants themselves,[34] the host government and institutions,[35] and native communities.[36]

2. Analytical approach

The two main objectives of integration are formulated in an open manner, without benchmarks established beforehand, because inclusion is conceived as a process (Penninx & Garcés-Mascareñas, 2016). As such, the conceptualization of outcome indicators should be as dynamic as possible, and it is necessary to also consider process indicators, corresponding to facilitators and barriers that sustain, foster or handicap the achievement or improvement of those outcomes.

34 According to the European Commission, their main responsibility is "to respect the fundamental norms and values of the host society and participate actively in the integration process, without having to relinquish their own identity (European Commission, 2005)."

35 According to the European Commission: "it is the responsibility of the host society to ensure that the formal rights of immigrants are in place in such a way that the individual has the possibility of participating in economic, social, cultural and civil life" (European Commission, 2005).

36 According to the Council of the EU, integration is a dynamic process of mutual accommodation by all residents of Member States that implies respect for the basic values of the European Union (Council of the European Union, 2004)

Additionally, inclusion is multidimensional. It involves mainly five types of outcomes: (as mentioned before in Part I section 3) legal status, language, psycho-social well- being and health, social relations and educational achievement. These outcomes are complex and multidimensional themselves, so different dimensions should be considered for each of them. Additionally, their different components and determinants are interrelated: for instance, well-being outcomes highly influence social relations, and both in turn also affect academic achievement.

The processes that mediate inclusion outcomes – i.e. through the presence of facilitators and barriers –take place and can be observed at different settings within the social system. As previous authors have done, we apply a traditional macro, meso and micro approach to categorize these settings. We define these levels from a child perspective:

(1) **Micro:** the child and his/her family

(2) **Meso**: school, neighbourhood and other primary places in their daily life, including all possible relations at this "local" level (e.g. associations, social services, etc.). The meso-structures and processes that are the focus of the proximity principle and which traverse multiple levels of social life, including everything from dyads to small groups to formal organizations (McLeod & Lively, 2003).

(3) **Macro**: the policies and large political, economic and social systems of a given society. This includes the vertical dimension of policymaking, that is, the relationship between the national, regional, and local levels (Penninx & Garcés- Mascareñas, 2016).

This definition of the three levels responds, first of all, to a child-centred perspective in terms of levels of proximity to the child. It also identifies the significant levels of intervention, which is relevant both for the identification of relevant stakeholders – which is important for IMMERSE co-creation methodology – and for the ellaboration of policy recommendations. Additionally, this definition is more applicable across countries and facilitates comparability, in comparison with other definitions that focus on a distinction between organizations and institutions, for instance (Penninx & Garcés-Mascareñas, 2016), which can pose comparability problems across countries and subregions.

In this approach, outcomes are most often found at the micro level (children outcomes) although they can then be aggregated into the meso level (school, neighbourhood and local) as well as into the macro level (regions and national level). But some specific outcomes are also found at the meso and macro level (e.g. presence of conflict in terms of bullying at schools or generally episodes of discrimination and/or hate attacks at local, regional or national levels). However, the relevant determinants for all of these outcomes are found across all three levels: at the micro level, both individual factors (within-child factors) and situational factors (mostly related to family), and the rest of situational factors are found at the meso and macro levels. Some of the determinants are shared across relevant outcomes, which means this information is particularly relevant to be included among the selected indicators, also from the point of view of data efficiency.

3. Selection of indicators

For the selection of indicators, IMMERSE will take into account several considerations.

First, key outcomes and determinants will be identified based on (1) the literature review conducted for this conceptual framework and (2) the qualitative workshops to consult key stakeholders. The selected indicators must then be relevant and robust in measuring those outcomes and determinants, based on the results and models of previous theoretical and empirical research. Appendix 1 below summarizes and maps out the key outcomes and determinants identified in the literature review and discussion in the previous sections, providing an exhaustive list of the potential contents for the dashboard. We exemplify, mostly through MIPEX, the identification of existing and relevant indicators (boxes with blue font). This mapping will be expanded and/or refined following the results of the qualitative research with key stakeholders.

Second, the preferred indicators will be those that are readily available across different contexts (allowing comparison between countries and regions) and which are produced by reliable and trusted sources. It is important also that they are produced in a regular and sustainable manner, to allow a permanent follow-up in order to observe the evolution of the indicators and relevant trends. Common sources covering all IMMERSE/EU countries would also be preferred. For this reason, Eurostat/Zaragoza Indicators, MIPEX and OECD/PISA are major sources to be incorporated, which can cover relevant outcomes and determinants at the macro (MIPEX, Eurostat) and meso-micro levels (PISA). If sources common to all countries are not available for some relevant outcome or facilitator, the sources (e.g. Ministries data) should still be comparable. The sources used should also allow to disaggregate data and observe indicators by age, gender and country of origin. Additional information is desirable on other individual-level determinants, such as age at arrival (or time since arrival) or mother tongue.

Third, some indicators may not be available in existing sources and will require data collection. The number of indicators that require ad-hoc or specific collection will be kept to a minimum, in order to improve the sustainability prospects of the dashboard of indicators. For those indicators identified as necessary and convenient to have, specific policy recommendations will be developed in order to include them in existing or future initiatives of regular data collection. Within IMMERSE WP3 we will collect these indicators during 2020 and then again 2021 using the application for data collection developed by IECISA. Our data collection will be broader, capturing other relevant information that will be required for the analysis of these indicators (for instance: age, age at arrival (including born in destination country), gender, country of origin, legal status) and in order to unearth/confirm relevant factors for inclusion outcomes.[37]

Data will be collected on the basis of this new dashboard of indicators for assessment and analysis. Data analysis will draw a representative image of national and Europe's reality on refugee and migrant children's integration allowing to develop policy papers with specific recommendations targeting both policymakers and educational institutions to foster diverse and inclusive societies.

37 Data analysis will draw a representative image of national and Europe's reality on refugee and migrant children's integration in order to develop policy papers with specific recommendations targeting both policymakers and educational institutions at the country and European levels.

The basis for the final selection of 50 indicators (which will then be presented to experts for a final selection and validation of 30 indicators) will be based on these principles. In order to initiate such selection, we have first mapped out the key outcomes and determinants identified in the literature review and discussion in the previous sections, providing an exhaustive list of the potential contents for the dashboard. This mapping excercize is provided in Appendix 1 below. Based on this framework, we have also conducted a mapping exercise of indicators that are already available from well-established sources, covering all six IMMERSE countries, and producing or collecting data with some regularity. The main sources are: Eurostat Zaragoza indicators; MIPEX; PISA; and OECD's Child Wellbeing Database. We have also identified relevant specific indicators from a diversity of sources, including specialized surveys (such as the ESS, EVS, WVS, TALIS, PIRLS, TIMSS) or other OECD/Eurostat statistics, which we will also continue to expand, particularly in cooperation with relevant stakeholders. Appendix 2 below provides screencaptures of the spreadsheet where this mapping exercize has been carried out, specifically sample contents of the Legal and Educational Achievements dimensions.

Appendix 1. Key outcomes and facilitators of children's integration and socio- *educative inclusion*

LEGAL DIMENSION				
		MICRO (child, family)	**MESO (school, neighbourhood, centres)**	**MACRO (national, regional)**
Legal status	**OUTCOMES**	**Child's legal status** (unauthorized; asylum seeker, refugee, other int'l protection status; other temporary permits; permanent residence; citizenship) **Survey data** **Anonymized register data** **Child has access to superior legal statuses: citizenship as corollary**	**Children's legal status** (school, local-level aggregation) **Survey data** **Register data**	**Children's legal status** (regional, national-level aggregation) **MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators on:** • % non-EU naturalised • Annual # of naturalised TCN • # Permanent residents • Share of Permanent permits and Dissimilarity Index by citizenship • Naturalisation rate and Dissimilarity Index by citizenship • Political participation gap (ESS)
	Barriers & facilitators	INDIVIDUAL FACTORS Country of origin Circumstances of arrival		SITUATIONAL FACTORS **Legislation and practice conditioning legal status at entry (or birth) and acquisition of superior legal statuses**

		SITUATIONAL FACTORS Family socio-economic status		**MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators on:** • # TCN eligible for naturalisation • TCN eligible for Permanent residence **MIPEX policy indicators on Access to Nationality** Eligibility: • Residence period • Permits considered • Periods of prior-absence allowed • Birth-right citizenship for second generation • Birth-right citizenship for third generation Conditions for Acquisition: • Naturalisation language requirement (average) • Naturalisation integration requirement (average) • Economic resources • Criminal record

				• Good character • Costs of application Security of status: • Maximum duration of procedure • Additional grounds for refusal • Discretionary powers in refusal • Legal protection • Protection against withdrawal of citizenship (average) Dual Nationality: • Dual nationality for first generation • Dual nationality for sec-ond/third generation **MIPEX policy indicators on Permanent residence** *** UAMs** # of residence permits/# UAMs # of residence permits after reaching 18
Access to edu-cation	**OUTCOMES**	**Child has access to education:** • **compulsory education** (all levels ahead; regardless of age) – In formal vs non-formal settings	**Children without access to formal educa-tion** (local level)	**Children without access to formal educa-tion** (national level)

		• **non-compulsory education**		
	Barriers & facilitators	INDIVIDUAL FACTORS Age and age at arrival Previous education and country of education (e.g. availability of documentation) Language skills SITUATIONAL FACTORS Family socio-economic status	SITUATIONAL FACTORS Available resources (legal assistance, accompaniment) Presence of ethnic/migrant networks and communities (potential assistance)	SITUATIONAL FACTORS **Compulsory education as legal right and access to effective levels of education** **MIPEX policy indicators on Education Access:** • Compulsory education as legal right • Pre-primary and compulsory education • Non-compulsory education • Vocational training • Higher education * **Undocumented / UAMs / asylum-seekers: Limitations in law or practice to access to education** (age determination, status determination, etc.) **Legislation and practice conditioning recognition of degrees and effective education**
Access to other rights	**OUTCOMES**	**Child has access to other fundamental rights:**	**Children without access to health care** (local aggregation)	**Children without access to formal education** (regional or/and national aggregation)

		• **health care** (fully as nationals; with limitations; none) • **basic material needs** (housing, food, clothes, financial assistance)		
	Barriers & facilitators	INDIVIDUAL FACTORS Age SITUATIONAL FACTORS Family socio-economic status	SITUATIONAL FACTORS Available resources (legal assistance) **Practice in local health care conditioning access to health care** Supplementary community services for health care – supplementing lack of access or fear to access formal services (unauthorized migrants) **Practice in local social services conditioning access to assistance and benefits** Supplementary community services for assistance and support – supplementing lack of access or fear to access formal services (unauthorized migrants)	SITUATIONAL FACTORS **Legislation and practice conditioning access to health care** **MIPEX policy indicators on Health: Entitlement to Health Services** • a-c. Health entitlements for legal migrants • Administrative discretion and documentation for legal migrants • a-c. Health entitlements for asylum-seekers • Administrative discretion and documentation for asylum- seekers • a-c. Health entitlements for undocumented migrants • Administrative discretion and documentation for undocumented migrants **Policies to facilitate access** • Information for service providers about migrants' entitlements

				• a-c. Information for migrants concerning entitlements and use of health services • a-c. Information for migrants concerning health education and promotion • a-b. Provision of 'cultural mediators' or 'patient navigators' to facilitate access for migrants • a-b. Obligation and sanctions for assisting undocumented migrants **Responsive Health Services** • a-b. Availability of qualified interpretation services • Requirement for 'culturally competent' or 'diversity-sensitive' services • Training and education of health service staff • Involvement of migrants in information provision, service design and delivery • Encouraging diversity in the health service workforce • a-b. Development of capacity and methods

				Measures to Achieve Change • Collection of data on migrant health • Support for research on migrant health • "Health in all policies" approach • Whole organisation approach • Leadership by government a-b. Involvement of migrants and stakeholders **Legislation and practice conditioning access to social services and benefits**

LANGUAGE DIMENSION				
		MICRO (child, family)	**MESO (school, neighbourhood, centres)**	**MACRO (national, regional)**
Linguistic competence	**OUTCOMES**	**Child has relevant language skills in Main Language** (national language, lingua franca, language of instruction) Survey data (subjective assessment by child or/and teacher; objective language tests) E.g. PISA: • reading score in language of instruction controlling by math score • language spoken at home **Child has relevant language skills in his/her mother tongue**	**Children skills in Main Language** (school or/and local level aggregation) **Children use of mother tongue outside at home and outside home** (school or/and local level aggregation)	**Children skills in Main Language** (regional or/and national aggregation) **Children use of mother tongue outside at home and outside home** (regional or/and national level)
	Barriers & facilitators	INDIVIDUAL FACTORS First language distance (from native speakers to different alphabets languages) Age at arrival (from born in destination to 17-18)	SITUATIONAL FACTORS **Language teaching at school** • **Preparatory classes** (language level criteria; duration; opportunities to interact with mainstream classes)	SITUATIONAL FACTORS **Legislation and resources devoted to** • **Language preparatory classes** (additional staff)

		SITUATIONAL FACTORS Socio-economic status and cultural capital (educational level) of parents Language spoken at home / translinguism (mixed, with siblings…)	• **Support after/outside preparatory classes** (duration, conditionality) • Bilingual (instruction in 2 languages) • **Mother tongue / multiple languages available** in curriculum of foreign languages **Language teaching at alternative environments** (access and type) **Communication at school** # languages spoken at school Language(s) spoken at school with peers and teachers / translinguism **Negative attitudes (prejudice, xenophobia) / isolation/ discrimination because of language skills** (school and local level)	• **Language support after/ outside preparatory classes** (additional staff, specialized training for teachers in multilingual classes) • **Curriculum and resources for foreign-language teaching and intercultural values** **Negative attitudes (prejudice, xenophobia) / isolation/ discrimination because of language skills** **MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators on:** • Reports of discrimination by National Equality Body • Experiences of Discrimination (Eurobarometer)

WELL-BEING DIMENSION				
		MICRO (child, family)	**MESO (school, neighbourhood, centres)**	**MACRO (national, regional)**
Well-being outcomes (several with similar determi-nants, so grouped together)	**OUTCOMES**	**Child maintains his/her cultural identity Child adopts new cultural values and intercultural competences** **Child's self-esteem** Child's life satisfaction / happiness **Child's sense of belonging** **Child's mental health issues** (depres-sion, anxiety, PTSD, intense grief) and behavioural issues (substance use)	**Children maintain his/her cultural identity Children adopt new cultural values and intercultural competences** (school or/and local aggregation) **Children's self-esteem** (school or/and local aggregation) Children's life satisfaction / happiness **Children's sense of belonging** (school or/ and local aggregation) **Children's mental health issues** (school or/ and local aggregation)	**Children maintain his/her cultural identity Children adopt new cultural values and intercultural competences** (regional or/ and national aggregation) **Children's self-esteem** (regional or/and national aggregation) Children's life satisfaction / happiness **Children's sense of belonging** (regional or/and national aggregation) **Children's mental health issues** (regional or/and national aggregation)
	Barriers & facili-tators	INDIVIDUAL FACTORS Age at migra-tion Age and gender **Personal resilience** (cognitive ability, social competence, age and gender) **Uncertain legal status (unaccompanied minors)**	SITUATIONAL FACTORS **Child has friends, and in particular friends at school** **Child has good relationships with (and does not feel discriminated or unsup-ported by) teachers and other**	**Clear and effective (regional and national) on intercultural values, against xeno-phobia, prejudice and stereotypes** **MIPEX policy indicators on Anti-Discrimination**

		Language skills **Group identity** (positive feelings of belonging to a group) **School belonging** (level of attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief in their school) SITUATIONAL FACTORS **Absence of parents Parents':** • **Lack of language skills** and need to translate for them • **Cultural dissonance** (gender roles, age roles, cultural values) • **Mental health** • **Socio-economic status** • **Uncertain legal status (unauthorized, asylum-seekers, and temporary permits)** • **Involvement with school** Housing and basic needs covered	**school personnel (i.e. counsellors, etc.)** **Presence of cultural/individual conflict at school and neighbourhood** • Prejudices and stereotypes, negative attitudes • Bullying **Presence of other children of similar ethnic/cultural backgrounds at school and neighbourhood** **Integrative/inclusive climate at school** **School direction:** • Clear leadership and school identity around intercultural values, against xenophobia, prejudice and stereotypes • Incorporation of multiple languages, cultural expressions, cultural dialogue and exchange in school activities (including cantina, holiday and calendar planning, multi-language website and school information…) • Promotion of parental involvement in school activities, extra-curricular activities and parental associations	**MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators on:** • Reports of discrimination by National Equality Body • Experiences of Discrimination (Eurobarometer) • Access to justice (race/ethnicity, religion/beliefs) **MIPEX policy indicators on Intercultural Education for all:** • School curriculum to reflect diversity • State supported information initiatives • Adapting curriculum to reflect diversity • Adapting daily school life to reflect diversity • Teacher training to reflect diversity **Opportunities for family reunification in case of separated families** **MIPEX policy indicators on Family Reunion** **MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries**

			• Presence of teachers of different ethnic/cultural backgrounds and/or cultural mediators **Teachers:** • Training and support resources on intercultural competences and training • Cultural awareness in communication and relations of teachers with pupils and parents **(Policy)-School-teachers:** • Culturally-aware curricula, and representativeness of migrants • Inclusion of training on intercultural competence as part of syllabus or/and transversally (e.g. in language training) **School-based mental health services:** • **Prevention**: teaching social and emotional competence • **Counselling and therapeutic services** Supplementary mental health community services	**indicators on Family Reunion** • Non-EU family reunification rate and Dissimilarity Index by citizenship

SOCIAL RELATIONS DIMENSION				
		MICRO (child, family)	**MESO (school, neighbourhood, centres)**	**MACRO (national, regional)**
Social bonds, bridges and links (social support and social capital)	**OUTCOMES**	**Child has friends, and in particular friends at school and at neighbourhood** • Of similar ethnic/cultural backgrounds or/and of migrant backgrounds • Of different ethnic/cultural backgrounds • Not of migrant backgrounds • Of different socio-economic backgrounds **Child (and parents) has good relationships with teachers and other school personnel** • Child (or parents) feel they can ask for support/assistance/ information	**Child has friends, and in particular friends at school and at neighbourhood** (school or/and local aggregation) **Child (and parents) has good relationships with teachers and other school personnel** (school or/and local aggregation) **Child (or parents) have social links with** (school or/and local aggregation) **Presence of cultural/individual conflict at school and neighbourhood** (school or/and local level) • Prejudices and stereotypes, negative attitudes • Bullying	**Child has friends, and in particular friends at school and at neighbourhood** (school or/and local aggregation) **Child (and parents) has good relationships with teachers and other school personnel** (school or/and local aggregation) **Child (or parents) have social links with** (school or/and local aggregation) **Presence of cultural/individual conflict at school and neighbourhood** (regional or/and national level) • Prejudices and stereotypes, negative attitudes • Bullying **MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries**

		Child (or parents) have social links with • Mainstream society institutions (administration, churches, associations) • Minority/migrant institutions (associations, churches…)		**indicators on:** • Reports of discrimination by National Equality Body • Experiences of Discrimination (Eurobarometer)
	Barriers & facilitators	INDIVIDUAL FACTORS Age at arrival Years in destination Language skills SITUATIONAL FACTORS Family's socio-economic status Family's cultural dissonance	SITUATIONAL FACTORS Negative attitudes towards migration • Economically depressed neighbourhoods, low-skilled population • Conformity discrimination (perceptions of others' negative attitudes) **Presence of other children of similar ethnic/cultural backgrounds at school and neighbourhood** **Integrative/inclusive climate at school** **(as above)**	SITUATIONAL FACTORS Perceptions of migration as economic threat • Economically depressed areas • Economic crisis • Low-skilled population

EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS DIMENSION				
		MICRO (child, family)	***MESO (school, neighbourhood, centres)***	***MACRO (national, regional)***
	OUTCOMES	***Child's academic skills*** *Survey data (subjective assessment by child or/and teacher; objective tests) E.g. PISA scores* ***Child's educational level vs highest available for his/her age*** • *Incorporation levels* • *Repetition* ***(15-18 year-old children) Still in education:*** • *Formal* • *Non-formal*	***Children's academic skills*** *(school or/and local level)*	***Children's academic skills*** *(regional or/and national level)* ***MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators on Education:*** • *Low Achievers: PISA math scores gap, controlling by low-achieving mothers (only 15-year olds)* ***Drop-out rates after compulsory schools*** ***Enrolment rates in tertiary education*** ***Enrolment rates in upper secondary or post-secondary education*** ***(16-19, UAMs) Enrolment in informal education***
	Barriers & facilitators	*INDIVIDUAL FACTORS* *Age and gender* *Age at arrival and previous school* *Years in destination* *Cognitive abilities* *Language skills* ***Child's educational aspirations*** *Working / has worked* *Housework / care responsibilities*	*SITUATIONAL FACTORS* ***Disadvantaged schools:*** • *Socio-economic status of students attending* • *Presence of diversity (migrant background, ethnicity, languages; disabilities and learning difficulties)* *Segregation Index of Gorard (#*	*SITUATIONAL FACTORS* ***School segregation*** *Segregation Index of Gorard (# disadvantaged students / # total population) within regions and national level* ***Targeted resources for school budgets according to:*** • *Disadvantaged schools*

		Legal status (asylum-seekers, irregular migrants, unaccompanied minors) *SITUATIONAL FACTORS* *Absence of parents* *Cohesive family* *Language spoken at home* ***Parents:*** • ***Socio-economic status*** • *Financial and job situation (need for children to work)* • ***Educational level*** • ***Educational aspirations*** *(risk aversion, probability of success, and socio-economic resources)* • ***School involvement*** *(mediated by language skills)* *Survey data* *E.g. PISA – ESCS (Economic, Social and Cultural Status) Index, calculated from three factors: parents' educational level and occupation; domestic resources; number of books at home*	*disadvantaged students / # total population)* *Resources to provide support for teachers and school organization (including additional and specialized staff)* ***Criteria for incorporation to educational levels*** • *Age and language* • *Previous education* • *Academic skills* ***Teachers' training and specific materials*** *for intercultural and multilingual schools and classrooms* ***Specific learning support:*** • ***Preparatory classes*** *(duration; opportunities to interact with mainstream classes)* • ***Learning (and language) support upon incorporation to mainstream classes*** *(duration)* • ***Differentiated teaching*** *(teacher providing the majority of instruction and a special education teacher providing*	• *Migration status in school budgets* ***Financing, provision or support of:*** • *Materials on intercultural and multilingual schools and classrooms* • *Teachers' trainings* ***Systematic school assessment in place, including migration status*** ***Criteria for incorporation to educational levels*** • *Age and language* • *Academic skills* • *Previous education* *MIPEX policy indicators on* ***Education Access:*** • *Assessment of prior learning* ***Regulations/recommendations for:*** • ***Preparatory classes*** *(duration; opportunities to interact with mainstream classes)* • ***Specific learning support****: particular classes and learning*

			support) • **Individualised or group-based learning support** (e.g. mentoring programs) • **Extra-curricular activities** **available / after-class learning centres** **Separation of students by performance level** **School's personnel:** • Low expectations / stereotypes among teachers towards minority/migrant/low socio- economic background children • Orientation and motivation for all students to achieve **School's students:** • Students' beliefs that negative stereotypes exist **Parents** (school and local aggregation)	support in mainstream classes • **Promotion of extra-curricular activities** for migrant students (as well as other students with special needs or socially disadvantaged) MIPEX policy indicators on **Education Targeting Needs:** • Educational guidance at all levels • Provision of support to learn language of instruction (average): a. Language instruction; b. Communicative/academic fluency; c. Language instruction standards • Migrant pupil monitoring • Measures to address educational situation of migrant groups • Teacher training to reflect migrants' learning needs **Education New Opportunities**: • Support for teaching immigrant languages (average): a. Option to learn immigrant languages; b.

				Delivery of immigrant languages • Support for teaching immigrant cultures (average): a. Option to learn immigrant cultures; b. Delivery of immigrant cultures • Measures to counter segregation of migrant pupils and promote integration • Measures to support migrant parents and communities • Measures to bring migrants into the teacher workforce **Use of early tracking (primary school or transition to secondary):** • Age at which this happens • Evaluation criteria (assessments) • Access limitations to education post-compulsory age **Scholarships and benefits available** • Early childhood • Upper secondary/post-secondary studies • Tertiary studies **Parents** (regional and/or national aggregation) PISA – ESCS (Economic, Social and Cultural Status) Index, calculated from three factors: parents' educational level and occupation; domestic resources; number of books at home

Appendix 2. Mapping of existing indicators for IMMERSE countries

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	LEGAL DIMENSION								
Legal status	**Child's legal status**	SURVEY / REGISTER DATA	**Children's legal status**				**Children's legal status**		Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators FULL POPULATION, NOT ONLY CHILDREN * **Long-term residents** among all non-EU citizens (%) holding residence permits on 31 December (BY: COUNTRY OF CITIZENSHIP) * **Residents who acquired citizenship** as a share of resident non-citizens (%) (ALL; NON-EU; EU)
									MIPEX. Outcome/beneficiaries indicators (from other sources) FULL POPULATION, NOT ONLY CHILDREN **Nationality** • Annual number of naturalised TCN (Eurostat-Migration Statistics) • Non-naturalised TCN eligible for naturalisation by generational status (EU-LFS) • Naturalisation rate by gender: #persons who acquired citizenship / stock of TCN residents at beginning of year, by gender (Eurostat - Migration Statistics) • Dissimilarity Index on Naturalisation by age, gender and previous citizenship **Permanent residence** • # Permanent residents (Eurostat- Migration Statistics) • TCN eligible (5 years residence) for Permanent residence permit (EU-LFS) • Share of TCN who acquired Permanent residence

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
									MIPEX. Outcome/beneficiaries indicators (from other sources) FULL POPULATION, NOT ONLY CHILDREN **Nationality** • Annual number of naturalised TCN (Eurostat- Migration Statistics) • Non-naturalised TCN eligible for naturalisation by generational status (EU-LFS) • Naturalisation rate by gender: #persons who acquired citizenship / stock of TCN residents at beginning of year, by gender (Eurostat - Migration Statistics) • Dissimilarity Index on Naturalisation by age, gender and previous citizenship **Permanent residence** • # Permanent residents (Eurostat- Migration Statistics) • TCN eligible (5 years residence) for Permanent residence permit (EU-LFS) • Share of TCN who acquired Permanent residence permits (Eurostat- Migration Statistics) • Dissimilarity Index on Permanent Residence by
	Child has access to superior legal statuses: citizenship as corollary		Children has access to superior legal statuses: citizenship as corollary				Children has access to superior legal statuses: citizenship as corollary		
							(Political / civic engagement)		MIPEX. Outcome/beneficiaries indicators (from other sources)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
									ESS (15+) * How much would you say the political system in [country] allows people like you to have a say in what the government does? * ow much would you say that the political system in [country] allows people like you to have an influence on politics? * How able do you think you are to take an active role in a group involved with political issues?
	Country of origin	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Country of origin/birth (child, mother, father, grand parents)	Country of origin	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Country of origin/birth (child, mother, father, grand parents)			Country of origin	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Country of origin/birth (child, mother, father, grand parents)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Country of origin/birth (child, mother, father, grand parents)
									Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY_FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU)
	Circumstances of arrival		Circumstances of arrival				Circumstances of arrival		
	Family socio-economic status		Family socio-economic status				Family socio-economic status		
							Legislation and practice conditioning legal status at entry (or birth) and acquisition of superior legal statuses		MIPEX policy indicators **Access to permanent residence (general, not child-specific)** * Eligibility 80. Residence period 81. Permits considered 82. Time counted as pupil/student

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
							Legislation and practice conditioning legal status at entry (or birth) and acquisition of superior legal statuses		MIPEX policy indicators **Access to permanent residence (general, not child-specific)** * Eligibility 80. Residence period 81. Permits considered 82. Time counted as pupil/student 83. Periodsof prior-absence allowed * Conditions for acquisition of status 84a-g. Language requirements 85. Economic resources 86. Costs of application * Security of status 87. Maximum duration of procedure 88. Duration of validity of permit 89. Renewable permit 90. Periods of absence allowed 91. Grounds for rejection, withdrawal, refusal 92. Personal circumstances considered before expulsion 93. Expulsion precluded 94. Legal protection
									MIPEX policy indicators **Access to nationality (general, not child-specific)** * Eligibility 98. Residence period 99. Permits considered 100. Periods of prior-absence allowed

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
									MIPEX. Outcome/beneficiaries indicators (from other sources) Political Participation (ONLY ADULTS) * ENFRANCHISED vs DISENFRANCHISED (EU-LFS) - Share of non-EU born +18 who are naturalised - Share of non-EU born TCN +18 with eligibility to practice TCN voting rights - Share of non-EU foreign-born 18+ TCN population who do not meet national conditions to practice local
Access to education	**Child has access to compulsory education**	PISA * schooling availabilty to students in your location	**Children without access to formal education**				**Children without access to formal education**		
	Child in compulsory education in		**Children in compulsory education in non-**				**Children in compulsory education in non-**		
	Child has access to non-compulsory education		**Children without access to non-compulsory education**				**Children without access to non-compulsory education**		OECD Child Wellbeing Database ALL children * Children aged 0-2: % in formal ECEC services (EU-SILC for GR, IT, and OECD-EducationataGlance for rest) - (Few data for BE, DE, ES, IE) * Children aged 3-5: % in early childhood education and care (ISCED 2011 level 0) or primary education (OECD-EducationataGlance) * children aged 6-11: % in formal centre-based out-of-school-hours care services (EU-SILC)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	Child has access to non-compulsory education		**Children without access to non-compulsory education**				**Children without access to non-compulsory education**		OECD Child Wellbeing Database ALL children * Children aged 0-2: % in formal ECEC services (EU-SILC for GR, IT, and OECD-EducationataGlance for rest) - (Few data for BE, DE, ES, IE) * Children aged 3-5: % in early childhood education and care (ISCED 2011 level 0) or primary education (OECD-EducationataGlance) * children aged 6-11: % in formal centre-based out-of-school-hours care services (EU-SILC)
									MIPEX policies indicators: Labour Market mobility * Access to general support **(Can legal migrant workers and their families improve their skills and qualifications like nationals?)** 6. Public employment services (What categories of foreign residents have equal access? Permanent / temporary / family reunion permits) 7. **Higher educational and vocational training** (What categories of foreign residents have equal access? Permanent / temporary / family
	Child in non-compulsory education in non-formal setting		**Children in non-compulsory education in non-formal setting**				**Children in non-compulsory education in non-formal setting**		

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	Child in non-compulsory education in non-formal setting		**Children in non-compulsory education in non-formal setting**				**Children in non-compulsory education in non-formal setting**		
	Age		Age distribution				Age distribution		
	Age at arrival	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * After o before 12 yo * Age of arrival (continuum from 0 to 16 yo)	Age at arrival distribution	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * After o before 12 yo * Age of arrival (continuum from 0 to 16 yo)			Age at arrival distribution	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * After o before 12 yo * Age of arrival (continuum from 0 to 16 yo)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * After o before 12 yo * Age of arrival (continuum from 0 to 16 yo)
	Previous education and country of education (e.g. availability of documentation)		Previous education and country of education (e.g. availability of documentation)						
	Language skills		Language skills						
	Family socio-		Families' socio-				Families' socio-		

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	Family socio-economic status		Families' socio-economic status				Families' socio-economic status		
							Legislation and practice conditioning access to compulsory education		MIPEX policy indicators Education Acces (Do all children, with or without a legal status, have equal access to all levels of education?) **45. Compulsory education as legal right** (Access is a legal right for all compulsory-age children in the country, regardless of their residence status (includes undocumented)) **44. Support to access pre-primary and compulsory education** (a. State-supported targeted measures (e.g. financial support, campaigns and other means) to increase participation of migrant pupils / b. Targeted measures to increase migrant pupils' successful completion of compulsory education (e.g. early school leaving/second chance programs))
							Legislation and practice conditioning access to non-compulsory education		MIPEX policy indicators Education Acces (Do all children, with or without a legal status, have equal access to all levels of education?) 44. **Support to access pre-primary** and compulsory education (a. State-supported targeted measures (e.g. financial support, campaigns and other means) to increase participation of migrant pupils / b. Targeted measures to increase migrant

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
							* **Undocumented / UAMs / asylum-seekers: Limitations in law or practice to access to education** (age determination, status		
							Legislation and practice conditioning recognition of degrees and effective education		MIPEX policies indicators: Labour Market mobility 9. Recognition of academic qualifications (same procedure as nationals?) 10. Recognition of professional qualifications (same procedure as nationals?) 11. Validation of skills (same procedure as nationals?)
							Scholarships and benefits available		MIPEX policies indicators: Labour Market mobility * Access to general support **(Can legal migrant workers and their families improve their skills and qualifications like nationals?)** 8. Study grants (What categories of foreign residents have equal access? Permanent / temporary / family reunion permits)
							* Early childhood		
							* Upper secondary/post-secondary studies		
							* Tertiary studies		

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
Access to other rights	**Child has access to health care**		**Children without access to health care**				**Children without access to health care**		Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) POP 16+; SEX Health care * Self-reported unmet needs for medical examination (%) (main reason declared: TOO EXPENSIVE; FEAR; +) * Self-reported unmet needs for dental examination (%) (main reason declared: TOO EXPENSIVE; FEAR; +)
									PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) (ESS) * Satisfaction with education and health services among young individuals
	Child has access to basic material needs	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Skipping meals	**Children have access to basic material needs**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Skipping meals			**Children have access to basic material needs**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Skipping meals	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Skipping meals
									Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) Living conditions POP 18+ * Distribution of POP by tenure status (owner-rent) POP 18+; 16-29; SEX *Housing cost overburden (%) *Overcrowding rate (%)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
									Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) Living conditions POP 18+ * Distribution of POP by tenure status (owner-rent) POP 18+; 16-29; SEX *Housing cost overburden (%) *Overcrowding rate (%) *People living in households with very low work intensity (%) Material deprivation POP 18+; 16-19/24/29; SEX * Severe material deprivation rate (%) * Material and social deprivation rate (%) - ALMOST
									OECD Child Wellbeing Database **Income** ALL children (aged 0-17) * % living hhds with all adults working / some / no adults working (EU-LFS) ALL children (aged 0-14) * Average disposable household income, 0-17 year-olds (2010 USD PPP) (OECD IDD database) **Children's basic material needs** ALL children (1-15) * % in hhds where at least one child 1-5 deprived of basic nutrition (EU-SILC)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	Age		Age distribution				Age distribution		
	Family socio-economic status		Families' socio-economic status				Families' socio-economic status		
			Available resources (legal assistance)				Available resources (legal assistance)		MIPEX policy indicators **Anti-discrimination** * Definitions and concepts (Are all residents protected from racial, ethnic, religious, and nationality discrimination?) 117. Law covers direct/indirect discrimination, harassment, instruction 118. Law covers discrimination by association & on the basis of assumed characteristics 119. Law applies to natural& legal persons 120. Law applies to public sector 121. Prohibitions in law 122. Law covers multiple discrimination * Enforcement mechanisms 128. Procedures available for victims 129. Shift in burden of proof in procedures 130. Law accepts situation testing & statistical data 131. Protection against victimisation 132. State assistance for victims 133. Role of legal entities in proceedings 134. Range of legal actions
			Practice in local health care conditioning acce ss to health care				**Legislation and practice conditioning access to health care**		MIPEX policy indicators **Health** * *Entitlement to Health Services* 145. Health entitlements for legal migrants

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
			Practice in local health care conditioning acce ss to health care				**Legislation and practice conditioning access to health care**		MIPEX policy indicators **Health** * *Entitlement to Health Services* 145. Health entitlements for legal migrants 146. Health entitlements for asylum-seekers 147. Health entitlements for undocumented migrants 148. Administrative discretion and documentation for legal migrants 149. Administrative discretion and documentation for asylum-seekers 150. Administrative discretion and documentation for undocumented migrants * *Policies to facilitate access* 151. Information for service providers about migrants' entitlements 152. Information for migrants concerning entitlements and use of health services 153. Information for migrants concerning health education and promotion 154. Provision of 'cultural mediators' or 'patient navigators' to facilitate access for migrants 155. Obligation and sanctions for assisting
			Supplementary community services for health care – supplementing lack of access or fear to access formal services (unauthorized						

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
							Legislation and practice conditioning access to other basic rights (e.g. housing, benefits...)		MIPEX policy indicators **Rights associated with** WORKERS' RIGHTS (Do legal migrants have the same work and social security rights like EU nationals/nationals?) 18. Access to social security 19. Access to housing 20. Working conditions FAMILY REUNION (Do family members have the same residence and socio-economic rights as their sponsor?) 40 Access to education and training 41 Access to employment and self-employment 42 Access to social benefits 43 Access to housing PERMANENT RESIDENCE (Do long-term residents have the same residence and socio-economic rights (e.g. like EU nationals)?) 95. Access to employment 96. Access to social security and assistance 97. Access to housing
			Practice in local social services conditioning access to assistance and benefits						MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators Labour market mobility **- Uptake of unemployment benefits among unemployed**: share of the unemployed TCN population (aged 20 to 64) who report to be receiving out-of-work maintenance (by educatal levels: ISCED 0-2, 3-4, 5-6) (EU SILC)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
			Practice in local social services conditioning acce ss to assistance and benefits						MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators Labour market mobility **- Uptake of unemplogment benefits among unemploged**: share of the unemployed TCN population (aged 20 to 64) who report to be receiving out-of-work maintenance (by educatal levels: ISCED (0-2; 5-6) (EU-SILC)
			Supplementary community services for assistance and support – supplementing lack of access or fear to access formal services (unauthorized migrants)						
							(Public spending)		OECD Child Wellbeing Database Public spending on family benefits * Total / in cash / in services and in-kind / in tax breaks, in per cent of GDP (OECD Social Expenditure database, 1980-2017) * Average public spending on family benefits and education (primary and secondary) by age (0-5, 6-11, 12-17), as % of total public spending on family benefits and education for children aged 0-17 years (OECD Social Expenditure Database and OECD Education Database, 2003-2013)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENTS DIMENSION								
Educational achievement	**Child's academic skills**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Academic under-performance (student failed to attain at least proficiency Level 2 in all three core PISA subjects: science, reading and mathematics) * How informed is the child about environmental issues * ICT use	**Children's academic skills**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Academic under-performance (student failed to attain at least proficiency Level 2 in all three core PISA subjects: science, reading and mathematics) * How informed is the child about environmental issues * ICT use			**Children's academic skills**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Academic under-performance (student failed to attain at least proficiency Level 2 in all three core PISA subjects: science, reading and mathematics) * How informed is the child about environmental issues * ICT use	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Academic under-performance (student failed to attain at least proficiency Level 2 in all three core PISA subjects: science, reading and mathematics) * How informed is the child about environmental issues * ICT use
									MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators Education 15 YO students: • Low achievers: rate of 15-year-olds with low educated mothers (ISCED 0-2) who do not attain mathematics proficiency Level 2 (PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)) • Low achievers gap: share TCN / share natives (PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives))
									OECD Child Wellbeing Database Educational performance 15 YO students: * Reading performance (PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives))

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	Child's educational level vs highest available for		**Child's educational level vs highest available for**				**Child's educational level vs highest available for**		
	* Incorporation levels	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Participation in pre-primary programmes (ISCED 0): How old were you when you started <ISCED 0>? * year of incorporation to ISCED 1 (primary)	* Incorporation levels	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Participation in pre-primary programmes (ISCED 0): How old were you when you started <ISCED 0>? * year of incorporation to ISCED 1 (primary)			* Incorporation levels	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Participation in pre-primary programmes (ISCED 0): How old were you when you started <ISCED 0>? * year of incorporation to ISCED 1 (primary)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Participation in pre-primary programmes (ISCED 0): How old were you when you started <ISCED 0>? * year of incorporation to ISCED 1 (primary)
	* Repetition	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Student has repeated a grade	* Repetition				* Repetition		
	* Educational level attainment		* Educational level attainment				* Educational level attainment	Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) ; NUTS 2 POP 15+ ; SEX Pop by educational attainment (%) (ISCED 0-2 lower second; 3-4 non-tertiary; 5-8 Tertiary)	Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) POP 15+ ; SEX Pop by educational attainment (%) (ISCED 0-2 lower second; 3-4 non-tertiary; 5-8 Tertiary)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	(15-18 gear-old children) Still in * formal education * informal		**(15-18 gear-old children) Still in * formal education * informal**				**(15-18 gear-old children) Still in * formal education * informal education**		
							Drop-out rates after compulsory schools / early leavers	Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) POP 15-17/18/24/29/34; 18-24; +; SEX * Young people neither in employment nor in education (NEET rates) (%) * Young people neither in employment nor in education (NEET rates) (%) by degree of urbanisation (cities; towns-suburbs; rural areas; unknown)	Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) POP 18-24; SEX Early leavers from education and training (%) (all, employed, not employed) POP 15-17/18/24/29/34; 18-24; +; SEX * Young people neither in employment nor in education (NEET rates) (%) * Young people neither in employment nor in education (NEET rates) (%) by degree of urbanisation (cities; towns-suburbs; rural areas; unknown)
			Enrolment rates				**Enrolment rates in:**		
			* Pre-primary education				* Pre-primary education		
			* Primary education				* Primary education		
			* Lower/Upper secondary education				* Lower/Upper secondary education		MIPEX outcome/beneficiaries indicators: Education topic

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	Language skills		Language skills						
	Absenteeism	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Truancy * Being late	**Absenteeism**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) (truancy) * Truancy rates * Being late			**Absenteeism**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) (truancy) * Truancy rates * Beeing late	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) (truancy) * Truancy rates * Beeing late
	Child's educational aspirations	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Achievement motivation *Expects to earn a a university degree *Expectst to work as managers, professionals or associate professionals (Ambitious career expectations) * Students with ambitious but realistic educational expectations * Expectation to complete only lower secondary education * Attitude and interest towards science	**Child's educational aspirations**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Achievement motivation * % immigrant students who expect to earn a a university degree * % immigrant students who expect to work as managers, professionals or associate professionals (Ambitious career expectations) * Students with ambitious but realistic educational expectations * Expectation to complete only lower secondary education * Attitude and interest towards			**Child's educational aspirations**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Achievement motivation * % immigrant students who expect to earn a a university degree * % immigrant students who expect to work as managers, professionals or associate professionals (Ambitious career expectations) * Students with ambitious but realistic educational expectations * Expectation to complete only lower secondary education * Attitude and interest towards science	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Achievement motivation * % immigrant students who expect to earn a a university degree * % immigrant students who expect to work as managers, professionals or associate professionals (Ambitious career expectations) * Students with ambitious but realistic educational expectations * Expectation to complete only lower secondary education * Attitude and interest towards science
				TALIS Principal: * Q27f: Students desire to do well					OECD Child Wellbeing Database Educational attitudes and expectations (PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)) 15 YO students:

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
				TALIS Principal: * Q27f: Students desire to do well					OECD Child Wellbeing Database Educational attitudes and expectations (PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)) 15 YO students: * Adolescents who want top grades at school * Adolescents who feel anxious about school tests even when well-prepared * Adolescents who expect to complete a university degree
	Working / has worked	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Paid or unpaid work out of school	Working / has worked	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Paid or unpaid work out of school			Working / has worked	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Paid or unpaid work out of school	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Paid or unpaid work out of school
	Housework / care responsibilities	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Work in the household	Housework / care responsibilities	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Work in the household			Housework / care responsibilities	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Work in the household	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Work in the household
	Legal status (asylum-seekers, irregular migrants,		Legal status (asylum-seekers, irregular migrants,				Legal status (asylum-seekers, irregular migrants, unaccompanied minors)		
	Absence of parents		Absence of parents				Absence of parents		

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	Cohesive family	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * talk to parents	Cohesive family	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * talk to parents			Cohesive family	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * talk to parents	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * talk to parents
									OECD Child Wellbeing Database Parental time with children ALL ADULTS: (mothers / fathers) * Time spent on physical care and child supervision * Time spent teaching, reading, and playing with children (Harmonised European Time Use Survey web application, ONLY FOR BE, DE + Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Slovenia, and Sweden) Parent-child communication 15-YO students: * % who reported that they talked to their parents before or after school on the most recent day they attended school (PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)) * % whose parents reported spending time "just talking to my child" every day or almost every day (PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)) (BE Flanders, DE, ES, IE, IT)
	Language spoken at home								
	PARENTS':		**PARENTS':**				**PARENTS':**		
	*** Socio-economic**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)	*** Socio-economic status**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)			*** Socio-economic status**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
	* **Socio-economic status**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * ESCS Index (Economic, Social and Cultural Status), calculated from three factors: a.parents' educational level and occupation b. domestic resources c. number of books at home * Index of household resoures (HOMEPOS) * Household income (parents questionnaire)	* **Socio-economic status**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * ESCS Index (Economic, Social and Cultural Status), calculated from three factors: a.parents' educational level and occupation b. domestic resources c. number of books at home * Index of household resoures (HOMEPOS) * Household income (parents questionnaire)			* **Socio-economic status**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * ESCS Index (Economic, Social and Cultural Status), calculated from three factors: a.parents' educational level and occupation b. domestic resources c. number of books at home * Index of household resoures (HOMEPOS) * Household income (parents questionnaire)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * ESCS Index (Economic, Social and Cultural Status), calculated from three factors: a.parents' educational level and occupation b. domestic resources c. number of books at home * Index of household resoures (HOMEPOS) * Household income (parents questionnaire)
									Eurostat-ZARAGOZA indicators BY: FOREIGN/FBORN (ref.country/EU) Income distribution and monetary poverty POP 18+; SEX *Mean and median income *At-risk-of-poverty rate (%) (& 16-29) *In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate (%) (& 16-29) POP 18+ * (Europe 2020 poverty) combinations of "At risk of poverty"/"severely materially deprived"/ "living in hhd with low work intensity" (%) POP 18+; 16-19/24/29; SEX * People at risk of poverty or social exclusion (%)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
			Disadvantaged schools by:	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School climate (disciplinary climate) * Public or private school * Kind of organisation running the school * school assessment * quality assurance			**School segregation**	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School climate (disciplinary climate) * Public or private school * Kind of organisation running the school * school assessment * quality assurance	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School climate (disciplinary climate) * Public or private school * Kind of organisation running the school * school assessment * quality assurance
				TALIS Principal: * Q10: School location * Q11: Funding * Q12: Public/private * Q8, Q29, School needs (staff, materiales, spaces, training...)					MIPEX policy indicators * New Opportunities **57. Measures to counter segregation of migrants** a. Measures to encourage schools with few migrant pupils to attract more migrant pupils and schools with many to attract more non-migrant pupils; b. Measures to link schools with few migrant pupils and many migrant pupils (curricular or extra-curricular)
			* Socio-economic status of students attending	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School Socio-economic profile (school average ESCS) --- Segregation Index of Gorard (# disadvantaged students / # total population) (SAVE THE CHILDREN SPA) * * Estimation of students				PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School Socio-economic profile (school average ESCS) --- Segregation Index of Gorard (# disadvantaged students / # total population) (SAVE THE CHILDREN SPA)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School Socio-economic profile (school average ESCS) --- Segregation Index of Gorard (# disadvantaged students / # total population) (SAVE THE CHILDREN SPA)

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
			* Socio-economic status of students attending	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School Socio-economic profile (school average ESCS) --- Segregation Index of Gorard (# disadvantaged students / # total population) (SAVE THE CHILDREN SPA) ** Estimation of students from socioeconomically desadvantaged homers (school questionnaire)				PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School Socio-economic profile (school average ESCS) --- Segregation Index of Gorard (# disadvantaged students / # total population) (SAVE THE CHILDREN SPA)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * School Socio-economic profile (school average ESCS) --- Segregation Index of Gorard (# disadvantaged students / # total population) (SAVE THE CHILDREN SPA)
				TALIS Principal: * Q17c: % Students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes TALIS teachers: * Q35e: % Students from socio-economically disadvantaged homes					
			* Presence of diversity (migrant background, ethnicity, languages; disabilities and learning difficulties)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Concentration of students with an immigrant background in schools / in urban schools				PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Concentration of students with an immigrant background in schools / in urban schools (communities of more than 100 000 people)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Concentration of students with an immigrant background in schools / in urban schools (communities of more than 100 000 people) * Estimation of students with special needs (school

Level of aggregation/ observation	MICRO	Child & family	MESO	School/centres	Neighbourhood	Local (municipality...)	MACRO	Regional	National
			* Presence of diversity (migrant background, ethnicity, languages; disabilities and learning difficulties)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Concentration of students with an immigrant background in schools / in urban schools (communities of more than 100 000 people) * Estimation of students with special needs (school questionnaire)				PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Concentration of students with an immigrant background in schools / in urban schools (communities of more than 100 000 people) * Estimation of students with special needs (school questionnaire)	PISA (15-yo; 1st, 2nd gen, natives) * Concentration of students with an immigrant background in schools / in urban schools (communities of more than 100 000 people) * Estimation of students with special needs (school questionnaire)
				TALIS Principal: * Q17a: Students whose first language is different from the language of instruction *Q17b: % Students with special needs * Q17d: %Students who are migrant or with migrant backgorund *Q17e: % Students who are refugees TALIS Teachers: * Q14: n° special needs students *Q35a: % Students whose first language is different from the language of instruction			**Targeted resources for school budgets according to:**		

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