

# **Evaluating approaches to EAL newcomer support: protocol for a systematic review.**

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## **Abstract**

### **Background**

There has been an influx of students in the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, and Ireland who arrive in the country without adequate English skills to fully participate in school. Governments and schools utilised a variety of methods to cater to these newcomer students. Across the aforementioned countries, numerous different approaches to English as an Additional Language (EAL) provision. These can be best categorised as placing newcomers in the mainstream classes (mainstreaming model) or withdrawing them for separate, isolated provision (withdrawal model). Research is lacking on the relative effectiveness of these two different models of newcomer EAL provision.

### **Objectives**

This systematic review seeks to uncover the nature and extent of research on newcomer EAL provision in the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, and Ireland. It aims to provide commentary on the relative effectiveness of different approaches and to determine whether policies aimed at newcomers are supported by solid evidence.

### **Methods**

This review uses a best-evidence, systematic review approach to answer the research questions. The search string identified 3,332 records. Using pre-defined inclusion and exclusion criteria the studies were screened for suitability. I evaluated the trustworthiness of each study based on study design and reporting practices.

### **Results**

The review found 15 eligible studies, with six in each of Australia and the United Kingdom, two in Ireland and a solitary study conducted in Canada. Qualitative data was reported in each study, so a narrative synthesis was used. Researchers primarily conducted ethnographic studies to investigate how mainstreaming and withdrawal impacted newcomers and their emotional, social, and academic development. No records had a study design that was able to directly assess effectiveness of approaches, with comparisons between the two models non-existent. From observations and interviews with EAL stakeholders, researchers reported positive and negative aspects of both mainstreaming and withdrawal approaches. Mainstreaming was

predominantly found to be exclusionary and academically unhelpful for newcomer students. Conversely, withdrawal approaches offered some tangible benefits for newly arrived students.

### **Implications**

For researchers, this study shed a light on the lack of solid evidence which had empirically assessed the efficacy of approaches to newcomer EAL provision. Further research is desperately needed in this field as the current state of the field has resulted in nebulous, fragmentary, and inconsistent. With regards to policy, governments have not listened to the little evidence that does exist and instead have made policies in reaction to social movements that have little evidence to support them. The implications for policy makers and practitioners are therefore clear: re-evaluate current approaches to EAL provision and follow research suggestions as to the most effective model.

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## Abbreviations

**CPD:** Continuing Professional Development

**EAL:** English as an Additional Language

**ELC:** English Language Centre

**EU:** European Union

**IDESR:** International Database of Educational Systematic Review

**IELC:** Intensive English Language Centre

**IELP:** Intensive English Language Program

**ITE:** Initial Teacher Education

**LA:** Local Authorities

**MMAT:** Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool

**NAP:** New Arrivals Program

**NESB:** Non-English-speaking-background

**OFSTED:** Office for Standards in Education

**PICO:** Participants, Intervention, Comparison, Outcome

**RCT:** Randomised Controlled Trials

**RLSU:** Refugee Language Support Unit

**ROB:** Risk of bias

**TESOL:** Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 Background

The United Kingdom has undergone substantial demographic change in the last two decades, with the proportion of school students who speak at least one language in addition to English increasing from 16% in 2008 to 33% in 2018 (Department for Education, 2019). In the United Kingdom, the term English as an Additional Language (EAL) is applied to these students who are exposed to a language other than English at home. Similar proportions of EAL students are reported in Ireland (Central Statistics Office, 2008), Canada (Alberta Education, 2017), and Australia (Block et al., 2014). A large number of these EAL students are recently-arrived in the country and lack sufficient command of English to participate fully in school (Evans & Liu, 2018). These students who arrive in a country without adequate English ability are known as *newcomers* (see section 2.1 for a precise definition). Schools face tremendous challenges to adapt their teaching practices to cater to an increasing population of vulnerable students who must deal with the dual demands of learning language and curriculum simultaneously (Curdt-Christiansen, 2020).

To date, numerous models of EAL provision for newcomers have been put forward, ranging from fully integrating newcomers in mainstream classrooms, to isolating them from their mainstream non-EAL peers. Stemming from a desire to decrease exclusion for newcomers, the preferred model utilised in the United Kingdom is that of mainstreaming, where EAL students are assigned to a classroom with non-EAL peers with minimal support (Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). This inclusive approach allows students to be fully integrated with their classmates. Conversely, Australia employs withdrawal approaches, with students taken out of mainstream classes to receive additional EAL support (Leung, 2016). The diffused nature of Canada's education system allows for individual provinces to decide the nature of support for newcomers (Guo, 2021a).

## 1.2 Rationale and objectives

Catering to a diverse school population with complex English language needs is at the forefront of practitioners' minds in the United Kingdom. A 2021 EAL Priority Setting Partnership (Chalmers et al., 2021) between researchers and EAL teachers across the United Kingdom established top research priorities for EAL practitioners. One of the most important issues

unearthed was the need for EAL specialists to understand which approaches to schooling newcomers was most effective. This dissertation adopts a systematic review approach to assess the nature and extent of evidence on newcomer provision, and the relative effectiveness of mainstream versus withdrawal approaches to provision. It is therefore responding to the demands of practitioners and attempting to uncover evidence that will inform praxis. This review focuses on research conducted within the United Kingdom, as well as Australia, Canada and Ireland to provide a point of comparison between English-speaking countries. Australia and Canada were chosen for comparisons as, like the United Kingdom, they have a decentralised system of government where individual states or provinces have decision-making power concerning education provision (Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). Ireland's inclusion in this review was justified on the basis of having undergone similar demographic change to the United Kingdom, and similarly utilises mainstreaming approaches to newcomers (see section 2.4.4; Fanning, 2002).

### **1.3 Outline**

In Chapter 2 of this dissertation, the term *newcomer* is defined, the problems newcomers face are summarised, and the differing approaches to EAL provision in the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and Ireland are articulated. Chapter 2 provides the justification for this review by comparing how advice for newcomer EAL provision aligns with research. Chapter 3 outlines the methodology of the review, while Chapter 4 describes the findings from the studies identified in the review process. Chapter 5 provides answers to the specific research questions of this review and discusses the implications of the findings before offering recommendations for future research into newcomer EAL provision.

## **Chapter 2. Background and rationale**

This chapter provides the background and rationale for the current systematic review. The purpose of this chapter is to uncover what the dominant approaches to EAL newcomer provision are and what reasons underscore differing approaches. It begins by defining newcomer students and the help that they need. The chapter shows that newcomer students face social, emotional, and academic issues stemming from insufficient English language skills. It then outlines the most common approaches to newcomer provision and the major policies in each of the major jurisdictions under examination. Finally, the chapter examines what advice is given to schools and teachers who deal with newcomers, and how that aligns with research.

Through analysis of policy documents in the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and Ireland a dichotomy was identified between two approaches to newcomer provision: mainstreaming, and withdrawal (see section 2.3 for definitions of these approaches).

### **2.1 Migration and linguistic newcomers**

In the last two decades, the United Kingdom has seen a substantial increase in the migrant population, from 5.3 million in 2004 to 9.5 million in 2019 (Migration Observatory at the University of Oxford, 2019). Following such a rise in migration, the number of pupils who speak at least one language other than English has similarly increased, from 16% in 2008 to 21.2% in 2018 (Department for Education, 2019). More than one million students in the United Kingdom are now classified as learning English as an Additional Language (EAL). Collectively this population speaks more than 360 languages (NALDIC, 2014). Similar immigration trends have been reported in the other jurisdictions of this review: Ireland (Central Statistics Office, 2008; Murtagh & Francis, 2012); Canada (Alberta Education, 2017); and Australia (Block et al., 2014). Many of these migrants arrive and commence schooling in the country of arrival with limited English skills. As such, educational institutions are under increasing pressure and face numerous challenges in order to cater to this increasingly multilingual population in countries (with the exception of Canada) that are monolingual (Jones, 2015).

The term “EAL” is generally unhelpful and unapplicable when referring to newly arrived students with low English proficiency as it is inherently vague has a problematic definition.

For instance, the United Kingdom classifies a student as EAL if they are “exposed to a language at home that is known or believed to be other than English” (Department for Education, 2019). Therefore, a student who grew up bilingual and speaks English fluently and a student who had just arrived in the United Kingdom without knowing a word of English would both be classified as EAL in the United Kingdom. As such, clarification is needed for the term *newcomer* or *newly arrived* migrant students. Both terms will be used interchangeably in this dissertation as they have considerable overlap in educational dialogue. The terms themselves are context dependent and subjective as ‘newcomer’ is relative to time spent in one location. This makes the precise definition elusive and complex (Evans & Liu, 2018). In their comparative analysis of different EU approaches to integration and support for ‘newly arrived migrants’, the European Commission (2013) defines the term as any first generation migrant. The term *newcomer* is commonly used in the Canadian and American contexts and similarly refers to first generation migrants (Cummins et al., 2012; Cummins, 2014). However, these definitions make no distinction between migrants who have only arrived in the country of residence last week, and those who arrived years ago. The United Kingdom Office for Standards in Education distinguishes between *new arrivals* and “more advanced learners” as dependent on English competence and time spent in the country (Ofsted; 2013, p.4). This indicates that, at least at the policy level, there is a conceptual difference between students who have been in the country for an extended period of time as opposed to those whose length of residence is a comparatively short. Official documentation reflects such a distinction as “newly arrived pupils are usually given additional help in learning English by specialist teachers or by bilingual classroom assistants” (Department for Education, 2012, p.3).

This review uses the term *newcomer* in the sense of Collen (2022) to refer to a student who has been resident in the country for a short enough period of time such that they are unable to participate fully in the curriculum due to insufficient language skills, and does not share a language common language with their teacher.

## **2.2 What help do newcomers need?**

Having defined who newcomers are, this section overviews the problems that newcomers face in educational settings. The purpose of this section is to outline the emotional, social, and academic issues that face newcomers. Understanding the extent of the needs of newcomers is a pre-requisite for understanding the central issue this review seeks to address.

Newcomer students face numerous problems in educational settings and their social, emotional and academic needs must be met as they adapt to a new school, a new culture, and a new language all at once (Arnot & Pinson, 2005). Many of these issues can be traced back to key linguistic problems stemming from not speaking the language of the country of residence. Social barriers for newcomer students can be especially pronounced as language barriers hinder integration in the classroom (Pugh et al., 2012). In an ethnographic study, Chen (2009) found that newcomer students who are placed in the mainstream classroom feel serious isolation and are often withdrawn from their classmates, unable to participate in classes due to the dual demands of learning curriculum content and acquiring a new language. An earlier study by the same author found that newcomer students are often left out of class activities, further exacerbating social isolation stemming from linguistic difference (Chen, 2007). Emotionally this can lower the self-esteem of students (Gibbons, 2000), compound the effects of resettlement, and exacerbate mental health and emotional wellbeing problems (Correa-Velez et al., 2010). These issues can be especially pronounced for newcomer students from refugee backgrounds who may be dealing with emotional distress and trauma (Esquivel & Keitel, 1990; Rousseau et al., 1996).

Academically speaking, newcomer EAL students perform comparatively poorer than their non-EAL peers across a variety of subject areas (Gillborn & Gipps, 1996). Demie's (2018) analysis of aggregated data from the National Pupil Database, which matches pupil and school characteristics to pupil-level attainment, found that EAL pupils performed worse at Key Stage 2 in Reading, Writing and Maths compared to their non-EAL peers. However, some are able to catch up at later stages of schooling, taking up to five years to reach comparable levels of proficiency (Strand et al., 2015; Strand & Lindorff, 2021). In the Australian context, the Refugee Status Report published by the Victorian Department of Education and Early Childhood Development (Paxton et al., 2011) indicated that students who have recently arrived as refugees score below national minimum standards for reading, writing, and numeracy at every year level. Darmody et al (2014) notes that migrant students in Ireland face numerous educational barriers which impact their ability to succeed in school and harms their later-life prospects. Meanwhile, in Canada, inadequate support for EAL students contributes to an EAL dropout rate of 74% in some areas (Watt & Roessingh, 2001), with a final year completion rate of 25% to 40% for EAL students compared to the provincial average of 73% for all students (Guo, 2021b). Taken in their totality, these studies paint a grim picture of the academic

outcomes for newcomer students if the most effective approaches cannot be determined soon. This review seeks to determine which approaches to educating newcomers are most effective at dealing with the social, emotional, and academic issues they face.

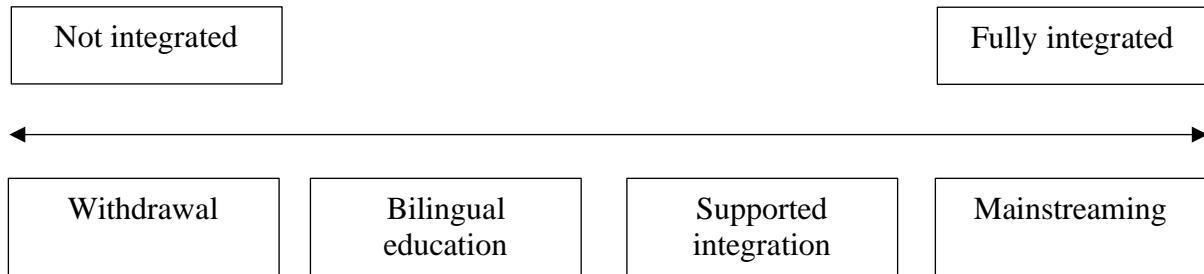
### **2.3 Common models of newcomer provision**

As far as newcomer EAL provision is concerned, there are four predominant approaches to teaching each with varying levels of support. The first approach is *mainstreaming* of students - also known as *sink or swim* - where newcomers students are assigned to a regular class with their non-EAL peers with limited support (Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). In a mainstream classroom, EAL newcomers are held to the same requirements of English proficient peers, despite the fact this is a new context and new curriculum (Leung et al., 2021). Mainstreaming can be difficult for the students who may struggle to adapt to the power dynamics of the new classroom (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). At the opposite end of the spectrum is the *withdrawal* approach. Students are either assigned to a mainstream classroom and receive additional help in pull-out sessions, or do not participate in the mainstream classes and receive additional EAL assistance away from their mainstream peers. Withdrawal classes were most popular in the United Kingdom in the 1970s however accusations of racial inequality and segregation led to their discontinuation (Leung, 2016).

Elsewhere shift is taking place away from withdrawal programs and towards *supported integration* where the child remains in the mainstream classroom but receives additional assistance from a language support teacher who is trained in EAL (Verma et al., 1995; Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). Funding restrictions on EAL provision in the United Kingdom have meant that supported integration and mainstreaming are the dominant approaches, with a collaboration between the mainstream teacher and a language assistant commonplace (Leung, 2016). A final approach is the *bilingual education* approach where the mother tongue of newcomers is used for instruction. Bilingual education models are often employed where there are critical masses of newcomers who represent the same language and are the same age (Zacarian, 2011). Figure 2.1 represents the main approaches as a cline from 'not integrated' to 'fully integrated'. The subsequent sections of this chapter identify a dichotomy between withdrawal and mainstreaming as the preferred approaches to newcomer provision in the United Kingdom, Canada, Ireland, and Australia. These approaches are diametrically opposed

to one another, and thus investigation is warranted into the evidence supporting these policy positions.

**Figure 2.1. Approaches to newcomer provision cline**



## 2.4 EAL policies

The following section provides a snapshot of newcomer EAL provision policies in the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, and Ireland. The purposes are as follows: 1) outline historic positions to newcomer provisions in the four nations, 2) indicate current policy of newcomer provision and, 3) where research has been conducted, discuss potential issues with contemporary provision.

### 2.4.1 United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has seen a significant arrival of migrants over the past two decades resulting in the number of students in schools from minority ethnic groups increasing to 33% of total school population. Currently 21.2% of the total student population now speak a language other than English at home (Department for Education, 2019). Despite this recent influx of migrants, EAL policy has been a recognised issue in British educational policy since at least the 1950s when migrant workers and their families from Commonwealth nations arrived needing to learn English (Leung et al., 2021). The British educational system is highly decentralised, with education the purview of local educational authorities (LEAs), and newcomer EAL provision the responsibility of individual schools themselves, acting in accordance with governmental guidance (Leung et al., 2021). Teachers have the responsibility of planning EAL provision, developing newcomers' English language, and providing the support that students need to participate in all subjects (Department for Education, 2014). The devolved polity of the United Kingdom means that Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales each have their own national/regional administrations which set policy concerning newcomers (Leung et al., 2021). Despite having decades to find a suitable response to EAL newcomer

needs, there has been a paucity of sufficient EAL curriculum and teacher training in the intervening 70 years (Costley, 2014).

Costley's (2014) chronicle of EAL policy has identified three broad phases in the United Kingdom: assimilation of EAL newcomers, withdrawal of EAL newcomers, and mainstreaming of EAL newcomers. From the 1950s to the 1970s, there was a steady increase in the number of students who did not have English as their mother tongue (Department of Education and Science, 1971), with classrooms and policymakers slow to react to the multilingual reality they were faced with in a predominantly monolingual society (Leung, 2016). This was due to perceptions that migrants would not be permanent residents and would eventually depart (Leung, 2016). However, for those migrants who wished to stay, an assimilationist mindset was adopted by policy makers. The expectation was that newly arrived students would perform well if they could 'become like us' (Levine, 1996, p.12) and develop sufficient English skills to engage with peers on the playground (Edwards, 1984, p.50). The Local Education Act of 1966 (HMSO, 1966) authorised funds to be used specifically for the needs of EAL students at the discretion of LEAs in order to help EALs overcome any disadvantages they may face due to language or culture (Safford & Drury, 2013). Combined with governmental advice on how best to educate language minority students, withdrawal became the de facto policy for newcomers. Government recommendations were to remove entirely, or reduce the numbers of EAL students in classes so that they could receive specialist EAL provision outside of the mainstream classroom (Derrick, 1977). This manifested in one of two ways. Either students would partake in regular classes with their non-EAL peers and attend specialist EAL classes at an alternative time (*partial withdrawal*), or they would be taught in separate school facilities or specialist language centres well away from their mainstream peers (Leung & Franson, 2001).

However, the era of withdrawal for newcomers was to be short-lived, due to the surrounding period of political and social upheaval. Set against a backdrop of increased awareness of racial inequality, the idea of segregating students based on language was met with fierce criticism and accusations of institutionalised racism (Leung, 2016). At the same time, the Bullock Report of 1975 (Department of Education and Science, 1975) investigated the usage of English in British schools and suggested that immigrant children should no longer be cut off from the normal social and educational setting of mainstream schools. Combined with the emerging calls for increased racial equality, the British government came under fire and convened the

Rampton and Swann committees to investigate racial and linguistic disadvantage in British schools (Costley, 2014). The recommendations of the Swann Report (Department of Education and Science, 1985) in conjunction with the findings of the Commission for Racial Equality (1986) led to a complete overhaul of the approach to EAL provision in schools by arguing passionately for the end of EAL withdrawal classes and the return of newcomers to the mainstream classroom. Students were now to be “educated in the mainstream classrooms alongside their peers to avoid segregated provision and guarantee equal access to the curriculum” (Harris & Leung, 2011, p.251).

This ushered in the current era of mainstreaming, where EAL students develop their English language skills across the curriculum. Separate EAL induction or withdrawal classes are to be avoided as far as possible, with an ethos of inclusion now guiding much of British educational policy (Leung et al., 2021). Ultimately, the policy of mainstreaming has now positioned all teachers as language specialists, who must deal with the competing demands of curriculum/subject specific knowledge as well as language development for their EAL students (Costley, 2014). This has considerable implications for teacher training and professional development. Despite EAL now considered a “generalist skill desired of all teachers” (Creese, 2004, p.190), EAL is not a specialisation available for teachers in the United Kingdom (Franson, 1999). Where there is EAL training for teachers-in-training, the content has been criticised for lacking a rigid conceptual understanding both in Initial Teacher Education (ITE) and Continuing Professional Development (CPD; Evans et al., 2016; Foley et al., 2013). Without specialist training for such a highly specific skill, it is little wonder that a majority of newly qualified teachers feel unprepared and unable to meet the demands of newcomer EAL students (Cajkler & Hall, 2009) as the annual survey of newly qualified teachers identifying EAL pedagogy as an area of greatest concern (Pye et al., 2016). Leung and colleagues (Leung et al., 2021) criticise the lack of official curriculum in terms of statutory teaching content, as well as the absence of specialist qualifications in initial teacher education. Hutchinson (2018) recommends that the United Kingdom take notice of other English speaking nations such as Australia where specialist staffing and training programmes exist for teachers-in-training to qualify as EAL specialists (see section 2.4.3).

Alongside the policy of mainstreaming, there have also been substantial changes to EAL funding in the last decade. As previously mentioned, LEAs are responsible for education and funding is decided at a local rather than national level. Local authorities are given the power to

include or exclude an element for EAL support in their local funding formula and may choose the length that EAL pupils remain funding after arrival in the country (NALDIC, 2016). Previously, this took the form of the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant, ring-fenced funding ‘intended to narrow achievement gaps between pupils from those minority ethnic groups who are at risk of underachieving and to meet particular needs of bilingual students’ (DfES, 2004). In 2011 these funds were channelled into the Dedicated Schools Grant which is to be used for all students, not just those who are EAL (Costley, 2014). Schools are now free to decide how they wish to use these funds and as a result EAL provision varies drastically from school to school without continuity or a rigid framework (Evans et al., 2016). Since the advent of Free Schools and Academies, which are in almost total control of their budgets, EAL provision in the United Kingdom is even more atomised. Scotland has enforced similar policies towards EAL provision in the Standards in Scotland’s Schools Act (Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED), 2000), placing the responsibility at the feet of Local Authorities (LAs) to ensure that schools meet the standards of all their pupils and provide adequate EAL provision where needed. Due to the diffused nature of EAL provision, it is therefore pressing that decent evidence is available to teachers and boards of governors who make decisions about the process of EAL provision for newcomers.

In conclusion, British policy has shifted focus from assimilating newcomers to mainstreaming them, such that all students participate in the regular school classrooms, regardless of their language background and ability. EAL funds are no longer protected and provision is at the discretion of local authorities and individual schools. This has created a haphazard and inconsistent approach to meeting the needs of EAL learning across the nation, with insufficient support for students and inadequate training for teachers. As such, an investigation into the most effective ways to educate newcomers is warranted in the United Kingdom to inform Local Education Authorities on the best way to cater to a large proportion of the British student populace.

#### **2.4.2. Canada**

The number of EAL students in Canada has seen a drastic increase over the past two decades with around 17% of students in British Columbia and Alberta (Alberta Education, 2017; Ilieva, 2016), and more than 25% of students in large urban areas such as Calgary now classified as EAL (CBE (Calgary Board of Education), 2021b). As 19% of the total migrant population are

under 15 years of age, effective EAL policy is an area of priority for Canadian education authorities (Guo, 2021a). Historically, EAL provision in Canada has taken on an assimilationist approach whereby migrants' mother tongues and cultures would eventually be replaced by English (or French in Quebec) and the dominant Anglo-Saxon culture in Canada (Guo, 2015). This was a result of anti-immigrant sentiment designed to restrict migration from countries that were seen as undesirable. British and American immigrants were preferred, along with Northern and Central Europeans. Migration from Asia and other non-white cultures was discouraged as integration was considered unlikely due to linguistic, racial and social differences (Guo, 2015). However, the enactment of the Canadian Multiculturalism Act (Department of Justice Canada, 1988) encouraged the culture and languages of ethnic groups to be celebrated within mainstream society (Jean-Pierre & Nunes, 2011). This allowed programs to be established that would help newcomers better integrate into the wider Canadian society (Fleras & Elliot, 2002).

Like the United Kingdom, Canada has a decentralised education system with education the purview of individual provinces who make language policies for EAL students, decide funding and dictate what school boards can and cannot do (Alberta Education, 2021; Guo, 2021a). As in the United Kingdom, this has led to considerable variation in EAL provision for newcomers, with each province deciding for themselves how best to help students acquire English (Guo, 2021b). In Alberta, the Alberta Education Department sets the benchmarks and standards for EAL students and makes suggestions to school boards on how best to educate newcomers. The provincial department describes EAL policy, provides links to funding manuals and resources for both primary and secondary level, and writes implementation guides (Alberta Education, 2021). Withdrawal in general is discouraged as "teachers should be aware of the possible disruption to students' classroom learning that can be caused by a pull out" (Alberta Education, 2012, p.10). The suggested method of instruction is supported integration, a policy which is mirrored in British Columbia in the provincial government's English Language Learners Policy Guidelines (Government of British Columbia, 2018). Both provinces suggest that EAL specialists work in tandem with mainstream teachers. This involves either co-teaching, supporting integration, or teaching separately and jointly constructing a curriculum for newcomers.

Withdrawal is suggested only as short-term solution for students who have received minimal formal school. Newcomers who are only just beginning to learn English are recommended to

have between 50-75% of their schooling in sheltered withdrawal classes with the remainder with their mainstream peers. For more advanced learners, they suggest 90-100% of class time should be spent in the mainstream, with supported integration recommended for learners where needed (Alberta Education, 2012). This is however just a suggestion, with boards of education and local schools free to interpret guidelines as they see fit. Schools have maximum flexibility in catering to these students' needs and so can choose which strategies they feel work best in their specific context, whilst still remaining accountable to ensure that funding is being used for the purpose it is allocated (Alberta Education, 2015).

In sum, Canadian EAL newcomer policy is highly decentralised with each province providing guidelines for schools in the area, the implementation of which are up to individual schools' discretion. Therefore, the provision across the nation and even within provinces is variable and inconsistent (Guo, 2021a). Attention now turns to Australia, whose decentralised system of education closely mirrors that of Canada.

### **2.4.3 Australia**

Australia has always been a high migration country, with over 28% of the population born outside of the country (Phillips & Simon-Davies, 2017), a figure which has remained fairly constant over time (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2021). A large number of these migrants arrive without adequate English knowledge to be fully involved in school. All permanent entrants to Australia who do not have functional English skills are eligible for intensive English language programs, funded by the federal government, but administered and governed by regional state governments (Block et al., 2014). Education in Australia is a state matter and each state or territory has jurisdiction over schooling for students in the region, this extends to EAL provision for newcomers. The Australian Federal Government provides state governments with funding for students from a non-English-speaking-background (NESB) to spend in New Arrivals Programmes (NAPs) or allocate it to schools with high numbers of newcomers (Pugh et al., 2012). Each state has their own NAP which caters to newcomers in various different ways (e.g., DECD, 2022; NSW Department of Education, 2022). On the whole, newcomers generally spend six to twelve months in an intensive NAP English language program outside of the mainstream in what is often referred to as an English Language Centre (ELC; Pugh et al., 2012). This provision may last up to two years, after which learners are transitioned into the mainstream classroom (Woods, 2009). However, not all students take

advantage of this, with ELCs primarily concentrated around built-up urban areas and access is restricted for children not in these areas. Further, migrant parents often report feeling that English will be acquired faster by their children through immersion into mainstream schools (Block et al., 2014; Paxton et al., 2011). Collectively, Australia can be seen as broadly advocating a withdrawal model of newcomer provision, in contrast to the British model of mainstreaming.

The South Australian New Arrivals Programme provides twenty Intensive English Language Programmes (IELPs) at Intensive English Language Centres (IELCs) across the state, at both primary and secondary level, which seek to ‘prepare students for success in the Australian curriculum’ and ‘develop their confidence to live in the Australian community’ (DECD, 2022). These IELCs are usually attached to mainstream schools, however students are taught separately before being integrated into classrooms with their peers (Due et al., 2015). However, the transition from a withdrawal programme to the mainstream has been identified as a cause of much distress for students and an issue both for administrators and the newcomers themselves (Tayebjee, 2005). In an ethnographic study of an NAP at a South Australian school, Due and colleagues (2015) found that IELPs were highly effective at educating and integrating newcomers. The IELP in question helped develop a whole school approach whereby newcomers felt a sense of community and that their bilingual expertise was valued and appreciated. However, the transition was found to be especially difficult, as funding and policy dictated a maximum of two years in the program, so students transitioned into a mainstream class before they were ready. Due and colleagues identified inconsistent EAL support as a large area of concern for administrators. Similarly, the transition is problematic for students who become accustomed to the level of help received in withdrawal settings (Pugh et al., 2012). Pugh and colleagues (2012) argue that New Arrival Programmes must therefore be reformed to enhance newcomer provision. They contend that restructuring of government funding, closer connections between the NAP and mainstream, and staff retraining will ease the transition and help newcomers in their language acquisition.

In Victoria, EAL students are subjected to a different curriculum than their mainstream peers, completing the Victorian Curriculum F-10 English as an Additional Language (EAL) in schools funded by the state and federal government (Department of Education Victoria, 2022b). As in South Australia, newcomers in Victoria are also able to access eight specialist IELCs across the state, with a Virtual New Arrivals Programme available for those who cannot

attend an IELC (Department of Education Victoria, 2022a). Provision in IELCs is through specialist EAL educators, often teachers who have specialised in EAL as their focus in post-graduate teaching programs. Unlike the United Kingdom, EAL is available as a teaching specialism in Australia, under the name TESOL (Teaching English to speakers of other languages; Victorian Institute of Teaching, 2015).

Australia thus champions a withdrawal and structured integration approach to teaching newcomers. This stands in opposition to the mainstreaming models of newcomer provision in the United Kingdom and Canada. This review looks to address the collective uncertainty and evaluate which model is most effective for newcomers and is thus urgently needed to provide an answer as to how best to support this vulnerable population.

#### **2.4.4. The Republic of Ireland**

Ireland has traditionally been a net-emigration country, however the period of rapid economic growth known as the ‘Celtic Tiger’ saw the expansion of the workforce and the number of non-Irish nationals residing in the country increase nearly double (Central Statistics Office, 2008; Fanning, 2002). By 2016 there were 535,475 non-Irish nationals living in Ireland (Central Statistics Office, 2018a), with 18% of the school population born overseas (Central Statistics Office, 2018b). Students from over 160 countries now comprise the Irish student populace and close to 70% of this migrant population do not speak English as their first language (Department of Education and Skills, 2011). A large proportion of these are newcomers who are not proficient in English and thus experience barriers to fully participating in their education (Smyth et al., 2009).

Prior to economic changes in the 1990s, students who were enrolled in Irish schools and did not speak either English or Irish had to ‘fit in’ and adapt to classrooms with minimal support in what it sometimes termed a *sink-or-swim* approach (Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). Changes have since occurred for newcomers to be provided with additional support. The establishment of the Refugee Language Support Unit (RLSU) in 1999 brought EAL provision for newcomers into the spotlight (Department of Education and Skills, 2012). Like the United Kingdom, Ireland advocates for a mainstreaming approach, something which is recommended in the National Council for Curriculum Assessment’s (2006) guidelines for English as an additional language in primary schools. Newcomers should “be placed in age-appropriate

classes, unless their proficiency in English is deemed to be insufficient to allow them to successfully follow the curriculum of their peer group” (Lyons & Little, 2009, p.10). If English levels are deemed insufficient then the student in question will be placed in the year level below. Once in the mainstream classroom, newcomer EAL children are entitled to additional language support in the form of Special Education Teaching allocation for a period of no more than two years (Department of Education and Skills, 2020). As such, this can be seen as a form of mainstreaming with supported integration where possible. If schools had between 14 and 30 children needing English support they would receive one full-time Language Support Teacher (LST), while schools with more than 30 received two EAL teachers per school (Murtagh & Francis, 2012). The focus on mainstreaming newcomers therefore reflects the policy of the United Kingdom.

In a policy review of Irish EAL provision, Murtagh and Francis (2012) uncovered numerous issues with the current model of newcomer assistance. Using a mixed methods approach of a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, the researchers investigated the views of 38 LSTs towards EAL provision in their schools. They found that training of EAL professionals is sorely lacking as there is no specific mandatory in-service preparation in order to be considered an LST; existing class teachers can simply take on the role of LST while another teacher fills the void in the mainstream class. Further, teachers felt that there were unrealistic expectations from government that students would catch up to their peers and be able to access the mainstream curriculum after two years of additional support. This reflects the findings of Strand and Lindorff (2021), who argued that, in general, more than six years of instruction is required for newcomers to achieve a comparable English level as their non-EAL peers. The absence of in-service training was also identified by Lyons (2010) who found that English language support was rarely a part of pre-service training. This situation is comparable to Northern Ireland, where Skinner (2010) has recommended further EAL training for mainstream teachers who have to bear the brunt of newcomer linguistic difficulties.

This section has overviewed language policies in the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and Ireland with several key findings emerging. The most significant takeaway is the collective uncertainty and inconsistency around different models of newcomer provision. For instance, the United Kingdom and Ireland seem to prioritise mainstreaming, whereas Australia advocates for withdrawal programs and Canada uses a mixture of the two depending on jurisdiction. This collective uncertainty provides the warrant for this review which seeks to determine which

model, if any, are following evidence or if policies regarding newcomer provision are ad hoc and unclear which approach is best.

## **2.5. Recommendations for schools and teachers to help newcomers**

Now that there is a clear picture of how different countries cater to EAL newcomers, attention turns to the advice given to practitioners and the empirical basis for such recommendations. This involved close analysis of government policy and textual materials aimed at schools and teachers on how best to help newcomers acquire English.

The first trend in advice found through these materials is a promotion of bilingualism and championing newcomers' first language as 'student learning is enhanced by proficiency in more than one language' (Government of British Columbia, 2018, p.6). Zacarian's EAL guidance for school leaders contends that "the primary language of students should be a critical component of any program" (2011, p.50). According to Conteh (2019), the use of the first language in classrooms opens potential for learning. The English Language Learners Policy Guidelines for the Canadian province of British Columbia argues similarly that "as students develop an understanding of the general features of language through developing their proficiency in other languages, they can bring this knowledge to the task of English (or French) language learning" (Government of British Columbia, 2018, p.6). Chu (2009) suggests that engagement is enhanced when first languages (L1s) are used in classrooms. Gibbons (2000, p.61) argues that the mother tongue "allows children to draw on their total language experience and so continue their conceptual development", reflecting the Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1981, 2016) which argues that skills developed in one language will transfer to the second under the right conditions. For instance, if a learner is proficient in reading in their L1, then it can be expected that they have a baseline knowledge about reading processes and will be able to attain the same level of reading proficiency in their L2. The interdependence hypothesis has found considerable support in empirical studies (Galloway et al., 2020; Goodrich & Namkung, 2019; Pae, 2019; Pasquarella et al., 2015; van Gelderen et al., 2007). Meta-analytic studies such as Jeon and Yamashita's (2014) analysis of fifty-eight studies found that L1 and L2 reading ability share a medium-strong correlation ( $r = 0.50$ ,  $p = 0.00$ ) and Chuang and colleagues' (2012) of L1 and L2 reading abilities for 30,000 Singaporean students found 63% of total variance in L2 (English) reading scores were explained by L1 (Chinese) reading ability.

Insofar as multilingual competence allows for the transfer of skills from one language to the next, promoting newcomers' L1 is effective and best-practice should develop abstract language skills in the L1 so that they can continue to be enhanced through the learning of another language. There is a lack of empirical research on how this affects recently arrived students, with the bulk of research on the interdependence hypothesis focused on students with relatively mature foreign language proficiency. A new arrival however does not have interdependence of language as there is only one language at this point. Therefore, programs that promote the L1 of students, such as withdrawal, must be evaluated to determine if they are relatively more effective than mainstreaming which does not facilitate L1 use. The aim of this review is to provide vindication for policy positions and suggested practices.

A second theme to emerge from guidelines is the broader involvement of the whole community, and how this will facilitate greater engagement and be most beneficial for newcomers. Zacarian (2011) believes that parents should be involved in all stages of newcomers' learning. This includes seeking their opinion on the development of the program for their child, creating a working group to identify problems with pedagogy, and interviewing parents regularly to ensure that the needs of their children are being met. Conteh (2019) advocates for linking the home and school so that there is continued development of the home language and any possible ancillary benefits of bilingualism are attained. Cain (2018), argues that students' families possess a wealth of knowledge and must be consulted for effective instruction. The issue of parental involvement in newcomer provision has been investigated by Guo (2021a, 2021b). In an ethnographic study of parental and community agency in Alberta EAL programs, Guo (2021b) found that parents have a vital part to play in determining programs for their children, and have the power to change and influence EAL policies. In a further study (Guo, 2021a), the same author found that parents were able to identify inefficient EAL funding, poor teacher training, and a lack of multicultural curricula which were disadvantaging their children and other EAL newcomers in Alberta primary schools. However, the effect of parental intervention has simply been shown to occur, rather than necessarily improving newcomer provision. This review seeks address this gap by determining the efficacy of different approaches to newcomer provision.

Another suggested best-practice is involving non-EAL peers in the learning process. Involving non-EAL peers is central to the withdrawal/mainstreaming dichotomy as mainstreaming

facilitates and encourages peer-peer interaction. According to Gibbons (2000), peers should teach newcomer students as much as the teacher as this provides new arrivals with plenty of opportunities to learn in English and interact with small groups. Conteh supports this claim and suggests that new arrivals “need to hear academic English being used fluently and competently” by their peers (2019, p.137). This stance draws heavily on the work of Vygotsky (1978) and his sociocultural theories that learning occurs through interaction and negotiate meaning. The Zone of Proximal Development theory suggests that less competent learners will learn from native speakers who are able to scaffold their learning. Sociocultural approaches to learning for newcomers was explored by Due and colleagues (2016) who examined Intensive English Language Programmes in Australia. Their findings indicated that a zone of proximal development does exist whereby diverse classrooms allow for L1 English students to teach newcomers, however the effectiveness of this approach was not discussed. The implication from these suggestions by Gibbons (2000) and Conteh (2019) is that mainstreaming is therefore preferred as it encourages peer-peer learning. As such, there is rationale for this review to examine whether mainstreaming approaches to newcomer EAL provision, which allow for peer-peer learning, are as effective as espoused.

There is perhaps uncertainty around best practice, specifically regarding the efficacy of withdrawal when students first arrive. The Alberta Board of Education recommends that newcomers are “often very successful in a sheltered setting designed to address their specific literacy, numeracy and academic development and cultural needs” (Alberta Education, 2012, p.8). However, recommendations from EAL practitioners suggest that this is perhaps not necessary and that instead when students first arrive interpreters should be used in the mainstream classroom while students learn to adjust (Gibbons, 2000). Even having a “buddy” they are assigned in the mainstream class may be sufficient for newcomers to learn to understand social and academic conventions (Conteh, 2019, p.137).

Despite many suggestions about how to effectively teach newcomers in teaching resources (Conteh, 2019; Gibbons, 2000; Zacarian, 2011), and in peer-review journals by Chu (2009) and Cain (2018), very little of this refers explicitly to empirical research. Given the lack of clarity around newcomer provision, this review seeks to provide an answer as to whether sheltered instruction has been shown to be more effective, or if mainstreaming is sufficient.

## **2.6 Gaps in the literature**

The importance of helping newcomer students rapidly and effectively learn the language of the country they have arrived in cannot be understated. Newcomer students face myriad social, emotional, and academic issues (see section 2.2). Despite a recognition that effective provision is important, there have been a paucity of studies on the most effective models of newcomer EAL pedagogy. It is unclear to what extent empirical studies have evaluated different approaches to newcomer provision. Oxley and de Cat (2021) reviewed interventions for EAL students, but to this author's knowledge, there have been no studies that have systematically reviewed policy to determine whether policies reflect what is known on the basis of evidence.

As reviewed in section 2.4, newcomer EAL provision is drastically different across the English-speaking world, with the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and Ireland each catering to newcomers in different ways. The extent to which policy and practice guidelines reflect best-practice is unclear, with disagreement on mainstreaming, the role of the first language, involvement of the broader community and the effectiveness of involving peers in the learning process. The core issue identified by this section is the dichotomy between mainstreaming and withdrawal approaches. The United Kingdom and Ireland prioritise a mainstreaming approach, Australia utilises withdrawal programmes, whereas Canada uses a mixture of the two. Given that the countries under investigation use opposing methods for aiding newcomer EAL provision, there is a need to determine which policies are following evidence and which are ad hoc or not supported by evidence.

This review aims to contribute to the research on newcomer EAL provision by assessing the scope of research conducted in the countries of interest and appraising the findings of said work. Based on the forensic treatment I have given the history of EAL policy and the result of the EAL priority setting partnership (Chalmers et al., 2021) outlined in section 1, there is good justification for asking these questions.

## **2.7 Research questions**

In light of the background literature and the research gaps identified in section 2.5, this review proposes the following research questions:

1. What is the nature and extent of the evidence that supports the policy positions towards newcomer EAL provision in Australia, Canada, Ireland, and the United Kingdom?
2. What does the research say about the relative effectiveness of mainstreaming and pull-out models for recently arrived EAL learners?

The following section outlines the methods by which these questions were answered.

### **Chapter 3. Methodology**

To answer the research questions described in the previous section, this study employed a systematic review design and conducted an in-depth search for relevant literature. A systematic review strives to comprehensively identify, appraise, and synthesise all relevant studies on a topic to make sense of large bodies of information and outline what is and is not known about an issue (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). Systematic reviews are needed to provide a comprehensive picture of the state of research in a field and may be deployed when researchers need an accurate picture of past work, or when there is ample research in a field, but key questions remain unanswered (Gough et al., 2012). Systematic reviews follow a clearly defined, rigorous method to answer research questions. This involves defining the research question, identifying, and describing the relevant research, critically appraising the available evidence, and synthesising and drawing relevant conclusions (Boland et al, 2014). Whilst traditional literature reviews can be informative, they are subject to the biases of authors who have discretion over which research they consider most relevant and merits inclusion. Systematic reviews, on the other hand, use a clearly defined protocol and transparent methods to produce a replicable piece of work so that results can be corroborated, or the study can be updated (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006).

Prior to conducting this review, a search for other systematic reviews on the same topic was performed by consulting the Campbell Collaboration Online Library (The Campbell Collaboration, n.d.), the EPPI Centre Database of Educational Research (EPPI-Centre, n.d.), the International Database of Education Systematic Reviews (IDESR, n.d.), and the education section of the PROSPERO database (University of York, n.d.). These databases were searched with the terms ‘EAL’ and ‘newcomer’ which resulted in 226 reviews that had either been published or were in progress. However, none of these previous reviews matched the aims of the present study. Of the 226 reviews, 208 were not related to education, and the remaining 18 did not focus on determining effectiveness of newcomer provision approaches. Thus, it was assumed that the current review does not reproduce prior work, either already published or currently in progress.

To avoid replication of work and to establish the transparency and replicability, which is characteristic of systematic reviews, the protocol for this review was registered with IDESR on 1<sup>st</sup> April, 2022. A permanent record of the protocol is available online at

hyyps://idesr.org/article/IDESR000024 (see also Appendix A for a copy of the protocol). The protocol was amended on 29<sup>th</sup> June 2022, prior to the final search to modify the inclusion/exclusion criteria (see below) on the basis of results of the pilot searches.

### 3.1 Eligibility criteria

To identify if a study was eligible for the review, the following inclusion/exclusion criteria were developed. The items highlighted for inclusion and exclusion addressed seven domains: the jurisdiction in which the study took place, the study participants, setting of the study, date of the study, study design, publication type and measures of outcomes. Language of publication was not used as an eligibility criterion and is elaborated further in section 3.1.1. Table 3.1 details the full inclusion and exclusion criteria along with an explanation for each point.

Inclusion criterion 7 best captures the intent of this review: to compare the relative effectiveness of mainstreaming and withdrawal approaches. As such, all included studies had to comment on the efficacy of mainstreaming and structured integration for newcomer students.

**Table 3.1. Eligibility Criteria**

<b>Item</b>	<b>Inclusion Criterion</b>	<b>Rationale</b>
Jurisdiction	<p><b>Include 1:</b> Studies if they are conducted within the United Kingdom, Canada, Ireland and Australia.</p> <p><b>Exclude 1:</b> Studies if they are conducted anywhere else.</p>	This study is motivated by the EAL Priority Setting Partnership (Chalmers et al., 2021) which established a list of top research priorities for EAL practitioners and researchers throughout the United Kingdom. This review included the other countries so that comparisons could be made to determine most effective approaches.
Participants	<b>Include 2:</b> Studies that focus on newcomer students (i.e., students who have arrived in one of the focus settings and who have been identified as learning	EAL populations in the United Kingdom and similar countries are extremely varies. Different groups that fall under the banner of “EAL” can have very

	English as an Additional Language).	diverse needs. This review is concerned only with EAL learners who can also be classified as newcomers (see section 2.1 for definition), and so will exclude research conducted with other EAL groups.
	<b>Exclude 2:</b> Studies that focus on a different student population.	
	<b>Include 3:</b> Studies on typically developing EAL newcomer students.	This review seeks to address the effectiveness of newcomer EAL approaches as they apply to typically developing school populations. Findings for non-typically developing students may not generalise to a larger population and should be excluded.
	<b>Exclude 3:</b> Students that exclusively focus on non-typically developing learners or learners with Developmental Language Disorder.	
Date of publication	<b>Include 3:</b> Studies published on or after 1 <sup>st</sup> January, 2000.	The context surrounding newcomers changes drastically as waves of immigration change and this review hopes to capture how EAL provision to newcomers looks at the present. This review seeks to take a synchronic approach and report on the reality of newcomer provision in the present day, rather than historically.
	<b>Exclude 3:</b> studies published before January 1 <sup>st</sup> , 2000.	
Setting	<b>Include 4:</b> Studies which focus on newcomer provision in schools, defined as compulsory educational settings for children of school age (5-18) in the listed jurisdictions.	This study seeks to assess the effectiveness of EAL provision within mainstream schools. The findings of EAL provision outside of this setting, for instance home schooling, may not be generalisable to mainstream schools and thus the results should not be extrapolated or included in this review.
	<b>Exclude 4:</b> Studies which do not report on the activities of schools in helping newcomer EAL students	
Study design	<b>Include 5:</b> Studies of any design (e.g., experiment,	This study did not exclude particular designs as I

	observation, ethnography) which collect empirical data. <b>Exclude 5:</b> Studies that do not collect empirical data such as conceptual pieces, commentaries, theoretical pieces.	wanted to cast as wide a net as possible. Methodological differences in the quality of constituent studies was assessed through the Risk of Bias assessments later.
Publication type	<b>Include 6:</b> Peer-reviewed journals, government reports, doctoral theses, books, book chapters, conference proceedings. <b>Exclude 6:</b> Grey literature, undergraduate and master's theses, systematic reviews and meta-analyses.	Whilst excluding some sources of literature such as grey literature may open up the review to an effect of publication bias, it was felt important to focus on research which has met the rigorous standards of peer-review or similar academic scrutiny.
Outcomes	<b>Include 7:</b> Primary empirical research studies reporting objective measures of language proficiency and/or curriculum attainment for newcomer students (e.g., SAT, GCSE, A Level results, TESOL tests). Include studies reporting qualitative data that reports the perceptions and experiences of students or teachers around the effectiveness of either mainstreaming or withdrawal approaches. <b>Exclude 7:</b> Non-empirical data such as researchers opining on the basis of theory.	The reporting and evaluation of empirical data is crucial to synthesising the findings in this field.

### 3.1.1 Items not included as eligibility criteria

Language of publication was considered as potential eligibility criteria before being rejected, given that a systematic review should be as inclusive as possible in terms of language of publication (Moher et al., 2003). Whilst unlikely that research focused on Australian and British EAL policy and attainment would be published in languages other than English, it was felt that language of publication would not constitute a prima facie reason for exclusion. Where a study was written in a language not spoken by the author (i.e., English or French), abstracts were translated by a researcher fluent in that language and included or excluded as

appropriate. No studies were used in the full analysis of papers that were not published in English.

### 3.2 Information sources

Table 3.2 contains the full list of databases searched for this systematic review, encompassing the fields of psychology, education, and linguistics, as well as broader social science databases. There was no attempt to search the grey literature as grey literature does not follow the same rigorous peer-review process as other sources searched. All databases were accessed electronically with a subscription from the University of Oxford’s Bodleian Library.

**Table 3.2: List of source databases**

<b>Discipline</b>	<b>Database</b>
Education	ProQuest Education Collection (including ERIC) EBSCO education databases including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Educational Administration Abstracts</li> <li>- Education Abstracts</li> <li>- British Education Index</li> </ul>
Linguistics	ProQuest Linguistics Collection (including LLBA) Modern Languages Association Bibliography
Multidisciplinary	ProQuest Social Science Premium Collection SCOPUS
Psychology	PsychInfo

This initial search was supplemented with both forward and backward citations searches. If any study met all the inclusion criteria its references section was reviewed to identify other possibly eligible reports, which were then sought and assessed for eligibility. In the forward citation search, where journal had a ‘cited by’ feature, studies that cited an eligible paper were reviewed for eligibility.

### 3.3 Search strategy

Designing an optimal systematic review search strategy requires finding an equilibrium between sensitivity and specificity, such that as many eligible studies as possible are included whilst remaining specific enough that researchers do not have to waste time and energy sifting through unrelated research (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006, p.79). Designing appropriate search terms are therefore crucial to the success of the review. The broad scope of this review

meant that finding appropriate search terms was challenging. A combination of a broad search string and rigid inclusion criteria was felt to be the most appropriate way to find eligible studies concerning the relative effectiveness of mainstreaming and structured integration.

For this study, assistance was sought from a research librarian at the University of Oxford's Department of Education to formulate the initial search string and strategy. The key elements of the search that were identified as central to the thesis were the specific demographic (newcomers) and their linguistic situation (learning English as an additional language in the country of arrival). Initial search strings focused on specific countries however this was removed as it felt it may limit the potential possibilities. For instance, when searching abstracts, key words or titles, location may be omitted or there may be various different combinations of location (e.g., "Canada" or "Vancouver"). As such, it was felt that an adequate search string to combine all these possibilities would be too onerous. This resulted in a trade-off where a majority of studies were excluded based on the wrong setting or participants (see section 3.4.1). Terms relating to the age of children were also included in the initial search string but were determined to be unnecessary or too limiting. As such, a broad search string was developed that only focused on the demographic and linguistic situation. A Boolean search string was devised with different terms within each category connected with the operator 'OR' and each different field connected with 'AND'. The final search is listed in Table 3.3.

These search terms produced sufficient results that the author was convinced specificity and sensitivity were well balanced. To confirm this, two pre-determined exemplar articles that were unearthed in initial background reading, Matthews (2008) and Chen (2009), were correctly identified by the pilot search. As such, it was concluded that the search string was appropriate to uncover studies relevant to this review.

The two search fields were applied to everything except the full text of articles. This comprised the abstract, keywords and title.

**Table 3.3. Boolean search terms**

Linguistic status	AND	Participants
EAL OR "English as an additional language" OR ESL OR "English as a second language" OR ELL		newly-arrived OR "newly arrived" OR newcomer OR refugee* OR migrant* OR immigrant* OR "recent arrival" OR "recently arrived" OR new arriv*

### **3.4 Data management**

Upon completing the final search on 26<sup>th</sup> April 2022, meta-data of all studies was uploaded to Rayyan, a software program for systematic reviews which enables multiple collaborators to compare abstracts and bibliographic information against the inclusion/exclusion criteria (Ouzzani et al., 2016). If a study was not eliminated in the initial screening process, then bibliographic information and full texts of all works were uploaded on Zotero reference manager. The screening process was documented in a Microsoft Excel document and a physical research journal. Data from final studies included in the review were recorded in a Microsoft Excel document.

### **3.5 Selection process**

#### **3.5.1 Initial screening**

The initial search produced a total of 5,118 results, which was subsequently narrowed to 3,332 after eliminating duplicates. The remaining titles and abstracts were screened against the eligibility criteria and 109 were marked for full-text screening. Articles included in full-text screening had to not explicitly violate any of the exclusion criteria and thus could be examined closer. When a given work violated a criterion, the screening stopped and the criterion in question was noted. In total 3,223 failed to meet at least one eligibility criterion and were excluded for the following reasons: wrong participants (1,021), wrong outcome (666), wrong setting (574), not primary research (442), wrong study design (383), unrelated research (69), wrong publication type (57).

#### **3.5.2 Full-text screening**

After the initial screening, full studies were obtained from the relevant databases. Only studies that unambiguously met all the inclusion criteria were included in the final review, resulting in 15 texts overall. The other 93 studies were excluded for the following reasons:

wrong outcome ( $n = 34$ ), wrong population ( $n = 18$ ), not primary research ( $n = 16$ ), wrong study design ( $n = 16$ ), wrong setting ( $n = 6$ ), wrong publication type ( $n = 4$ ).

The 15 studies were then subjected to backward and forward citation searches which resulted in zero additional studies. As all included studies involved qualitative data and reported a mix of outcomes a meta-analysis was deemed inappropriate.

### **3.5.3 Ensuring screening reliability**

To ensure reliability of the main author's screening, a second screener with applied linguistics training and familiarity with systematic reviewing was recruited and informed of the aims and criteria of the study. The secondary screener reviewed 10% of total abstracts (333) against the inclusion/exclusion criteria. In the field of education, a Cohen's Kappa value of 0.7 is considered an acceptable threshold for agreement (Frey, 2018) and was used as the threshold in this study. The interrater reliability for the initial screening process was 0.79. Where there were disagreements, the two reviewers discussed the disagreements and reached a consensus. It was determined that the eligibility criteria were thus reasonably applied and there was a low risk of systematic bias in the initial selection process.

### **3.6 Data collection process**

Prior to completing the search for articles, a data extraction form was designed for this study (Appendix B). The data extraction form was modelled after the Cochrane good practice data extraction form (Cochrane Effective Practice and Organisation of Care, 2017). This was chosen due to its flexibility and suitability for multiple study designs. As per Petticrew and Roberts (2006), the data extraction form allows for reporting on the essential elements of participants, intervention, comparison and outcomes (PICO) as relevant to this study.

When a given study met all eligibility criteria and was included in the synthesis, the data were extracted and recorded in an Excel document. The data most relevant to this study were those that reported on the relative effectiveness of mainstreaming and phased integration/withdrawal programs for newcomer students in the United Kingdom, Ireland, Canada. and Australia.

### **3.7 Risk of bias assessment**

A robust methodology is necessary to ensure that studies do not introduce bias, a systematic deviation in the reliability of results due to methodological weaknesses (Boland et al., 2014). This bias can either positively or negatively skew the results of the study to varying degrees (Boutron et al., 2019). Biases can manifest in both the systematic review process, and in the studies that are the subject of the review. In the review process bias may result from the actions of primary study authors, the study design itself, or the actions of a reviewer. Outside of the review, certain study designs have a comparatively higher degree of internal validity than others. For instance, randomised controlled trials (RCTs) are not as prone to allocation biases, compared to quasi-experimental designs (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). Therefore, as part of the systematic review process, authors must consider the overall risk of bias of each study and evaluate the results accordingly.

This review follows Slavin's (1986, p.6) best-evidence synthesis approach, whereby in the absence of the highest quality evidence "... we might cautiously examine the less well-designed studies to see if there is adequate unbiased information to come to any conclusion." It was determined that the best-evidence synthesis method would avoid prematurely excluding potentially relevant studies, without compromising on the overall quality of the review.

As this review was open to a variety of research designs, and actively sought both qualitative and quantitative data, it was imperative to use a bias appraisal tool that allowed for assessing mixed methods studies. As such, the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT; Pluye & Hong, 2014) was selected for this study, with Crowe and Sheppard (2011) contending that it is the only critical appraisal tool appropriate for systematic reviews which investigate studies of a variety of methods. The MMAT (Appendix C) assesses bias in five different research designs: qualitative, quantitative RCT, quantitative non-randomised, quantitative descriptive, and mixed methods. The MMAT is best used to appraise the quality of empirical studies, with review and theoretical papers unable to be assessed for bias under the MMAT framework (Porta et al., 2014). The tool has a separate section for each of the five categories and the reviewer marks 'yes', 'no' or 'can't tell' in relation to questions about methodological quality, with a comment box to justify their decisions. Each study was assigned a global weight of evidence score of strong, moderate, or weak based on their respective risk of biases. Following the Effective Public Health Practice Project Quality

Assessment Tool (Armijo-Olivo et al., 2012), a study was given a strong rating if it had no criteria rated as 'no' and at least four criteria rated as 'yes'. A moderate strength was given to studies that had more than one-two 'no' and at least 3 'yes' while weak ratings were reserved for studies that had two or more 'no' answers and fewer than three 'yes' answers.

Systematic review best practice recommends that more than one reviewer is included in the bias assessment process (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). Due to time constraints it was not possible to have a second reviewer conduct this assessment, even though it was originally planned in the protocol.

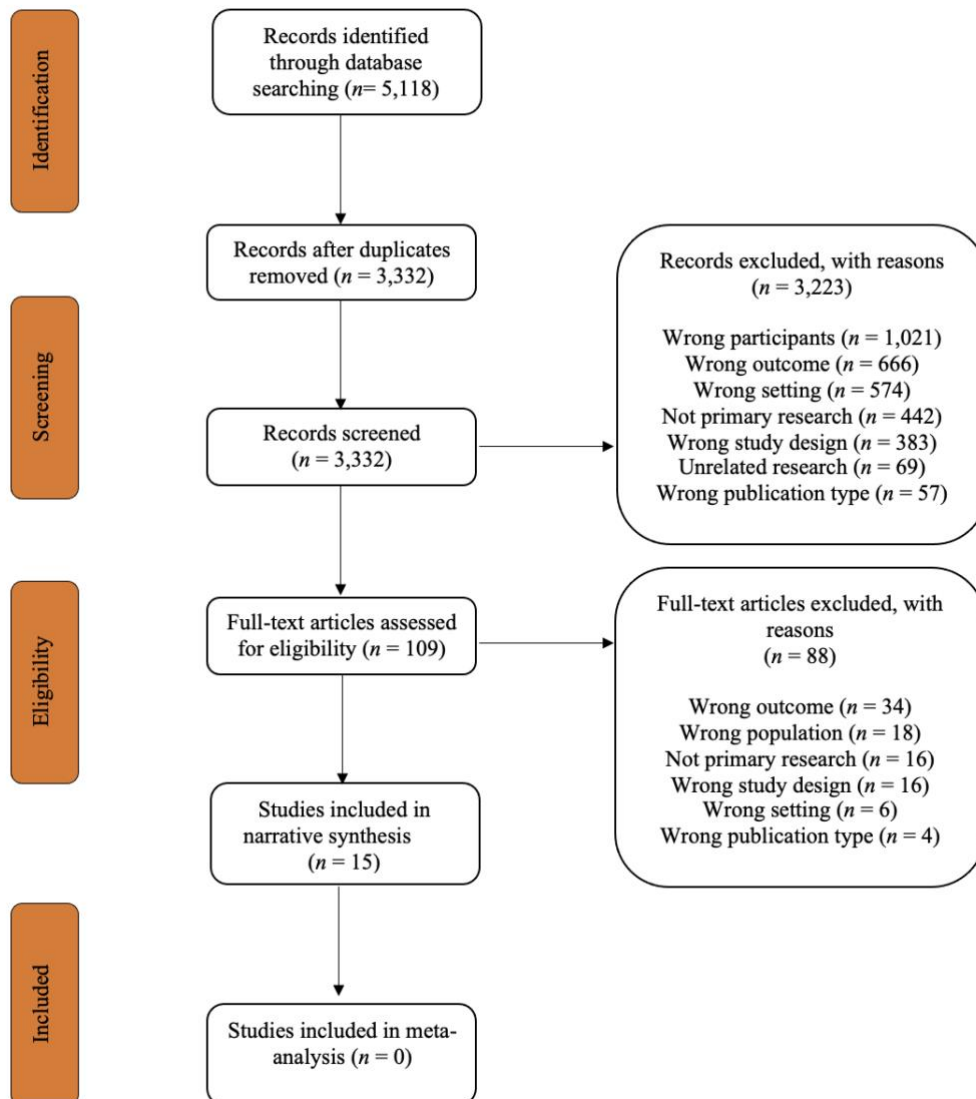
### **3.8 Synthesis methods**

Given the type of data analysed in the studies in this review, it was felt that a meta-analysis of results was likely to be inappropriate, as is often the case in the social sciences (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). As such, a narrative synthesis was employed. In the following chapters the review roughly follows Petticrew and Robert's (2006) narrative synthesis structure: (1) studies were placed into categories according to their reported findings; (2) the outcomes and quality of each study within each category were analysed; (iii) a synthesis of total findings was produced and the robustness of the synthesis is assessed.

## Chapter 4. Results

This chapter describes both the general characteristics and overall findings of the final group of studies synthesised in this review. A complete list of the 15 studies and their references can be found in Appendix D. Section 4.1 reports the general characteristics of the research, 4.2 outlines the main findings and provides a narrative summary of each study, 4.3 evaluates the risk of bias of each individual study and the cumulative confidence across the studies as a whole. Section 4.4 provides a summary of findings in line with the research questions of the review. Figure 4.1 visually represents study selection process that resulted in the 15 studies included in the review.

**Figure 4.1: PRISMA flow diagram (adapted from Moher et al., 2009)**



#### **4.1 General characteristics**

Table 4.1 outlines the general characteristics of the 20 studies included in the review detailing publication information, study context, study design, and programme type. The subsequent sections expand on this information and outline patterns in the data.

**Table 4.1: Study characteristics**

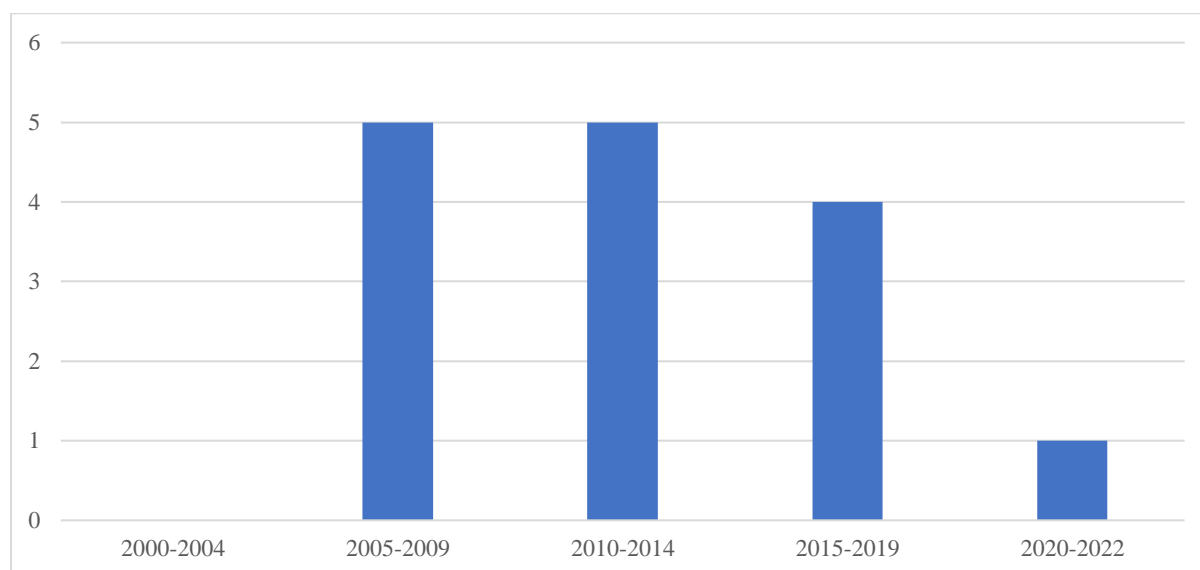
<b>Study</b>	<b>Publication type</b>	<b>Study location</b>	<b>Age of participants</b>	<b>Participants</b>	<b>Length of stay in country (if available)</b>	<b>Length of study</b>	<b>Data type</b>	<b>EAL support type</b>
Chen (2007)	Journal article	United Kingdom	Primary	3 students	0-2 years	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Mainstreaming programme
Chen (2009)	Journal article	United Kingdom	Primary	3 students	0-2 years	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Mainstreaming & withdrawal programmes
Due et al (2015)	Journal article	Australia	Primary & secondary	14 EAL stakeholders across multiple schools	0-2 years	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Withdrawal programme
Grieve & Haining (2011)	Journal article	United Kingdom	Primary	20 students	Unspecified (simply 'new' migrants)	Longitudinal 2 years	Qualitative	Mainstreaming programme
Hamilton (2013)	Journal article	United Kingdom	Primary	40 students, 60 teachers across 14 schools	Unspecified (simply 'new' migrants)	Longitudinal 3 years	Qualitative	Mainstreaming programme
Li (2018)	Journal article	Canada	Secondary	1 school	0-5 years	Longitudinal 2 years	Qualitative	Withdrawal programme
Matthews (2008)	Journal article	Australia	Secondary	29 EAL stakeholders	Unspecified (simply 'new' migrants)	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Mainstreaming programme
McDermott (2008)	Journal article	United Kingdom	Primary & secondary	14 EAL stakeholders	Unspecified (simply	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Mainstreaming programme

					'new' migrants)			
Molyneux & Hiorth (2019)	Journal article	Australia	Primary & secondary	51 students	0-2 years	Longitudinal 3 years	Qualitative	Bilingual and withdrawal programmes
Murtagh & Francis (2012)	Journal article	Ireland	Primary	38 primary schools and EAL stakeholders	0-2 years	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Mainstream and withdrawal programmes
Premier (2021)	Journal article	Australia	Primary & secondary	4 primary and 3 secondary schools	0-5 years	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Mainstream and withdrawal programmes
Premier & Parr (2019)	Journal article	Australia	Primary	1 school	Unspecified (simply 'new' migrants)	Longitudinal (length unknown)	Qualitative	Mainstream and withdrawal programme
Riggs & Due (2011)	Journal article	Australia	Primary	2 primary schools 145 students in total	0-2 years	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Withdrawal programme
Safford & Costley (2014)	Journal article	United Kingdom	Secondary	Unspecified number of secondary schools	0-5 years	Longitudinal 4 years	Qualitative	Mainstream programme
Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006)	Journal article	Ireland	Primary	10 primary schools	Unspecified (simply 'new' migrants)	Cross-sectional	Qualitative	Mainstream & withdrawal programme

### 4.1.1 Publication details

The years of publication for each study can be found in the first column in the above table, with Figure 4.2 visually representing the publication trend in five-year bands from 1<sup>st</sup> January 2000 – 26<sup>th</sup> April 2022. There were no eligible studies published between 2000 and 2004, with the periods 2005-2009 and 2010-2014 containing the most eligible studies with five each. Since 2005 there have been 15 studies published, with an average of just under one each year. The oldest study<sup>15</sup> was published in 2006, whilst the most recent<sup>11</sup> was published in 2021.

**Figure 4.2: Included studies by publication year**

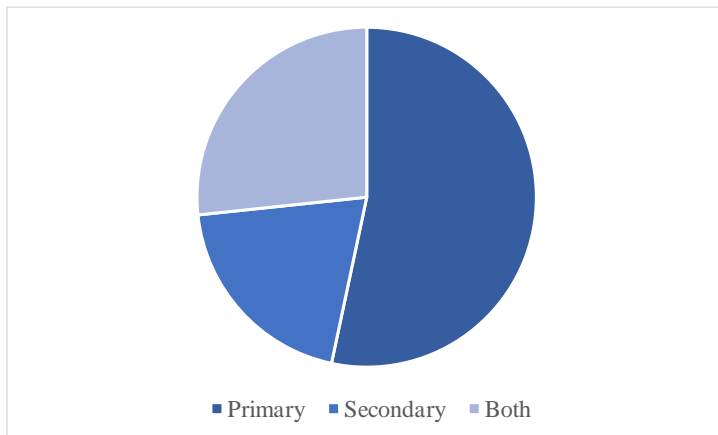


As seen in Table 4.1, all eligible studies are peer-reviewed journal articles. These were all retrieved through the database search, with forward and backward citation failing to reveal and additional studies.

### 4.1.2 Context of study

Table 4.1 shows that the majority of studies (53%) focused just on EAL programmes for primary-aged children, with only three studies<sup>6,7,14</sup> (20%) reporting outcomes in secondary education. Four<sup>3,8,9,11</sup> of the included studies (27%) reported findings from both primary and secondary programs. This information is reported in Figure 4.3.

**Figure 4.3: Age of students**



**Figure 4.4: Location of study**

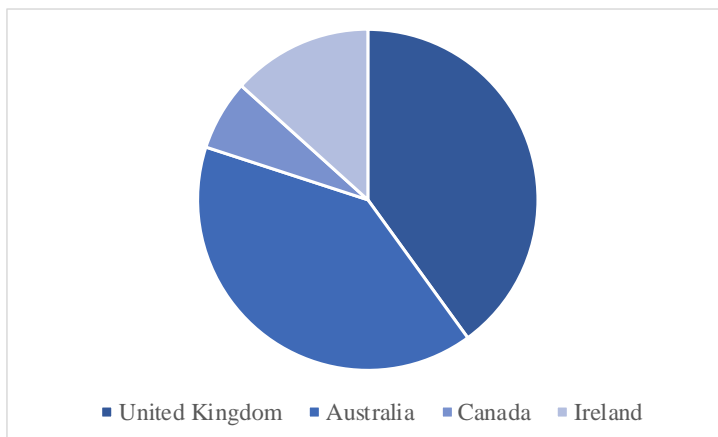


Figure 4.4 provides the geographical distribution of studies, showing that the majority of studies ( $n = 6$ ) came from each of Australia and the United Kingdom. Two included studies were conducted in Ireland, with Canada only providing one<sup>6</sup> eligible study.

### **4.1.3 Study design**

#### ***Participants***

As this study reported on impressions of relative efficacy of EAL programmes, eligible participants could be any person who was a stakeholder in stated EAL programmes. This included the students themselves, EAL practitioners, mainstream teacher, parents, and the wider school communities. The data in Table 4.1 reflect this. Participants in the included studies varied from study to study, some interviewed or observed children, some sought the opinions of adults in educational contexts, such as parents and teachers, whilst others included a combination of the two.

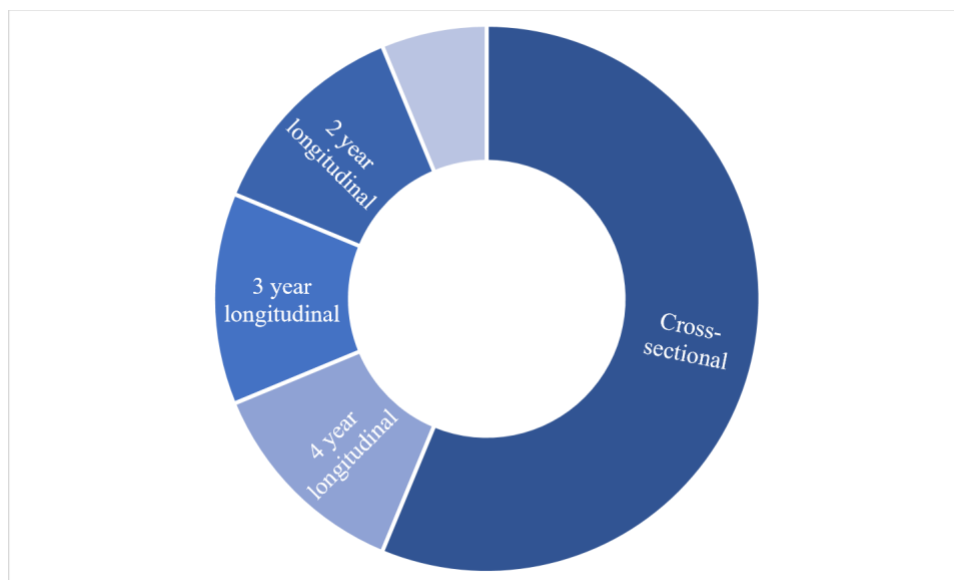
### ***Length of stay in country***

There was large variation in the reported length of stay in countries, i.e., the way in which ‘newcomer’ was operationalised. Six studies<sup>1,2,3,9,10,13</sup> focused on students who had been in the country for less than a year. Three studies<sup>6,11,14</sup> examined students who had been in the country of residence for up to five years. The remaining six studies did not specify the time since arrival for newcomer students, instead describing them as ‘new’ arrivals or providing enough information about them such that the researcher was satisfied they fit the definition of ‘newcomer’ as outlined in section 2.1.

### ***Study duration***

Nine of the fifteen studies included were cross-sectional. Six studies were longitudinal, spanning between two and four years. Figure 4.5 illustrates the duration of each study, further delineating the longitudinal studies.

**Figure 4.5: Study duration**



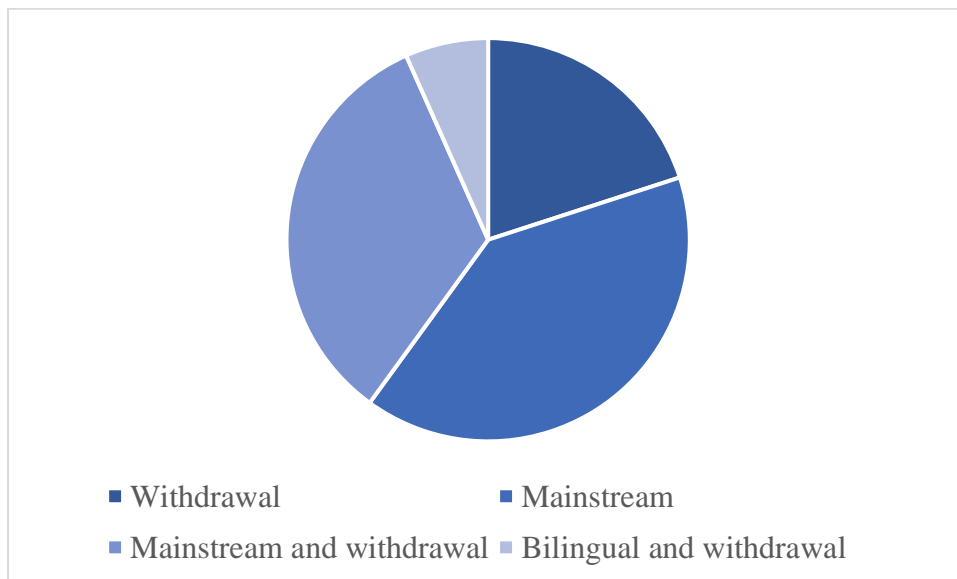
### ***Data type***

As suggested in section 3.8, it was deemed unlikely that quantitative outcomes would be reported. This was borne out in the data, with no studies reporting quantitative results and all eligible studies reporting qualitative data. Thus, as expected a narrative synthesis was conducted.

### *Type of EAL programme*

Figure 6 illustrates the various EAL programmes that were evaluated in the included studies. Six of the eligible studies<sup>1,4,5,7,9,14</sup> evaluated solely mainstreaming approaches to EAL provision. Three studies<sup>3,6,13</sup> examined withdrawal programmes, whilst five studies<sup>2,10,11,12</sup> looked at a combination of the two. A single study<sup>9</sup> looked at bilingual and withdrawal programmes as a way of assisting newcomers with EAL provision.

**Figure 4.6: Type of EAL programme**



### **4.2 Trustworthiness of individual studies**

This section reports the trustworthiness for each individual study, as operationalised in the MMAT (see section 3.7). A summary of this information can be found in Table 4.2. The colours green, yellow and red correspond to answers of ‘yes’, ‘can’t tell’, and ‘no’ respectively which culminates in a final global strength of study as outlined in section 3.7. As every study only reported qualitative data, they were able to be assessed using the qualitative section of the MMAT. Overall, three studies<sup>4,5,11</sup> received global rating of ‘strong’, 10 studies<sup>1,2,3,6,8,9,10,12,13,15</sup> received a rating of ‘moderate’, the remaining two<sup>7,14</sup> received a ‘weak’ rating. The proceeding subsections discuss the individual components which contributed to the above ratings before the final subsection assesses the cumulative confidence across all included studies.

**Table 4.2: Risk of bias of individual studies**

Study ID	Qualitative					Global strength of study
	Rationale for approach	Data collection methods	Findings derived from data	Interpretation supports data	Coherence among steps	
1 Chen (2007)						Moderate
2 Chen (2009)						Moderate
3 Due et al (2015)						Moderate
4 Grieve & Haining (2011)						Strong
5 Hamilton (2013)						Strong
6 Li (2018)						Moderate
7 Matthews (2008)						Weak
8 McDermott (2008)						Moderate
9 Molyneux & Hiorth (2019)						Moderate
10 Murtagh & Francis (2012)						Moderate
11 Premier (2021)						Strong
12 Premier & Parr (2019)						Moderate
13 Riggs & Due (2011)						Moderate
14 Safford & Costley (2014)						Weak
15 Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006)						Moderate

#### **4.2.1 Appropriate approach for research questions**

Regarding research approach, all included studies had a justifiable rationale to use qualitative methods to answer their research aims. As a large number of these studies aimed to uncover impressions and attitudes towards newcomer EAL provision, qualitative methodology was best suited to answering these questions. Only three studies<sup>4,5,11</sup> had explicitly stated research questions, however each study outlined their research aims. As those studies that did not have explicit research questions were ethnographic case studies using inductive research approaches, the researchers let the data guide their inquiry and entered with no specific goal in mind.

#### **4.2.2 Appropriateness of collection methods**

12 studies<sup>1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9,11,12,13,15</sup> were assessed as having a high trustworthiness in their data collection methods. The specific methods used to elicit qualitative data were well justified and outlined clear data collection processes as well as logical methods for interpreting the data. Three studies<sup>8,10,13</sup> did not offer sufficient justification for their data collection procedure and thus were assessed as having a moderate trustworthiness.

#### **4.2.3 Findings derived from the data**

Four studies<sup>1,2,7,14</sup> were assessed as having a moderate trustworthiness, in terms of their ability to derive findings from their data. This was due to insufficient explanation of their procedure and how findings were derived from the data. The remaining eleven studies delineated clear processes of how findings were derived from the data and were thus assessed as having a high trustworthiness.

#### **4.2.4 Interpretations support the data**

10 studies<sup>3,4,5,6,8,9,10,11,12,13</sup> accurately reported their conclusions and cited related evidence to support their interpretations of the data. The remaining five studies<sup>1,2,7,14,15</sup> cited snippets and did not convincingly evidence their findings with sufficient data and were thus designated moderately trustworthy.

#### **4.2.5 Coherence among steps**

In terms of coherence among steps, nine<sup>1,2,3,5,9,10,12,13,15</sup> of the 15 studies presented high trustworthiness and showed coherence between data sources, collection, analysis, and

interpretation. The remaining six studies<sup>4,6,7,8,11,14</sup> were rated as having a moderate trustworthiness due to occasional methodological missteps and slightly unclear reporting of the methods.

### **4.3 Results of individual studies**

The previous section reported the risk of bias for each included study in the review, finding that a majority of studies were of moderate trustworthiness, with only three considered strong methodologically and at little risk of systematic biases. This section provides a summary of the individual results of each study, outlining the key information and conclusions. The subsequent section will synthesise results in line with each research question.

#### **4.3.1 Narrative summaries of individual studies**

- 1. Chen (2007)** conducted a cohort case study of the effectiveness of EAL mainstreaming for three primary-school children aged 8-11-years who were recent arrivals to the United Kingdom from China. Using ethnography to observe the children in their classrooms, and supplementing this with interviews with the children, their parents, and teachers, the author investigated the perceived benefits of mainstreaming for the participants and whether newcomers have equal access to the curriculum as their mainstream peers. The author reported that mainstream classes contribute heavily to social isolation and that this social isolation is sometimes not recognised by teachers who maintain progress is being made, despite admissions of difficulty from the students and their parents. An ancillary issue identified by the researcher was that mainstreaming perpetuates a monolingual ideology and contributes to home language loss, a language in which the students are themselves confident and academically able.
- 2. Chen (2009)** investigated teacher practices for teaching newcomers in UK mainstream schools, charting the journey of three newcomers from China, aged 8-11. Through ethnography and follow-up semi-structured interviews with the students and two of their language support teachers, the author sought to uncover the attitudes towards mainstreaming and occasional withdrawal programs. The author found that EAL support in the mainstream classroom is limited, with a ‘sink-or-swim’ approach dominant. This was credited to budget cuts and funding issues. Conversely, the withdrawal classes that students attended were found to create a supportive atmosphere not found in classrooms with mainstream peers. Withdrawal programs provided

opportunity for dialogue between teachers and children, as well as language development through peer-peer discussion. Withdrawal programs were found to not run counter to the principle of inclusion, whereas mainstreaming creates exclusionary environments that hamper the emotional development of newcomers.

3. **Due et al. (2015)** examined the strengths and weaknesses of South Australian Intensive English Language Programs, a type of withdrawal program for newcomers available across Australia. Interviewing 14 EAL practitioners working in multiple IELPs across the state, they investigated the effect of withdrawal programs on students who have been in Australia for less than two years. The IELP and withdrawal programs more broadly were found to be highly beneficial for the wellbeing and education of students as found to foster a sense of community and integration for newcomers prior to entering mainstream classes. Another strength of the withdrawal program is that the smaller classes allowed for newcomers to receive focussed attention and develop bonds with their teachers and other students. However, the transition from withdrawal to mainstream programs was identified as problematic due to the general paucity of EAL assistance once students complete their two years within the IELP.
4. **Grieve and Haining (2011)** investigated how newcomer students were supported by teachers in the early stages of English acquisition, as well as how schools evidenced promoting bilingualism and home language skills. In a longitudinal two-year ethnographic study in a Scottish primary schools they investigated the perceptions of mainstreaming 20 newcomer students. Through ethnographic observations and interviews with the students and their teachers, the researchers advocated for mainstreaming as it allowed newcomers to access the curriculum at the same time as their mainstream monolingual peers, as well as facilitated social inclusion through meeting students of different backgrounds.
5. **Hamilton (2013)** sought to identify how inclusive mainstreaming newcomers was, and to ascertain whether newcomer children make successful transitions within their new school environments. In a three-year longitudinal case-study of 40 children aged between 3-11, the author observed classrooms and interviewed 40 students, 27 teachers, eight EAL specialists and six community practitioners to meet their research aims. The researcher asserted that mainstreaming was not the most effective approach. They observed students struggling to access a new language, new curriculum, and new school culture simultaneously. Similarly, a majority of teachers felt that the language barrier impeded teacher planning as students were placed in classes below their grade level but

equal to their English level such that there was a disconnect between content and language knowledge. This contributed to a sense of failure for students where only communicating in English made them feel inadequate.

6. **Li (2018)** charted the journey of an EAL teacher as they enacted changes to the current newcomer withdrawal program in Vancouver, Canada with the aim of increasing its effectiveness. In a two-year longitudinal study, the effectiveness of the program was assessed for Chinese-origin students in years 8-12. Interviews with the ESL teacher and students' parents indicated that the original withdrawal program created challenges as newcomers did not integrate well into the school and were thus reluctant to participate in other school activities. The revised program was considered to be more effective as it reduced the amount of time in the withdrawal program, and newcomers were placed in mainstream classrooms for the majority of their schooling with just a single weekly EAL withdrawal class. Pre- and post-changes to the withdrawal program saw newcomer students improve their academic performance in English language assessments.
7. **Matthews (2008)** conducted a cross-sectional ethnography of four mainstream high schools and one intensive English high school (considered a withdrawal program as it is away from mainstream peers) in order to examine the effectiveness of EAL newcomer programs in Queensland, Australia. Interviews with ESL practitioners indicated that withdrawal programs were preferred as students in mainstreaming classes 'just can't do the work in class' (p.36). Further, immersion was considered difficult for students who are new to school power dynamics. However, the author comments on a trade-off as alternative approaches to mainstreaming, such as withdrawal were sometimes considered punishment for newcomers.
8. **McDermott (2008)** discussed how schools in Northern Ireland have responded to an increasingly multilingual environment. Charting the change in Northern Irish policy and preferred practice from withdrawal to mainstreaming, the researcher interviewed 14 EAL practitioners and members of the highest proportion migrant communities (Chinese, Polish, Indian and Lithuanian). Opinion was split on the effectiveness of the new (mainstreaming) and the old approach (withdrawal). Some practitioners felt that mainstreaming was highly effective as "what actually worked better than anything else was learning from peers" (p.490). However, mainstreaming was thought to be problematic for some teachers who thought that the opportunity to learn from peers made newcomers invisible and took away necessary attention from their EAL needs.

Community members and the researcher saw mainstreaming as perpetuating a monolingual mindset and delegitimised the home language of newcomers.

- 9. Molyneux and Hiorth (2019)** conducted two ethnographic studies in separate Australian schools to examine the benefits of both mainstream and withdrawal programs for students of Karen background. Study 1 took place over three years in a primary school with 45 students. The younger students were in a bilingual Karen-English program with mainstream peers. Study 2 investigated a 20-week Intensive English Language School program for six students aged 12-18 years. Interviews with students, parents, and teachers in study 1 considered the bilingual program effective due to the continuity in teaching practices and that both newcomer and mainstream peers benefitted from the program. For study 2, the withdrawal program was thought to be a safe-space for newcomers as they adjusted to life in a new country and could feel confident, safe and assured of their ability to learn. However, the transition into mainstream classrooms where English was the sole language of instruction was found to be challenging with students suddenly unable to advocate for their needs due to linguistic inability.
- 10. Murtagh and Francis (2012)** surveyed mainstream schools in Ireland uncovering the efficacy of their EAL programs through a questionnaire and follow-up interviews with primary school teachers. The objective of the study was to canvass teacher opinions on supporting the acquisition of English for newcomers. Mainstreaming was the dominant form of provision, with group withdrawal occasionally used. Teachers thought mainstreaming was effective in helping students grasp concepts in subjects such as Math where students learn content and language simultaneously.
- 11. Premier (2021)** probed teacher experiences of educating EAL newcomers in mainstream primary and secondary classrooms in Victoria, Australia. Through interviews with teachers at four primary and three secondary schools a range of opinions towards mainstreaming and withdrawal were uncovered. Effective collaboration between EAL support staff and mainstream teachers were rare, and programs considered to be effective were only found to exist where there was streamlined communication between school leadership and practitioners. Success, defined as meeting the language needs of students, came from teachers who had received ample pre-service EAL education, which was identified as the single most effective way of helping students in the mainstream classroom.

- 12. Premier and Parr (2019)** conducted a case-study of a primary school in Melbourne, Australia which had both mainstream and withdrawal programs. The researchers evaluated the strengths and weaknesses of both approaches. Mainstreaming was found to be problematic if mainstream teachers did not communicate effectively with EAL support staff who sat in on lessons to help newcomers. Another issue with mainstreaming was that it was hard for teachers to accommodate to the differing levels of knowledge in the classroom, with newcomer students placed in grades above their English level and thus unable to participate fully in classrooms. This led to a feeling of exclusion for some students in the school. Withdrawal programs were helpful in making recently arrived students feel welcome when they first enter the schooling system.
- 13. Riggs and Due (2011)** examined the withdrawal programs of two South Australian primary schools, with 145 students participating. They sought to uncover how withdrawal programs facilitated or hindered integration of newcomer students. It was found that new arrival programs and withdrawal are highly exclusionary as students in these programs did not receive enough opportunities to engage with mainstream students and thus felt isolated. A lack of English language fluency was thought to contribute predominantly to this feeling of isolation. The researchers suggest that mainstream students and schools need to better understand the power dynamics of withdrawal programs and provide more opportunities for those in withdrawal programs to engage with their mainstream peers.
- 14. Safford and Costly (2008)** explored student experiences and strategies used for EAL learning in UK schools for 17–18-year-olds across an unspecified number of British schools, who had been in the country for fewer than five years. Mainstreaming was perceived as ‘depressing’ and ‘scary’ and many students ‘didn’t speak for the first year’ (p.136). Mainstreaming was also thought to be demoralising as students were placed in classes below their academic ability which only served to emphasise difference. However, withdrawal classes were also suggested to be ineffective as content was often unrelated to their academic subjects.
- 15. Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006)** conducted a case-study of 10 Irish primary schools in Galway. The researchers surveyed people at all levels of school hierarchy to assess the effectiveness of mainstreaming and withdrawal programs. Mainstreaming presented challenges for students who were unable to engage fully with content due to insufficient English ability. This was especially prominent in maths and science where students had adequate content knowledge but did not have the linguistic ability. This stance

contradicts that found in study 10, also conducted in Ireland. Withdrawal programs were thought to be highly effective as they provided opportunities for students to engage with their peers of similar linguistic ability and collectively work towards English fluency. The key takeaway the researchers found was that Ireland systemically underfunds EAL programs and poor funding is the single greatest obstacle to successful newcomer programs.

#### **4.4 Summary of results**

The final section summarises the findings of this chapter and provides a preliminary answer to the research questions of this review. The following chapter will continue the discussion of results in more depth with reference to relevant literature, as well as discuss the implications and limitations of these findings.

#### **RQ1: What is the nature and extent of evidence that supports the policy positions towards newcomer EAL provision in Australia, Canada, Ireland, and the United Kingdom?**

A total of 15 studies were published between 2000 and 2022 that explored different approaches to newcomer EAL provision. Specifically, these studies focused on mainstreaming and withdrawal as chapter 2 identified those as the two dominant approaches to newcomer EAL provision. Six studies were conducted in Australia and six in the United Kingdom. Ireland provided the context for two studies for the review, and Canada just the one. The research out in Australia and the United Kingdom is strong, with each country eager to uncover best practice for newcomer provision, whereas Canada and Ireland do not have the same output.

Across the studies included in the review, researchers sought the opinions of teachers, students, parents and other EAL stakeholders to uncover opinions on effectiveness of newcomer EAL programs. From a combination of cross-sectional and longitudinal cohort studies, qualitative data were reported from all studies. No studies were designed to directly assess effectiveness through direct comparison of different approaches. This meant that no studies had students in both mainstream and withdrawal programs and compared outcomes amongst the programs.

**RQ2: What does research say about the relative effectiveness of mainstreaming and withdrawal models for recently arrived EAL learners?**

Table 4.3 provides a summary of the studies, the programs investigated, and the conclusions drawn about their effectiveness.

**Table 4.3: Summary of studies and outcomes**

<b>Study</b>	<b>Program type</b>	<b>Effectiveness impression</b>
1. Chen 2007	Mainstreaming	Negative
2. Chen 2009	Mainstreaming & withdrawal	Mainstreaming negative, withdrawal positive
3. Due et al 2015	Withdrawal	Positive
4. Grieve and Haining 2011	Mainstreaming	Positive
5. Hamilton 2013	Mainstreaming	Negative
6. Li 2018	Withdrawal	Positive
7. Matthews 2008	Mainstreaming	Negative
8. McDemott 2008	Mainstreaming	Mixed
9. Molyneux and Hiorth 2019	Bilingual & withdrawal	Bilingual positive, withdrawal mixed
10. Murtagh and Francis 2012	Mainstreaming & withdrawal	Mixed
11. Premier 2021	Mainstreaming & withdrawal	Mixed
12. Premier and Parr 2019	Mainstreaming & withdrawal	Mainstream negative, withdrawal positive
13. Riggs and Due 2011	Withdrawal	Negative
14. Safford and Costley 2014	Mainstreaming	Negative
15. Wallen and Kelly-Holmes	Mainstreaming & withdrawal	Mainstream negative, withdrawal positive

Six studies<sup>1,4,5,7,8,14</sup> investigated mainstream immersion approaches to newcomer provision and only one of them<sup>4</sup> reached an unambiguously positive conclusion as to the effectiveness of it. Four of these studies<sup>1,5,7,14</sup> concluded that mainstreaming has a negative effect on students, both in terms of language acquisition and other non-linguistic outcomes such as inclusion or emotional development. However, two of these negative assessments came from studies that had received a high risk of bias and consequently a weak global strength of study<sup>7,14</sup>. Study 8 was not clear in its conclusion, with some practitioners considering mainstreaming very effective, and others bemoaning the change from previous withdrawal approaches to the current mainstreaming in Ireland. Study 4 and study 5 both received strong ratings for risk of

bias (RoB), with study 4 indicating mainstreaming was perceived as effective, whereas study 5 reached the opposite conclusion.

Three studies<sup>3,6,13</sup> solely examined the effectiveness of withdrawal approaches to newcomer provision. Two studies<sup>3,6</sup> reported positive views of withdrawal, whereas one<sup>13</sup> found evidence of negative perceptions of withdrawal programs. Each of these studies reported a ‘moderate’ RoB, with minor methodological flaws that prevented them from receiving ‘strong’ ratings for RoB.

Of the five studies<sup>2,10,11,12,15</sup> that evaluated both mainstreaming and withdrawal approaches, the most common assessment was that mainstreaming was comparatively worse than withdrawal classes. This was found for three<sup>2,12,15</sup> of the five studies. Study 10 and 11 had mixed conclusions as to the effectiveness of each approach, with both finding negative and positive methods to approach mainstreaming and withdrawal for newcomers.

Only one study<sup>9</sup> evaluated bilingual and mainstreaming approaches to newcomer provision. The bilingual program was thought to be highly effective at fostering language development, and also allowing for integration. The withdrawal program was considered excellent for linguistic development but created integration issues.

From these findings, a preliminary picture has emerged. Mainstreaming approaches appear to have been more negatively received than withdrawal, as a majority of studies that examined mainstreaming reached the conclusion that they were ineffective and not able to provide for newcomer needs as well as they could. Problems emerged in terms of student well-being, ability to acquire language, and social exclusion. Withdrawal programs predominantly received positive reviews, with issues emerging around fostering inclusion, and the transition from the withdrawal program to the mainstream classroom. However, it must be noted that none of these studies were designed such that causality could be inferred. As such, these are merely impressions of effectiveness, rather than empirical studies that can accurately comment on relative effectiveness of mainstreaming or withdrawal.

The next chapter expands on these findings and refers to relevant literature to discuss the possible reason, as well as the implications of such findings. It also discusses the limitations of this study which must be considered in the interpretation of these results.

## **Chapter 5. Discussion**

### **5.1 RQ1: Nature and extent of research on newcomer EAL provision.**

This review unearthed a total of 15 studies from 2000 to 2022 that reported on newcomer EAL programs in Australia, Canada, Ireland and the United Kingdom, although there were no studies published before 2006. Research on newcomer provision has not flourished despite increases in migration and a need to cater to an increasingly diverse and multilingual population in each nation (Alberta Education, 2017; Block et al., 2014; Central Statistics Office, 2008; Migration Observatory at the University of Oxford, 2019). As outlined in section 3.3, a deliberately broad search strategy was used to capture the full range of possible studies that reported on mainstreaming or withdrawal. Despite this, an average of less than one study a year was included in the review, underscoring the abject lack of research in this field. This was unsurprising, as systematic reviews and studies on EAL students have focused on specific interventions focusing on specific skills such as vocabulary or grammar growth (Murphy & Unthiah, 2015; Oxley & de Cat, 2021), rather than commenting on efficacy of overall EAL programs.

#### **5.1.1 Literature by geographic region**

Six studies were conducted in both Australia and the United Kingdom, indicating that researchers are at least aware of the need to investigate approaches to newcomer provision. Of interest is the lack of research in the Canadian context. Only one study (Li, 2018) investigated the effect of mainstreaming for newcomers in withdrawal programs. This may be due to Canada's long history of researching in multilingual contexts, and the issue of multilingual education was 'solved' prior to the date range for my review. Part of this may have been the result of the seminal work of Canadian researcher Cummins (1979, 1980, 1981, 2000), whose research is cited frequently in Canadian policy. For instance, the Calgary Board of Education (2021) seeks to develop Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency in English, a construct devised by Cummins (1979) to refer to general linguistic skills in the new language you are acquiring. This suggests that Canadian policy makers have been aware of multilingual research conducted in their country for a number of years. However, the absence of multiple studies in the Canadian context does present an issue, owing to the diffused nature of their educational system such that each province dictates educational policy for that region. As such, with just the single study conducted in one province in Canada, we do not have a clear picture of current EAL provision and can make few comments about efficacy.

Of the six studies conducted within Australia (Due et al, 2015; Matthews, 2008; Molyneux & Hiorth, 2019; Premier, 2021; Premier & Parr, 2011; Riggs & Due, 2011), they were conducted across three different states and across all levels of schooling, therefore providing a fairly broad view of the state of newcomer provision in Australia. Of the six studies conducted within the United Kingdom, three focused on England (Chen, 2007, 2009; Safford & Costley, 2008), with one study each conducted in Northern Ireland (McDermott, 2008), Scotland (Grieve & Haining, 2011) and Wales (Hamilton, 2013).

The literature search did identify other studies that investigated mainstreaming or withdrawal approaches to newcomer provision. For instance, Somé-Guibré (2015) and Rios-Aguillar and colleagues (2012) investigated how mainstreaming and structured integration aided English development for newcomers, however were excluded on the basis of jurisdiction.

Thus, this review had shone a light on the research output from Australia and the United Kingdom, whilst simultaneously highlighting the paucity of helpful research in Canada and Ireland. This is not likely due to bias in the review process, with the broad search string allowing for as many studies as possible to be included. Instead, this more likely reflects the state of research and research priorities in these nations. The findings of this review suggest that Australia and the United Kingdom are prioritising research into newcomer provision, whilst Canada and Ireland are not prioritising it to the same extent.

### **5.1.2 Literature by age group**

Across the fifteen studies, both primary and secondary school newcomers were well represented. Secondary students were subjects in seven studies, while 12 studies investigated primary-school aged children in newcomer EAL programs. There was no correlation between age group and the impression of effectiveness (see Table 4.1). There was an even spread of studies across age group and program type, with both primary and secondary withdrawal and mainstream programs assessed for impressions of effectiveness.

### **5.1.3 Literature by study design**

A key finding that emerged from this review was that none of the included studies had an appropriate design such that causal inferences could be made. Section 4.3.1 outlines this

clearly. None of the included studies were designed such that actual comments about relative effectiveness could be made, only statements about impressions of efficacy. As comparisons were not done between mainstreaming and withdrawal approaches, only impressionistic findings could be reached. This speaks to a substantial shortcoming in both the field of migrant EAL provision, and educational research more broadly. The absence of causality has been a concern for researchers for almost fifty years, since Anderson and Evans (1974) suggested using causal modelling procedures in educational research. Morrison and van der Werf (2016) comment that causality research has not progressed in education and that researchers still struggle to attribute causality interventions. Biesta (2015) suggests that this is perhaps due to the nature of educational research. Given that education is not a closed deterministic system and is instead dynamic and open to changes within the system means that attributing causality to a single intervention (such as withdrawal) is difficult. As such, if the complexity of educational systems can be reduced causality research can be undertaken. Both Biesta (2015) and Koopmans (2014) therefore call for more randomised controlled trials in educational research in order to accurately attribute causality to interventions. None of the included studies had an element of comparison, or students participating in both withdrawal and mainstreaming programs and thus causality was not a factor. It is imperative that future research on newcomer provision has study designs amenable to attributing causality.

## **5.2 RQ2: Relative effectiveness of mainstreaming and withdrawal**

As mentioned in section 5.1.3, none of the studies included in this review had a study design such that causality could be inferred. As such, this section reports on the impressions of effectiveness as uncovered through the review process. I have sought to evaluate which of mainstreaming or withdrawal is most effective based on teacher, student and EAL practitioner impressions of these programs. It was not possible to do a head-to-head comparison as few papers overtly discussed and evaluated both in conjunction. The following sections are divided into social and linguistic outcomes as influenced by program type.

With respect to impressions of effectiveness of mainstreaming versus withdrawal approaches for newcomers, this review found generally negative impressions of mainstreaming approaches and generally positive attitudes towards withdrawal approaches. The policy and research implications of this will be discussed in section 5.3.

### **5.2.1 Mainstreaming outcomes**

#### ***Social outcomes***

Mainstreaming became the de facto model of newcomer provision in the United Kingdom in the 1970s and 1980s, as a way to guard against possible accusations of racism and segregation (Costley, 2014). It was hypothesised that mainstreaming would reduce exclusion and newcomers would adjust better to classrooms by spending time with mainstream peers (Leung et al., 2021). This review uncovered mixed evidence that mainstreaming reduces exclusion. Only one study found mainstreaming to reduce exclusion. Using ethnography and follow-up interviews, Grieve and Haining (2011) argued that social inclusion, operationalised as integrating with mainstream peers, was encouraged at schools through encouraging cross-cultural cultural communication. Social inclusion was considered to be facilitated best when teachers themselves had positive attitudes towards newcomers and including them. However, attributing social inclusion to mainstreaming itself is a non sequitur. Social inclusion in this instance was the result of teacher practices, not a function of mainstreaming itself. As such, drawing conclusions that mainstreaming aids newcomer inclusion ignores external factors such as teacher behaviour. By the same logic, social inclusion could be enabled in withdrawal classes through teachers encouraging students to talk about their cultures.

Further, the findings by Greive and Haining (2011) is at odds with numerous other studies in the review. Chen (2007) argued that mainstreaming increased exclusion for newcomers as they were unable to access curriculum due to language barriers. Similarly, Chen (2009) found that students felt more excluded in mainstream classrooms and their emotional development was hampered. Safford and Costley (2008) reported mainstreaming as scary for students who chose to remain silent and were demoralised from being placed in classes with students younger than them who had similar English ability. In a study specifically designed to assess inclusion, Hamilton (2013) asserted that mainstreaming encouraged exclusion as students were placed in classes below their grade level but equal to English ability. This isolated them from peers their own age and created a sense of failure for students as communicating only in English – a language they lacked fluency in – made them feel inadequate. Premier and Parr (2019) reported a similar finding. Molyneux and Hiorth (2019) observed mainstreaming actively excluding newcomers as the linguistic gap between them and their peers left them unable to advocate for their needs. However, the desires of parents ought to be considered in program design. Chen (2007) interviewed newcomer parents in an English primary school about their thoughts on

mainstreaming. Parents overwhelmingly advocated for English-medium education, despite the evidence reviewed above suggesting that exclusion is heightened in English-medium classes.

### *Academic outcomes*

Mainstreaming approaches to newcomers were found to be ineffective for language outcomes. Matthews (2008) observed that newcomers “just can’t do the work in class” (p.36). Academic issues also arose from lack of L1 use and peer-peer interactions. Mainstreaming was not found to promote bilingualism and a multilingual mindset, as suggested in section 2.5. Chen’s (2007) ethnography found that mainstreaming perpetuated a monolingual ideology, contributed to home language loss, and reduced confidence for newcomers in their L1, a language they are fluent in and academically competent. McDermott (2008) observed mainstreaming classes, contending that the monolingual mindset inherent in mainstreaming delegitimises the home language of students. Hamilton (2013) also reported a feeling of failure for students who only communicated in English as this made them feel academically inadequate. As students were unable to “draw on their total language experience and so continue their conceptual development” (Gibbons, 2000 p.61), it appears that these mainstreaming programs are running counter to advice from practitioners (see section 2.5) and deprive students of a key resource for learning.

McDermott (2008) was the only study to comment directly on peer-peer interaction in mainstream classes and how this helped or hindered linguistic development. In an ethnographic study of numerous schools across Northern Ireland, interviews with teachers uncovered the opinion that learning from classmates was crucial and that “what actually worked better than anything else was learning from peers” (p.490). A buddy system, where an EAL student is paired with a mainstream student, facilitated interaction between newcomers and peers and was observed as helping learning take place. This reflects the essence of Vygotskian (1978) sociocultural theory and the Zone of Proximal Development. Due and colleagues (2016) observed the same phenomenon in withdrawal programs in Australia, however newcomers learnt from other newcomers, not their mainstream peers as seen in McDermott (2008). This perhaps indicates that peer-peer learning is not isolated to one model of provision, and instead can happen regardless of program.

A potential academic benefit of mainstreaming is its ability to enable students to learn language and content simultaneously. Murtagh and Francis (2012) advocated strongly for mainstreaming

in subjects such as Maths and Science as students will be able to understand the language-independent universal concepts of these subjects and acquire language simultaneously. Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006) however found that the inverse was true as students were unable to engage fully with content in subjects like Maths and Science as they lacked the required technical knowledge.

However, when taken together, the social and linguistic outcomes paint a bleak picture for mainstreaming. Exclusion is increased, students feel emotionally and intellectually inadequate, and a monolingual mindset was observed as increasingly negative. The following section discusses the impact of withdrawal programs on social and linguistic outcomes for newcomer students.

### **5.2.2 Withdrawal programs**

#### ***Social outcomes***

Contrary to the thoughts of policy makers in the 1970s, Chen (2009) observed that withdrawal in fact facilitated inclusion for newcomers as students were able to communicate with peers of similar linguistic ability. Due et al (2015) similarly found that withdrawal programs in Australian IELPs helped foster a sense of community for newcomers prior to immersion in mainstream classes. The authors argued that withdrawal classes enable students to form meaningful bonds with other newcomers and their teachers, which prove invaluable when in a new academic environment. Molyneux and Hiorth (2019) argued that withdrawal programs create a safe space for newcomers who adjust to life in a new country and can therefore feel confident and assured of their ability to learn. Premier and Parr (2019) in a study of Australian primary schools found that withdrawal programs helped create a welcoming environment for newcomers and facilitated inclusion.

However, withdrawal was not found to be a solely positive and inclusive practice. Li (2018) found that the original withdrawal program in a Canadian high school was exclusionary, and students were unable to integrate or participate in school activities. Upon reducing the hours spent in the withdrawal program newcomers were able to better integrate and spend more time with their mainstream peers. From this finding, a balance must be struck between time in withdrawal programs and time spent with non-EAL peers. Similarly, Riggs and Due (2015) observed withdrawal programs in two South Australian primary schools and argued that

withdrawal programs were exclusionary as students did not receive enough opportunities to engage with mainstream peers. In the context of the findings about mainstreaming programs this perhaps suggests that newcomers feel isolated regardless of what provision is made for them. Newcomers arrive from many different countries and cultures and often have been through some form of trauma along their journey to a new destination (Matthews, 2008). Understanding the causes of dislocation and addressing educational, social and emotional needs of newly-arrived students are all important factors that reduce isolation and make the new environment hospitable for newcomers (Rutter, 2001).

### *Academic outcomes*

Peer-peer engagement and consequent linguistic development was present in a number of studies included in this review. Chen (2009) found that withdrawal programs enabled peer-peer discussion and attributed linguistic success to the engagement between EAL and non-EAL students. Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006) observed peer-peer interactions in withdrawal classes as having a positive effect as students were able to work with peers of similar English ability and collectively work towards English fluency. In a study on redesigning withdrawal programs, Li (2018) observed how academic outcomes, as measured by English language tests pre- and post-program changes, were enhanced when students in withdrawal classes struck a balance between withdrawal and mainstream classes.

Due to the smaller size classes in a withdrawal setting and the focussed academic attention from EAL specialists, Due and colleagues (2015) argued that withdrawal programs should be prioritised for newly arrived students. The same principles guided teachers in McDermott's (2008) study who felt that sitting in a classroom with mainstream peers rendered newcomers invisible and that newcomers can only receive adequate attention in small-group withdrawal sessions.

However, withdrawal programs present challenges academically too. Safford and Costley (2008) surveyed newcomer students in the United Kingdom who believed that withdrawal programs had been detrimental to their education given students were forced to learn remedial English that was unrelated to the content taught in their classrooms. Furthermore, the transition from withdrawal to mainstream classes was found to be challenging for a number of studies. Molyneux and Hiorth (2019) argued that the transition was challenging as students go from high levels of language support to a mainstream classroom where support is often lacking. Due

and colleagues (2015), found that the same was true for South Australian Intensive English Language Programs due to general paucity of EAL support in the mainstream classrooms. However, this is not the fault of a withdrawal program but more school planning for transition and a statement of the general lack of support in mainstream classrooms. Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006) argued that the single biggest determinant of academic success for newcomers was not the program type, but poor funding and lack of adequately trained teachers.

### **5.3 Limitations**

During the review process, every effort was made to be comprehensive and limit potential bias. Nonetheless, there are inevitably limitations. This section discusses some of the areas of improvement for the review and considerations for future replication studies.

First, the number of duplicates found was very surprising. 1,786 duplicates were identified in the literature searches (see section 3.5.1) and removed from final screening. This indicates that there was substantial overlap in the databases used. Future researchers should be aware of said overlap and make necessary adjustments to ensure that research waste does not occur. Consequently, due to time spent screening and removing duplicates, less time was able to be focused on other elements of the review.

Second, due to time constraints, a second screener could not conduct a risk of bias assessment or complete data extraction. As such, risk of bias and data extraction criteria might need to be adjusted for replication studies. Conducting such a large portion of this work without checks and balances may have opened up the review to the researchers own internal biases.

Third, a large drawback of the findings is that the design of studies included were unable to speak to causality and only reported impressions of effectiveness of different programs of provision. More relevant studies and those who were able to directly speak to causality are imperative for future research. At the beginning of the review, it was assumed that it would be straightforward to find studies that evaluated newcomer provision as they make up such a large proportion of the student population in the countries of interest (see section 2.1). This was not the case. Caveat lector, the research out there is piecemeal, nebulous and reaches uncertain conclusions as to the efficacy of newcomer provision.

A final limitation of this study, one that hampers generalisability, is the inconsistency of findings. Few consistent themes have emerged with plenty of evidence for and against both elements of mainstreaming and withdrawal. The inconsistencies in the findings suggest that further research in this area would contribute greatly to the field of research on newcomer students.

#### **5.4 Implications**

This review has uncovered several results which have important implications for research, policy, and practice with EAL newcomers. In terms of research, this policy uncovered a methodological flaw in much EAL research – studies are not designed to accurately assess causation and effectiveness of different newcomer programs. Not a single study in the review directly compared two programs or was designed such that any comments about efficacy could be made. Future researchers should seek to fill this research gap. Randomised controlled trials, or at the very least, direct comparison studies between students in mainstream and withdrawal programs are necessary in future research.

The current evidence, whilst fragmentary and murky does suggest that withdrawal programs are slightly better for newcomers than mainstream programs. The extent to which mainstreaming was considered negative was surprising, given this is the de facto method of provision in the United Kingdom, Ireland, and parts of Canada. The hesitance to use withdrawal approaches is related to the hangover of EAL segregation in the 1970s however this does not appear to be informed by research. The implications for policy makers and practitioners are therefore clear: re-evaluate current approaches to EAL provision and follow research suggestions as to the most effective model.

## Chapter 6. Conclusion

The present review investigated the nature and extent of research into EAL newcomer models of provision in Australia, Canada, Ireland, and the United Kingdom. The resulting included studies indicate a small and inconsistent output of research since 2006. The research predominantly came from Australia and the United Kingdom, with Ireland and Canada contributing little to the relevant literature. The search also identified methodological issues with present research into EAL provision. No studies were designed such that causal inferences could be made and comments about efficacy of different programs were difficult and could only be made as a result of my synthesis.

The 15 studies included in this review had different levels of bias, ranging from weak to strong. The overall weight of evidence is therefore moderate. However, generalising the findings of this review is difficult due to the nature of the findings. The evidence was inconsistent and contradictory with few clear themes emerging.

The research on newcomer EAL provision is fragmentary, inconsistent and says little about the actual effectiveness of different models of provision. Despite policy positions supporting mainstreaming approaches in Canada, Ireland and the United Kingdom, there is little empirical evidence to support this stance. It appears that a hesitancy to return to the EAL segregation days of the 1970s has resulted in a knee-jerk reaction where decisions are made on appearances, rather than supported by peer-reviewed evidence. There is little to no evidence to suggest that mainstreaming approaches are objectively better than withdrawal approaches to provision. In fact, from this review, the opposite has emerged as a tentative conclusion.

Given the increasing movement of peoples and the growing number of migrant students in Australia, Canada, Ireland, and the United Kingdom, further research into this field is critically needed. There is a need for research that empirically evaluates different provision models so that policy and praxis decisions can be made on the basis of rigid research.

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## **Appendix A: IDESR Protocol**

### **Title**

Evaluating approaches to EAL newcomer support: protocol for a systematic review.

### **Review Question**

1. What is the nature and extent of the evidence that supports the policy positions towards EAL provision in Australia, Canada, Ireland, and the United?
2. What does the research say about the relative effectiveness of mainstreaming and pull-out models for recently arrived EAL learners?

### **Rationale**

This research is motivated primarily by the EAL Priority Setting Partnership (PSP) (Chalmers, Faitaki & Murphy, 2021), which, through consultation with EAL practitioners established a list of top research priorities for EAL practitioners and researchers in the United Kingdom. One of the most pressing issues identified in the PSP for people working in EAL across the United Kingdom is understanding which approaches to supporting newcomer students in the UK are most effective. This entails discovering what approaches to newcomer provision have been addressed through research, and evaluating the efficacy of each of them

According to the Department of Education (2014, 2019), in 2018 there were over a million students between five and sixteen whose first language was not English. 21.2% of primary school students and 16.6% of secondary school students do not speak English as their first language, an increase since 2014 which saw 18.7% of primary school and 14.3% of secondary students classified as EAL. Indeed, despite the growing number of EAL students, the UK government has shown an abject disregard for as much as 20% of their population, with minimal cohesive EAL curriculum and teacher training over a 60-year-period (Costley, 2014). Given that fluency in English is a key predictor of differential attainment amongst EAL learners at all stages of schooling (from Early Years to GCSE and beyond), a lack of adequate EAL provision amounts to a serious disadvantage for students who have arrived in the United Kingdom without English skills (Demie, 2018). If the gap can be closed (by having effective newcomer programs) then there are numerous benefits as newcomer students will be able to better participate in classes, feel more included in the educational

environment, and achieve greater academic outcomes (Block et al, 2014, Guo-Brennan & Guo-Brennan, 2021)

Currently, EAL is not available as a teaching specialism in the United Kingdom and teaching pupils with EAL is considered a generalist skill which is desirable in all teachers (Creese, 2004). Stemming from this, the key issues in the UK surrounding refugee, and indeed general EAL education are delivering adequate language support, cultural understanding of children's backgrounds, and meeting psycho-social and emotional needs (Jones and Rutter, 1998). Against this backdrop, it is imperative to determine how newcomer students can best be supported. Previous pedagogy has focused on withdrawal strategies, taking newly-arrived students out of the mainstream classroom to provide them with emergency EAL provision, with current methodologies favouring mainstreaming approaches where they are integrated into mainstream classrooms with an occasional language aide (Costley, 2014). However, the efficacy of these approaches has not been determined and the shift in practice in the United Kingdom has not been evaluated as either more or less effective than previously.

The approaches to newcomer education in the United Kingdom will be compared to national educational approaches in Australia, Canada, Ireland and New Zealand to see what can be learnt from different methods across the globe.

This research has potentially significant implications for policy, both in the United Kingdom and in similar educational systems across the world such as Ireland and Australia. It will inform practitioners, schools, and policy makers about the efficacy of various methods of EAL provision to newcomers. This will allow those involved in EAL policy and direction to make informed decisions about best practice following the recommendations of this dissertation, a review of the latest empirical evidence.

### **Inclusion criteria**

#### *Jurisdiction:*

Studies will be included if they are conducted within the United Kingdom, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand or Canada

- Exclusions: studies conducted outside of these countries

*Sample/population:*

Eligible studies will focus on newcomer students. (i.e., students who have newly arrived in one of the focus settings and who have identified as learning English as an Additional Language)

- Exclusions: Studies that do not focus on newcomer children will be excluded.

*Date range:*

Eligible studies will be between 2000 and 2022. This is because the context surrounding newcomers changes drastically and this review hopes to take a synchronic perspective, rather than diachronic.

- Exclusions: studies conducted outside of the date range will be excluded.

*Study designs:*

Eligible studies are those of any design (e.g., experiment, observation, ethnography) that seek to understand how newcomer students are catered for in educational settings in the above jurisdictions. I am only interested in studies that collect empirical data

- Exclusions: conceptual pieces, commentaries, theoretical pieces, and non-empirical papers.

*Language of publication:*

Eligible studies will primarily be those for which reports written in English can be located. If reports that are not written in English are identified via searches (for example, because they have an English language abstract, or via citation chaining) this will not constitute a *prima facie* reason for exclusion. Every effort will be made to find a collaborator who is fluent in the language of the publication to perform the full text screening and data extraction as appropriate.

*Publication type:*

Eligible studies are peer-reviewed journals, government reports, doctoral theses, books, book chapters, conference proceedings

- Exclusions: undergraduate and master's theses, systematic reviews and meta-analyses

*Setting:*

Eligible studies focus on newcomer provision in schools, defined as compulsory educational settings for children of school age in the listed jurisdictions.

*Measurements:*

Studies will evaluate the relative effectiveness of structured integration/mainstreaming versus withdrawal approaches to teaching newcomer students.

- Exclusion: studies that do not make mention of, or evaluate mainstreaming or withdrawal approaches to teaching newcomer students will be excluded

*Data:* Two types of data will be sought: objective measures of language proficiency and/or curriculum attainment for the newcomer students (e.g., SAT, GCSE, A Level results, TESOL tests); and/or qualitative data that reports the perceptions and experiences of students or teachers around the relative effectiveness of mainstreaming or withdrawal/structured integration approaches to newcomer provision.

- Exclusion: Non-empirical data (data that is collected such as studies that are designed to ask teachers/students the effectiveness of approaches, rather than researchers opining on the basis of theory). Opinion pieces will be rejected.

**Information sources**

The following sources will be accessed electronically through the University of Oxford:

- British Education index
- Education Abstracts
- PsycINFO
- SCOPUS
- Linguistics and Language Behaviour Abstracts (LLBA)
- Modern Languages Association Bibliography
- Australian Education Index
- Educational Administration Abstracts
- ProQuest Social Science Premium Collection

## **Search Strategy**

For this search strategy, a research librarian at the University of Oxford's Department of Education was consulted to formulate the initial search. The three elements of students' arrival situation (recently arrived/newcomer), age (children/pupil), type of program (pull-out/mainstreaming) and efficacy (best practice) were identified as the key elements that would underpin the search. A number of similar labels were included in each category to capture the diversity of terminology in different educational contexts. Different terms within each category which captured the same meaning were separated by 'OR' and each search field was joined with 'AND'. All terms will be searched for in abstracts owing to the review's timeframe.

The following search terms and Boolean operators are used to search the databases above:  
(EAL OR "English as an additional language" OR ESL OR "English as a second language" OR ELL) AND (newly-arrived OR "newly arrived" OR newcomer OR refugee\* OR migrant\* OR immigrant\* OR "recent arrival" OR "recently arrived" OR "new arrival")

## **Data management**

After the final database searches are completed all bibliographic information and abstracts will be uploaded to Rayyan, a systematic review management software that allows collaborators to compare abstracts and other information against eligibility criteria (Ouzzani, Hammady, Fedorowicz & Elmagarmid, 2016). Rayyan will eliminate duplicates and will allow for initial screening of titles and abstracts. Bibliographic information (title, author, publication date, journal) and full texts of all works not eliminated in the initial screen will be uploaded and organized on Zotero reference manager. Detailed notes documenting the search process and the origin of each study meeting the eligibility criteria will be kept in a physical research journal and a Microsoft Excel document, respectively. Data extracted from final reports marked for inclusion will likewise be recorded in a Microsoft Excel document.

All research and analyses will be conducted on a MacBook Pro computer running Mac OS Monterrey version 12.1

## **Selection process**

Duplicates will be eliminated in Rayyan after completing the initial searches. Remaining titles and abstracts will be screened against the eligibility criteria and marked either for

rejection or for full-text screening. To be considered for full-text screening and merit deeper investigation, abstracts must not explicitly violate one of the exclusion criteria. If a particular study violates a criterion, the screening of that title/abstract will end, and the violation will be noted.

Following the initial screening, full texts will be sought. Where complete texts are not available through the Bodleian library, or the full report fails to unambiguously satisfy the inclusion criteria, the author(s) will be contacted for further information. Eligible studies that clearly meet all the inclusion criteria will be selected for the review. The studies will be subjected to citation chaining, including both backwards and forwards citation until no further studies are identified.

To ensure reliability of screening, a second reviewer with advanced knowledge of applied linguistics will be informed of the aims and criteria of the study and recruited to assist with screening. Due to time constraints, the second screener will review 10% of abstracts whilst I review 10% simultaneously. We will come together and discuss any discrepancies to resolve any issues and clarify the inclusion/exclusion criteria. If we do not reach a sufficient level of agreement then both myself and the 2<sup>nd</sup> reviewer will then screen another 10% of abstracts and repeat this process until a satisfactory level of agreement can be reached.

Due to Rayyan's blind screening functionality, neither author will be able to see the other's decisions during the screening process, therefore reducing the potential for bias. The two reviewers will meet and discuss any discrepancies and resolve them by consensus. A Kappa value of 0.7 is usually deemed acceptable for educational research (Frey, 2018). If the reviewers do not meet this threshold value, the reviewers will confer to understand and resolve any discrepancies by consensus.

### **Data collection process**

Data will be extracted for this review by a single reviewer.

A data extraction form will be designed for this study before carrying out any of the searches. It is modelled on the Cochrane good practice data extraction form due to its flexibility and suitability for multiple study designs (Cochrane Effective Practice and Organisation of Care,

2017). This data extraction form will be piloted on 2-3 selected studies and then subsequently revised.

### **Data items**

General: date form completed, reference citation, study author contact details, publication type, document source

Study overview: research questions, study design, data type, study duration, location, and language of publication

Participants: school setting (social and educational context), population description, language background, age, gender, relevant demographic information

Intervention: type of provision/support provided to students

Outcomes: impact of provision on students. This encompasses academic (e.g., either in English language or academic content such as A levels in the United Kingdom, or ATAR scores in Australia), social (e.g., integration into the classroom) and emotional outcomes.

### **Risk of bias/trustworthiness of individual studies**

This review will follow Slavin's (1986) best-evidence synthesis method which identifies unbiased and meaningful information from experimental studies using consistent clear standards. This approach will assess methodological rigour and bias with each study critically evaluated and assigned a value of methodological quality to reflect its internal and external validity (Boland, Cherry & Dickson, 2014). This will involve an extensive description of each study with each study carefully appraised for trustworthiness to ensure bias is eliminated and credibility is ensured. Due to the scarcity of randomised controlled trials (RCTs) in educational research, a best-evidence approach avoids the risk of prematurely concluding that no research exists in a field, without sacrificing review quality.

As this review may incorporate both quantitative and qualitative data, the trustworthiness of studies will be determined using the Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT; Pluye & Hong, 2014). The MMAT is able to assess the research methodologies of five different types of studies: qualitative, quantitative randomised controlled trials (RCTs), quantitative non-

randomised, quantitative descriptive, and, mixed methods. The tool asks questions of the methodological quality which I shall answer to arrive at an overall credibility of each study in the systematic review.

### **Data synthesis**

If studies are comparable in design, populations, interventions and outcome measures, a meta-analysis will be conducted using SPSS. This would occur in instances where studies can compare newcomer provision approaches and provide quantitative analysis on differential outcomes. Forest plots of the effect sizes and confidence intervals of individuals studies will be produced to visually represent the findings of the literature.

If there is sufficient data to calculate effect sizes, they will be estimated using Hedge's  $g$ , which is calculated by dividing the differences in group means by the sample size weighted pooled standard deviations (Hedges & Olkin, 1985).

If the resulting body of research is too small, or methodological inconsistency prevents a statistical analysis, a narrative synthesis will be conducted. The guidance proposed by Popay et al (2006) for narrative synthesis of heterogenous literature will be followed if a narrative synthesis is required.

This approach to narrative synthesis will group the textual descriptions of primary research into thematic categories informed by the nature of the review question.

### **Confidence in cumulative evidence**

Confidence in cumulative evidence will be assessed using the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Develop and Evaluation (GRADE) working group methodology. This will allow me to rate the individual trustworthiness of each study collected and derive an aggregate rating for all studies combined. The assessment evaluates the following to arrive at an overall confidence grade: 1) methodological rigour; 2) coherence; 3) adequacy of data; and 4) relevance. This will result in 1 of 4 possible gradings: 1) high – I am very confident in the evidence supporting the recommendation; 2) moderate – I am moderately confident that the recommendation is supported by evidence; 3) I have low confidence that the recommendation is supported by evidence; and 4) very low – any estimate of an effect derived from the study is very uncertain.

## Appendix B. Data extraction form

	<b>Item</b>	<b>Data</b>	<b>Instruction</b>
<b>General information</b>	Date form completed (dd/mm/yyyy)		Fill in date the form was completed
	Reference citation		Full reference of the article
	Publication type		
	Document source		Identify where the article was source from (e.g., from electronic database or through backward or forward citation searches)
<b>Study overview</b>	Research questions		Note the research questions
	Study design		E.g., RCT, observational study
	Data type		Quantitative/qualitative
	Study duration		Identify the date the study was conducted and for how long. If this is not clear then note the date of publication
	Location of study		Where was the study conducted? Note as 'not specified' if information is not explicitly provided.
<b>Participants</b>	School setting		Is the school a primary, secondary, public or private school?
	Age		What is the age of the students?
	Gender		Include gender breakdowns where available
	Duration of stay in new country		If possible, include information about how long students have been in the country of arrival
	Country of origin		Where have students arrived from?
	Other relevant sociodemographic information		
<b>Intervention</b>	Type of educational program		Mainstreaming or withdrawal program
	Length of time in program		Duration that students had spent in different program

	Number of participants		Number of newcomers in the educational program
	Comparator		If a comparison group exists, note the comparison. It is unlikely that many studies will have comparators.
<b>Outcomes</b>	Outcomes type		What is being measured? E.g., language skills, attitudes, emotional development or other.
	Outcome measurement		What tests are administered to measure learning outcomes?
	Statistical findings		Note statistical findings if relevant.
	Conclusion (general)		Identify the direction of the researcher's conclusions: positive, negative, neutral, or mixed

## Appendix C. Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) – Version 2018

Category of study designs	Methodological quality criteria	Responses			
		Yes	No	Can't tell	Comments
1. Qualitative	1.1. Is the qualitative approach appropriate to answer the research question?				
	1.2. Are the qualitative data collection methods adequate to address the research question?				
	1.3. Are the findings adequately derived from the data?				
	1.4. Is the interpretation of results sufficiently substantiated by data?				
	1.5. Is there coherence between qualitative data sources, collection, analysis and interpretation?				
2. Quantitative randomized controlled trials	2.1. Is randomization appropriately performed?				
	2.2. Are the groups comparable at baseline?				
	2.3. Are there complete outcome data?				
	2.4. Are outcome assessors blinded to the intervention provided?				
	2.5. Did the participants adhere to the assigned intervention?				
3. Quantitative non-randomized	3.1. Are the participants representative of the target population?				
	3.2. Are measurements appropriate regarding both the outcome and intervention (or exposure)?				
	3.3. Are there complete outcome data?				
	3.4. Are the confounders accounted for in the design and analysis?				
	3.5. During the study period, is the intervention administered (or exposure occurred) as intended?				
4. Quantitative descriptive	4.1. Is the sampling strategy relevant to address the research question?				
	4.2. Is the sample representative of the target population?				
	4.3. Are the measurements appropriate?				
	4.4. Is the risk of nonresponse bias low?				
	4.5. Is the statistical analysis appropriate to answer the research question?				
5. Mixed methods	5.1. Is there an adequate rationale for using a mixed methods design to address the research question?				
	5.2. Are the different components of the study effectively integrated to answer the research question?				
	5.3. Are the outputs of the integration of qualitative and quantitative components adequately interpreted?				
	5.4. Are divergences and inconsistencies between quantitative and qualitative results adequately addressed?				
	5.5. Do the different components of the study adhere to the quality criteria of each tradition of the methods involved?				

## Mixed Methods Appraisal Tool (MMAT) - Version 2018 User Guide

### Qualitative studies

1.1. Is the qualitative approach appropriate to answer the research question?

#### Explanations

The qualitative approach used in a study (see non-exhaustive list on the left side of this table) should be appropriate for the research question and problem. For example, the use of a grounded theory approach should address the development of a theory and ethnography should study human cultures and societies.

This criterion was considered important to add in the MMAT since there is only one category of criteria for qualitative studies (compared to three for quantitative studies).

1.2. Are the qualitative data collection methods adequate to address the research question?

#### Explanations

This criterion is related to data collection method, including data sources (e.g., archives, documents), used to address the research question. To judge this criterion, consider whether the method of data collection (e.g., in depth interviews and/or group interviews, and/or observations) and the form of the data (e.g., tape recording, video material, diary, photo, and/or field notes) are adequate. Also, clear justifications are needed when data collection methods are modified during the study.

1.3. Are the findings adequately derived from the data?

#### Explanations

This criterion is related to the data analysis used. Several data analysis methods have been developed and their use depends on the research question and qualitative approach. For example, open, axial and selective coding is often associated with grounded theory, and within- and cross-case analysis is often seen in case study.

1.4. Is the interpretation of results sufficiently substantiated by data?

#### Explanations

The interpretation of results should be supported by the data collected. For example, the quotes provided to justify the themes should be adequate.

1.5. Is there coherence between qualitative data sources, collection, analysis and interpretation?

#### Explanations

There should be clear links between data sources, collection, analysis and interpretation.

## Quantitative non-randomized studies

### 3.1. Are the participants representative of the target population?

#### Explanations

Indicators of representativeness include: clear description of the target population and of the sample (inclusion and exclusion criteria), reasons why certain eligible individuals chose not to participate, and any attempts to achieve a sample of participants that represents the target population.

### 3.2. Are measurements appropriate regarding both the outcome and intervention (or exposure)?

#### Explanations

Indicators of appropriate measurements include: the variables are clearly defined and accurately measured; the measurements are justified and appropriate for answering the research question; the measurements reflect what they are supposed to measure; validated and reliability tested measures of the intervention/exposure and outcome of interest are used, or variables are measured using 'gold standard'.

### 3.3. Are there complete outcome data?

#### Explanations

Almost all the participants contributed to almost all measures. There is no absolute and standard cut-off value for acceptable complete outcome data. Agree among your team what is considered complete outcome data in your field (and based on the targeted journal) and apply this uniformly across all the included studies. For example, in the literature, acceptable complete data value ranged from 80% (Thomas et al., 2004; Zaza et al., 2000) to 95% (Higgins et al., 2016). Similarly, different acceptable withdrawal/dropouts rates have been suggested: 5% (de Vet et al., 1997; MacLehose et al., 2000), 20% (Sindhu et al., 1997; Van Tulder et al., 2003) and 30% for follow-up of more than one year (Viswanathan and Berkman, 2012).

### 3.4. Are the confounders accounted for in the design and analysis?

#### Explanations

Confounders are factors that predict both the outcome of interest and the intervention received/exposure at baseline. They can distort the interpretation of findings and need to be considered in the design and analysis of a non-randomized study. Confounding bias is low if there is no confounding expected, or appropriate methods to control for confounders are used (such as stratification, regression, matching, standardization, and inverse probability weighting).

### 3.5 During the study period, is the intervention administered (or exposure occurred) as intended?

#### Explanations

For intervention studies, consider whether the participants were treated in a way that is consistent with the planned intervention. Since the intervention is assigned by researchers, consider whether there was a presence of contamination (e.g., the control group may be

indirectly exposed to the intervention) or whether unplanned co-interventions were present in one group (Sterne et al., 2016).

For observational studies, consider whether changes occurred in the exposure status among the participants. If yes, check if these changes are likely to influence the outcome of interest, were adjusted for, or whether unplanned co-exposures were present in one group (Morgan et al., 2017).

## **Mixed methods studies**

5.1. Is there an adequate rationale for using a mixed methods design to address the research question?

### Explanations

The reasons for conducting a mixed methods study should be clearly explained. Several reasons can be invoked such as to enhance or build upon qualitative findings with quantitative results

and vice versa; to provide a comprehensive and complete understanding of a phenomenon or to develop and test instruments (Bryman, 2006).

5.2. Are the different components of the study effectively integrated to answer the research question?

### Explanations

Integration is a core component of mixed methods research and is defined as the “explicit interrelating of the quantitative and qualitative component in a mixed methods study” (Plano Clark and Ivankova, 2015, p. 40). Look for information on how qualitative and quantitative phases, results, and data were integrated (Pluye et al., 2018). For instance, how data gathered by both research methods was brought together to form a complete picture (e.g., joint displays) and when integration occurred (e.g., during the data collection-analysis or/and during the interpretation of qualitative and quantitative results).

5.3. Are the outputs of the integration of qualitative and quantitative components adequately interpreted?

### Explanations

This criterion is related to meta-inference, which is defined as the overall interpretations derived from integrating qualitative and quantitative findings (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Meta-inference occurs during the interpretation of the findings from the integration of the qualitative and quantitative components, and shows the added value of conducting a mixed methods study rather than having two separate studies.

5.4. Are divergences and inconsistencies between quantitative and qualitative results adequately addressed?

### Explanations

When integrating the findings from the qualitative and quantitative components, divergences and inconsistencies (also called conflicts, contradictions, discordances, discrepancies, and dissonances) can be found. It is not sufficient to only report the divergences; they need to be

explained. Different strategies to address the divergences have been suggested such as reconciliation, initiation, bracketing and exclusion (Pluye et al., 2009b). Rate this criterion 'Yes' if there is no divergence.

5.5. Do the different components of the study adhere to the quality criteria of each tradition of the methods involved?

#### Explanations

The quality of the qualitative and quantitative components should be individually appraised to ensure that no important threats to trustworthiness are present. To appraise 5.5, use criteria for the qualitative component (1.1 to 1.5), and the appropriate criteria for the quantitative component (2.1 to 2.5, or 3.1 to 3.5, or 4.1 to 4.5). The quality of both components should be high for the mixed methods study to be considered of good quality. The premise is that the overall quality of a mixed methods study cannot exceed the quality of its weakest component. For example, if the quantitative component is rated high quality and the qualitative component is rated low quality, the overall rating for this criterion will be of low quality

## Appendix D: List of references of included studies

1. Chen, Y. (2007). Equality and Inequality of Opportunity in Education: Chinese Emergent Bilingual Children in the English Mainstream Classroom. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 20(1), 36–51. <https://doi.org/10.2167/lcc325.0>
2. Chen, Y. (2009). Language support for emergent bilinguals in English mainstream schools: An observational study. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 22(1), 57–70. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310802696550>
3. Due, C., Riggs, D. W., & Mandara, M. (2015). Educators' experiences of working in Intensive English Language Programs: The strengths and challenges of specialised English language classrooms for students with migrant and refugee backgrounds. *Australian Journal of Education*, 59(2), 169–181. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0004944115587365>
4. Grieve, A. M., & Haining, I. (2011). Inclusive practice? Supporting isolated bilingual learners in a mainstream school. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(7), 763–774. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13603110903350339>
5. Hamilton, P. (2013). Including migrant worker children in the learning and social context of the rural primary school. *Education 3-13*, 41(2), 202–217. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03004279.2011.569737>
6. Li, G. (2018). From stigma to strength: A case of ESL program transformation in a Greater Vancouver high school. *BC Teal Journal*, 3(1), 63–76.
7. Matthews, J. (2008). Schooling and settlement: Refugee education in Australia. *International Studies in Sociology of Education*, 18(1), 31–45. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09620210802195947>
8. McDermott, P. (2008). Acquisition, Loss or Multilingualism? Educational Planning for Speakers of Migrant Community Languages in Northern Ireland. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 9(4), 483–500. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664200802354443>
9. Molyneux, P., & Hiorth, A. (2019). *Encountering and accomodating diversity: Contrasting approaches to supporting refugee-background students from the early to middle years of schooling*. 8(1), 83–110.
10. Murtagh, L., & Francis, T. (2012). Supporting pupils with EAL and their teachers in Ireland: The need for a co-ordinated strategy. *Language and Education*, 26(3), 201–212. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2011.629052>

11. Premier, J. (2021). Teachers' Experiences of Educating EAL Students in Mainstream Primary and Secondary Classrooms. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 46(8), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2021v46n8.1>
12. Premier, J., & Parr, G. (2019). *Towards an EAL community of practice: A case study of a multicultural primary school in Melbourne, Australia*. 42(1), 58–68.
13. Riggs, D. W., & Due, C. (2011). (Un)Common Ground?: English Language Acquisition and Experiences of Exclusion Amongst New Arrival Students in South Australian Primary Schools. *Identities*, 18(3), 273–290. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1070289X.2011.635373>
14. Safford, K., & Costley, T. (2008). 'I didn't speak for the first year': Silence, Self-Study and Student Stories of English Language Learning in Mainstream Education. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 2(2), 136–151. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501220802158875>
15. Wallen, M., & Kelly-Holmes, H. (2006). 'I think they just think it's going to go away at some stage': Policy and Practice in Teaching English as an Additional Language in Irish Primary Schools. *Language and Education*, 20(2), 141–161. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780608668718>