

**BILIUM –
Bilingualism
Upgrade Module
(Part II)**

Retorika A
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A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH TO TEACHING BILINGUAL CHILDREN LANGUAGE (NON-NATIVE AND ANOTHER/SECOND NATIVE) IN THE EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS (ECES) OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

A framework for an advanced training programme for pre-school teachers and similar structural units in mainstream schools (pupils from the age of 1.5 years to 5 years)

Working with bilingual children requires teachers, firstly, to be aware that a particular language is inextricably linked with the culture of the people who speak it, and, secondly, to be able to transfer this knowledge to children in a vibrant, exciting and accessible way. "Discoveries" in education that await us in our work with natural bilinguals may help us to raise artificial bilinguals.

Background

The Council of Europe is actively developing the concept of multilingualism. Its essence is not in declaring that people need to know several languages but in raising the number of languages it proposes should be learned, in increasing opportunities to study more languages, and in limiting the dominant role of English in international communication. In this respect, it is important that the individual does not "store" new languages and cultures apart from one another, but develops a multi-language communicative competence with the help of the systems of formal and informal education.

Teaching languages in diasporas as non-official languages of the country of residence is crucial for solving the problems of education in the multicultural expanse of Europe. The higher the level of linguistic and communicative competence of the teacher working with bilingual pre-school children in groups that differ in age and ethnic composition, and the more knowledgeable the teacher is about the specific features of a bilingual child's mastering a language as non-native/another native, the better the child's education and speech development will be. Therefore, the training of kindergarten teachers requires them to have an extensive professional outlook, knowledge of current trends in socio-linguistic situations, an understanding of the role of languages and cultures in a multi-ethnic society, and a command of the methodology fundamentals of teaching a language as a non-native (another native) language.

The purpose of this programme is to provide further training for educators in bilingual and multicultural kindergartens and similar educational organisations teaching bilingual children aged from 1.5 to 5 years, by means of developing their professional competence in teaching the language as a non-native (another native) language.

The programme also aims to broaden the professional horizons of participants, to enable them to attain a shared understanding, and to resolve educational problems related to the specificities of the bilingual/multicultural educational centre and the region of residence, as well as to secure special conditions for training, teaching

and the formation of a multi-cultural linguistic identity.

The objectives of the programme are defined by its purpose and the specificity of the group of participants – pre-school teachers and teachers in early primary education (for example, in Spain from the age of 3 years) with basic general and specific professional competence in the subject areas “native language” and “native language methodology” (less frequently “foreign language” and “foreign language methodology”).

Its tasks are to provide participants with the tools for developing existing competencies and for mastering the full range of professional skills and knowledge that would prepare and enable them to teach and develop a bilingual, bicultural individual.

In the course of mastering the programme's components, the following professional competencies will be developed:

- pedagogical: the ability to use modern methods and techniques in organising and implementing the processes of educating and teaching children at pre-school (and, if appropriate, early elementary school) stage in a multi-ethnic establishment; the ability to instil creativity and independence in children's work; the ability to shape pupils' motivation;
- methodological: the knowledge and understanding of the methods of teaching a language as a non-native (another native) language from the standpoint of an integrated approach, in contrast to the methods of teaching a language as native; a firm grasp of the theories and practices of teaching language as native/non-native and the balanced development of speech in bilingual children of pre-school age in both (native and non-native) languages (knowledge of the laws, principles, approaches, methods and forms of teaching); and the readiness to develop and implement the training programmes in their groups.
- ethno-methodological: awareness of the ethnically oriented model of native (native and non-native) language teaching, where several languages are present, and a readiness to use these ideas in practice;
- ethno-linguistic: knowledge of the systems of both (native and non-native) languages, knowledge of the linguistic fundamentals of natural and acquired bilingualism, as well as an understanding of language interference in the child's learning of a language as another native (non-native) language; the readiness to use that knowledge in teaching another native (non-native) language;
- ethno-psychological: knowledge of the age-related psychological characteristics of a pre-school child's personality, shaped by his/her and his/her ancestors' ethnic background; the willingness to convey this knowledge to the parents of this particular child as well as other children;
- ethno-cultural: awareness of the national and cultural traditions, customs, rites of the country of origin (ancestry) of the pupil; the ability to supplement this information through interaction with other pupils' parents and the

diaspora in general, the media and the country of origin, etc., and include it in the content of teaching the language as a non-native (another native) language; knowledge of the culture of interethnic communication;

- ethno-sociological: an awareness of the ethnic composition of country of the target language, of ethno-cultural interactions, inter-ethnic relations and cross-cultural communication; an understanding of the functions of the language learned as native in the country of its native speakers and the country's language policy; an awareness of how the target language functions on the world's cultural scene;
- qualimetric: proficiency in the principles, methods and forms of test control (reasonable and appropriate for the given age group), and the ability to develop own test papers to test the knowledge, skills and abilities/competencies of pupils (not only linguistic but also extra-linguistic);
- informational: an awareness of the sources of information search; knowledge of how to find and retrieve information on teaching the given language as a non-native (another native) language in the country concerned and abroad; the ability to select, critically evaluate, analyse, organise and convert information; the ability to present the information to other teachers, parents and society; to use up-to-date information and communication technologies in educational and training processes;
- self-governing (and managerial) competence: the ability to exercise self-reflection regarding one's own professional activities in a pre-school establishment with multi-ethnic students; readiness to organise teamwork to meet the challenges of the educational establishment, taking into account the national educational and language policy of the country of the given language; competence in managing the group and organising the educational process.

Mastering these competencies will enable the teaching staff of a bilingual multicultural pre-school to realise their full potential in a variety of areas: teaching, research, consulting, expertise, cultural, educational, organisational, managerial. At the heart of the structure of the course is the principle of integrity, which demonstrates a comprehensive approach to teaching a language as a second (another native) language to bilingual children.

The structure of the programme comprises four thematic modules. The contents of these modules represent the most important aspects of pre-school (early elementary school) education and teaching a language as a non-native (another native) language to bilingual children aged 1 to 6 years. Each module forms a separate component of the programme, aimed at achieving a set goal and a particular result.

The ultimate goal of mastering the modules as interrelated within an integrated approach is to enable the teacher to attain a comprehensive understanding of teaching a language as a non-native (another native) language in the context of scientific achievements in different areas of knowledge (linguistics,

sociolinguistics, intercultural communication, ethnic psychology, developmental psychology, special psychology, neuropsychology, pedagogy, cultural linguistics, linguo-didactics), which will give future educators an idea of the need to become familiar with a variety of factors that influence the education of a bilingual individual at pre-school.

The methods for implementing the programme content are: lectures, seminars and practical classes, individual work.

Forms of assessment are: on-going assessment (tests, presentation at a seminar, work book assignments, oral questioning, creative tasks), final assessment (presentation of the project, examination pass).

* * *

The phrases 'natural bilingualism' and 'artificial bilingualism' are terms borrowed from Russian language linguistic literature. 'Natural bilingualism' (in western terminology, 'childhood bilingualism') refers to a type of bilingualism where both languages are acquired in a naturalistic context by virtue of the speaker's being a member of a speech community; and the process by which this is accomplished is called acquisition. In 'artificial bilingualism' (or 'additive bilingualism'), one of the two languages, usually the second in the chronological order, is commonly learnt in a classroom environment (= learning).

In English linguistic literature, scholars usually differentiate between the first (native) language (or mother tongue) (L1), which is learnt in a naturalistic context (= acquisition), and the second (foreign) language (L2), learnt in a classroom environment (= **learning**). The difference between the terms 'second' and 'foreign' language in reference to L2 is based on the distinction between 'natural' acquisition (usually in childhood) and classroom learning (usually after childhood). Early childhood bilinguals are considered to have two first languages (2 L1s) because both languages are acquired more or less simultaneously.

Bilingualism may be consecutive (sequential) or simultaneous, and bilinguals usually have differentiated proficiency in speaking, listening, reading and writing in their two languages. If a bilingual does not live in the environment of his/her first language, the development and the maintenance of this language may be impeded and take a different developmental path, leading to incomplete acquisition (i.e. lack of ultimate attainment). In this case, the child's first language becomes reduced grammatically, lexically and functionally, and is usually referred to as 'heritage language' in English linguistic literature.

The age of the target group - bilingual children working in the analysed centres - is 1 to 5 or 6 years. In some countries (Germany, Austria) this is the age of kindergarten, in others it is pre-school or school age (e.g. Spain, France). This enables the scope of the programme's application to be widened. In the text we shall use the definition of the OECD (<http://www.oecd.org/berlin/>); "early childhood education system" (ECES).

A further clarification concerns the status of the second or third mother tongue, which is developed by children at pre-school and early school age through

immersion in situational communication in the language. This could be one of the official languages, an ethnic minority language (officially recognised in the host country), the language of a diaspora not recognised as an ethnic minority, or a language foreign to the region/family. The “family language”, i.e. the language spoken within the family, could be the language of the diaspora as a whole, or of several migrant families or even of one family. As a general rule, this language has no official status (i.e. the “family language” is also, in this respect, the “community language”). Another variant is when the family language becomes the language of an officially recognised ethnic minority within the country (the Basque language in Spain is a minority language with official status, as opposed to Chinese in the China-Towns of the USA - which is a “family language and at the same time a community language” with no official status – and to the official language of the country, or the “majority language”).

This is because natural bilingualism occurs as a consequence of:

- two or more official languages of a country (e.g. in Switzerland);
- an official language of a country plus an ethnic minority language and/or the non-status original language of the indigenous people;
- the language of a diaspora that has not been recognised as an ethnic minority in the country of residence - by this we mean not just the language of the diaspora that has already been established, but the actual language of the migrant family (all diasporas start with individual families). We use the term “family language” to cover all these variants, extending its immediate meaning: family, generation, nation.

The term “mother tongue” is very often encountered in texts as a synonym for “first language”, where the language acquisition is consecutive. We use the term “mother's language” to mean quite literally “the language spoken by the mother”; this does not necessarily refer to the first language in sequence to be acquired or mastered by a child. A “majority language” may be a child's “first language” or “mother tongue”, but not in a migration environment, where both parents are migrants (provided they take care not to suppress the family language).

“Official language(s) of the country of residence” is used in the text, as compared with “language of the migrant's (migrants') country of origin”.

Instead of “immigrants” we use the term “migrant family (families)”, since, in a global educational and professional context, the final destination of one generation is difficult enough to determine, and is all the more free from restrictions for the subsequent generations. Children may return to the country of origin of their parents or move on to a third country. The 21st century is one of constant migration.

Finally, it is our opinion that the differentiation in terminology (see common scientific literature in Europe, Russia and the USA) hides political and legal differences in the relationship towards migrants and the original non-status languages¹; the facts (the number and nature of the issues and problems concerning the development of bilinguals) are practically identical. We are,

therefore, making an attempt to unify approaches, based on the programme's practical focus.

The main terms and abbreviations used:

Community language - this is the same as “mother's language”, “family language” and “the language of the country of origin of the first generation of migrants”.

Official language of the country of residence – this refers to the language of the (migrant) community's country of residence.

ECES – early childhood education system

LAN – native language

LNN – non-native language

LAF – foreign language

LAAN – another native/second native language (for natural bilinguals)

естественное двуязычие = natural bilingualism

естественное многоязычие = natural multilingualism

семейный язык = family language

другой родной язык = other native = second native language

неродной язык = non-native = second or foreign language

INTRODUCTION

1. Contemporary trends in the development of bilingual education

The modern system of education in Europe faces three tasks. The main task is to ensure that all children have the right to an equal learning environment and to realise this right in practice. The second important task of education is to consolidate a new type of family institution: one focused on the individual characteristics of both child and family as a unit. Thirdly, education must respond to the challenge of our time; the multi-ethnicity of modern society. The world's current socio-economic conditions have created a new situation in education; the number of migrant families has increased, and this is something pedagogy has to reckon with. As a result of active migration, all centres of education have become familiar with the multilingual situation. Depending on the country and region, the percentage of students speaking other languages ranges from 10 % to 40 %. In many cases monolinguals and bilinguals are taught together in one group. Children with broadly differing characteristics may be assembled in one classroom; firstly, all of them are native speakers of differently structured languages, secondly, they have different levels of proficiency in the language of the host country, and thirdly, they have different cognitive bases (background knowledge about cultures – of both the home country and the country of residence).

Hence, there are two directions in which the education of children from migrant families can proceed: 1) teaching children with a zero and a threshold level of proficiency in the language of the host country (the method of teaching foreign languages to (pre-)school children), and 2) teaching children from migrant families in poly-ethnic and multicultural groups, in mixed-language collectives (combining language teaching methods for a non-native or another native language in the country of origin and the “language of the host country”).

Parents in migrant families are known to fall into two categories: highly-paid specialists who come to the country for skilled labour and, hence, are interested in good quality education for their children, and low-paid workers who prefer to send their children to the nearest pre-school than to take them to a special education institution (such as a bilingual kindergarten – a school which could help the child to socialise and adapt to his or her new environment). In practice, we have three types of families interested in educating their children at specialised pre-schools:

1. both parents in the family are migrants;
2. one parent is a migrant (foreign language speaker), the other a citizen of the host country and native speaker of the country's language;
3. neither parent is a migrant, e.g. parents who have adopted a child may wish to give the child a connection to his/her roots by teaching the language and culture of his/her country of birth.

The main task of the educational institutions in their work with different families is to help all parents and children to successfully adapt to the characteristic features of their new social and cultural environment and learning space, and to provide

competent methodological support for the families. At the moment, the multicultural education of children on a massive scale is carried out through “working with children of migrant families”. This educational process is in continuous motion: teaching staff have to constantly adapt to new children and take account of their culture and national characteristics. The main thing for the teacher in this work is to realise that language for a bilingual child is an extremely illustrative carrier of a particular culture and it should, therefore, be learned in the context of the respective culture. Only in this way will the child understand the role and place of the language in forming and preserving his or her particular national picture of the world, and get a feel for it as a learning tool and a means of communication.

There are two cases in which a child may be forced to speak two languages: if the language of the family and society are not the same, or if the child is educated at an institution of which the language is not the same as that of the family and/or country.

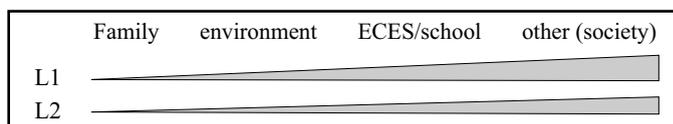
One particular case in which bilingualism occurs is when a nurse or au pair who spends a lot of time with the child speaks a different language and thus teaches the child that language. The most common situation is when the family lives in a foreign language environment and the child speaks to a friend outside the family in a language other than the one used at home. There is a growing trend today to create conditions for bilingual education at kindergarten and school.

Let us now consider what natural bilingualism, or being bilingual, is. Natural bilingualism, as defined by linguists, presumes an active, fluent command of two languages, the ability to communicate openly in both languages by switching codes. Bilingualism (multilingualism) can be competitive, when the use of the language is determined by the situation of communication, not by the topic; exclusive, when one language is assigned to one subject of communication; complicated, when there is interference in speech, or confusion of language codes; or coordinated, when two separate language systems are evolved in parallel, with full switching between the codes in communication. Observations show that in bilingual children who are addressed in literary, grammatically correct language in both cases (native and non-native languages), their bilingualism, when communicating with other bilinguals, is, as a rule, competitive-complicated, but in communication with monolinguals in a psychologically comfortable situation it is mostly competitive-coordinated. With natural bilingualism, the question which language is the first and which is the second is answered individually for each particular situation and each child. The primacy of the languages can be redistributed not only during one's lifetime but also in different spheres of communication.

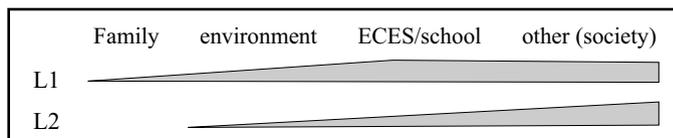
In analysing language development in bilinguals, theorists and practitioners come across an abundance of inaccurate, often contradictory, terms. For example, in current literature on ethnic Russian natural bilingualism (bilingual and multilingual children) there is an undifferentiated use of different terms: “language as non-native”, “language as second native”, “language as foreign”. These terms are not synonymous. The terms “first” and “second” language are

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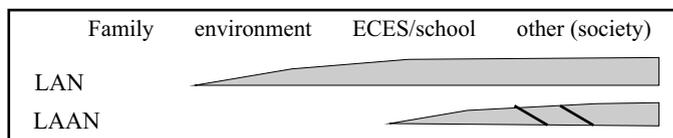
used to denote a sequence of socialisation, but because over the years, and depending on the situation of communication, they can be swapped during the life of a bilingual, the use of these concepts in relation to the bilingual's language development is not appropriate, especially since the second in sequence may at some point in life become the one of primary importance. Therefore, we would suggest that the terms “native” and “another native” are used instead of “first” and “second” native languages. One major difference is that, when a bilingual learns another language as his or her native language, the family performs the role of the “catalyst”, whereas in learning a non-native language, this role is played by society, just as with the study of a foreign language, when it is initiated by the school or university.



Type 1: Parallel learning of languages (two first languages); parents – native speakers of both languages; L1 – family language, L2 – language of society and country of residence.



Type 2: Successive (sequential) learning of languages; parents ≠ native speakers of only one language (L1) (partial bilingualism)



Type 3: LAAN - possible end after the school and after the university (↘)

ILL. 1: Societies determining the types and periods of language acquisition and learning¹

For children of migrant families living in a foreign environment, with the language of the country of origin spoken by the first generation (hereafter referred to as the “community language”), the “first” or “family” language can be (depending on the family arrangement and societal attitudes towards the speakers of that particular language) one of the native languages, a foreign language, or even a non-native

¹ Type 1 and Type 2 at <http://home.edo.uni-dortmund.de/~hoffmann/ABC/Mehrsprachigkeit.html> (13.05.2014)

language (of the parents, not acquired but learned by the child). In each case an individual approach is required, which should start with our proposed “Bilingual's Card/Anamnesis of Bilingualism”, completed collectively by teachers, parents and psychologists/speech therapists.

Finally, the important question is: why do we need to maintain and promote languages, not as an end in itself, but as a phenomenon of natural multilingualism? The answer has been given by representatives of the private business sector in Europe and throughout the world who seek to increase the number of natural bilinguals in their enterprises. This is not out of a desire to make use of their native languages (after all, the corporate language is usually English), but rather in order to take advantage of their high level of general abilities and competences: they are innately multifaceted, show originality in solving problems or tasks, can rapidly process large and diverse volumes of information, and display ability to handle and resistance to stress. Bilinguals are also particularly noted for their social skills, but here it is important to observe that they are most productive when working individually and not in a team.

We now turn to the issue of education in a multicultural group, that is, to multicultural education. This is not a new type of educational process. It is a construct based on the development of the two-way ethnic identity of the child, and in this capacity the child is the decisive means of achieving a single unified educational environment, referred to in the laws on education in most European countries and around the world, and integration into the worldwide educational arena.

The content of multicultural integrated education contributes to the development of interdisciplinary links both in humanities (reading, writing, the visual arts, cultural studies/area studies), implemented in appropriate forms accessible to children of this age, and in natural science disciplines (arithmetic, natural history, rhythmic, choreography, etc.). The result is a comprehensive development of a bi-national (international) personality with communicative competence in the broad sense of the term (including cross-cultural, socio-cultural, media-linguistic and self-competence – “I-competence”) and capable of a positive critical attitude to the phenomena of reality and the manifestations of human activity in the world.

2. What is bilingualism?

Almost 60 % of children and adolescents today are bilinguals or polylinguals. But how is natural (and artificial) multilingualism formed and developed in a multicultural environment? No scientist has yet given a clear and definitive answer to this question. But while scientists deliberate on the classification of concepts and analyse the linguistic manifestations of different types of bilingualism (extralinguistic factors do not, unfortunately, receive adequate attention), the advantages of natural bilinguals have long been recognised in such a practical field of activity as business. These advantages include social competence, intercultural competence, self- (I-) competence and environmental competence. The business world has, therefore, begun to show a preference for

natural bilinguals when recruiting staff (note that we are not talking about linguistic competence, as the corporate language is seldom the same as the native languages of bilingual employees). The reason for the heightened interest in bilinguals is that they show a higher level, on some scales, of creativity (creative ability, talents), namely, the ability to realise that a multifaceted approach to solving practical problems is possible, originality of work, whatever it might concern, etc. Many qualities of bilinguals are valuable to the modern labour market, which requires a high speed of information processing, the ability to concentrate in a noisy environment, and the ability to cooperate, all of which are precisely characteristics of bilinguals.

According to the Anamnesis (personal history), bilingualism can be natural (or so-called “family bilingualism”), in conditions where the family language is not the same as that of the population of the country of residence, or artificial, i.e. the language is neither that of the family nor the population (or community) but a third one as learned e.g. with a governess in the 19th century, or a teacher in the 21st century, in early childhood up to 8 years of age. Family bilingualism occurs spontaneously, as a result of changes in the geopolitical situation of the state, changes in living conditions (e.g. disintegration of the state, the formation of mixed families, family relocation, etc.), while artificial bilingualism is more regulated and controlled.

Some experts speak about spontaneous bilingualism as a phenomenon that is inevitable in a multicultural and multilingual society. It is the language of other nations, which children (who, as we know, are quick at picking things up) bring home from outside: from a nursery play area, kindergarten and school. In this situation, the speech of a spontaneous bilingual is riddled with errors and the language proficiency does not rise above the receptive or receptive-reproductive level. By contrast, natural bilinguals often achieve a productive command of both natural languages.

Among the most prominent sources of communication in the formation of bilingualism are contact bilingualism (formal and informal communication with speakers of one or both of the child's native languages) and non-contact bilingualism (acquiring information in languages, as well as information about the languages and cultures of their speakers, from the media). In communicative activity bilinguals are divided into active and passive learners. It is appropriate here to recall E. M. Vereshchagin's “ladder” of levels of bilingualism (from receptive, through reproductive, to productive), which confirms our thesis. Natural bilingual children of 2–4 years of age are active bilinguals, provided that parents and teachers are dedicated in their work.

It should be noted that both the communicative activity of a bilingual and the dominance of one of the native languages are influenced by the child's living environment and the conditions in which his or her individual multilingualism is formed and developed. And movement along the bilingualism “ladder” is possible in both directions. Languages can:

- be replaced (language change),
- degrade (language attrition),
- freeze (fossilisation),
- be forgotten (language death);
- be reborn (revitalisation),
- be maintained (preservation),
- be purposefully developed and brought to perfection (upgrade).

Learning two (or several) languages can occur simultaneously, successively or alternately. Simultaneous bilingual development occurs when children speak one language at home but a different one at school, or if their parents speak to them in a different language. In the early developmental stages of bilingualism children may not notice that they are being spoken to in different languages. In this case, the children “automatically” respond in the language they are addressed in. In successive learning of two languages, the first language forms the basis for learning the second one.

With alternate learning of two languages, language material is supplied to the child not simultaneously but alternately, over significant periods of time. For example, the child lives in one country (or speech environment) or another for several months. Each language is periodically at a disadvantage compared with the other. Greater attention is given alternately to the one language or the other; in between, the other language is partially forgotten but then, with a change of residence or under other conditions, recovers².

Bilingualism will be balanced only if the bilingual child is fluent in both languages, can use them in any speech situation, and can easily switch from one to the other without mixing the systems of these languages. Yet a full and independent command of two languages, according to A. N. Leontiev and I. A. Zimnyaya, is beyond the mental abilities of an ordinary individual. There takes place an interference of the two language systems, i.e. their partial identification and mixing, which leads to errors in speech.

How can the negative sides to this interference be avoided? Here we shall only outline the actions we shall be taking in the future: identifying languages and cultures in the speech and behaviour of the older generation; presenting languages consistently and purposefully in the context of culture by communicating in and about the languages; drawing comparisons, rather than differences, between languages and cultures, primarily as a juxtaposition of societies speaking these languages.

² *Паршакова О. Воспитайте ребенка билингвом! /Parshakova O. Raise Your Child to be Bilingual! Http address: http://books.google.de/books?id=HrckoQCoSL4C&printsec=frontcover&hl=de&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false*

How can native languages be introduced without mixing them? The answer to this question lies in ancient beliefs; the seven things that give gods their divine powers:

1. poses (body language, facial expressions and gestures)
2. mantras,
3. dancing,
4. chants,
5. food,
6. games,
7. smells.

These are essentially the ways in which information about cultures, communicated through language, is transmitted. It is important to bear in mind that the child is able and needs to subjectivise this information, that is, he or she gets used to the language through perceiving everything related to it by all the senses, and imitates people who speak the language.

Although in the process of learning them, the two languages influence each other (or more precisely, in the mind of a child, the structures of the one language may become distorted under the influence of the structures of the other), it must be admitted that the interference is not always a negative phenomenon. There is interference stemming from the insufficiency of a bilingual's vocabulary in one of the native languages. This is usually “self-controlled” when the child is immersed in the environment of the given language. There is also a deliberate interference in that the bilingual child belongs to two cultures and part of his or her personality or consciousness is bicultural or intercultural; it manifests itself in the fact that the bilingual refuses to regard as translations from one language to the other those concepts that do not coincide fully in the essence of the phenomenon (e.g. “Bäckerei” – bakes and sells bread; “bakery” – only sells bread). The negative manifestation of interference appears in words of one language being used with grammatical forms peculiar to the other language (e.g. “let's go to the shopku”, “dad is at the airportie”); a sort of mixture of ignorance and laziness, or unwillingness to search and find equivalents. The cause of this is the careless speech behaviour of the first generation of immigrants or of parents, which children accept as the norm (standard) because children, as we know, are easily suggestible.

BILIUM – Bilingualism Upgrade Module (Part II)

LAN	Know	ML1	Involuntary, unconscious assimilation	RL as the only reality	Uniqueness of RL	Я (I)	The definition takes account not only of the country of residence, but also the language of primary and secondary socialisation and the ethno-cultural component (the language of the ethnic identity; the language – a tool or thermometer to measure it); the role of grammar in relation to communication (learning or teaching grammar and communication) and the presence of emotional content and the link of the language history with one's own or family history (“the language is in me” or “I am in the language”)
LAAN	Can speak two languages	ML2	Involuntary, unconscious assimilation (one centre of the brain responsible for 2 languages)	Both languages as un-conscious, vital necessity	Unity in duality (“two-faced Janus”)	The creation of a new form at the intersection of 2 existing languages	
LNN	Must know the language.	ML2	Random-involuntary, unconscious assimilation (depends on the language environment, the immediate and distant)	RL as a conscious necessity	duality	Я я (I i) (for cognate cultures), or ЯЯ (for distant cultures); majority language – in strong position;	
LAF	I need or want to learn the language.	ML1 (+1 At level C1–C2)	Voluntary, conscious language learning	RL as a realised necessity	complementarity	Я R (cultures, even closely related, are influenced by the language of society, the majority language)	

Ill. 2: Language perception by native speakers. ML –“mental lexicon”, not constructed but already extracted from the existing “baggage” of the speaker (linguistic and extralinguistic). (RL –Russian Language; Я я, Я R I & i of 2 languages)

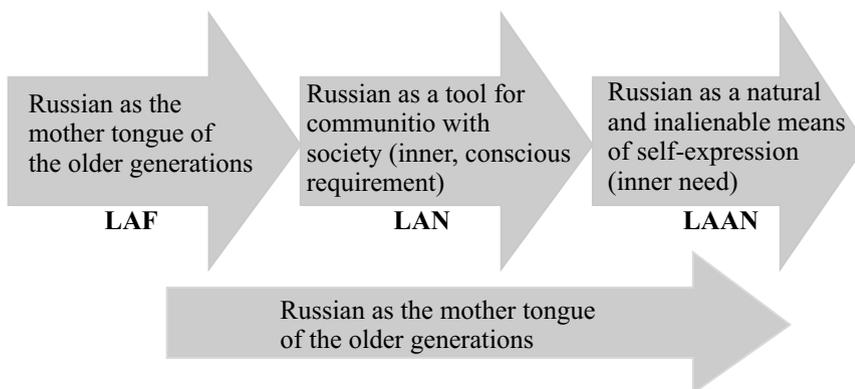
3. Which is a child's “native” language?

Which language is a child's “native” language? Who influences this? First of all, the family, the parents, who convey this language in everyday communication either as the intra-family language of complete SOCIALISATION (all family members speak the language) or as partial socialisation (mixed family). Secondly, society, which “marks” a child of a migrant family as a “non-native speaker” of the community language of that society.

Hence, the task of parents and teachers is to find ways to enable the child to decide by himself or herself which language or languages are his or her “native”, and on

no account to restrict the child to any one language. “Refusal of parents to use the 'home' language can cause great emotional and psychological difficulties for both the parents and the child. After all, language is strongly tied to emotional and identity spheres”³.

One possibility is to start with the survey (a version of the questionnaire to determine the level of the natural bilingualism balance in 5–8 year old children) designed by the authors of the site *www.bilingual-online.net*, and given in the Appendix. One of the questions concerns the attitude of the individual to his or her “own” languages (assessment, preference or suppression, language expectations and notions). There is an interesting statement by T. Yu. Pozdnyakova that “in the linguistic consciousness of bilinguals, each of the forms of existence of the language (“non-native”, “foreign”, “another native”) has its own system of identification and differentiating features that prevent, for example, “non-native” and “foreign” words from becoming synonymous (as is the case with the monolingual development of the individual), and the other-native language from turning into a complementary circumlocution⁴.



ILL. 3: Types of attitudes of bilinguals to another language/language not of the country of residence (“Lingual Self-identification of the Bilingual”, according to Yu.D. Apresyan).

Among the many definitions of natural multilingualism (bilingualism and polylingualism), we have chosen the most succinct and at the same time transparent definition for the reader of these materials. Bilingualism is the command of two languages, usually in a situation wherein both languages are used quite often in communication. The most typical case of the emergence of

³ Quoted from: *Romaine S. Bilingualism*. – London: Blackwell, 1995

⁴ Quoted from: *Позднякова Т. Ю. Русскоязычие и проблемы русскоязычной идентификации билингвов. / Pozdnyakova T. Yu. Russian Speakers and Problems of the Russian-language Identity of Bilinguals: http://www.bilingual-online.net/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=831%3Aprobleme-der-selbsidentifizierung-der-bilingualen&catid=50%3Akabinet-psihiolog&Itemid=47&lang=de* (12.05.2014)

bilingualism is when a child grows up in a family in which the parents speak different languages (the principle of “one person – one language”). There are differences between childhood, adolescence and adulthood when a second language is learned. When the two languages are learned simultaneously in early childhood (i.e. when the second language begins to be administered before 5–8 years of age), we can speak of the dual acquisition of the first language, or the mastering of two native or first languages, to emphasise the fact that the second language is acquired through the same mechanisms as the first. Such knowledge of the language is qualitatively different from the subsequent process of language acquisition because this process is already unable to be fully spontaneous. Bilingual children in a “one person - one language” situation, i.e. when each parent only speaks their native language, form an idea of the relationship between the language and the scope of application (for example, “Mum's words” and “Dad's words”). Sometimes two words from different languages are used together (as if in a translation), or a fixed expression from the two languages is coined. The more attention the parents pay to the development of each language, the less the languages are mixed, although some element of interference is still inevitable. The critical period in mastering the second language is considered to be the age of 8–11 years. After this stage the child is unlikely to master the phonetics of a foreign language to perfection. There is less likelihood that the language constructs can be mastered naturally, and ingenuousness in perceiving foreign culture disappears. Two languages are usually developed in humans to varying degrees since there are no two identical social spheres of action of the languages and the cultures they represent. Hence, there is no requirement in the definition of bilingualism for perfect proficiency in both languages. If the one language does not interfere with the second one, and this second language is developed to a high degree, close to the language proficiency of the native speaker, this is termed balanced bilingualism. The language that the person has a better command of is called dominant; it is not necessarily the first language learned. The correlation of the languages may change in favour of one or the other language under the appropriate conditions: one of the languages, as already mentioned, may partially degrade (language attrition), cease to develop (fossilisation), be forced out of use (language change), be forgotten or fall into disuse (language death); or, on the contrary, the language can be revived (revitalisation), maintained (retention), and brought up to the level of official recognition and use (modernisation). The above applies not only to individual speakers but also to language communities.

A lot of research is being carried out on speech disorders in bilinguals, which allows scientists not only to understand how the brain of a bilingual individual works, but also to better describe the nature of speech ability in general. Thus, there are cases where people with aphasia recalled the language they learned as a child but later did not use – this was a forgotten, not dominant, but emotionally charged language; the language which was spoken immediately before the illness. Recent scientific studies carried out by scanning the damaged and undamaged brain of bilinguals have shown that in people who became bilingual in adulthood, the two languages tend to be located in different parts of the brain, whereas in those

who learned two languages in childhood the languages are likely to be located in one and the same part⁵.

To this we would like to add the data on the neuropsychological base of bilingualism (Oksaar, 2003): “Hypotheses of the critical (or “sensitive”) period: the critical phase of acquisition of the second language is defined as the age between approximately the second year of life and puberty, i.e. by the age of 12. Normal (full) acquisition of a second language as a native language after the age of 12 years is impossible. Plasticity hypothesis: the optimal age for second language acquisition (natural and artificial bilingualism – E. K.) is between 4 and 8 years. At this age, the plasticity of the nervous system is at its maximum (neuronal plasticity). In practice, however, children master one or two languages much earlier.”⁶ All researchers note that early language acquisition involves a process of imitation (spontaneous creative imitation) which allows children to adopt the pronunciation of a native speaker. Furthermore, children are more mobile and uninhibited; they start speaking a language fluently, not paying attention to the mistakes they make. (After the age of 10 they become more self-critical, and self-criticism can turn into a youthful extremism with respect to both their own and other people's speech errors).

For all that, scientists point out that it is wrong to judge the quality and speed of mastering native languages by only taking account of the factor of age, because beneficial or adverse effects may be due to socio-psychological and socio-cultural conditions, which we shall discuss below. Here we shall only note that the socio-psychological conditions are a complex factor, and include:

- social conditions (the status of languages, the social status of their speakers, the ethnicity of the child and family, social networks, the age at which residence in a different environment began and the length of residence in the country of origin, keeping contacts with the country of origin, etc.);
- personal characteristics of the child (age, sex, language ability, motivation, fears, etc.)
- linguistic peculiarities of each of the native languages.

⁵ Quoted from: Bilingualism // Electronic Handbook for Students:
<http://www.students.by/articles/77/1007721/1007721a1.htm> (12.05.2014)

⁶ Oksaar E. Zweitspracherwerb. Wege zur Mehrsprachigkeit und zur interkulturellen Verständigung. Stuttgart: Kohlhammer Verlag, 2003. – 222 p.

4. Age-related psychological and physiological characteristics of children's development and the formulation of a bilingual approach to education

4.1. Psycholinguistic bases of bilingualism

The psychological characteristics of bilinguals in general are the same as those of their monolingual (monocultural) peers.

	By E. Erickson					By M. Montessori
Development stages	Psychological crises		Normal line of development	Abnormal line of development	Reference (significant) environment	Personality dominant development
0–1 year	Basic trust in the world and people	Distrust in the world and people	Love, trust in parents and communication with them	Distrust of people – result of maltreatment, lack of positive emotions	Mother	“Absorbing mind”
1–3 years	Autonomy, independence	Shame, doubt, uncertainty	Self-confidence, independence	Doubts, shyness, desire to hide flaws of speech, walking	Parents	
3–6 years	Initiative	Sense of guilt	Curiosity, imitation of adults, start of gender-role behaviour	Passivity in communication, infantile envy of other children. No gender-role behaviour.	Family	“Builder of himself”
6–9 years	→					“Researcher of the world”
6–12 years	Meaningful work, diligence	Sense of incompetence, inferiority	Diligence, commitment to success, developing skills, focus on the task	Weakness in skills development, complexes, avoidance of difficult or complex tasks and competitions.	Playground, school	
9–12 years	→					“Scientist”

ILL. 4: Age-related features of development by E. Erickson (psychoanalyst) and M. Montessori (educator). Source: *festival.1september.ru/articles/581392/pril5.doc*

For bilinguals, this chart requires some amendments: for example, the normal issues and problems of transition periods (6–7 years, 12–14 years and 16–18 years) here also include the question of characteristics of natural bilinguals – their ethnic, cultural and national identity. It is the task of teachers, parents and associated psychologists to prepare the child and then the teenager to be able to formulate correctly the question “Who am I?” and an answer appropriate to the situation (the ideal response would be “A globally minded person”): an integrated interlingual, intercultural and international mentality 0150 our term based on A. N. Antyshev's terminology⁷.

3–4 years. Distinguish who speaks which language; are able to distinguish by ear the peculiarities of the speaker's pronunciation that are characteristic of his speech.

4–5 years. Depending on the environment, select (from personal experience) which language should be used at play, how to behave in accordance with the situation (based on the observation of people whose languages and cultures are native).

6–7 years. Ask questions indicative of the development of their metalinguistic abilities: compare language phenomena, distinguish between general and particular, discuss who speaks this or that language and where, and to what nation the speaker(s) belong(s).

6 years. The first crisis of bilingualism: of crucial importance are society's view of the other native language, and the language of communication with peers and teachers.

12–14 years. The second crisis of bilingualism: the onset of puberty, along with the desire for independence, is the stage at which the child determines his or her personal attitude to the languages and to the ethnic-native speakers of those languages (who I am, why, and do I need this?).

16–18 years. The third crisis of bilingualism: when entering into an independent adulthood, professional interests begin to shape the language priorities (dominance of the official language(s) of the country of residence – prestigious professions; countries – potential providers of work (potential employers)).

ILL. 5: Age characteristics of bilinguals.

⁷ *Антышев А. Н. О стратификации этносоциумов и взаимодействии их культур и языков // Россия и Запад: диалог культур/ Antyshev A, N. On the Stratification of Ethno-societies and Interaction of their Cultures and Languages. // Russia and the West: Dialogue of Cultures. – М., 1996. – pp. 367–373.* The author discusses three types of mentality: “interlingual, intercultural, international”, based on an adequate perception, understanding and practical application of the realities of the world; a polylingual, polycultural, polynational mentality develops as a result of the bilingualism and multilingualism of both ethno-societies on the whole and of individuals who acquire, along with their native language, another or several non-native languages and their cultures; a monolingual, monocultural, mononational mentality exists only under conditions of ethnic 'seclusion' due to the ethnic group's isolation and detachment from the development of world civilisation”. We believe that the mentality of bi- and polylinguals, when the development is targeted and integrated, is first bi- or poly-lingual/-cultural/-national, and then becomes interlingual, intercultural and international not because it is duplicated, but because the interlingual and intercultural education is created at the intersection, on the basis of two or more native languages and cultures.

M. G. Haskelberg highlights the following peculiarities of the development of bilingual children:

- They master speech later;
- The vocabulary of each of the languages is often smaller than that of their monolingual peers, but the child's total vocabulary is wider;
- In the absence of systematic training, grammar may not be mastered sufficiently well;
- There may be difficulties in learning to write in the second language;
- With lack of practice, there may be a gradual loss of the non-dominant native language;
- Children may experience emotional difficulties, which are manifested in behaviour. Frequent mood swings, tearfulness and misbehaviour in younger children, and inability to complete the task begun and anxiety in older children.

As we can see, the natural bilingual's language, or rather speech in its oral and written forms (in communicative-speech situations), is a “thermometer” of his or her mental health and psychological well-being. According to V. A. Pishchalnikova, “language as a universal medium of storage, formation and representation of knowledge at different levels, ... as a representation of the mentality, determines the method of segmentation of reality, ... but as a conventional sign system it is an integral component of the system of representation of concepts and is, therefore, able to situationally update any of this system's constituents. Disruption of bilinguals' (ethno-) linguistic and (ethno-) cultural communication pattern, as well as behavioural “disorders” (starting with pseudo-hyperactivity, wrongly diagnosed by teachers in children in multicultural groups), often point to a disequilibrium between the cultures and languages that form the basis of their personalities. Disruption of this nature is the consequence of an erroneous pedagogical approach to the internationally, interlingually and interculturally oriented bilingual individual. For example, a wrong approach can manifest itself in the failure to take account of the mutual influences of the two languages and cultures learnt as native, or in the unpreparedness to use methods of teaching the language as native or as foreign, etc.

A feature peculiar to some bilingual children is that they have problems in identifying their “self”, their ego, with a particular culture or country. The age of 8–14 is the period of the formation of ethnicity; it is at this point that the question of their belonging (socially and ethnically) to a particular society is felt most acutely. But children will not be able to deal with this issue if they are not prepared gradually, little by little, FROM EARLY CHILDHOOD, because it is too late to start forming ethnicity and bilingualism at the age of 11! If the question of the social status (identity) of children is easy to resolve (the status of the parents in the community is extended to the child), the problem of nationality is far more complicated. Bilingual children, in comparing themselves with parents and classmates, see in themselves, as a personality, the features of different nationalities, for example, Russian and German. It is just that different features – Russian or German – prevail in different situations. Therefore, the role of teachers and parents is to prepare the child for his or her major decision: the perception of himself or herself as a “globally minded person”. The situation typical of the USA,

where all citizens are “Americans” regardless of the country of origin of ancestors, is in fact undesirable. In the case of wrong actions or policy on the part of the teacher, or lack of any help from the teacher, bilinguals can form a negative attitude to one of the components of their ethnic “ego”, and negative feelings or emotional experience of their ethnicity. In this respect, children of families migrating from the Russian Federation to the EU can be divided into four groups:

- those with reduced self-esteem, perceiving themselves as an “ethnic outcast”, as a result of the attitudes towards Russians in the country of permanent residence, who attempt to conceal their Russian identity and adjust to the rules of the nationals of the country of permanent residence (self-destruction of the personality);
- those with reduced self-esteem for the same reason, who direct their aggression outwards, in constant conflict with society;
- those with excessive self-esteem but held in low esteem by the surrounding society (the creation of “Russian ghettos”, initiated by the first generation of immigrants);
- those with excessive self-esteem while underestimating the Russian national culture, considering it not necessary for the development of the self as a fully-fledged personality (e.g. the diaspora of “Russian Germans” in Germany).

Each of these groups is a kind of “risk factor”, which can lead to the structural disintegration of the personality.

A second, as well as native, language is acquired in the course of verbal interaction of various types.

There are several types of such interaction:

- with subjects of interaction (adults – children who speak different languages);
- with objects of interaction (object – practice of cognitive-intellectual speech tasks);
- within an object-activity environment (developing the environment of the educational institution, training materials, manuals for language and culture teaching);
- within communication situations (situations of every-day life, learning activities);
- within purpose-oriented communication (mastering a new language, maintaining the non-native language, developing comprehension, developing effective speech, etc.);
- with verbal characteristics of communication (communication at an elementary level, communication using the linguistic richness of the second (non-native) language), etc.

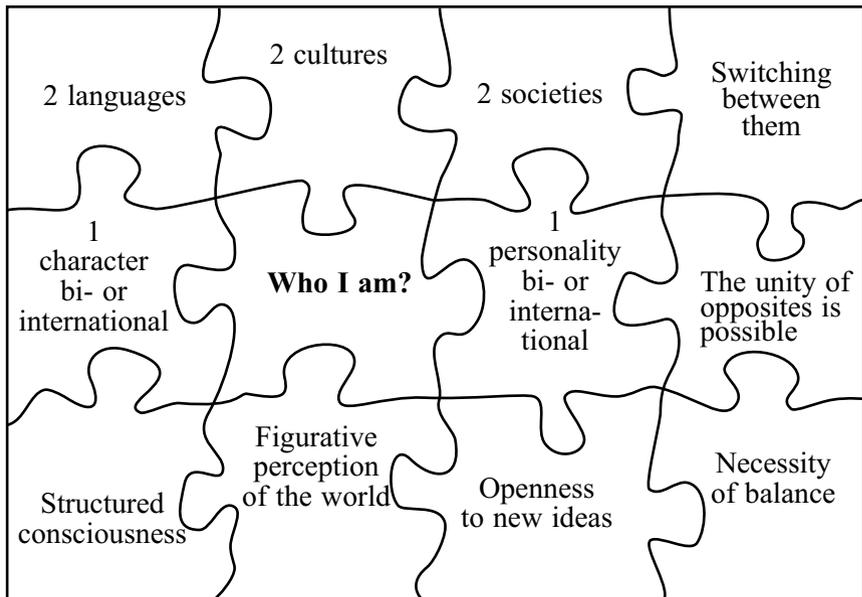
Teachers must remember that bilinguals learn languages according to the following scheme:

First, the lexical system of both languages is acquired, i.e. the process is almost the same as in monolingual children;

Second, children distinguish between the vocabulary of both languages but use only one language syntax;

Third, there is a conscious distinction between vocabulary and syntax.

Bilingual education brings about the following positive changes in the child's behaviour: the child develops new types and forms of mental reflection of reality, and new activities characteristic of a bi-national individual. It should be noted that the process involves the formation of a completely new type of consciousness: on the one hand, it is identical to that of the speaker of each of the two native languages; on the other hand, it is single in its duality and is mutually enriched, owing to familiarisation with a different conceptual reflection of the world. This means that readiness to borrow is more developed in a bilingual than in a monolingual child, and, therefore, the number of components of communicative competence of a multilingual child is different from that of a monolingual⁸.



ILL. 6: Model-puzzle “The Balanced Bilingual” (read horizontally and vertically)

⁸ The current term – secondary linguistic personality – is not suitable in this case, since the emphasis is on the linguistic rather than the social and socio-cultural components of communicative competence. Moreover, which personality in what situational context would be secondary and which primary, and which language would be first and which second, is an extremely individual matter in bilinguals. Therefore, we suggest the term “bi-national personality”, which reflects not only the existence of a bi-national picture of the world but also the reciprocal influence of the two cultures and languages, to the point of synthesis at a new level of perception and consciousness.

4.2. Characteristics of the development of natural bilinguals

Firstly, it is important to identify the basic principles of working with bilinguals in an educational institution:

1. The physiology of bilinguals and their interests (age-related) are similar to the physiology and areas of interest of their monolingual peers. But there are differences in the areas of self-perception and attitudes: a bilingual refers to an international, or at least a bi-national (see below) individual who sums up various national pictures of the world from the two available to him or her and inherent “primary sources”. As Yu. A. Sorokin believes⁹, in bilinguals, under the forced suppression of one of the native languages and cultures (family or other, peculiar to the community) as “low-prestige” and its deactivation, the first thing to suffer is not consciousness “focused on the logical form of comprehension of the world and all others in it” but a profound mentality “which recognises the spontaneous form of existence in the world and the intuitive understanding of both oneself and others”.
2. The above features of attitude and self-perception in bilinguals stem from real-life situations that are responsible for their natural multilingualism; being in migration (a consequence of their parents' choice, not theirs)¹⁰. In this case, it is not important exactly where the process of developing the future bilingual takes place. What is important is that he or she is under the influence of and perceives two native languages (or non-native and native) and two native (or non-native and native) cultures, thereby forming his or her self-identity. Therefore, the task for teachers and parents as an “education and upbringing tandem” is to take this duality into account and, to the best of their efforts, to balance its components in actual situations. As a minimum, it is necessary to cease ignoring or artificially understating or overstating the prestige of one of the components.
3. Finally and most importantly, the structure and level of the development of natural bilingualism¹¹ depends on whether the bilingual's proficiency in his or her native (or native and non-native) languages and cultures is at the same

⁹ *Сорокин Ю. А. Этнические формы культуры: сознание и модусы его вербальной репрезентации (компарационные цепочки) // Лингвокогнитивные проблемы межкультурной коммуникации. / Sorokin Yu. A. Ethnic Forms of Culture: Consciousness and its Verbal Modes of Representation. (Comparative Chains) // Linguo-cognitive Problems of Intercultural Communication. М., 1997. pp. 21–36*

¹⁰ For details see: *Баркан А. Что нужно знать о семейной эмиграции с обратным билетом. Русскоязычный – двуязычный ребенок. / Barkan A. All You Need to Know about Family Emigration with a Return Ticket. A Russian-speaking Bilingual Child. Bratislava: Vert, 2012=192 pp.*

¹¹ In the current post-intercultural society, measuring the level of cross-cultural competence should pay particular attention to communicators' preserving of their own ethno-cultural identity in the “averaged” multicultural environment, and we believe that it is necessary to look into the creation of a separate set of tests to measure the level of

level as that of teachers and members of the first generation of the family, and also whether the family and external communities are prepared for a balanced cross-cultural communication. Children's communication skills depend on how literate, rich, and reflective of ethnic and cultural background is the language used in communicative speech situations appropriate for this particular age, which has been chosen for mastering (or if non-native for learning) by children and adolescents.

If, to rely only on our own observations of children and teenagers – natural bilinguals –, one were to observe the differences between children from families of educated migrants and their peers who have a perfect command of the same languages but as foreign:

- 1) In the case of acquired bilingualism we can talk about the first and second languages, native and foreign, throughout life; the language not learned in early childhood but at school-age or later will always be “alien”, the second language. Whereas with natural bilingualism, the question of which language is first and which second is answered in each particular situation individually (for every child), and the primacy of languages can change places throughout life, depending on spheres of communication.
- 2) In the mind of the natural bilingual during the process of communication, complete and simultaneous “switching” of languages and cultures occurs (this is most evident with languages and cultures that are not very closely related). This is impossible in the mind of a person who learned the language as foreign; mentally, consciously or unconsciously, he or she translates everything from or into his or her native language (although there are also the concepts of “near-native” or “native-like”, where no translation occurs), replays the situation in the framework of his or her own culture and then “translates” (rather than automatically, without interruption, switches) it into the “foreign” culture.
- 3) The picture of the world, reflected in the minds of bilinguals, is more objective¹² and multifaceted (perception is not black and white, all phenomena have their “colours”).

purity of bilinguals' native languages and cultures, taking into account the interlingual, intercultural and international components of the bi-national personality as a whole. Such testing should be arranged in close to real communicative-speech situations. The test can be designed to check the balance of both linguistic and cultural, or more precisely linguo-cultural, “code switching”.

¹² Other American scientists, Edward Sapir and Benjamin Whorf, argue that the creation of close national pictures of the world (with all external physical factors being similar) can only be plausible if the systems of the respective languages are close. Their main hypothesis is that language influences the way a person perceives the world is still in the minds of scientists in many countries (for example, in this vein, Paul Kay from Berkeley University, California, and his colleagues from universities in the USA, the UK and Hong Kong have conducted recent experiments on colour naming and perception).

- 4) On no account should one speak of one of the languages or one of the cultures that make up the world of a natural bilingual as “foreign”, even if for political or methodological purposes, as this violates the integrity of the dualistic perception of the world of the growing bilingual child. But this is possible and correct with respect to acquired bilingualism (the monocultural person with knowledge of the culture of another people).
- 5) Natural bilingualism is a way of thinking, a world perception, self-identification. Acquired bilingualism is a way of communicating with individuals of a different culture, wearing a mask during the game called “communication” (the game – not life) because for acquired bilingualism the language is the end and not the means¹³.

Natural bilinguals, according to our observations, are characterised by:

- a specific correlation of centres in the brain responsible for speech; while in children (and adults) who learn a language as foreign this information is stored in an entirely separate part of the brain, in bilingual children who learn the language in a natural way it is stored in the same part as is the native language (the Brock and Wernicke centres). Studies have shown that bilingual children have more synapses in these regions of the brain than monolingual children. In practice, this is reflected in these children's ability to acquire metalinguistic skills, i.e. from an early age they have a better understanding of the organisation of the language, for example that one and the same object can have different names. Bilingual children use their linguistic baggage very creatively, and they have a very early start in creating new words.

What is important for us is the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, which states that human languages determine the structure of the real world as perceived by human beings (“like a network with different mesh thrown over one and the same world”) (the theory of linguistic reality quoted from: Pelz, Heidrun. *Linguistik. Eine Einführung – Hoffmann u Campe Vlg GmbH, 1996. – S. 35*), since it confirms our observations: a bilingual has the opportunity to compare two worlds – “under the networks” of the one and the other native language – and infer that there is a third, more objective middle world between the two. This explains our observations that bilinguals, on the one hand, attempt to maintain an objective attitude towards representatives of other cultures (for them monolinguals' stereotyping such as “all the French are gluttonous gourmands” or “all Russians are alcoholics” is unacceptable) and, on the other hand, perfectionism in relation to themselves and others (excessive requirements).

¹³ All these features of bilinguals make it possible to regard them as the best participants of intercultural communication, because both their languages exist in the triad: language (form) – the objective reality of the given culture and its influence on the mind (content) – communication (a way to share content while complying with the form peculiar to this language). A simple example: a native speaker of both Russian and Chinese when expressing condolences to a Chinaman over the death of the latter's loved one can use, apart from his knowledge of Chinese (the form), knowledge of the traditions of China (content), to make the communication adequate.

- a bipolar national picture of the world in their minds (they are capable of building “a bridge” of rapport between their native and neighbouring cultures); in the bilingual's inner world the two cultures form a kind of unity – a third culture (which is not an amalgamation but the creation of a new one from an ongoing analysis of the two available), two national pictures of the world co-exist in the same person, the dialogue of cultures “within” one personality;
- greater social competence and media competence; bilinguals possess better trained mechanisms for suppressing alien information¹⁴ and extracting subtext (intertext);
- greater inherent structuring of consciousness; the order in the mind required for “equalising” the dual linguistic and cultural “ballast” is reflected in the tendency to structure the entire living space not only by national and foreign cultural (German and non-German, Ukrainian and non-Ukrainian, etc.) but also by other criteria, depending on age and education; in doing so, natural bilinguals often set their own criteria;
- greater tendency to and ability for introspection as a way of becoming acquainted with and analysing the surrounding reality – “I didn't say that right”, “my parents get this wrong”; as well as analysing through the juxtaposition of information from different ethno-cultural sources (Note: See the above hypothesis of Sepir-Whorf) – the result is the “filling of information gaps and the objectification of data”;
- the ability to perform profound semanticisation of both native, and later, learned foreign languages, to mutually enrich meanings between the languages (for natural bilinguals language is a living organism; the mixing of languages at an early age is not an attempt to replace the unknown by the known but often a way of simplification, making the known “transparent”, an attempt to create new words).
- the ability to withstand large mental workloads (provided that bilingualism is properly “nurtured”, including outside language learning, and supported

¹⁴ “... so bilingualism is a type that has tremendous educational value because, from a purely bilingual perspective, a person who speaks two or three or more languages as their native will not be for that reason any more cultured than a person with only one native language: he has no reason to compare them. And why is the comparison of languages so important? First, comparison, as already mentioned, increases awareness: in comparing different forms of expression, we separate the thought from the sign that expresses it and the thought itself. Second, and most importantly, we must bear in mind that languages reflect the world perception of a particular social group, i.e. a system of concepts characterizing it, and the system of concepts, as we learn from dialectics, is not something given once and for all, but is a function of production relations with all their ideological superstructures”. (Л. В. Щерба. К вопросу о двуязычии (Щерба Л. В. Языковая система и речевая деятельность. / L. V Ščerba On the Question of Bilingualism (L. V Ščerba. System of language and speaking activity. – L., 1974. – Pp. 313–318).

- from the start of learning); great resistance to stress and ability to concentrate in difficult situations (e.g. where there are distracting factors);
- thinking through images, with no mental translation¹⁵; variability and originality in solving problems;
 - a greater social activity and, with a sufficient command of the language, a greater desire to increase the number of contacts.

But not all of the characteristics of bilingual children's development are positive, or perceived as such by people around them. For example, the problem of mixing languages (interference) is very well known (and will be discussed later). Many parents and teachers rightly pay a lot of attention to this. For a long time it was thought that the confusion of languages which is observed in children is something that should be avoided whenever possible. Today we know that, in itself, the use of two language systems simultaneously is perceived by children as a matter of fact, demonstrates their creative abilities in mastering languages and contributes to their ethno-social integration and the development of logical thinking. However, we must not forget that in a monolingual social context, the quality of communication depends on the ability of members of society to express their ideas by using one language system. Early immersion in a foreign environment results in a somewhat prolonged inhibition of speech development in some children.

Lack of attention on the part of parents and teachers to children growing up in a multilingual environment (as a rule, these are children of migrant families, more vulnerable socially than the indigenous monolingual population) can lead to a degradation of the rudiments of the bilingualism, which becomes either a “one-sided bilingualism”, i.e. communicative competence more or less equal to that of the native speaker of the language appears in only one of the languages (these children are often called “Russophones” or, in our terminology, “modern illiterates” or “*moderne Analphabeten*”, because they are able to perceive the Russian language only by ear and at the level of everyday communication, but they can neither read nor write Russian), or a “double semi-language”, i.e. neither language reaches the level of communicative competence of native speakers. It will be noted that these phenomena manifest themselves in different ways, for example, the child can be utterly incompetent in some areas of communication (this is associated with a temporal factor in the development of bilingualism; regular use of both languages in communicating with the child and in the child's presence – a child can only gain experience of communicating on a certain subject if he or she hears adults (or others) speaking it), but perfectly competent in others.

These children are also vulnerable to social and psychological degradation, since they do not associate themselves with any community or society as full members

¹⁵ See also: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science?_ob=ArticleURL&_udi=B6WNP-509RYRT-1&_user=10&_coverDate=06%2F15%2F2010&_rdoc=1&_fmt=high&_orig=search&_sort=d&_docanchor=&view=c&_acct=C000050221&_version=1&_urlVersion=0&_userid=1&md5=c88a4f52f2ee61647cb976402ef87fb4 (12.025.2014)

and are not capable of expressing themselves adequately, whereas their bilingual counterparts whose bilingualism is supported by the communicative situation in the family and pre-school are able to progress independently from receptive and passive to active reproductive bilingualism and then to productive bilingualism (M. M. Mikhailov's terms¹⁶).

Thus, in the process of developing and supporting natural bilingualism everything depends on the specific goals, objectives and opportunities – of teachers and parents. But for teachers it is important to understand, above all else, what the parents' choice is in relation to the desired degree of bilingualism in their children; for their parents it is important to recognise the potential of the younger generation while continuing targeted support of multilingualism. This will determine what strategy should be used when working with a particular child.

4.3. Periods of language development in the multilingual child¹⁷

1. During the period from birth until one year of age children respond to sounds, follow with their eyes the object making the sound or turn their head in the direction of the object. They try to reproduce sounds themselves. In the case of developmental disorder, there can be a period of silence and absence of any reaction to stimuli from the age of six months. If this is due to the lack of the child's contact with adults through eye contact, then this disorder is not related to multilingualism and is of a more complex nature.
2. From 1 to 2 years of age, children understand the simplest statements in each of the languages, can say simple words (mum, dad) and respond to their name; they can perform simple tasks and name objects. If the child does not speak and tries to communicate with gestures and facial expressions only, it will be necessary to observe how he or she communicates with peers in the game (whether he or she develops both native languages or uses the two mother tongues incorrectly, confusing them).
3. At the age of 1.5–2 years children speak a “mixed” language, i.e. to every object or action they assign one term in one of the two languages. Children use this mixed language when speaking with both parents. It is all the more important during this period to continue with the “policy” that each parent speaks his or her native language when communicating with the child.

¹⁶ Quoted from: *Михайлов М. М. О разновидностях двуязычия// Двуязычие и контрастивная грамматика. / Mikhailov M. M. On the Varieties of Bilingualism // Bilingualism and Contrastive Grammar. – Cheboksary, 1987. – pp. 4–9.*

¹⁷ Another table: РАЗВИТИЕ РЕЧИ РЕБЕНКА НА РОДНОМ ЯЗЫКЕ / “Development of a child's speech in the native language” is given in Е. Протасова «Дети и языки»/ Е. Protassova's Children and Languages. See also: Как ребенок учится говорить./ How a Child Learns to Speak – on-line: <http://abvgd.russian-russisch.info/txt/logo/r8.html> (12.05.2014)

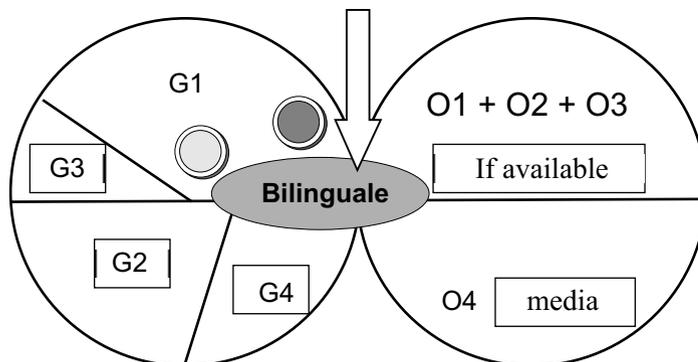
4. From 2 years of age the following developments are characteristic for bilinguals: delayed language development compared with monolinguals (monolinguals experience a so-called “lexical explosion”; they compose multi-word phrases – up to 4 words); frequent inappropriate behavioural responses to remarks by people around them (adults think that the children do not understand them). All of this causes anxiety in parents, who may immediately turn to professionals (psychologists, speech therapists) for help, usually without success. Monolinguals simplify words, but in bilinguals this is the age of the onset of a period of confusion of tongues; children choose from the languages they know the one in which the words and phrases are easier to pronounce and use them in replies, regardless of the language of the question. This period continues until 3–4 years of age. At approximately 3 years the child begins to resist multilingualism, but at the same time distinguishes between “dad’s language” and “mum’s language”, choosing the simplest. Only later do children finally resign themselves to their multilingualism and even require both parents to speak to them in “their” language.
5. We all know that children need to communicate with adults as well as with peers (at kindergarten, in the playground). Firstly, they are trained for collective action. Secondly, they go through the so-called “silent period” faster, i.e. the internal processing of the material of the “alien” language, for example the language of the country of residence, if they are only spoken to in the “weak” language at home (e.g. Tatar outside Tatarstan). If, however, the language of the outer circle (of communication) is not alien to the child, for example, if it is “dad’s language”, then it is advisable to send the child to kindergarten a little later, at about 4 years old.
6. From 4 to 5 years of age natural bilinguals are characterised by: the desire to communicate with one person in one (“his” or “her”) language and with another person in the other language; if this fails, the child “protests” in the form of “self-isolation”, the intensive search for peers for self-expression (self-realisation), and an acute need for socialisation. From 4 years of age there begins a period of language differentiation, when the child is constantly busy looking for conformity (not translation, but precise matching!) between the concept he or she knows in one native language and the concept in the other native language. In conversation, the child responds to questions in the language he or she was asked in or (!) which the bilingual associates with the questioner.
7. From 5 to 6 years of age, bilinguals demonstrate: a leap into socialisation; fluency in both languages; psychological comfort; the desire to help others (translating for parents); ease of communication with strangers in familiar languages. During this period they out-perform monolinguals in development, and display an excellent understanding of speech, the ability to juxtapose and compare, exceptional memory, logical thinking and the ability to differentiate between languages. Of personal qualities, self-confidence, self-respect and tolerance are particularly worthy of mention.
8. At the age of 6 to 7 years, children identify the topics that are easier for them to talk about in one of the languages; for example the “home language” would be

appropriate to deal with personal issues, and the “language of the environment” is most likely to be the language used to speak about knowledge of the world, etc. But any communication cuts both ways; children “bring home” a lot of mistakes from the speech of other children at kindergarten or in the playground. Therefore, even if communication at home was previously only in the native language of the mother and/or father, from now on parents will have to start working seriously with the child on the language of the country of residence, otherwise errors in his or her speech will take root.

Parents will need to watch their own speech closely too; on the street, at home, on the phone, and talking to strangers. It is still better, however, to use the language of the family with the child, allotting special time for “lessons” in the language of the environment. To the question what is the appropriate time to start teaching the child to read and write, there is no definite answer. Parents can show, pronounce, teach to recognise letters when the child is two years old. In some families, where parents devoted sufficient time to the development of bilingualism, the recognition of letters came at about two and a half years, and the children tried to write letters by themselves for the first time at three years. But this was only with “purposeful” development; special classes with the children. When teaching the two alphabets, you can start with the characters common to both alphabets, then move on to the letters that are specific to only one language, and only at the very end to acquaint the child with the letters that look the same but are pronounced differently.

**4.4. Social (ethno-social) adaptation
(social and personal development of the child)**

We know that the individual and society are in constant interaction, and this determines the social environment of the individual's development. The transformation of a monocultural individual into a bilingual one is influenced by a number of micro- and mega-societies. The intensity of the impact of each society depends in turn on a number of factors: age, education, level of language proficiency, availability and regularity of contacts with that type of society, and psychological attitudes.



Ill. 7: Types of societies and their impact on the natural bilinguals¹⁸

Explanations: G... – societies in the country of permanent residence (CPR), (for example Germany); O... – societies in the country of origin of the first generation of migrants (e.g. Russia). G1, Society 1 (O1) – the closest social environment (for pre-school children – family; for schoolchildren - classmates); primary; G2, Society 2 (O2) – distant society (for pre-school children – ECES, for schoolchildren – family); primary; G3, Society 3 (O3) – distant society (society of the country of origin of the older generation); primary, but if contact is maintained only through the older generation – indirect and secondary society; G4, Society 4 (O4) – media-society (media); secondary (media-competence of bilinguals should be regularly developed in both their native languages, taking into account the ethno-specific factors of media content, in accordance with the ethno-social, ethno-cultural, socio-linguistic characteristics of audiences of each of the cultures).

NB. In the transitional age periods (from ECES – to school/6–7 years, from primary – to secondary education/10–12 years), G1 and G2 change places: school and classmates are of greater significance in the life of bilinguals than the family and the language of primary socialisation (and thereby the CPR society's evaluation of the language and culture of the family). At this time, the “first” and “second” languages change in importance (but not in the sequence of learning).

 CAS: capsule “added society”, secondary (indirect) society (the image of the country of origin which exists in the minds of first-generation migrants and which they “extend” to the second and subsequent generations; it is often at odds with the image of that country which has developed in the CPR (country of permanent residence)). Can be used by the teacher in teaching specific features of the CPR.

 CSS: capsule “subjectivised society”, secondary (indirect) society (the image of a new CPR in the minds of first-generation migrants which they “extend” to the second and subsequent generations). Parents who have not enjoyed success in the new CPR unconsciously “predict” the status of “loser” for the child too; successful parents with an objective view of the CPR are as good as a guarantee of their children's success.

A bilingual child is a member of several societies from birth (see chart above), and each society treats bilingualism and bilinguals in its own way: from explicit support of multilingualism (command of several languages at native level is welcomed and encouraged by the society of the country of residence) to explicit rejection (switching from language to language is regarded as an act of emphasising one's own “exclusiveness”, interference – as lack of knowledge of

¹⁸ Compare: A. Piz distinguishes 4 spatial zones in communication: 1) intimate (15–46 cm) – for people who are in close emotional contact: children, relatives, close friends; 2) personal (46 cm – 1.2 m) – zone of communication at social gatherings, official receptions; 3) social (1.2–3.6 m) – distance of communication with outsiders, new employees; 4) the public (over 3.6 m) – distance of contact with a large groups of people, with an audience.

either language; switching from the language of interethnic communication to the community language – as a sign of bad manners, etc.). The difficulty here can also be explained by the fact that the negative attitude of others towards a person speaking in a community language among people of a different culture is not due to the negative attitude to the community as a whole, or that individual personally, but simply to a lack of understanding, a sense of “exclusion” from communication and one's own inferiority.

Therefore, parents and teachers should:

- give the child the practical knowledge, skills and abilities (hereinafter referred to as KSA) for an adequate acceptance into each of the societies and for switching behaviour when changing societies;
- prepare the child for individual “refinements” and “adaptations” of the KSA learned in one society for use in another;
- explain and demonstrate the standards of communication when using the community language

The child should acquire this knowledge at play (active and passive) and by observing the behaviour of other children and adults, i.e. members of the societies (passively).

How can parents and teachers correct a child's behaviour? We propose the following ways of teaching behaviour:

- verbally (discussing specific behaviour with a child on a one-to-one basis and on the level of “equals”);
- through patterns of conduct and through playing (fairy-tale characters, both negative and positive);
- helping him or her to observe the behaviour of different people (on no account should you tell the child that adults are always and absolutely right).

In doing so, it is important to encourage children to tell stories about their own experience in order to help them to understand, and if necessary, adjust their behaviour).

Finally, adults can support bilingual children in developing their self-perception, beginning with helping them to verbalise their experience (“I'm not like everyone else, why?”) and ending with a device such as self-analysis of peer-members in each of the societies. The ultimate goal is to give the bilingual child an understanding of the diversity of the societies in the world around him or her, their characteristics (the degree of openness, conduct and other peculiar features of their members – mandatory and optional) and his or her belonging to more than one of them (as a “globally minded person” or a European).

Bilingual children are extremely “shrewd” in selecting information. As a rule, they tend to show interest only in familiar and (in their opinion) useful things in the world around them. Each of the languages must be learned in the context of the

respective culture. Only in this way will the child understand the language, create and maintain a national picture of the world, and acquire a feel for the language as a means of learning and communication. Note that the word “communication” has the same root as “community”. Indeed, the same attitude as is manifested by the community around the child (distorting or, on the contrary, preserving it) will be nurtured in and manifested by the younger generation.

By extension, it is possible to make judgements about the society and the nation as a whole from the attitude to the language; the smaller nations of Europe treat their language with much greater care and respect than the larger ones. They avoid borrowing and do not carry out linguistically unreasonable language reforms.

Therefore, it is important to:

- include in the process of education “the construction of the world around” as a game and a way of learning about reality (build your house out of the bricks and describe the location of things and where your room is in the house; put other houses, shops, hospitals nearby and say what is missing and why all this is needed);
- remember that traditions and culture must not be simply “told about”, they need to be demonstrated – by your daily behaviour and adherence to traditions; to this end it is necessary to watch and discuss with the child cartoons and films in Russian; invite to the house people for whom the language and culture are native, above all peer children and the elderly;
- pay attention to the design of the children's room (and the house in general); national patterns, posters, sayings must also be from the two cultures (you must always aim for the maximum visuality!);
- celebrate both the Russian and national holidays; eat according to the traditions and rules of one or the other culture alternately. Birthdays should be celebrated in both languages, or the child can choose which one himself or herself; everyday routines (physical exercise, brushing teeth, bathing, etc.) must be carried out alternately in the two languages, with nursery rhymes, folk rhymes, etc. of the given culture);
- understand that the process of learning at an early age should run in parallel with the process of learning about the world; the child is interested in plants he or she sees and the adults name them in both Russian and the other native language; when the time comes to study the geography of the child's native land, the first generation go on a journey with the child on a magic carpet from the living room to the countries of their native language, talk about inhabitants, cities, towns and traditions;
- remember that language for a bilingual is an extremely illustrative carrier of culture. Therefore, when introducing a new concept, it is firstly necessary to fix its image in the child's mind (“visualisation”), because the reproduction of this concept is preceded by the appearance (“birth”) of the image obtained in this cultural and verbal environment, and only then can a word in the language appropriate to the situation be committed to the child's memory. The image from a different language environment should be given in comparison. Set the child a task such as asking him or her to find a definition of this concept in the second native language (not a translation, but an

adequate name), taking into account the specific national semantic and cultural components of the word. In other words, the work should be focused first and foremost on training observation and comparison, that is, finding some common elements of the languages. The differences should be dealt with later;

- expand bilinguals' vocabulary and improve their communicative competence. This is best done through play. In general, playing is what children do the most; by following patterns shown by adults, children are able to learn to invent educational, developmental games. Games (finger games, fairy tale-based games, logopaedic games with the phonetic leitmotiv of “hearing the right sound”) must always be in the two languages. In doing so, teachers and parents should not simply translate the content but they should also provide a similar component in the other culture; if, for example, it is a folk rhyme, it should not be translated into another language but form an authentic rhyme of the other nation. Many fairy tales are a mine of information about peoples' culture and traditions, and it is advisable to make abundant use of these too;
- “train” children to compare (by analysis and synthesis) the two cultures and their verbal representation (not imposing a game, but incorporating it in situations of everyday life; for example, at the zoo, or taking a walk outdoors, asking: what does a Russian dog “say”, and what does a German one say?, etc. This is especially important because switching codes occurs not only in the course of the natural bilingual's communication with the outside world but also in the perception of this world and its analysis within his or her “I”. This opinion was expressed by A. A. Ukhtomsky¹⁹: “‘dialogue’ is possible in the mind of a single individual, the so-called ‘internal dialogue’”. This view was shared by M. M. Bakhtin²⁰:

A bilingual for whom both Russian and German are native languages views the environment from the position of a “German” and then of a “Russian” (“one amongst strangers and a stranger amongst one's people”). If the child did not master by practice the mechanism of the positive juxtaposition of points of views from various national pictures of the world of one and the same phenomenon as “different or complementary”, then one view would turn out to be “alien” and rejected, with extremely negative consequences for the integrity of the bilingual's personality²¹.

¹⁹ *Ухтомский А. А. Письма // Пути в неизвестное / Letters // Paths to the Unknown*, М., 1973

²⁰ *Бахтин М. М. Эстетика словесного творчества/ The Aesthetics of Verbal Creativity*. М., 1986

²¹ See also: *Харин С. С. Внутренний диалог как форма проявления сущности// Харин С. С. Искусство психотренинга. Заверши свой гештальт. – Мн.: Издатель В. П. Ильин, 1998/ Kharin S. S. The Inner Dialogue as a Form of Manifestation of one's Essence// Kharin S. S. The art of Psycho-training. Complete your Gestalt. – Mn. Publisher VP Iljin, 1998, c. 183–348. Or: “The world is twofold for man, in accordance with the duality of the key words that he can pronounce. Key words are not isolated words*

4.5. The practice of working with pre-school bilinguals

The current working practice of ECESs with families of migrant children should take account of children's individual characteristics. Therefore, in accordance with the state's educational programme, educational objectives and forms of upbringing and education of children, with both normal development and impaired mental and speech development, are selected and adapted for each particular family. To this end, families are provided with methodological, psychological and educational consultative support. Types of work with parents include topical talks (discussions), conferences, consultations, round table meetings and parents meetings focusing on teaching different subjects and issues of family upbringing.

Pre-school educators working with bilingual children work in close contact with the family, for instance, parents are involved in the teaching of children by pre-school specialists; in turn, kindergarten teachers visit families and provide the necessary consultations to parents. Thus, psychological and educational support to families makes it possible to engage parents successfully in the educational activities that promote the interaction and cooperation of parents with pre-school (ECES) specialists. Precisely such close cooperation, as well as the children's successful socialisation and adaptation to the conditions of the pedagogical process, provide for the integration of parents in the sphere of education as equal partners of the ECES teachers in resolving the general problem of the harmonious development of all pupils.

But it should not be overlooked that, for the the bilingual component of the system of education to be implemented and developed successfully, the important and even basic factors are: the personal, professional and cultural level of the teachers, their drive and willingness to improve their pedagogical competence and find ways to open up dialogue with the family. Only in this way can a teacher provide support and real help to children and their parents, and the interaction of the ECES and the family will be successful and productive.

4.6. Creating an optimal socio-educational environment as a condition for a productive process of bilingual education for pre-school children according to their age

In view of the psychological characteristics of the child's general development, it is best to start the bilingual and bicultural development of the child from the age of 3 and no later than 8, by creating for him or her a comfortable bilingual and

but word pairs. One basic key word is the pair I – You. The other key word is the pair I – It” ↓
(Бубер М. Я и Ты. / Buber M. Ya. I and You. M., 1993. p. 6). The pairs are transformed for the bilingual: I – We (for instance, a Tatar looking at the Tatars from the point of view of the Tatars' national picture) and I – They (as a Russian looking at the Tatars). And self-recognition as “more Russian or “more Tatar” occurs in a dialogue with the other (but not foreign!) culture.

bicultural educational environment. This will ensure that the (school) upbringing and education occur naturally as part of the life process. The “self-education” of the child and his or her “growing up” and “settling down” in the host society and the family circle are facilitated by the adapting and guiding (not dictating or instructing) influence of teachers and parents, who participate in the children's games and are part of their world. The child as a subject, his or her peculiarities of age as well as personality (capabilities and needs) determine the pace, intensity and depth of the educational process. Educational (not teaching) partnerships (mainly bi(poly)cultural) in his or her life are: child + parent, child + teacher, child + child, parent + teacher; and more globally: child + parent + society (as a “triangle”, providing stability). It is necessary to look for mechanisms for interacting with and complementing these partnerships, not confronting or opposing them.

What knowledge and skills are necessary above all for pre-school bilingual children? Undoubtedly, the child's intellectual development (memory, attention, etc.) is important. It is also important for children to talk in both languages about themselves, about the events of their life, describe their inner state, understand the state of the other person (from facial expressions or gestures peculiar to the companion's culture). It is important to consider the general approaches to education and teaching in different countries. For European childcare institutions the key issue is discipline, perseverance, the ability to perform a task from start to finish; not abandon the work started, and accuracy in performing the task. At the same time, education is a process that is not so much aimed at attaining a (final) result, but rather at enjoying the activity as it is. For this reason, parents still need (without crossing the line of what is permitted in the national culture of the country of permanent residence (CPR)) to steer children towards achieving the best results, and kindle their spirit of competition.

Children's familiarity with the cultural components of each of the language communities (folklore, holidays, traditions) plays an enormous role. The child must know clearly when to use one language and when the other. This should not necessarily be a division into “one person - one language”; a situational division is also possible.

It is important to bear in mind that putting pressure on the child in the process of language learning is not productive. Mistakes in children's speech should not be corrected; it is better to ask them again in the same form that they used but without errors; or to play in the “theatre of quasi-understanding” (by E. Madden). Focusing on the themes and the interests of the individual child, rather than imposing the language as an end in itself, is an important prerequisite for success. The development of verbal skills is most effective in a situation where the child, while in the social role of the “strong” (assistant, translator, adviser), is “forced” to use his or her “weak” language.

Of great importance for children between 1 and 3 years of age is the early verbal development of the “weak” language by exploring the realities available to them (fruits, vegetables, toys, transport, etc.). The same realities can be introduced to children in parallel in a foreign language, but it must be done in a separate lesson,

with another teacher and even on a different day (the same lesson and material but in the “strong” language), in order to allow them to digest the material first in one native language and then in the other. This is an optimal approach for mixed groups too. Why is emphasis placed on working with the “weak” language? Because the language of the environment or society inevitably wins back its position as soon as the child begins to interact with children outside his or her home.

The most effective way is to engage mothers in teaching younger pre-school groups, and to conduct lessons on the following programme:

- sensory development (the development of perception: colour, form, size);
- the development of speech (verbal utterance formation, training the child's organs of hearing and speech to perceive the correct sound and correct articulation in each language);
- the development of thinking, attention, memory, imagination;
- the development of fine motor skills;
- social development (communication skills) in both native languages.

For older children the most appropriate training is in logic with the basics of mathematics to prepare them for school. Main subjects are: arithmetic, the composition of numbers, geometric shapes, the elements of addition and subtraction, etc. The teaching principles are the same.

All work with pre-school children – not only language classes and humanities – is aimed at:

- the ability to express thoughts;
- practising correct pronunciation in Russian and the other native language;
- teaching narration skills;
- preparing children to read and write in Russian.

From 3–4 years, lessons with ABC books and reading can be started. This will help to develop articulate speech and fill the gaps in vocabulary, etc. Classes also focus on training the hands to write. In our experience, children who have not learned to read in the pre-school years quickly lose interest in learning the “weak” language because of the increased workload with respect to the “strong” language at mainstream primary school.

By the age of 5 the child needs to understand that he or she speaks two languages and is growing up in a two-culture environment, and so must distinguish between the linguistic and cultural realities of everyday life. The most important task of a bilingual ECES is to give examples of clear speech in different languages (with the help of parents and nationally-focused centres of further education within the diaspora), and to teach children the correct usage of the languages. Ideally, the standard of each of the languages should be the same as that attained by monolingual children (vocabulary, spontaneous speech, pronunciation). To this end, it is a good idea to make up a “language box” – a picture dictionary designed for different age groups in each of the languages, and to use it in regular group

discussions; naming and describing the pictures, and composing mini-stories in sets of 3–5 pictures.

At the age of 5–7, it is important to consider the following points in class preparation:

- formation and development of speed-reading skills in the community language and official language of the country of residence,
- consolidating and enhancing narration skills,
- developing skills in story-telling (coherent, fluent speech),
- teaching to write in the “weak” language (starting with printed letters; patterns for writing skills will appear once writing has been learned in the “strong” language at mainstream school, and hence there should not be any “conflict” between the individual style and the style of writing typical for the country),
- the basic grammar of the two languages (with elements of comparison).

We would reiterate that for all age groups it is extremely important that regular home learning, for the purpose of developing speech, is done in play situations rather than around a table. For example, for children of 1–3 years: a teddy-bear comes to visit the doll; the baby doll gets dressed to go to the kindergarten, etc; for children of 4–5 years: a role-playing game (daughter-mother, professions, etc.). Teachers and parents do not just observe the playing but actively participate in it by introducing new words and unobtrusively guiding the children to ensure that they use these words and expressions. Also of importance are games involving tongue-twisters (which develop pronunciation, intonation and phonetics) and music classes at home (memorising songs by heart promotes the expansion of vocabulary and fixed syntactic constructions, and develops correct pronunciation and intonation).

Meeting the following criteria for how the educational environment should be organised is the most effective way of developing a child:

- ECES teaching staff: in addition to the regular teacher in the group, a psychologist is also required, preferably with knowledge of the cultural features of the country of origin of the child's parents, as well as a speech therapist, ideally with some knowledge of the the child's other native language;
- The number of children in the group: a maximum of 10–15 children to 2 teachers; out of that number, a maximum of 5-6 can be bilingual with another native language other than the language of the host country, or 3–4 children for whom the language of the host country is non-native or foreign.
- Equipment must include:
 - household, play, education (including books and films), sports equipment and elements of design,
 - indoor and outdoor equipment,
 - public (manuals on ECES programmes, children's creative works, the results of the project's activities – all of this is important for producing a

positive external response to the ECES's activities) and internal (“Anamneses of bilingualism” of the children, photo and video materials of the work of the ECES),

- bilingual and multicultural (films, movies, furnishings and decorations, etc. in two languages, ideally if the children are proficient in the same language; the ECES web site and external design should also be bilingual).

The equipment must be:

- accessible (i.e. accessible physically to the child, who is able to use it properly and creatively. There must also be functional accessibility and a range of different teaching materials),
- experimental (design kits),
- multifunctional, i.e. related to the real world (to teach how the means at hand can and should be used),
- in harmony (not discord) with the environment, the child's physiology and psychology.

4.6.1. Visualisation of multi-cultural space in ECESs

As we know, people identify themselves in space (geographic and socio-cultural) by responding primarily to audio-visual stimuli - in their entirety. Thus children finding themselves in unfamiliar, or not very familiar, surroundings look around and pick out signals which are subsequently destined to be decisive for their models of behaviour, action and reaction. In order to understand the mechanism of “socio-cultural orientation/adaptation”, imagine the waiting room of a children's hospital and a room in a child care institution (kindergarten). Is it not true that adults deliberately, in order to “confuse” the sick child, offer him or her objects borrowed from another environment associated with positive emotions and the child's positive personal experience (visual perception): toys, books, special colours of the walls, etc.)?

The same principle (distraction from the true context) applies if we convert the waiting room for adult patients to a “reading room”. On crossing the threshold of this chameleon-like room, a potential patient does not feel that the usual space has changed abruptly. And even after repeated visits, the painfulness of the situation has subsided because it has been fused with the everyday context.

We now return to the situation that our bilingual children go through every day; on completing the educational and learning process at pre-school, they pass into another cultural space – their family. This will involve “code-switching” in their minds, which is reflected at the linguistic and extra-linguistic (behavioural) levels. Signals for switching codes are the same visual and audial stimuli; the appearance of the teacher/parent is associated in the mind of the child with one of the native languages (provided that education and teaching in the family follows the correct pattern of “one parent – one language”), other games and toys (toys look different and have a different content), etc. But considering that both teachers and parents

are immersed in a common – multicultural – society, the task is more complicated for the child. He or she has to put two different “content components” into one “shell”.

Our task as educators is to help him or her to support the process of audio-visual integration, accelerate “code switching” and eliminate any interference (partial switching or mixing of the languages). This should be done as unobtrusively as possible and at the same time distinctly separately from the two spaces – the space of the bilingual's family, with its national bilingualism or monolingualism, and the space of the country of permanent residence. Of course, these must be clearly identified by the audio-visual markers that will uniquely show what in the ethno-cultural area²² belongs, from the child's perspective, to the country, and what to the family. Audial markers may be: mandatory mutual greetings of teachers and children in the language of the country and other native language; on the premises of the pre-school parents must also speak exclusively in that language (not in the language of the (migrant) diaspora), but in the other native language at home; recordings of music from the country of origin and the country of residence; animated cartoons, etc. Visual markers (in the broad sense, a kind of “chemical reaction” agent called “code-switching”) may be posters peculiar to this ethno-cultural field²³.

4.7. The principle of an optimal approach to the bilingual education of pre-school children (the 1:1 principle, in which everyone wins)

The best-known methods for developing bilingualism are:

- A) full or partial immersion when all activities in an ECES are carried out in a language other than that of the host country and are supported by a native speaker of that language with a specialised (professional) education;
- B) regular switching to another native language of the child (other than the language of the country of residence) and its development, on the basis of the first native language, by a teacher who is proficient in both languages (as native or as native and foreign).

We, for our part, do not propose support for one native language, but are in favour of a balanced bilingualism:

1 teacher – 1 language (2 teachers per group, each with his or her native language); at home: 1 parent – 1 language:

+ each speaks their native language – with this approach, errors and language interference will be minimal,

²² A term by *A. B. Afanasjeva* (А. Б. Афанасьева): <http://elibrary.ru/item.asp?id=13005789> (12.05.2014)

²³ For the ethno-cultural space of the other (family) culture similar posters can be selected or designed together with parents.

- + based on the language, a clear distinction for the child between the cultures and respective rules of conduct.

If a child wants or needs to communicate at home and at pre-school with one of the two adults, we propose a combination such as:

1 day – 1 language (this is possible by changing teachers or it could be there is only one bilingual teacher); the same applies at home, but observing the rule that the language at pre-school and the language at home should be the same over some period of time.

1 week – 1 language (during project weeks and a change of teachers with different native languages); the same at home but the rule changes – the language at home is different from that at pre-school over the same period.

ECES – family (1 language, which is that of the host country as the language of communication at pre-school – 1 language, the language of the family, which is other than that of the host country; the implementation of a common methodology of work at pre-school and in the family ensures continuity);

- + it is possible to learn several languages at the same time, provided that the continuity of teaching methods is observed,
- often the language of the country of residence naturally prevails in the child's environment (its “overbalance”).

It is important that everyone around the child speaks their native language (note that, firstly, parents and teachers with a poor command of their non-native foreign language do more harm than good to the child (exceptions to this are with foster children, when parents do not speak the native language of the child's country of origin), and secondly, people who speak the same language are in the child's view typical representatives of that culture, but if the balance of the native language and culture is upset then the child has in effect been “cheated”).

4.8. Areas of child development

The main spheres of child development are:

- Social (member of groups/societies: family, ECES – pre-school, school, etc.)
- Psychological (including emotional) (the child as an individual)
- Cultural (spiritual)
- Motivational (including moral).

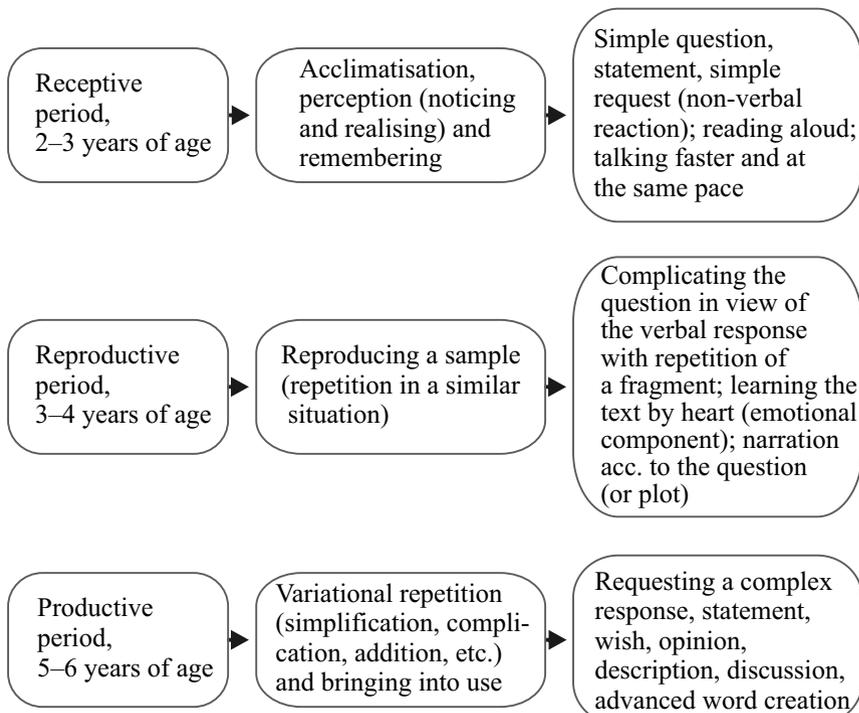
All these areas are interrelated and interdependent, functioning as a unity.

Language (speech) provides a social and cultural sphere for the child's activity and serves as a means of expressing psychological and motivational spheres of the child's development. Does the development of language in children stand alone? We are inclined to believe that it does not, for language and speech are just instruments or “thermometers” of an individual's standing as a citizen and personality.

The purpose of a pre-school education is to develop and consolidate communication skills in two native languages in oral form (it also involves non-verbal communication peculiar to each of the cultures, including activities with objects), bearing in mind the subsequent transition to written communication (reading and then writing). Skills development should progress from small to large, from basic to complex, from slow to accelerated, on the cyclic recurrence principle. It is important that classwork is accompanied by the (correcting and guiding) process of natural language acquisition by the child himself of herself (i.e. the process of learning).

What is important in this process is not the simple repetition of the same content in two languages (twice the load on a child's brain) but laying the foundation for the “code switching” mechanism, which with time will enable children themselves to compare the initial data in each language and draw conclusions about their relevance or non-relevance and complementarity (i.e. whether the knowledge and skills in one language can be used for forming competences in the other).

Reliance on (self-) education – an experiment in different types of activity (linguistic and extra-linguistic).



ILL. 8: Education according to this chart must be implemented in both native languages, taking into account the cultural component and the framework of different themes (starting with domestic and ending with thematic talks about people, nature, etc.).

The approach to language teaching should be based on activities organised by teachers and take into account the wishes and needs of the children, as well as findings from observations on verbal-motor activity in children. The teaching should be based on an understanding of the age characteristics of the verbal, motor and psychological (including emotional) development of children with one or two native languages, the main tasks being in correcting or teaching. In the process of teaching/learning the language, it is necessary to maximise the use of the child's perception receptors (primarily visual, which are the most important in bilinguals) and the types of his or her energetic activity. The ideal situation will be where the child is the initiator of the teaching action, and the teacher only guides or helps to organise this action in accordance with the premises, time and group composition.

5. Curriculum and activities of ECESs

The following is a list of ECES subjects and activities. The study of each subject in the curriculum leads to a cyclical deepening and expansion of the volume of information:

1. Languages as a subject (senior groups; including reading and writing) and as an instrument of communication (education in real communicative situations, created by teachers both purposefully and spontaneously). Note that languages are learned not only in accordance with a schedule of lessons, but on an on-going basis, within the framework of many other “subject” disciplines which form an organic whole at the ECES. This is because, for the development of speech in two languages, it is important to form an equivalent vocabulary and grammatical structures for use in all areas of communication relevant to the particular age group (and as a foundation for further development). In other words, bilingualism should not be limited to the sphere of daily life. “The longer the sentence or phrase for communication and interaction in each of the native languages, the richer the child's vocabulary (active and passive), grammatical forms and syntactical constructs he perceives and uses”.
2. Theatre as a way of activating acquired and learned languages in verbal-communication situations.
3. Music/singing for working on phonetics (including rhythm and intonation of speech).
4. Sports as a way of improving the physical condition of the child (sports games originating in the traditions of people speaking the child's native language are important; gymnastics exercises designed to synchronise the movements of different parts of the body and of several children together, to maintain balance; switching attention and quickly changing the type of activity, etc. are all important).
5. Drawing and the development of visual perception (since bilinguals are characterised by an extremely imaginative perception of the world and are

primarily drawn to visual stimuli; but it is important that in learning to draw, children are able to follow the same receptive – reproductive – productive pattern as in learning languages – from learning patterns with all the senses, to reproducing them on models, paintings, etc., and to creating their own designs in one or more cultural traditions).

6. Reading hour (from reading aloud to independent work with the book as a source of useful and interesting information; the best way is to read in two native languages in sequence).
7. Short animated cartoon sessions (the development of media competence in each native language, taking into account the peculiarities of video series in each of the cultures in the country of residence and the country of origin of the first generation migrants).
8. Technology/crafts (preferably starting with soft materials, with a gradual transition to more solid and less pliable materials – according to the experience of the Waldorf pre-school pedagogy, it is better to concentrate on the reproduction of or approximation to crafts that are traditional for the child's native cultures).
9. Mathematics in the world around (weight, volume, size, height, time).
10. The individual (me, my body, my body language, control of the body and hygiene) and society (from rules of communication in the group during play to norms of living in each of the societies/cultures).
11. Inanimate nature (project activity: water, air, earth, fire, stones)
12. Botany and wildlife (from indoor and garden plants and domestic animals for children of pre-school age to plants and animals in both countries and the zoo/botanical garden for older pre-school children; the sounds of wildlife and the names of plants and animals should be learned and memorised in both native languages, with the help of national games, puzzles, riddles, nursery rhymes, folk songs, etc.).
13. Geography (place, address, country and city).
14. “My friend/phone/computer” (media and social competences).

Interdisciplinary links must be maintained at all levels. The conclusion is – integrated education is preferable.

5.1. The experimental nature of education

Education should be based on positive emotional “experience” (the experience is both the result of the educational process and the incentive to continue to learn), that is, successful experience, discoveries made independently (and hence better fixed in the mind and perceived as objective), knowledge and skills acquired through self-learning, and not as the result of being taught by the teacher.

- 1) Experiment in drawing (with the obligatory description of what is being drawn):
 - the perception of art (addition of new information to the image the child sees, description of what is seen);
 - imprint the real object (translation of a three-dimensional object to a two-dimensional view, changing the colours) and complete the drawing until the image of a different object appears;
 - mixing colours and “creating” a new colour (including the verbalisation of actions and results in one and the other native language);
 - coloured transformation of forms (transformation of blots, blurring colours, etc.).
- 2) Experiment in speech (with obligatory venturing into the inter-subject space):
 - comparison / juxtaposition of words from two native languages (which word denotes which aspect of the phenomenon/object; you are strongly advised against giving the task of searching for a “more/less correct” word, because languages must be balanced in the minds of bilinguals);
 - making a new object in drawing or craft lessons and searching for a name for this object in the native languages (applied creativity combined with creation of words);
 - comparison of linguistic and natural structures (root, stem, suffixes and prefixes, endings – for words; root, trunk, branches and twigs, foliage – for trees; creating a family tree and discussion of the history of the family and family name), etc.
- 3) Experiment involving the domestic environment (integration activities on age-related topics – from food and pets to the garden and cooking) (some examples for the Russian language and culture):
 - after reading the fairy tale “The Turnip” (*Repka*), the teacher/parent can give the younger children a fast-growing (!) plant seed to set in a pot, and the older ones the seed of another plant not as fast-growing, and encourage them to watch the plant grow and then prepare a salad from it (the children learn not only the name of the plant in its natural context but also trace its path to their plate, acquire knowledge, abilities and skills in interaction with nature);
 - after reading the fairy tale “The Little Porridge Pot” (*Gorshochek kashi*) children learn in real life how different cereals grow, what their names are and what can be cooked from them, and also from where they have come to us (for older pre-school children);
 - it makes sense to start a talk about pets after watching the cartoon “The Three from Buttermilk Village” (*Troye iz Prostokvashino*) (and about wild animals after reading “The Little Tower-House” (*Teremok*), about insects after “The Boldly Buzzing Fly” (*Mukha Tsokotukha*), etc.). This can involve experiments (for example, patting the cat or the dog) and observation (e.g. looking out for different breeds of dogs when out walking). At the next stage, the teacher encourages the children to make general observations about the diversity of the flora and fauna, as well as the peoples of the world; their

appearance, character, behaviour and roles in life, taking care from the start not to refer to anyone or anything as “worst” or “best”, but only as “different”.

It is also necessary to “return” from the experiment to the real world (as a synthesis after the analysis), for example, by applying the results of the experiments in daily practice.

As a change from the experimental educational activities, you can use, for example, so-called “project boxes”, which all potential participants in the experiment are requested to fill in with material for topics for later classes, which are marked in the boxes:

Option 1: Teachers select the material and offer it to the children or to the children and parents (note that the selection of the material is determined by the culture and experience of the person who prepared “the work package”);

Option 2: The children fill in the box from the objects at hand (the topic of the project is determined by the teachers, the children have to give a reason why this object is suitable for this project; in this way, we simultaneously determine the level of the child's education and his or her readiness to perform this particular experiment);

Option 3. The children and parents collect the material in accordance with their knowledge and understanding of their other native culture, and “present” it to other participants in the project to initiate interaction.

5.2. Interaction between ECESs and parents

Interaction with parents is an important aspect of the work of ECESs in which bilingual children are educated.

The basis of any interaction is to seek and formulate common goals, objectives and decisions on implementing uniform practices with respect to the education and (school) upbringing of the child. This “agreement” (reached with the parents on the first and each subsequent contact) can be illustrated in a diagram:



Ill. 9: Types of tandems (family – pre-school, adults – children). The ideal tandem – the child determines the direction and speed of education.

**Ethno-social tandem “parents – teachers”,
“parents – society of host country”**

**Ethno-cultural tandem “parents – teachers”,
“parents – societies (country of origin and host country)”**

Ill. 10: “Green light” – to the educational tandems ECES-family
and family-society

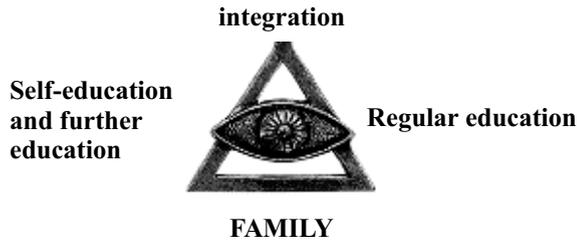
Before work with each bilingual child can begin, a so-called “Anamnesis of bilingualism”, or “Bilingual's personal card”, will ideally need to be drawn up at an individual meeting between the teacher and the bilingual child's parents. This must include information such as the family composition and native languages (separately for each member of the family), the country of origin of the family, place of birth and the age of the child when moving from the country of origin, whether there are any other children in the family and their ages, the languages spoken in the family, education and professions of members of the family, the length of time (per week) each member of the family spends on communicating with the child and the language of communication, and family ties with the historical homeland or country of origin (including visits from representatives of the country of origin). Information on this “passport” can be supplemented in the future by a speech therapist or psychologist at the pre-school, and should ideally be passed on to the school the child will join after pre-school (ECES).

It is important to determine how many languages the bilingual child understands and uses, and what role each of the languages plays in his or her life:

- the language of the father/mother/family (home language)
- the language of relatives in the country of origin
- the language of the majority in the ECES/country of residence.

This is important for the child him/herself in establishing the relationship with each of the languages: as native, non-native or foreign (see also the test on the balance of natural bilingualism). The child's attitude to the language depends on the emotional component of communication, the intensity and frequency of communication in it and the subject matter, as well as ways to motivate learning the language on the part of the parents.

Based on the results of the conversation, it is also important to note in the “anamnesis” what expectations there are in each of the native cultures with respect to the child as a son/ daughter, pupil, and what is expected of educators and parents (especially in view of existing differences). It is also important to establish what the image of the “ideal child” is (ECES pupil, son/daughter, member of society), that is, what demands are made of him or her by society, what the requirements are for the given culture and traditions, and what the requirements of the particular family are (taking into account the family's standing), “the programme” for the child's future, etc.



III. 11: Interaction of different educational institutions
in their work with bilingual children

In our illustration we have used one of the oldest symbols – an amulet. The amulet above clearly shows the most essential principle of working with bilingual children; the interaction of the family (foundation) and the institutions of mainstream and non-mainstream education (i.e. further education in special educational institutions and a non-formal, independent, self-educational, communication environment). Parents and educators form the ethno-social tandem, which is particularly necessary for interaction with migrants.

Teachers act (for a time) as parents; meeting the basic needs of the child (mainly, the need for information) and supporting (and correcting, if necessary) the natural development of the pupil.

What is the meaning and purpose of the interaction of parents and teachers?:

- the analysis of the multicultural component of the region in which the ECES is located and familiarisation with the cultural and linguistic characteristics of parents of prospective pupils; taking these into account in the ECES's programme and teaching materials, and the recruitment of staff;
- regular “Parents' Hours” (general meetings in groups, explaining the group's methods of work, the specific characteristics of a given age, expectations of the children's families, and also, for migrants, general information on the country of residence, the education system, etc.) and individual consultations (on the “problem areas” and “areas of success” of a particular pupil, consultations by psychologists, speech therapists, methodologists, etc.);
- involvement of parents in regular educational activities at the ECES, taking into account their professions and native cultures (project activities, “family hour” – tea parties with people of different cultures within their traditions; languages and countries of the week, etc.).

It is above all the parents, not teachers, who implement an individual approach to the child in the process of teaching and education, they “bind” education and teaching into a single unit, they influence the child's perception of the language(s) as native in the broad context of the respective culture(s) (from ABC, nursery, folk rhymes, humorous sayings to the pinnacles of knowledge).

It is advisable to propose a number of topics to be discussed at meetings of psychologists and pre-school teachers with parents (“Parents' Hour”). These talks should ideally begin with introductory explanations to the parents of monolingual

and bilingual children (pre-school groups are usually mixed); many have no idea what bilinguals are and in what way they differ from monolinguals. In preparing for these meetings, the organisers can use the material from this methodology manual, as well as books on these topics by E. Madden, U. Weinreich and others.

You can then move on to more specific topics (seminars, mini-lectures, master classes, depending on the preparedness of the audience):

1. The psychological characteristics of bilinguals that cause delay in their speech development,
2. Problems of speech and phonetics of the bilingual child. Correction of auditory perception or speech therapy – what to do with pronunciation; how to distinguish accents from speech problems,
3. The problem of adapting concerning speakers of other languages in ECESs,
4. Motivating a child to study two languages – “Why should I learn a language?”. How to teach children the language of everyday life (the system “human = language” and “language = culture”). Which (whose) language is better?
5. How in the pursuit of pure bilingualism not to damage the relationship with one's own child. In what way do we help our bilingual children or, on the contrary, hinder them?
6. On which language “to bet”? (will one language not spoil the pronunciation/graphics of the other)?
7. Bi-national individuals and how to develop them. Teach and learn while playing! Range of reading – what and how to read to bilinguals; is working with text necessary and how? (Samples of educational games for a multilingual child; how to choose the study guide and use it).

It is also necessary to arrange for on-going training of parents in education strategy as part of a natural (not forced) (self-)integration of children. The most important thing is to teach children to obtain the relevant information independently from currently available sources and to work with them properly (within the relevant culture and situation). This ability lies at the intersection of the social, “I” (Self) and cross-cultural spheres of competence. How, when and whom to ask for help – the bilingual child's life and health often depend on how prepared he or she is to actively engage in communication, to initiate dialogue, and to respond and maintain the communication process, with the aim of achieving his or her goal in both cultural communities.

Another important point is that the ECES's teaching staff should provide in their work with the families of their bilingual children:

- access to online information on kindergarten programmes in the languages of the children's families;
- information and methodological materials for parents in their native languages for work at home (games, library of books, songs);
- regular meetings with parents and individual consultations for families, with due consideration for the national culture of communication;

- parental involvement in preparing and holding national holidays, Culture Days at the ECES.

It is often the case that bilingual children's lagging behind their monolingual peers is prompted by the parents themselves. This is not related to bilingualism but rather to social factors and attitudes within the family to the community language or language of the country of origin; this happens when parents are not successful in the new society, are not ready to learn a new language, do not have higher education, etc. Therefore, if a child lags behind in the language and other areas, teachers and psychologists at the pre-school should examine the psychological and social factors in the child's family. The best option would be for the teacher to set up a “family file” and maintain it with the help of the child's parents, registering in it facts from the life of the child's inner circle that are important for understanding his or her internal state; including the “language” and “social” passport of the family.

The principle of clarity in contacts with parents should not be underestimated, but this does not mean making flat statements of facts, or, still less desirable, statements of a demonstratively instructional character. In other words, teachers should not aim to simply inform parents and moralise, but to communicate with them in confidence, giving them the opportunity to express their reaction to the information received. A good example of this is the experience of creating an “interactive notice board” with statements, questions and suggestions written by the children's parents and answers by the pre-school staff. This board can be placed both on the internet and within the school premises.

Note: when working with bilinguals in an educational institution, it is important to bear in mind that this work also has an influence on the parents, both direct (consultations and the “Parents' hour” at school), and indirect (the teacher's showing interest in the culture and language of the child, or wishing to suppress them).

5.3. Interaction (cooperation) of ECESs with regional structures and society

The tandem of parents and teachers may also exist in other forms. The tasks of multicultural pre-schools are much broader than for monocultural ones because they are “nests” of intercultural communication in the society of the host country, which sees itself at the present time as “monocultural” (and this in spite of the glaringly obvious presence of so much multiculturalism in the country!). What are the aspects of the work of ECESs in the development and transfer of good practices of intercultural interaction in the tandems “parents - parents”, “parents – the society of the country of permanent residence”, “parents – the society of the country of origin (with contacts being present)”?

1. The ECES sets the tone and style for the mutual acceptance of bilingual children and their parents on the one hand, and the parents of monolinguals on the other (mediator and “model”). This style is then transferred onto the community in which the pre-school operates and the countries of origin of the parents of bilinguals in general (one important aspect here is the widest

- possible dissemination of information about the features of bilingual children's development, and the promotion of bilingualism through presentations of the work of the pre-school and the parents' "educational tandem": participation in exhibitions, competitions, etc.);
2. Pre-school staff interact with the district, regional and provincial structures of pre-school and school education, acting as an intermediary between them and parents of monolingual and bilingual children, the staff accumulate and promote knowledge about the characteristic features of the development of natural (and artificial) bilinguals, necessary for establishing the national educational standards and teaching materials of the next generation;
 3. Pre-school staff and the pre-school parent committee cooperate with the media in order to promote multicultural and bilingual education in the district and region (they actively invite media representatives to cooperate in the preparation of materials covering the issues of continuing bilingual education and in advertising schedules of events, immediate and prospective);
 4. Pre-school staff cooperate with institutions that train future educators, speech therapists and psychologists (field practice of students of research and development production enterprises, specialised secondary colleges, etc.) and with research centres (study of the specifics of the work of a bilingual pre-school and the development of bilingual children; the results of these studies should be published later in manuals, educational methodological guides, and provide the grounds for holding training courses for the pre-school staff;
 5. An ideal model would be a close collaboration between representatives of diasporas whose members attend the pre-school and representatives of the countries of origin (for example, exchanges between pre-school staff from the country of origin and the country of residence for the purpose of sharing experience, study of the culture, traditions, language and concepts of early childhood education in each country); if this is not possible to arrange, there should be interaction with representatives of the diaspora residing in the host country in the pre-school locality (in the case where only one such diaspora is represented in the pre-school). They can be involved in education because they can improve the quality of cross-cultural communication competence of teachers, parents and children (joint organisation of project weeks, holidays and decoration of the pre-school).



**Work model for a bilingual (multicultural)
ECES (group or institution as a whole):**

Two languages – two cultures – one world

Ill. 12: ECES Work model with multicultural component
(ill. <http://usiter.com/uploads/20120616/in+yan+47894040210.jpg>)

5.4. Professional development of teachers at multicultural ECESs

Teachers working in multicultural bilingual ECESs must comply with a number of obligatory requirements. By way of example, we shall consider an ECES in which education is conducted in both the Russian language and the language of the country:

- Knowledge of Russian as a native language and a perfect knowledge of the language of the country/region of residence;
- Specialised pedagogical training, obtained and/or recognised in the country of residence (including knowledge of psychology, physiology, pedagogy, methodology in relation to pre-school education and upbringing);
- Regular professional development in their specialised field and in the latest methods of teaching a language, and retraining in Russia and in the country of permanent residence (master classes only in Russian as a foreign language are not acceptable as further training for teachers working with bilinguals);
- A knowledge of the educational system and programmes in the country of permanent residence.
- The requirements and methods of the standard systems of education in both the country of permanent residence and in the country of origin must be taken into account in preparing lessons (both the positive experience of colleagues as well as the “alleviation” of disadvantages – for example, children in German kindergartens do not learn anything by heart, whereas the Russian school places great emphasis on the need for pupils to train their memory as much as possible and to accumulate “linguistic luggage”);
- The teacher should have a thorough knowledge of the subject he or she teaches, be familiar with the existing manuals and training materials, both printed and online, in order to select and adapt (or to formulate) the material which will provide an individual approach to each child and to the group as a whole;
- An extensive knowledge of the history, culture and traditions of the Russian people and of the people of the country/area of permanent residence; methods which enable the teacher to apply this knowledge in classes (elements of regional geography, area studies);
- A knowledge of the (basic) distinctive national characteristics of an individual for whom the Russian language is native and another native language; to be able to account for these features in preparing and conducting a lesson.
- A constant, methodically well-founded and healthy interaction with parents (it is they who bear the onus of REGULARLY maintaining the native language in their children); a knowledge of the “language history” of the family (from where they have arrived in the country), which is responsible for the children's errors in speech, etc

Based on all the above information, and taking account of the fact that the ideal pre-school is a collective of like-minded professionals who complement and, if

necessary, can replace one another, structured as a network rather than a pyramid, we are able to make the following recommendations:

The process of professional development and retraining must take account of:

- national educational standards and ECES programmes in the host country and the primary school curriculum (for ensuring the continuity of education),
- knowledge of the legal and educational systems of the host country, including types of support for migrant / regional languages,
- the nature and history of the community and the number of its members in pre-school groups,
- the particular features of (school) upbringing and education of children in the community as compared with the culture of the host country,
- CES type (family, private, public, multicultural or monocultural with a multicultural group),
- Basics of compilation of programmes, hourly plans, etc.

Taking all these points into consideration, the following subjects must be studied as part of a programme for further training:

1. Introduction to regional geography and area studies (of the host country and especially of the main countries of origin of children's families),
2. Pedagogy (main differences between the approaches to education, training and upbringing in the country of residence and the country of origin of the main communities represented at the pre-school),
3. Introduction to ethnography (ethno-pedagogy),
4. Introduction to sociology (social pedagogy and ethno-sociology),
5. Introduction to psychology (age psychology and ethno-psychology),
6. Linguistics (introduction to phonetics, morphology and syntax for the children's two native languages, or general introduction),
7. Fundamentals of speech therapy,
8. Fundamentals of teaching and learning foreign and other native/non-native languages in the pre-school years principles of bilingual education,
9. Fundamentals of analysing and interpreting a literary text,
10. Technology: drawing, modelling and national crafts,
11. Coreography (dance) and sport (including national games),
12. Early musical development (it is desirable that every teacher has competence in playing a musical instrument),
13. Introduction to world culture,
14. Introduction to alternative pedagogy (the Montessori and Waldorf systems, curative education system),
15. Information and communication technologies in the education process at the pre-school.

The most effective way is to organise retraining and professional development as a dual work-based training programme for pre-school staff, with personalised structuring of training programmes for employees of multicultural pre-schools, taking into account the location (Moscow, St. Petersburg, national regions of the RF; and other countries).

Work model of the bilingual (multicultural) ECES (group or institution as a whole): two languages – two cultures – one world is presented:

The bilingual programme of the “Nezabudka” (“Forget-me-not”) Kindergarten. Die bilinguale Konzeption im Kindergarten Nezabudka. – Frankfurt am Main: Im Selbstverlag, 2011 (<http://www.nezabudka.de/>)

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To determine how the training and development programme for ECES teachers should be implemented in each individual case, it is recommended that teachers first undergo a self-appraisal or test, a sample of which is presented below. To each cluster of questions there is a corresponding unit of the training course; in this way each teacher can study in depth those units of which he or she needs to acquire more thorough knowledge, and in less detail those in which he or she has adequate competency.

I) Self-Appraisal Sheet:

Rate your level of knowledge in each section of the teacher competences

1. Knowledge of contemporary issues relating to the subject's educational content 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5
2. Learning new forms and methods of training and development in a professional communication environment 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5
3. Learning modern teaching techniques, including techniques of active and interactive teaching 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5
4. Acquiring new skills in using modern techniques of active and interactive teaching in the teaching process 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5
5. Improving knowledge of the methods of teaching the subject 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5
6. Development of organisational skills to handle the education process with respect to the LAN 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5
7. Improving skill in modern Russian language and literature in a multicultural environment 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5
8. Developing skills in organising extra-curricular activities for pupils in a multicultural environment 1 _ 2 _ 3 _ 4 _ 5

BILIUM – Bilingualism Upgrade Module (Part II)

9. Awareness of the problems of intercultural communication 1__2__3__4__5
10. Awareness of the problems of bilingual education 1__2__3__4__5
11. Developing skills in interpersonal interaction with all members of the educational process forming tolerant behaviour 1__2__3__4__5
12. Expanding knowledge of psychology 1__2__3__4__5
13. Expanding knowledge of sociology 1__2__3__4__5
14. Expanding knowledge of linguistics 1__2__3__4__5
15. Expanding knowledge of cultural studies 1__2__3__4__5
16. Other (please state) 1__2__3__4__5

II) Evaluate what problems exist in your professional activity:

1. Low motivation of pupils to study 1__2__3__4__5
2. Your professional growth and self-realisation as a teacher 1__2__3__4__5
3. Job satisfaction as a result of achieved respect from colleagues, pupils, parents, certificates of merit, diplomas, etc. 1__2__3__4__5
4. Your career advancement at the educational institution 1__2__3__4__5
5. Higher skills category, salary increase 1__2__3__4__5
6. Using in your educational activity acquired knowledge of the subject and methods of teaching 1__2__3__4__5
7. The application of skills in the use of modern teaching techniques 1__2__3__4__5
8. Building up effective interaction with pupils, colleagues, parents, administration 1__2__3__4__5
9. Other (please state) 1__2__3__4__5

**III) Test your proficiency in working with bilingual children in a multicultural environment. Mark/tick/leave the correct option only.
(Example of national Russian bilingualism)**

1. What are the age-related psychological characteristics of the pupils in your group (of monolinguals and bilinguals)?
2. What points do parents of pre-school bilinguals need to pay special attention to, bearing in mind that bilingualism with Russian and your regional language is still in formation. Mark the degree of importance (from 1 to 3):
 - a) the child's behaviour in the community and at home
 - b) compliance with the language rules of the regional and other native/non-native language
 - c) the child's ability to handle media tools (TV, PC, etc.)
3. Number in descending order of importance extra-linguistic factors that influence the display of natural bilingualism in your area:
 - sex and age of the bilingual
 - social standing of parents – speakers of that language
 - status of the second native language in the area
4. Which of the societies has in practice no direct influence on the bilingual pre-school child and is not the primary society:
 - a) O1, Society 1 – the closest environment (family and friends);
 - b) O2, Society 2 – remote environment (kindergarten)
 - c) O3, Society 3 (if any real contact is present) – distant society (society of the country of origin of the first generation of immigrants)
 - d) O4, Society 4 – media society (Media)
5. Which is the preferred way to compare languages, recommended for corrective courses for bilingual pre-school children:
 - a) linguistic (juxtaposition of grammatical structures)
 - b) semantic (comparison of meanings, definitions, concepts)
 - b) linguo-cultural (juxtaposition of language phenomena through culture)
6. Which way of comparing cultures is not appropriate in a corrective course for bilingual pre-school children:
 - a) opposing cultures when treating the same concept (phenomenon)
 - b) parallel consideration of certain aspects of the phenomenon in both cultures
 - c) successive consideration of the phenomenon as a whole in both cultures
7. What do you understand by the term “Russophone” (or person speaking another language):
 - a) a person who only comprehends Russian speech
 - b) a person who speaks Russian in a non-Russian language environment
 - c) a person whose understanding of what has been said is different from that of every one else (implication)

8. What do you understand by the term “Russophone” (or person speaking another language):
 - a) a person who only comprehends Russian speech
 - b) a person who speaks Russian in a non-Russian language environment
 - c) a person whose understanding of what has been said is different from that of every one else (implication)
9. The most relevant type of intercultural communication in ECESs with respect to topics of communication is:
 - a) professional
 - b) private
 - c) educational:
10. Number in descending order of importance to ECESs the types of cross-cultural communication relative to the functions and use of the language:
 - a) informative
 - b) ideological
 - c) play & games
 - d) emotional
11. Give examples of differences in the interpretation of non-verbal means of communication in relation to cross-cultural communication. Which are those most often used by your pupils, and under what circumstances?
12. What is the basic condition for the success of cross-cultural communication in the process of upbringing and education in bilingual and mixed groups (pre-school children):
 - a) the teacher – a natural bilingual him/herself and speaks both native languages of the child
 - b) the teacher takes children's bilingualism into account when introducing and checking the material
 - c) the teacher introduces the information in both native languages of the bilingual
13. The structure of cross-cultural competence is:
 - a) general culturology and culture-specific knowledge.
 - b) practical communication skills.
 - c) cross-cultural and psychological susceptibility.
14. What do you understand by the term “dialogue of cultures?”
15. The basic strategy of parents to maintain native languages in pre-school children is:
 - a) reading aloud, games and media – in two languages
 - b) festivity days in two languages
 - c) consistent communication with children in two languages
16. The most important teaching strategy for maintaining balance of languages in pre-school children (for pre-school teachers):
 - a) in lessons conducted in one language to use examples from the other language in order to “balance” the languages and cultures

- b) activities and meetings, maintain the ECES web site, etc. in two languages
 - c) openly discuss socio-cultural “templates” (Caucasian hospitality, Tatar pertinacity)
17. Dialogue of cultures in the society regarded as distant (example of ECES):
- a) One child – one culture/one language
 - b) One teacher – one culture/one language
 - c) The need for language/human-intermediary
18. Note the key factors of discomfort that hinder successful cross-cultural communication at pre-school age (at ECES and at home)
- a) the first generation is not familiar with the norms of intercultural interaction
 - b) the child is unfamiliar with the norms of intercultural interaction with representatives of a different culture
 - c) reluctance of the first generation to engage in dialogue on an equal footing with representatives of other cultures
 - d) the child does not know the language of the representative of a different culture
19. Which of the words below are linguistic units with a national-cultural component:
- a) snow
 - b) shovel
 - c) the Snow Maiden
 - d) snowman
 - e) snowdrop
20. What are the main functions of language units with a national-cultural component in the study of a language as another native/non-native (LNN AND LAAN) in pre-school children (number in descending order of importance)
- source of material in speech therapy
 - source of extra-linguistic information
 - means of generating positive motivation to study the language through culture
 - source of material for creating multifunctional tasks
 - source of material for playing techniques
 - source of vocabulary and grammatical structures
 - catalysts for creative imaginative thinking
 - material for training logic and memory
21. Determine (number) the sequence of analysing Russian and the other native / non-native languages in preparing corrective exercises for pre-school children with regards to graphics (writing in block letters):
- writing from left to right / from right-to left; grapheme positions in relation to the line and each other;
 - presence / absence of letters similar in writing which denote sounds existing in the other language; denote sounds that do not exist in the other language;

- presence / absence of differences between handwritten and typewritten prints;
 - presence of upper and lower case letters
22. Determine (number) the sequence of analysing Russian and the other native / non-native languages in preparing corrective exercises for pre-school children with regards to phonetics:
- presence of letter combinations and letters that need to be read differently when in a certain position (ться, чт, его)
 - method of forming the sound (consonant)
 - significant / insignificant differences in graphics and phonetics
 - type and motivation of the stress
 - qualitative / quantitative reduction
 - assimilation depending on whether the sound is voiceless/ sonorous / hard / soft
 - place of the formation of the sound (consonant)
23. Determine (number) the sequence of analysing Russian and the other native / non-native languages in preparing corrective exercises for pre-school children with regards to morphemics (word and form formation)
- Formation of words from morphemes;
 - Variability of the meaning / form of the word depending on its morpheme sequence; presence / absence of certain morphemes
 - Presence / absence of compound words and their features
 - What is meant by the “form of the word” / “a new word”;
 - Main techniques of word formation
 - Meanings of prefixes / suffixes
24. Determine (number) the sequence of analysing Russian and the other native / non-native languages in preparing corrective exercises for pre-school children with regards to morphology
- Aspect-temporal paradigm of the verb; special verb forms
 - Transition of one part of speech to another (substantivisation, etc.)
 - Degrees of comparison of adjectives and their use in speech
 - Country and culture-related particularities of the use of pronouns (I-we, my, your... , свой; -self)
 - Imperative and subjunctive forms – variability and cultural aspects of use in speech
 - Parts of speech; forms of words and independent parts of speech
 - One grammatical form in the meaning of another (interchangeability in the language and its cultural studies aspect)
 - Adjective and adverb in juxtaposition
 - The categories of gender of nouns (including common gender nouns and names of professions – with their cultural studies components)
25. Determine (number) the sequence of analysing Russian and the other native/non-native languages in preparing corrective exercises for pre-school children on the level of vocabulary
- Presence of synonyms / antonyms / homonyms

- Different styles of the language, and the speech and vocabulary peculiar to them
 - Obsolete words and neologisms and related cultural phenomena
 - The presence in one of the languages of words borrowed from the other and the degree of preservation of their original meaning (including “translator's false friends”)
 - Inter-language occasionalisms
 - The presence of polysemantic words
26. Determine (number) the sequence of analysing Russian and the other native / non-native languages in preparing corrective exercises for preschool children based on syntax
- Types and motivation (including of cultural studies) of intonation structures
 - Word order in a sentence (fixed / free)
 - Patterns of word relations in a sentence (coordination, government, adjoining)
 - Simple and compound sentences
 - Impersonal sentences / generalised personal sentences and their culturo-logical components
 - Parts of speech and their functions in a sentence
27. Which component of regional geography as a science is of greatest interest to educators who work with natural bilingual pre-school children:
- a) language area studies
 - b) tourist area studies
 - c) general area studies
28. What level of ethno-sociology is linked to multilingualism
- a) theoretical
 - b) empirical
 - c) macro-level
 - d) micro-level
 - e) sectoral ethnosociology.
 - f) applied ethnosociology.
29. What aspect of sociolinguistics is of greatest importance to pre-school teachers of LNN and LAAN?
- a) community languages as a historical category
 - b) social aspects of multilingualism
 - c) social differentiation of the language
 - d) the relationship between the language and social structures
30. Arrange the basic requirements for educators of natural bilinguals abroad in descending order of importance:
- specialised education (primary school teacher, philologist, teacher of RAF);
 - constant interaction with parents; awareness of the “language” history of the family, which is responsible for errors in the child's speech;

- knowledge of the educational system and programmes on languages (native and foreign) in the country of permanent residence and in the RF;
 - taking into account the requirements and methods of a regular system of education when preparing lessons at Sunday schools and schools with extended hours;
 - fundamental knowledge of the subject taught, teaching methods, related disciplines and available manuals and training materials, both in printed form and online, for the selection and refinement (or creation) of lesson material, providing for an individual approach to each pupil and the class as a whole;
 - regular SPECIAL further training in the profession and the most recent methods of language teaching (RAN, RAF) in Russia and in the country of permanent residence;
 - knowledge of Russian as a native language and perfect command of the language of the country of residence;
 - knowledge of the history, culture and traditions of the Russian people and methods of using them in lessons;
 - knowledge of the main characteristics of the national personality of a speaker of Russian as native and as second native, and taking these differences into account in preparing for the lesson.
31. What are the key criteria for selecting games (educational) materials for work in mixed (bilingual but not multilingual) groups?
- a) translation of the material into the second language
 - b) country / culture component
 - c) multi-functionality of the materials
 - d) complete description of games / tasks
 - e) prevalence of visual components
32. What types of language games would you not recommend for work with bilingual pre-school children and why?
- a) translation games
 - b) description games
 - c) games for presenting the concept by non-verbal means
 - d) guessing games
 - e) games for visualising the concept
33. What types of games and exercises designed to develop fine motor skills are also important for mastering the language by the pre-school child as LAN (LAAN) and have a country studies component?
34. What are the positive results of early learning (up to 5 years of age) of the second language as another native / non-native?
- a) accelerates psychomotor reactions
 - b) improves the quality of processing incoming information
 - c) intensive development of the sensory apparatus
35. What is the critical age period for learning another (non-native) language, after which there is a significantly reduced probability that the phonetic system of the foreign language will be learned to a high standard, language

- constructs will be mastered naturally, and that perception of the foreign culture will be ingenuous?
- a) 5–7 years
 - b) 8–11 years
 - c) 12–14 years
36. What has a greater influence on the speech development of the child?
- a) The age of the child
 - b) The child's linguistic abilities
 - b) The age at which second language acquisition begins
37. When do bilingual children begin to speak compared with their monolingual peers?
- a) Bilingual children begin to speak earlier than monolinguals.
 - b) Bilingual children begin to speak later than monolinguals.
 - c) No differences have been observed.
38. How would you describe the principle “one parent / adult –one language”?
- a) Adults alternate communication time for each language during a day (half-day for one language, the second half-day for the other, or alternating days).
 - b) Only one parent / adult speaks with the child in one of the two languages.
 - c) Use of the languages varies depending on the location (the “home” language and the language in which the child is addressed outside the home are most often selected
39. Which aspects of the child's personality does natural bilingualism influence positively? Delete as applicable.
- a) creativity
 - b) tolerance
 - c) manageability
40. In which case is the process of teaching pre-school children a foreign language more effective?
(In choosing your answer, rely on your knowledge of psychological laws of teaching a second language.)
- a) If the adult is focused on controlling the correctness of the child's speech.
 - b) If the adult is focused on actively communicating with the child.
 - c) If the adult is focused on studying grammatical material together.
41. What mental processes are involved in the effective acquisition of a second language (as non-native and as the other native)?
- A) perception and comprehension
 - B) memorising
 - C) imagination
42. What is the most appropriate way to begin teaching the language as non-native (to reach the level of the other native language) at the early pre-school age? (In choosing your answer, rely on your knowledge of the psychological rules of the process of teaching a second language.)

- a) making coherent monologue statements
 - b) mastering dialogue speech
 - c) learning vocabulary and grammar
43. What helps bilingual children faster than their peers to sort out information, distinguishing between the main and the secondary items?
- a) switching mechanism of information codes
 - b) a more advanced communicative function
 - c) a high level of creativity
44. What principles of “general psychology” underlie the methods of teaching the language as non-native / second native? Delete as appropriate.
- a) the unity of consciousness and activity
 - b) the development of the individual in the activity
 - c) determinism.
45. What section of a psychology course can help teachers to teach the second language to children with problems in their sensory development?
- a) age psychology
 - b) special psychology
 - c) differential psychology
46. The fundamentals of teaching a language as non-native include:
- a) general didactic principles, psychological and pedagogical principles, linguistic principles
 - b) didactic principles, psychological principles, pedagogical principles, linguistic principles
 - c) linguistic principles, phonetic principles, psychological and pedagogical principles
47. The psychological characteristics of the LAAN lesson that should be considered in planning the lesson:
- a) a phase of optimum performance gives way to a phase of effort
 - b) a phase of pronounced fatigue gives way to a phase of effort
 - c) a phase of optimum performance is followed by a phase of pronounced fatigue
48. Russian as non-native is learned at an educational institution:
- a) a little faster in learning the rules of the native language (migrant children from non-Russian-speaking families and other regions)
 - b) a little lagging behind in learning the norms of the native language (migrant children from non-Russian-speaking families and other regions)
 - c) with simultaneous mastering of the norms of the native language (migrant children from non-Russian-speaking families and other regions)
49. What language is used to teach RAAN?
- a) the mother tongue with elements of the Russian language
 - b) the Russian language with a maximum visual component
 - c) mainly the Russian language

50. The method of mastering LAAN
 - a) is associated with socialisation at the age of migration
 - b) is associated with socialisation at an early age
 - c) is not normally associated with socialisation at an early age
51. The objects of learning are:
 - a) language, speech, speech activity, culture
 - b) knowledge, abilities, skills
 - c) language, speech activity, socio-cultural knowledge, cross-cultural communication
52. What is cross-cultural communication?
 - a) communication between people with different cultures (personal contacts between people, more rarely – indirect forms of communication (such as letter writing) and communication by mass media)
 - b) exchange of information between people
 - c) the process of creating messages and their transfer by the press, radio, television that suggest communication of people by technical means
53. What is the result of education?
 - a) speech
 - b) cross-cultural communication
 - c) communicative competence
54. The components of communicative competence are:
 - a) communicative, targeted, discursive, language, regulatory
 - b) linguistic, discursive, pragmatic, strategic, socio-cultural
 - c) linguistic, discursive, targeted, strategic, cultural
55. What is the foremost activity that has to be taken into account when teaching pre-schoolchildren LAN?
 - a) training
 - b) playing activity
 - c) communicative
56. Main types of LAN lessons are:
 - a) preparatory lessons, speech lessons, “information transfer”, lessons of interaction
 - b) lessons in reading, writing, speech development, literacy lessons
 - b) lessons-talks, theatre lessons, talking (speech) lessons, literacy lessons
57. Teaching materials must be updated to reflect changes in:
 - a) language and cultural realities
 - b) language realities
 - c) cultural realities
58. Audio-visual aids for teaching LAN include:
 - a) the blackboard, pictures, slides, posters, slide projectors, overhead projector
 - b) animated cartoons, feature films, documentaries
 - c) tape recorder, CD-player, a language lab, radio

59. Types of knowledge in teaching LAAN:
- phonetic, grammatical, lexical
 - vocabulary, cultural, grammatical
 - phonetic, lexical, grammatical, cultural
60. Types of speech activity include:
- speaking, reading, writing
 - audial (listening comprehension), speaking, reading, writing, arithmetic
 - audial, speaking, reading, writing
61. (Example question on a particular language combination.) Purely linguistic difficulties in learning Russian as another native / non-native language, common to any non-Russian child include:
- the category of gender, category of the animate / inanimate and the preposition-case system
 - the category of gender, the prepositional-case and aspect-tense systems
 - the gender category, proper names common nouns and prepositional-case system
62. What is the unit of teaching speech activity?
- the phrase
 - the text
 - the word
63. In teaching children to compose a text-narrative, it is important firstly to teach them:
- to structure the text correctly and select appropriate words that accurately describe the object, to use comparisons, epithets, metaphors
 - to talk consistently about what has happened or will happen, without jumping from one event to another
 - to clearly formulate the thesis, select arguments and make conclusions
64. In teaching children to compose a text-description, it is important firstly to teach them:
- to structure the text correctly and select appropriate words that accurately describe the object, to use comparisons, epithets, metaphors
 - to teach them to talk consistently about what has happened or will happen, without jumping from one event to another
 - to clearly formulate the thesis, select arguments and make conclusions
65. Complete the list: the main types of listening comprehension are: listening to spoken language in real time mode, listening to recorded spoken language, listening to training spoken language in real time mode, listening to recorded training language, listening to artistic speech, listening to...
- songs, folk songs, etc. predominantly in the regional language
 - dialogues of pupils and their analyses
 - films
66. The most difficult thing for bilingual pupils is to
- distinguish between vowels and consonants
 - distinguish between hard and soft consonants, between voiceless and voiced consonants
 - recognise vowels

67. What exercises should be used in teaching listening?
- memorising letters, reading aloud, grammar exercises, division of the word into the root, prefix, suffix, ending, retelling the story read
 - exercises developing writing techniques, analysis of the sentence by the parts, exercises to develop logical thinking, editing by the children of their written work
 - phonetic, lexical, grammatical exercises, training auditory memory, attention, ability to predict the text
68. What is the importance of listening in learning writing skills?
- it is important that the child hears the sounds well and distinguishes between them
 - it is important that the child hears the words well and understands them
 - it is important that the child hears the words well and pronounces them
69. Continue the list: speaking involves the ability to pronounce sounds correctly, use the correct intonation; the ability to correctly use words and their forms in speaking; agree-refuse, request-forbid, report, inform; the ability to retell what has happened, describe events, objects, speak coherently;
- ability to listen
 - ability to conduct a dialogue, ask questions
 - ability to read and write
70. What factors hinder the teaching of speech?
- physiological, psycho-educational, social
 - medical and psychological
 - psycho-educational only
71. What are the most effective exercises in teaching speech at pre-school age?
- exercises for the development of fine motor skills
 - role-playing games
 - drawing, painting (pictorial) activity
72. Which of the communicative-speech situations is most adequate at pre-school age?
- role-playing game “Shopping”
 - dialogue “In the taxi”
 - work game “Building a house”
73. The ability to read in the other native language...
- complicates the process of teaching to read in the other native/non-native language
 - does not affect the process of teaching to read in the other native/non-native language
 - accelerates the process of teaching to read in the other native/non-native language

74. What exercises should be used in teaching to read?
- memorising letters, reading aloud, developing attention, the ability to predict
 - memorising word spelling in accordance with the rules of spelling, grammar exercises, editing by the children of their written works
 - training auditory memory, attention, written dictations
75. What letters present special difficulties in reading for bilingual children?
- letters that have the same spelling and pronunciation in the languages
 - letters that have the same spelling but different pronunciation in the languages
 - letters that have no similarities in the languages
76. Learning the rules of which of the following groups presents the greatest difficulties for children?
- hyphenation
 - spelling parts of the word
 - use of upper-case and lower-case letters
77. Exercises used in teaching to write are aimed at developing
- attention, ability to predict, ability to retell the passage read
 - writing technique, memorising word spelling in accordance with the rules of spelling, analysis of compositions, ability of children to edit their written work
 - knowledge of grammar, auditory memory, attention
78. What sounds of the language being learned as the other native/non-native are the most difficult to teach?
- vowels
 - sonorous consonants
 - labial
 - vibrating
 - sibilant
79. The “Horse” exercise (making a “click-click” sound with your tongue, pronouncing “ts”) is used to teach the correct position of the tongue for pronouncing the sounds...
- [s]
 - [ts]
 - [r]
80. In which case is it necessary to seek the qualified help of a speech therapist?
- a 4-year old child does not pronounce a sound, skips it in words
 - a 4-year old child replaces a sound in one language by another sound in the same or the other native / non-native language (sh – s, r – l)
 - a 4-year old child distorts the pronunciation of a sound (influenced or not influenced by the other language)
81. Select the correct sequence of teaching methods to teach pronunciation
- preparatory exercises, teaching the sound, refining pronunciation, differentiation

- b) preparatory exercises, teaching the sound, differentiation, refining pronunciation
 - c) teaching the sound, refining pronunciation, preparatory exercises, differentiation
82. The basic principle of teaching a child of pre-school age (3–6 years) two languages is:
- a) one parent – one language
 - b) one situation (environment) – one language
 - c) one time slot (day) – one language
83. What methodological techniques are used for presenting grammatical material to children of pre-school age?
- a) exercises are based on the assumption that the children are familiar with basic grammatical concepts
 - b) exercises are performed as a game, without explanation
84. What aspects need to be considered in analysing errors made by children learning RAN when speaking Russian
- a) psychological and linguistic
 - b) psycholinguistic
 - c) psychological, psycholinguistic and linguistic
85. The 'closed family' culture among migrants has:
- a) a positive influence on the linguistic integration of the child
 - b) a negative influence on the linguistic integration of the child
 - c) has no influence on the linguistic integration of the child
86. Is it sufficient for a migrant child to achieve success in mastering the Russian language by immersing him/her in a Russian language environment?
- a) yes, children quickly learn from other children
 - b) no, a special system of psycho-pedagogical assistance for the child is needed
 - c) no, a special system of psycho-pedagogical assistance for the child is needed along with the involvement of parents in the integration process
87. Organising joint games that do not require much talking is part of the specifics of teaching Russian to children speaking other languages...
- a) at primary school
 - b) at pre-school
 - c) in the family
88. The main instrument for semanticisation and learning new words in a child's community is
- a) visualisation
 - b) listening
 - c) playing
89. The diagnostics of the bilingual child's speech development is aimed at:
- a) differentiating between errors in under-developed bilingualism (interference) and errors due to the under-development of various aspects of speech (pathological)

- b) detecting errors in under-developed bilingualism (interference)
 - c) detecting errors due to under-development of various aspects of speech
90. It is recommended that a survey of bilingual children is carried out
- a) in the language of the environment
 - b) in the language of the family
 - c) in both languages
91. During examination of the child (teacher of the native language is not present), it is recommended that the speech therapist uses the indirect assistance of the child's parents for:
- a) translation of the therapist's questions and the child's answers
 - b) answers to the speech therapist's questions (to determine the correct answers)
 - c) translation of the child's answers
92. The factors that determine the need for speech therapist care at the child's pre-school age are:
- a) wrong pronunciation of sounds found in both the native language and Russian
 - b) absence of the sound R at the age of up to 5 years
 - c) replacement of hard for soft sounds at the age of up to 4 years
93. Is the influence of the child's native language (not Russian) taken into account in assessing his / her readiness for school?
- a) yes, it is taken into account; where possible he / she receives the necessary psycho-pedagogical help even before starting school
 - b) no, it is not taken into account; the child's readiness for school is determined independently from the influence of the native language
94. Should children who do not speak Russian as the native language be prevented from socialising with other children in their native language?
- a) none of the child's attempts to make contact should be discouraged
 - b) communication in a native language should be limited for the benefit of learning Russian more successfully
95. The specific challenges and mistakes of bilinguals:
- a) wrong pronunciation
 - b) poor vocabulary
 - b) phonetic and grammatical mistakes
96. Which letters of Russian can be confused by bilingual children because they sound alike, or look alike if the sounds are different?
- a) PBH
 - b) AO
 - c) MKT
97. Theatrical activity at pre-school
- a) can be considered as integrated activity
 - b) can be partially considered as integrated activity
 - c) cannot be considered an integrated activity

98. What is the role of finger games at integrated classes of children speaking other languages in all age groups of the pre-school:
- a) development of fine motor skills
 - b) development of fine motor skills and speech coordination with movement
 - c) development of fine motor skills and speech coordination with movement, activation of the motor, auditory and speech organs
99. Methods used in integrated lessons at the pre-school:
- a) trial-and-error, logical
 - b) creative, differentiated
 - c) single-step method, method of contrast(ing), “apprentice” method”
100. Is it appropriate to make up separate groups at the pre-school for children for whom Russian is not native?
- a) yes, it is more convenient for teaching the children Russian
 - b) no, the children learn Russian faster in a mixed group as the language of the environment

Keys for self-checking

№ 1–10: –; 3–1–2; 3–1–2; d; c; a; b; c; c; 3–4–1–2;

№ 11–20: –; b; –; –; c; a; b; a + c; spade and snow maiden;
8–1–2–4–7–6–3–5;

№ 21–30: 1–3–2–4; 7–5–1–2–3–6–4; 3–4–5–1–2–6;
5–9–7–3–6–1–10–8–2; 2–6–5–1–4–3; 6–2–3–4–5–1;
a; c–f; b; 1–8–4–5–3–9–2–7–6;

№ 31–40: a, b, e; a, c, e; –; b; b; c; b; b; c; b;

№ 41–50: a; b; a; c; b; a; a; b; b; a;

№ 51–60: a; a; c; b; b; c; a; b; c; c;

№ 61–70: b; b; b; a; a; b; c; a; b; a;

№ 71–80: b; a; c; a; b; b; b; the answer depends on the language combination; c; b;

№ 81–90: a; b; b; c; b; c; b; a; a; c;

№ 91–100: c; a; a; a; c; a; a; c; b; b.

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE TRAINING PROGRAMME

Types of teaching activities	Number of hours of auditory work
Lectures	minimum 3 on each of 5 modules
Practical classes/seminars	minimum 3 on each of 5 modules
On-going control (testing)	minimum 1 test and 1 practical assignment on each of 5 modules
Final control	At the discretion of the leading organisation, taking account of the specifics of the staff
Total number of hours	minimum 12 on each module

Programme Content (modules)

1. Introduction (invariable part)

Typology of migrants. Structures of communities. Migration zones in the country of residence of pupils.

The structure of the multicultural (bilingual) ECES (pre-school) as compared with the monolingual ECES. The principles of staff selection and assigning responsibilities. Ways of funding a bilingual ECES, including the community, national and international projects. Principles of forming groups of pupils. The major differences between multicultural (bilingual) ECESs and primary schools with 1 to 6 year-old pupils with regard to the organisation and content of the educational process.

Age-related physiological, psychological and other characteristics of children (from 1 to 6 years). The diary (comparative) of development of monolingual and bilingual children.

Module 1. Linguo-cultural and socio-cultural components of teaching language as non-native (another native) to bilingual pre-school children

1.1. Language as non-native and another native in Europe and world-wide

The notion of language and the interaction of languages and cultures in the multilingual world. Issues of multilingual education. Consideration of programmes and standards of pre-school (early school) education in the country of residence and the county of origin of the pupil.

Multilingualism in the kindergarten. Ethnically oriented approach to teaching the language as non-native (another native) and education of the bilingual individual in childhood. Creating a natural environment for the development of bilingualism (taking account of the extra-linguistic component).

Characteristics of (natural) bilingualism in children (1–6 year-olds).

The notions “language as non-native” and “language as another native”; “language as foreign” and “language as another Slavonic language” (including for example the Russian and Slovenian languages; other combinations are possible). The notion of communication competence and its components. Assessment of bilinguals' communication competence at pre-school (elementary school) age. Questionnaires to assess the presence and level of natural bilingualism in children.

1.2. Language and culture

Intercultural communication and competence. Dialogue of cultures in the society, educational institution and family. Basic laws of mastering another native (non-native) language in a natural environment.

Families and groups of languages throughout the world and on the territory of pupils' host country. The native (state) language.

The community language and culture in the formation of the socio-lingual and cultural space in the country and throughout the world. Linguistic self-identification of the individual and the national individual.

The main features of languages in the language group to which bilingual children belong, as compared with the official language of the country of residence, at the levels of phonetics, morphemics, morphology and syntax.

The relationship of linguistic peculiarities to historical and cultural heritage (nationally marked units of the language).

1.3. Integration of humanities as the basis for interrelated study of language and culture

Regional geography and language(s) studies (culture studies), ethno-sociology and socio-linguistics – introduction and basic concepts as applied to the multicultural environment.

Language from the perspective of linguo-cultural studies (according to Prof. Holger Kusse).

Characteristics of a natural bilingual. Extra-linguistic factors influencing the formation and development of bilingualism. Impact (levelling or increasing) on extra-linguistic factors.

1.4. (Another) native language and national cultural components in learning and teaching the language as non-native and as another native (in a foreign language environment)

Socio-cultural conditions of language contact and bilingualism.

Methods for identifying characteristics and comparing languages and cultures when formulating correctional playing activities for bilingual children.

Analysis of existing educational and play materials for 1–6 year-old bilinguals in terms of linguo-cultural studies and socio-cultural components.

1.5. European experience in teaching bilingual pre-school children languages (non-native, another native and foreign)

Parents' strategies for maintaining the native language in natural bilinguals. Centres of supplementary education in communities around the world, their types, structures, competences, etc.

Culture-based projects for teaching the language as non-native (another native). Original projects of educational and cultural centres in European Union countries with the pre-school component incorporated into the project structure.

Teaching in Tandem as an independent method of teaching languages by two partners in a cultural dialogue (for teaching staff and parents)

Module 2. Psychological and ethno-psychological bases of teaching bilingual pre-school children the language as non-native (another native)

2.1. Psychological specifics of learning the second language in childhood.

Psychological characteristics of pre-school (primary school) bilinguals. Taking the age differences of bilinguals into account in teaching them the language as non-native (another native). Difficulties for bilinguals in learning different aspects of the non-native (other native) language. The reasons for these difficulties (including the extra-linguistic and linguistic factors of the environment and the personality of the pupil).

2.2. The role of ethno-psychological knowledge in the process of upbringing and educating bilingual children

Ethnic psychology as a science. The role and importance of ethno-psychological knowledge in teaching bilinguals the non-native (other native) language.

The need to preserve the bi- (inter-) national picture of the world in the bilingual's mind. Modes of transfer of ethno-cultural experience, and the need to take into account the bilingual's ethno-psychological characteristics in the process of education.

The causes and characteristics of the formation of the national mentality (the influence of geographical environment and natural conditions, forms and methods of educating children, customs, norms and laws of human behaviour, religion, historical conditions).

Ethno-psychological characteristics of children from different ethnic groups. The myth of the “perfect child” and parental strategies of education within different cultures. Their outward manifestation in other cultural environments.

Module 3. Methodological aspects of teaching bilingual pre-school children language as non-native (another native)

3.1. Common methodological issues of teaching language as non-native and another native at pre-school (early school) age

Language as native, non-native and another native: general didactic, psychological-educational and linguistic principles of teaching. Approaches to teaching children language as native, non-native and another native at an early age: common and different.

The content of language teaching as non-native, and another native. The object of teaching: language, speech, speech activity, culture. The object of learning: knowledge, abilities, skills; background and socio-cultural knowledge,

intercultural communication. Teaching results: communication competence and its components in pre-school children.

Methods and techniques of teaching language to bilingual pre-school children. The organisational forms of language teaching at kindergarten.

Means of language teaching at pre-school age. Information and communication technologies in teaching bilingual children language as non-native and another native.

3.2. Methods of speech development in early childhood education systems with multiethnic composition of children's groups

Types of language activities: listening, speaking, reading, writing. Text as a unit of training speaking activity. The selection of texts for training pre-school children in the target group (taking into account the age-related characteristics of development and culture of the country of residence). Texts on regional geography (cultural studies) as the dominant idea. Adapting texts.

Training in listening. Methodical techniques and exercises for training in listening.

Training in speaking. Factors that impede training in speaking and factors determining success in training bilingual children to speak.

Development of speech of bilingual pre-school children. Communicative-speech situations and their use in the classroom with bilingual pre-school children. Preparing bilingual pre-school children to read and write.

3.3. Linguistic aspects of teaching bilingual pre-school children language as non-native (another native)

Problems of language integration. Those among us who speak other languages.

Phonetic exercises in teaching bilingual children language. Pronunciation training and speech therapy exercises. Enriching the vocabulary of bilinguals and scope of themes in each of the languages. Correcting grammatical structures in bilinguals' speech. The need for and ways to overcome interference; training pre-school bilinguals in code-switching at all levels in class.

Module 4. Interdisciplinary links in teaching bilingual pre-school children language as non-native (another native)

4.1. Integrated classes in training bilingual pre-school children (younger school children) (1–6 year-olds)

Methodology of an integrated lesson. The integrated lesson in a multilingual group in the kindergarten (primary school).

Language as non-native (another native) and speech development based on the acquaintance with the world around; mathematics, logic; creative activities at the pre-school (ECES). Elements of the Waldorf and Montessori pedagogy in working with bilingual children. Original methods of working with bilinguals in the country of residence and worldwide. Theatre pedagogy (“The Lifelong Theatre”).

4.2. Relationship of teaching language as non-native (another native) with speech therapy and psychiatry at an early age

Logopaedic support of bilingual children of pre-school age in the course of the education process. Differentiation of errors due to under-developed bilingualism (interference) and errors due to the under-development of various speech components (pathological).

Using the methods of corrective speech therapy in order to overcome speech, language and communication difficulties in bilingual pre-school children.

Hyperactivity as a medical and pedagogic diagnosis. Inadequate pedagogic attention to a bilingual child and its consequences. Information overload, shortage and distortion of information and their consequences.

4.3. Analytical review of modern IT

Learning games and tests. Virtual interactive whiteboards. Electronic publications.

Didactic capabilities of Web 2.0. Organisation of creative activities for pre-school children in middle and senior groups through internet services. The use of video materials (including proportioning of ethno-cultural and language activities through video series when a native speaker is not available among the children). Principles of selection and use of animation in working with pre-school children.

Module 5. The interaction of the bilingual ECES (primary school) and society with parents of bilingual children

Organisation of educational and training activities through internet resources. Teachers design and create an information environment for parents by means of blogs and website constructs.

1:1 – the principle of cooperation, producing a win-win situation for all concerned. Family pedagogy and the ethno-cultural tandem “family-ECES” in a multicultural society. Norms and culture of interaction with the “alien” as well as the “other” or “ours”. Intercultural competence of the teaching staff and the Community. Closed and open Community structures. “Capsules” of the society brought-in and subjectivised in the Community, and the subjectivisation of the image of the country of origin in the society of the country of residence.

Topical and individual consultations at ECES (school). Systematic character of open lessons. “I am learning the language – my mother too”. The child as a mirror and thread to the family and society; the family as an echo of the child.

Ways and methods of using parents' competence (the Community) with the aim of developing the activity of the bilingual institution (including self-education of the staff, international education and upbringing of pre-school children). International Day of Languages and Family as a way of balancing the languages and cultures.

Presentations and hand-outs for parents. Parents' clubs in the bilingual ECES (school).

Possible forms of monitoring (including standards and requirements to be met by such courses in countries of residence of the teaching staff)

Test of knowledge (individual and group)

Task for creativity (including projects)

Presentation

Testing

Form and content of the final certification

Final certification of participants in the programme is by way of a project defence.

Examples of project topics:

1. Corrective course of teaching bilingual pre-school children the national or official language of the country of residence through play activities (developing a methodology for teaching any one aspect of the language).
2. Workbook with a plan for teaching bilingual pre-school children to read and write.
3. Collection of texts (devise an audio course) for listening with tasks and exercises for pre-school bilinguals.
4. Topical communicative-speech situations with characteristic regional realities used in teaching non-native (another native) language to bilingual pre-school children.
5. The implementation of an integrated approach to teaching the language as non-native (another native) to bilingual pre-school children. (Devise a multimedia manual for teaching bilingual pre-school children).
6. Dialogue of cultures in teaching the language as non-native (another native) to bilingual pre-school children. Elaboration of teaching systems.
7. System of integrated lessons for multiethnic group in the kindergarten.
8. Implementation of the ethnically oriented approach to teaching the language as non-native (another native) in an early childhood education system with multi-ethnic composition of children group.

Teaching tools

- Specialised scientific literature
- Educational-methodical literature
- Methodical manuals and practical work on teaching language as non-native (another native)
- Electronic lecture presentations
- Visual aids (charts, tables, illustrations)
- Dictionaries, encyclopaedias and reference books
- Electronic libraries
- Internet resources (online resources)
- Video and audio materials, integrated interactive training courses
- Multimedia instruments (training devices for work on vocabulary and grammar)
- Testing 8

Programme content (country-related component varies among the countries participating in the BILIUM project)

SWEDEN: Multicultural Teaching: Preparing Music (Arts, Drama, PE) Teachers for Multicultural Challenges

Introduction

The establishment of the ideal of human cultural diversity is being encouraged by global changes taking place all over the world. Different kinds of social and demographic mobility, including those caused by the mass flow of refugees and migrants, occur here and there. The European Union has brought together various countries and peoples that have different languages, cultures and religions. Thus, the major part of mankind live in conditions of multi-ethnicity and multi-culture. Initiative, the ability to look at things from a creative perspective and to find extraordinary solutions, choose a professional path for oneself, and readiness for life-long studying are without doubt the most important features of the personality. The main tasks of the modern system of working with children are recognising every pupil's aptitudes, educating the personality to be ready for life in a high-tech and quickly changing world where people need to be able to set and achieve serious objectives on their own, quickly adapting to new challenges.

Language as a tool for involvement in social relations

Modern social studies state that man is a cross-point of many cultures, thus, he can be mono- or poly-ethnic. By means of language man constructs a social reality, which is the reality of generally valid senses and meanings created by interaction, exchange and discourse. Gergen (1994)²⁴ suggests a relation language concept, which means replacing the semantic structure of a language by the degree of involvement of an individual or group in relations. The language is seen as a tool for coordinating an individual's actions in the context of the course of events. Language determines the so-called coordinates of life in society and fulfils this life with essential components. Thus, an activity important for man, for example a creative activity, is a source of language enrichment and a motive to study and use it actively. In other words, a child cannot be prepared for intercultural interaction unless he or she discovers similarities and differences from 'others' through his or her life experience. The usual transferring of knowledge of cultural and ethnic diversity in the world is not enough.

Music as a way of promoting multilingualism and cultural diversity

The formation of a multicultural personality is a difficult and long-term process, which starts in early childhood. Clearly, music and language have similarities: they both have linear and logical structures and use syntax or specific sequences of notes or language pieces to influence the meaning or semantics of the message relayed. There is an opinion that music and language are common processes in the mind and depend on the same brain systems (Brown, Martinez & Parsons, 2006;

²⁴ Gergen, K. J. (1994). Realities and relationships: Soundings in social construction-ism. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Patel, 2012)^{25, 26}, Music and language require equally complex, higher-order thinking processes and skills including attention, categorisation and memory.

Learning music and aesthetics is one of the elements of the general system of a child's education. Dance, as an expression of music in movement, is an important method of education. It is the largest and most accessible basis of choreographic education for children and young people, it is the 'foundation' on which the whole 'building' of the spiritual culture of a modern, harmonically developed person will be raised. It is necessary for children to acquire information about the dances of different peoples and periods, as every people has its own dances in which its mentality, history, habits and character are reflected.

Musical development is indispensable for the general development of a child: the emotional world takes shape, ideation is improved, and the child becomes sensible to beauty in arts and life. The art of music is regarded as the spiritual world of children, which is why their educational aptitudes are so high. It begins with activities like dancing, singing, listening to music and playing instruments in the family context. “Parents and teachers who provide music in their child's life are creating the most powerful route to the child's successful involvement in the art” (Reid, 2001, p. 24)²⁷.

Moreover, the results of contemporary research suggest that multicultural music teaching has a significant effect on classroom learning outcomes among children of primary school age. Abril (2006)²⁸ pointed out: “Interactive dialogues surrounding sociocultural or musical concepts resulted in a greater number of students articulating their knowledge about these respective topics”. The evidence confirms that formal elements of music might be used as a framework for learning. Other authors emphasise the impact of the integration of the Arts (dance, music, theatre and the visual arts) on the performance of language, mathematics, science and social studies (Vitulli, Santoli, & Fresne, 2013)²⁹; the importance of cultural understanding through singing multicultural songs (Ilari, Chen-Hafteck & Crawford, 2013)³⁰. These results suggest that involvement in structure activities has significant outcomes, and the Arts are natural facilitators for young people's

²⁵ Brown S., Martinez M.J., Parsons L.M. (2006). Music and language side by side in the brain: a PET study of the generation of melodies and sentences. *Eur J Neurosci*, 23(10), 2791–803.

²⁶ Patel, A., D. (2012). Language, music, and the brain: A resource-sharing framework. In: P. Rebuschat, M. Rohrmeier, J. Hawkins, & I. Cross (Eds.), *Language and Music as Cognitive Systems* (pp. 204–223). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

²⁷ Reid, S. (2001). *How to develop your child's musical gifts and talents*. New York, NY: Contemporary Books.

²⁸ Abril, C., R. (2006). Learning Outcomes of Two Approaches to Multicultural Music Education. *International Journal of Music Education*.vol. 24 no.1 30–42. doi: 10.1177/0255761406063103

²⁹ Vitulli, P., Santoli, S. P., & Fresne, J. (2013). Arts in education: Professional development integrating the arts and collaborating with schools and community. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, Vol. 8, No. 1, Apr 2013: 45–52.

³⁰ Ilari, B., Chen-Hafteck, L., & Crawford, L. (2013). *International Journal of Music Education* May 2013 vol. 31 no. 2 202-216. doi: 10.1177/0255761413487281

healthy development. However, researchers note that there is a need to train teachers to use these approaches more effectively in order to meet the challenges of global changes.

Conclusion

The cultural and leisure aspects of mainstream childhood education (music, arts, drama, PE) in a multicultural environment encourage the establishment of relations in terms of goodwill, mutual help and cooperation, the formation of a collective and the creation of a peaceful and non-violent atmosphere in it. This increases efficiency and widens opportunities for young people's positive development since it allows children's leisure to be interestingly and informatively arranged and promotes a healthy way of life. Thanks to structural engagement in musical classes, inter-group contacts operate under more favourable conditions; there is a generalisation of positive experiences of such kinds of contacts, which, in its turn, sustains the formation of a positive identity, culture synthesis and the integration of peers.

It is difficult to overestimate the problem of children's education in a multicultural society: this is why it is necessary to create a programme of cultural synthesis in the context of further training for pedagogues in all kinds of educational establishments to support the processes of integration and cultural dialogue

<i>Programme Content (variable part)</i>	<i>Number of hours</i>			<i>Types of Control</i>
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Lectures</i>	<i>Practical</i>	
1.2. EEF (Sweden) We are interested in the further training of our pedagogues and parents in aspect 1.2 for the following reasons. Firstly, there is greater language and cultural diversity in our local community because of the increasing number of immigrants. Migration itself is a major change in the socio-cultural environment. This change affects all perspectives of socio-cultural development. Dialogue between different cultures is the most appropriate way to ensure peaceful interaction and knowledge exchange. Secondly, adaptation to Swedish society is achieved through acquisition of the official language of the country, therefore proficiency in Swedish is crucial for new Swedes to adapt successfully to society.	7	4	3	Series of seminars, tutoring and coaching for individuals, teams and groups. The examination task in Module 1 can be presented and examined both in oral and written forms, as well as by project work, individual written assignments, and graded oral literature seminars
1.4. EEF (Sweden) We are interested in the further training of our pedagogues and parents in aspect 1.4 for a number of reasons. Firstly, the nature of our activity is leisure management. The form and methods of the educational process are aimed at the acquisition of special creative abilities and know-how. Engagement in creative work has an intellectual impact on children and also develops particular practical skills that can be acquired only within the framework of supplementary education. In our activity we can purposefully include particular elements of playing, based on these methods. (e.g. methods for identifying characteristics and comparing languages and cultures when formulating correctional playing activities for bilingual children).	7	3	4	Series of seminars, tutoring and coaching for individuals, teams and groups. The examination task in Module 1 can be presented and examined both in oral and written forms, as well as by doing a project work, individual written assignments, and graded oral literature seminars.

BILIUM – Bilingualism Upgrade Module (Part II)

<p>1.5. EFF (Sweden) We are interested in the further training of our pedagogues and parents in aspect 1.5 for a score of reasons. Firstly, we see the family as a primary social institution. For a child the family is both a habitat and educational environment. This is due to the fact that children receive basic information about the world and about themselves from their parents. In addition, parents have a unique opportunity to influence their children because of their physical, emotional and social dependence on them. Human beings go through socialisation and realise their interests in the family. The family is one of the ways of building a social life and creating a natural environment for the growth and well-being of all its members. Within the framework of our activity we proceed from the principle of dialogue between pedagogues and pupils' parents at our school. The teachers guide and tutor the children, the children are supported by their parents, and the parents have the opportunity of giving feedback to the teachers and vice versa. Thus, the family is an essential element of a successful educational process in terms of educational process maintenance, motivation of children and influence on political decisions in the local multicultural commune.</p>	7	4	3	<p>Series of seminars, tutoring and coaching for individuals, teams and groups. The examination task in Module 1 can be presented and examined both in oral and written forms, as well as by doing a project work, individual written assignments, and graded oral literature seminars</p>
<p>2.1. EEF (Sweden) We are interested in the further training of our pedagogues and parents in aspect 2.1 as we consider it to be important to maintain an interest in creative self-expression among children of a different cultural background. The knowledge of the psychological features of children connected with their cultural background, age peculiarities and gender difference can have a positive impact on those methods and means that can be chosen by teachers in order to complete their pedagogic tasks.</p>	7	4	3	<p>Series of seminars, tutoring and coaching for individuals, teams and groups. The examination task in Module 2 can be presented and examined both in oral and written forms, as well as by doing a project work, individual written assignments, and graded oral literature seminars. Rating scale</p>
<p>4.1 EEF (Sweden) We are interested in the further training of our pedagogues and parents in aspect 4.1 by virtue of the specific nature of our work – we work with the self-realisation of children. The method of theatrical pedagogics, public performance and participation in creative collective activity are amongst our priorities in the local multicultural community.</p>	7	4	3	<p>Series of seminars, tutoring and coaching for individuals, teams and groups. The examination task in Module 4 can be presented and examined both in oral and written forms, as well as by doing a project work, individual written assignments, and graded oral literature seminars.</p>
<p>5. EEF (Sweden) We are interested in the further training of our pedagogues and parents in Module 5 as the aim of our organisation, an association of parents, children and teachers, is to secure opportunities for providing supplementary education in the multicultural community. We consider the enrichment of a child's environment with elements of different cultures through language, music and dance to be one of the top-priority tasks of a family upbringing. The development of creativity by a process of different kinds of collective and individual activity; the contribution to the intellectual development of children by means of language and culture.</p>	7	4	3	<p>Series of seminars, tutoring and coaching for individuals, teams and groups. The examination task in Module 5 can be presented and examined both in oral and written forms, as well as by doing a project work, individual written assignments, and graded oral literature seminars.</p>

BILIUM – Bilingualism Upgrade Module (Part II)

Total	42	24	18	Professional development consists of independent courses incl. advanced level for teachers who already have a teaching degree and work at different types of schools, and are interested in learning in order to improve their skills and competences. Rating scale: The grades are Fail (U), Pass (G), Pass with Distinction (VG), or according to a seven-point scale (in descending order) A, B, C, D, E, Fx and F. To pass the course requires a minimum grade of E.
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Adaptation of the BILIUM 1 Module to the Spanish Educational System

1. Introduction

Spain, as a country with four official languages, has always been a perfect example of a multicultural and multilingual society. Spanish, Catalan and Galician are languages of Latin origin, whereas the typology of Basque, which is very different in its structure from the Latin languages, has not been determined. The territory in which Catalan is spoken is larger than that for Galician and Basque and includes the North-West territory of Spain, Valencia, the Balearic Islands, Andorra and some parts of Northern France. Basque is the language of the Basque country and Navarra. Galician is spoken in the North-East of Spain. Apart from these main languages there are several other languages used by smaller communities: Valencian, Aragonese, Andalusian, Extremaduran. These languages developed at different stages over time and finally, in 1978, it was declared in the Constitution that Spanish, Catalan, Galician and Basque are the official languages of the state and must be protected as part of the Spanish national heritage.

According to the Spanish educational system, children have the option of attending pre-school (the “infant” or popularly known as “pre-school” stage) from birth until 6 years of age. The first stage of pre-school education (0–3 years) is payable, whereas the second stage is non-compulsory and free for all students, and is regarded as an integral part of the education system with infant classes at almost every primary school. In 2008 the average enrolment rate of children under three years of age in formal childcare was 38 percent, and the proportion of children aged three to five years old in pre-school education was 98 percent. At the present time there is full attendance (100 percent) by children at pre-school³¹.

Every bilingual autonomous community has its own laws and regulations. For example, from 1978 the Catalan and Spanish languages are obligatory with an equal number of hours in all timetables. The Catalanian government recently

³¹ <http://www.oecd.org/els/family/oecdfamilydatabase.htm#structure>

proposed recommendations for pre-school educational institutions in Catalonia. According to them, the language of learning and communication should be Catalan. This action came as no surprise because practically all public kindergartens have Catalan-speaking staff. In addition, if parents want their child to learn any other language, the community has a large number of private bilingual kindergartens with English, German, French and Italian as the language of instruction³². However, in spite of the success of bilingual immersion programmes in Catalonia, which were adopted from Canada, there are still debates about the quality of language teaching.

The trilingual programme implemented in the Valencian community on the basis of pre-school (children from 3 years old), primary and secondary education has already revealed benefits. The programme's purpose is to ensure equal competence in three languages (Valencian, Spanish and English) without any particular language domination. However, this programme requires great economical and human resources, which are very difficult to secure in a period of crisis³³.

In the Basque autonomous community only 50% of the population speak the Basque language, and this number has risen in the last decade as a result of the introduction of Basque schools – ikastolas. These schools have different education programmes and each parent can choose between teaching in: Spanish L1 with Basque L2, bilingual Spanish and Basque, Basque L1 and Spanish L2.

The situation in Galicia is different from that of the above-mentioned autonomous communities. This language has always been used in families and regarded as a language for informal communication. Hence, the local authorities did not take any measures to promote it. In 1983 the law of Linguistic Normalisation introduced various measures to support the Galician language in the educational system of the region; instruction at all educational stages should be done in both languages of the autonomous community, although some subjects should only be taught in Galician.

Understanding the importance of bilingual education and multicultural integration, the Ministry of Education and Science, in cooperation with the British Council, introduced the Bilingual Education Project (BEP) in Spanish state schools in 1996. The bilingual programme was implemented in the monolingual areas of Spain. 82 state schools (including pre-school children from 3 years of age) and 42 institutions of secondary education participate in the programme. The project seeks mainly to “promote the acquisition and learning of both languages through an integrated content-based curriculum and to encourage awareness of the diversity of both cultures”. The amount of curricular time is equivalent to 40% of lessons in English each week and includes subjects in English such as science, history and geography³⁴.

³² http://www.dialogolibre.com/noticias/2012-12-14/La-Generalidad-oficializa-el-catalan-en-las-guarderias-696#.Uz8qXPl_smg

³³ http://ccaa.elpais.com/ccaa/2013/01/09/valencia/1357761543_539059.html

³⁴ Alan Dobson, María Dolores Pérez Murillo, Richard Johnstone. Bilingual education project Spain, Evaluation Report, 2010

Nowadays around 42 percent of the country's population live in areas where two languages exist simultaneously and are taught in the educational institutions: Spanish with Catalan or Basque or Galician³⁵. Taking a look at Spanish history, it is obvious that language was an instrument of national formation used by the country's rulers. During the Franco dictatorship (1939–1975) all languages spoken in Spain, except Spanish, were regarded as dialects and their teaching and even speaking were prohibited, and their usage was punished. Nowadays the autonomous communities are free to choose their own plan of language development. Still, the existing challenge of bilingual communities is how to preserve their autonomy language in the context of Spanish language dominance.

The political acts aimed at promoting Spanish in bilingual regions of Spain (adding subjects and hours to the curriculum, etc.) have led to various debates. However, studies have shown that there is no ground for anxiety amongst Spanish language protagonists. The level of Spanish in bilingual communities is rather high and is not inferior to community language mastery. In some aspects (depending on the writing and reading) the knowledge of Spanish is even more prevalent than community language skills. In addition, migrants living in bilingual regions of Spain do not see the necessity of learning community languages as they can survive perfectly with a knowledge of Spanish³⁶. As the area of local language usage is limited by its territory, the question of language preservation, promotion and protection is still of importance in the Spanish autonomous communities.

For various reasons, Spain has always been an attractive place for migrants from Morocco, Romania and Bulgaria and a large number of European people also live there – Italians, British, Germans. The main languages of migrants accordingly are Arabic, Romanian, English, German, French and the languages of other not so numerous groups³⁷. Interestingly, the migration of Russian-speaking people has increased significantly in Spain over the past 5 years. According to the Spanish National Statistics Institute (Instituto Nacional de Estadística), the Russian population in Spain in 2011 was 52,832. This compares with only 10,047 Russian people living in Spain in 2001. These figures only represent official statistics and do not take account of illegal immigrants, children born in Spain of Russian-speaking parents or adopted from Russia and other Russian-speaking nationalities³⁸. The above-mentioned facts clearly indicate that Spain, with its historically motivated bilingualism and high percentage of migrants from all over the world, is a diverse, multicultural and multilingual country. The Spanish culture and Spanish language are equal for all the country but there are unique traditions and languages typical for particular regions.

³⁵ www.apac.es/publications/documents/Raluy_Vallbona.doc

³⁶ *Montrul Silvana*. El bilingüismo en el mundo hispanohablante, John Wiley & Sons, Inc, 2013

³⁷ http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idiomas_de_Espa%C3%B1a

³⁸ <http://www.espanarusa.com/article.sdf/es/articles/86824>

2. Bilingual pre-school children's acquisition of vocabulary through play activities.

The use of play activities in the language acquisition process in pre-school education is not an innovative methodology. The idea derives from communicative approaches to language teaching and learning used in classrooms since the 1970s³⁹. In addition, psychologists have proved that children and their playing activity are inseparable, as games are the child's tools for world investigation. The process of playing represents an unconscious act that does not require any efforts and as a result can be applicable to all activities regardless of the level of knowledge⁴⁰. Moreover, games are included in all immersive learning programmes written for pre-school children as they develop creative and positive thinking and lead to highly motivated activity. Bilingual children of 3–6 years of age are highly attuned to new word acquisition. At this age they not only imprint the information but also the difference between their language lexicons is not so distinct. The sizes of vocabularies during the pre-school age can vary but the gap between 3 and 6 years of age is significant; at the age of 2–3 years the active vocabulary is around 500 words and at the age of 6 it consists of 4,000 words⁴¹. This fact clearly highlights the importance of lexical development in both languages at this age. Unfortunately, children often receive a reduced input in one of their languages, and it is usually their parents who do not provide this input. Children need exposure to a rich and diverse vocabulary in order to build up their lexicons. Psychologists have proved that while playing every child in the group feels equal to the others, even a student with poor language knowledge feels comfortable during the class. The features of playing such as easiness and openness, where it is permitted to make mistakes, make this type of learning universal for all groups of pupils, including those with language impairments. However, in order to attain positive results, playing in lessons should be regulated and the playing process should be controlled.

There are many different types of play and children can be involved in more than one type at any time. Communicational or language games, competition or collaboration, physical or creative – the type of games depends on the learning purposes. In second language acquisition M.F. Stronin has devised grammatical, lexical, phonetic and orthographic games that promote the mastering of different language skills, and creative games that help to further improve the acquired skills. Games aimed at vocabulary acquisition are highly popular in second language learning practices. The number of possible variations is quite amazing, and there are different purposes: new vocabulary introduction, practising, reviewing⁴².

³⁹ *Bente Meyer*. Game-Based Language Learning for Pre-School Children: A Design Perspective Department, Electronic Journal of e-Learning Volume 11 Issue 1, 2013

⁴⁰ <http://dob.1september.ru/articlef.php?ID=200500510>

⁴¹ *Balikhina T.* Methodology of teaching Russian as a second language, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia Publishing House, Moscow, 2007, 12-13

⁴² Possible types of vocabulary play activities often used by teachers in the classroom can be found here http://www.camtesol.org/Download/LEiA_Vol4_Iss1_2013/LEiA_V4_I1_A6_Le_Play_Activities_for_Primary_English_Learners.pdf. or <http://www.teacher.pl/artykuly-metodyczne/the-role-of-games-in-teaching-children/>.

The important aspect for such games, as far as the pre-school environment is concerned, is the visualisation of the learning material. Pictures, toys and videos are not only a motivational part of the learning process but also an essential support to a child in memorising words.

In addition, the success of the game-based approach for vocabulary acquisition depends not only on a student's abilities and characteristics but also on whether the tutor has properly planned for the games activities. The main stages include: 1) preparation and organisation of games activities based on assessment information of children's vocabularies and the aims and learning goals, 2) explanation of the game, helping all children to be players, interaction support, helping children to deal with difficulties, game process control, 3) play review, interpretation of the results, collecting the assessment information of the vocabulary for future play use (what aspects are the easiest, the most difficult)⁴³.

Learning vocabulary through playing can be fun and enjoyable for both adults and children. Moreover, playing activities are highly productive in language learning by pre-school children as they are coherent with children's cognitive, emotional, and physical abilities at that age. ECES teachers can use game-based activities not only for learning vocabulary but also for developing other language skills. By helping children to take part in different types of language games, and by providing a well-resourced playing environment in the classroom, teachers can greatly enrich the learning opportunities that play provides.

As mentioned above, playing games is an important childhood activity. In Spain a child's right to play is assured by the Royal Decree 1630 of the 29th December 2006 (Real Decreto 1630/2006, 29 de diciembre)⁴⁴. Playing is described as a fundamental and highly important activity that is obligatory in pre-school education. Different types of playing activities are widely used in all Spanish pre-school institutions. The difference between monolingual and bilingual kindergartens is that the latter have educators speaking both languages. The playing activities – one-to-one games or group games, puppet theatre, storytelling and others - are held in different languages and the hours of the language immersion are divided half and half. The private bilingual kindergartens in Spain provide more complex, and a greater variety of, games for language learning, including the following: flash cards and vocabulary; storytelling; oral activities; nursery rhymes and folk songs; puppet shows, traditional games⁴⁵. It is obvious that children find it easier to learn language in a natural manner, so playing is a perfect tool for language immersion. Bilingual pre-school education is inseparable from playing activities, which are used in kindergartens everywhere as a perfect tool for L1 or L2 language learning.

⁴³ www.ncca.biz/aistear/pdfs/guidelines_eng/play_eng.pdf

⁴⁴ <http://www.ipaspain.org/objetivos.htm>

⁴⁵ <http://www.eumed.net/rev/ced/03/fbg.htm>

BILIUM – Bilingualism Upgrade Module (Part II)

<i>Programme Content (variable part)</i>	<i>Number of hours</i>			<i>Types of Control</i>
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Lectures</i>	<i>Practical</i>	
1.1. EEF (Spain). Training in aspect 1.1 is obligatory for teaching staff and parents, owing to a lack of theoretical knowledge about such concepts as multilingualism and natural bilingualism, especially in the pre-school environment. Assessment of bilinguals as one of the most difficult tasks is also part of the course.	6	3	3	Tests, individual project work, seminar sessions, individual written assignments.
1.2. EEF (Spain). Training in aspect 1.2 is obligatory in order to understand the formation of the socio-lingual and cultural space in the historically formed multilingual tradition of Spain. It is important for obtaining knowledge about the particularities of the linguistic self-identification of the individual and the national individual in bilingual Spain, which has three official bilingual communities. The main features of the languages in the language group to which bilingual children belong (especially Basque) are studied in this module.	6	3	3	Tests, individual project work, seminar sessions, individual written assignments
1.3. EEF (Spain). Language learning is always connected with culture; both concepts never exist separately. Thus, knowledge of regional geography and culture studies is obligatory for successful language teaching. The module is useful for mixed language families as an instrument of communicational improvement.	6	3	3	Tests, individual project work, seminar sessions, individual written assignments.
2.2. EEF (Spain). Many pedagogues underestimate the role of mentality and the child's ethno-psychological characteristics. However, with this information, the educational process can be much easier and more successful	6	3	3	Tests, individual project work, seminar sessions, individual written assignments.
3.2. EEF (Spain). As is widely known, bilinguals often have difficulties with writing and reading modality in one of the languages. The course offers explanations of language activities in the context of bilingualism with a cultural component.	6	3	3	Tests, individual project work, seminar sessions, individual written assignments.
4.1. EEF (Spain). Language impairments that bilingual children have are more complex if they occur in both languages. Teachers should be aware of the particular errors of bilinguals and be able to use methods of corrective speech therapy in order to overcome speech, language and communication difficulties in bilingual pre-school children.	6	3	3	Tests, individual project work, seminar sessions, individual written assignments.
4.3. EEF (Spain). In an age of new technologies and the internet it is very important to be acquainted with and to integrate the informational technologies in the classroom.	6	2	4	Tests, individual project work, seminar sessions, individual written assignments.

Adaptation of the BILIUM 1 Module to the Austrian Educational System

The main target of the BILIUM 1 Module is to work out a programme for training ECES teachers as qualified intercultural staff (IKM – Interkulturelle MitarbeiterInnen). To adapt this programme to the Austrian educational system, primarily the ECES sector, is the aim of the BILIUM 2 Module. Further targets are: the active promotion of meetings, contacts and discussions between parents; raising awareness of individual, family or social problem areas; assistance and support for child-centred education and development issues.

The IKM study is aimed in particular at children of immigrant background as well as those with language and learning disabilities – to assist them in everyday pre-school life. It has not yet been possible to attain the target of combining ECES (e.g. in Lower Austria since 1992) and IKM (started 2009) even though the IKM have learned the fundamentals of intercultural education from 1,600 units. The only reasons are the lack of official recognition and – the lack of money.

The latter is one of the main problems of the Austrian educational system at present: for the Teachers' Union the cuts in education (57 million euros in 2014 and 60 million euros in 2015) are tantamount to “a declaration of the bankruptcy of the Austrian education policy”. In particular there is an urgent need for 2 teachers (German, Maths and English) to be present in the classroom, e.g. in New Secondary Schools (NMS – Neue Mittelschule). The so-called “NMS light” (with only 1 teacher in the classroom) is thus categorically rejected.

To solve the problem of having a second teacher in the classroom, it is intended to initiate a project during the school year 2015/16 – the BAKIP21 Project, a training programme lasting 5 terms for registered job seekers with a 100 % job guarantee for graduated assistant teachers. But many of the problems with this kind of education have not yet been solved: lack of official recognition of the IKM and hence the absence of a common teaching standard; different groups of children from migrant families without the common basic knowledge needed for school; the problem of parents narrowing the horizons of their children by allowing contact with their ethnic group only.

As far as the adaptation of the BILIUM Module 1 is concerned, there is the problem of the detailed definition of the terms “school entrance” and “school readiness”. This refers to the lack of alternative methods for school entrance if the child is not yet ready to start school (e.g. an additional year). The Municipality of Vienna is trying to solve this problem by initiating the project Free Tutoring in Schools (Nachhilfe), with German and foreign languages as the main focus. This project is planned to start in the autumn of 2014.

“Education does not mean employment” – not even working in intercultural education at a pre-school. In this respect the majority of IKM graduates are sharply critical of the policy because they believed they were studying for an inviolable and unique ECES position which has now turned out to be legally useless. Thus the IKM project seems at any rate to be – despite a positive response – at an end.

**Adaptation of the BILIUM 1 Module to the Swiss Educational System:
Institutions in Switzerland providing training for pre-school and primary
school teachers**

In Switzerland, university study is not required for pre-school teachers – just vocational training (Berufsausbildung). These study courses are usually dual, i.e. students are employed at one organisation at the same time that they are enrolled at a school. It is also possible to enrol for Berufsausbildung at a school (Berufslehre). In 2013, 85.6 % of students receiving vocational training were enrolled in this dual system⁴⁶. More than 90 % of all students complete this course of studies. There are currently about 250 job postings currently listed on the market in Switzerland.

Depending on a person's educational background, one can study to be a pre-school teacher (Kindererzieher/in HF) at various institutions (see List 1). The learning process lasts 2–3 years full-time, or 3–4 years part-time. A combination of theory and practice is crucial for vocational training: students usually have classes only one day a week, with professional practice the rest of the week (at least 50 %); the remaining time is devoted to self-study⁴⁷.

A person can also study to be a pre-school and primary school teacher at pedagogical colleges (see List 2). Potential students might get a 'Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education' or a 'Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education'. The course of study lasts at least 6 semesters and students have to get 180 ECTS.

The Swiss government supports migrant children and youth in the study of their heritage languages (= HSK-Unterricht, Unterricht in heimatlicher Sprache und Kultur, LCO-Cours, les cours de langue et de culture d'origine, LCO-corsi, corsi di lingua e di cultura dei paesi d'origine, Engl.: Teaching heritage language and culture). The further education of teachers offering HSK lessons is defined by each canton.

The curricula of all of the listed institutions include topics on language acquisition and intercultural competence. Therefore, the results of the 'BILIUM' project can be offered to all interested parties.

Courses for pre-school and primary school teachers are offered by the Eidgenössisches Hochschulinstitut für Berufsbildung⁴⁸. Courses for middle school teachers are offered by the Schweizerische Zentralstelle für die Weiterbildung der Mittelschullehrpersonen⁴⁹. The programmes for the courses are developed according to the needs and demands of the teachers.

⁴⁶ Data for all cantons except Ticino is provided in 'Berufsbildung in der Schweiz 2014 – Fakten und Zahlen,' <http://www.sbfi.admin.ch/dokumentation/00335/00400/?lang=de> accessed 20 April 2014.

⁴⁷ <http://www.berufsberatung.ch/dyn/1199.aspx?data=education&id=7720> accessed 20 April 2014.

⁴⁸ <http://www.ehb-schweiz.ch/> accessed 20 April 2014.

⁴⁹ <https://www.wbz-cps.ch/> accessed 20 April 2014.

List 1: Berufsausbildung⁵⁰

Agogis, Winterthur

<http://www.agogis.ch/>

BFF Bern

<http://www.bffbern.ch/de/>

BFS Basel

<http://www.bfsbs.ch/>

Curaviva hfk, Zug

<http://www.curaviva.ch/Bildung/hfk-Zug/P4pIP/>

List 2: Pedagogical Colleges

Pädagogische Hochschule der Fachhochschule Nordwestschweiz, Basel

<http://www.fhnw.ch/ph/startseite>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Bern

<http://www.phbern.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Freiburg

<http://www.phfr.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Graubünden

<http://www.phgr.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary Education

Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Schaffhausen

<http://www.phsh.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary Education

Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule St. Gallen

<http://www.phsg.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and/or Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Thurgau, Kreuzlingen

<http://www.phtg.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary Education

Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Wallis

<http://www.hepvs.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

⁵⁰ <http://www.berufsberatung.ch/dyn/1199.aspx?data=education&id=7720>
accessed 20 April 2014.

Pädagogische Hochschule Luzern

<http://www.phlu.ch>

Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education

Bachelor of Arts Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Schwyz

<http://www.phsz.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Zug

<http://www.zg.ch/behoerden/direktion-fur-bildung-und-kultur/phzg>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Pädagogische Hochschule Zürich

<http://www.phzh.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education

Bachelor of Arts Pre-Primary and Primary Education

**Haute Ecole Pédagogique Berne-Jura-Neuchâtel, Bienne, Porrentruy,
La Chaux-de-Fonds**

<http://www.hep-bejune.ch/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Scuola universitaria professionale (SUPSI)

<http://www.supsi.ch/dfa/>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary Education

Bachelor of Arts in Primary Education

Haute Ecole Pédagogique du Canton de Vaud, Lausanne

<http://www.hepl.ch/cms/accueil.html>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

Université de Genève/IUFE

<http://www.unige.ch/iufe/institut.html>

Bachelor of Arts in Pre-Primary and Primary Education

