MultiLLDs

Co-funded by the European Union

# Language and/or Learning Difficulties in Bilingual and Multilingual Students: A Practical Guide for Educators

https://www.multillds.eu/

ARISTOTLE UNIVERSITY OF THESSALONIKI

Cyprus University of Technology

UNIVERSITÉ DE STRASBOURG

2026

Erasmus+ Programme: Detection of Language and/or Literacy Disorders in Multilingual Children and Good Educational Practices
Key Action: Partnerships for Cooperation and Exchange of Practices
Action Type: Small-scale Partnerships in School Education
Project Reference: 2023-2-EL01-KA210-SCH-000178510

The manual was prepared by:
Dr. Ioanna Talli (Aristotle University of Thessaloniki)
Dr. Anna Mouti (Aristotle University of Thessaloniki)
Prof. Stavroula Stavrakaki (Aristotle University of Thessaloniki)
Dr. Eleni Theodorou (Cyprus University of Technology)
Dr. Theodora Papastefanou (Cyprus University of Technology)
Dr. Eva Commissaire (University of Strasbourg)

Funded by the European Union. Views and opinions expressed are however those of the author(s) only and do not necessarily reflect those of the European Union or the State Scholarships Foundation (IKY). Neither the European Union nor the granting authority can be held responsible for them

Table of
# Contents

MultiLLDs

# CHAPTER 1

# BILINGUALISM / MULTILINGUALISM

2026

# Introduction

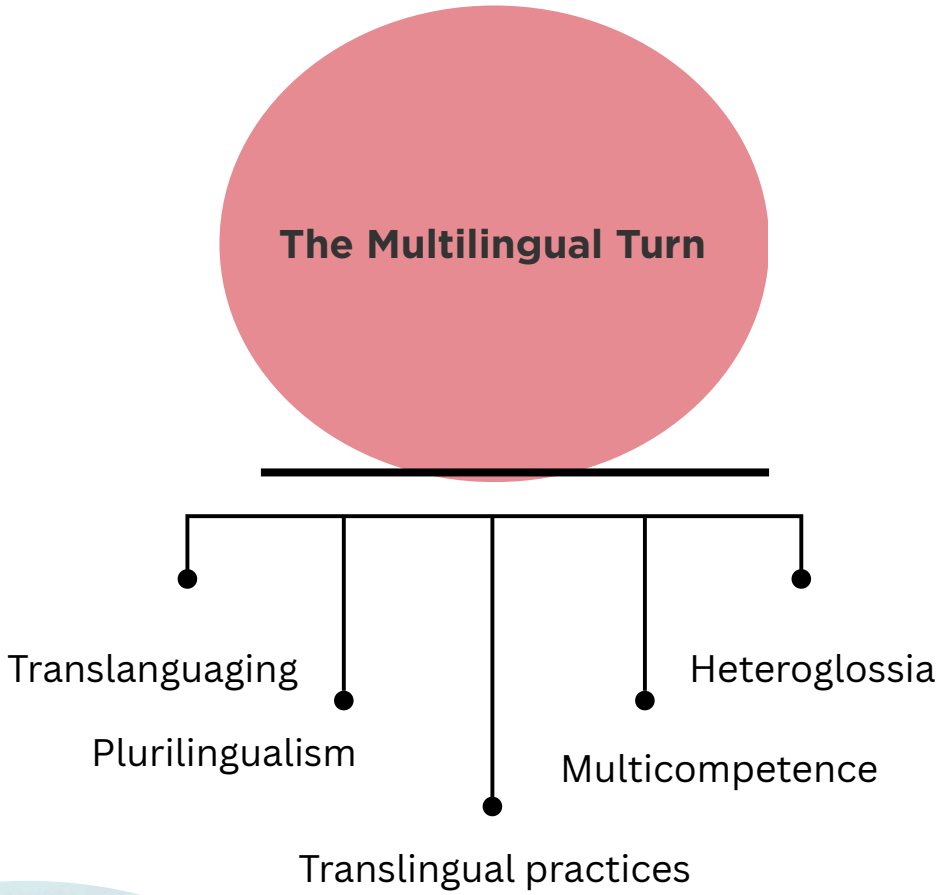
This chapter provides a conceptual and contextual foundation for understanding bilingualism, multilingualism, and plurilingualism, with particular attention to their relevance for contemporary European education. While bilingualism has traditionally been understood as the knowledge and use of two distinct languages, more recent perspectives emphasize the dynamic, flexible, and integrated nature of individuals' linguistic repertoires. Within this framework, plurilingualism—as conceptualized by the Council of Europe—refers to an individual's evolving plurilingual repertoire to mobilize linguistic and semiotic resources across languages and varieties according to communicative needs.

Europe constitutes a particularly rich context for examining multilingualism. The coexistence of 24 official EU languages, over 60 recognized regional or minority languages, and a wide range of migrant and refugee languages creates an exceptionally complex linguistic landscape. These realities are reflected in educational systems, where linguistically heterogeneous classrooms have become increasingly common. Migration flows, refugee movements, and the EU's "mother tongue plus two" policy have further reinforced multilingualism as a defining feature of European schooling.

The chapter also addresses teachers' beliefs and practices related to multilingualism. These beliefs are critical, as they directly shape pedagogical decisions, classroom interaction, assessment practices, and students' opportunities to draw on their full linguistic repertoires.

## The Multilingual Turn and Related Frameworks

The multilingual turn reflects a shift in Applied Linguistics from viewing languages as separate systems to understanding them as dynamic, integrated, and socially situated practices. This shift led to the development of several theoretical constructs aimed at capturing the fluid and situated nature of multilingual language use, including:




Among these, **translanguaging** has had a particularly strong influence on multilingual education research, alongside the concept of **plurilingualism**. While both approaches emphasize holistic language use, they differ in epistemological orientation.

Plurilingualism, rooted in Council of Europe policy, focuses on competence development and pedagogical mediation. Translanguaging (as theorized mainly by Ofelia García and Li Wei), explicitly challenges language hierarchies and the dominance of standardized, named languages.

CEFR-CV (2020:31) referring to the translanguaging concept in the Plurilingualism context mentions that a host of similar expressions (to translanguaging) now exist, but all are encompassed in the term plurilingualism.

# Bilingualism and Multilingualism: Conceptual Developments

## From Separate Languages to Integrated Repertoires

Before the early 2000s, research on bilingualism was dominated by distinctions such as simultaneous versus sequential bilingualism, balanced versus unbalanced bilingualism, and diglossia. Languages were largely treated as autonomous systems within the mind, and bilingual speakers were often evaluated against an implicit monolingual "native speaker" norm. This framework prioritized issues of interference, separation, and language dominance.

From the late 20th century onward, scholarly attention expanded to multilingualism, acknowledging the presence of multiple languages within individuals and societies. However, languages were still often conceptualized as coexisting but distinct entities. A major conceptual shift was consolidated in 2001 with the publication of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which introduced the notion of plurilingual competence. This marked a move away from viewing languages as "sealed boxes" and toward understanding language knowledge as an integrated and dynamic repertoire.

## Defining Bilingualism and Multilingualism

Bilingualism is commonly defined as the knowledge and use of two languages, while multilingualism refers to competence in three or more languages. However, definitions vary considerably across disciplines. Broad definitions recognize bilingualism as the ability to communicate meaningfully in more than one language, whereas narrow definitions restrict the term to near-native proficiency.

A key distinction is made between:

- Individual multilingualism, referring to the linguistic repertoire of a single speaker
- Societal multilingualism, referring to the coexistence of multiple languages within a community or nation

Another important distinction concerns the timing of language acquisition:

- Simultaneous bilingualism, involving exposure to two languages from birth
- Sequential bilingualism, involving the acquisition of an additional language after the first language is established

Research consistently shows that multilingual competence is typically uneven across languages and domains of use. Speakers may use different languages at home, school, or work, resulting in differentiated proficiency profiles rather than balanced competence.

# Multilingualism in Europe

Europe's linguistic diversity includes:

- 24 official EU languages
- Approximately 60 regional or minority languages
- Hundreds of migrant and refugee languages linked to historical and recent migration flows

These languages coexist within complex sociolinguistic ecologies shaped by mobility, policy, and identity. Regional and minority languages are protected under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (1992), while migrant and refugee languages continue to reshape urban and educational spaces across Europe.

Survey data indicate that multilingualism is widespread among European citizens. A majority report the ability to communicate in at least one additional language, and linguistic diversity is widely perceived as a societal asset. Nevertheless, significant regional inequalities persist, particularly in access to high-quality language education.

# Multilingual Classrooms and the Language of Schooling

In many European education systems, the language of schooling functions as a **second language (L2)** for a substantial proportion of learners, particularly those from migrant and refugee backgrounds. Educational integration involves not only physical access to schooling but also meaningful participation, academic achievement, and social inclusion.

A CRITICAL DISTINCTION IN THIS CONTEXT

**BASIC INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS (BICS)**

**COGNITIVE ACADEMIC LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY (CALP)**

While conversational proficiency may develop relatively quickly, academic language takes considerably longer to acquire. Failure to recognize this distinction often leads to inappropriate assessment, placement, and expectations.

In several European contexts, including Greece, student placement is frequently based on age rather than linguistic proficiency or prior schooling. The absence of systematic assessment practices contributes to educational disadvantage and underachievement among multilingual learners.

# Teachers' Beliefs and Multilingual Education

Teachers' beliefs play a central role in shaping how multilingualism is enacted in classrooms. These beliefs are influenced by national language policies, institutional traditions, professional training, and personal experiences.

Research across Europe reveals considerable variation:

In contexts where multilingualism is institutionally supported, teachers are more likely to view linguistic diversity as a resource.

In systems with strong monolingual traditions, multilingualism is more often framed as a challenge or deficit.

Studies in Greece illustrate this tension clearly. While more recent research points to growing acceptance of bilingualism, earlier studies documented widespread skepticism and the persistence of monolingual ideologies. Teachers with training in bilingual education and intercultural pedagogy are consistently more likely to adopt inclusive practices, such astranslanguaging and the pedagogical use of students' home languages.

This linguistic diversity and positive trends towards multilingualism, but also the recognition of cultural and societal benefits of plurilingualism, have been identified and highlighted in various survey reports (e.g. Eurobarometer Survey 2024 (https://europa.eu/eurobarometer/surveys/detail/2979?etrans=es) and PEP report (Cortes et al (2025).

**Overall, teachers' beliefs are not static but shaped by policy frameworks, professional development opportunities, and everyday classroom realities.**

# Conclusion

This chapter has traced the evolution of key concepts from traditional views of bilingualism to contemporary understandings of multilingual and plurilingual competence. It has situated these developments within the European sociolinguistic and educational context and highlighted the central role of teachers in mediating multilingualism in practice.

Although linguistic diversity is widely valued at the policy level, educational systems often continue to operate within monolingual frameworks. Bridging this gap requires sustained attention to teacher education, assessment practices, and pedagogical approaches that recognize learners' full linguistic repertoires as valuable resources for learning.

MultiLLDs

# CHAPTER 2

# LANGUAGE DISORDERS

Understanding, Identifying, and Supporting Children with Language Difficulties

2026

# Introduction

Language disorders affect how children understand, use and communicate through language. These difficulties can influence learning, social relationships, and emotional well-being.
In children who grow up with two or more languages, identifying language disorders can be more complex. Differences in language exposure, interaction between languages, and cultural factors must all be considered carefully.

This chapter focuses on children aged 4–9 years and discusses:

- Primary language disorders, especially Developmental Language Disorder (DLD)
- Secondary language disorders, which occur alongside other conditions
- Key issues related to bilingual and multilingual development

The aim is to support educators, clinicians, and caregivers in recognizing language disorders early and accurately, particularly in multilingual children.

# Primary Language Disorders

## Developmental Language Disorder (DLD)

Developmental Language Disorder (DLD) is a neurodevelopmental condition in which children have ongoing difficulties learning and using language. These difficulties are not caused by hearing loss, intellectual disability, neurological damage, or other medical conditions.

**Children with DLD may struggle with:**

- Understanding language
- Expressing ideas clearly
- Learning new words
- Using correct grammar
- Telling clear and well-organized stories

**DLD can affect:**

- Vocabulary (knowing and using words)
- Grammar (sentence structure and verb endings)
- Meaning (understanding word meanings)
- Social use of language (using language appropriately in conversations)

**Common signs include:**

- Late first words or sentences
- Smaller vocabulary than peers
- Short or grammatically incorrect sentences
- Difficulty using verb tenses (e.g., past tense)
- Trouble finding the right word
- Vague explanations or definitions
- Difficulty following long or multi-step instructions

**At school age, children with DLD may:**

- Have trouble learning new vocabulary
- Struggle with reading and writing
- Tell stories that are disorganized or missing key details
- Experience social difficulties due to communication challenges

## Important Note

Some children appear to understand well because they rely on context clues, but deeper comprehension problems are often present.

## Clinical Characteristics of DLD

Multilingual children with DLD show differences in all **language skills** and **underlying cognitive abilities.**

# LANAGUAGE SYMPTOMS

**Vocabulary and Meaning**

- Smaller vocabulary
- Difficulty learning new words
- Shallow word knowledge

**Grammar and Sentence Structure**

- Short, simple sentences
- Frequent grammatical errors
- Difficulty understanding complex sentences

**Narratives and Storytelling**

- Stories lack structure or detail
- Events may be out of order
- Important story elements may be missing

**Phonology and Speech Sounds**

- Difficulty with rhyming and sound awareness
- Errors in long or complex words
- Challenges that can affect reading development

**Pragmatics (Social Language)**

- Difficulty starting or maintaining conversations
- Trouble staying on topic
- Challenges understanding jokes, idioms, or indirect meanings

# COGNITIVE SYMPTOMS

Many children with DLD also experience challenges with:

**Verbal Memory**

- Difficulty remembering sounds, words, or sentences
- Trouble repeating unfamiliar words or long sentences

**Processing Speed**

- Slower response times
- Need more time to process spoken language

**Executive Functions**

- Weak verbal working memory
- Difficulty planning and organizing language
- Reduced cognitive flexibility

**Attention**

- Difficulty sustaining attention
- Reduced focus on language input

**Assessment Tip**

These cognitive skills play an important role in language learning and should be considered during assessment.

## OTHER DIAGNOSTIC CLASSIFICATIONS

### DIAGNOSTIC STATISTICAL MANUAL-5 (DSM-5, APA)

LANGUAGE DISORDER UNDER COMMUNICATION DISORDERS

### INTERNATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF DISEASES-11 (ICD-11, WHO)

DEVELOPMENTAL LANGUAGE DISORDER

## How Common Is DLD?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **7-10% of children aged 4-9 years** | **4-7% in preschool children** | **Slightly higher in boys (girls also affected)** |

Many children with DLD are **not diagnosed**, especially when difficulties are mild or mistaken for:

1. Shyness
2. Lack of motivation
3. Effects of bilingualism

Research shows that when appropriate multilingual assessments are used, DLD occurs at similar rates in monolingual and multilingual children.

## Why Does DLD Occur?

**DLD does not have a single cause. It results from a combination of factors:**

### Environmental Factors

- Do not cause DLD
- Rich environments help outcomes
- Social disadvantage is not a cause

### Genetic Factors

- DLD often runs in families
- Several genes identified
- No single gene causes DLD

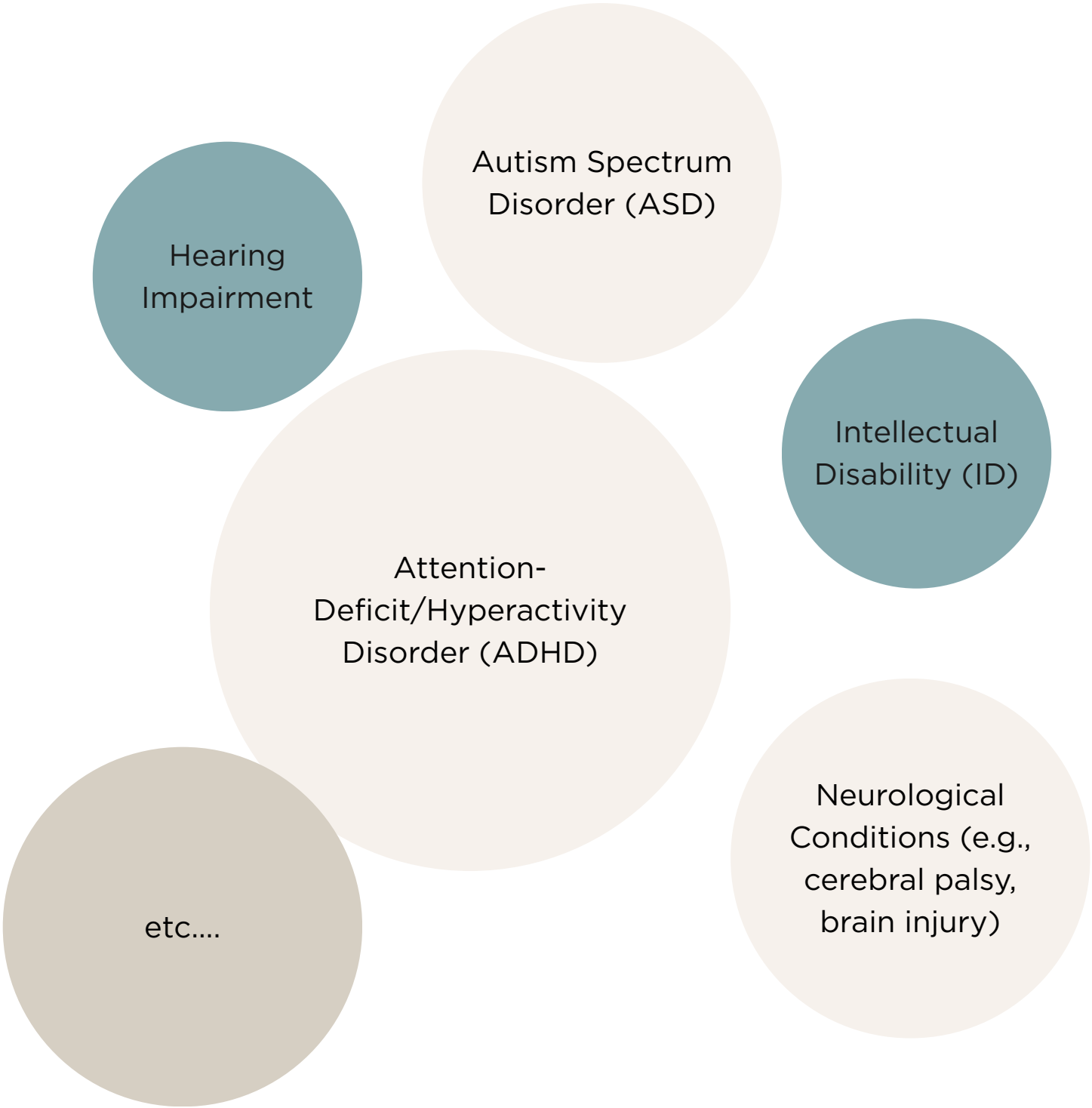
### Brain Development

- Differences in language areas
- Affects how language is learned
- Affects how language is processed

Overall, DLD is best understood as **a complex and varied condition**, with children showing different strengths and difficulties.

# Language disorders associated with other biomedical conditions

Language disorders associated with other biomedical conditions occur when language difficulties are part of a **biomedical condition.**



## Causes

Language disorders associated with other biomedical conditions have causes associated with the underlying condition, including:

- Genetic differences
- Differences in brain development
- Prenatal or perinatal factors
- Environmental influences

## LANGUAGE SYMPTOMS

### Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD)

- Wide range of language abilities
- Difficulty with social communication
- Reduced eye contact and gestures
- Repetitive behaviors
- Sensory sensitivities

### Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

- Difficulty following conversations
- Interruptions and disorganized speech
- Problems with attention and memory
- Pragmatic language difficulties

### Intellectual Disability

- Language delays proportional to cognitive level
- Limited vocabulary and sentence complexity
- Difficulties with storytelling and social language
- Some children rely on alternative communication methods

**In multilingual children, all characteristics must be interpreted in relation to language exposure and proficiency.**


**How common are language disorders associated with other biomedical conditions?**

| ASD | ADHD | Intellectual Disability |
|---|---|---|
| **1 in 36 children** may have language difficulties | **5–7% of children** up to half of them have language challenges | **~1% of the population** language difficulties are common |

Multilingual children are often underrepresented in research, highlighting the need for inclusive assessment practices.

# MULTILINGUAL CONSIDERATIONS

**Language differences are not the same as language disorders.**

Key points to consider:

**Normal Multilingual Development**

- Influence between languages is typical
- Grammatical patterns may transfer across languages
- Uneven language skills are common

**Important Assessment Factors**

- Amount and quality of exposure to each language
- Age of acquisition
- Language use at home, school, and in the community
- Cultural beliefs about communication and disability

## BEST PRACTICES IN ASSESSMENT

- Use dynamic assessment to see how a child learns
- Gather information from parents and teachers
- Use tools suitable for multilingual children
- Include tasks less influenced by language knowledge (e.g., nonword repetition)

⚠️ Professionals should avoid assuming that:

- Language difficulties are “just because of bilingualism”
- Or that bilingualism explains all difficulties

Collaboration with interpreters and bilingual specialists improves accuracy.

# Conclusion

Language disorders in multilingual children require **careful, informed, and culturally sensitive assessment.**

- Developmental Language Disorder (DLD) is common but often overlooked
- Secondary language disorders add complexity due to overlapping symptoms
- Multilingualism itself does not cause language disorders

**Early identification and intervention—tailored to the child's language background and cultural context—is essential.**

**By increasing awareness among educators, clinicians, and families, children with language disorders can receive timely support that enhances their academic success, social participation, and emotional well-being.**

MultiLLDs

# CHAPTER 3
# LITERACY DISORDERS

2026

# Introduction

Literacy disorders constitute a major group of neurodevelopmental conditions that affect children's ability to acquire reading, spelling, and written expression skills. Literacy development relies on the integration of language, cognitive, perceptual, and motor processes, many of which begin to develop during the preschool years. When these foundational systems are disrupted, children may experience persistent difficulties that interfere with academic achievement and broader social participation.

In bilingual and multilingual children, the identification of literacy disorders is particularly complex. Differences in language exposure, instructional language, and sociocultural expectations may obscure early signs of disorder or lead to misinterpretation of typical multilingual development as impairment. This chapter focuses on literacy disorders in children aged approximately 6–9 years, with particular attention to multilingual learners. It introduces key terminology and diagnostic frameworks, describes early developmental indicators, distinguishes between primary and secondary literacy disorders, and highlights principles for assessment and support in linguistically diverse populations.

# Definitions and Diagnostic Frameworks

## Terminology

The term literacy disorder is commonly used in educational and clinical contexts as a descriptive label referring to persistent difficulties in reading, spelling, and written expression. However, it is not a formal diagnostic category in major classification systems. Its use is therefore flexible but non-specific.

In contrast, formal diagnoses of literacy-related difficulties are defined within international diagnostic manuals. In the **DSM-5** (APA, 2013), these difficulties fall under **Specific Learning Disorder (SLD)**, a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by persistent difficulties in acquiring and using academic skills, despite adequate instruction and opportunity. In the **ICD-11** (WHO, 2019), a highly similar construct is described under **Developmental Learning Disorder**.

**DSM-5 (APA, 2013)**

**ICD-11 (WHO, 2019)**

Both diagnostic manuals emphasise that:

- Difficulties must be persistent and developmentally inappropriate,
- They must cause significant functional impairment,
- They cannot be better explained by intellectual disability, uncorrected sensory deficits, neurological conditions, or lack of educational access.

Subtypes in both DSM-5 and ICD-11 distinguish between impairments in reading, written expression, and mathematics.

## Developmental Dyslexia

**Developmental dyslexia** refers to a specific pattern of literacy difficulty characterised by persistent problems with accurate and/or fluent word reading and spelling. These difficulties are typically associated with deficits in phonological processing, including phonological awareness, phonological short-term memory, and efficient access to phonological representations.

Developmental dyslexia is now widely conceptualised as a dimensional disorder, varying in severity and manifestation across individuals and languages. Importantly, it is not defined by low intelligence and often occurs in children with average or above-average cognitive abilities.

The expression of developmental dyslexia may differ depending on the orthographic characteristics of the language being learned, an issue of particular relevance for multilingual children.

**Morphological and Grammatical Awareness**

Limited sensitivity to word structure and grammatical markers may hinder vocabulary growth and later reading comprehension, particularly in languages with rich morphology.

**Letter Knowledge and Print Awareness**

Delayed acquisition of letter–sound correspondences and limited understanding of print conventions are early warning signs, especially when combined with low engagement with books.

**Rapid Automatized Naming**

Slow retrieval of familiar verbal labels reflects reduced efficiency in accessing phonological representations and is closely linked to later reading fluency difficulties.

**Verbal Working Memory**

Weaknesses in retaining and manipulating verbal information may affect word learning, decoding, and comprehension.

## Disorder of Written Expression

This disorder involves persistent difficulties with spelling, grammar, punctuation, and the organisation of written text. Children may struggle to translate ideas into written form, produce fragmented or poorly structured texts, and show limited revision skills. These difficulties often reflect a combination of transcription deficits and executive functioning challenges.

## Comorbidity and Heterogeneity

Literacy disorders frequently co-occur with developmental language disorder, ADHD, or both. Profiles vary widely, and many children show mixed patterns of decoding, fluency, comprehension and written expression difficulties. Conceptualising literacy disorders along a continuum supports more individualised assessment and intervention.

# Early Indicators of Literacy Disorders

Literacy development begins well before formal schooling, building on early language, memory, and symbolic skills. Children who later develop literacy disorders often show identifiable vulnerabilities during the preschool years. Early identification is especially important, as intervention during this period is associated with more favourable outcomes.

Research has consistently identified a cluster of early indicators that place children at increased risk for later reading and writing difficulties. These indicators do not constitute a diagnosis on their own but signal the need for monitoring and targeted support.

**Phonological Awareness**

Difficulties in recognising and manipulating speech sounds—such as rhyming, blending, or segmenting—are among the strongest early predictors of dyslexia.

**Narrative Skills**

Difficulties organising and retelling stories coherently are associated with later challenges in reading comprehension and written expression.
In multilingual children, these indicators must be interpreted across languages and in relation to language exposure patterns, as uneven skill development may reflect normal bilingual trajectories rather than disorder.

# Primary Literacy Disorders

Primary literacy disorders arise from intrinsic neurodevelopmental differences and are not secondary to other medical, cognitive, or sensory conditions.

## Developmental Dyslexia

Children with dyslexia typically show slow, effortful reading, difficulties decoding unfamiliar words, and persistent spelling problems. Reading may remain inaccurate or non-automatic despite appropriate instruction. While decoding is the core difficulty, secondary consequences may include reduced reading comprehension and avoidance of literacy tasks.

Cognitive profiles often reveal weaknesses in phonological processing, processing speed, and verbal working memory, alongside relative strengths in non-verbal reasoning or creative problem solving.

# Secondary Literacy Disorders

Secondary literacy disorders occur when reading and writing difficulties arise as part of a broader condition. In these cases, literacy difficulties reflect underlying cognitive, linguistic, or neurological constraints.

**Common associated conditions include:**

**Intellectual Disability,** where literacy skills are typically commensurate with overall cognitive functioning

**Autism Spectrum Disorder,** where decoding may be intact or advanced but comprehension and written organisation are often impaired

**Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder,** where difficulties with attention,organisation, and working memory interfere with literacy performance

**Hearing impairment** and **neurological conditions,** which may disrupt access to linguistic input or processing efficiency.

# Multilingual Considerations

Multilingualism does not cause literacy disorders, but it significantly shapes how difficulties emerge and are observed. Literacy skills may develop unevenly across languages, and strengths in one language may mask vulnerabilities in another.

Assessment must consider:

- Language of instruction and literacy exposure,
- Cross-linguistic transfer of skills such as phonological awareness,
- Sociocultural beliefs about language and learning,
- Potential bias in monolingual assessment tools.

Failure to account for these factors can lead to both **over-** and **under-identification** of literacy disorders in multilingual children.

# Assessment and Support Principles

Early and accurate identification requires a combination of:

- Developmentally informed observation,
- Multiple sources of information (educators, caregivers, work samples),
- Assessment approaches that focus on learning processes and response to support.

Intervention should be explicit, systematic, and responsive to the child's linguistic profile.
Effective support often integrates phonological instruction, reading fluency practice, writing scaffolds, and family–school collaboration. For multilingual children, supporting literacy in both the home language and the language of schooling can enhance outcomes.

# Conclusion

Literacy disorders represent a heterogeneous group of neurodevelopmental conditions with significant implications for academic and social development. In multilingual children, identification requires particular care to distinguish disorder from difference. Aligning diagnostic frameworks with developmental theory, linguistic diversity and functional impact is essential.

Raising awareness of early indicators and adopting culturally and linguistically responsive practices enables timely intervention and more equitable access to support. As with language disorders, early, well-targeted intervention remains the most effective pathway to improving long-term literacy outcomes.

MultiLLDs

# CHAPTER 4

# DETECTION OF LANGUAGE AND LITERACY DISORDERS IN BI- AND MULTILINGUAL CHILDREN

2026

# Introduction

The detection of language and literacy disorders in bi- and multilingual children is a complex but essential process. Language development in these children unfolds across multiple linguistic systems and social contexts and is shaped by factors such as age of exposure, quantity and quality of input, patterns of use, and sociocultural environment. These variables can obscure early signs of disorder or create profiles that resemble impairment despite typical development.

A central challenge lies in distinguishing language difference—the expected outcome of multilingual exposure—from language disorder, which reflects a persistent neurodevelopmental difficulty affecting language learning across contexts. Failure to make this distinction accurately may lead to misdiagnosis, either through over-identification of typically developing multilingual children or under-identification of children with genuine language and literacy disorders.

This chapter presents principles and approaches for the early detection of language and literacy disorders in bi- and multilingual children. It reviews screening and assessment practices, discusses challenges inherent in multilingual assessment, and outlines best practices for combining multiple sources of information. Particular attention is given to Developmental Language Disorder (DLD) and its close relationship with literacy development.

# Why Screening Procedures Matter?

Screening and assessment serve different but complementary purposes. Screening is a brief procedure designed to identify children who may be at risk and who require further evaluation. Assessment, in contrast, is a comprehensive process that aims to establish a diagnostic profile and guide intervention planning.

Early screening is especially important because language and literacy difficulties are among the most prevalent developmental challenges in early childhood and are associated with long-term academic, emotional, and social consequences if left unaddressed. In multilingual children, screening that focuses only on surface language performance may be misleading.Instead, screening procedures must consider both oral language abilities and emergent literacy skills, as weaknesses in phonological awareness, vocabulary, and morphosyntax often precede later reading and writing difficulties.

Integrated screening approaches that combine information from multiple domains help professionals:

- Identify children at genuine risk
- Avoid confusing bilingual development with disorder
- Initiate timely support before academic gaps widen

**Early identification of DLD and related literacy difficulties allows for intervention during periods of heightened neuroplasticity, reducing the likelihood of persistent academic and psychosocial difficulties.**

# Language Difference vs. Language Disorder

A fundamental principle in multilingual assessment is the distinction between language difference and language disorder.

A language **disorder** involves a significant and persistent impairment in language ability that:

- Affects performance across languages and contexts,
- Is not attributable to limited exposure, cultural norms, or second language learning,
- Remains stable over time without intervention.

In contrast, a language **difference** reflects variations in language use and proficiency that arise naturally from multilingual exposure. Such differences are expected, dynamic and responsive to increased input and educational support.
Misinterpreting difference as disorder may lead to unnecessary labeling and inappropriate intervention, while failing to identify true disorders results in missed opportunities for support.

This distinction is particularly critical when literacy difficulties are present, as reading and writing challenges in multilingual children are often attributed to second language learning rather than underlying phonological or language-processing weaknesses.

# Challenges in Identifying Language and Literacy Disorders in Multilingual Children

## Assessment Limitations

Most standardized language and literacy assessments are developed and normed on monolingual populations. When applied to multilingual children without adaptation, these tools may lead to both overdiagnosis and underdiagnosis. Under-identification is particularly common and may delay intervention during critical developmental periods.

The recommended “gold standard” for assessment is evaluation in **all languages used** by the child. However, this is often difficult due to time constraints, lack of tools, or limited clinician proficiency in the child’s home language.

## Developmental Variability

Multilingual children often develop vocabulary, grammar, and literacy skills at different rates across their languages. This uneven development complicates the interpretation of assessment results, especially when monolingual developmental benchmarks are applied uncritically.

Literacy difficulties such as developmental dyslexia present additional challenges. Early indicators—such as phonological awareness deficits or slow naming speed—may be masked by limited proficiency in the language of instruction, leading to delayed or missed identification.

## Linguistic and Cultural Mismatch

There is frequently a mismatch between the languages spoken by professionals and those spoken by children and families. While interpreters and bilingual clinicians can mitigate this gap, culturally and linguistically appropriate assessment tools remain scarce. This limitation is particularly evident in literacy assessment, where orthographic differences and varied literacy experiences further complicate interpretation.

# Assessment Approaches in Multilingual Contexts

No single assessment tool can adequately capture the linguistic and literacy profile of a multilingual child. Best practice involves combining direct and indirect measures, focusing on both language knowledge and language processing.

### Indirect Measures: Background Information and Questionnaires

Parent and teacher questionnaires provide essential contextual information regarding language exposure, developmental milestones, and functional communication across languages. These tools are particularly valuable for identifying atypical developmental trajectories.

### Language Processing Tasks

Tasks such as nonword repetition and sentence repetition assess underlying processing abilities rather than accumulated language knowledge. These measures are less sensitive to cultural bias and have shown promise in identifying language disorders in multilingual populations.

## Narrative Assessment

Narrative tasks assess both microstructural (e.g., vocabulary, syntax) and macrostructural (e.g., story organization) aspects of language. Macrostructural skills tend to transfer across languages, making them especially useful for multilingual assessment.

## Dynamic and Multidimensional Assessment

Dynamic assessment approaches evaluate a child's learning potential by examining responsiveness to instruction. These methods are particularly effective in distinguishing language disorder from limited exposure and are increasingly used in bilingual contexts.

## Literacy Precursors and Early Literacy Measures

Assessment of phonological awareness, letter knowledge, rapid naming, and early decoding provides critical information about literacy risk. These skills often transfer across languages and can be evaluated using adapted tools with careful interpretation.

# Contextual Factors Shaping Assessment Outcomes

Assessment results cannot be interpreted in isolation from a child's broader context. Factors that must be considered include:

- Age of onset and continuity of exposure
- Quantity and quality of language exposure
- Family literacy practices
- Sociocultural and socioeconomic background
- Daily language use across home and school

Children with limited exposure
to the language of assessment
may show weaker performance
that reflects experience
rather than disorder.
Understanding these contextual
variables ensures that assessment
leads to equitable and
meaningful decisions.

# Conclusion

Detecting language and literacy disorders in bi- and multilingual children requires a careful balance between scientific rigor and contextual sensitivity. Distinguishing disorder from difference is essential to prevent both misdiagnosis and delayed support.

Effective detection relies on:

- Early and integrated screening,
- Use of multiple assessment approaches,
- Consideration of all languages and contexts,
- Awareness of sociocultural influences on development.

When assessment practices are linguistically and culturally responsive, they provide a solid foundation for targeted intervention and support, enabling multilingual children to reach their full communicative and academic potential.

MultiLLDs

# CHAPTER 5

## GOOD EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES AND STRATEGIES FOR BILINGUAL AND MULTILINGUAL CHILDREN

2026

# Introduction

Bilingual and multilingual children form a heterogeneous group whose language and literacy development reflects the interaction of linguistic exposure, cognitive abilities, sociocultural background, and educational experience. Supporting multilingual learners with language and literacy disorders (LLDs), including Developmental Language Disorder (DLD) and Specific Learning Disorders (SLD), requires educational practices that are evidence-based, culturally responsive, and sensitive to cross-linguistic development.

An inclusive definition of multilingualism is essential. Children regularly exposed to more than one language should be considered multilingual, regardless of proficiency levels. Labels based solely on majority-language proficiency risk overlooking children whose developmental profiles differ from monolingual norms and may limit access to appropriate support. Recognising multilingualism as a continuum allows educators to build on children's full linguistic repertoires.

Family involvement is central to effective practice. Maintaining and strengthening the home language (L1) supports overall language development and does not hinder acquisition of the school language (L2). In children with DLD, difficulties are observed across all languages, although surface manifestations may differ depending on linguistic structure. Educational strategies should therefore value and actively incorporate children's home languages whenever possible.

# Educational Interventions for Multilingual Children with Developmental Language Disorder (DLD)

Educational interventions for multilingual children with DLD should be explicit, systematic, and meaningful, while allowing flexibility in language use. Research supports both single-language and dual-language approaches, with evidence that skills learned in one language can transfer to the other.

## School-Based Interventions

School-based interventions are most effective when language goals are integrated into everyday classroom activities rather than treated as isolated skills.

**Practical strategies include:**

- **Explicit vocabulary instruction**: introduce new words through child-friendly definitions, visuals, gestures, and repeated exposure across lessons. Revisit words in different contexts (stories, discussions, written tasks).
- **Narrative-based instruction**: use structured story frameworks (setting, characters, problem, resolution) during shared reading and storytelling. Encourage retelling using visual supports or sequencing cards.
- **Contextualised grammar support**: highlight grammatical forms within meaningful activities (e.g., emphasizing verb tense during story retell rather than through drills).
- **Repetition with variation**: repeat language targets across the week using slightly different activities to support consolidation without rote learning.

## Parent-Based Interventions

Parent-based approaches extend language learning into the home and are particularly valuable for supporting L1 development.

**Effective practices include:**

- **Shared book reading:** encourage dialogic reading by asking open-ended questions, expanding children's responses, and relating story events to personal experiences.
- **Responsive interaction strategies**: model turn-taking, recasting incorrect utterances, and providing gentle expansions (e.g., child: "dog run" → adult: "Yes, the dog is running fast").
- **Daily routines as language opportunities**: embed language targets into everyday activities such as cooking, shopping, or bedtime routines.

**Cultural adaptation**: tailor strategies to align with family interaction styles, values, and routines to ensure sustained engagement.

## Clinical and Small-Group Interventions

Clinical or small-group interventions allow for focused work on specific language weaknesses.

**Examples include:**

- **Phonological therapy** to strengthen sound awareness and production.
- **Play-based language intervention** incorporating role-play, storytelling, and problem-solving activities.
- **Combined models**, where clinicians coordinate targets with teachers and parents to ensure consistency across contexts.

# Educational Interventions for Multilingual Children with Specific Learning Disorders (SLD)

For multilingual children with SLD, particularly dyslexia, educational strategies should address both literacy-specific processes and broader language demands.

**Key instructional principles:**

- **Explicit teaching of sound–letter correspondences,** including phoneme segmentation, blending, and manipulation.
- **Structured reading practice** that balances accuracy and fluency, with guided oral reading and repeated exposure to familiar texts.
- **Language-rich instruction,** encouraging discussion, explanation, and verbal reasoning alongside reading and writing tasks.

**Practical classroom strategies:**

- Break complex instructions into smaller steps and check comprehension.
- Use oral rehearsal before writing to support idea generation and sentence structure.
- Provide models of well-structured written texts and jointly construct examples with students.
- Encourage collaborative activities, such as paired reading, peer discussion, and shared problem-solving.

# Linguistic and Metalinguistic Strategies

Linguistic and metalinguistic awareness plays a central role in literacy development. For multilingual learners, explicitly drawing attention to how language works supports both reading acquisition and cross-linguistic transfer.

## Practical Linguistic and Metalinguistic Activities

### Phonological Awareness

**Target skills**: rhyming, syllable segmentation, phoneme identification and manipulation

**Activities**:

- Rhyming games using songs, poems, or object sorting.
- Clapping or jumping syllables in familiar words.
- Sound matching and sound bingo games.
- Elkonin boxes for phoneme segmentation using counters or tokens.

## Morphological Awareness

**Target skills**: prefixes, suffixes, root words, inflectional endings

**Activities**:

- Word-building games using morpheme cards.
- Identifying word families during shared reading.
- Comparing word forms across languages where relevant (e.g., plural markers).
- "Word detective" activities to find meaningful word parts in texts.

## Syntax and Grammar

**Target skills**: sentence structure, word order, grammatical agreement

**Activities:**

- Sentence unscrambling with word cards.
- Creating sentences using dice or picture prompts.
- Comparing sentence structures across languages using visual sentence strips.

## Vocabulary and Semantics

**Target skills**: categorisation, word relationships, figurative language

**Activities**:

- Semantic mapping and word webs.
- “Odd one out” tasks requiring explanation.
- Explicit teaching of idioms using drawings or role-play.

## Narrative Skills

**Target skills**: sequencing, cohesion, story structure

**Activities**:

- Story retelling with picture supports.
- Story grammar maps.
- Creating bilingual or multilingual stories to integrate language and identity.

# Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies

## Memory-Supportive Teaching Practices

**Practical applications:**

- Ensure new vocabulary and concepts are clearly understood before memorisation.
- Space practice over time rather than concentrating learning into single sessions.
- Use frequent low-stakes retrieval activities (e.g., quick oral recall, quizzes without grades).
- Encourage active learning strategies such as paraphrasing, explaining, and connecting new information to prior knowledge.

## Multisensory and Sensorimotor Learning

**Practical strategies**:

- Combine spoken words with images, gestures, and physical actions.
- Use handwriting and letter manipulation (e.g., magnetic letters, tracing) alongside reading.
- Encourage drawing or acting out concepts to reinforce understanding.

## Supporting Executive Functions

**Classroom strategies include:**

- Teaching children how to plan tasks and break them into steps.
- Highlighting common errors and discussing how to avoid them.
- Using games and activities that require attention, inhibition, and flexible thinking.
- Embedding executive function practice in meaningful, emotionally engaging activities.

## Promoting Metacognition and Learning Strategies

**Practical approaches:**

- Teach children how to use specific strategies (e.g., rereading, self-questioning).
- Model thinking aloud during reading or writing tasks.
- Use metacognitive prompts such as “Does this make sense?” or “What can I do if I’m stuck?”
- Encourage reflection after tasks to discuss what strategies worked and why.

# Conclusion

Effective educational practices for bilingual and multilingual children with language and literacy difficulties combine linguistic, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies within culturally responsive frameworks. Maintaining detailed, explicit, and developmentally appropriate support—while valuing children's home languages—ensures equitable access to learning.

By integrating classroom instruction, family engagement, and targeted intervention, educators and clinicians can create supportive learning environments in which multilingual children with LLDs can develop strong language and literacy skills and achieve long-term academic success.

# Practice at a Glance 1

**Core Principles for Supporting Multilingual Children**

## Do

- View multilingualism as a **continuum**, not a deficit
- Value and support the **home language (L1)** alongside the school language
- Combine **language, literacy, and cognitive goals**
- Use multiple sources of information to guide instruction
- Collaborate with families and other professionals

## Avoid

- Relying solely on monolingual norms
- Attributing learning difficulties automatically to second language acquisition
- Separating oral language from literacy instruction

# Practice at a Glance 2

**Classroom Strategies for Multilingual Children with DLD**

### Vocabulary

- Introduce words explicitly with visuals and gestures
- Revisit target words across subjects and days
- Encourage children to use new words in speaking and writing

### Grammar

- Teach grammar in context, not in isolation
- Model correct forms and gently expand children's utterances
- Focus on high-frequency, functional structures

### Narrative Skills

- Use story maps (who, where, what happened, why)
- Practice retelling with visual supports
- Encourage personal and culturally relevant stories

# Practice at a Glance 3

**Home–School Practices That Support Language Development**

**Shared Book Reading**

- Ask open-ended questions
- Expand children's responses
- Connect stories to real-life experiences

**Everyday Language Use**

- Talk during daily routines (meals, travel, play)
- Encourage turn-taking and extended talk
- Maintain the home language

**Family Engagement**

- Adapt strategies to family routines and cultural practices
- Emphasise that supporting L1 strengthens L2 learning

# Practice at a Glance 4

**Literacy Support for Multilingual Children with SLD (e.g. Dyslexia)**

### Reading

- Teach sound–letter relationships explicitly
- Use guided and repeated oral reading
- Balance accuracy and fluency

### Writing

- Use oral rehearsal before writing
- Provide sentence starters and models
- Co-construct texts with students

### Comprehension

- Break instructions into steps
- Check understanding frequently
- Encourage discussion before and after reading

# Practice at a Glance 5

**Linguistic and Metalinguistic Activities**

**Phonological Awareness**

- Rhyming games and songs
- Syllable clapping and sound segmentation
- Sound–letter matching activities

**Morphological Awareness**

- Build words using prefixes and suffixes
- Explore word families
- Compare meaningful word parts across languages

**Syntax**

- Sentence-building and sentence-scrambling tasks
- Visual sentence strips
- Contrast sentence structures across languages

# Practice at a Glance 6

**Narrative and Discourse-Level Support**

**Story Structure**

- Teach setting, characters, problem, and resolution explicitly
- Use sequencing cards and story maps

**Cohesion**

- Model connectives (because, then, after)
- Encourage clear references to characters and events

**Multilingual Narratives**

- Allow storytelling in more than one language
- Encourage bilingual books or personal stories

# Practice at a Glance 7

## Memory and Learning Strategies That Work

### To Support Retention

- Ensure understanding before memorisation
- Use spaced practice rather than massed repetition
- Include frequent, low-stakes retrieval

### To Deepen Learning

- Encourage explanation and paraphrasing
- Connect new content to prior knowledge
- Use meaningful, emotionally engaging activities

# Practice at a Glance 8

**Multisensory and Executive Function Support**

**Multisensory Learning**

- Combine speech, images, movement, and writing
- Use hands-on materials (letters, objects, drawings)

**Executive Functions**

- Teach planning and task organisation explicitly
- Use games that require attention and flexibility
- Encourage reflection on errors and strategies

# Practice at a Glance 9

**Promoting Metacognition and Independence**

**Teach Strategies Explicitly**

- Rereading
- Self-questioning
- Checking for meaning

**Model Thinking**

- Think aloud during reading and writing
- Show how to approach difficult tasks

**Encourage Reflection**

- “What helped you?”
- “What will you try next time?”

MultiLLDs

# CHAPTER 6

# IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY MAKERS

2026

# Introduction

Educational policies for bi- and multilingual children with LLDs sit at the intersection of equity, inclusion, and educational quality. Across the European Union, schools are increasingly linguistically diverse due to migration, mobility, and globalization. More than half of European citizens report using multiple languages in daily life (Eurobarometer, 2024), creating classrooms where bilingualism is the norm rather than the exception.

Supporting bilingual learners with LLDs is therefore both a pedagogical and policy priority. Yet, many education systems remain anchored in monolingual norms for curriculum design and assessment. This reliance can obscure genuine developmental difficulties or, conversely, misattribute normal bilingual development to disorder. Effective policies must balance **recognition of bilingualism as a resource** with the need for specialized support for children with LLDs.

This chapter examines educational policies in **Greece, Cyprus**, and **France,** situates them within broader international frameworks, identifies gaps in teacher preparation and systemic coordination, and proposes recommendations to advance inclusive, linguistically responsive education.

# International Frameworks and European Policy Directions

At the global level, the **UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)** and the **UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006)** establish the right to education without discrimination and to the preservation of cultural and linguistic identity. UNESCO emphasizes **mother-tongue instruction,** especially in early years, as critical to improving learning outcomes and fostering equity (UNESCO, 2017).

“The EU supports multilingual education through policy frameworks such as the Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, while the CEFR by the Council of Europe, provides a common reference for language proficiency. The **European Commission’s Action Plan on Integration and Inclusion (2021–2027)** highlights the importance of targeted support for migrant learners. While these frameworks promote inclusion, they rarely address LLDs explicitly, creating a **policy gap** that national systems must fill with evidence-based guidance on screening, diagnosis, and intervention for bilingual learners with disorders.

# Greece

**Multilingualism in Greek Schools**

Greece has experienced significant migration from Albania, the Balkans, the Middle East, and, more recently, refugee communities from Syria and Afghanistan. Schools are now multilingual, but Greek remains the dominant language for instruction and assessment.

**Policy on Language Education**

The Greek National Curriculum acknowledges non-Greek-speaking students but frames multilingualism primarily as a transitional phase toward integration. Reception classes ("taksi ypodochis") and parallel support structures focus on Greek L2 acquisition, with limited encouragement for home language development.

**Policy on LLDs**

KEDASY centers are responsible for diagnosing and supporting students with learning difficulties. However, tools validated for bilingual learners are scarce, and teacher training often does not equip educators to distinguish between LLDs and second language acquisition challenges. Misdiagnosis and over-referral of bilingual students to special education remain common.

# Greece

**Key Challenges**

The main challenges in Greece include the lack of culturally responsive assessment tools, insufficient teacher training, underutilization of bilingual resources, and limited parental engagement. Monolingual assumptions in curriculum, assessment, and teacher preparation continue to shape student outcomes.

**Practice at a Glance – Greece**

- Develop assessment tools validated for bilingual learners.
- Train teachers to identify LLDs versus L2 learning difficulties.
- Promote the use of home languages as a learning resource.
- Systematically engage parents in the educational process.

# Cyprus

**Multilingualism in Cypriot Schools**

Cyprus hosts students from Eastern Europe, Asia, and the Middle East, alongside Greek and Turkish native speakers. The sociopolitical context creates a unique multilingual environment.

**Policy on Language Education**

Cyprus emphasizes intensive Greek language classes for foreign-language-speaking students. While these programs facilitate curriculum access, they often prioritize rapid L2 acquisition over supporting heritage languages.

**Policy on LLDs**

- Legislation aligns with EU directives, providing access to education for students with disabilities. However, diagnostic practices are often monolingual, and teacher uncertainty about bilingual assessment persists. Access to speech-language therapy and other specialized services is uneven, with urban centers better resourced than rural areas.

# Cyprus

**Key Challenges**

Assimilationist policies limit home language development, while inequitable access to services and insufficient teacher training hinder the accurate identification of LLDs. Collaboration between schools, families, and specialists is fragmented, further restricting effective intervention.

**Practice at a Glance – Cyprus**

- Strengthen equity in service distribution across regions.
- Expand teacher training in multilingual assessment and intervention.
- Recognize home languages as academic assets.
- Enhance structured collaboration between families, schools, and specialists.

# France

**Multilingualism in French Schools**

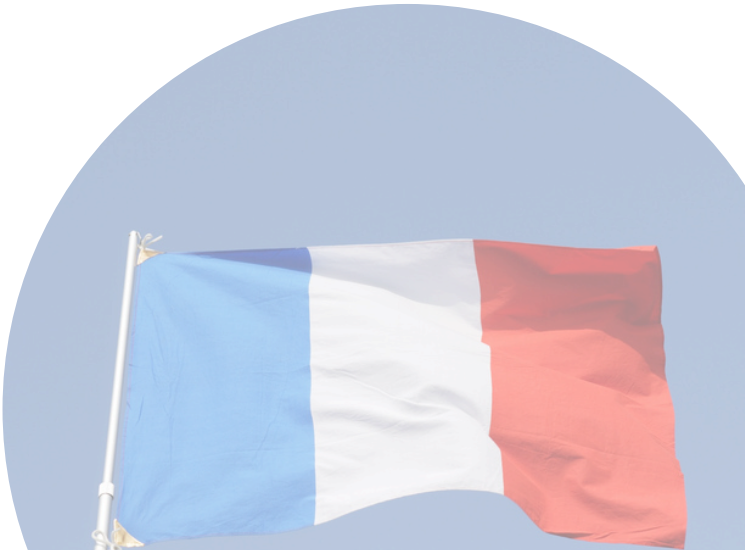
France hosts significant populations from North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, and Eastern Europe. A significant proportion of students speak a language other than French at home. The education system emphasizes linguistic unity, positioning French as both the medium of instruction and a national identity marker.

**Policy on Language Education**

UPE2A units provide intensive French instruction and gradual integration into mainstream classrooms. Heritage language initiatives exist but are peripheral, reflecting a dominant assimilationist orientation.

**Policy on LLDs**

The MDPH coordinates assessments and individualized plans for students with recognized learning disorders. Yet bilingual children often experience delays in support because assessment tools remain monolingual, and teachers struggle to distinguish LLDs from L2 learning challenges.



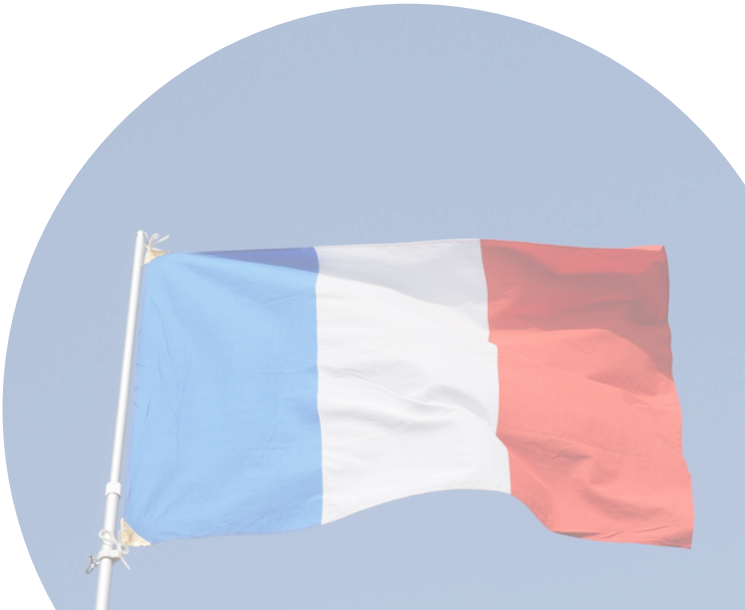
# France

**Key Challenges**

The strong monolingual focus marginalizes home languages and limits teacher capacity to address multilingual LLD needs. Tensions between assimilation policies and inclusive approaches create uncertainty for educators and families.

**Practice at a Glance – France**

- Expand teacher training to include bilingualism and LLDs.
- Integrate home language support within schools.
- Reduce delays in identifying bilingual LLDs.
- Promote inclusive, linguistically responsive teaching practices.



# Comparative Analysis

All three countries share challenges: monolingual norms dominate policy and assessment, teacher preparation for multilingual LLDs is insufficient, and there is risk of misidentification. Divergences include Greece and Cyprus's assimilationist policies versus France's historically rigid monolingual approach, and the stronger support infrastructure in France.

Lessons learned: Treating bilingualism as a deficit exacerbates inequities. Investment in teacher education bridges policy and practice gaps. Cross-national learning can enhance inclusion strategies: Greece and Cyprus could benefit from France's LLD support infrastructure, while France could learn from smaller-scale home language inclusion practices.

# Policy Recommendations

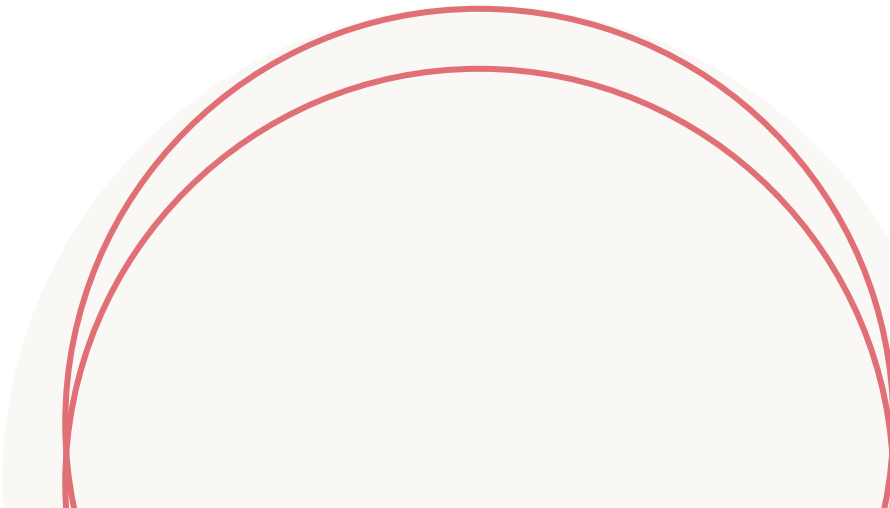
**Policies should focus on:**

- **Assessment**: Culturally and linguistically responsive tools; dynamic assessment.
- **Teacher Training:** Integrate multilingualism, LLDs, and intercultural competence into pre-service and in-service programs.
- **School-Based Support**: Multidisciplinary teams; collaboration between general and special educators; home language integration.
- **Family Engagement**: Empower parents; provide culturally sensitive guidance; collaborate with NGOs.
- **Policy Coherence**: Align multilingualism, inclusion, and disability policies; monitor outcomes.
- **Paradigm Shift**: Move from monolingual assimilation to inclusive multilingual education.

# Future Directions

Educational policy must integrate multilingualism into inclusive education frameworks.

Research should focus on longitudinal trajectories, cross-linguistic transfer, and policy impact evaluation. Teacher education should embed lifelong learning and professional communities, supported by digital platforms. Digital technologies can improve assessment and intervention, but equity must guide their use. Policymakers must prioritize equity and justice for vulnerable bilingual children with LLDs.



# Conclusion

Bilingual learners with LLDs are at risk of misidentification due to inadequate assessment and training. Policies frequently prioritize dominant language acquisition, neglecting home languages. Teacher preparation is a key weakness, and support infrastructures vary significantly.

Inclusive multilingual education requires systemic change: recognizing bilingualism as a resource, providing tailored support, engaging families, and fostering policy coherence. This approach ensures equitable, high-quality learning experiences and affirms the rights of all learners, consistent with UNESCO and EU frameworks.

**Indicative Bibliography**


- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (5th ed.). https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.books.9780890425596
- Bishop, D. V. M., Snowling, M. J., Thompson, P. A., Greenhalgh, T., & CATALISE Consortium. (2016). CATALISE: A multinational and multidisciplinary Delphi consensus study. Identifying language impairments in children. PLOS ONE, 11(7), e0158753.
- Bishop, D. V. M., Snowling, M. J., Thompson, P. A., & Greenhalgh, T. (2017). Phase 2 of CATALISE: A multinational and multidisciplinary Delphi consensus study of problems with language development: Terminology. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 58, 1068–1080.
- Bosch, J. E., Olioumtsevits, K., Santarelli, S. A. A., Faloppa, F., Foppolo, F., & Papadopoulou, D. (2025). How do teachers view multilingualism in education? Evidence from Greece, Italy and The Netherlands. Language and Education, 39(2), 337–356. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2024.2380073
- Carroll, J. M., Holden, C., Kirby, P., Thompson, P. A., Snowling, M. J., & Rack, J. (2025). Toward a consensus on dyslexia: Findings from a Delphi study. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 66(7), 1065–1076. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcpp.14123
- Castilla-Earls, A., Bedore, L., Rojas, R., Fabiano-Smith, L., Pruitt-Lord, S., Restrepo, M., & Peña, E. (2020). Beyond scores: Using converging evidence to determine speech and language services eligibility for dual language learners. American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology, 29(3), 1116–1132.
- Conteh, J., & Meier, G. (2014). The multilingual turn in language education: Opportunities and challenges. Multilingual Matters.
- Council of Europe. (2020). CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors. Council of Europe Publishing.
- García, O. (2009). Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective. Wiley-Blackwell.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gottardo, A., Chen, X., & Huo, M. R. Y. (2021). Understanding within- and cross-language relations among language, preliteracy skills, and word reading in bilingual learners: Evidence from the science of reading. Reading Research Quarterly, 56, S371–S390.
- Harvey, H., Allaway, H., & Jones, S. (2021). The effectiveness of therapies for dual language children with developmental language disorder: A systematic review of interventional studies. International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 1043–1064.
- Leonard, L. B. (2014). Children with specific language impairment. MIT Press.
- Li'el, N., Williams, C., & Kane, R. (2019). Identifying developmental language disorder in bilingual children from diverse linguistic backgrounds. International Journal of Speech-Language Pathology, 21(6), 613–622.
- Miyake, A., Friedman, N. P., Emerson, M. J., Witzki, A. H., Howerter, A., & Wager, T. D. (2000). The unity and diversity of executive functions and their contributions to complex "frontal lobe" tasks: A latent variable analysis. Cognitive Psychology, 41(1), 49–100.
- Nair, K. K., Clark, G. T., Siyambalapitiya, S., & Reuterskiöld, C. (2023). Language intervention in bilingual children with developmental language disorder: A systematic review. International Journal of Language & Communication Disorders, 58(2), 576–600.

- Norbury, C. F., Gooch, D., Wray, C., Baird, G., Charman, T., Simonoff, E., & Pickles, A. (2016). The impact of nonverbal ability on prevalence and clinical presentation of language disorder: Evidence from a population study. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 57(11), 1247–1257. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcpp.12573
- Norton, E. S., & Wolf, M. (2012). Rapid automatized naming (RAN) and reading fluency: Implications for understanding and treatment of reading disabilities. Annual Review of Psychology, 63(1), 427–452. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100431
- Paradis, J., Genesee, F., & Crago, M. B. (2011). Dual language development and disorders: A handbook on bilingualism and second language learning. Brookes Publishing.
- Schachinger-Lorentzon, U., Carlsson, E., Billstedt, E., Gillberg, C., & Miniscalco, C. (2024). Developmental language disorder: Similarities and differences between 6-year-old mono- and multilingual children. Logopedics Phoniatrics Vocology, 50, 37–47.
- Snowling, M. J., & Hulme, C. (2025). Risk factors for dyslexia: Addressing oral language deficits. Mind, Brain, and Education. https://doi.org/10.1111/mbe.70009
- Snowling, M. J., Hulme, C., & Nation, K. (2020). Defining and understanding dyslexia: Past, present and future. Oxford Review of Education, 46(4), 501–513. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054985.2020.1765756
- Talli, I., & Stavrakaki, S. (2020). Short-term memory, working memory and linguistic abilities in bilingual children with developmental language disorder. First Language, 40(4), 437–460. https://doi.org/10.1177/0142723719886954
- Ullman, M. T., Clark, G. M., Pullman, M. Y., Lovelett, J. T., Pierpont, E. I., Jiang, X., & Turkeltaub, P. E. (2024). The neuroanatomy of developmental language disorder: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Nature Human Behaviour, 8(5), 962–975. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-024-01843-6
- Ward, L., Polišenská, K., & Bannard, C. (2024). Sentence repetition as a diagnostic tool for developmental language disorder: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research, 67(7), 2191–2221. https://doi.org/10.1044/2024_jslhr-23-00490