

Chapter 9

Exploring the partnership between language minority parents and professionals in early childhood education and care. A systematic review.

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Abstract

There is a steady rise in the number of children growing up in environments where more than one language is spoken. As language education is a crucial part of children's development, an increasing body of research is being conducted into minority-language parenting and education. While the literature on the partnership between language-minority parents (hereafter LM parents) and professionals in early childhood education and care (hereafter ECEC professionals) is developing, there is a lack of systematic knowledge as to the societal and scholarly implications of these studies. Influenced by Spolsky's language policy framework, the aim of the present study is to systematically review previous studies on the relationship between LM families and ECEC professionals in relation to (dis)continuities between language beliefs, practices and management. The studies included in this review feature samples of LM families with children from birth to five years of age who attend an ECEC institution. Out of 1,434 identified studies, 26 were retained for our review. Results show that all three components of language policy (practices, management and beliefs) are equally important when it comes to partnership between parents and professionals. Implications for future research and practice are also discussed.

1. Introduction

An increasing number of children are growing up in environments where more than one language is spoken. In addition to the language that is dominant in public life, a minority language is spoken in many households of language-minority (LM) families (Extra and Yagmur, 2011; Agirdag and Vanlaar, 2018). Children who grow up in LM families often become multilingual through formal education. On the one hand, the assets that come with bilingualism such as the cognitive, social and economic benefits are widely recognised (Agirdag, 2014; Barac and Bialystok, 2011; Bialystok, 2010). On the other hand, there are indications that many LM families experience challenges and feel that their children do not have a harmonious bilingual development (De Houwer, 2015). LM parents often find

themselves in situations in which they feel insecure with regard to multilingual education, and would like guidance and support from early childhood education and care (ECEC) professionals, such as teachers and caregivers (e.g. Eisenclas and Schalley, 2013). However, these professionals do not always seem to know the most convenient ways to support LM parents in this matter (e.g. Chang, 1993; Hu et al., 2014).

The importance of parents' involvement and the partnership between parents and teachers in formal education have been subject to scrutiny for decades. These studies predominantly show that a solid partnership between parents and teachers relate positively to both cognitive and non-cognitive outcomes of pupils (e.g. Grolnick and Slowiaczek, 1994; Gonzalez-DeHass et al., 2005; Hemmerechts et al., 2017). More recently, the partnerships between childcare professionals and parents in general and minority parents in particular (Arnold et al., 2008; Fantuzzo et al., 2004) have also been examined within the context of ECEC. According to some studies, the partnership between professionals and parents is more important when children attend an ECEC institution than formal education (e.g. Chan, 2011; Guo, 2015; Kendall, s.d.; Moinolmolki et al., 2016). Furthermore, research studies also show that partnerships are more effective for children from minority families than majority families, given the different language and cultural backgrounds of their families and the professionals concerned (e.g. Antunez, 2000; Castro and Páez, 2011; Cavaluzzi, 2010). However, it is not a given that a cultural and linguistic match between parents and professionals will ensure the necessary continuity. It depends on the language policy (LP) at the macro and meso-level. When professionals within a facility have to comply with imposed rules in which only the majority language is allowed, the children will experience language discontinuity. It is therefore important to explore more closely the facilities' language policy and the family language policy.

While the number of empirical studies on LM families and their relationship with ECEC professionals is increasing, there are, to our knowledge, only three systematic literature reviews on partnerships between parents (in general) and ECEC professionals: O'Connor et al. (2017); Averette et al. (2017) and Morris et al. (2015). Averette et al. (2017) were the only researchers who involved parents from a minority group, in this case, gay and lesbian families. A systematic summary of relevant studies is of utmost importance considering the increasing number of multilingual children, and the necessity of good partnerships between LM parents and ECEC professionals. Furthermore, a systematic understanding of the societal and scholarly

implications of these studies is currently missing. The aim of the present study is, therefore, to fill this research gap by conducting a systematic review of the most common factors that impede or promote the partnership between LM families and ECEC professionals. The research question reads as follows: what key issues have been addressed in relation to a linguistic (mis)match between LM parents and ECEC professionals and (dis)continuities of language policies? The review will indicate implications for educational practitioners and policy-makers.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 Epstein's partnership model

According to Epstein, the partnership between parents and educational professionals is of utmost importance for the child's development (1995; 2001). Epstein defines three spheres of influence; the home environment, the educational institution and the community. As the focus of this research is on the partnership between parents and professionals, only the relevant spheres of the home environment and the ECEC institution will be considered. In the interests of the child, there should be a certain continuity between the home environment and the educational institution -in our case the childcare facilities - in order to build a partnership between these spheres. This partnership is made possible through mutual trust, and therefore, professionals and parents must consider each other as equivalent partners (e.g. Adams and Christenson, 2000). Trust can only be achieved if the quality of the interaction between parents and professionals is high. This, in turn, can occur if communication is frequent (Adams and Christenson, 2000; Roberts, 2011).

A good relationship ensures that the spheres overlap and conjoin. This proves beneficial for the child, as it implies that many aspects are shared by the distinct spheres. When there are significant differences between spheres it makes partnership more difficult. This is may be due to a perceived increase in the distance between the spheres, which makes connections less easy to form.

2.2 Home-school (dis)continuity

The continuity between the home environment and the facility where the child spends their days is also addressed in Bronfenbrenner's (1994) ecological systems theory. According to this, a child's general development process is influenced by the social relations of the environment in which the child is situated. These social relations are located in five different levels or systems. In the microsystem, such as the home and childcare facilities, the child has direct

contact with influential others. These contacts function through a two-way process or as bi-directional relations, which means that the child and the others (parents, siblings and the ECEC professionals) mutually influence each other. On the second level, the meso-system, there is no direct contact with the child, but the child is nevertheless influenced by interactions between microsystems. A young child's experiences, for example, are shaped by contacts between the parents and the ECEC professionals. A collaborative partnership between parents and professionals contributes positively to the child's development. Less positive interactions between the two microsystems may have a negative impact on the child. At the level of the exosystem, there is no direct involvement with the child, but the child's development is nevertheless affected. An example is the work situation of the parents (e.g. a promotion, dismissal). The macrosystem refers to, among other factors, the cultural values of the society and the economic situation at large. For example, a child growing up in a developed country with a welfare state will experience more benefits than a child in a developing country. Finally, the chronosystem relates to two dimensions of time: the transitions in time and the events that occur. To illustrate, both the period of time in which a child grows up (e.g. 19th or 21st century) and particular events (e.g. the death of a relative) affect the child's development.

Both Epstein's and Bronfenbrenner's frameworks favour the promotion of partnership between parents and professionals, highlighting the role of trust, communication, respect, equality and cultural sensitivity. An unequal power balance between the participants is one of the greatest challenges that impedes a partnership. When the parents and professionals share similar world-views, the child may enjoy advantages over children whose parents and professionals have contradictory perspectives (Churchill, 2003; Lareau, 1987). Families from LM groups and educational professionals may differ in their language, culture and socio-economic background and their perspectives (e.g. Salem et al., present volume). In the educational research literature, this is commonly referred to as cultural discontinuity (Tyler et al., 2008).

2.3 Language (policy) discontinuity

According to Spolsky (2004), a language policy consists of three components: language beliefs, language practices and language management. Language belief refers to the convictions, or more broadly, the ideologies that people have regarding language. Language management relates to the ways in which language is controlled and organised. Language practices are about specific language use. Language policies exist at different levels: at a macro-level (e.g. national language policy); a meso-level (e.g. language policies of companies, schools or ECEC

settings); and a micro-level (e.g. family language policy). Similarly to Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory, these different levels interact with and further influence each other. For instance, the language policy of a country (macro) influences how schools (meso) deal with multilingualism and how teachers interact with children (micro-level) (e.g. Kirsch et al., this volume, Pulinx, Van Avermaet, and Agirdag, 2017). The language policies of the different levels can be compatible as well as conflicting. For example, this occurs when parents and professionals have differing beliefs and practices. This can be the case independently of parents' language and cultural background. In general, it is assumed that a language match is a prerequisite for good communication between parents and professionals. In this study, we will investigate potential (dis)continuities between language policies in ECEC institutions as expressed by professionals, and the language policies of LM families.

3. Methodology

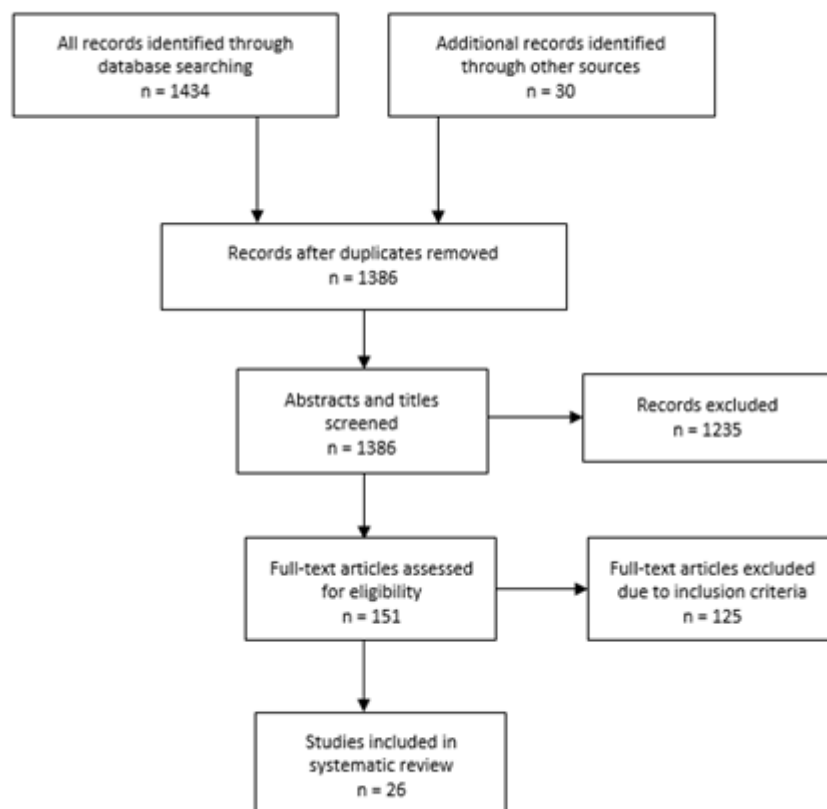
3.1 Search strategy, selection criteria and selection process

We used a systematic search strategy based on the guidelines of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) (Moher et al., 2009). Articles regarding relationships between LM parents and professionals within the ECEC setting were systematically searched in the period up to June 2019 within the following four databases: Web of Science, Taylor and Francis Online, Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), and Google Scholar. We also conducted advanced searches in relevant journals such as the International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, International Journal of Bilingualism, Early Childhood Research Quarterly and Early Child Development and Care. We combined the Boolean operators “AND” and “OR” with the following search terms: “early childhood education” “ECEC” “partnership” “collaboration” “relationship” “cooperation” “language minority parents” “dual language learners” “DLL” “English language learners” “ELL” “professionals” “teachers” and “caregivers”. This initial query resulted in 1,434 articles. In addition, we employed the snowball technique and found 30 further studies. After removing all duplicates, we were left with 1,386 studies.

At the next stage, we scrutinised the articles along the following four criteria: empirical studies conducted in English; publication dates between 2000 and 2018; studies with LM families of children aged from birth to five, who attend an ECEC facility (i.e. day care centre, preschool, kindergarten), and studies with a focus on the relationship between LM parents and ECEC professionals. The initial screening was carried out by reading the titles. Studies were

eliminated directly if they did not fit the criteria. If the titles made reference to our topics of interest, then the abstracts were read. If these studies failed to meet our inclusion criteria, they were eliminated. Most of the articles (i.e., 1,235 out of 1,386) were excluded after reading the titles and abstracts. When the information in the abstract failed to suffice, the full article was read. This elimination process eventually led to the selection of 26 articles. Figure 1 summarises the procedure.

Figure 1. PRISMA flow diagramme



3.2. Analysis

The findings of the selected studies were analysed using a thematic synthesis (Snilstveit et al., 2012). Based on our research question, we categorized the literature on partnership according to the influence of the parents' and professionals' language backgrounds and language policies. We then focused on (dis)continuities that facilitate and complicate partnerships between LM parents and ECEC professionals.

4. Results

An overview of the 26 selected studies, in which most qualitative research methods were used, is presented in a table (see Appendix 1). It provides insight into the methods used, the research population and location, as well as the children's ages and the countries in which the research was carried out. Overall, the following key issues are covered in the literature on partnership: match or mismatch of language background and perspectives on partnerships; language management and practices, and language beliefs. We present these findings in this order in the subsequent section.

4.1 Language background (mis)match

The language policy (dis)continuities between the ECEC institutions and LM families are primarily visible with respect to the (mis)match of language backgrounds. For instance, eight studies show that LM parents and ECEC professionals experience challenges in their relationship due to mismatches between the language spoken (Cheatham and Ostrosky, 2013; De Goia, 2013; Hadley and Rouse, 2018; Hu et al, 2017; Sims et al., 2017; Tobin, 2009; Whitmarsh, 2011; Winterbottom, 2013). The studies indicate that LM families and the professionals rarely shared similar linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It is also noted that parents want to connect with professionals, but that this is often hindered by the lack of sound communication between them and the professionals.

The impact of a language and cultural mismatch can be illustrated with reference to the study by Cheatham and Ostrosky (2013) which analyses comparatively data from parent-teacher meetings and interviews. In this study, three groups of parents are compared: native Spanish-speaking parents, Latino bilingual parents, and native English-speaking parents. All teachers were white and native speakers of English. The conversations were conducted in English. The purpose of the meetings was to reflect collectively upon goal-setting for children in ECEC settings. During the observations of these meetings and the interviews, the teachers appeared to be less interested in listening to the native Spanish-speakers than to the English parents. The researchers relate this issue to linguistic and cultural barriers. Moreover, this language discontinuity resulted in lower expectations of the Spanish-speaking parents in their children's educational competencies. Parents were aware of the professionals' attitudes, which made them act with a certain degree of restraint. The parents' reticence, in turn, was perceived by the professionals as a sign of a lack of interest and/or a passive attitude.

While a linguistic mismatch is reported in 16 of the 26 reviewed studies, the LM parents and ECEC professionals shared a linguistic and cultural background in the remaining ten. The latter studies point to smooth and open communication between the parents and professionals, which inevitably improves the relationship (Adair, 2016; Baker and Páez, 2018; De Gioia, 2009; De Gioia, 2015; Fehrer and Tognozzi, 2017; Harji et al., 2017; Gilliard et al., 2007; Loveridge et al., 2012; Mancilla-Martinez and Lesaux, 2014; Mitchell et al., 2015).

4.2. Language management and practices

ECEC facilities that seek to take account of the family language policy of LM parents, can promote language and cultural continuity through language management and practices. This can be illustrated by a study carried out in New Zealand in three ECEC settings. This study focuses on the ways in which professionals of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds deal with parents of similar cultural backgrounds (Mitchell et al., 2015). The national curriculum for early childhood education 'Te Whariki' - which strongly emphasises the importance of supporting the cultural identity of all children - is used in these centres. Communication is conceived of in a very broad sense. It has to consider not only the languages used but also the stories and symbols of all cultures present. Professionals speak the home languages of many families, and switch languages to greet families in their home languages. In addition, cultural continuity is provided through intercultural exchange of ideas with the families. Similar findings were reported by studies conducted in the United States (US) in Early Head Start/Head Start (EHS/HS) centres. The researchers observed that language policies that value multilingualism, not only stimulate the children's language development, but also strongly encourage and support the bilingualism of professionals (Baker and Páez, 2018; Fehrer and Tognozzi, 2017; Mancilla-Martinez and Lesaux, 2014). The study by Mancilla-Martinez and Lesaux (2014) investigates the extent to which the EHS/HS policy related to bilingualism was implemented. This policy strongly advocates the recruitment of bilingual staff, and is an adequate response to the rapid growth in the number of multilingual children within such facilities. The HR director of a bilingual programme within EHS/HS, as well as a large number of teachers, were interviewed about language issues. The HR director emphasises that bilingualism among members of staff must be guaranteed. All staff should preferably be bilingual, or there should at least be one bilingual teacher per classroom.

Language management is a crucial element of an ECEC language policy, and it might even (partly) compensate for a language mismatch. This is illustrated by Gilliard and her colleagues

(2007). The ECEC setting of their study, which is situated in a small town in Wyoming (USA), provides a bilingual curriculum which all teachers support. They perceive bilingualism as an important asset, and thus value the home language of the Spanish-speaking children. All educational material is available in English and Spanish. English-speaking teachers, who experience a language barrier with the parents, understand this as a working point for themselves rather than the parents. They feel that they need to learn Spanish to better communicate with the Spanish-speaking parents. Teachers who do not yet speak Spanish are always provided with a translator during important conversations with parents. Teachers seem to have an open mind about how they get to know parents. They point out that it is important to take the necessary time to get to know the families personally. They do not perceive parents as a homogeneous group. This study demonstrates how the management of a facility's language policy can have a positive influence both on bilingual practices and communication between professionals and parents. As a result, professionals who are not bilingual also embrace the bilingualism of the children and their parents (also reflected in Hardin et al., 2010).

4.3. Language beliefs

A third key issue found in the literature is the language beliefs of parents and ECEC workers regarding multilingualism and multilingual education (Beecher and Makin, 2002; De Gioia, 2013; Hu et al., 2014; Rodriguez, 2015; Winterbottom, 2013). Discontinuities between the beliefs of LM families and ECEC professionals are reported repeatedly. Three studies demonstrate that parents believe their home language should be promoted within the ECEC setting. This differs from certain professionals who insist that (only) the majority language should be used (Beecher and Makin, 2002; Rodriguez, 2015; Winterbottom, 2013). For instance, in the study of Beecher and Makin (2002), multilingual families emphasise the importance of bilingualism. By contrast, the educators assessed the children's early literacy skills in relation to book-based literacy, pre-reading and pre-writing, name writing and reading in English only. While the parents would also like to draw attention to literacy in their home language, some professionals regard multilingualism as problematic given that some children refuse to speak English.

However, remarkably, in two other studies, the opposite is reported. Here, parents have a strong preference that their home language should not be used, in contrast to professionals who believe that it should be allowed (De Gioia, 2013; Hu et al., 2014). The Chinese parents in the Australian study of Hu et al. (2014) indicate that they want their children to only speak English

in order to be well prepared for kindergarten. The educators, on the contrary, believe that all languages should be used freely. The professionals developed three strategies to deal with this situation. A first strategy is to comply with the Chinese parents' wishes by encouraging the increased use of English in the early childhood setting. Their second strategy is to allow children to use the home language in the centre while reassuring parents about their children's English development. Thirdly, the professionals openly encourage home language use while actively informing parents on the process of language learning.

Adair (2016) demonstrates that teachers with a migration background clearly appear to have much more affinity with the children and parents who are also of a migration background. They share the same language and cultural background, which renders communication easier. Adair (2016) concludes with a policy recommendation to recruit more professionals with a migration background in ECEC settings. This study can be seen as a clear example of how linguistic continuity can be achieved when both the practices and beliefs of professionals within an ECEC facility favour multilingualism.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to review systematically existing research that explores the partnership between language minority parents and professionals work in ECEC. To this end, 26 of 1,434 studies were analysed. This first finding indicates that studies on the relationship between LM parents and ECEC professionals are scarce. Twenty-three of the studies reviewed exclusively employ qualitative methods. These include case-studies which can be combined with semi-structured interviews, in-depth interviews or focus groups.

The aim of this review was to identify the most common topics that facilitate or complicate a partnership between LM parents and ECEC professionals. Firstly, a language match between both partners has been demonstrated to be crucial for linguistic continuity. A similar language background enhances interactions and mutual understanding. In most cases, LM parents do not speak the same language nor share similar cultural backgrounds with professionals. In these cases, a linguistic and cultural discontinuity is frequently reported. However, some of the researchers argue that the language barrier does not necessarily have to be an obstacle to the relationship between LM parents and professionals. When professionals embrace multilingualism and make the effort to communicate with LM parents, they can improve their relationships. The debate, therefore, goes beyond mere language use to also address opposing

language beliefs, perspectives on multilingualism, and ideologies. If other factors than a language mismatch also impact relationship-building, then discrimination against LM parents may be a concern (e.g. Adair, 2015). However, this subject has not been investigated explicitly in the selected studies and has only been mentioned in one of them.

As such, a first implication for future research would be to investigate whether the negative effects of a linguistic and/or cultural mismatch can be moderated by a linguistic and culturally responsive language management (e.g. Salem et al. and Perumal et al. this volume). Culture-sensitive care and multilingualism should be given more attention in pre-service training, in-service training and in professional development. Professional development works best when it is based on an evidence-based pedagogical framework, makes use of coaching and engages practitioners in individual and collective reflection of their own practice (Kirsch et al., this volume). Another implication to be further investigated is the role of staff discrimination against LM parents in complicating partnership relationships. A suggestion regarding practice and policy is to avoid cultural and language mismatch whenever possible through appropriate recruitment and staff training policies. These could actively focus on the management of linguistic diversity and the deployment of a sensitive approach towards multilingualism.

A second key issue addressed in the literature is whether language management and practices can improve partnerships between LM parents and ECEC professionals, and if so, to what extent. Most of the retained studies considered the role of language management at ECEC level as decisive. They clearly and repeatedly demonstrated that ECEC facilities which use a curriculum or programme that considers multilingualism and multiculturalism as an added value, also promote favourable relationships between LM parents and professionals. However, studies show that language management does not contribute to partnership if the practices of professionals are not coherent with policy.

Finally, studies on language beliefs of professionals and parents similarly point to opportunities and challenges with regard to the building of partnerships. Some studies report that parents desire a focus on multilingual education for their children, while the ECEC professionals do not welcome languages other than the dominant languages. By contrast, other studies report that LM parents prefer their children to be educated in the majority language only, even when professionals prefer to promote the children's home languages. This supports the idea that the preference for monolingualism in education might be a doxa that has been internalised even by language minorities (e.g. Agirdag, 2010). In other words, minority groups share the conviction

that the dominant language is endowed with a higher level of importance than minority languages. Therefore, future research should also examine parental beliefs about multilingual education within ECEC, and also the determinants of these beliefs.

Finally, other important implications address the level of practice and policy. The studies carried out in the US and in New Zealand demonstrate clearly that language policy on the macro-level has an important influence on language policy at the meso-level. Both in the US and in New Zealand, bilingualism is encouraged strongly within the national curriculum for early childhood education. At the same time, this positive view of multilingualism at the meso-level is a crucial determinant for establishing linguistic continuity between parents and professionals. These studies are clear examples of how linguistic continuity can be achieved when both the practices and the beliefs of ECEC professionals are in favour of multilingualism. For us, professionals' beliefs and their practices at the micro-level are decisive. If, despite favourable language management, professionals are reluctant to embrace multilingualism, this leads to linguistic discontinuity between parents and professionals. This can, in turn, further complicate the already-complicated process of partnership-building.

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Appendix 1

Overview of selected studies with research method, participants, children's age and country

Author(s)	Method, participants and ECEC facility	Age	Country
(1) Adair, 2016	Focus group interviews with 50 preschool teachers (immigrant and non-immigrant) using video-cued material as a guide for the interviews to explore their views about immigrant mothers. Conducted in nine preschool sites in five cities.	4 years old	US
(2) Baker & Páez, 2018	Case study: focus group discussion and individual interviews with 17 directors, 14 teachers, 50 family members and 111 children. Conducted in six ECEC preschool classrooms: two Head Start classrooms, two public pre-K classrooms, and two classrooms in preschools affiliated with private universities.	“ECEC age”	US
(3) Beecher & Makin, 2002	Case studies in four settings Focus group discussions with families and interviews with educators. Conducted in four ECEC settings	4 years old	Australia
(4) Caporal-Ebersold & Young, 2016	Ethnographic case study over 9 months with observations and audio-recorded interviews with educators. Conducted in a day care centre.	0 to 3 years old	France
(5) Cheatham & Ostrosky, 2013	Parent-teacher meetings were audio-recorded. After the meetings, semi-structured interviews were conducted with each parent or couple. 14 Hispanic (3 bilingual and 11 Spanish	1 to 5 years old	US

	<p>speakers)</p> <p>10 Native English non Hispanic</p> <p>After all the conferences teachers were also interviewed.</p> <p>Conducted in four Early/Head start centres.</p>		
(6) Chumak-Horbatsch, 2008	<p>16 parents (8 mothers – 8 fathers) completed a questionnaire.</p> <p>Conducted in a childcare centre.</p>	1 to 3 years old	Canada
(7) De Gioia, 2009	<p>Semi-structured interviews with:</p> <p>(1) staff: white and parents from Pakistan, India, Iraq and Philippines</p> <p>(2) Staff & director: white – untrained assistants from Vietnam & China and parents from China & Samoa</p> <p>(3) Staff: white and parents: white (of Greek and Spanish ancestry)</p> <p>Conducted in three childcare centres.</p>	0 to 3 years old	Australia
(8) De Gioia, 2013	<p>Semi-structured interviews with 9 educators and 18 different family members; 13 mothers, 4 fathers and 1 older brother</p> <p>Conducted in three childcare centres.</p>	0 to 3 years old	Australia
(9) De Gioia, 2015	<p>Observations 2 days/week for 2 months.</p> <p>Reflective research journal.</p> <p>Series of open-ended interviews with 4 mothers and 4 educators</p> <p>Conducted in a childcare centre.</p>	2 to 5 years old	Australia
(10) Fehrer & Tognozzi, 2017	<p>Individual and group interviews of staff and parents, and observations.</p> <p>Conducted in 2 state-funded preschool sites</p>	“ECEC age”	US
(11) Gilliard et al.,	<p>Class observations and open-ended interviews</p>	0 to 5	US

2007	with 1 male and 7 female EC educators (5 Hispanic, 1 non-Spanish speaking, 3 White and non-Spanish speaking). Conducted in an infant, mobile infant, and toddler classrooms.	years old	
(12) Hadley & Rouse, 2018	4 (Comparative) case studies (1) 3 families and 6 educators in 3 centres (2) 23 families and 5 educators in 4 centres (3) 4 families and 6 educators in 1 centre (4) 2 families and 1 educator in 11 centres Conducted in day care centres.	0 to 4 years old	Australia
(13) Hardin et al., 2010	Self-assessment checklist of beliefs and practices and survey with four open-ended questions of 48 pre-kindergarten teachers. Conducted in 17 elementary schools.	4 to 5 years old	US
(14) Harji et al., 2017	Interviews, teacher journals and home visits of 25 parents and one teacher. Conducted in a private preschool	5 years old	Malaysia
(15) Harper & Pelletier, 2010	Parent questionnaire for parents of 23 children who spoke English as a first language (EL1) and 19 children who were English language learners (ELL) Teacher questionnaire for kindergarten teachers Test for early reading ability for the 42 kindergarten children. Conducted in kindergarten classrooms.	3 to 5 years old	Canada
(16) Hu et al., 2014	Semi-structured interviews with five educators. Conducted in three day care centres and two preschool sites.	“ECEC age”	Australia
(17) Loveridge et	In-depth case studies (general observations and	“ECEC	New

al., 2012	<p>semi-structured interviews) of a playcentre and a kindergarten.</p> <p>Playcentre was led by parents and kindergarten by teachers</p> <p>Conducted in a Playcentre and a preschool site.</p>	age”	Zealand
(18) Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2014	<p>A semi-structured phone interview with the human resources director of an Early Head Start/Head Start (EHS/HS) programme that serves a large number of Spanish-speaking DLL families</p> <p>109 EHS/HS teachers completed a survey</p> <p>Conducted in 8 EHS/HS programme sites.</p>	0 to 5 years old	US
(19) Mitchell et al., 2015	<p>Focus group discussions with 6 teachers.</p> <p>Semi-structured interviews with parents, with video recordings of 3 case study children during free play in setting.</p> <p>Semi-structured interviews with teachers, with video recordings of themselves when parents and children arrive at setting + videos of the children.</p> <p>Conducted in three education and care centres.</p>	“ECEC age”	New Zealand
(20) Perry et al., 2008	<p>13 Hispanic parents participated in a literacy program.</p> <p>Parents’ journals and teachers’ anecdotes were used as data.</p> <p>Conducted in a preschool site.</p>	2 to 4 years old	US
(21) Rodríguez, 2015	<p>3 comparative case studies over a three year period – semi-structured interviews and anecdotal conversations and observations of three Hispanic families.</p> <p>Conducted at the families’ homes - children</p>	1 to 3 years old	US

	attend day care centre or preschool.		
(22) Sawyer et al., 2017	Focus groups and individual interviews of 14 Latino Spanish-speaking parents of 13 children from four EC centres and 17 teachers from three EC centres. Conducted in four EC centres.	3 to 5 years old	US
(23) Sims et al., 2017	Case studies of 12 families of different ethnicities. Conducted at the families' homes - children attend an ECEC centre.	2 to 4 years old	Australia
(24) Tobin, 2009	Focus groups with video recordings of typical days in classrooms for 4-year-olds in ECEC setting as cues for the focus-group interviews Conducted in preschool sites.	4 years old	US, UK, Germany, France, Italy
(25) Whitmarsh, 2011	Semi-structured group interviews with mothers who are asylum-seekers from Afghanistan, Morocco and Iran. Conducted in preschool site.	3 to 5 years old	UK
(26) Winterbottom, 2013	In-depth semi-structured interviews with nine Japanese mothers. Conducted in preschool sites.	'infant'	US