

Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union



REPORT ON THE HOSTING AND LINGUISTIC TRAINING OF DISPLACED STUDENTS ENROLLED AT UNIVERSITIES



Consortium SERAFIN - Deborah MEUNIER, Olivier DEZUTTER, Françoise BOCH,
Mohammed BOUCHEKOURTE, David CHEMETA, Charlotte DEJEAN, Anass EL
GOUSAIRI, Stéphanie GALLIGANI, Eve LEJOT, Corine PHILIPPART, Sarah
THÉBERGE, Audrey THONARD, Peter TISCHER, Laurence WÉRYErasmus+ SERAFIN
2022-1-BE01-KA220-HED-000085227 |

Erasmus+ SERAFIN 2022-1-BE01-KA220-HED-000085227 |

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	2
1.	3
1.1	3
1.2	5
1.3	5
2.	6
3.	7
4.	8
4.1	8
4.2	8
4.3	9
4.4	9
4.5	10
4.6	11
4.7	11
AVENUES FOR REFLECTION	13
WORKS CITED	14

The French into English translation was performed by Dr. Sunita Nigam.

This report addresses one of the objectives of the European project [SERAFIN](#)¹ by providing an overview of the hosting of displaced individuals (refugees, those in the process of regularization, asylum seekers, and stateless persons) enrolled in universities in the regions and/or cities of the partner institutions of the SERAFIN consortium. The report examines existing structures of hosting, processes of accompaniment, and linguistic training programs with the goal of clarifying the needs of teachers and students. This report is based on qualitative surveys conducted at the universities of Grenoble (France), Liège (Belgium), Luxembourg, Rabat (Morocco), Saarbrücken (Germany), and Sherbrooke (Canada). Data was collected by SERAFIN consortium members and analyzed between October 2022 and June 2023. Data collection approaches and types of sources varied depending on the specific contexts of each institution. Two types of sources were considered in most cases: the internal documentation available at each institution; and individuals concerned by the issue at hand. Interviews were conducted with a variety of stakeholders: teachers, trainers, displaced students, individuals in charge of dedicated services within the institution of higher education, and individuals from local associations involved in the hosting and/or training of adult migrants. The data collected by each partner resulted in a targeted report.² The present report, primarily intended for institutional leaders and educational staff, provides a synthesis of key elements emerging from the surveys conducted at the participating universities. It aims to: 1) improve our understanding of locally identified needs and issues; 2) raise awareness about the linguistic and intercultural challenges in the education of students in diverse situations of forced migration; and 3) contribute to discussions about the implementation of effective hosting and linguistic training programs tailored to the real needs of teachers and students.

We will begin by presenting the migratory and sociolinguistic contexts in which these displaced students find themselves upon their arrival at our universities. Next, we will describe the various types of hosting and linguistic training structures that currently exist in our institutions. Finally, we will suggest avenues for reflection on the needs, actions, tools, and approaches identified throughout our research and their effects on the linguistic training of students.

¹ European Erasmus+ Project SERAFIN 2022-1-BE01-KA220-HED-000085227 - *Support for language teacher training to promote the inclusion of refugee students in higher education*. <https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/projects/search/details/2022-1-BE01-KA220-HED-000085227>

² All reports are available on the project's website: <https://projetserafin.com>

1. SOCIOLINGUISTIC AND POLITICAL CONTEXTS OF HOSTING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

When considering individuals in situations of migration, it is important to take into account several types of scenarios. We generally distinguish between *forced* migration and *voluntary* migration. Forced migration is defined as "the non-voluntary migratory movement of individuals, caused notably by the fear of persecution, situations of armed conflict, internal disturbances, natural disasters, or those caused by humans" (Perruchoud, 2007: 49). In contexts of forced migration, unlike those of voluntary migration, the pre-immigration phase—the "mental organization necessary for upcoming changes" (Martinet & Damásio, 2021: 467)—is often unprepared, both psychologically and organizationally, and more challenging for individuals forced to leave their homes. This pre-immigration phase corresponds to the period where risk is most concentrated, and it is also where traumas can occur. We also generally distinguish between *economic* migrations (motivated by the desire to improve living conditions) and *climate* migrations (motivated by fleeing climate disruptions and their impact on life, particularly social or economic aspects). However, this typology should not overshadow the often strong correlations between these two motives for migration.

1.1 THE SOCIOLINGUISTIC PROFILES OF DISPLACED STUDENTS

Whatever the initial reason for leaving a country of origin, migratory flows have significantly increased in recent decades and directly affect certain parts of the planet (77% of displaced individuals have been hosted in countries neighbouring their country of origin).

According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (May 2023), there are nearly 110 million displaced people worldwide due to persecution, conflicts, and violence. This number has almost doubled in the past 10 years (51.2 million in 2013). Many of these people are individuals seeking international protection. Since the beginning of the war in Ukraine in February 2022, Europe has hosted the largest number of people fleeing war since World War II. The proportion of refugees³ living in Europe has consequently increased to more than 20% of the total refugees worldwide. In 2022, asylum applications in Europe came from 140 countries.⁴

³Source: European Commission. https://commission.europa.eu/strategy-and-policy/priorities-2019-2024/promoting-our-european-way-life/statistics-migration-europe_fr#les-réfugiés-en-europe.

⁴ According to the 1951 Geneva Convention, a refugee is defined as "any person who, owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group, or political opinion, is outside the country of their nationality or is unable or unwilling to return to it." (UNESCO)

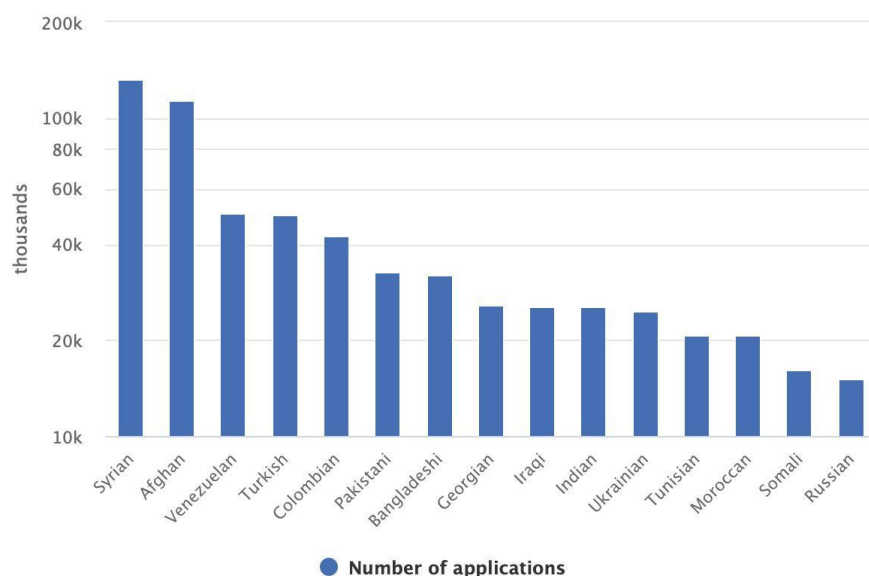


Figure 1: 15 principal nationalities of asylum seekers in Europe in 2022 (Eurostat)

The geographic location of countries also has a major influence on migratory flows. In the European countries of the SERAFIN consortium, migrants predominantly come from Africa, the Middle East, and Eastern Europe, while in Morocco, individuals mainly come from Sub-Saharan Africa. In Canada,⁵ numerous asylum requests come from Haiti, Colombia, and Mexico, but individuals from Africa and the Middle East also submit applications.

A significant portion of displaced individuals are between 18 and 34 years old, which is the age for pursuing higher education (European Commission, Eurydice, 2019). For example, in Belgium, out of the 14,000 asylum seekers in 2017, 45% were of age to pursue higher education. The European Commission funds numerous projects to assist migrants and refugees in the field of higher education, with particular attention to language skills and the recognition of acquired qualifications and degrees.

However, in 2022, only 6% of refugees had access to higher education worldwide (UNHCR Education Report, 2022: 6). Despite some improvement in recent years (the enrollment rate of refugees in higher education initially stood at 1%), the goal of reaching 15% by 2030 is still far from being achieved ([15by30](#), UNHCR, United Nations Refugee Agency). Yet, higher education contributes to the inclusion of individuals on social, political, and economic levels in host societies, and subsequently promotes the reconstruction of the country they left (Degée, 2020: 177).

It is important to note that institutions in Canada, Germany, and Luxembourg were unable to provide precise data on the number of displaced students in their centers and departments because these students are not identified by their status by the administration. For example, at the University of Luxembourg, there is no official census. By contrast, in Morocco, a national census of refugee students in higher education was conducted in 2019. However, in other contexts, when host spaces or specific programs for refugee students exist in universities (as is the case in Grenoble and Liège), quantitative data has been obtained. In these two institutions, we observed that the majority of refugee students

⁵ Source: Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada.
<https://irb.gc.ca/fr/statistiques/asile/Pages/SPRStat2023.aspx>

are male, and the countries of origin of those enrolled in language courses corresponded to the national trends of France and Belgium.

1.1 HOSTING POLICIES FOR STUDENTS: TWO EXAMPLES

The issue of welcoming students in exile is not new in universities. However, the increase in migratory flows has led to giving more attention to this segment of the student population. This is evident in the following two initiatives implemented in Grenoble and the French Community of Belgium.

At the University of Grenoble, the hosting of refugee students or asylum seekers is integrated into the institution's scheme of *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Responsibility*. Students in exile receive specific support through the existence of the "Espace Colibri" (Welcome and information for students in exile). Additionally, a "refugee committee" was established in 2015 with the aims of discussing issues related to hosting and integration into the university environment, and of advocating with institutions. These local structures collaborate with the French national network MENS (Migrants in Higher Education), which brings together 52 institutions committed to welcoming refugee students.

Since 2015 in Belgium, establishments in the Wallonie-Bruxelles Federation have formed a working group tasked with brainstorming and proposing courses of action in support of displaced individuals facing danger. *A Mapping of Initiatives in Favor of Migrants, Refugees, and Academics and Researchers in Danger* (ARES),⁶ updated in March 2022, marked the beginning of this project. Twenty-three institutions of higher education participated in this initiative.

1.2 LINGUISTIC POLICIES IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Each institution of higher education also defines its own language policy, which has an impact on the language(s) in which training programs can be offered. At the University of Luxembourg, as multilingualism is embedded in the university's internal regulations, programs are organized in German, French, English, and Luxembourgish. However, the emphasis on these languages varies depending on the field of study.

Generally, a B2 level (according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) in the language of instruction is required to enroll in a higher education program in Europe. Admission is conditioned by a procedure to verify the language proficiency level in the language of instruction. Students must pass an institutional examination (both oral and written, conducted within a language center or department) or provide evidence of recent and internationally recognized language certification (such as DELF or DALF for French).

Despite the Arabization policy implemented in Moroccan schools since the 1980s, the language policy in higher education in Morocco gives a privileged position to French for accessing academic knowledge and for the socio-professional integration of students. French continues to be a language of instruction in higher education, including in scientific and technical fields.

⁶ Source: Academy of Research and Higher Education. https://www.ares-ac.be/images/relations_exterieures/Refugies-et-chercheurs-en-danger_Cartographie.pdf

2. STRUCTURES OF HOSTING, SUPPORT, AND ACCOMPANIMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY

One can distinguish several types of initiatives aimed at displaced individuals at different key moments in their journey.

- Upon arrival: welcome office, assistance with administrative procedures (admission, registration, social assistance), orientation counseling services, psychological support, language courses, preparatory programs for studies, workshops on study methods, etc.
- During the course of studies: language courses (some with specific objectives), student mentoring, courses taken as a non-registered auditor, etc.

Note that **academic or socio-professional integration after studies, on the other hand, is not subject to any follow-up** within the institutions.

Several members of the administrative and academic staff encountered during the project have highlighted the sensitive nature of the "refugee" status and the precautions taken regarding the concerned students. Various reasons are cited, primarily the protection of their personal data for their safety, but also the risk of stigmatizing these students. These recurring themes are sometimes used to justify the absence of internal structures, specific initiatives in favour of these groups (redirected towards external organizations, typically). Conversely, they are also sometimes used to justify a welcoming policy wherein refugee students are mixed with other students without distinction, following a logic of integration.⁷ In this latter configuration, requests for support are not institutionalized, but are taken on by the displaced individuals themselves. For example, at the University of Luxembourg, it is stated that program directors as well as various student support services at the university are available to guide and assist individuals if they wish, but only upon their request. The institution's response in this case is more ad hoc than structural.

Conversely, other institutions have established dedicated welcome and support structures. At the University of Saarland, Law students founded the Refugee Law Clinic, which provides legal assistance to refugee students. In most institutions, committees sometimes offer individualized support through an administrative staff member, but more often, it is the students – rarely the teachers – who are asked to participate in mentoring programs or co-teaching experiences between students from different disciplines. For example, the Co-FormER program in Grenoble involves master's students, supervised by a faculty member in their discipline, voluntarily leading workshops for displaced individuals. Additionally, some institutions provide specific financial assistance through scholarships and fundraising efforts.

Finally, **while some members of university communities desire structural responses, others emphasize the need not to reduce individuals to their status**, risking the neglect of shared needs with every first-time student (acculturation and adaptation to the "student profession" (Coulon, 1997), to university discourse, to academic culture). This approach may even limit their integration into the

⁷ Here we distinguish between *integration* (the newly arrived student must make an effort to adapt to the majority group) and *inclusion* (the university adapts to the student) (cf. Beacco, 2012). The first process relates to a social and political imagination that is expressed daily in public space: the migrant would be responsible for their integration into the host society. The "problem" or "failure of integration" becomes individual rather than collective, absolving the majority group of any responsibility.

social fabric of the host community due to support mechanisms organized in separate timelines and locations.

3. LINGUISTIC TRAINING STRUCTURES

In most institutions, university Language Centers or local associations organize language courses to enable displaced individuals to reach the required level for admission to educational programs. Language placement tests are conducted upon arrival, **but they never assess skills in the individual's native language(s) or previous schooling language(s), nor digital literacy skills, nor the methodological skills of the students.**

Next, we observe two scenarios:

- 1) The (future) refugee students follow the same path as an "international" student who migrated voluntarily or even as a local student, following an assimilation logic without distinction.
- 2) Displaced individuals in benefit from a specific program, more often based on their status than their linguistic or literacy needs.

In this case, several configurations are possible:

- **Language courses with objectives focused on "communication-socialization,"** ranging from level A1 to B1, without a specific academic foundation. These courses typically precede integration into a regular academic program and aim to meet the requirement of achieving a B2 language proficiency level for admission to the university program.
- **Language courses with "academic or professional" objectives,** some focused on writing (structuring ideas, articulating critical thinking, synthesizing documents, preparing presentations and talks, language quality, etc.), designed for more advanced levels.
- **Complete programs** (such as the University Diploma Bridging French) preparing for the integration into a regular university or professional program (intensive language courses, academic methodology, cultural knowledge, courses taken as a non-registered auditor, etc.).
- Services for **"language pairing/mentoring"** among students.

These programs have advantages and disadvantages: while language remediation may seem reassuring and necessary before embarking on an academic program in a foreign language, the organization of courses or even a specific program may prevent individuals from building a social network with local students. In this scenario, individuals live in a different time-space and have few opportunities to interact with other communities at the university. However, despite the inclusion goal of some programs, where "foreign" students are immediately integrated into a regular curriculum, these students also face difficulties integrating into the university social fabric and may even be victims of daily direct discrimination from other students who refuse to help them by sharing their texts, fearing plagiarism (Meunier, 2020).

4. NEEDS, TENSIONS, AND LEVERS

Following the surveys conducted by the members of the SERAFIN project, certain priorities have been identified. Actions, tools, and approaches are likely to support or, conversely, hinder the linguistic training of individuals in exile at universities. We have pinpointed areas of concern that could serve as guidelines for awareness and training initiatives for academic and/or administrative staff, as well as student peers involved in certain programs.

4.1 SUPPORTING THE DESIGN AND ORIENTATION OF PROJECTS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

The difficulty in choosing a course of study is a recurring theme in the narratives of displaced individuals. For some, **the university is perceived as the only place for education** due to a lack of in-depth knowledge about the national education system and the various possible paths for post-secondary education. Sometimes, the individual's administrative status prevents access to professional training and limits the choice of orientation. For older individuals, a change in studies can evoke a sense of downgrading and discouragement. According to our surveys, the orientation challenges of students in exile can be explained by:

- the difficulty in envisioning studies, a profession, and more generally planning for the future due to the "state of survival"⁸ (Métraux, 2017);
- a lack of knowledge about the contents of the training;
- an erroneous representation of the level of difficulty of the training and/or the necessary prerequisites;
- the local regulations of certain professions;
- the irregular status of the student, preventing them from pursuing the desired training (especially in the case of professionalizing programs requiring a residency permit).

The existence of a welcome office and dedicated contact persons in universities has been identified as an important supportive factor for the orientation of refugee students.

4.2 VALUING INDIVIDUAL PLURILINGUALISM

All the students we interviewed are plurilingual. **The role of a “bridge” played by the languages in their individual repertoires (especially English) is spontaneously highlighted by the students, while conversely, the first languages of the learners are often identified as a challenge by the teachers** who would like to better understand these languages to tailor their teachings to their audience. The use of pronouns in French, for example, is a complex issue for Arabic speakers who have only two pronouns in their L1, unlike learners who already have a Romance language with an equivalent pronominal system.

The assessment of knowledge and skills (of literacy and methodology) in the student's family or previous educational language is not organized in institutions. However, the use of such diagnostic tools is widespread for allophone students in primary and secondary education. In France, for example, there are multilingual reading tests, which allow the verification of, among other things, proficiency in

⁸ “Situations in which individuals (...) are investing all their immediate power on survival issues. This could represent long-term and extreme precarity (...) or a persistent *traumatic state*” (Métraux, 2017 : 20)

Latin characters.⁹ Moreover, numerous studies have demonstrated the importance of taking into account the pre-existing linguistic knowledge of students in the various languages of their repertoire (Cummins, 1981, 2000; García & Wei, 2014). Interlinguistic comparison enables the adoption of new learning strategies and the improvement of intercultural communication skills (Auger, 2018; Ballinger, Lau & Quevillon-Lacasse, 2020; Bruen & Kelly, 2016). The bilingual or multilingual repertoire of allophone students is, however, overlooked in universities despite being a potential resource (García et al., 2007; Lüdi, 2021; Omer, 2013). Thus, a monolingual ideology continues to manifest itself in academic contexts, contributing to the marginalization of international students (Flores & Rosa, 2015; Meunier & Dezutter, 2022).

Furthermore, teacher interviews reveal that the heterogeneity of target language skills is often attributed to informal learning. Grammar gaps and fossilization phenomena are reported, as well as the disparity between oral skills (often better) and written skills. Linguistic placement becomes challenging with standardized proficiency scales. The need for a humanistic and personalized approach to these students and their preparation for higher education (beyond their status or nationality) has been emphasized in several reports from this consortium, as well as in research on linguistic assessment tools in an academic context (cf. Zeiter & Maurer, 2021). The linguistic repertoire, educational culture, and personal and academic background of the student are factors to consider in reflecting on the support for displaced individuals.

4.3 DEVELOPING THE CAPACITY TO LEARN IN ACADEMIC AND DIGITAL CONTEXTS

The effort to adapt to the local academic context is a major challenge for any first-time student, especially when they are in a situation of exile (Arjona Soberón, Reuter & Chibuzor, 2017). The challenge is not only linguistic (Blaser & Pollet, 2010; Boch & Frier, 2020) but also social and educational (Coulon, 1997). In Luxembourg, the teams at the Well-being & Inclusion Office advise refugee students to complete at least one semester as an auditor, in order to promote their academic acculturation and improve their understanding of how the university operates. This progressive inclusion approach in the university curriculum helps reduce stress related to the fear of failure (if less than 30 ECTS credits are earned by the end of the year) and spreads out the effort required for the student.

Some teachers instead highlight the lack of learning strategies (memorization, copying) and digital acculturation (difficulties in working with a computer, unfamiliarity with digital learning platforms) as obstacles to the success of students. Differences between educational cultures (especially in terms of pace and workload) are also pointed out. Additionally, there is tension between the imposed academic timeline and the disorganized and “stretched out” timeline of migration, characterized by “waiting pockets” and “in-between” situations experienced by individuals in exile (cf. Mercier, Chiffolleau & Thoemmes, 2021). Finally, the mental state of individuals in exile (mental load, fragility, instability) is regularly cited to explain difficulties in concentrating, planning, and organizing work—essential components of the learning process. This will be further discussed in point 7.

4.4 INITIATING STUDENTS TO ACADEMIC WRITING

⁹ Written comprehension assessment tools developed in the source language by Canopé network, French Ministry of National Education, for instance: <https://www.reseau-canope.fr/eana-outils-devaluation-en-langue-dorigine/evaluation-en-langue-dorigine.html>

Difficulties in writing are identified as a potential obstacle to pursuing higher education. “Academic” literacy skills encompass a range of writing practices that are interesting to work on with the university community, as numerous francophone studies on *Academic Literacies* have demonstrated (Blaser & Pollet, 2010; Boch & Frier, 2020; Mangiante & Parpette, 2011). These studies have allowed for the inventory and modeling of academic reading and writing skills, considering their contextual and sociocultural dimensions. In the context of our surveys, we have identified the following types of writings:

- **“Administrative” writings** (filling out a form, writing/responding to an email, composing a letter of application for an admission dossier);
- **Generic “academic”** writings that require transferable skills, such as an argument, a report, a bibliography, a synthesis;
- **“Disciplinary” writings** with their specialized vocabulary, situated textual genres.

The writing difficulties manifest on several levels:

- the formatting of texts and typography (punctuation, capitalization);
- the spelling and syntax (approximate phoneme-grapheme links, conjugation, sentence structures);
- the structuring of academic discourse (especially argumentative discourse);
- the decoding of cultural implicit meanings (in comprehension as well as in production);
- digital literacies.

Thus, targeted support on the rhetoric and style of disciplinary academic writings is necessary, as well as formalized and explicit teaching of language grammar (often deficient in the student's academic journey). Similarly, digital literacies needs must be diagnosed. However, currently, **the content of many language training programs still follows an approach to language without a connection to the training disciplines and does not address or barely covers digital tools for learning and word processing.**

4.5 FOSTERING INCLUSION IN THE STUDENT COMMUNITY

While mastering the language of instruction is necessary to facilitate social relationships and socio-professional integration, language skills are just one component of the process of integrating individuals into the host society. We have already mentioned the integration difficulties faced by students, whether they are in a specific program or in a regular curriculum. Indeed, many have expressed feelings of loneliness, social isolation, and a lack of interactions with local students. The absence of social contacts is heightened when individuals only attend language courses outside of academic faculties.

Some refugee students have also expressed their desire not to be identified by their status at the university, for security reasons but also to avoid being “reduced” to that status. In Luxembourg, for example, allophone students enroll in the same language courses, regardless of their status (refugee, Erasmus, etc.), whereas in Liège, different courses are organized based on the status of individuals. This organization is justified by the linguistic heterogeneity of the group, the patience, adaptability,

and tact required (considering the sensitive nature of certain themes or pedagogical activities), and the intensive nature of the courses (12 hours per week).

Professional internships, mentoring programs between students, and any socialization activities organized by the university are seen as beneficial. The importance of a welcoming structure or a designated person as a reference is essential to serve as an interface between refugee students and the university community. Several students have, for example, mentioned difficulties in understanding their interlocutors (the speed of speaking being too fast or the language register being too formal).

4.6 ELUCIDATING IMPLICIT CULTURAL MEANINGS

The absence of shared cultural knowledge regarding educational systems, administrative procedures, and the universe of meaning invoked in courses poses difficulties for students.

Authentic educational materials may not be understood, and behaviors or texts can be misinterpreted, not due to language reasons, but because of the implicit values conveyed. Thus, issues in information processing arise in both comprehension and production due to a lack of shared sociocultural references.

The discursive academic culture is also a source of difficulty for many first-time students (Dezutter & Lousada, 2016; Hidden, 2013; Meunier, 2021; Rentel, 2009; Ristea, 2020). More broadly, the gap between the social writing practices of young people and the scientific written culture acts as a barrier to success if not explicitly addressed. Many writings, in fact, require knowledge of linguistic and cultural norms that are rarely explained by teachers in their courses (Meunier & Dezutter, 2022). Commenting on a text or conducting a critical analysis demands a specific enunciative positioning with which the student may not be familiar.

4.7 RECOGNIZING THE CONSEQUENCES OF FORCED MIGRATION

One in five first-time arrivals is reported to suffer from a mental disorder (Baubet & Saglio-Yatzimirsky, 2019). The experience of forced migration involves, for many displaced students, psychological distress, significant stress, and a sense of insecurity (Herroudi, 2022; Posselt et al., 2020). The “state of survival” (Métraux, 2017) in which some individuals find themselves can lead to a focus on the present, the very short term, and hinder their psyche from projecting into the future. However, any (learning) endeavor requires future-oriented projection.

Furthermore, these students experience situations of “vulnerability” related to the more or less violent environments they encounter during their journey, before, during, and also after migration. As such, the asylum procedure is now considered one of the potentially traumatizing stages of the migration process. The term “retraumatizing environments” is used (Posselt et al., 2020), primarily due to the length of the procedure, its stakes, the verbalization of intimate experiences, the questioning of credibility, and the possible denial of lived experiences by the host country (Baubet & Saglio-Yatzimirsky, 2019). The lack of recognition is said to contribute to placing individuals in a vulnerable position (Garrau, 2018).

AVENUES FOR REFLECTION

The implementation of concrete actions aimed to address these various needs leads to a series of choices. These choices involve a variety of elements that we summarize in the conclusion, with each choice presenting a certain number of limitations and advantages that need to be assessed for each situation. These choices pertain to:

The Target Audience

restricted to people in situations of forced migration
or a larger public to promote the integration into the university community

The People Carrying out Interventions

student peers,
teachers,
members of the administration,
professionals (psychologists, social workers),
Internal services (student services)
Or external services (associations, NGOs...)

The Modes of Intervention

individual meetings to learn about the distinct needs of each person
and tailor support appropriately
or group meetings to encourage interactions
... organised upon requests on an ad-hoc basis
... or systematically and structurally

The Contexts of Intervention

activities included in the regular university training program
or extracurricular activities

The Moments of Intervention

from the initial welcome
... to regular follow-ups
... and assistance with the steps that will follow the student's

The Content of the Intervention

According to the diversity of the student's needs:
linguistic,
psychological,
social,
orientation,
practical assistance (housing, finance...).

Such a list constitutes a basic tool allowing institutions to assess what is in place and to anticipate adjustments in order to best support the integration and success of individuals in exile in our universities.

WORKS CITED

Académie de Recherche et d'Enseignement Supérieur (ARES) (2022). *Cartographie des initiatives prises en faveur des migrant-es, des réfugié-es et des académiques et chercheur-es en danger*.

https://www.ares-ac.be/images/relations_exterieures/Refugies-et-chercheurs-en-danger_Cartographie.pdf

Agence des Nations Unies pour les réfugiés (HCR) (2022). *Inclusion totale et pour tous. Campagne pour l'éducation des réfugiés*. Rapport 2022. <https://www.unhcr.org/fr/media/rapport-2022-du-hcr-sur-leducation-campagne-pour-leducation-des-refugies-inclusion-totale-et>

Arjona Soberón, M., Reuter, L. & Chibuzor, A. (2017). Accessing Higher Education in Europe: Challenges for Refugee Students & Strategies to Overcome Them from Projet SUCRE: *Supporting University Community Pathways for Refugees-Migrants*. European Commission.

<https://ec.europa.eu/migrant-integration/sites/default/files/2018-08/SUCRE-IO1-FinalPublication.pdf>

Auger, N. (2018). Developing Competence for French as a Foreign Language within a Plurilingual Paradigm. In S. Coffey & U. Wingate (Dir.), *New Directions for Research in Foreign Language Education*. Routledge.

Ballinger, S., Lau, S. M. C. & Quevillon-Lacasse, C. (2020). Pédagogie interlinguistique : exploiter les transferts en classe. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 76(4), 278-292.

<https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr-76.4.001-fr>

Baubet, T. & Saglio-Yatzimirsky, M. C. (2019). Santé mentale des migrants : des blessures invisibles. Une prévalence élevée du trouble de stress post-traumatique et de la dépression. *La Revue du Praticien*, 69(6), 672-675.

Beacco, J.-C. (2012). Inclusion et réussite scolaire : pour une didactique de l'urgence. In C. Klein (Ed.), *Le français comme langue de scolarisation. Accompagner, enseigner, évaluer, se former* (pp. 52-54). Futuroscope : CNDP-CRDP.

Blaser, C. & Pollet, M.-C. (2010). *L'appropriation des écrits universitaires*. Namur : Diptyque.

Boch, F. & Frier, C. (Dir.) (2020). *Écrire dans l'enseignement supérieur*. Grenoble : UGA Editions (1ère édition, Ellug, 2015).

Bruen, J. et Kelly, N. (2016). Language Teaching in a Globalised World: Harnessing Linguistic Super-Diversity in the Classroom. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13(3), 333-352.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2016.1142548>

Commissariat général aux réfugiés et aux apatrides (CGRA) (2022). *Statistiques d'asile Décembre 2022*. https://www.cgra.be/sites/default/files/statistiques_dasile_decembre_2022.pdf

Commission européenne/EACA/Eurydice (2019). *L'intégration des demandeurs d'asile et des réfugiés dans l'enseignement supérieur en Europe : politiques et mesures nationales*. Rapport Eurydice. Luxembourg : Office des publications de l'Union européenne.

Coordination et initiatives pour réfugiés et étrangers (CIRÉ) (2019). *Guide pratique de la procédure de protection internationale en Belgique*. <https://www.cire.be/publication/nouveau-guide-de-la-procedure-de-protection-internationale-en-belgique/>

Coulon, A. (1997). *Le métier d'étudiant. L'entrée dans la vie universitaire*. Paris: Presses universitaires de France.

Cummins, J. (1981). The Role of Primary Language Development in Promoting Educational Success for Language Minority Students. In California State Department of Education (Dir.), *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Rationale* (pp. 3-49). California State University. <http://rgdoi.net/10.13140/2.1.1334.9449>

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, Power, and Pedagogy: Bilingual Children in the Crossfire*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853596773>

Degée, S. (2021). Être réfugié syrien et étudier : parcours et dispositifs au sein de l'enseignement supérieur. In S. Degée & A. Manço (Dir.), *Une décennie d'exil syrien : présences et inclusion en Europe* (pp. 177-196). L'Harmattan.

Flores, N. & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing Appropriateness: Raciolinguistic Ideologies and Language Diversity in Education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 85(2), 149-171. <https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149>

García, O., Bartlett, L. & Kleifgen, J. (2007). 8. From Biliteracy to Pluriliteracies. Dans P. Auer et Li Wei (Dir.), *Handbook of Multilingualism and Multilingual Communication* (pp. 207-228). Mouton de Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110198553.2.207>

García, O. & Li Wei. (2014). *Translanguaging : Language, Bilingualism and Education*. Palgrave Pivot. <http://link.springer.com/book/10.1057/9781137385765/page/1>

Garrau, M. (2018). *Politiques de la vulnérabilité*. CNRS éditions.

Herroudi, L. (2022). *Parcours post-migratoire : asile, traumatisme et résilience, différentes trajectoires. Comparaison de la santé mentale et des difficultés post-migratoires des migrants réguliers et des migrants irréguliers en Belgique*. Mémoire de fin d'études. Université de Liège. <http://hdl.handle.net/2268.2/15332>

Hidden, M.-O. (2013). *Pratiques d'écriture. Apprendre à rédiger en langue étrangère*. Paris : Hachette FLE.

Lüdi, G. (2021). Promoting Plurilingualism and Plurilingual Education. In E. Piccardo, A. Germain-Rutherford et G. Lawrence (Dir.), *The Routledge Handbook of Plurilingual Language Education* (pp. 29-45). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351002783>

Mangiante, J.-M. & Parpette, C. (2011). *Le Français sur objectif universitaire*. Grenoble : PUG.

Martinet, E. H. G. & Damásio, B. F. (2021). Relationships between Cultural Adaptation and Immigrants' Well-Being. *Psico Usf*, 26(3), 467-481. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1413-82712021260306>

- Mercier, D., Chiffolleau, D. & Thoemmes, J. (2021). Temps et migrations. *Temporalités*, 33. <http://journals.openedition.org/temporalites/8883>
- Metraux, J.-C. (2017). L'impact du vécu des réfugiés sur leur apprentissage de la langue d'accueil. *Babylonia*, 1, 19-23.
- Meunier, D. (2020). Des effets de l'expérience altéritaire sur les compétences métadiscursives des étudiant-es-scripteur-es allophones. *Revue TDFLE*, 76. https://doi.org/10.34745/numerev_1290
- Meunier, D. (2021). Former à l'écrit académique en français langue seconde ou étrangère. In C. Scheepers (Ed.), *Former à l'écrit, former par l'écrit dans l'enseignement supérieur*. Bruxelles : De Boeck Supérieur.
- Meunier, D., & Dezutter, O. (2022). De la compétence d'écriture et de son évaluation à l'université : analyse de postures d'enseignant.es en sciences humaines. In G. Simons, C. Delarue-Breton & D. Meunier (Ed.), *Formation des enseignants et écrits de recherche, écrits professionnalisants, écrits réflexifs : quelles dynamiques ?* (pp. 129-144). Liège : Presses universitaires de Liège.
- Omer, D. (2013). L'évaluation des pratiques rédactionnelles d'étudiants en master de didactique du FLE : un déni des compétences bi-plurilingues ? In Bigot V. et al. (Dir.), *Vers le plurilinguisme ? Vingt ans après* (pp. 241-250). Paris : Éditions des archives contemporaines.
- Perruchoud, R. (2007). *Glossaire de la Migration. Droit International de la Migration*. OIM Organisation internationale pour les Migrations. https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/iml_9_fr.pdf
- Posselt, M., McIntyre, H., Ngcanga, M., Lines, T. & Procter, N. (2020). The Mental Health Status of Asylum Seekers in Middle-to High-Income Countries: A Synthesis of Current Global Evidence. *British Medical Bulletin*, 134(1), 4-20.
- Rentel, N. (2009). Différences interculturelles dans le discours universitaire : une analyse contrastive du type de texte « résumé » en français et en allemand. In Defays, J.-M. et al. (Ed.), *Acteurs et contextes des discours universitaires*, tome 2 (pp. 285-300). Paris : L'Harmattan.
- Ristea, P. (2020). L'appropriation des écrits académiques en FLE. *Revue TDFLE*, 76. https://doi.org/10.34745/numerev_1289
- Zeiter, A.-C., Maurer, B. (2021). Penser la langue et son appropriation pour évaluer : vers des outils concrets et adaptés. Présentation du numéro. *Revue TDFLE*, 79. https://doi.org/10.34745/numerev_1732