

MIGRANTS, MINORITIES AND EDUCATION

DOCUMENTING DISCRIMINATION AND INTEGRATION IN 15 MEMBER STATES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

on behalf of the European Monitoring Centre on
Racism and Xenophobia (EUMC)

Report submitted by
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Foreword

This study presents a unique collection of material on the situation of migrants and minorities in the European Union in the field of education. Covering the years 2001 to 2003, the study provides a comparative analysis of the state of integration, educational achievements and existing discrimination of minority pupils and students.

The main focus of this study is on different forms of disadvantages and unequal treatment experienced by migrants and minorities in school, university and vocational education across the EU Member States. Besides this, an overview of good practices shows each country's efforts to improve the educational situation of these groups, e.g. by carrying out language programmes or offering inter-cultural training. The study finishes with selected recommendations to European Union institutions and Member States.

School attainment and the quality of education have a decisive impact on the pupils' future employment opportunities. Unfortunately, evidence gathered in this study shows that despite numerous endeavours to improve the educational accomplishments of migrants and minorities, for the most part, their achievements lag behind that of the majority groups. However, in several countries young migrants of the second generation tend to perform better than their peers who arrived more recently. I hope that this report will raise public and official awareness on the issue of discrimination in the educational sector and will contribute to the creation of equal opportunities for all children and young people living in the EU.

The data for this report was compiled for the EUMC by its RAXEN National Focal Points in each of the (at the time) 15 Member States. The EUMC then invited an independent researcher to bring this material together in the form of the current report. I would like to thank the author of the report Dr. Mikael Luciak and all the National Focal Points of the EUMC RAXEN information network for their effort and the comprehensive work they produced.

Beate Winkler

1. Executive Summary

The objective of the EU-comparative study was to analyse the situation of migrants and ethnic minorities in the education sector in order to provide the European Community and its Member States with information on how to enhance equality and diversity and to reduce racism, discrimination, and other forms of exclusion. The study is based on country reports from 15 EU Member States conducted by the National Focal Points (NFPs) of the EUMC's Racism and Xenophobia in Europe Network (RAXEN) and includes further research by the author.

The study looks at forms of discrimination and disadvantages experienced by migrants and minorities as well as at each country's efforts to improve the educational situation of these groups. The disadvantaged situation of migrants and minorities in the education sector is analysed on the basis of official enrolment and achievement data concerning all educational levels. Evidence of discriminatory practices as well as of good practices is compiled from all NFP reports. The study also includes descriptions of special school programmes, curricula, and pedagogical interventions to foster integration and equality in education.

In spite of endeavours to improve the educational attainment of migrants and minorities, for the most part, their educational achievements lag behind that of the majority groups. In particular, migrants from non-EU countries and some national autochthonous minority groups are faced with high rates of underachievement, which in many ways limits their future employment opportunities and negatively impacts their livelihood. The reasons for this phenomenon are complex, but it appears that inadequate pedagogical approaches, ethnic discrimination in educational institutions, and inequalities in society, on a larger scale, contribute to this situation.

Many Member States have long-established immigrant communities; in addition some are confronted with a more recent increase in migration. There are differences in the ethnic composition of the Member States, such as overall size and types of ethnic groups, which makes a direct comparison of the countries rather difficult. The comparability of data is even more complicated due to different categorisations of groups used in the data collections, differences regarding the availability of differentiated data, and diverse educational systems.

Overall, migrants and minorities tend to enrol in schools with lower academic demands. They are over-represented in vocationally oriented tracks and in special education. They finish school earlier and have higher dropout rates. However, differences exist between ethnic minority groups, some of which even surpass the majority populations on certain educational levels. There are also differences in educational attainment between migrants who arrived more recently and migrants of the second generation, the latter showing somewhat of a better performance in several countries. Across all ethnic groups, females with a migrant or minority

background generally do better than males, particularly at the primary and secondary level.

The study shows that all education systems have implemented new programmes and curricula in order to meet the needs of a more diverse body of pupils. This includes second language and native language programmes, intercultural education, and multicultural curricula. In addition, some countries have implemented special teacher training programmes and have attempted to institute a more diverse teacher body. These programmes vary in quality, form and extent between countries and their practical significance is often not evaluated. Aside from that, the NFPs report various good practice examples from NGOs and governmental organisations such as anti-discrimination initiatives and affirmative action programmes.

In recent years, all Member States have implemented new legislation enforcing equality and anti-discrimination. This development is fostered by EU directives and regulations. However, effective monitoring systems on discrimination in education are lacking in most countries. Various forms of direct and indirect discrimination have been observed in the Member States and reported by the NFPs. Reports include segregation in schools (school classes with only minority pupils), residential segregation (school districts with an over-representation of minorities), discrepancies between public and private school admittance as well as between prestigious and ordinary educational institutions. Exclusion of individual pupils (e.g. because of wearing a headscarf) or of entire groups of pupils (e.g. Roma pupils) has also been reported. Study results on "perceived discrimination" show that many migrants and minorities have been exposed to harassment, discrimination, and prejudice, including some extreme right-wing xenophobic incidences in schools.

The comparative study spells out specific recommendations to the EU and its Member States in order to improve data collection and proposes necessary steps that have to be taken to further improve the educational situation of migrants and minorities.

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Part One

2. Introduction

2.1. Objectives and Organisation of the Study

The objectives of the comparative study on the situation of migrants and minorities in the education area are to provide the European Community and its Member States with helpful information, analysis, and recommendations in order to enhance equality and diversity and to reduce racism, discrimination, and other forms of exclusion within the European Union. In particular, the study intends to offer insights into the specific situation in each of the Member States regarding the existence, availability or lack of data, and information in the thematic area. Furthermore, the goal is to develop strategies for the improvement of comparability of data on the EU level.

There are three main parts in the comparative study. Part One includes theoretical and methodological considerations, Part Two describes, compares and analyses existing data and evidence, and Part Three draws conclusions and offers suggestions. Following the Executive Summary, Part One lays out the objectives and organisation of the study (Section 2.1.) and describes the procedure in which the study was conducted (Section 2.2.). Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical and methodological framework for data collection on discrimination and inequalities in education (Section 3.1.). This chapter also provides a detailed analysis of the various official terms and categories used in the collection of educational data in the EU Member States and discusses resulting problems related to the comparability of existing data and to lack of data (Section 3.2.). Part Two contains the description, comparison and analysis of existing data and is subdivided into five chapters. Chapter 4 describes general enrolment trends and enrolments of migrants and ethnic minorities in primary and secondary education, in special education, and in institutions of higher education (Sections 4.1., 4.6.). Chapter 5 examines the educational achievement of migrants and minorities and highlights factors that influence underachievement (5.1., 5.2.). Chapter 6 focuses on the educational situation of national autochthonous and indigenous minorities. Chapter 7 describes native language, second language, and intercultural school programmes. This chapter also includes good practice examples for reducing racism, xenophobia, and anti-Semitism and for fostering diversity (Sections 7.1., 7.4.). Chapter 8 looks at antiracism-legislation and at acts of direct and indirect discrimination (Sections 8.1., 8.2.). Part Three provides conclusions and recommendations (Section 9.1., 9.2.).

2.2. Process of Conducting the Comparative Study

The author has been contracted by the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (EUMC) to write a EU level comparative study, based on, and after performing a quality control (peer review) of 15 national studies on the education sector. These studies were produced by the National Focal Points (NFPs) of the EUMC's Racism and Xenophobia in Europe Network (RAXEN). In order to fulfil its mission of providing the Community and its Member States with objective, reliable, and comparable data that can be helpful in the fight against racism at the European level,¹ the EUMC has set up RAXEN, which is composed of National Focal Points in all 15 Member States. The 15 NFP reports on education are based on data collected during 2001 and during the first half of 2002 (Phase RAXEN 3). In order to avoid substantial data gaps in the comparative study and to improve the comparability of available data, the author decided, after approval by the EUMC, to include new information from the RAXEN 4 education reports, which are based on data collected during 2002 and during the first half of 2003. On the basis of the RAXEN 3 and 4 education reports, as well as of a survey of additional relevant literature and further research by the author, the comparative report was submitted in October 2003.

¹ Council Regulation (1035/97/EC) of 2 June 1997.

3. Theoretical, Methodological, and Terminological Considerations

3.1. Theoretical and Methodological Framework

Institutional education appears to have a twofold effect on the situation of migrants and ethnic minorities. On the one hand, education offers the opportunity to get ahead in society. Special programmes (e.g. language instruction and intercultural programmes) can facilitate learning and foster the integration process by building bridges between communities and individuals from diverse backgrounds. On the other hand, education reproduces inequalities if discriminatory practices, such as exclusion and segregation, lead to lower educational attainments of disadvantaged minority groups.

It is easier to trace inequalities regarding access to and performance in education based on mechanisms of exclusion and segregation than disadvantages caused by other more subtle discriminatory practices. Generally, it can be said that it is often not clearly discernible what constitutes discrimination in education. Many NFP reports offer definitions of discrimination and several of them refer to the Council Directive (2000/43/EC) on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of "racial" or ethnic origin, which was supposed to be applied by national laws of all EU Member States by 19 July 2003. The Directive defines the concepts "direct" and "indirect" discrimination, stating that "direct discrimination shall be taken to occur where one person is treated less favourably than another is, has been or would be treated in a comparable situation on grounds of racial or ethnic origin" and "indirect discrimination shall be taken to occur where an apparently neutral provision, criterion or practice would put persons of a racial or ethnic origin at a particular disadvantage compared with other persons, unless that provision, criterion or practice is objectively justified by a legitimate aim and the means of achieving that aim are appropriate and necessary concerned."² Aside from direct and indirect discrimination, forms of institutional discrimination (i.e. discrimination caused by institutions and public authorities) are often mentioned in the education sector. Since it is difficult to assess to what degree differences in educational performance and outcome between different ethnic groups are influenced by discriminatory practices, this study looks at different factors that can be regarded as indicators of discrimination. However, it has to be noted that research clearly pinpointing discrimination as the decisive factor for the existence of inequalities is rare.

As indicators of discrimination this study discusses an over-representation of migrants and minorities in schools with lower academic demands or in special education programmes, high (early) dropout rates, or the absence of positive

² Official Journal of the European Communities, Chapter I, General Provisions, Article 2 19.7.2000; L 180/24.

developments in educational performance of minority groups over generations. Factors, that can be regarded as alleviating discrimination and fostering integration, are equal treatment and anti-discrimination policies, effective language support programmes and intercultural curricula, or ethnic diversity among the teaching staff. Various factors, which may contribute to the reproduction of inequalities of migrants and ethnic minorities, are discussed throughout this study as well as measures to counteract these developments.

3.2. Official Terms and Categories

The countries of the European Union use different terms and categories for collecting data on migrants and ethnic minorities in the area of education. These criteria determine how data is collected for educational enrolment or achievement and decide on who receives what kind of services (e.g. native language training, second language training, etc.).

Most countries distinguish pupils and students according to citizenship or nationality. These countries are Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and Spain. Pupils and students with foreign citizenship are categorised as non-citizens, non-nationals, foreign students or aliens. In addition, these categories include subcategories, such as asylum seekers, refugees, or return migrants. Collecting data according to these categories has the result that naturalised citizens or members of the second or third generation with a foreign background, who were granted citizenship at birth, are no longer recorded separately from the countries' majority group members. As a consequence, depending on each country's situation, a smaller or larger group of pupils and students with a foreign background "disappears" from the statistics. In no EU country, with the exception of Germany, do data on university students differentiate between foreign students who came to the country for the sole purpose of studying, and foreign nationals who permanently live in the country. In countries, which make no statistical distinctions according to ethnicity, data on the schooling situation of specific ethnic groups (e.g. Roma, Kurds, etc.) are not being recorded.

Some countries use other categorisations and collect broader data on immigrants, migrants and descendants. With regard to citizenship status, these categories are less clear. In general, the term immigrant refers to people who have a residence permit in the new country, but no citizenship. However, certain countries include citizens as well as non-citizens in the category immigrants or migrants. The same holds true for the terms of descendants or second-generation immigrants or migrants. There are other countries that collect data by categorising pupils and students according to their foreign, non-native ethnic, or ethnic minority backgrounds. In all those instances, pupils and students can either be nationals of the country of residence or foreign citizens. The disadvantage of categorising groups based on migrant status or ethnicity without specifying citizenship status, is that recent immigrants and members of established ethnic minority groups cannot be distinguished. This makes it more difficult to analyse certain developments (e.g. educational achievement) over time.

In addition to citizenship, migrant status and ethnicity, in some countries data is collected on pupils whose mother tongue or first language is different from the country's majority language. In countries with more than one official language or in which the primary language varies according to region, data is collected on these different language groups. Furthermore, some countries also collect data on national autochthonous or indigenous minorities. Certain countries (e.g. Austria, Denmark, Italy, Sweden, U.K.) distinguish the groups also according to sex. Thus, gender differences in the educational participation and attainment can be shown.

As a consequence of these different categorisations of pupils in each Member State, a direct comparison of the various groups is impossible. Often aggregate data are not useful for analysis because not all countries clearly differentiate between groups, a fact, which leads to groups being lumped together. However, most countries collect separate data on migrants and on national autochthonous or indigenous minorities. The following passage gives an overview of data each country has collected on non-nationals, migrants and descendants, as well as on non-native speakers. Data on national autochthonous or indigenous minorities is discussed in a separate chapter that exclusively deals with the educational situation of these groups.

In **Austria**, education statistics distinguish Austrian nationals from foreign citizens. There are further distinctions between EU-citizens and third country³ nationals and data for various nationality groups. Migrants or descendants who have attained Austrian citizenship are listed as Austrians. Another category used in the data collection is "Pupils with a first language other than German".

In the educational statistics for the Flemish and the French community in **Belgium**, groups are differentiated according to citizenship. Data on the educational system in the French community not only differentiates EU from non-EU nationals, but also the largest nationality groups in either categories.

Statistics in **Denmark** distinguish between immigrants and descendants. A person born outside of Denmark is an immigrant, if both of the parents are foreign citizens or born outside of Denmark. A person born in Denmark is a descendent, if both of the parents living in Denmark are foreign citizens. The pupils, regardless of being immigrants or descendants, may or may not be Danish citizens. Data may even differentiate between descendants of various nationalities. There is also data distinguishing monolingual from bilingual pupils,⁴ whose first language is not Danish.

Finland uses the category foreign citizens and foreign language speakers. There is also data showing the number of Finnish and Swedish speakers in schools.

³ Non-EU nationals.

⁴ It should be noted that the term "bilingual" is not used strictly according to its definition by either officials and practitioners or researchers. Descendants with little knowledge of their parents' mother tongue will also be described as bilingual as well as newcomers who do not speak Danish. The term has thus also become a synonym for "ethnic minority background".

The data presented for **France** is based on the foreign nationality of the child. The category on foreign pupils includes new immigrants as well as foreign pupils born in France, but not pupils of immigrant origin who obtained French citizenship. Distinctions are made between EU and non-EU citizens and data on different nationality groups are collected.

Education statistics in **Germany** differentiate Germans from migrants with foreign nationality. There is data distinguishing nationals from EU and non-EU citizens and from various nationality groups.

Statistics on education in **Greece** distinguish Greek pupils from immigrants. These immigrants are either foreign or ethnic Greek immigrants who have returned to Greece from other countries.

Ireland collects educational data distinguishing groups according to citizenship. Some statistics differentiate between EU and non-EU citizens and certain nationality groups.

Italy distinguishes between Italian and non-Italian pupils according to citizenship. Further group distinctions are made between EU-nationals, other Europeans, Asians and Africans.

There is also data on foreign pupils in **Luxembourg** and distinctions are made between EU and non-EU citizens as well as certain nationality groups.

The **Netherlands** collects data on pupils with non-Dutch ethnic background, irrespective of citizenship status. Different terms, such as ethnic or cultural minorities and "allochtonen" are used interchangeably. An ethnic minority pupil is defined as someone who was born in one of the so-called target group countries or someone who has at least one parent born in a target group country. The definition of target groups is part of the policy on disadvantaged peoples, for whom an extra school budget is made available for overcoming learning lags. Since not all countries of origin are regarded as criteria for disadvantage, certain countries have been selected as "target" countries. Target countries include Turkey, Morocco, Surinam, Netherlands Antilles, Aruba, Greece, Italy, former Yugoslavia, Portugal, Spain, Cape Verde Islands, and Tunisia. The term is often used to refer to people who are socially disadvantaged. Cultural minorities (CUMI pupils) can be recognised by pupil weights in primary education.⁵ These pupil weights vary from 1 (native Dutch child from a non-disadvantaged background) to 1.9 (non-native child from a disadvantaged family).⁶ In secondary education

⁵ Dutch National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p. 10.

⁶ The pupil weights regulation refers to the *added* weight that is given to these pupils. An ordinary pupil counts as 1, others whose parents are socially disadvantaged and have little education as 1.25, 1.4, 1.7, or 1.9. Not all foreign pupils are 1.9 pupils. Usually these are children whose parents have not gone beyond preparatory vocational school, whose most earning parent or guardian has no earnings and whose parent or parents belong to one of the integration policy's target ethnic minority groups or is from a non-English-speaking country outside Europe, with the exception of Indonesia.

group distinctions for CUMI pupils are different, because the definition of the target group is narrower.⁷

Portugal uses the category "cultural groups and nationalities" to collect data on pupils of foreign nationality, returned emigrants and Roma. The aggregate data lump together all groups but in some statistics distinctions are made between various non-EU nationality groups, EU-nationals, returned emigrants and Roma. There is also data on pupils whose mother tongue is not Portuguese.

Statistics on education in **Spain** distinguish groups according to citizenship. There are differentiations between EU and non-EU nationals and various subcategories such as South Americans, Africans, or other Europeans.

Sweden collects data on foreign background. This category includes pupils born to foreign parents in Sweden and pupils born abroad. Some statistics distinguish between EU and non-EU nationals or different nationality groups. There is also data on pupils with another first language than Swedish.

The **U.K.** distinguishes groups according to race rather than according to citizenship. Up until 2003, the categories used for recording data relating to minority ethnic communities in education were inconsistent. The categories used for ethnic data monitoring since 2003 are: White (White British, White Irish, Traveller of Irish heritage, Gypsy/Roma, Greek/Greek Cypriot, Turkish/Turkish Cypriot; White European); Mixed (White and Black Caribbean, White and Black African, White and Asian); Asian or Asian British (Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, any other Asian background); Chinese (Hong Kong Chinese, other Chinese); Black or Black British (Caribbean, African, any other Black background); any other ethnic background (Afghan, Arab, Filipino, Iranian, Japanese, Malay, Thai, any other ethnic group). The effectiveness of broad use of racial categories has been debated.⁸ In England, data is also collected on pupils with a first language other than English.

⁷ The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science has made the following distinctions:

- Pupils whose ethnicity is based in Bosnia, Greece, Herzegovina, Italy, former Yugoslavia, Cape Verde, Croatia, Morocco, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Tunisia and Turkey;
- Pupils belonging to the Moluccan group and pupils belonging to the Surinamese, Antillean or Aruban Population, who have had less than four years of schooling in the Dutch school system;
- Pupils from Eastern European countries (except East Germany), insofar as they have had less than two years of schooling in the Dutch school system; non-Dutch-speaking pupils from countries outside Europe who received only part of their primary education in the Netherlands, and
- Pupils who are part of a "gypsy" community, or a group of caravan dwellers.

⁸ CFMB (2000) *The Future of Multiethnic Britain (The Parekh Report)*, London: Runnymede Trust; U.K. National Focal Point (2003) *RAXEN 4 Education Report*, pp. 20-21.

Table 1: Official Categories used in Collections of Aggregate Educational Data in the EU Member States

	AT	BE	DE	DK	ES	FI	FR	GR	IE	IT	LU	NL	PT	SE	UK
Foreign Citizens Subgroups	Yes Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes		Yes Yes	Yes	Yes Yes		Yes Yes	Yes Yes	Yes Yes				
Ethnic Minorities Subgroups															Yes Yes
Immigrants Subgroups								Yes Yes							
Immigrants + Descendants Subgroups				Yes Yes											
Non-native Ethnic Background Subgroups												Yes Yes			
Foreign Background Subgroups														Yes	
Cultural Groups + Nationalities Subgroups													Yes Yes		
First Other Language Subgroups	Yes			Yes Yes									Yes	Yes	Yes
Sex	Yes		Yes						Yes					Yes	Yes

Part Two

4. Enrolment of Migrants and Minorities in Education

4.1. Comparison of Education Enrolment Figures (General)

School enrolment figures offer insight into a variety of issues. Depending on the system of categorisation and the differentiation of data, the size of foreign nationality groups, migrants and descendants or ethnic minority groups can be discerned in various educational levels. Data on enrolment trends over years displays increases or decreases of certain groups. Contrary to data on primary school enrolment, secondary school enrolment data shows different school types that are attended by minority members. Looking at such data, one may arrive at conclusions whether more or less academically challenging schools are attended, how many minority members chose academically or vocationally oriented tracks, or how long minority members attend school in general. In addition, enrolment in special education programmes indicates, whether an over-representation of minorities exists in these schools. Finally, university enrolment data informs about the participation of foreign nationals and minorities in higher education.

Several problems complicate a direct comparison of school enrolment data across countries. EU Member States tend to use different group categories when collecting enrolment data. As it was shown above, most countries distinguish groups by citizenship (Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg and Spain). Some countries, however, use other categorisations and collect data on minority group members who can be either nationals or non-nationals of the country of residence (Greece, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, U.K. and Denmark). Another category sometimes used to distinguish between majority and minority group members is the pupils' first language. Some countries offer data on second language or foreign language speakers or on pupils that are enrolled in second language courses. In addition to data on migrants and descendants, some countries also collect enrolment data on national autochthonous or indigenous minorities.

Each system of collecting data has its advantages and disadvantages. Statistics that distinguish groups only by citizenship do not record the situation of naturalised migrants (e.g. of some second or third generation migrants) or of particular ethnic groups (e.g. Roma or Kurds). Statistics on ethnic minorities only or statistics using mixed categories often do not highlight differences between newcomers and established ethnic minorities. All this is particularly problematic

when differentiated data on the various groups is missing and only aggregate data is supplied.

In addition, the different length of schooling in the given countries' primary or secondary schools further complicates a direct comparison of data. Data on enrolment at the university or higher education level often does not distinguish between foreign nationals or minorities who live in the country, and others who came to the country just for the purpose of studying. Given all these obstacles, the different categorisations in the Member States do not allow for an informative comparison of all countries' enrolment data in education.

4.2. Enrolment Trends

This section looks at enrolment trends of migrant and ethnic minority pupils but not of national autochthonous or indigenous minorities. Several EU Member States have had migrants and minorities in the education system for a longer period of time. There are countries with a colonial past and also an early experience with foreign workers (e.g. France, UK, the Netherlands). Many of the minority members in these countries have attained citizenship. Some other countries that recruited so-called "guest-workers" in the second half of the last century have now substantial migrant populations (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, Sweden). These countries have significant populations who are non-nationals of their countries of residence and are commonly referred to as "migrants" or "immigrants". However, one has to keep in mind that part of the migrant population has acquired citizenship of their new country and in this way has disappeared from the statistics on foreign populations. The education system of several countries has to deal with the effects of more recent immigration (e.g. Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Finland, Ireland, and, to some extent, Denmark). While the absolute increase of school enrolment of migrants and minorities depends on new immigration, some countries with little new immigration still show a relative increase of migrants and minorities among the school population. This is caused by lower birth rates among the majority population.

In **Austria**, a large proportion of the migrant school population, at present more than 10% of the school children in compulsory schools, is due to the immigration of foreign workers (mainly from former Yugoslavia and Turkey) between the 1960s and 1980s. Today, new immigration is limited but the share of migrants in the school system is still increasing. On the whole, the foreign population is younger than the Austrian population and birth rates among the majority population are lower.

In **Belgium**, there are more foreign pupils in the French community (above 10% in primary and secondary schools) than in the Flemish community (around 4-6%). The largest groups of foreigners come from Italy, France, Morocco, the Netherlands and Turkey. While there has been an increase of immigration in the last years, many foreigners living in the country became naturalised citizens, which resulted in an apparent decrease of the foreign population.

In **Denmark**, school enrolment of immigrants and descendants of immigrants has been increasing in the compulsory school system from 7.8% ethnic minority pupils in 1997/98 to 9.2% in 2001/02. For example, more pupils from former Yugoslavia, Turkey, Morocco, and Pakistan are being educated today compared to the 1990s.

Finland, reports a growing population of foreign pupils in the education system. The largest nationality groups are from Russia, Estonia, Sweden, and Somalia. While the foreign population in the country almost doubled in the last decade, the proportion of foreign pupils in the school system is still less than 3%.

In **France**, the number of foreign pupils has been decreasing since the mid-1980s and amounts now about 5-6% in compulsory schooling. The nationalities mostly represented are Moroccans, Algerians, Turks, and Portuguese.

In **Germany**, the population of foreign pupils has been considerably high, mostly as a result of the migration of foreign labourers from the 1960s to the 1980s. There has also been an inflow of many ethnic German immigrants (the so-called "Spätaussiedler" or ethnic German returnees from Russia and Eastern European countries) but most of them are registered as Germans in the official statistics. Many pupils with citizenship from Turkey or Yugoslavia attend German schools. In the last decade the migration inflow decreased but the share of migrant pupils in the school system increased. The enrolment rate of foreign pupils is above 9% of the school children in all schools, but above 12% in primary schools.

In **Greece**, the number of returning ethnic Greek and foreign immigrant pupils attending primary schools doubled since the mid-1990s and is now at more than 10% of the total primary school population. Many new immigrants came from Albania and from the former Soviet Union.

Ireland, which traditionally has been a country of emigration, has had a significant increase of migrant workers from outside the European Economic Area as well as inward migration from returning Irish nationals in the last years. Still, less than 3% of foreign nationals now attend Irish secondary schools, in which the largest foreign nationality groups come from the U.K. and Nigeria.⁹

In **Italy**, the foreign pupils' population has increased drastically in the last two decades, but is still at a low level. While few foreign pupils attended Italian schools in the early 1980s, their proportion in primary schools accounts about 3% today. More than half of the foreign pupils are non-Europeans, most of whom coming from Africa and Asia.

In **Luxembourg**, the number of pupils with foreign citizenship has been considerably high in the last decade. They make up almost 40% of the primary school population today. Many foreign pupils hold a citizenship from Portugal, France, Italy, Belgium or former Yugoslavia.

⁹ Data for primary schools distinguishing groups by nationality has not been supplied.

Many pupils with non-Dutch ethnic background attend the school system of **the Netherlands**. Due to an increase of new groups of non-Western origin, such as Afghans and Iraqis, and due to the growth of the second-generation population, today, about 15% of the pupils in primary schools have a non-Dutch ethnic background. The largest groups come from Turkey, Surinam, Morocco, the Dutch Antilles, and Aruba.

There has been a steady increase in the foreign school population in **Portugal** in the last three decades. Today, between 6 and 7% of foreign nationalities and cultural groups (including Roma) attend primary schools. Among the largest migrant groups are pupils from Cape Verde, Angola and Guinea.

In **Spain**, since the mid-1990s, a gradual reduction of the total number of pupils was accompanied by a sharp increase of the population of foreign pupils. While in the past most foreign pupils came from Europe, today the largest migrant groups are from South America and Africa. Overall, the amount of foreign pupils in the Spanish school system accounts less than 5%, which is low compared to other countries.

In **Sweden**, the population of pupils with a foreign background has been fairly stable over the last five years. Today, they make up about 12% of the total pupil body in compulsory schools. Among the largest groups are pupils from Finland, Iraq and Yugoslavia.

In the **United Kingdom**, racial minorities have been present in the education system for decades. Today minority groups in England make up 11 to 12% in the primary and secondary school system. Some minority groups, such as British Blacks and Asians even have descendants of the fourth generation. However, there is still a large group of pupils whose primary language is not English. In England they amount to 9-10% of the school population.

Main Results:

- The comparability of education enrolment data is low due to different categorisations of groups in the Member States' data collections and due to the varying education systems.¹⁰
- Large differences exist between the EU countries regarding the size of migrant and ethnic minority groups and the different nationalities and ethnicities in the education systems.
- In particular there are differences between countries with a colonial past and an early experience with foreign workers (e.g. France, UK, the Netherlands), countries that recruited so-called "guest-workers" in the second half of the last century (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, Sweden) and countries with more recent immigration (e.g. Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Finland, Ireland, and, to some extent, Denmark).

¹⁰ An overview of education systems in Europe is available at: <http://www.euroeducation.net/> (12.5.2003).

4.3. Comparison of Education Enrolment Figures in Primary Education

Data on primary school enrolment offers information on the group size and on the percentage of migrant pupils, of pupils with a foreign background, or of ethnic minorities. If more differentiated data is supplied, the largest foreign nationality or ethnic minority groups in a country can be recognised.

As stated previously, several factors influence the comparability of the available data. The use of different categories in the collection of data on enrolment does not allow for a direct comparison of participation of the target groups in primary schools in all Member States. While some countries offer more differentiated data, others only offer aggregate data using broad categories. In addition, some Member States have data available for the most recent school year while the data provided for others is not as up to date. Furthermore, the comparison of data is complicated by the fact that the number of school years in primary education varies from country to country. The range varies from countries that collect data on four years of primary school (e.g. Austria, Germany) to others that collect data on nine years of compulsory or basic comprehensive school (e.g. Sweden, Denmark, Finland, and Portugal).

4.3.1. Nationality and Ethnic Minority Group Size (aggregate data)

Among the countries which report data on recent school years¹¹ distinguishing groups according to citizenship, Luxembourg has the highest (37,9% in the 6-year primary school) and Finland the lowest percentage (2,4% in the 9-year basic comprehensive school) of pupils with foreign citizenship. Other countries with more than 10% of pupils with foreign citizenship are Austria (11,6%) and Germany (12,1%) in the 4-year primary schools. While the French community in Belgium has 11,9%, the Flemish community has 6,4% in the 6-year primary schools. Countries with less than 10% enrolment of pupils with foreign citizenship are Spain (3,5% in the 6-year primary school), as well as France (5,9%), and Italy (3%) in the 5-year primary schools. Ireland did not provide data for primary education enrolment but reports less than 3% enrolment of foreign pupils in secondary schools, indicating that the number of foreign pupils in primary schools might be low compared to many other countries.

Among the countries that use other categories than citizenship to differentiate minority groups from the majority school population, Denmark reports about 9,3% bilingual pupils in compulsory primary and lower secondary schools (9 years), Greece has 10,7% migrants in the 6-year primary school, the Netherlands 15,1% pupils with Non-Dutch ethnic background in the 8-year primary school, Portugal 6,8% members of foreign nationality and cultural groups and Sweden about 12% pupils with foreign background in the 9-year compulsory schools. The United Kingdom reports 13,8% ethnic minorities in the 6-year primary school.

¹¹ See: Table 2 on p.18.

Looking at total numbers, it appears that Germany and France have the largest group of foreign nationality pupils. In the school year 2001/02, there were 367.858 foreign pupils in the four-year "Grundschule" in Germany and in 1999/2000 there were 372.268 in the five-year French elementary school.

The smallest number of foreign pupils was in Finland's nine-year basic comprehensive school (in 2002, the number was 14.300) and in Luxembourg's six-year primary school (11.532 in 2000/01). Among the countries that collect data on pupils according to other categories than citizenship, the largest minority communities can be found in the Netherlands and in England. In 2000/01, in the Netherlands, 248.244 pupils with non-Dutch Ethnic Background attended the eight-year long primary school (age 4-12, with the first year not being compulsory) and 478.600 pupils from ethnic minorities attended the six-year primary school in England.

4.3.2. Largest Nationality and Ethnic Minority Groups

Several countries supplied data on the attendance of major nationality or ethnic minority groups in primary schools. Often the non-EU/third country nationalities are the largest groups. In Austria, in 2001/02, 5,8% of the pupils were citizens from former Yugoslavia and 3,5% of the pupils had a Turkish citizenship. In the same year in the French community in Belgium, one third of all foreign nationals were from Africa, mainly from Morocco and the Congo. In the school year 2001/2002, Germany had 5,5% Turkish foreign nationals and 0,9% from today's Yugoslavia. In 1999/00, the largest non-EU nationality groups in France were from Morocco (23,1%), Algeria (14,5%), and Turkey (12,9%). In Greece, in the same school year, 82,7% of the immigrants were from Albania and 30,4% of the immigrants were ethnic Greeks from the Newly Independent States of the Former Soviet Union (NIS). In Portugal, in 1999/00, 28,4% of the most represented minorities were from Cape Verde and 15,1% from Angola. In the U.K., only England provides detailed data on ethnic minority groups. In the school year of 2002/03, White British were the majority group (79,5%). Among ethnic minorities, Pakistani (2,8%), Indian (2,15%), and Bangladeshi (1,15%) were the largest groups in the category Asian or Asian British, Africans (1,8%) and Caribbeans (1,5%) were the largest groups in the Black or Black British communities. There was also a sizeable Chinese community (0,3%). Furthermore, the category "Mixed" (3%) included fairly large groups.¹²

Main Results:

- The comparability of primary school enrolment data from the EU Member States is low due to different categorisations and differentiations used in the data collections, different length of schooling at the primary level and differences in the availability of the data on the most recent school years.
- Significant variations in relative and absolute numbers exist between countries regarding the size of migrant and ethnic minority groups.

¹² DfES; available at: <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/statistics/catego.html#m1> (16/5/03); own calculation.

- The largest nationality and ethnic minority groups vary from country to country. However, some commonalities exist between certain countries. For example, Austria and Germany have a large primary school population with a citizenship from Yugoslavia. There are many Turkish citizens in Austrian, French and German schools. Belgium, France, and Portugal have a large African school population.

Table 2: Primary Schools – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	AT	BE	DE	DK	ES
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens ¹³	Foreign citizens (Migrants)	Bilingual pupils	Foreign citizens
School year	2001/02	2001/02	20001/02	2001/02	2001/02
Duration (years) Age	4 6-10	6 6-12	4 6-10	9 6-15 (Compulsory)	6 6-12
Total number	44 768	FL: 14 936 FR: 17 251	367 858	53 446	87 526
%	11.6%	FL: 6.39% FR: 11.89%	12.1%	9.3%	3.5%
Source	Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (BMBWK); own calculation by Austrian National Focal Point (Report 2002)	Statistical year book of Flemish education (2001-2002) Ministère de la Communauté Française	German Federal Statistical Office, own calculation	The Ministry of Education, Folkeskolen I tal (The National primary and lower second. School in numbers 2003) http://pub.uvm.dk/2003/folkeskolen/folkeskolenital0102.pdf	Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport
Main subgroups or nationalities	Former Yugoslav.: 11 668 (5.8%, of whom 47.8% female); Turkey: 6 974 (3.5%, of whom 48.2% female)	FL: 1/3 rd EU citizens (main: France, Italy); FR: 1/3 rd Africa (main Morocco, Congo)	Turkey: 177 518 (5.5%) Yugosl. ¹⁴ : 30 207 (0.9%)	Turkey (20%) Bosnia (7%) Pakistan (6%) Somalia (6%) Other Middle East Countries (14%)	

¹³ Data for the Flemish (FL) and French (FR) Communities.

¹⁴ Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (successor state to Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia).

Table 2 (continued): Primary Schools – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	FI¹⁵	FR	GR	IE	IT
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens ¹⁶	Immigrants ¹⁷	Not supplied	Foreign citizens
School year	2002	1999/00	1999/00		2001/02
Duration (years)	9	5	6	7	5
Age	7-16 (Basic Compreh.)	6-11 (1st year prep.)	6-12	4-11	6-11
Total number	14 300	372 268	58 571		76 662
%	2.4%	5.9%	10.7%		3%
Source	NBE, Statistics Finland 2002	Repères et Références Statistiques – 2002 sur les enseignements, la formation et la recherche, Ministry of Youth, National Education and Research (MJENR) own calculation	SSEIGE, Education Ministry Minority Groups in Education (school years 1995/96 – 2000/01); The Pupil Population Composition in the School year 1999-2000		Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca (M.I.U.R.)
Main subgroups or nationalities		EU: 16.1% Portugal: 37 081 (10%) Non EU: 83.9% Morocco: 85 868 (23.1%) Algerie: 54 054 (14.5%) Turkey: 48 100 (12.9%)	69.57% foreigners (of whom 82.7% are Albanians); 30.43% ethnic Greeks from NIS		

¹⁵ Basic Comprehensive School (9 years).

¹⁶ Mainland France, public and private sectors.

¹⁷ Greek and foreign immigrants; Data for 2002-03 to be provided by the Institute for Greek Diaspora Education and Intercultural Studies. Current data might be inaccurate.

Table 2 (continued): Primary Schools – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	LU	NL	PT	SE¹⁸	UK
Category	Foreign citizens Total	Non-Dutch Ethnic Background	Cultural groups/ Nationalities	Foreign background ¹⁹	Ethnic minorities
School year	2000/01	2000/01	1999/00	2001/02	2002/03
Duration (years) Age	6 6-12	8 4-12 (Compulsory age 5)	9 6-15	9 7-16 (Compulsory)	6 5-11
Total number	11 532	248 244	78 425	Approx. 130 000 ²⁰	478 600 (England)
%	37.9%	15.1%	6.77%	Approx. 12% ²¹	13.78% (England)
Source	Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale (MENFPS) +SCRIPT	Ministry of OC&W, Facts and Figures 2002 http://www.minocw.nl/ english_oud/general/ figures/index.html (8.7.2003), own calculation	DPPA – Department for Prospective and Planning Analysis of Ministry of Education	The National Agency for Education	DfES, Pupil Characteristics and Class Sizes in Maintained Schools in England: January 2003 (Provisional). Http://www.dfes.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB /SFR/s000390/index.shtml (9.9.2003)
Main subgroups or nationalities			Cape Verde 28.4% ²² Angola 15.1%		(England) White ²³ : 2 853 800 (82.2%) Black/Bl.British: 127 900 (3.7%) Mixed: 104 200 (3%) Chinese: 10 800 (0.3%) Asian/A.British: 235 700 (6.8%) ²⁴

¹⁸ Compulsory school (9 years).

¹⁹ Pupils who were born to foreign parents in Sweden and abroad, Source: The National Agency for Education; available at: <http://www.skolverket.se/english/system/immigrant.shtml> (20.7.2003).

²⁰ Own calculation on the basis of a total of 1.059.122 pupils in Comprehensive School in 2001/02. Source: The National Agency for Education, Tab12_1.xls; available at: <http://www.skolverket.se/english/statistics/sos/part2.shtml#all> (23.7.2003).

²¹ Pupils in compulsory school who were born to foreign parents in Sweden and abroad (School year not specified) Source: The National Agency for Education; available at: <http://www.skolverket.se/english/system/immigrant.shtml> (23.7.2003).

²² Percentage of most representative minorities (including Roma) in 2001/02; DEB.

²³ Including Gypsies, Travellers, and White Irish.

²⁴ Source: DfES; available at: <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/statistics/catego.html#m1> (16/5/03); own calculation.

4.4. Comparison of Education Enrolment Figures in Secondary Education

Data on secondary school enrolment allows insight into the size of migrant and ethnic minority groups attending these schools. Since school types vary according to academic demands, subject orientation and length of schooling, conclusions can only be drawn, about the participation of group members in the various types of secondary schools. Some countries collect data distinguishing different groups by nationality or minority status, which inform about the representation of the largest groups in the different secondary school types. However, which migrant or minority members become visible in the data collections depends on the different categorisations of each country. For example, the data collection in countries that collect data distinguishing groups by citizenship does not give insight into the schooling situation of naturalised migrants or migrants of the second and third generation who are nationals of the country of residence.

The comparability of data on secondary school enrolment in the EU Member States is in some ways even lower than that of data on primary school enrolment. As has been previously discussed, there are differences regarding group categorisations, data differentiation, data availability for different school years, school types, and the length of schooling. Therefore, only general aspects can be compared, such as attendance of migrants and minorities in school types which are either less academically challenging, more vocationally oriented, or in which schooling ends at an earlier age.

In **Austria**, pupils with foreign citizenship are more likely to attend secondary schools with lower academic demands. While in 2001/02 11,4% of pupils in the main secondary school (*Hauptschule*) were foreign citizens, their share in the general higher secondary schools (Allgemein bildende höhere Schulen) was only 5,6%. The high ratio of 13,9% in the polytechnic year in 9th grade and their lower attendance in academic and vocational upper secondary schools indicates that pupils with foreign citizenship are more likely to end schooling at an earlier age and transition to apprenticeships or employment.

No data was supplied for **Belgium** on attendance of pupils with foreign citizenship in different school types. Aggregate data show that the share of these pupils in secondary schools in the French community (12,44% in 2001/02) is higher than in the Flemish community (4,28%).

In **Germany**, more migrants with foreign citizenship are enrolled in schools with less school years and lower academic demands. For example, their proportion in the *Hauptschule* (17,6% in 2001/02) is higher than in the more challenging Comprehensive School (12,2%) or *Realschule* (6,6%) and much higher than in the academically oriented *Gymnasium* (3,9%). In 2001, their share in vocational schools amounted 7,4%. In the last decade, their numbers dropped in absolute as well as relative terms and it has become more difficult for migrant pupils to begin

training at a vocational school after having finished a general-education school.²⁵ There is a difference in the participation in education between pupils with one parent born in Germany and those whose both parents have immigrated. Pupils from the first group differ only slightly from native pupils regarding their attendance in secondary schools, but pupils with two foreign born parents are considerably over-represented in the *Hauptschule* and considerably under-represented in the academically oriented *Gymnasium*.²⁶

Data from **Denmark** has to be assessed carefully given the relatively small number of immigrants and descendants. Within the last 10 years the number of immigrants who are participating in school education has changed dramatically. As for pupils with a former Yugoslavian, Turkish, Moroccan or Pakistani background, their enrolment in secondary education rose by 20-30% between 1990 and 1999, and there is a 10% increase in immigrants participating in vocational training. The proportion of 4,2% (1999) of immigrants in vocationally oriented secondary schools is much higher than in other school types. In Denmark, 90% of descendants from third countries continue in secondary education. This is a high percentage compared to an overall 95% continuation rate. Descendants are more evenly distributed across the different school types. However, between 1990 and 1999 there has been an 11% decrease in descendants participating in academically oriented upper secondary education.²⁷

In **Spain**, less than half of the share of pupils with foreign citizenship who attend secondary mandatory schooling (2,9% in 2001/02), go on to attend higher secondary education (1,2%). About 1% continues on a vocational training track.

In **Finland**, between the ages of 16 and 19 years, pupils with foreign citizenship are much more likely to attend vocational secondary schools. Their numbers are much higher in this less challenging school-type (2,6%) than in upper secondary schools (1,4%).

Data from **France** shows that the proportion of pupils with foreign citizenship in the 2nd cycle vocational track of secondary schooling is much higher (6,2%) than in the general and technological track (3,6%). Also, pupils with foreign citizenship are over-represented in sections and establishments for Adapted Teaching for children with severe learning or cognitive difficulties (7,4% in 2001/02).

In **Greece**, lower secondary education (Gymnasium) has a much higher participation of immigrants (6,7%) than higher secondary education (1,4%), as data collected for the school year of 1999/2000 indicates.

For **Ireland** only aggregate data was supplied. It shows that the share of pupils with foreign citizenship in secondary schools was 2,74% in 2000.

²⁵ German National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p.21, Table 6: Migrant pupils at vocational school according to school types 1994 to 2001. Original source: Federal Statistical Office.

²⁶ German National Focal Point (2002), p.37.

²⁷ Danish National Focal Point (2003), Annex 3, Table 4.

In **Italy** there also exists an "education gap". The participation of pupils with foreign citizenship in lower secondary schools amounted 2,7% in 2001/02, compared to a participation of only 1% in upper, more academically oriented secondary schools.

In **Luxembourg's** secondary system, the preparatory stream lasts for a period of three years and does not lead to any specific qualification. Secondary technical education can last for a period of three to seven years and aims at a technical matriculation or intermediary qualification. Secondary classic education, on the other hand, aims at matriculation after seven years and prepares for university studies. While the ratio of pupils with foreign citizenship in Luxembourg's preparatory stream was 57,7% in 2000/01, their proportion was 37,3% in secondary technique, and only 13,3% in secondary classic education. Immigration groups, which are concentrated in the preparatory-stream, afterwards face an obvious disadvantage in the labour market.

In the **Netherlands**, pupils with Non-Dutch ethnic background are much more likely to attend pre-vocational secondary schools (proportion of 10,9% in 200/01) than senior general secondary (4,6%) or pre-university tracks (2,8%). In principle, only the last two types, HAVO and VWO, provide what is known as a basic qualification. This means that only pupils with a diploma at this level have a chance to move on to a wider range of possibilities such as professional colleges and universities and are sufficiently qualified to participate in the labour market. Non-natives are over-represented in the lower school levels. However, a distinction should be made here between Western and non-Western non-natives. Pupils from the first group are actually well represented in the higher secondary school levels.²⁸

In **Portugal**, secondary education is optional. Schooling lasts three years and involves pupils from the ages of 15 to 18 years. In addition, there are two tracks, one is a general track and one is technically and vocationally oriented. In 1999/00, the share of foreign nationality and cultural groups in these secondary schools was 2,83%, which shows a lower participation rate compared to primary schools (6,77%). No aggregate data on the members of all foreign cultural and nationality groups in different types of secondary schools was supplied. However, data for specific groups shows that among all foreign cultural and nationality groups, the share of returned migrants²⁹ was higher in general courses (23,2% in 1999/2000) than in technological courses (14,6%) or in recurrent education (14,2%), which is a variant allowing students to have a second educational opportunity. Roma are hardly represented in secondary schools at all, and Angolans are much more likely to be found in recurrent education (proportion of 28% of all foreign cultural and nationality groups) than general (14,1%) or technological (13,1%) courses. By comparison, data on migrants from EU countries shows a proportion of 36.8% in general, 21.7% in technical and 26.6% in secondary recurrent education among all foreign nationality and cultural groups.

²⁸ Dutch National Focal Point (2002), p.17.

²⁹ Portuguese nationals and descendants returning from emigrant countries. Target countries of emigration were mostly Brazil, North American countries, Australia, and some European countries.

Data from **Sweden** shows that in 2002/03, pupils with foreign background made up 14% of the school population in the 17 different national programmes that can be chosen in upper secondary education. The share of pupils with foreign background in the three programmes with the highest overall attendance rate amounted 17% in the natural science programme, 16,2% in the social science programme and 11,4% in the technical programme, which indicates that only in the latter of these three programmes, which all prepare for further studies, pupils with foreign background are under-represented. However, there is an over-representation of pupils with foreign background (36,5%) in so-called "individual programmes" that vary in length and content and are determined by the needs of individual pupils. The aim of these programmes is to transfer pupils into a national or a specially designed programme. The individual programme "PRIV" is especially designed for pupils who are not eligible for national programmes because they do not meet the requirements for passing grades in Swedish, English and Mathematics.³⁰

In the **United Kingdom**, in 2002/03, there were 11,7% ethnic minorities represented in secondary schools.³¹ White British were the majority group (80,3%). Among ethnic minorities, Pakistani (2,3%), Indian (2,4%), and Bangladeshi (0,9%) were the largest groups in the category Asian or Asian British. Africans (1,4%) and Caribbeans (1,4%) were the largest groups in the Black or Black British communities. There was also a sizeable Chinese community (0,4%). Furthermore, the category "Mixed" (1,95%) included fairly large groups.

Main Results:

- Data provided for the above mentioned countries allows the conclusion that migrant and minority pupils more often tend to enrol in secondary schools that are less academically challenging, of shorter duration, and often more vocationally oriented than pupils of the dominant culture.
- This also becomes apparent, if one looks at the situation of specific migrant and minority groups in Member States that supply differentiated data. In particular, the children of migrant workers, such as those with a citizenship from former Yugoslavia (e.g. Austria, Luxembourg), from today's Yugoslavia (e.g. Germany), from Turkey (e.g. Austria, Germany) but also citizens of EU Member States (e.g. Italians in Germany or Portuguese in Luxembourg) are less likely to attend secondary schools which give them access to higher education or to university studies.
- There are indications that in some countries, particular migrant and ethnic minority groups attend academically oriented schools or secondary schools with a longer duration at a higher rate (e.g. pupils from Chinese and Indian backgrounds in England or pupils from the Russian Federation, Poland and Croatia in Germany). This is an example of how a lack of differentiated data often leads to the erroneous assumption that all minority groups attain lower levels of education compared to the general school population.

³⁰ Cf. <http://www.skolverket.se/english/system/upper.shtml> (24.11.2003).

³¹ DfES; available at: <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/statistics/catego.html#m1> (16/5/03); own calculation.

- Many factors have an influence on what types of secondary schools migrant and minority pupils attend, e.g. socio-economic factors, parents' educational background, language competency of the pupils, cultural values regarding the relevance of educational attainment, supply of supportive school programmes and intercultural curricula, teacher expectations, or various forms of direct and indirect discrimination. Further research, in particular ethnographic research, could bring some insight into the various factors that determine the choice of and access to different school types as well as the duration of secondary schooling.

Table 3: Secondary Schools – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	AT	BE	DE	DK
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens ³²	Foreign citizens (Migrants)	Immigrants (I)/Descendants (D)
School year	2001/02	2001/02	20001/02	1999
All Secondary		FL: 17 728 (4.3%) FR: 41 685 (12.4%)		
Secondary School Types	Hauptschule ³³ 30 193 (11.4%) Polytechnikum ³⁴ 2 754 (13.9%) Allgemein bildende höhere Schule ³⁵ 10 499 (5.6%) Berufsschule 9 130 (7.0%) ³⁶ Berufsbildende mittlere Schule 5 036 (7.3%) ³⁷ Berufsbildende höhere Schule 6 595 (4.7%) ³⁸		Hauptschule ³⁹ 196 219 (17.6%) Realschule ⁴⁰ 84 218 (6.6%) Gymnasium ⁴¹ 88 594 (3.9%) Gesamtschule ⁴² 66 816 (12.2%)	Acad. Oriented I: 1 822 (2.9%) – D: 1 251 (2.0%) Ac.O. (Com./tech) I: 651 (2.5%) – D: 614 (2.3%) Voc. Oriented I: 1 982 (4.2%) – D: 1 131 (2.4%) ⁴³
Source	Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (BMBWK); own calculation by Austrian National Focal Point (Report 2002)	Statistical year book of Flemish education (2001-2002) Ministère de la Communauté Française	German Federal Statistical Office, own calculation	The Ministry of Education, Statistiske analyser af uddannelserne 9-2001, Table 6.1, p. 38; own calculations
Main subgroups or nationalities	Hauptschule FY: 15 091 (5.7%) – T: 9 613 (3.6%) Polytechnikum FY: 1 401 (7.1%) – T: 927 (4.7%) Allgemein bildende höhere Schule FY: 4 064 (2.2%) – T: 763 (0.4%) ⁴⁴		Hauptschule T: 91 215 (8.2%) – I: 18 548 (1.6%) Y: 15 441 (1.4%) Realschule T: 36 510 (2.8%) – I: 6 865 (0.5%) Y: 4 163 (0.3%) Gymnasium T: 22 306 (0.9%) – I: 4 252 (0.2%) Y: 2 854 (0.1%) ⁴⁵	Turkey: Acad. Oriented I: 96 (0.15%) – D: 308 (0.5%) Ac. O. (com./tech) I: 49 (0.2%) – D: 209 (0.8%) Voc. Oriented I: 249 (0.5%) – D: 516 (1.1%)

³² Data for the Flemish (FL) and French (FR) Communities.

³³ Main Secondary School, Grade 5-8 (age 10-14).

³⁴ Polytechnic Year, Grade 9 (age 14-15).

³⁵ General Higher Secondary Schools, Grade 5-12 (age 10-18).

³⁶ Compulsory Vocational School in conjunction with apprenticeship (2-4 years).

³⁷ Intermediate Vocational School, Grade 9-11/12 (age 14-17).

³⁸ Higher Vocational School, Grade 9-13 (age 14-18).

³⁹ Main Secondary School, Grade 5-10 (age 10-16).

⁴⁰ Realschule, Grade 5-10 (age 10-16 in most "Länder").

⁴¹ Higher Academic General Secondary, Grade 5-13 (age 10-19).

⁴² Comprehensive School which imparts the content of the 'streamed' school system (Grade 5 to 9 or 10).

⁴³ 16-19 year old immigrants and descendants in upper secondary education and vocational education and training.

⁴⁴ Former Yugoslavia (FY), Turkey (T).

⁴⁵ Turkey (T), Italy (I), Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (successor state to Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia) (Y).

Table 3 (continued): Secondary Schools – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	ES	FI	FR	GR
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens ⁴⁶	Immigrants ⁴⁷
School year	2001/02	2002	20001/02	1999/00
All Secondary			245 052 (4.6%)	86 238
Secondary School Types	Sec. Mand. (ESO) ⁴⁸ 55 177 (2.9%) Bachillerato ⁴⁹ 8 582 (1.2%) Form Professional ⁵⁰ 4 876 (1.0%)	Upper Sec. ⁵¹ 1 850 (1.4%) Voc secretary. ⁵² 4 100 (2.6%)	1 st cycle 143 268 (4.6%) Adapted ⁵³ 820 (7.4%) 2 nd cycle profes. 40 842 (6.2%) 2 nd cycle gen+tech 52 522 (3.6%)	Lower Secondary 6.7% Higher General 1.4% Sec. Vocational: No data
Source	Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports	NBE, Statistics Finland 2002	Repères et Références Statistiques – 2002 sur les enseignements, la formation et la recherche, Ministry of Youth, National Education and Research (MJENR)	SSEIGE, Education Ministry Minority Groups in Education (school years 95/96 – 2000/01) The Pupil Population Composition school year 1999-2000
Main subgroups or nationalities			Morocco 64 170 (26.2%) Algeria 26 046 (10.6%) Turkey 22 485 (9.2%) Portugal 26 418 (10.8%)	

⁴⁶ Mainland France, Public and Private sectors.

⁴⁷ Ethnic Greek and foreign immigrants; Data for 2002-03 will be made available later by the Institute for Greek Diaspora Education and Intercultural Studies. Current data might be inaccurate.

⁴⁸ Compulsory Secondary Education — E.S.O.: 4 grades, age 12 to 16.

⁴⁹ Higher Secondary Education — Bachillerato: 2 grades, age 16 to 18.

⁵⁰ Vocational Training — Form Professional: 2 grades, age 16 to 18.

⁵¹ Age 16-19.

⁵² Age 16-19.

⁵³ Sections of Adapted General and Professional Teaching (SEGPA) and Regional Establishments for Adapted Teaching (EREA) are for children with severe learning or cognitive difficulties.

Table 3 (continued): Secondary Schools – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	IE	IT	LU	NL
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens total	Non-Dutch Ethnic Background
School year	2000	2001/02	2000/01	2000/01
All Secondary	9 345 (2.74%)			80 250 (9.3%)
Secondary School Types		Lower Second. 44 219 (2.7%) Upper Second. 24 063 (1%)	Prep. Regime ⁵⁴ 1 240 (57.7%) Sec. Technique 7 994 (37.3%) Sec. Classic Ed. 1 292 (13.3%)	Pre-univ. (VWO) 2 596 (2.8%) Senior general. Sec. (HAVO), 3 707 (4.6%) Prevoc. Sec. (VBO), 9 036 (10.9%)
Source	Department of Education and Science, Ireland, 2002	Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca (M.I.U.R.)	Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale (MENFPS) +SCRIPT	Ministry of OC&W, Fact and Figures 2002 http://www.minocw.nl/english_oud/general/figures/index.html (8.7.2003), own calculation
Main subgroups or nationalities	U.K.: 3 304 (0.97%) Nigeria: 775 (0.23%)		Prepar. Regime Portugal: 35.4% Ex-Yug.: 12.4% Sec. Classic/Tech. Portugal: 4.6% Ex-Yug.: 0.98%	

⁵⁴ The “modular preparatory stream” (*régime préparatoire – classes modulaires*) which lasts for 3 years, prepares either for admission to a class of the inferior or intermediate stage of the technical secondary or for a vocational qualification (grade 7-9).

Table 3 (continued): Secondary Schools – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	PT	SE	UK
Category	Cultural groups/Nationalities	Foreign background ⁵⁵	Ethnic minorities
School year	1999/00	2002/03	2002/03
All Secondary	10 875 (2.83%)	35 122 (14%) ⁵⁶	386 800 (11.69%) (England)
Secondary School Types		Natural Science 6 436 (17%) Social Science 10 702 (16.2%) Technical Prog. 2 155 (11.4%) ⁵⁷	
Source	DPPA – Department of Prospective and Planning Analysis of Ministry of Education	The National Agency for Education; Child-care programmes, school, and adult education in figures 2003, table 6.3 B, Report Nr 233	DfES, Pupil Characteristics and Class Sizes in Maintained Schools in England: January 2003 (Provisional). Http://www.dfes.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/SFR/s000390/index.shtml (09/09/03)
Main subgroups or nationalities	General Courses A: 14.1% – CV: 5.2% Tech. Courses A: 13.1% – CV: 7.6% Sec. Recurrent ⁵⁸ A: 28.0% – CV: 4.2% ⁵⁹		White: ⁶⁰ 2 736 300 (82.7%) Black/Black British: 105 200 (3.8%) Mixed: 64 700 (1.95%) Chinese: 12 000 (0.4%) Asian/Asian British: 204 900 (6.2%)

⁵⁵ Pupils who were born to foreign parents in Sweden and abroad.

⁵⁶ Pupils in Upper secondary school in 2002/03 (all national programs) at schools with municipalities or county council as principal organiser; Source: The National Agency for Education, Child-care programs, school, and adult education in figures 2003, table 6.3 B, Report Nr 233.

⁵⁷ Pupils in Upper secondary schools (3 largest out of 17 national programs) at schools with municipalities or county council as principal organiser.

⁵⁸ The recurrent education is a variant that allows students who did not attend school at the conventional age or abandoned school prematurely to have a second educational opportunity.

⁵⁹ % of immigrants from Angola and Cape Verde among all foreign cultural/nationality groups in 1999/2000.

⁶⁰ DfES; available at: <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/statistics/catego.html#m1> (16/5/03); own calculation.

4.5. Comparison of Enrolment Figures in Special Education

In several EU Member States, an over-representation of migrant and ethnic minority pupils in schools for special education is common. Typically, these schools provide education for pupils with special needs, such as pupils with a disability or severe learning and cognitive difficulties. If one assumes that the distribution of pupils with disabilities is similar across all ethnic groups, an over-representation of migrant and minority pupils in these classes indicates that a portion of these pupils is wrongfully assigned to such classes. This is most likely due to biased test results and low teacher expectations, which are influenced by socio-cultural and language differences of the pupils. Reports from seven countries, where this phenomenon occurs, are mentioned in this section. Other countries did not supply any information on this topic.

In **Austria**, the so-called *Sonderschule* is a school type primarily intended to accommodate the special educational needs of children with physical or mental disabilities. Special education, which is offered in special schools or in integrative classes lasts from grade one to eight. Children with a migration background have been and still are disproportionately assigned to this type of school. According to the official school statistics, foreign pupils made up 9.2% in all forms of Austrian schools in the year 2001/2002, but their rate was a conspicuous 20.6% in the *Sonderschule*. Similar to the Austrian school population, male foreign pupils are more likely to be sent to the special education (61,3%) than females (38,7%). Pupils with a citizenship from former Yugoslavia, who make up 5,8% of the four-year primary school population, show a proportion of 9,6% in special education, whereas pupils with a citizenship from Turkey, whose share in the primary school amounts 3,5%, show an over-representation of 8,8%. Data on pupils with a first language other than German shows a proportion of 23,3% non-native German speakers in special education in contrast to 15,3% of these pupils in primary school (including pre-school).⁶¹

In **Belgium**, pupils with a foreign citizenship are also over-represented in special education. The gap between primary and secondary enrolment and special education enrolment concerning these groups is bigger in the French community than in the Flemish community. In the French community, the share of foreign pupils is about 12% in primary and secondary schools but over 18% in special education. In the Flemish community, enrolment of foreign pupils in primary and

⁶¹ Austrian National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, Annex 2, Table 3: Pupils with a first language other than German as a percentage of all pupils by types of school and federal province, school year 2001/2002 (up to six years of school attendance in Austria, without autochthonous minorities), Table 7: Pupils in schools by Austrian or foreign citizenship and type of school in 2001/2002; Original source: Statistik Austria (2002) Schulwesen in Österreich 2001/2002 (School education in Austria 2001/2002). Vienna; Table 9: Pupils in Austrian special needs schools by citizenship and gender, school year 2001/02; Original source: Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (2002) Austrian school statistics. Part IX. Pupils in Austria by citizenship. Without schools for the education of teachers of physical education and sports as well as teacher training colleges; available at: http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/medien/8752_PDFzuPublD422.pdf (08.04.2003).

secondary schooling is 6,4% and 4,3% respectively, but 7,6% in special education.⁶² The issue of 'excessive' referral to special education needs to be dealt with to a greater extent. Special education schools apply to 'type 3' target pupils 'with character and/or personality problems' according to the official terminology. In practice, an organisation, which assesses the pupils, issues a recommendation for referral to a special education. The parents still may decide autonomously whether or not to follow this recommendation. However, given the low social position of migrant parents, which often inhibits them from acting on their own behalf, such a recommendation is almost binding. A more critical assessment of this practice raises the issue of possible cultural bias in the tests, on which the referral is based. The risk of excessive referral is aggravated by the 'success school'-initiative that aims to bring about schools in which pupils do not repeat classes until the second year of primary school. In such a system it is likely that pupils are referred to special education more rapidly.⁶³ However, the Flemish government meticulously oversees the procedure of inscriptions. The board of a school can refer a pupil to another school when he or she has special educational needs and the Commission of the Rights of Pupils supervises this process. Refusals and referrals need to be justified in written form, and need to be based on factual and judicial arguments. This is in accordance with European directives demanding equal treatment regardless of ethnic descent.⁶⁴ It can be assumed that this increased control of the process in the Flemish community, as opposed to the French community, results in a lower rate of incorrect inscriptions.

In **Germany**, special education is offered in special schools or in integrative classes between grade one and nine. The share of migrant pupils with a foreign citizenship in the so-called *Sonderschule* was 15,4% in 2001/02, which constitutes a higher proportion compared to their enrolment in all schools (9,7%). Following a general trend in the total school population, male migrant pupils are much more likely to attend special schools than females (60,6% compared to 39,4%). Data on the largest migrant groups shows that pupils with a citizenship from Turkey, Yugoslavia, and Italy have a higher representation in special education compared to their enrolment in all schools. However, the differences are smaller than in other countries. The share of Turkish pupils is 6,5% in special education and 4,2% in all schools. For Yugoslavian pupils the respective numbers are 2,3% and 0,7% and for Italians 1,4% and 0,7%.⁶⁵

⁶² Belgian National Focal Point (2003), p.16; Tables: School population in Flanders (school year 2001-2002), Original source: Statistical year book of Flemish education (2001-2002) and School population in the French community (school year 2001-2002), Original source: Ministère de la Communauté Française.

⁶³ Belgian National Focal Point (2002), p.33f.

⁶⁴ Belgian National Focal Point (2002), p.18f.

⁶⁵ German National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, Table 7: Pupils at schools providing a general education according to selected nationalities and school types in the school year 2001/2002 and Table 21: German and foreign pupils at schools providing a general education according to type and gender 2001/2002 (in%). Original source: Federal Statistical Office.

For **Denmark**, a survey conducted in 2001 by the Centre for Equal Treatment of Handicapped on Extensive special needs education, showed that there is a clear over-representation of bilingual pupils in special education programmes. While bilingual pupils are referred to extensive special education because of general learning difficulties, monolingual pupils in these schools tend to have specific disabilities. The survey also showed a clear over-representation of pupils from Turkey and Pakistan in special needs classes.⁶⁶

Data on foreign pupils in special education in **Spain** shows that in 2001/02, out of 27.241 pupils in special education there were only 560 foreign pupils (a proportion of 2%). The proportion is lower compared to other school types, such as primary education where the share of this group makes up 3,5%. However, given these low numbers, the interpretation of data has to be treated with caution.⁶⁷

France supplied data for a secondary school type, which is called "adapted" education. Overall, certain nationalities are over-represented in Sections of Adapted General and Professional Teaching (SEGPA) and in Regional Establishments for Adapted Teaching (EREA), two structures developed for children with severe learning or cognitive difficulties. The aggregate data show a 7,4% proportion of foreign pupils, which is a somewhat higher rate compared to other secondary tracks.⁶⁸

Data on special education enrolment in the **Netherlands** shows that pupils with a non-Dutch ethnic background have a slightly higher representation in special schools at the primary level (16,4% in special primary schools and 18,3% in special education) compared to regular primary schools (15,1%). Data on Secondary Education Care, which includes learning support departments and education for children with learning and behavioural difficulties, shows that these special education programmes have a much higher share of pupils with foreign ethnic backgrounds (29,4%) compared to other secondary types (3,6-6,2%). In particular, newcomers often end up in learning support departments (LWOO).⁶⁹

Final Results:

- Over-representation of pupils with a migration background in special education appears to be a common phenomenon in many countries of the European Union. In some countries, a high over-representation constitutes an especially problematic case.

⁶⁶ Danish National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, p.17.

⁶⁷ Spain National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, p.27, Table: 7.2.2. Foreign pupils per type of education.

⁶⁸ French National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, p.23, Table 5: Proportion of foreign pupils in different cycles and streams of secondary schools and their frequencies in 2001-2002 (Mainland France, Public and Private sectors).

⁶⁹ Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (OC&W) Facts and Figures 2002, 2.3 *Primary Education* (Table 2.3.2: Key statistics on primary school pupils); 2.4 *Secondary Education* (Table 2.4.3: Total number of pupils (x 1000) and the percentage of ethnic minorities per type of school); available at: http://www.minocw.nl/english_oud/general/figures/index.html (8.7.2003).

- This issue is of particular concern, because attendance in special education schools negatively affects the educational and future employment opportunities of these pupils.
- Male migrant pupils are much more likely to attend special school than females. However, this phenomenon can be observed across all ethnic groups, including the majority population.
- There needs to be a more critical assessment of the reasons on which the referrals of migrant pupils to special education are based. It appears that referrals are often determined by culturally biased test results and low teacher expectations due to pupils' language differences and different socio-cultural models of behaviour, rather than learning difficulties and disabilities.

Table 4 : Special Education – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	AT	BE	DE
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens ⁷⁰	Foreign citizens (Migrants)
School year	2001/02	2001/02	2001/02
School Type/ Total number and percentage	Sonderschule ⁷¹ 2 754 (20.6%) Percentage of females: 38.7	Special needs ⁷² FL: 3 401 (7.63%) FR: 8 110 (18.61%)	Sonderschule ⁷³ 65 436 (15.4%) Percentage of females: 39.4
Main subgroups or nationalities	EU citizens (excl. Austria): All: 39 (0.3%) – f: 25.6% Non EU citizens ⁷⁴ : All: 2 715 (20.4%) – f: 40.5% FY: 1 275 (9.6%) – f: 40.5% T: 1 170 (8.8%) – f: 36.8% Foreign First Lang.: 23.3%		Turkey: 27 613 (6.5%) Yugosl.: 9 635 (2.3%) Italy: 5 857 (1.4%)
Source	Ministry of Education Science and Culture (BMBWK) http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/medien/8752_PDFzuPublD422.pdf (08.04.2003); http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/medien/8953_Nr_2.pdf , (28.05.2003); own calculation by Austrian National Focal Point (Report 2002)	Statistical year book of Flemish education (2001-2002); Ministère de la Communauté Française; own calculation	German Federal Statistical Office, own calculation

⁷⁰ Data for the Flemish (FL) and French (FR) Communities.

⁷¹ Special education, primary and secondary level, Grade 1-9.

⁷² Special education at primary and secondary level combined.

⁷³ Special education, primary and secondary level, Grade 1-9.

⁷⁴ All non EU-citizens (All), pupils from Former Yugoslavia (FY), Turkey (T); females (f).

Table 4 (continued): Special Education – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	ES	FR	NL
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens	Non-Dutch Ethnic Background
School year	2001/02	2001/02	2000/01
School Type/ Total number and percentage	Special needs 560 (2%)	Adapted stream ⁷⁵ 820 (7.4%)	Special Primary 16.4% ⁷⁶ Special Education 18.3% ⁷⁷ Sec. Ed. Care 28 812 (29.4%) ⁷⁸
Main subgroups or nationalities			
Source	Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports	Repères et Références Statistiques – 2002 sur les enseignements, la formation et la recherche, Ministry of Youth, National Education and Research (MJENR) http://www.education.gouv.fr/stateval/rers/repere.htm#12 (20.6.2003)	Ministry of OC&W, Facts and Figures 2002 http://www.minocw.nl/english_oud/general/figures/index.html (8.7.2003), own calculation

⁷⁵ Secondary level; Sections of Adapted General and Professional Teaching (SEGPA) and Regional Establishments for Adapted Teaching (EREA) for children with severe learning or cognitive difficulties.

⁷⁶ Proportion of ethnic minority pupils in special primary education in 2000/01.

⁷⁷ Proportion of ethnic minority pupils in special education in 2000/01 (special primary and special education are both school types at the primary level).

⁷⁸ Secondary education care includes learning support departments (LWOO), practical training programs (PRO), and special secondary education (VSO-LOM + VSO-MLK) which offers education for children with learning and behavioural difficulties.

4.6. Comparison of University and Higher Education Enrolment Figures

Most EU Member States collect data on enrolment at universities and other institutions of higher education, differentiating students according to citizenship. Data made available by the National Focal Points shows that Austria, Belgium, Germany, Finland, and France use the category of "foreign students" but only Germany offers differentiated data distinguishing between students with foreign citizenship who permanently live in the country ("educational nationals") and foreign students who come to Germany for the purpose of studying at universities and institutions of higher education ('educational non-nationals'). Denmark distinguishes between two categories of students: "immigrants" born outside the country, whose parents are either foreign citizens or born outside of Denmark, and "descendants," who are born in Denmark with parents living in the country but who are not Danish citizens. Immigrants and descendants can or cannot be Danish citizens. The Netherlands collects data on ethnic minorities who are students with non-Dutch ethnic background independent of citizenship status. They were born in one of the target group countries (countries of origin designated by the government to be entitled to subsidy) or at least one of the parents was born in a target group country. Enrolment figures in Sweden distinguish students by foreign background only. This includes foreign students born abroad and students born in Sweden to foreign parents. Data for the United Kingdom differentiates various ethnic groups independent of citizenship status. The NFPs from Spain, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, and Portugal did not supply data on university enrolments.

The lack of differentiation between migrants, descendants, established ethnic minorities, who permanently live in the country, and foreign students who enter the country for a limited amount of time to study at universities makes the interpretation of enrolment figures rather difficult. Also, if citizenship is the only criteria, students with a foreign background who live in a given country and who have become citizens, "disappear" in the statistics, because they are regarded as nationals. If only "foreign background" or "ethnicity" is used as categories, distinctions between groups who have lived in the country for a long period of time and between more recent arrivals cannot be made. To draw conclusions regarding the attainment of higher education of migrants and ethnic minorities is thus not an easy task.

In 2002, 16% of university students in **Austria** were foreigners. Looking at the nationality of the students and at enrolment data in secondary schools one can conclude that most of them are not permanent residents. Members of the largest migrant communities (Former Yugoslavia and Turkey) have a rather low participation in higher education.

In **Belgium**, the high proportion of foreign students in higher education in the French community (18%) also must be ascribed to foreign students who do not permanently reside in the country. Secondary school enrolment of foreign students living in the French community is much lower (12%) and there were no drastic demographic changes in the last years that could explain the higher

participation rates at the university level. The lack of differentiated data does not allow further conclusions about the situation of students with foreign citizenship who live in the country.

Data on university enrolments from **Germany**, which distinguishes between 'educational nationals' and 'educational non-nationals', shows that only one third of the foreign university students are permanent residents. Most of them possess the citizenship of one of the former recruitment countries of guest workers. 29.8% of all 'educational nationals' have Turkish citizenship. Also, students with a citizenship from Croatia, Yugoslavia, and Portugal are predominantly 'educational nationals'. The majority of these 'educational nationals' belong to the second generation of migrants. In general, one can assume that members of the second generation of migrants are clearly under-represented in the universities and *Fachhochschulen*⁷⁹ compared with their proportion in the total population of the corresponding age group.⁸⁰

In **Denmark**, immigrants and descendants combined make up about 12% of students in higher education. Immigrants (10%) are the larger group, and students with a Turkish background are the largest nationality group. However, if one looks at the population of all 20 to 24 year olds, descendants (4%) have a higher proportion in their respective age group enrolled in short cycle higher education compared to immigrants (1,3%) and the rest of the population (2,8%). In medium cycle, descendants (8,5%) have a higher representation than immigrants (4,8%) but a lower representation than the rest of the population (11,7%). In long cycle higher education the respective figures are 5,5% for immigrants, 12,3% for descendants and 13% for all others.⁸¹ These figures indicate that descendants are more likely to attend higher levels of education, and that overall immigrants tend to be very much behind. However, some groups have especially high participation rates, such as Iranian immigrants (13,1%), Vietnamese immigrants (9,5%), Polish immigrants (9%), or Pakistani descendants (14,1%). Polish descendants have an extremely high participation rate of 29,1%, which is 15% higher than the rest of the population. Enrolment figures also show that immigrants and descendants favour health and technical oriented education.⁸² While enrolment figures give some indications about students' participation in higher education, one also has to look at dropout and completion rates. Completion rates are about 10% higher for the population in average than for immigrants and descendants. Data on immigrants from third countries show that this group completes long-cycle higher education with a rate of 16% lower than the population in average.⁸³

In Finland, the numbers of foreign students in universities more than doubled between 1990 and 2000. In 2000, the majority of these students were from European countries (58,6%) followed by students from Africa (8,3%). Most

⁷⁹ Universities of Applied Sciences.

⁸⁰ German National Focal Point (2002), p. 21.

⁸¹ The Ministry of Education (2001) Immigrants and descendants in the educational system, Statistiske analyser af uddannelserne 9-2001, Figure 6.1, p.42.

⁸² Danish National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p. 34.

⁸³ Ibid., p. 27.

foreign students are enrolled in Master's degree programmes.⁸⁴ New data published by the National Board of Education for 2003, indicate that there are currently 3.700 foreign students enrolled in Finnish universities.⁸⁵ The statistics are not an accurate measure of minority students' participation at the university level because they exclude minorities who are Finnish citizens (i.e. national ethnic minorities, naturalised citizens, second-generation immigrants). As pointed out in the chapter on national minorities, Finnish universities have quotas for Swedish-speaking or Sami students, ensuring that students belonging to these minorities have better access to universities. Two universities in Finland operate primarily in Swedish, which benefits the Swedish-speaking minority.

In **France**, official statistics of foreign students in universities do not distinguish between students whose parents have immigrated and settled in France and students who have come to France for the purpose of pursuing higher education. The number of foreign students and the proportion of foreign students attending French universities have now returned to the level recorded in 1990 (11.4%). The number of non-European students has increased markedly since 1999, after having decreased from 1991 to 1997. While the number of European students from non-EU Member States, especially from the East, has increased progressively since 1995, the number of EU students has dropped slightly.⁸⁶ In 2001/02, EU-citizens among the foreign students made up 16,4% of the school children, while the proportion of all non-EU citizens was 83,5%. The largest groups of foreign students were Moroccan (16,4%) and Algerian (8,5%) citizens. This is a lower proportion compared to the share of the same nationality groups in secondary schools, in which Moroccans made up 26,2% and Algerians 10,6% of the student population. Portuguese and Turkish students who in secondary schools make up 10,8% and 9,2% of all foreign students, have an even lower representation at universities, with 1,3% and 1,2% respectively.

In the **Netherlands**, 7.246 ethnic minority students from the target countries were enrolled in universities in 1999/2000. This amounts to 4,5% of the entire university student population. Of these students, those born abroad (4.650) exceed the numbers of those born in the Netherlands (2.596). This distribution is in contrast to that of first-year students, among whom the number of students born in the Netherlands exceeds the number of those born in one of the target countries. This is because the number of ethnic minority students among first-year enrolments is growing, mainly due to a sharp increase in the number of those born in the Netherlands. As the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science points out, this increase could possibly indicate a trend, but it is too early to draw specific

⁸⁴ Ministry of Education (2001) KOTA Database, available at: <http://www.minedu.fi/julkaisut/pdf/99KOTA2001.pdf> (25.7.2003).

⁸⁵ Finnish National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, p.20.

⁸⁶ French National Focal Point (2003), p.23; Original source: *Repères et Références Statistiques – 2002 sur les enseignements, la formation et la recherche*, Ministry of Youth, National Education and Research (MJENR); available at: <http://www.education.gouv.fr/stateval/rers/repere.htm#12> (20.6.2003).

conclusions based on the data available.⁸⁷ Among the biggest ethnic minority groups are students who were born in Surinam, the Netherlands Antilles, Morocco or Turkey, or whose parents were born in one of these countries. According to the data from the Ministry, it is especially remarkable that the number of second-generation ethnic minority students from Surinam and Turkey clearly exceeds the number of students who themselves were born in these countries.⁸⁸

In **Sweden**, in 2000/01 12% of all students in higher education had a foreign background. While the statistics distinguish between foreign-born students and students born in the country to foreign-born parents, they do not clearly distinguish between foreign-born students who permanently live in the country and those who just came to study in Sweden. Only exchange students are a separate category. Among undergraduate students, the proportion of students with a foreign background was 11,4%. Less than a third (27%) of these students were born in Sweden. A much higher proportion of students with a foreign background were enrolled in postgraduate programmes but less than 10% of them were born in Sweden. Among all students with a foreign background, almost twice as many students had a third country nationality background compared to an EU background. Iranian and Yugoslavian students were among the largest third country groups. The single largest group, however, were students with a Finnish background. During the academic year 2001/02, there were 5,9% first-year students among all 18-25 year olds with a Swedish background, 5,1% first-year students among all 18-25 year old people born in Sweden with two foreign-born parents, and 4,4% first-year students among all 18-25 year old foreign-born students in undergraduate programmes. Another statistic shows that in 2000/01, the proportion of students with a Swedish background in the age group of 18-44 old Swedes was 10% in undergraduate programmes and 0,48% in postgraduate programmes. For students born in Sweden with two foreign-born parents, the proportion within their group was 9% in undergraduate programmes and 0,34% in postgraduate programmes and for foreign-born students it was 5,7% in undergraduate programmes and 0,85% in postgraduate programmes. The figures seem to indicate that students with a foreign background are less likely to advance to higher (post-graduate) education compared to students with a Swedish background and that foreign-born students are less likely to advance to university compared to students born in Sweden with a foreign background. Since that category of foreign-born students also appears to include students who do not permanently live in the country, it is difficult to draw any further conclusions. It seems obvious that the high percentage of foreign-born students in postgraduate programmes is due to the fact that foreign students who do not permanently live in the country come to Sweden to obtain postgraduate degrees. The figures from the Agency for Higher Education and Statistics Sweden further show that females are

⁸⁷ Ministry of OC&W, Fact and Figures 2002; available at: http://www.minocw.nl/english_oud/general/figures/pdf/2.7%20Universities%202002.pdf (20.6.2003)

⁸⁸ Ibid.

higher represented in undergraduate programmes than males, but that males have a higher representation in postgraduate programmes. This applies to students with a Swedish as well as with a foreign background.⁸⁹

In the **United Kingdom**, in the academic year of 2001/02, there were 12,2% domiciled⁹⁰ first year students in higher education. Their proportion in undergraduate programmes was 12,7% and in postgraduate programmes, it was 10,4%.⁹¹ Earlier data from 1997/98 show that, while members of ethnic minorities account for 8% of the 18-24 year olds in Great Britain, they account for almost 16% of the university students in that age group. Among them, Indians (4,7%) and Pakistanis (2,7%) are the largest represented ethnic minority groups and are over-represented given their proportion among all 18-24 year olds in Great Britain. The same is true for Chinese students.⁹² These figures indicate an over-representation of ethnic minorities entering the university system. However, conclusions about achievement and educational outcome cannot be based on early enrolment data. It is also important to bear in mind that universities differ in prestige and in educational demands. Black Caribbean and Pakistani applicants are less likely than Whites to gain admission to 'old' universities, whereas Chinese and "Asian other" are more likely to get access.⁹³ In addition, ethnic minorities in general are far more likely to choose vocational degrees. This can be seen most clearly for Chinese students, with 75% of males and 66% of females in vocational subjects. Only Black 'others' and Black Caribbean are not more likely to study a vocational field.⁹⁴

Main Results:

- The availability of data on university and higher education enrolment varies to a great extent in the EU Member States and the comparability of data is low, given the different categorizations of foreign nationality, migrant, and ethnic minority groups.
- Most countries do not differentiate between students with foreign nationality who permanently live in the country and foreign students who only come to the country for the purpose of studying, a fact that also severs the interpretation of data. However, one positive example is Germany, which makes a clear distinction between "Bildungsinländer" (educational nationals) and "Bildungsausländer" (educational non-nationals).

⁸⁹ The Agency for Higher Education and Statistics Sweden, UF 19 SM 0201; available at: <http://www.scb.se/sm/uf19sm0201.pdf> (8.7.2003).

⁹⁰ Domicile data is supplied to the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) in the form of postcodes (UK domiciled students) or country codes.

⁹¹ Higher Education Statistics Agency, First Year UK Domiciled HE Students by Level of Study, Mode of Study, Gender and Ethnicity 2001/02, Table 10; available at: <http://www.hesa.ac.uk/holisdocs/pubinfo/student/ethnic0102.htm> (23.8.2003).

⁹² Modood, T. (2003) Education: Differences between Ethnic Groups. In: D. Mason (ed.) Explaining Ethnic Differences: Changing Patterns of Disadvantage in Britain, London: Policy Press.

⁹³ U.K. National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, p.18.

⁹⁴ Ibid., p. 38.

- In countries with more differentiated statistics there are indications that second-generation migrants are more likely to attend institutions of higher education compared to more recent immigrants, but still are less likely to advance to higher education than students with no foreign background.
- There are variations regarding higher education enrolments between different migrant and ethnic minority groups. Some minority groups even have a higher enrolment rate than majority members (which sometimes is caused by decreased employment possibilities for minorities).
- The correlation between early enrolment data and data on completion rates often varies between the different groups.
- Data from some countries indicates that minority members are less likely to gain access to more prestigious universities and often choose vocationally oriented tracks.

Table 5: University and Higher Education – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	AT	BE	DE	DK
Category	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens ⁹⁵	Foreign citizens	Immigrants Descendants ⁹⁶
Academic year	Autumn 2002	2001/02	Fall 20001/02	1999
Total number	29 822 (f: 52.35%) ⁹⁷	FL: 5 873 FR: 25 381	All foreign students 206 141 Bildungsinländer ⁹⁸ 63 355 Bildungsausländer ⁹⁹ 142 786	26 842 I: 22 576 D: 4 266
% of all students	16%	FL: 3.76% FR: 18.07%	All foreign students 11% Bildungsinländer 3.4% Bildungsausländer 7.6%	12% I: 10.1% D: 1.9%
Source	Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (BMBWK) http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/medien/8664_personen_nach_nationen02.pdf (8.7.2003)	Statistical year book of Flemish education (2001-2002); Ministère de la Communauté Française	German Federal Statistical Office, own calculation	The Ministry of Education, Statistiske analyser af uddannelserne 9-2001
Subgroups or nationalities	EU citiz: 26 233 (f: 53.4%) Non-EU: 3 589 Italy: 6 031 (f: 52.2%) Turkey: 1 751 (f: 42%) Fyug: 975 (f: 45%)		Turkey: 24 041 (18 853) ¹⁰⁰ Yug.: 3 453 (2 345) Croatia: 4 734 (3 976) China: 14 070 (547) Poland: 10 936 (2 109)	Turkey I: 3 790 D: 993

⁹⁵ Data for the Flemish (FL) and French (FR) Communities.

⁹⁶ Immigrants and Descendants between 20 and 24 years of age in higher education in 1999; Original source: Immigrants and descendants in the educational system, Statistiske analyser af uddannelserne 9-2001, The Ministry of Education, 2001, Table 7.1, p. 45.

⁹⁷ Proportion of females in parenthesis (f).

⁹⁸ “Bildungsinländer” (students with foreign citizenship who permanently live in Germany).

⁹⁹ “Bildungsausländer” (foreign students who come to Germany for the sole purpose of studying at universities and institutions of higher education).

¹⁰⁰ Number of “Bildungsinländer”.

Table 5 (continued): University and Higher Education – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	ES	FI	FR	GR	IE	IT	LU
Category	Not supplied	Foreign citizens	Foreign citizens	Not supplied	Not supplied	Not supplied	Not supplied
Academic year		2002	2001/02				
Total number		3 700	159 463				
% of all students		2.3%	11.4%				
Source		NBE, Statistics Finland 2002	Ministry of Youth, National Education and Research (MJENR) http://www.education.gouv.fr/stateval/rers/repere.htm#12 (8.7.2003)				
Subgroups or nationalities			EU citizens: 26 218 (f: 64%) Non-EU: 133 245 Morocco: 26 075 (f: 35.1%) Algeria: 13 601 (f: 42.2%)				

Table 5 (continued): University and Higher Education – Enrolment Figures for Foreign Citizens and Ethnic Minorities during a recent school year

	NL	PT	SE	UK
Category	Ethnic Minorities	Not supplied	Foreign background ¹⁰¹	Ethnic Minorities
Academic year	1999/00		2000/01	2001/02
Total number	7 246 Born in NL: 2 596 Born abroad: 4 650		42 111 (f: 57.5%) Undergraduate 37 413 (10 179) ¹⁰² Postgraduate 4 698 (462)	First Year UK Domiciled HE Students 99 960 Undergraduate 82 445 Postgraduate 17 520
% of all students	4.5%		12% Undergraduate 11.4% Postgraduate 22.9%	First Year UK Domiciled HE Students 12.2% Undergraduate 12.7% Postgraduate 10.4%
Source	Ministry of OC&W, Facts and Figures 2002 http://www.minocw.nl/english_oud/general/figures/index.html (8.7.2003)		The Agency for Higher Education and Statistics Sweden, UF 19 SM 0201 http://www.scb.se/sm/uf19sm0201.pdf (8.7.2003); own calculation	Higher Education Statistics Agency http://www.hesa.ac.uk/holisdocs/pubinfo/student/ethnic0102.htm (23.8.2003); own calculation. Modood (2003) Education: Differences between Ethnic Groups
Subgroups or nationalities	Largest groups among first-year students: Surinam Morocco Netherlands Antilles Turkey		EU citizens: 14 843 (f: 62.6%) Non-EU citizens: 27 267 Finland: 8 676 (f: 68.7%) Iran: 4 351 (f: 49.7%) Yugoslavia: 2 362 (f: 57.9%)	1997-98 Great Britain % of 18-24s in H.Ed. in GB ¹⁰³ Female prop. % of 18-24s in GB Whites 85.2% (52%) 92.0% Indians 4.7% (49%) 2.0% Pakistanis 2.7% (44%) 1.8% B'deshis 0.7% (42%) 0.7% Chinese 1.0% (50%) 0.4% Asian-other 1.2% (48%) 0.4% Africans 1.4% (52%) 0.6% Caribbeans 1.0% (60%) 0.9% Black-others 0.5% (62%) 0.7%

¹⁰¹ Foreign-born students and students born in Sweden with two foreign born parents under 65 years of age.

¹⁰² Number of students with a foreign background born in Sweden in parenthesis.

¹⁰³ Percentages of all ethnic groups in Higher Education in Great Britain, Domiciled first-year full-time and part-time students (18-24 year olds), 1997-98.

5. Achievement and Underachievement

5.1. Educational Achievement of Migrants and Ethnic Minorities

The availability of data in the EU Member States regarding the educational achievement of different migrant and minority groups in education varies. Some countries collect data on completion of different school types or have test procedures as a direct measure of achievement. In other countries, this data is lacking and an assessment of the educational attainment of different groups can only be inferred indirectly, for example by looking at enrolment data in different types of school.

Results of the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), conducted in the year 2000, allowed some conclusions about the school performance of various groups in different States.¹⁰⁴ The study aimed at investigating pupils' knowledge and skills at age 15 in the domains of reading, mathematical and scientific literacy, and allowed a comparison of the performances between native pupils, non-native pupils, and pupils who were born in the respective country but whose parents were born in another country. Overall, study results show that non-native born pupils have had much lower literacy scores than native pupils with no foreign background, even when other factors such as family circumstances are considered. However, the gaps between the performances of these groups varied in the different countries, which took part in the study. The performance of pupils born in the country but whose parents immigrated yields even more mixed results. In some countries, these pupils did not perform significantly different from native-born pupils, but in others there is a wide gap.

The following section, on the one hand, describes data on academic achievement of migrants and ethnic minorities supplied in the country reports on education by the EUMC's National Focal Points in the Member States. However, the academic attainment of national autochthonous and indigenous minorities is covered in a separate chapter. On the other hand this section includes results from the PISA study and comments on differences between native pupils, non-native pupils, and native-born pupils with foreign-born parents in the EU Member States.¹⁰⁵ Also, certain shortcomings regarding the significance of the PISA study results in some countries will be mentioned.

¹⁰⁴ OECD (2001), Knowledge and Skills for Life. First Results from the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2000; available at: <http://www.pisa.oecd.org/knowledge/download.htm> (27.09.2002).

¹⁰⁵ In the PISA study, pupils who were born in the country of assessment but whose parents were foreign-born are referred to as "first-generation pupils". This term is not used here in connection with the PISA study, because in this paper this group of pupils is called "second-generation pupils" and the term "first-generation pupils" refers to those pupils who immigrated from another country.

In **Austria**, the situation of pupils of foreign nationality shows that overall there is a higher concentration of these pupils in schools with lower academic demands. As outlined in the section on enrolment, these pupils are more likely than pupils of the majority population to finish schooling after the compulsory years have been completed. In addition, they are over-represented in schools for special education. Data on the qualification level of the foreign-nationality population (older than 14 years) shows that the largest migrant groups, those from former Yugoslavia and from Turkey, attained lower education levels than the majority group. However, the available data does not distinguish between education attained inside and outside the country.¹⁰⁶ According to this data, 80% of the Turkish population and 52% of the citizens of former Yugoslavia have only completed compulsory schooling and have not received any further education. There are no standardised tests on educational achievement in the country. Given the lack of differentiated data, no conclusions can be drawn regarding the performance of smaller migrant groups or second-generation migrants who are citizens of Austria. In 2000, Austria participated in the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). A comparison of the performance of pupils born in Austria whose parents were born in another country, and of non-native pupils (both the pupils and their parents were born in another country) with that of native pupils revealed comparatively large and statistically significant differences in favour of native pupils. A similar observation holds for a comparison based on language between pupils who do not speak the majority language at home with those who do. In Austria, minority language pupils are 2,3 times as likely to be among the 25% of lowest performers in reading literacy compared to German native speakers.¹⁰⁷

Belgium offers little data on the educational success and failure of pupils with foreign citizenships. In the Flemish community, the likelihood is much higher for non-Belgians (42,2%) than for Belgians (18,3%) to leave school before obtaining a certificate in secondary education. The difference between native Dutch speakers and non-native speakers regarding this unqualified outflow is 16,5% compared to 39,5%. Also, foreign pupils are less likely to go on to higher education.¹⁰⁸ In the PISA study, native pupils outperformed pupils who were born in the country but have two foreign born parents. However, non-native pupils (3,4% of the sample) were more successful in the assessment than pupils born in the country with two foreign born parents (8,6% of the sample).¹⁰⁹ This interesting result needs further investigation.

In **Denmark**, immigrants and descendants from third countries show lower completion rates compared to the whole population in all educational levels from general upper secondary education to Master's education. In 1998, the average completion rates were 75,9% for all pupils, 64,1% for immigrants and 62,3% for

¹⁰⁶ Biffl (2001) Table 12a: Wohnbevölkerung ab 15 Jahren nach höchster abgeschlossener Schulbildung und Staatsbürgerschaft (Resident population older than 14 by highest level of education and citizenship), p. 147, calculated on the basis of the Labour Force Survey (*Arbeitskräfteerhebung*) in March 2000.

¹⁰⁷ OECD 2001, Table 6.11, p. 294.

¹⁰⁸ Belgian National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Report on Education, p. 5, 24.

¹⁰⁹ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

descendants.¹¹⁰ According to these figures, descendants are somewhat more likely to complete higher levels of education than immigrants. As has been pointed out, pupils whose mother tongue is not Danish are over-represented in special needs schools in Denmark. Immigrants and descendants have a much higher dropout rate than the population in average. Regarding immigrant inter-group differences, pupils with Polish, Pakistani, Vietnamese or Iranian background are doing best. Pupils with Somali or Lebanese background are doing worse.¹¹¹ PISA study results show a significant difference between the better performing native pupils and pupils with a foreign background. Similar to Belgium, non-native pupils had better test results than pupils born in the country who have two foreign born parents (mathematical results being about the same).¹¹²

In **Finland**, official statistics on educational achievement, which differentiate migrants from the total population, are lacking.¹¹³ Jasinskaja-Lahti et al. conducted a postal survey in 2001.¹¹⁴ It aimed at seven different groups of migrants between the ages of 18 and 64, who had entered Finland before the end of 1999. The survey looked, among other issues, at the highest level of education received abroad and in Finland. The educational situation of Kosovo Albanians, Arabs, Somalis, Vietnamese, Russians, Estonians, and return migrants of Finnish origin was comparatively analysed, both before and after their arrival in Finland. About 20% of all the groups except the Somalis completed at least basic schooling and some vocational training before coming to Finland. Somalis had the highest proportion of persons without any formal education. Russians and Estonians were the best-educated group upon arrival. After their arrival in Finland, Somalis and Vietnamese were the most active groups in pursuing education in general. Arabs and Estonians, however, were the groups most likely to attain higher university degrees. Data on educational attainment in Finland for all groups combined shows that the highest educational level attained by most migrants was three years of vocational training at the secondary level (41%). Given the wide age range of the population studied and the lack of comparative data describing educational attainment of the Finnish population, it is difficult to arrive at specific conclusions about the educational success of these groups. In the PISA study, Finnish pupils performed exceptionally well. Researchers have pointed out, that Finland's cultural homogeneity has made it relatively easy to reach mutual consensus on national education policy and methods, accounting in part for Finland's overall success. Furthermore, apart from the relatively larger Swedish-speaking minority, the Finnish PISA study does not allow for any reliable observations about other minorities because there were very few minority pupils in the final sample. Non-native pupils formed only 1% of the sample (55 pupils), compared to the OECD average of 4.7%, and those not speaking the language of assessment comprised only 1.3% of the total, compared to an OECD average of 5.5%.¹¹⁵

¹¹⁰ Immigrants and descendants in the educational system, Statistiske analyser af uddannelserne 9-2001, The Ministry of Education, 2001, Table 8.4, p. 57.

¹¹¹ Danish National Focal Point (2002), p.28.

¹¹² OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹¹³ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), p.12f.

¹¹⁴ Jasinskaja-Lahti, I. et al. (2002), p.161.

¹¹⁵ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), p.14.

In **France**, given the particularity of restricted data collection on educational issues and on pupils' minority background, little can be said about achievement of the different migrant groups. Enrolment data showed that pupils with foreign citizenship more often attend adapted teaching classes for children with severe learning or cognitive difficulties on the secondary level than French nationals and that the proportion of these pupils in vocational secondary schooling is much higher than in the general and technological track. According to the French NFP,¹¹⁶ considerable inequalities continue to persist among pupils. Studies show that the socio-economic status of parents significantly influences length of schooling and level of education. However, the results of a national study undertaken in the 1990s suggested that when socio-economic conditions were examined, children from established migrant groups living in the country had better chances of succeeding (measured by school achievement, length of schooling, and orientation in mainstream versus vocational streams) than new immigrants or even than their French-origin peers.¹¹⁷ Since official statistics regarding foreign students in French universities are based solely on nationality, there is no distinction between foreign students whose parents or who themselves have immigrated and students, who came to the country just for the purpose of studying. Therefore little can be said about migrant students' attainment of higher education. In the PISA study, native pupils with at least one of the parents born in the country reached better results in the combined reading, mathematical, and scientific literacy scales than pupils who were born in the country with two foreign born parents. Non-native pupils were the least successful in the assessment but the sample (2,2%) was rather small.¹¹⁸

In **Germany**, on the average, migrant pupils in comparison to German pupils finish school at an earlier age with significantly lower qualifications. In 2001, 74,381 migrant pupils with a foreign citizenship finished schools, which offer general education (*Hauptschule*). While 20.3% of these pupils left without formal qualifications, this is true for only 8.6% of the German pupils. 40% of migrant pupils (compared to 24.2% of Germans) left *Hauptschule* with a certificate. 29% passed *mittlere Reife*, which is comparable to a General Certificate of Secondary Education (compared to 41.7% of Germans). Only 10.7% of migrant pupils compared to 25.5% of German pupils obtained the right to study at universities or to go to a *Fachhochschule*¹¹⁹ (passed the Abitur which is comparable to A-levels).¹²⁰ However, there are significant differences between the different federal states depending on general structural differences in the education systems

¹¹⁶ French National Focal Point (2003), p.31.

¹¹⁷ Vallet, L.-A. & Caille, J.-P. (1995). Les carrières scolaires au collège des élèves étrangers ou issus de l'immigration. *Education et Formations*, 40, pp. 5-14; Vallet, L.-A. & Caille, J.-P. (1996a). Les élève étrangers ou issus de l'immigration dans l'école et le collège français. Une étude d'ensemble. *Les dossiers d'Education et Formations*, 67, (Ministry of National Education, DEP); Vallet, L.-A. & Caille, J.-P. (1996b). Niveau en français et en mathématiques des élèves étrangers ou issus de l'immigration. *Economie et Statistique*, 293, pp. 137-153.

¹¹⁸ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹¹⁹ Universities of applied sciences.

¹²⁰ German National Focal Point (2002) Table 5: School-leaving qualifications of Germans and migrants at schools providing a general education from 1996 to 2001. Original source: Federal Statistical Office, p.19.

and on varying percentages of migrant pupils in the individual states. In the 1990s, migrant pupils showed a trend towards obtaining more secondary education, but this development stagnated in 2000 and 2001. The percentage of those obtaining university entry qualifications sank slightly, after this percentage had continually risen up until the year 2000. In addition, after a dropping in the period from 1994 to 1999, the percentage of migrant pupils leaving school without a *Hauptschule* qualification rose again slightly in 2000 and 2001. In vocational schools, a significantly higher number of migrant pupils than German ones left school without qualifications. From all migrant pupils who graduated from vocational schools in 2001, more than a third (38.8%) did not obtain a school-leaving certificate (compared to 19.5% of German pupils). While 64% of German vocational school pupils were in an apprenticeship in 2001, only around 46% of the migrant pupils were in a similar position. Data from the official education statistics and data from several studies lead to the conclusion that Turkish and Italian children fare worst in the German education system.¹²¹ Female migrant pupils record slightly higher educational achievements than male migrants. In 2001, they left school less frequently without qualifications and more frequently with higher qualifications than their male peers.¹²² Overall, it appears that according to official statistics, currently the educational achievements of migrants do not improve. When interpreting these data, one must take into account that since the late nineties there was an increase in the numbers of newcomers who entered education at a later stage.¹²³ Results of studies, which particularly examine second-generation migrants, show that these pupils certainly have made achievements in education, even if this is not reflected in the official statistics.¹²⁴ Even though the second generation shows poorer educational results than Germans with no foreign background, progress is made in comparison to the parental generation (first generation). This is confirmed by an additional evaluation of the micro-census data.¹²⁵ A study in the city of Frankfurt even came to the conclusion that migrant children who were born and socialised in Germany have almost reached the level of education of the native Germans.¹²⁶ Still, the PISA study shows significant differences in performance between native pupils and pupils born in Germany with two foreign born parents, the latter achieving less well. The results of non-native pupils were worse compared to pupils born in the country with a foreign background, but the gap was not as big as between the

¹²¹ German National Focal Point (2002), p.38.

¹²² German National Focal Point (2002), p.20 and Appendix, Table 22: *Qualification achieved by Germans and foreigners upon leaving schools providing a general education in 2000/01 according to gender*. Original source: Federal Statistical Office, Series 11, Issue 1, 2001/2002.

¹²³ German National Focal Point (2002), p.23, *Table 8: School-leavers/graduates of vocational schools in 2001*. Original source: Federal Statistical Office.

¹²⁴ Heckmann, F. et al. (in cooperation with the EFFNATIS research team) (2001) Effectiveness of National Integration Strategies towards Second Generation Migrant Youth in a Comparative European Perspective. Final Report to the European Commission, Bamberg; Straßburger, G. (2001) Evaluation von Integrationsprozessen in Frankfurt am Main (Evaluation of integration process in Frankfurt a.M.). Studie zur Erforschung des Standes der Integration von Zuwanderern und Deutschen in Frankfurt am Main am Beispiel von drei ausgewählten Stadtteilen im Auftrag des Amtes für multikulturelle Angelegenheiten der Stadt Frankfurt am Main, Bamberg.

¹²⁵ German National Focal Point (2002), p.34.

¹²⁶ Cf. Straßburger (2001), pp. 167 ff.

first two groups.¹²⁷ It appears that further studies are needed to clarify the discrepancies between the different study results.

In **Greece**, reliable official statistical data concerning the educational performance of migrant pupils is lacking. In February 2003, the Institute for Greek Diaspora Education and Intercultural Studies announced that it is going to publish reliable statistical and analytical data, both on the number and the school performance of immigrant pupils, by the summer of 2003.¹²⁸ There are indications that there is a high drop out rate among migrant and refugee pupils after primary education, despite of the fact that lower secondary education is compulsory. It appears that a significant number of pupils drop out to seek employment in order to assist their parents, and that the drop out rate for Albanian pupils is very high, while repatriate ethnic Greeks are far more likely to continue in secondary schools.¹²⁹ There are no representative results from the PISA study regarding migrant pupils born in Greece with two foreign born parents (sample of 0,5%). Assessment results of non-native migrant pupils (sample 4,3%) were considerably lower compared to those of Greek native pupils.¹³⁰

In **Ireland**, there are significant limitations regarding data and particularly regarding disaggregated data in relation to the educational performance of non-national migrant pupils. Overall, Ireland performed well in the Pisa study, finishing fifth (out of 27 countries surveyed) for reading ability. Results of this study also seem to indicate that Ireland's non-national population outperforms many of their Irish counterparts on reading tests. According to the study, the Republic of Ireland is the only country in the industrialised world where non-nationals managed to significantly surpass the average score of the national population. However, the authors of the Ireland part of the OECD study urged caution in drawing too many conclusions about relative performance of non-nationals: 'Lest any of your readers conclude that the Irish education system can be complacent about addressing the educational needs of its non-national pupils.'¹³¹ The authors point out that only 53 of the 3,854 pupils surveyed¹³² were non-nationals, and on average were of higher socio-economic backgrounds than their national counterparts. Furthermore these non-national pupils tended to be clustered in a small number of fee-paying private schools.¹³³

In **Italy**, there is little data concerning the school performance of foreign pupils. However, emerging patterns of lower than average attendance and achievement and higher dropout rates among immigrant children indicate that, in practice, full and equal access to public education for all children has yet to be achieved.^{134, 135} Although the performance of non-Italian pupils is lower than that of the entire

¹²⁷ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹²⁸ Greek National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, p.48.

¹²⁹ Greek National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p.33.

¹³⁰ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹³¹ Irish Times, 23rd December 2002.

¹³² Surveyed in this context, means those who sat the PISA reading assessment test.

¹³³ Irish National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p.26.

¹³⁴ Open Society Institute (2002): *The situation of Muslims in Italy*, p.240.

¹³⁵ Italian National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, pp.5,7.

school population (in particular at middle school level), the situation has constantly improved within the last three school years. A recent three-year study in the province of Turin showed that a higher percentage of foreign pupils than Italians do not advance from one class to the next and that the percentage of non-Italian pupils who failed at the end of the year, gradually increases from primary to high school.¹³⁶ During the period from 1997 to 1999, an average of 8.6 percent of all immigrant pupils did not advance to the next grade. Separate figures for the two most represented non-Italian nationalities in schools — Albanians and Moroccans — show failure rates of 1.1% at primary level, 9.8% at middle school, and 22.9% at high school for Albanians and 0.7%, 19.6% and 24.7% at the respective school levels for Moroccans.¹³⁷ In the school year of 2000/2001, non-Italian pupils were less likely to achieve passing grades in primary school as well as in lower secondary school.¹³⁸ In the PISA study, the percentage of pupils with a foreign background in the assessment was too low to allow for meaningful conclusions regarding their performance compared to that of native pupils.¹³⁹

Luxembourg has a large population of foreign pupils but, data on their educational achievement is scarce. Most foreign nationalities tend to repeat classes in primary schools more often than native pupils and enrolment data show an over-representation of foreign pupils in secondary schools with less academic demands.¹⁴⁰ The PISA study highlighted the deficiencies of the Luxembourg school system. Luxembourg found itself on the last position of all European countries and on 30th position out of 32 countries only in front of Mexico and Brazil. Still, there was a significant difference in performance between native pupils and pupils born in the country with foreign parents who did less well. Non-native pupils reached even lower test results.¹⁴¹

In the **Netherlands**, non-native pupils overall have a lower success rating than native pupils. In particular, non-Western non-natives are over-represented in the lower school levels and have worse success ratings on all educational levels compared to native pupils.¹⁴² The greatest lag is between native Dutch pupils and Turkish, Moroccan, and Antillean pupils. Surinamese and other non-native pupils take a middle position. Native Dutch children and children from mixed marriages (in which one parent is Dutch) perform the best.¹⁴³ More ethnic minority pupils leave school without completing the full course than native Dutch pupils. This

¹³⁶ Giovannini, G. and Queirolo Palmas, L. (eds): *Una scuola in comune: esperienze scolastiche in contesti multi-etnici Italiani* (A School in Common: Scholastic Experiences in Italian Multiethnic Contexts), Turin: Fondazione Giovanni Agnelli, 2002.

¹³⁷ Open Society Institute (2002): Op. cit p.

¹³⁸ Italian National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p. 15; Original source: M.U.I.R. Information system, "Additional Data". OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹³⁹ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹⁴⁰ Luxembourg National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, pp.14, 20.

¹⁴¹ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹⁴² Dutch National Focal Point (2002), Table 4: Success rating by educational level according to background, 2000-2001, p.18; Original source: Informatie Beheer Groep / Schools Inspectorate / CBS 2000.

¹⁴³ Dutch National Focal Point (2002) p.15.

also occurs at earlier ages. This tendency is especially prevalent among the Antilleans and Surinamese, but also among Turks and Moroccans.¹⁴⁴ Despite the lower success ratings, research data obtained from the Cohort Studies indicate that positive developments have taken place in the academic performance of non-native pupils.¹⁴⁵ These developments are not limited to performance in primary schools but continue on into secondary school. This means that the starting performances of non-native pupils have improved. The participation of Turkish and Moroccan pupils in the higher levels (senior general secondary school) rose during the years 1993 to 1999 from a little over 20% to almost 40%. Among Surinamese and Antillean pupils, in 1999 this improvement was even greater, with choice of school types differing only slightly from that of native Dutch pupils.¹⁴⁶ There is almost no information available on the position of minorities at the higher academic levels because the academic institutions concerned do not register pupil origin. Regarding results of the PISA study, the response rate was too low to ensure comparability.

For **Portugal**, it is a rather difficult to analyse school performance, passing or failure rates or assessment results of migrants and ethnic minorities. There is no data on pupils' national assessment results and little on school success rates comparing national with non-national pupils. Still, in an overall assessment, one may conclude that there is a higher rate of school success among Portuguese pupils compared to non-nationals. An analysis of the successful completion of the school year in 1997/98, which focused on different minorities, shows that Roma, followed by pupils from Cape Verde, are those with relatively low certification success rates. Pupils from Macau, Timor, India, and Pakistan achieve higher certification rates. Some groups show a decreasing participation in the school system, as they proceed to non-compulsory education. On the other hand, there is a high share of minority students in recurrent education, which can be explained by the fact that these courses offer a second educational opportunity.¹⁴⁷ The PISA study results did not show significant differences in the assessment between native pupils and pupils with a foreign background. However, the sample of the latter was rather small.¹⁴⁸

For **Spain**, hardly any data is provided on educational achievement of foreign pupils. The Spanish NFP reports on a qualitative study from the Spanish Ombudsman, which is based on a survey conducted in 181 schools of primary and secondary education in public and concerted schools in the Autonomous Communities with the highest proportion of migrant pupils. It concludes that the academic results of foreign pupils are lower than those of native pupils. The lagging behind in education is higher, and this is accentuated at the end of compulsory education. The results are relatively better for pupils coming from Latin America and Eastern Europe and are somewhat worse for those from

¹⁴⁴ Dutch National Focal Point (2002) Table 5: Percentage of dropouts p.19; Original source: Statistics Netherlands (CBS) and Social and Cultural Planning Office (1997).

¹⁴⁵ SCP, Minorities Report 2001: progress at school.

¹⁴⁶ Dutch National Focal Point (2002), pp.18f.

¹⁴⁷ Portuguese National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, pp.40-43; Original source: Entreculturas, Database 1997/98.

¹⁴⁸ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

Africa.¹⁴⁹ In the PISA study the participation rates of pupils with a foreign background are very low and the results are therefore not conclusive.¹⁵⁰

Previous studies in **Sweden** show that on the average, pupils of foreign background achieve lower levels of academic performance compared to native pupils. Similar results are presented in the PISA study. Data on pupils who completed school year nine in 2001/02 shows that a lower proportion of pupils with a foreign background (78,9 %) is qualified to proceed to upper secondary school compared to the total school population (89,5%). Female pupils with a foreign background (80,8%) are more likely to advance to secondary school than male pupils (77,1%).¹⁵¹ For the pupils who completed basic education in 1999, 27 % had not obtained their degrees in at least one assignment. For pupils with foreign background the respective number was 36 %.¹⁵² The reported data focuses on the average performance of pupils with Swedish and foreign background. There is a large variation in performance within each group, which means that there are also pupils with foreign background who perform at a higher level than native pupils. In the school year of 1999/2000, for the first time girls with a foreign background received higher average grades than boys with a Swedish background.¹⁵³

In the **United Kingdom**, data on educational achievement of ethnic minority groups shows underachievement for specific groups and high achievement for others. However, there are still significant gaps in the available data, especially for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. With the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000, procedures are being put into place for effective monitoring of achievement by ethnicity. The new Pupil Level Annual Schools Census (PLASC) provides an important mechanism for monitoring ethnicity in England, as will similar initiatives in Scotland and Wales.¹⁵⁴ According to the available data from England, the groups most 'at risk' of underachieving are African Caribbeans, Gypsies and Travellers, and pupils of Bangladeshi and Pakistani origin. Whereas Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils are steadily closing the achievement gap, this is not the case for African Caribbean heritage pupils or for Gypsy and Traveller pupils in whose case the attainment gap is even widening.¹⁵⁵ Studies on Turkish, Turkish Kurdish, and Turkish Cypriot children¹⁵⁶ and on Somali pupils¹⁵⁷ conclude that these groups are underachieving as well. Data on the relative performance of different ethnic minority groups on the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) examinations taken by all pupils at age 16, shows that Black pupils and those from Pakistani and Bangladeshi backgrounds achieve

¹⁴⁹ Spanish National Focal Point (2003), p.36.

¹⁵⁰ OECD 2001, Table 6.10.

¹⁵¹ Swedish National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, Table 4: *Pupils who have completed school year nine 1997/1998 — 2001/02*, p.34; Original source: The National Agency for Education.

¹⁵² Swedish National Focal Point (2003) p.16; Original source: The National Agency for Education

¹⁵³ Swedish National Focal Point (2003) pp.15f.

¹⁵⁴ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.14.

¹⁵⁵ Ibid.

¹⁵⁶ Mehmet Ali (2001). *Turkish, Turkish Kurdish and Turkish Cypriot Children*.

¹⁵⁷ Jones and Ali (2000) *Somali Pupils*, London: CRE.

poorer GCSE results than other groups. However, pupils from Chinese and Indian backgrounds achieve results significantly above average.¹⁵⁸ Barriers to achievement are complex and impact differently within and between groups. Differences according to sex also have a significant impact. In most cases, female pupils outperform male pupils of the same background at all key stages.¹⁵⁹ Aggregate data from the PISA assessment indicates that pupils born in the U.K. with immigrant parents show significantly lower results only on the mathematical literacy scale, but are less far behind in reading and scientific literacy. The results of non-native pupils are much worse. However, this data might not be representative because only a low percentage of these pupils participated in the assessment (2,6%).¹⁶⁰ At the university level, White graduates, in general, out-perform all other ethnic groups. This difference is greatest between White graduates and Black Africans, who gain the smallest proportion of first or upper second degrees.¹⁶¹ White students get a much higher share of 'good' degrees than Asian and Black students.¹⁶²

Main Results:

The comparability of data on school achievement in the EU Member States is hampered by differences in group-categorisations, in data differentiation, in school types, and in the length of compulsory schooling. Therefore, only general aspects can be compared, such as attendance of migrants and minorities in school types which are either less academically challenging, more vocationally oriented, or in which schooling ends at an earlier age. In addition, the reliability of a comparative analysis within the EU would be increased if data on the educational achievement of migrants and minorities were collected using similar research methodology. The following results give an overview of general conclusions arrived at from these data.

- Aggregate data on the educational performance of migrants and ethnic minorities indicate lower academic achievements compared to the majority populations in all EU Member States. Migrants and ethnic minorities tend to attain lower educational credentials, finish schooling earlier, and have higher dropout rates.
- Differentiated data shows that large differences exist in achievements between various migrant and ethnic minority groups. While some ethnic groups achieve results significantly above average or even outperform majority pupils on some educational levels (e.g. pupils with Chinese and Indian backgrounds in England), others are very much behind.

¹⁵⁸ U.K. National Focal Point (2003) Diag 4.1: Proportion of minority ethnic learners achieving 5+ A*-C GCSEs for those entered for GCSEs in Maintained Schools in 2002, p.34. Original source: DfES (2003) Aiming High Consultation Document, London: DfES.

¹⁵⁹ DfES (2003); Gillborn, D. and Mirza, H.S. (2000) Educational Inequality: Mapping Race, Class and Gender – A synthesis of research evidence. London: OFSTED.

¹⁶⁰ OECD (2001) Table 6.10.

¹⁶¹ Modood (2003).

¹⁶² U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.40.

- Despite lower success ratings, there are positive developments reported by some countries regarding the starting performance of pupils with foreign backgrounds (e.g. in the Netherlands).
- Second-generation migrants, in most cases, do better than new immigrants. Studies also show that these pupils often attain higher educational levels than their parents (e.g. in Germany).
- Across all ethnic groups, female pupils tend to achieve better school results than males.
- There are regional differences regarding the academic performance of migrants and ethnic minorities, which in part depend on the differing educational systems and differences in the ethnic composition of the population (e.g. in Germany and Spain).
- PISA study results of pupils' reading, mathematical and scientific literacy skills show that native pupils perform better than pupils with a foreign background (born in the country or abroad). Results from Ireland, where non-native pupils managed to surpass the average score of native pupils, or from Denmark and Belgium, where non-native pupils performed better than native-born pupils with a foreign background, have to be treated with caution because of small and unreliable study samples.
- In order to draw better evidence-based conclusions, the collection of more differentiated data on educational achievement of migrants and minorities in the Member States would be desirable as well as more qualitative research on this topic.

5.2. Reasons for Academic Underachievement of Migrants and Ethnic Minorities

The NFP country reports list a variety of reasons why, in general, migrants and minorities do less well in education. Some explanations are based on the NFPs assessment of the situation and others rely on theoretical insights or selective research studies referenced in the reports. As has been stated, it is apparent that further research on the factors which determine the educational performance of migrants and minorities is needed. In particular, there is a lack of ethnographic research with a focus on the cultural perceptions of different groups about the relevance of educational attainment in the country of residence, on structural factors and the societal relationship between minority and majority groups as well as on explicit and subtle forms of discrimination, which lead to disparities and inequalities. Furthermore, existing research should be given more attention in national strategies challenging academic underachievement of immigrants and ethnic minorities. The voice of researchers is seldom listened to when it comes to implementing new initiatives with the aim of putting all pupils at an equal footing and of creating a fostering multicultural school environment. The scope of this paper does not allow an in-depth discussion of theories on educational underachievement. However, this section provides an overview about factors,

which were discussed in the national reports and which have been shown to influence the academic career of migrants and minorities and their educational success and failure.

5.2.1. Factors relating to Minority pupils, their Parents, and the Cultural Group

- **Language and Cultural Differences:**
Comprehension of the majority language affects the educational attainment of ethnic minority pupils. The same is true for culturally based differences in values, experiences with formal education, religion etc.
- **Time of settlement:**
Length of settlement and schooling can affect performance, though this is not universally the case. Some migrant groups settled later than others, yet their offspring still achieve significantly better results. Another factor influencing achievement is the time or age of school entry in the new country, i.e. whether a pupil enters at pre-primary or primary levels or at a later stage. However, this factor may also be related to comprehension of language and school experience.
- **Participation in Pre-school Programmes**
In several countries, migrant and ethnic minority children participate less frequently in pre-school programmes. This may have a negative effect on their (early) academic achievement, since these programmes play an increasingly important role in preparing children for primary school as well as in fostering the learning of the country's dominant language.
- **Socio-economic status:**
Research suggests that social class strongly influences ethnic minority attainment. Pupils from lower socio-economic groups tend to achieve worse results than those from higher socio-economic groups. However, the impact differs for different ethnic groups. At times, the correlation between class indicators and attainment is not as strong for minorities as for majority members.
- **Parental education and aspirations:**
Parents who attained high levels of education themselves and/or have high aspirations for their children can have a strong influence on promoting high achievement levels, regardless of belonging to an ethnic minority or not. On the other hand, low parental educational attainment and expectations negatively affect educational outcomes for their children.

5.2.2. Factors of Institutional Discrimination

- **Segregation in school classes:**
Placement in "minority classes" has been criticised as a strong negative characterisation, which may lead to "racialised" groups, a practice which

interferes with integration into the dominant culture and a identification with values that promote educational achievement.

- **Assignment to special education for reasons other than disability:**
If one assumes that the distribution of pupils with disabilities is similar across all ethnic groups, an over-representation of migrant and minority pupils in these classes indicates that a portion of these pupils is wrongfully assigned to such classes. This in turn limits their advancement in education and employment.
- **Placement in lower than age-appropriate grades:**
The practice of placing such pupils in classes that are lower than their ages has a demoralising effect and may cause high dropout rates among foreign pupils.
- **Exclusion from schools for cultural reasons:**
Certain cultural practices considered incompatible with customs of the dominant culture (e.g. headscarf) have been reported to lead to exclusion and harassment.
- **Admittance in more prestigious or private institutions:**
Discrepancies between public and private school admittance as well as between prestigious and ordinary educational institutions interfere with access to equal chances in education and may limit future opportunities. For example, some companies do not recruit from schools or universities in which ethnic minorities are concentrated.
- **Lack or low quality of compensatory or support programmes:**
Examples include a lack of effective compensatory language programmes, second language teaching undertaken by teachers who are not specifically trained, lack of native language instruction, lack of intercultural curricula approaches in school programmes to foster diversity, lack of religious pluralism, etc.

5.2.3. Factors related to Teachers or Peers

- **Teacher expectations:**
Studies have shown that low expectations from the side of teachers deter some ethnic minority pupils from doing well. In addition, this has been named as a factor in the wrongful assignment of pupils to appropriate classes, such as special education programmes or age-inappropriate grade levels.
- **Direct discrimination by teachers and peers:**
Prejudice, which tends to be expressed in harassment, racial slurs, and scape-goating may have the result that migrant and minority pupils perceive themselves as not being accepted or excluded by members of the dominant culture.

5.2.4. Other Factors

- **Region/Segregation:**
Minority ethnic pupils more often live in disadvantaged, ethnically diverse urban areas. Schools in these segregated residential areas are often stigmatised, which has been shown to have a negative effect on educational outcomes. It has been shown that in "migrant dense" schools there is a higher risk to leave school without a completed curriculum or with very low performance records. Having attended a school with a "low" reputation often limits the option to be admitted to more challenging schools or to be considered for better jobs.
- **Relationship between education and employment:**
Compared to the majority population, migrants and ethnic minority members tend to experience greater difficulty in finding employment according to their attained educational level. In particular, they often have greater difficulties in obtaining an initial job. An awareness of the existence of a "job-ceiling" for certain groups may interfere with the motivation to succeed in school.
- **Monitoring:**
Lack of laws, of monitoring, and of penalties regarding racism and discrimination in the education system results in pupils not being protected from acts of discrimination. Without such protection, minority pupils have been shown to be subjected to wilful grading, or to being failed, or expelled, which may impact their future educational attainment severely.

6. The Educational Situation of National Autochthonous and Indigenous Minorities

Many EU Member States have ethnic minority groups who are not migrants or descendants of more recent migrant populations, but are either indigenous or have settled in the countries a long time ago. At times, these groups are referred to as national minorities, at other times as autochthonous minorities, as linguistic minorities or simply as ethnic minorities. In this report they will mostly be referred to as national minorities. The status of these groups varies. Some are officially recognised minority groups with special rights and privileges, some have particular language rights, and others do not have special group rights at all. The same minority might officially be recognised in some countries but not in others (e.g. the Roma). The sizes of the various minority groups vary considerably from country to country.

The scope of this report does not allow an in-depth discussion of all these national minority groups. Therefore, this section focuses only on groups whose educational situation was considered to be of special relevance and described and analysed in the National Focal Point country reports. (Additional information and information about other groups that are not covered in this report can be found in reports by the Council of Europe, particularly in those that were published in connection with the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities and the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages.¹⁶³

This section of the report focuses on a description of school enrolment and achievement data concerning national minorities, on reported discriminatory practices, and on initiatives, school policies, and special programmes geared to foster the educational success of these groups to the extent of availability of this information in the Member States.

For many years, the educational situation of some national minority groups has been of great concern for the Member States. This particularly applies to the Roma¹⁶⁴ and Traveller populations. The Roma are a large, scattered population which lives all over Europe, and Travellers are an indigenous group to Ireland but

¹⁶³ See: Council of Europe: <http://www.coe.int/T/E/human%5Frights/Minorities/> (30.8.2003) and http://www.coe.int/T/E/Legal_Affairs/Local_and_regional_Democracy/Regional_or_Minority_languages/ (30.8.2003).

¹⁶⁴ The term “gypsy” has become a derogatory, pejorative and offensive name. It should be noted that in response to the recommendations put forth by Roma associations, the Council of Europe approved the use of “Roma (Gypsies)” in its official documents. See: Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe (CLRAE) Recommendation 11 — June 1995: <http://www.social.coe.int/en/cohesion/action/publi/roma/clrae.htm> (30.7.2003). In this report the term Roma will be used, even though there are other “gypsy” groups, such as the Sinti.

also live in the U.K. Other groups of special concern are the Muslim minority in Greece and caravan dwellers in Belgium and Holland.

There are six officially recognised autochthonous ethnic minority groups in **Austria**.¹⁶⁵ They are the Slovenes (ca. 50.000), the Croats (40.000-50.000), the Hungarians (30.000-50.000), the Roma and Sinti (10.000-20.000), the Czechs (15.000-20.000), and the Slovaks (5.000-10.000). The legal status of recognised autochthonous minorities is connected with special language rights, which also apply to education. The foundations for these rights are found in article 7 of the 1955 State Treaty of Vienna, which is of constitutional standing.¹⁶⁶ It states that the Croats of Burgenland and the Slovenes of Carinthia and Styria have a right to elementary education in Croatian and Slovenian as well as to a proportionate number of secondary schools. Implementations of these constitutional rights exist in the form of the Minority School Act for Carinthia¹⁶⁷ and the Minority School Act for Burgenland,¹⁶⁸ which applies to Croatian and also to Hungarian. Implementations lack for these and other minority groups outside these two provinces. The regional school boards of the federal provinces with minority school acts, Burgenland and Carinthia, keep statistics on the bilingual programmes or on instruction in the minority languages.¹⁶⁹

In Austria, there is little data on educational achievement of national minorities. Some information on the education level attained by a minority is contained in a government report, which finds that there are no differences between educational levels attained by the Croatian population and the rest of the population of the Burgenland.¹⁷⁰ No special reports were done about the educational situation of the Slovenes, Hungarians, Czechs and Slovaks. Information on the education situation of Roma in Austria, who, in 1993, were the last of the autochthonous minority groups to be recognised, can also not be drawn from full-scale statistics. In spite of the lack of quantitative information, the marginalisation of the Roma in Austrian society is evident and problems in the education sector are known. Reports of Roma organisations and from academic writings point out that Roma children rarely go beyond compulsory education and many do not obtain a school completion certificate.¹⁷¹ In addition, Roma children often receive their education in special needs schools rather than in regular schools. According to the Austrian

¹⁶⁵ Self-estimates of the size of autochthonous minorities in parenthesis. Austrian National Focal Point (2003), Table 19, p. 60; Original source: Österreichisches Volksgruppenzentrum (2000) Volksgruppenreport 2001. Zur Lage der ethnischen Minderheiten in der Republik Österreich (On the situation of ethnic minorities in the republic of Austria). Österreichisches Volksgruppenzentrum, Vienna; available at: http://www.demokratiezentrum.org/search_agent/display_ARTIKEL1.asp?ID=32, (02.10.2002).

¹⁶⁶ Österreich, BGBl 152/1955.

¹⁶⁷ Österreich, BGBl 101/1959, latest amendment: Österreich, BGBl I 76/2001 (12.07.2001).

¹⁶⁸ Österreich, BGBl 641/1994 (19.08.1994), latest amendment: Österreich, BGBl I 136/1998 (18.08.1998).

¹⁶⁹ Austrian National Focal Point (2003), pp.13-21.

¹⁷⁰ Österreich (2000) Report by the Republic of Austria pursuant to Article 25 paragraph 1 of the Framework convention for the protection of national minorities, Vienna; available at: http://www.bka.gv.at/bka/service/publikationen/volksgruppen/minderheiten_e.pdf, (28.10.2002). [PUBAT0033].

¹⁷¹ Austrian National Focal Point (2003), pp.24-32.

NFP,¹⁷² in recent years joint activities between Roma organisations and linguistics contributed a lot to raising the awareness of Romanes.¹⁷³ Organisations of the Burgenland Roma are involved in the standardisation process of the language, in order to create school teaching materials that can be integrated into the Austrian school system. (Before, Romanes had no written tradition.¹⁷⁴) Also, by 1989, a special learning assistance project for Roma children in Burgenland was started.¹⁷⁵ The Council of Europe¹⁷⁶ recognised the success of this project since, as a result of the determined efforts of the authorities in Burgenland, the educational situation of Roma children has greatly improved. The Council furthermore suggests that other regions could learn from this example.¹⁷⁷ Data on the participation of autochthonous minorities in tertiary education is lacking.

There are no recognised national minorities in **Belgium**, but there are an estimated 6000 caravan dwellers (Manoesj and Roma) in the Flemish and Brussels Capital Region of Belgium. Caravan dwellers are not registered as a separate group by the Flemish government. In three Flemish provinces, Antwerp, Limburg, and East-Flanders, a limited survey on the situation of caravan dwellers in education was conducted by the Flemish Minority Centre in 2001. Concerning the school participation of minor caravan dwellers, it was noted that 45% of the children do not attend school even at compulsory levels. Remarkably, 12% of the pupils, who attend school, take classes in special education. Only two pupils take classes in general secondary education (ASO).¹⁷⁸

The NFP of **Denmark** did not report on any national minorities in the country. In fact, "the notion of national minority is not defined in the Danish Constitution, nor is it defined in any other statute. However, certain individual laws deal specifically with the German minority."¹⁷⁹ Denmark declared that the Framework Convention for the Protection of national minorities would apply to the German minority in South Jutland (self estimates arrive at 15.000-20.000 people). In

¹⁷² Austrian National Focal Point (2003), p.59.

¹⁷³ See the homepage of the Romani Project at the University of Graz: <http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/romani/display.en.html>, (15.04.2003). [NFPAT0026].

¹⁷⁴ Cf.: http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/romani/lern_roman/start.de.html, (20.04.2003).

¹⁷⁵ Cf.: Grandtner, G. (s.a.) Lern- und Freizeitbetreuung (Learning and spare time care taking); available at: http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/romani/lern_hilfe/lernhilfe_vr01.de.html, (11.4.2003). [PUBAT0021].

¹⁷⁶ Council of Europe, Advisory Committee on the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (2002), Opinion on Austria; paragraphs 23, 31, 32, 57, 67; available at: http://www.bka.gv.at/bka/service/publikationen/volksgruppen/rahmenkonvention_pruefbericht_en.pdf, (24.03.2003). [PUBAT0010].

¹⁷⁷ See also: Verein Roma (s.a.) Erfolgreiche Lernhilfe für Roma-Kinder (Successful learning assistance for Roma children); available at: http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/romani/lern_hilfe/lernhilfe_vr02.de.html, (11.04.2003). [PUBAT0043], [NFPAT0111].

¹⁷⁸ Belgian National Focal Point (2003), p. 19.

¹⁷⁹ Council of Europe (1999) Report Submitted By Denmark Pursuant To Article 25, Paragraph 1 Of The Framework Convention For The Protection Of National Minorities 1999; available at: <http://www.coe.int/T/E/human%5Frights/Minorities/> (30.7.2003).

education, the German minority has been granted the right to set up private schools and training establishments with German as the teaching language. Today 15 German schools in Denmark receive state subsidy.¹⁸⁰

There are no legally recognised "national minorities" in **Finland**, but the Constitution Act of Finland guarantees the right of different "groups" to maintain and develop their own languages and cultures. These groups are the Sámi, Roma, Jews, Tatars, the so-called Old Russians and de facto also the Swedish-speaking Finns.¹⁸¹ This section discusses aspects of education concerning the Sámi, Roma, and Swedish-speaking Finns, the only groups for which information on education were supplied. The Sámi are the indigenous minority of Finland. Their right to maintain and develop their own culture and language was recognised in the constitutional reforms of 1995 (PL §17). Exact measures of the size of the Sámi population are not available, but there are about 6.500 Sámi in Finland, most of who live within the Sámi region. Data on enrolment and achievement of the Sámi in schools is scarce. Certain steps are taken to improve the position of the Sámi in the education sector. Sámi-speaking pupils are entitled to primary and secondary education in Sámi within the Sámi region. There are approximately 600 pupils studying in Sámi or studying Sámi.¹⁸² Open universities and colleges run Sámi language programmes.¹⁸³ The training of teachers speaking the Sámi language is promoted. For example, there are quotas in the training of primary school teachers. In addition, Finnish universities have quotas for students speaking Sámi in fields such as law and medicine.¹⁸⁴ The Finnish Roma are members of the Kaale (Cálo) group and currently number about 10.000 people. They are legally entitled to education in Romanes at the basic, secondary, vocational and adult education levels. However, most local authorities have not acted on providing teaching in Romanes, nor have any separate educational allocations been made.¹⁸⁵ Still, education in Romanes is provided in some basic schools and there is support to foster vocational training skills. The Roma appear to be the poorest performers in Finnish education. The biggest problem is the failure of some Roma children to complete compulsory basic education. Dropout rates have been estimated to be as high as 10-20%. Roma children are often placed in remedial classes or require additional support. Beyond the basic school level, there are few Roma involved in secondary or tertiary education.¹⁸⁶ Estimates speak about less than half of Roma children who continue education after secondary school, compared to 93% of the majority population.¹⁸⁷ The National Education Board has set up initiatives aimed specifically at the Roma minority, in order to improve their position in the education system. Roma communities have been given some level of autonomy in

¹⁸⁰ Ibid.

¹⁸¹ Ibid., Report Submitted By Finland Pursuant To Article 25, Paragraph 1 Of The Framework Convention For The Protection Of National Minorities ACFS/SR(1999)003.

¹⁸² <http://virtual.finland.fi/finfo/english/saameng.html#indi> (30.8.2003).

¹⁸³ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), p.16.

¹⁸⁴ Report Submitted By Finland.

¹⁸⁵ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), p.9.

¹⁸⁶ Ibid., p.14; Finnish National Focal Point (2002), p.22; Original source: The National Board of Education, NBE (2002) Education for Romanies in Finland; available at <http://www.oph.fi/english/page.asp?path=447;490;6276> (14.10.2002).

¹⁸⁷ Council of Europe (1999) Report Submitted By Finland.

planning their education. This approach has been successful to some degree, because it allowed the communities to take care of their own needs and improved their motivation. A successful training project called *Suomen Romako* offers practical training for Roma aged 25 to 55 in areas such as nursing and school assistant work, and also prepares them for finding jobs. The Ministry of Social Affairs and Health has an Advisory Committee on Roma Affairs. The Education Unit for the Roma Population is an expert member on the Advisory Committee and collaborates with it in all matters relating to education and training. The Unit's action plan for 2002-2003 includes the production of teaching material in Romanes and a nation-wide project on Roma children's education.¹⁸⁸ Other projects have been carried out jointly by some cities and Roma organisations as part of the European JOIN project.¹⁸⁹

Swedish-speakers are a minority of about 292.000 people (5.6% of the population) and Swedish is the second national language in Finland. Aside from bilingual regions, there is a Swedish-speaking Autonomous Region of Åland. The Swedish-speaking minority has the right to be educated in its own language. There are Swedish day-care centers, over 300 basic or comprehensive schools, as well as 36 general upper secondary schools, a number of vocational secondary schools, polytechnics, and two universities that operate primarily in Swedish.¹⁹⁰ There are also quotas for Swedish-speaking students at Finnish universities in different fields.¹⁹¹ No data was supplied on the educational achievement of Swedish-speakers.

In **France**, the republican imperatives of promoting national unity and secularity work against the establishment of special group rights that might benefit minority education and integration in the form of subsidised initiatives and laws to protect cultural identity. In addition, such rights would interfere with religious or cultural affiliations of national, regional, and immigrant minorities within the public sphere. There has been criticism of an assimilationist policy which does not foster the development of minority identities or political representation of minority communities.¹⁹²

In **Germany**, the Danes (50.000), the Sorbs (60.000), and the German Sinti and Roma (10.000) are legally recognised national minorities. The Frisians are considered to be a separate ethnic group (estimates of North Frisians are 50.000 to 60.000).¹⁹³ National minorities have the right to set up and to manage their own private educational and training establishments. From all groups, Sinti and Roma are regarded as the groups with the lowest achievement in the education system. Members of the group are over-represented in special needs schools, have a very high proportion of early dropouts, and only rarely achieve higher levels of

¹⁸⁸ Finnish National Focal Point (2002), p.43.

¹⁸⁹ Information available at: www.join.fi (17.6.2004).

¹⁹⁰ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), p.15f.

¹⁹¹ Council of Europe (1999) Report Submitted By Finland.

¹⁹² French National Focal Point (2003), p.13.

¹⁹³ Estimated figures of national minority groups, Source: Report Submitted By Germany Pursuant To Article 25, Paragraph 1 Of The Framework Convention For The Protection Of National Minorities; available at: <http://www.coe.int/T/E/human%5Frights/Minorities/> (30.7.2003).

education.¹⁹⁴ The German NFP¹⁹⁵ points to a report by the Open Society Institute, which states that Sinti and Roma belong to groups that are affected by discrimination in schools. Representatives of the group believe that the assignment to special needs schools is often arbitrary and that the children of the group are often perceived as a "disturbance of the normal school life".¹⁹⁶

In **Greece**, the only officially recognised minority is the autochthonous Muslim minority of Thrace. It consists of Turkish speaking ethnic Turks, originally Slavic speaking but increasingly Turkish speaking ethnic Pomaks, and originally Romanes speaking but increasingly Turkish speaking Roma.¹⁹⁷ This recognition is based on the religious character of the minority, which is treated as a homogeneous entity. Muslim Greek citizens are considered to be the Muslim inhabitants of Western Thrace, established in the region to the east of the frontier line laid down in 1913 by the Treaty of Bucharest.¹⁹⁸ Nowadays, it is estimated that 85.000 Muslims live in Thrace while more than 15.000 Thracian Muslims live elsewhere in Greece¹⁹⁹ (mostly in Athens). Furthermore, about 4.000 Muslims (having Turkish as their mother tongue) are believed to reside in the Dodecanese islands of Rhodes and Kos, but they are not part of the legally recognised minority.²⁰⁰ Law 694 of 1977²⁰¹ is the basic law regulating the education of the Muslim minority. It is estimated that in the year 2000, about 300 minority children received pre-school education. Muslim minority children have the right to attend either Greek or minority public primary schools. All minority schools follow a bilingual — half Greek half Turkish — curriculum and use textbooks which take the religious culture of the community and the fact that Greek is used as a second language into consideration. In 2001 to 2002, 223 primary minority schools operated with approximately 7.000 pupils and 900 teachers.²⁰² The dropout rate is very high.²⁰³ From 1985 to 1995, the average dropout rate was 23.5% in the minority primary schools compared to a national average of 1.2%. This high dropout rate is largely attributed to the socio-economic status of Muslim minority families, as well as the very low level of labour market integration. One minority lower secondary and one higher secondary school operate as private schools. In

¹⁹⁴ Open Society Institute (2002) Monitoring des Minderheitenschutzes in der Europäischen Union: Die Lage der Sinti und Roma in Deutschland (Monitoring the Protection of Minorities in the European Union: The Situation of Sinti and Roma in Germany), p. 96.

¹⁹⁵ German National Focal Point (2003), p.27.

¹⁹⁶ Open Society Institute (2002) p.98.

¹⁹⁷ Dalegre, J., (1997) "La Thrace Grecque - populations et territoire", L' Harmattan, Paris.

¹⁹⁸ Convention Concerning the Exchange of Greek and Turkish Populations (Appendix A, Article 2), Lausanne January 30, 1923 between the Government of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey and the Greek Government. English text available at: [http://www.hri.org/docs/lausanne/\(09/09/2002\)](http://www.hri.org/docs/lausanne/(09/09/2002)).

¹⁹⁹ Trubeta, S. (1999) "Die Konstitution von Minderheiten und die Ethnisierung sozialer und politischer Konflikte - Eine Untersuchung am Beispiel der im griechischen Trakien ansässigen Muslimischen Minderheit", Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

²⁰⁰ Greek National Focal Point (2003), p.39.

²⁰¹ Greece, N. 694/1977 (FEK 244A/01-09-1977).

²⁰² Education Ministry, Department of Foreign and Minority Schools (school year 2000-01) Minority Primary Education Students in Thraki (Thrace). (3A0004).

²⁰³ Tressou E. (1997): "Minority education in Thrace: reasons of failure", *Synchrona Themata*, 63/1997, pp. 49-53.

addition, there are five public Greek secondary schools, which are exclusively attended by minority pupils. The Greek curriculum in these schools is enriched with a Turkish language course on Islam. In the school year of 2001/02, minority secondary schools had a total of 1.150 pupils and 100 teachers. It should be noted that in 2002, more than 1.500 Muslim pupils chose to attend Greek upper secondary schools in Thrace.²⁰⁴ Turkish is taught only in the minority schools. In Greek public schools in Thrace it is not even offered as a foreign language. Law 2341 of 1995 regulates affirmative action.²⁰⁵ The law sets aside 300 student places (0.5% of the total and at least one in every university department) for Muslim minority students. In 2002/03, 178 Muslim minority students from Thrace enrolled at Greek universities. Teachers of the Turkish curriculum in the minority primary schools are educated at the Special Pedagogical Academy of Thessalonica.²⁰⁶ In 1997, the project "Muslim Children Education" was launched to study the causes of the Muslim minority's educational underachievement. The project was under the auspices of the Ministry's Special Secretariat of Intercultural Education, which is partly funded by the Community Support Framework. The project is now (2002-2004) in its second phase but no interim results were reported by the NFP.

The Roma in Greece also show poor academic performance. The available official statistical data indicates that during the school year 1999 to 2000, 8.500 Roma pupils were registered in primary schools, 1.500 in lower secondary, and 250 in higher secondary²⁰⁷ schools.²⁰⁸ Most Roma pupils do not proceed to higher educational levels and the dropout rate is extremely high. A recent national survey²⁰⁹ on the educational level of male leaders of Roma families (average age 40) shows that 35% have never attended school, 27% erratically attended primary school up to the 4th grade, 26% are primary school graduates, and only 2% completed compulsory education (lower secondary), while another 2% graduated from higher secondary education.²¹⁰ In 1997, the project "Roma Children Education", which is now (2002-2006) in its second phase, was launched under the auspices of the Ministry's Special Secretariat of Intercultural Education and partly funded by the Community Support Framework. It intends to study the living conditions of Greek Roma (excluding Roma living in Thrace and enjoying official Muslim minority status) and the causes of their educational underachievement, in order to improve the education provided to them. Despite a

²⁰⁴ RAXEN2 Database No. 3A0005.

²⁰⁵ Greece, N. 2341/1995 (FEK 208A/06-10-1995).

²⁰⁶ Greek National Focal Point (2003), pp. 43-46.

²⁰⁷ SSEIGE, Education Ministry Minority Groups in Education (school years 1995/96 – 2000/01) (3A0010).

²⁰⁸ Greek National Focal Point (2002), p.37.

²⁰⁹ University of Ioannina Dept. of Pedagogics, Educational level of Greek "Gypsies" (1998 – 1999); In: Papakonstantinou, G. et al. (nd) Research – Study on the economical – social – cultural situation of "Gypsies" in Greece (3A0013).

²¹⁰ Greek National Focal Point (2002), p.38.

lack of official statistical data on attendance and dropout rates, the Education Ministry has stated that the implementation of the "Roma Children Education" project has reduced the dropout rate from 75% to 24%.^{211, 212}

The Traveller community, an indigenous Irish group with an estimated population of 22,000 people, remains the largest ethnic minority group in Ireland. However, it is not a legally recognised national minority. In the field of education Travellers have faced marginalisation in the past. In recent years, however, efforts have been made to increase their participation in schools. There is a lack of data on the academic success of the group and generally not much data beyond enrolment figures. The progression of Travellers decreases from year one in secondary school where there is 100% progression, to year three when only 29% of Travellers remain in secondary schools. In the fourth year only 6% remain. In 2002, there were 921 Travellers in second level education, representing approximately 0.3% of the total pupil population.²¹³ Very few Travellers are currently engaged in tertiary education. In a report submitted to the Monitoring Committee of the Task Force of the Travelling People in November 2002, it was stated that the dropout rate for Traveller children has been unacceptably high.²¹⁴ The need to review the outcome and the experiences of Traveller children within the education system has been recognised for some time. While the provision of resources in support of the Traveller school population is very substantial, there is growing recognition of the need to profile and track the progress of Traveller children within the current service provision. Guidelines on Traveller education were prepared following a consultative process and issued to all primary and post primary schools in March 2002. This was the beginning of a process that involves in-service training and support for everyone involved with the delivery of education to Traveller children.²¹⁵ Given the fact that categorisation of educational data does not account for the ethnic origin of certain minorities, the Roma are invisible in the present data collections. The Roma have been the subject of past and contemporary discrimination and suffered from assimilationist policies in education, which are well documented through recent OECD and Council of Europe publications. A recent needs assessment report in 2001 identified education as an important concern for the Roma community in Ireland.²¹⁶

In **Italy**, the Constitution recognises and protects "linguistic" minorities, but does not recognise national minorities or make any reference to "ethnic" minorities. For example, there is a French-language minority, a German-language minority, and a Slovenian-language minority, living in different regions throughout the country. Roma and Sinti do not appear in educational statistics that differentiate groups by citizenship or nationality. Members of the group may be from Yugoslavia,

²¹¹ Stamelos G., (ed), (2002) "The Greek Educational System", Centre for Educational Research, Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs, Athens, p. 238.

²¹² Greek National Focal Point (2003), revised report, p.37.

²¹³ Irish National Focal Point (2002), p.25.

²¹⁴ Task Force on the Travelling Community. Monitoring Committee Meeting 11/11/02. Progress Report on Traveller Education, p.28.

²¹⁵ Irish National Focal Point (2002) p.36.

²¹⁶ Pavee Point; NCCRI (2001) Roma in Ireland. An initial needs assessment.

Romania, Macedonia, or even Italy. Roma children suffer from social prejudice and turn out to be at the bottom in terms of educational performance, with very few reaching middle school level and frequent dropouts from compulsory schools.²¹⁷ It has also been reported that schools at times do not accept the enrolment of children who do not have documents.²¹⁸

There are no reports on national or indigenous minority groups in **Luxembourg**.

In the **Netherlands**, there are some groups speaking regional or local minority languages, such as Frisian, the Lower Saxon language, Yiddish, or the Roma languages. Efforts are under way to ensure that a part of pre-school and primary education is available in Frisian. Caravan dwellers (23.000)²¹⁹ and Roma and Sinti (3.500)²²⁰ are ethnic minorities that have been included in the policy on educational disadvantage, which already has been mentioned in section 3.2 of this report. The Netherlands employ a unique system in arriving at figures, which determine education subsidy for each individual pupil. According to this, "weights" are assigned to pupils based on their socio-economic and socio-cultural/ethnic background, which decide over extra funding for schools. Children of caravan-dwellers and Roma and Sinti are given a weight of 1.7, compared to a weight of 1 for "regular" pupils and a weight of 1.9 for disadvantaged non-Western origin ethnic minority pupils.²²¹ There is generally little information on the educational position of these groups, which is particularly regrettable as studies suggest that they are probably being exposed to prejudice and discrimination by both teachers and pupils.^{222, 223}

Portugal does not legally recognise national minorities. The largest ethnic minority, aside from the more recent immigrants, is the Roma. In 2001/02, they were the third largest minority group attending elementary school with a proportion of 10,84% among all minority pupils.²²⁴ However, Roma students show a decreasing participation in the beyond-compulsory schooling. Their proportion within minority groups decreased from 17,9% in the 1st cycle of regular basic education, to 0,6% in the 3rd cycle, and was close to 0% in secondary schools. Generally, they show a higher participation rate in recurrent education,

²¹⁷ Italian National Focal Point (2002), p.4.

²¹⁸ Ibid., p.33.

²¹⁹ Kamerstukken II [Parliamentary Documents II] 2002/03, 28 612, nr. 2, p. 4; available at: <http://www.overheid.nl> (22/04/2003).

²²⁰ The figure concerning the number of Roma and Sinti is taken from: ECRI (2001), Second report on the Netherlands. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, p. 14; ; available at: http://www.coe.int/T/E/human_rights/Ecri/1-ECRI/2-Country-by-country_approach/Netherlands/CBC2_Netherlands.pdf (22.04.2002) The Dutch government estimates the number of Roma and Sinti at 2,000; the National Organization of Roma and Sinti estimates 5,000.

²²¹ Dutch National Focal Point (2003) RAXEN 4 Education Report, p.55.

²²² Ibid., p. 52.

²²³ E. Poortvliet. Woonwagen- en zigeunerkinderen raken als groep buiten beeld [Caravan-dweller and gypsy children as an unseen group] in: Toon, 2002, 1. p-20-21.

²²⁴ Portuguese National Focal Point (2003) Most representative minorities in 2001/2002 school year (%); Original source: DEB-ME; p. 28.

which offers a second educational opportunity.²²⁵ Roma and African pupils are the ones most vulnerable to direct or indirect discrimination in the education sector. For example, there was criticism of schools, which assemble all Roma pupils in one class, thereby contributing to the formation of ghetto classes.²²⁶ This recognition led to The Council of Ministers Resolution 157/96, which entailed the Creation of the Workgroup for the Equality and Insertion of "Gypsies". Some educational measures followed this resolution, such as the implementation of Cultural Mediators for Education. But mainly, the Group's objectives are to carry out an analysis of the difficulties concerning the integration of the "gypsy" community into Portuguese society and to elaborate a set of proposals, which will contribute to the elimination of social exclusion. It has been acknowledged that the lack of professional education, the low literacy levels, and the school failure rate of the young population contribute to the difficult situation of the group.²²⁷

In **Spain**, the Constitution does not formally recognise or define ethnic minorities. It was only in the late 1970s, when the new Constitution recognised the Roma as citizens and guaranteed their fundamental rights and freedoms. It is estimated that there are between 600.000 and 650.000 Roma in Spain. Most Roma pupils drop out before the end of compulsory schooling, have high illiteracy rates, and rarely take up apprenticeships or learn trades.²²⁸ Concerning the schooling of the Roma, it appears that 35% of Roma pupils are absent from school from time to time and academic failure is attributed to 60-70% of Roma children. 10% have extensive absenteeism records, 30% leave school before year two of obligatory secondary education (ESO). About 5% of Roma children do not attend school at all.²²⁹ According to the initial periodical report by Spain, submitted to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe in accordance with Article 15 of the Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, only 0.01% of the total number of Roma living in Spain uses Romanes as first language.²³⁰

There are several languages spoken in Spain that are co-official in their respective Autonomous Communities. These are Euskera/Basque spoken in the Basque Country and in Fuero of Navarre, Catalan in Catalonia and in the Balearic Islands, Galician in Galicia, and Valencian in the Community of Valencia.²³¹ The Autonomous Communities have the right to their own language and there are educational models in place, which provide for teaching in that language.²³²

²²⁵ Ibid., Table — Students by different cultural/nationality groups (1999/2000), p.43; Original source: DPPA — Department for Prospective and Planning Analysis of Ministry of Education.

²²⁶ Ibid., pp. 37, 39.

²²⁷ Ibid., pp.13f.

²²⁸ Council of Europe, Report Submitted By Spain Pursuant To Article 25, Paragraph 1 Of The Framework Convention For The Protection Of National Minorities, Dec 2002.

²²⁹ Spanish National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p.23.

²³⁰ Initial periodical report by Spain submitted to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe in accordance with Article 15 of the Charter for Regional or Minority Languages; available at: http://www.coe.int/T/E/Legal_Affairs/Local_and_regional_Democracy/Regional_or_Minority_languages/ (30.6.2003).

²³¹ Ibid.

²³² Spanish National Focal Point (2002a) RAXEN 3 Educational System Report Of Autonomic Communities With Own Language In Spain.

Sweden legally recognises five national minorities — the Sámi, Swedish Finns, Tornedalers, Roma, and Jews. This recognition is based on Sweden's ratification of the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities. In addition, it is acknowledged in two legal acts by the Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, that a regard for minority language is an important step toward reinforcing the rights of national ethnic minorities. These acts imply the right to use Sámi, Finnish, and Tornedal Finnish (Meänkieli) in transactions with administrative authorities and in courts of law in those regions where the language has developed and continues to be relevant²³³ No official data is kept in Sweden on grounds of ethnic, linguistic, or cultural origin of these groups. Estimates on the largest groups which have historically been based in specific geographic regions suggest 15.000-20.000 Sámi, 450.000 Swedish-Finns, and 50.000 Tornedalers. Estimates for groups using "non-territorial languages" show 35.000-40.000 Roma (about 2.500 Swedish Roma, 3.200 Finnish Roma, 10.000 from countries outside Scandinavia and 20.000 travellers). The Jewish community in Sweden consists of 20.000-25.000 people.²³⁴ Among independent schools with minority ethnic orientation, there are eight Swedish-Finnish schools, one Jewish and one Tornedalian school. For pupils of Sámi origin, there are State-financed Sámi schools, in which education is conducted from the first to the sixth year of compulsory education.²³⁵ The report "Roma and the Swedish school"²³⁶ asserts that the Roma's school performance has not improved. While no statistical material is presented, the report discusses teachers' evaluations of their pupils' achievements. According to this assessment, only 20 % of the Roma girls and 12 % of the boys complete compulsory school with full degrees. The two schools included in the case study showed that Roma pupils had an absenteeism rate of over 50 %.²³⁷ Based on the needs described in the report "Roma and the Swedish School", special resources have been channelled towards pedagogical efforts targeting the Roma community. For example, *Romano Trajo*, which began as a care-programme for Roma children, is discussed in an evaluation by the Government in 1997 as one of the most successful pedagogical models providing school support.²³⁸

In the **United Kingdom** Gypsies and Travellers are known to experience difficulties in education, which result in low achievements and high dropout rates from school. According to the U.K. NFP, the Office for Standards in Education has shown that Gypsies and Travellers of Irish heritage achieve the lowest results of any minority ethnic group and are the group most at risk in the education

²³³ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), p.11.

²³⁴ Initial Periodical Report by Sweden presented to the Secretary General of the Council of Europe in accordance with Article 15 of the Charter for Regional or Minority Languages; available at: [http://www.coe.int/T/E/Legal_Affairs/Local_and_regional_Democracy/Regional_or_Minority_languages/\(30.6.2003\)](http://www.coe.int/T/E/Legal_Affairs/Local_and_regional_Democracy/Regional_or_Minority_languages/(30.6.2003)).

²³⁵ Council of Europe,(2001) Report Submitted By Sweden Pursuant To Article 25, Paragraph 1 Of The Framework Convention For The Protection Of National Minorities 2001.

²³⁶ The National Agency for Education -Skolverket (1999).Romer och den svenska skolan.(Dnr.98:2652. 199.03.01).

²³⁷ The National Agency for Education -Skolverket (1999).Romer och den svenska skolan.(Dnr.98:2652. 199.03.01).

²³⁸ Ibid., p. 23.

system.²³⁹ They are also more likely to be excluded from school than most other pupils.²⁴⁰ According to the Department for Education and Skills (England),²⁴¹ their achievement data will be collected as part of the 2003 Pupil Level Annual Schools Census in order to recognise and consider their needs alongside those of other ethnic minority pupils. In recent years, a grant programme, which aims to improve access to school and to raise the achievement levels of children in groups at risk of educational failure and social exclusion, improved achievement significantly, particularly at the primary level.²⁴²

Main Results:

- The reports on non-migrant ethnic minority groups from the EU Member States show underachievement in education of several groups. This concerns the Roma, Gypsies (and Sinti) in Austria, Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. Furthermore, Caravan dwellers in Belgium and the Netherlands, Travellers in the UK, Ireland, and the Muslim minority in Greece often do not perform well in schools.
- For some groups, e.g. the Sámi and the Swedish-speaking Finns in Finland or the Sámi and the Swedish Finns in Sweden, very little or no data on achievement was supplied. However, a comparison of the educational attainment of the respective groups in the two countries could be of special interest to school officials and policy makers.
- The reasons for the lower academic achievement of these groups are manifold. Overall, there is a lack of research and data concerning the education of non-migrant ethnic minority groups. However, it seems fair to say that in many cases, a history of social exclusion, assimilationist tendencies, and a monocultural orientation in education lead to distrust in the educational system and to low expectations about the benefits of educational attainment.
- Since a large proportion of each groups' older generation has not met basic educational standards, it has been problematic to increase the educational attainment of the younger generation.
- The socio-economic differences between many national minorities and the majority of the population in the Member States are still considerable. This creates not only problems relating to education, but also to other aspects such as employment and housing, which negatively influence the educational situation of these groups.
- Several groups, but in particular Roma and Sinti, are affected by discrimination in schools. They are regarded as a "disturbance to normal school life" by teachers and school administrators and frequently assigned to special needs schools or even to segregated classes.

²³⁹ OFSTED (1999) Raising the attainment of minority ethnic pupils: School and LEA Responses, London: HMSO.

²⁴⁰ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.36.

²⁴¹ DfES (2003a) Aiming High Consultation Document, London: DfES.

²⁴² Council of Europe, (1999) Report Submitted By The United Kingdom Pursuant To Article 25, Paragraph 1 Of The Framework Convention For The Protection Of National Minorities 1999; available at: <http://www.coe.int/T/E/human%5Frights/Minorities/> (30.8.2003).

- In surveys, Roma generally state that educating their children in schools is desirable, although some do not believe that schooling has much to offer in terms of improved life chances. Even well qualified Roma will often not be able to find suitable employment due to employers' prejudices.²⁴³ Lacking school attendance and low academic performance of the Roma have in part been attributed to their perceptions of the value of education. Some Roma consider schooling of their children even as harmful since, in their view, it deprives children of their family and socialises them into different cultural values and norms.²⁴⁴ However, the critical attitude towards school as an institution of the majority society present among members of the group of Roma has to be seen within the context of centuries of discrimination, exclusion — including exclusion from education — and violent racist persecution by majority societies.
- Despite various support programmes, Travellers in Ireland still lag behind in education. Various reasons have been stated as explanation for this, such as lack of expectations by Traveller parents and teachers, withdrawal of male pupils to help out at home, failure to acknowledge and to accommodate Traveller culture, and institutional discrimination.²⁴⁵
- Several studies are under way to research the educational underachievement of the Muslim minority in Greece. High dropout rates and low educational attainment are largely attributed to the socio-economic status of Muslim minority families and their low level of labour market integration.

²⁴³ Chryssakis M. (1989) Family investment practices by the poor and non poor and educational inequalities. *Revue of Sociological Research*, Vol. 75, pp. 89 – 120.

²⁴⁴ Greek National Focal Point (2003), p. 38.

²⁴⁵ Irish National Focal Point (2002), p. 43.

7. Language Programmes, Intercultural Education, and "Good Practices"

7.1. Native Language Programmes

The linguistic competence in their native language is of high importance for the language development of children. Research results show that good proficiency in a native language is a solid basis for achieving competence in a second language.²⁴⁶ Contrary to this view, there is an often politically motivated argument asserting that full immersion in a second language rather than a combination of second language and native language instruction fosters language proficiency in a new language.²⁴⁷ The following section outlines current regulations and practices regarding native language instruction in the education systems of the EU Member States.

Aside from statistics on citizenship, on nationality, or on ethnic minority group affiliation, some EU Member States collect data on the native language of pupils and students in the education system. In this respect also the terms mother tongue, first language or primary language are used. Data on pupils' numbers according to foreign native language can also be inferred from statistics about non-native speakers (i.e. for whom the dominant language of the country of residence is the second language) or about pupils who are regarded as bilinguals (if this implies that their first language is not the country's national language). The education reports from Austria, Denmark, Finland, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom supplied a general survey on the pupils' native language. The respective data will be mentioned in the following discussion of native language as well as in the following section on second language programmes in the EU Member States.

In principle, migrant pupils in **Austria** are not legally entitled to education in their native language. However, native language instruction in some languages has been offered in certain schools for more than a decade. Pupils speaking a mother tongue other than German and pupils who grow up in bilingual families can participate in separate courses outside regular school hours and in team-teaching (integrative instruction) independent of their citizenship. In 2001/02, 24.512 pupils participated in native language courses which were

²⁴⁶ Cf. De Cillia, R. (1998) *Spracherwerb in der Migration*. (Language acquisition under the condition of migration.) Informationsblätter des Referats für interkulturelles Lernen, Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture; available at: http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/medien/4424_nr3_2002.pdf, (14.04.2003).

²⁴⁷ For example, according to the Danish NFP, this argument was recently put forward by the Minister of Education in Denmark (Danish National Focal Point (2003), p.2.

offered by 309 teachers.²⁴⁸ In primary education, in special education and in lower secondary schools, native language instruction ranges between two and six hours a week. The courses are offered for participation on a voluntary basis. Pupils from different schools and age groups may attend these courses. The minimum number of pupils required to start a course varies between federal provinces, and ranges between five and twelve pupils. Bosnian, Croatian, Serbian, and Turkish are the most prominent languages. Romanes was taught to Roma children from former Yugoslavia for the first time in one school in Vienna. The percentage of pupils with a first language other than German, who actually take part in native language instruction, on the average amounts 25 %. However, in higher general secondary schools only about 1.5 % of pupils with a first language other than German receive native language instruction.^{249, 250} Unfortunately, a lack of training programmes for native language teachers often leads to ineffective native language instruction. In the past, native language programmes were part of bilateral agreements with Yugoslavia and Turkey, which stipulated that these countries should have the responsibility for the choice of the teachers sent to Austria. Although the bilateral co-operation programmes ended in the early 1990s, the resulting gap with respect to teacher training requirements has so far not been closed.²⁵¹ Insecure employment is a common situation for teachers working in the native language programmes.²⁵² Also, teachers with no Austrian or EEA citizenship are excluded from joining public service and can only aspire to contracts under private law.²⁵³ The weak status of native language programmes for migrants is expected to lower the proficiency of the pupils in their native language. In addition, if speaking a particular language has low prestige in society, the pupils' willingness to study this language is compromised.²⁵⁴ Aside from native language teaching for migrants, instruction in the mother tongue is offered in bilingual schools to some autochthonous minority groups (e.g. Croatians, Hungarians, Slovenians).

In **Belgium**, within the Flemish Policy of Equal Chances in Education, the regulation OETC — *Onderwijs in Eigen Taal en Cultuur* deals with education in one's native language and culture. In 27 schools of primary education and two schools of secondary education it is possible to take classes in the native language and culture. Teachers are from the same countries of origin as the pupils and stay a maximum of five years in Belgium. Within the Flemish Educational Council, a framework curriculum has led to the working plan 'Encouragement of Immigrant

²⁴⁸ Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (2002) Muttersprachliche Lehrerinnen und Lehrer in Österreich. Statistische Auswertung für das Schuljahr 2001/02. Kurzbericht verfasst von Waldrauch, H. und Manolakos, T. (Native language teachers in Austria. Statistical survey concerning the year 2001/02). Informationsblätter des Referats für Interkulturelles Lernen Nr. 5/2002; available at: http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/medien/3720_nr5_2002.pdf, (28.05.2003).

²⁴⁹ Ibid., p.22.

²⁵⁰ Austrian National Focal Point (2003), pp.16, 21.

²⁵¹ Ibid., p.26.

²⁵² Çinar, D. (ed.) (1998) Gleichwertige Sprachen? Muttersprachlicher Unterricht für die Kinder von Einwanderern. (Languages of equal value? Native language instruction for children of immigrants), Innsbruck: Studienverlag. [PUBAT0008].

²⁵³ Austrian National Focal Point (2003), p. 26.

²⁵⁴ Ibid., p.39.

Language and Identity Development' (specifically for the languages Italian and Turkish). Four schools participated in this programme.²⁵⁵

In **Denmark**, mother tongue instruction has recently been subject of a major change in policy. Up until 2002, bilingual pupils in compulsory education (*folkeskole* and in private schools) were offered a few hours teaching per week in their mother tongue (a minimum of 12 attendees were required). The new government has changed this practice. Now, the local municipalities are only obliged to offer mother tongue teaching to pupils from EU/EEA-countries as well as from the Faeroe Islands and from Greenland.²⁵⁶ In the explanatory memorandum to the law it is stated: "The bill is a part of the government's objective about all pupils getting the maximum professional and social benefit by the education in the *Folkeskole*. Good Danish skills at the beginning of school is a condition for achieving this goal and with the bill the government wishes to move the focus from mother tongue teaching to an intensified language stimulation in the pre-school age."²⁵⁷ The municipalities are not forbidden to offer mother tongue teaching to all bilingual pupils, but they have to foot the bill. As a consequence, most municipalities no longer make the provision. However, the two largest municipalities, Copenhagen and Århus, where a major part of refugees, migrants, and descendants live, still maintain mother tongue teaching in third country languages.²⁵⁸

The National Board of Education in **Finland** has published statistics about the extent of mother tongue teaching for pupils whose native language is not Finnish in basic (comprehensive) and upper secondary schools in 2002. In total, 11.408 pupils (including Roma and Sámi), received lessons in their mother tongue twice a week in 50 different languages. Russian appears to be the most widely spread and extensively taught immigrant mother tongue in Finnish schools (3.345 pupils). It is followed by Somali, which is taught to 1.349 pupils.²⁵⁹ The Swedish-speaking minority also has good access to mother tongue teaching, partly because there are a number of Swedish-speaking institutions provided for this benefit. There are over 300 basic or comprehensive schools, as well as 36 general upper secondary schools, a number of vocational secondary schools, polytechnics, and two universities that operate primarily in Swedish.²⁶⁰ For the ethnic minorities (Sámi and Roma) the situation is not as positive, with only 15% of Roma children having access to mother tongue teaching and only a handful of Sámi children participating in mother tongue training. The ethnic minority languages Romanes and Sámi were taught to 234 Roma and 19 Sámi pupils as mother tongue.²⁶¹

²⁵⁵ Belgian National Focal Point (2003), pp.10, 27.

²⁵⁶ Lov om ændring af lov om folkeskolen og lov om friskoler og private grundskoler m.v. (modersmålsundervisning og sprogstimulering) [Act on changes in act on folkeskolen and act on private schools etc. (mother tongue teaching and language stimulation)], 2002.

²⁵⁷ Explanatory memorandum to law 412 of 06/06/2002.

²⁵⁸ Danish National Focal Point (2003), p.10.

²⁵⁹ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), Table 3: Minority native language training offered in Finnish basic and upper secondary schools 2001/2002; Original source: NBE 2003; p.16; available at: <http://www.edu.fi/pageLast.asp?path=498;526;15650;19135> (25.8.2003).

²⁶⁰ Ibid.

²⁶¹ Ibid., pp.3, 16.

However, since the 1980s, the Sámi language has official status in the comprehensive school system. Within the Sámi region, Sámi-speaking pupils are entitled to primary and secondary education in Sámi.²⁶²

In **France**, since 1975, courses for languages and cultures of origin (ELCO) were arranged within public schools. In the past, they were most often dispensed by teachers from the countries in question, under contract to the French National Education System. While the teaching of certain native languages and cultures of origin (such classes were not available for all the represented cultures) was officially implemented to facilitate the integration of foreign pupils, it actually was part of an overall strategy aimed at facilitating the child's predicted future re-integration into their parents' countries of origin. Today, the CASNAV provide advice and guidance with regard to developing and disseminating pedagogical material for native-language teaching or for teaching cultures of origin.²⁶³

In **Germany**, additional instruction in the migrants' mother tongue is mainly offered in the western federal states, primarily for children from Turkey and former Yugoslavia, the former recruitment countries of guest workers. As an exception, Hamburg can be named as the only federal state offering Romanes as a school subject in seven schools.²⁶⁴ In the Eastern German federal states, courses are occasionally offered in other languages as well.²⁶⁵ Foreign teachers employed by the federal state concerned primarily carry out teaching in these respective languages. In other federal states, by contrast, teaching is offered by the consulates, however within the school buildings. Participation in instruction in the migrants' mother tongue is voluntary. The aim of such teaching was initially to facilitate the children's return to their home country and to ease their entry into the school system in these countries. It was only later that the socialisation function of the native language was accepted. In the meantime, it is assumed that promoting the mother tongue does not hinder the learning of German, but rather increases linguistic competence in general.^{266, 267}

In **Greece**, courses on the language and culture of the country of origin are optional; but for migrants, none have been officially implemented in schools yet.²⁶⁸ Mother tongue instruction is only offered in specially designated and segregated schools for the Muslim minority and in private foreign schools (e.g. Polish and the Filipino schools).

²⁶² <http://virtual.finland.fi/finfo/english/saameng.html#indi> (25.8.2003).

²⁶³ French National Focal Point (2003), pp.16, 75f.

²⁶⁴ Open Society Institute (2002), p.146; (PUBDE0035).

²⁶⁵ Cf. Reuter, L. (2001) Schulrecht für Schüler nichtdeutscher Erstsprache (School law for pupils with German as a Second Language). In: Zeitschrift für Ausländerrecht und Ausländerpolitik 3/2001, Baden-Baden, S. 111-119, p. 114; (3B0026).

²⁶⁶ Cf. Beauftragte der Bundesregierung für Ausländerfragen (2001) Mehrsprachigkeit an deutschen Schulen: ein Länderüberblick (Multilingualism at German schools: an overview), Berlin; (PUBDE0012).

²⁶⁷ German National Focal Point (2003), p.9.

²⁶⁸ Greek National Focal Point (2003), p.22.

No special reports were made about native language instruction for migrants in schools in **Ireland**. The National Children's Strategy, however, recommends that ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity should be recognised in all policy and service measures.²⁶⁹

There were no reports on mother tongue instruction for migrants in **Italy**. The presidential decrees No. 249 of 1998²⁷⁰ and No. 275 of 1999²⁷¹ require that each school must adopt a Plan of Training Opportunities (P.O.F.), which serves to clarify the fundamental principles on which the school is based. In this way, a school may autonomously chose to provide intercultural courses and linguistic programmes for foreign pupils, which could also mean programmes for the maintenance of the pupils' mother tongue.²⁷²

In the spring of each year, the Ministry for National Education in **Luxembourg** publishes a circular intended for school communities, indicating the orientations to be followed for the coming school year. The circular for spring 2002 states that 'As in the past, Italian and Portuguese parents have the opportunity to register their child(ren) for integrated courses in their mother tongue'.²⁷³

The **Netherlands** has a specific programme that provides lessons for certain target groups of pupils in their mother tongue. After the increase in family reunifications for migrants who came to the Netherlands in search of work, there has been discussion about the need for "return education". Initially, lessons in the mother tongue and culture were offered to target groups of pupils with the aim to expose them to the language and culture of their parents, in order to facilitate their future re-integration into their parents' countries of origin. Initially, these lessons were private initiatives, but they became integrated into the primary school curriculum under certain conditions. The lessons were also intended to support the regular curriculum. With the evaporation of the former part of the agenda, the latter became increasingly important. However, discussions arose as to the usefulness and necessity of such classes, partly out of consideration for the extra burden on the pupils and on the scheduling problems for the school. This resulted in an adjusted arrangement in the form of "Teaching in the Living Ethnic Minority Languages" (Onderwijs in Allochtonen Levende Talen, or OALT) in 1998. OALT is no longer part of the school curriculum, but it is offered to specific groups of pupils. Ethnic minority pupils are given lessons in their own language only if it is seen to contribute to their achievement in Dutch lessons.²⁷⁴ With the arrival of a new regulation — now suspended — the OALT programme was put at risk. In the Strategic Agreement, the cabinet's proposal reads as follows: "Priority must be given to the learning of the Dutch language. For this reason, Teaching in the Living Ethnic Minority Languages is being abolished. This proposal will take effect on August 1, 2004." Following the line of the OALT policy for primary

²⁶⁹ Department of Health and Children (2002) National Children's Strategy, Our Children – Their Lives, p.70.

²⁷⁰ http://www.istruzione.it/argomenti/autonomia/documenti/dpr249_98.rtf (29/01/03).

²⁷¹ <http://www.istruzione.it/argomenti/autonomia/documenti/regolamento.htm> (29/01/03).

²⁷² Italian National Focal Point (2002), p.26.

²⁷³ Luxembourg National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p.8.

²⁷⁴ See: TooN, 2003,3 p.28.

schools, the "Teaching in the Pupils Own Language" — regulation (Onderwijs in Eigen Taal, or OET) in secondary schools is also being critically considered as part of the Strategic Agreement. The OET regulation will still be followed during the school year of 2002-2003 and will have terminated in August 2003.²⁷⁵ For the time being it is not clear what kinds of effects are to be expected.²⁷⁶

According to a study in **Portugal**, in the school year of 2001/2002 17.535 pupils attended compulsory education, whose native language was not Portuguese. In addition, this study reveals that 230 different languages were registered.²⁷⁷ Of the 15 foreign native languages spoken by most of the pupils in Portugal, Crioule rates first with 8.076 native speakers, Romanes rates second, with 1.338 native speakers, and French third, with 837 native speakers. As to the 1999/2000 school year, the predominance of African native languages persisted, but it is worth noting that in the period of approximately two years (2000-2002) there was a significant increase of other native languages, such as Russian, Ukrainian, and Romanian.²⁷⁸ No reports were made about school programmes offering native language instruction.

In **Spain**, aside from the teaching of the Autonomous Communities' languages, native language instruction for migrants and ethnic minorities does not appear to be an educational policy. However, in Andalusia, in the academic year 2001-2002, the Education Council of the Junta of Andalusia put into practice a Plan for the Educational Attention of Immigrant Pupils. Among the plan's objectives is the facilitation of the study of the mother tongue, intending that the pupils do not lose contact with their cultural origin.²⁷⁹

In **Swedish** compulsory schools, pupils who belong to one of the countries' official minorities or have a first language other than Swedish, have rights associated with their language and origin. The curriculum for Swedish preschools stresses the right of multilingual children to develop all of their languages. The preschool shall provide opportunities for children whose first language is not Swedish to develop both languages. Swedish Municipalities have an obligation to live up to the curriculum requirements, e.g., by providing special support in first language instruction for children with languages other than Swedish. Pupils whose first language is not Swedish are entitled to first language instruction in compulsory- and upper secondary school. In addition to first language instruction, if necessary, pupils may also receive help in their native tongue for other subjects. Participation in first language classes is not compulsory, but municipalities are required to provide such classes for all pupils who speak a language other than Swedish at home on a daily basis. However, if a suitable teacher cannot be found

²⁷⁵ Brief van de Minister van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen aan de Tweede Kamer [Letter to the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science in the Lower House], September 27, 2002 PO/00/2002/36381.

²⁷⁶ Dutch National Focal Point (2003), p.56f.

²⁷⁷ Portuguese National Focal Point (2003), p.27; Original source: Department for Elementary Education, DEB (2003) "National Characterization (continental) of ethnic and linguistic minority students".

²⁷⁸ Ibid., p.29.

²⁷⁹ Spanish National Focal Point (2002), p.10.

or if the number of pupils in the language group is fewer than five, municipalities are not required to arrange this instruction. The right of official minorities to first language instruction is more comprehensive and the above restrictions do not apply. First language instruction may be given in compulsory school as an individual pupil option, as a language option for an entire language group, or as a school option, if the whole school is a minority school. The instruction can be in or outside the regular class-schedule. If pupils study their first language outside the regular schedule, they are entitled to a combined total of seven years of first language instruction during their school years in the public school system. At the upper secondary level, pupils may study their first language as an individual option, a language option, or in the form of an expanded course. Pupils wishing to take their first language in upper secondary school must have a grade in that language from year nine of compulsory school, or equivalent. The way first language instruction is arranged can vary. Usually, lessons are held outside regular schedule hours, but there are alternative options. In Sámi schools, for example, most regular school instruction is given in Sámi. In schools with a distinctive language profile, the teaching language for some subjects may be the first language.²⁸⁰ "Roma pupils with foreign backgrounds are the only group entitled to mother-tongue education in two languages, if they need it; for example a pupil with Finnish-Roma background will obtain mother-tongue language tuition in Finnish and so-called Finnish Romani."²⁸¹ It is interesting that in 2001/02 there were 127.929 (12,1%) pupils entitled to mother tongue instruction in Swedish comprehensive schools, but only 66.006 (6,2%) actually participated in such classes.²⁸² In the Swedish education system, support for mother tongue teaching decreased over the last decade, particularly at preschools and family day care homes. The recent report by the National Agency for Education on mother tongue education²⁸³ shows that mother tongue is a low priority for most of the municipalities. More than 40% of the municipalities studied claim that they do not supply mother tongue education because there is no demand among their preschool children, other municipalities suggest that this intervention is dependent both on the municipalities' economic situation as well as on the availability of teachers. The report also illuminates the tensions between the ordinary teaching staff and the mother tongue teachers, who are often positioned outside the everyday school organisation and are forced to move from school to school. Researchers criticise negative attitudes towards mother tongue education in several schools, as well as the insecure working situations for home language

²⁸⁰ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), p.9.

²⁸¹ Council of Europe (2001) Report Submitted By Sweden Pursuant To Article 25, Paragraph 1 of The Framework Convention For The Protection Of National Minorities 2001; available at: <http://www.coe.int/T/E/human%5Frights/Minorities/> (30.7.2003).

²⁸² National Agency for Education- Skolverket: Table 3.8 A: Pupils receiving tuition in mother tongue and Swedish as a second language (SVA), school years 1997/98–2001/02; available at: <http://www.skolverket.se/english/statistics/sos/part2.shtml#swe> (24.8.2003).

²⁸³ National Agency for Education — Skolverket (2002) Modersmålstöd och modersmålsundervisningen. Organisation och omfattningen. (Mother tongue education. Organisation and scope).

teachers, and a lack of educational materials.²⁸⁴ The whole project on mother tongue education is rather seen as a symbolic action because schools consider multilingualism a problem rather than a resource.²⁸⁵

No special reports were made about mother tongue instruction for migrant pupils and ethnic minorities in the **United Kingdom**. The U.K. NFP states that it is hoped that the advent of the new Pupil Level Annual Schools Census (PLASC) in England, and its equivalent in Scotland and Wales, will lead to much more accurate information about ethnic minority pupils, including English as Additional Language (EAL) learners, although there are at present no categories to record mother tongue.²⁸⁶

Main Results:

- Many research studies show that good proficiency in a native language is a solid basis for achieving competence for a second language.
- School programmes offering native language instruction were reported from Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Sweden. In Greece, native language instruction is optional but no programmes have been implemented yet. There were no reports on native language school programmes from Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and the United Kingdom. Aside from the teaching of the Autonomous Communities' languages in different regions in Spain, there were also no reports on native language instruction for migrants and ethnic minorities.
- Participation in all programmes is voluntary. More often these programmes are offered in primary than in secondary schools. There are different models, such as separate courses outside regular school hours and integrative instruction with the support of additional teachers.
- Initially, several countries implemented native language programmes to facilitate the return of migrant pupils to their home country and to ease their entry into the school system in these countries.
- There appears to be a lack of training programmes for native language teachers, which often results in the recruitment of foreign teachers. Several reports are made about insecure working situations for native language teachers and about a lack of educational materials.
- Several countries offer native language instruction for migrants as well as for national minorities.
- No evaluation reports are mentioned that research the effectiveness of native language programmes.

²⁸⁴ Hyltenstam, K. (1996) Tvåspråkighet med förhinder? Invandrar och minoritets undervisning i Sverige. (Bilingualism with obstacles? Immigrant and minority tuition in Sweden) Studentlitteratur. Lund; Sjögren, A. (2001) En "bra" svenska? Lyssna, Interkulturella perspektiv på multiethniska miljöer (A "good" Swedish? Listen, Intercultural perspectives on multiethnic environments) Tumba: Mångkulturellt centrum (Multicultural Centre); Toumela, V. (2002) Modersmålsundervisningen. En forskningsöversikt. (Mother tongue tuition. A research summary.) Regeringsuppdrag. (A government commission) (Dnr. 201:2751).

²⁸⁵ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), pp.12f.

²⁸⁶ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.25.

- Some countries restricted their offers of native language instruction recently. In Denmark, municipalities are no longer obliged to offer native language instruction to third country nationals. Now, the local municipalities are only obliged to offer this instruction to pupils from EU/EEA-countries as well as from the Faeroe Islands and from Greenland. Netherlands has a specific programme that provides lessons for certain target groups of pupils in their mother tongue, but since recently only ethnic minority pupils are given lessons in their own language, if it is seen to contribute to their achievement in Dutch lessons.

7.2. Second Language Programmes

Second Language programmes are available for pupils whose first language is not the primary language of the country of residence. Pupils eligible for this kind of support range from those newly arrived in a country who are just beginning to learn the country's main language, to pupils born in the country who are from a non-native speaking background. In general, second language instruction is offered in primary and secondary schools or at pre-school level. The types of programmes differ from country to country. Reception education is education for newcomers who are non-native speakers. The aim of this type of education is to acquire knowledge of a country's dominant language and to stimulate social integration. Reception classes for newly arrived migrants are most often separate classes, which run parallel to regular instruction or after the regular school hours. Integrative classes with an additional teacher are offered to pupils whose language skills are good enough to at least partly follow regular instruction. The amount of hours in second language instruction and the duration of second language programmes vary from country to country. Some education systems offer special training for second language teachers while the schools in other countries rely on external language support providers with no appropriate training.

In **Austria**, pupils whose primary language is not German have the option to attend German as a Second Language classes. There are either separate courses which are taught parallel to instruction or after regular school hours, or integrative measures with an additional teacher. Irregular pupils who may attend school for a limited amount of time without being graded may receive German as a Second Language up to twelve hours a week in primary education, in special education and in lower secondary schools. Regularly enrolled pupils may receive up to six hours German as a Second Language classes. The law foresees that teachers of German as a Second Language should have adequate training (School Organisation Act: Article 13, Paragraph 1).²⁸⁷ Teachers with a basic training for teaching at primary schools or main general secondary schools can receive such special training.²⁸⁸

In the school year 2001/02, the proportion of pupils with a first language other than German was 15,3% in pre-school and primary school combined, 13% in the main general secondary school and 8,2% in the more academically challenging

²⁸⁷ Österreich, BGBl 242/1962, latest amendment Österreich, BGBl I 132/1998 (18.08.1998).

²⁸⁸ Austrian National Focal Point (2003), p.26.

Gymnasium. In all compulsory schools the ratio was 14,6%, but in special education there was an over-representation of 23,3% non-native speakers.²⁸⁹ While the statistics on the number of pupils with a first language other than German says nothing about their knowledge of German, the statistics on irregular pupils, who are not graded until they can follow regular instruction, does. Expressed as a share of all the pupils in general compulsory schools in 2001/02, 3% of the pupils were present in school as irregular pupils in Austria for reason of insufficient knowledge of German. Primary schools in Vienna had the highest percentage (4.4 %) in 2001/02.²⁹⁰

In **Belgium**, according to the Flemish Educational Priority Policy in Primary and Secondary School (school year of 2001-2002), schools can apply for additional teaching hours when they fulfil a number of conditions. Among the action areas is Dutch as a Second Language Instruction. There is a team of experts, who support the schools in improving the quality of the offer to immigrant pupils. Two subsidised focal points, namely Dutch as a Second Language and Intercultural Education are responsible for research, training and development of didactic materials.²⁹¹ Reception education aims at Dutch language acquisition and is to stimulate social integration. The decree on primary education of 1997 is the legal basis for the reception policy in Belgium regarding primary education. Reception education for newcomers who are non-native speakers in secondary schools is regulated by the decree of the Flemish government of 2002.²⁹² According to a decree of 2001, in the French Community, newly arrived pupils have the right to attend special classes for the duration of one week to six months, which offer a certain number of French as a Second Language classes. In spite of these additional French lessons, they are entitled to follow the ordinary secondary school programme. The decree also specifies schools which are entitled to organise these additional language classes. In the Brussels Capital Region, twelve schools have this right.²⁹³

In **Denmark**, in 2002, there were 60.096 (9,2%) pupils speaking Danish as a Second Language in compulsory primary and lower secondary school.²⁹⁴ Danish as a Second Language was recognised as a subject in its own right in 1995. It is well rooted within primary schooling, only tentatively introduced into upper secondary education and virtually non-existent in the rest of the educational system. There is no minimum number of lessons laid down in the act and the variation among schools and municipalities differs very much across the country.

²⁸⁹ Pupils with a first language other than German as a percentage of all pupils by types of school and federal province, school year 2001/2002 (up to six years of school attendance in Austria, without autochthonous minorities); Source: Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (2003) SchülerInnen mit einer anderen Erstsprache als Deutsch. Statistische Übersicht Schuljahre 1995/96 bis 2001/02. (Pupils with a first language other than German. Statistical overview school years 1995/96 to 2001/02). Informationsblätter des Referats für Interkulturelles Lernen Nr. 2/2003; available at: http://www.bmbwk.gv.at/medien/8953_Nr_2.pdf (28.05.2003).

²⁹⁰ Austrian National Focal Point (2003), p.20.

²⁹¹ Belgian National Focal Point (2003), p.18.

²⁹² *Ibid.*, p.2.

²⁹³ *Ibid.*, p.12.

²⁹⁴ Denmark, The Ministry of Education (2003) Folkeskolen i tal [The National primary and lower secondary school in numbers].

Some pupils are offered lessons in Danish as a Second Language while others are not. Recently, the Minister of Education has regarded increased exposure to Danish language teaching as a preference over mother tongue teaching.²⁹⁵ The two biggest municipalities in Denmark have decided to allocate a substantial amount of resources to bringing the staff from primary and lower secondary education up to date in teaching Danish as a Second Language. The Municipality of Copenhagen has decided to offer all teachers extensive in-service training. The purpose of the training course is to give all teachers a basic introduction to teaching bilingual children and to give all teachers the basic knowledge of how to tailor their teaching to the linguistic, pedagogical, and cultural needs of bilingual pupils. The programme will commence in the autumn of 2003 and last one year.²⁹⁶

In **Finland**, there is a special programme of "preparatory training" for immigrant pupils at the basic school level, which prepares them to enter mainstream education. For newly arrived immigrant children, this means studying in a separate "immigrant classroom", in which there are special teachers but no Finnish pupils. Statutes target the special needs of immigrant children such as offering Finnish as a Second Language courses. Upper secondary and vocational school education for migrants is provided in a similar manner, with teaching in Finnish as a Second Language and preparatory training for vocational education. Pupils may also receive remedial education to make up for weaknesses in particular areas.²⁹⁷

In **France**, newly arrived non-nationals are initially assessed for prior schooling knowledge, French language and mathematics proficiency before being transferred into special classes within primary and secondary establishments. *The Academic Centres for the Schooling of Newly Arrived Learners and Travelling Children (CASNAV)* carry out these evaluations and provide teachers with necessary pedagogical materials and on-going training in French as a Foreign Language. Initiation classes²⁹⁸ in primary schools and adaptation classes in secondary schools continue to serve an important function. Initiation classes were created for non-French-speaking pupils of foreign nationality. They provide French as a foreign language to non-French-speaking pupils and to francophone learners with insufficient prior schooling (especially reading and writing skills), who simultaneously attend ordinary classes. In adaptation classes on the lower secondary level, French as a Foreign Language is offered to pupils who can be simultaneously schooled in ordinary classes.²⁹⁹ However, as the French NFP points out, the national education system appears to be unprepared for a recent influx of newly arrived learners. While initiation and adaptation classes have existed for over three decades, numerous children are still reportedly schooled in ordinary classes, where their specific language needs are not being met.³⁰⁰

²⁹⁵ Danish National Focal Point (2003), p.10.

²⁹⁶ Danish National Focal Point (2003), pp.20f.

²⁹⁷ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), pp.10, 17.

²⁹⁸ These were implemented in 1975 and redefined in 1986.

²⁹⁹ French National Focal Point (2003), pp.14-16.

³⁰⁰ Ibid., p.25.

In **Germany**, special support classes are offered in primary school for beginners and in primary and secondary schools for newcomers entering education at a later stage. Pupils who cannot take part in regular teaching due to lacking German skills are prepared for transition to the regular classes, which in most cases happens after a year. They mainly learn German, but they also receive subject-related teaching. This integrative model of teaching, with German and migrant pupils being taught together in regular classes, is currently the most predominant — with minor differences — in all federal states. If the formation of a special support class is not possible due to a low number of participants,³⁰¹ then special instruction (support course, intensive course, etc.) is being offered.³⁰² The German NFP recommends that the instruction of German as a Second Language should not be seen as a short-term transitional measure, but designed as long-term assistance and coordinated with other school lessons.³⁰³

In **Greece**, the Ministerial Decision F10/20/C1/708/28-09-1999³⁰⁴ establishes reception classes and tutorial courses for immigrant and Roma pupils. A one-year intensive language course in Greek followed by supportive language tuition in subsequent years is offered to all non-native speakers entering the educational system. Schools with such pupils should run special courses four hours a week after normal class.³⁰⁵

In **Ireland**, no special reports were made about English as a Second Language instruction for migrants in schools. However, there are many non-nationals in the Irish education system who continue to struggle because of language barriers. The Department of Education and Science (DES), under the aegis of Trinity College Dublin, established the *Integrate Ireland Language and Training Project (IILT)* to coordinate language supports for refugees. DES is currently developing language-teaching material for refugees, asylum seekers and other non-nationals.³⁰⁶ The *National Children's Strategy* recommends English language tuition for children whose mother tongue is not English.^{307, 308}

In **Italy**, many schools have resorted to "cultural and linguistic mediators" as external language support providers for pupils who have been in the country for a short time. The use of these mediators as language teachers has been criticised because in most cases, the mediators do not possess any specific competences neither as teachers nor as experts in teaching languages. There appears to be no common standard on how people who are to serve as Italian as a Second Language teachers should be educated. The Italian NFP points out that the Municipality of Florence has created three centres for learning the Italian language in the districts

³⁰¹ As a general rule, special classes are created when an average of 10 children cannot immediately be integrated into regular classes.

³⁰² German National Focal Point (2003), pp.8f.

³⁰³ Ibid., p.36.

³⁰⁴ Amending Ministerial Decision (Ministry of Education F21378/C1/1124/8-12-1994).

³⁰⁵ Greek National Focal Point (2003), p.22.

³⁰⁶ Irish National Focal Point (2002), pp.39, 44.

³⁰⁷ Department of Health and Children (2002) *National Children's Strategy, Our Children – Their Lives*, p.70.

³⁰⁸ Irish National Focal Point (2002), p.35.

with the highest numbers of non-Italian speaking pupils. Bilingual or otherwise qualified staff supports the activity of regular teachers in the teaching of Italian as a Second Language.³⁰⁹

In the trilingual **Luxembourg** school system, the language Lëtzebuergesch is given primary emphasis in pre-school; German is given primary emphasis in primary education, and French in secondary education. This complex linguistic situation is particularly difficult for migrants because on the one hand, the main school languages are often not spoken in society, on the other hand, Lëtzebuergesch, which many migrants do not speak, is frequently used in daily interactions in schools. Overall, there is a lack of systematic methods towards second language acquisition for migrants. As Luxembourg's school system has been conceived mainly for pupils from Luxembourg, there is a disadvantage for migrants due to the selective character of language teaching.³¹⁰ In the spring of each year, the Ministry for National Education publishes a circular intended for school communities to indicate the orientations for the following school year. In spring 2001, this resulted in an invitation to school communities with a high foreign population to organise intensive courses in Lëtzebuergesch at pre-school level. In order to facilitate the education of children of asylum seekers, the Ministry hired inter-cultural mediators for a specific period. Those responsible for reception classes are informed that for young first arrivals there is software available for learning German and French.³¹¹

In the **Netherlands**, schools offer Dutch as a Second Language. There is a particular preference for this method at schools of high ethnic minority enrolment.^{312, 313} In 2002, the Education Council undertook a reconsideration of the weights (a method of assigning school funding to minority pupils) and CUMI (cultural minorities) regulations being used in schools.³¹⁴ The Council advises the Ministry to adopt two future regulations for dealing with educational disadvantages. The first is a regulation to overcome educational disadvantages in general. A second regulation concerns the new Dutch as Second Language (NT2) regulation specifically aimed at reducing the particular linguistic disadvantage of certain groups of ethnic minority pupils. The new NT2 regulation should follow a continuous line from primary school through secondary school.³¹⁵

In **Portugal**, the Decree-Law 6/2001³¹⁶ establishes the ruling principles for the organisation of the national curricula for elementary education, as well as for the evaluation of the learning process. This includes a statement that schools should foster specific curricular activities for the teaching of Portuguese as a Second

³⁰⁹ Italian National Focal Point (2002), pp. 13, 35.

³¹⁰ Luxembourg National Focal Point (2002), pp.32, 38.

³¹¹ Ibid., p.7f.

³¹² Onderwijsraad (2002) Wat 't zwaarst weegt: een nieuwe aanpak voor het onderwijsachterstandenbeleid. [What weighs the most: a new approach for the policy on educational disadvantage]. The Hague: Onderwijsraad.

³¹³ Dutch National Focal Point (2003), pp.14 f.

³¹⁴ Onderwijsraad (2002).

³¹⁵ Dutch National Focal Point (2003), p.55f.

³¹⁶ www.deb.min-edu.pt/legislacao/TempFiles/deb67F.tmp_DL6_01.htm.

Language to pupils whose mother tongue is not Portuguese.³¹⁷ The study "National Characterization (continental) of ethnic and linguistic minority pupils" concludes that, although the legislation covers the teaching of Portuguese as a Second Language, there is much to be done in terms of its actual processes. The programmes need to be updated and widened in scope in order to enable the full integration of pupils for whom Portuguese is a non-native language and thus giving them adequate access to education. In this sense, it becomes imperative to promote a revision of basic teacher training programmes.³¹⁸ There are regional differences regarding language support for minority pupils reaching from no support over some hours of language instructions to specific support such as Portuguese as a Second Language training. Overall, the Portuguese NFP concludes that in all regions,³¹⁹ the number of pupils deprived of specific support was higher than the number of those who benefited from it.³²⁰ According to a study that looked at non-native pupils' level of proficiency in Portuguese, pupils whose native languages are Russian, Ukrainian or Mandarin are those who experience greater difficulties in mastering Portuguese, whereas pupils whose native language is Gujarati tend to fare better".³²¹

In **Spain**, two languages are used in the education system in five Autonomous Communities, which have their own language. There are no reports about specific Spanish as a Second Language programmes or second language programmes in any of the Autonomous Communities' languages. Reports were made, however, that in Catalonia (Catalan) and in the municipalities of Urretxu and Zumarraga (Basque), migrants should receive special training in the Communities' languages next to Spanish.³²² Special Spanish language classes are offered in programmes for compensatory education, which frequently are visited by migrants and ethnic minorities. However, many schools with pupils of foreign origin do not have the necessary financial resources to run such programmes.³²³ The Spanish Ombudsman, who is in charge of these issues, invites the public administration to reinforce human and material resources to improve language programmes because it is the principal vehicle to promoting effective integration.³²⁴

In **Sweden**, pupils whose first language is not Swedish have the right to study Swedish as a Second Language. This right and opportunity applies to both, compulsory and upper secondary school. The goal is to help pupils develop daily communication skills and to give them the proficiency required to study their other school subjects in Swedish. Achievement levels and proficiency requirements for Swedish as a Second Language are similar to those for studying Swedish (as a first language). The differences are related primarily to first versus

³¹⁷ Portuguese National Focal Point (2003), p.16.

³¹⁸ Cf. DEB (2003) "National Characterization (continental) of ethnic and linguistic minority students", p. 23.

³¹⁹ Different Regional Education Boards - North, Center, Lisbon and Tagus Valley, Alentejo and Algarve.

³²⁰ Portuguese National Focal Point (2003), p. 32.

³²¹ Ibid., p.31 ; Original source: DEB, ME.

³²² Spanish National Focal Point (2003), pp.30, 39.

³²³ Ibid., p.15.

³²⁴ Ibid., p.37.

second language acquisition. Newly arrived immigrants over the age of 16 are entitled to instruction in Swedish for immigrants (SFI).³²⁵ In the school year of 2001/02, there were 58.151 (5,5%) pupils entitled to Swedish as a Second Language instruction in Swedish comprehensive schools, but only 45.5% of those entitled actually participated in these classes.³²⁶ According to the Swedish NFP, migrant children who were born and educated in Sweden often hold a negative association with being placed in a "Swedish as Second Language group". This has the potential to create 'racialised' groups of pupils who were born and educated in Sweden but who are hindered to identify themselves as Swedish.^{327, 328}

In the **United Kingdom**, there have been important policy shifts within the four education systems of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, with respect to teaching children for whom English is an additional language. In the 1960s, much of the provision offered to the many newly arrived immigrant children was based on the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching tradition. In practice, this meant separate teaching outside of the mainstream classroom. By the early 1970s, however, there was a pedagogical and ideological move toward integrating EFL into mainstream teaching. Pedagogically, mainstream teaching was justified on the basis of socio-cultural perspectives, which enhance the learning context of second language learners. Ideologically, it was deemed important to better integrate second language learners into mainstream classes. In 1988, the national curriculum was introduced in England. Although the new curriculum made less explicit references to the needs of English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners than had been previously the case, it became a statutory responsibility of schools to ensure access of all to the curriculum, including EAL learners. By the early 1990s, the trend of mainstreaming EAL led to the development of the idea of 'partnership teaching' between EAL and mainstream teachers. Most teaching of English as an Additional Language (with the exception of recently arrived refugee and asylum seekers) now takes place in mainstream classes. Therefore there is no quantitative data on EAL teaching done in separate classes.

In Northern Ireland, information provided by the Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister of Northern Ireland³²⁹ claims that out of 1281 pupils in primary and secondary schools for whom English is an additional language, 243 receive EAL support. In England the recent *Aiming High* consultation document³³⁰ has identified the need for the government to prioritise greater

³²⁵ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), pp.9f.

³²⁶ National Agency for Education: Table 3.8 A: Pupils receiving tuition in mother tongue and Swedish as a second language (SVA), school years 1997/98–2001/02; available at: <http://www.skolverket.se/english/statistics/sos/part2.shtml#swe> (24.8.2003).

³²⁷ Johansson, C. (2000) *Flerspråkighet i ett mångkulturellt klassrum?* (Multilingualism in a multicultural classroom) Uppsala Universitet. Institution för lärarutbildning (Uppsala University. Department of Teacher Training).

³²⁸ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), p.13.

³²⁹ OFMDFMNI (2002) *Minority Ethnic Groups in Northern Ireland: Experiences and Expectations of English Language Support in Education Settings*; available at: <http://www.research.ofmddfnni.gov.uk/ethnic/form.htm> (16/5/03).

³³⁰ DfES (2003) *Aiming High Consultation Document*, London: DfES

training and support of both specialist and mainstream staff. In Scotland, the Race Equality Advisory Forum's (REAF) *Education Action Plan* (2001) has proposed the development of a strategy to ensure that EAL teaching can be maintained, developed, and effectively resourced in all schools. Similar commitments have been undertaken by the Northern Irish Department of Education.³³¹ Promises by central government to prioritise and develop EAL have a long history in the UK and it remains to be seen what will emerge from this latest commitment. There appear to be no similar commitments by the Welsh education department to develop a centralised strategy relating to EAL.³³² Current data from England (school year 2002/03) on the number and percentage of pupils by first language other than English shows 365.600 (10,5%) of these pupils in primary and 293.000 (8,9%) in secondary schools.³³³ Unfortunately, this data does not provide an indication of the numbers of pupils actually receiving EAL support.

Main Results:

- In the EU Member States, a variety of different Second Language programmes are offered to pupils whose first language is not the primary language of their country of residence. They range from separate reception classes for newly arrived immigrants to integrative classes with additional teachers for pupils who at least partly can follow regular instruction. The duration of these programmes varies from six months to two years.
- In many countries, there has been a switch from the concept of "Foreign Language" teaching (mostly offered outside of the mainstream classroom) to "Second Language" or "Additional Language" teaching, which attempts to integrate second language learners into mainstream classes and fosters 'partnership teaching' between Second Language teachers and mainstream teachers.
- Several NFPs report a lack of programmes or insufficient programmes in their countries. Among these countries are Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal (with regional differences), Spain, Italy, and Wales in the United Kingdom. Also, France experiences some difficulties, because the national education system appears to be unprepared for a recent influx of newly arrived learners, even though initiation and adaptation classes have existed for decades.
- Some education systems offer special training for Second Language teachers while others rely on external language support providers with no appropriate training (e.g. Italy).

³³¹ DoE (2001) Racial Equality in Education Conference Report, Northern Ireland: DoE.

³³² U.K. National Focal Point (2003), pp.15, 24, 58.

³³³ DfES, Pupil Characteristics and Class Sizes in Maintained Schools in England: Jan. 2003 (Provisional) Table 4; available at: <http://www.dfes.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/SFR/s000390/index.shtml> (09/09/03).

7.3. Intercultural, Multicultural, and Antiracist Curricula

Education systems in the EU Member States have responded to the increasing ethnic diversity by implementing curricula changes that not only target minority groups but the entire school population. Different concepts, such as intercultural, multicultural, or antiracist education are used to describe these new programmes and principles. These concepts are understood differently within and between countries and at times are used synonymous and interchangeable. While intercultural education is said to foster a better understanding of one's own and other cultures, multicultural education is often seen as an appropriate response by the education systems to prepare pupils for life in a multicultural society. Antiracist education focuses to a greater extent on structural issues of inequality and discrimination but also on intolerance on an individual level. All these programmes intend to foster positive attitudes towards others, the learning of cooperative skills, and a better understanding of societal interrelations in order to build bridges between different ethnic communities and individuals from diverse backgrounds. To achieve these goals, new teaching strategies and materials, schoolbooks that incorporate different cultural perspectives in an unbiased manner, special teacher training, and efforts to create a more diverse teacher body are called for.

In **Austria**, an across the board initiative with respect to the existing diversity in Austrian classrooms is taken in form of the so called integral principle of intercultural education (*Unterrichtsprinzip Interkulturelles Lernen*),³³⁴ which pertains to most schools (with the exception of vocationally-oriented schools) and school subjects. This educational principle was introduced in Austria in the early 1990s. Teachers are supposed to take intercultural issues into account during regular instruction. A basic shortcoming of this approach towards integration is that most teachers do not receive specific training for this duty.³³⁵

In **Belgium**, intercultural education is an offshoot of the Flemish educational priority policy. The intercultural perspective is integrated in the existing norms and development objectives. The same applies to the new decree on equal opportunities, in which the intercultural aspect is firmly embedded. Currently, half of the primary schools in Flanders offer intercultural education, while 10% of the secondary schools subscribe to it. Intercultural education refers to learning how to efficiently deal with cultural and social diversity. Intercultural education does not solely focus on differences, but gives a rather large definition to diversity (ethnic differences, disability, age, sexual preference, etc.)³³⁶

In **Denmark**, interculturalism and diversity are not educational goals at a national level, but they appear to be at individual schools and at the municipality level. There are strong indications that intercultural competencies and multiculturalism have begun to be regarded as benefiting all pupils regardless of ethnicity, and that they should be implemented in many layers of the education system. The two

³³⁴ Österreich, BGBI 439/1991 (14.08.1991); BGBI 528/1992 (27.08.1992); BGBI 616/1992 (25.09.1992); BGBI 555/1993 (10.08.1993).

³³⁵ Austrian National Focal Point (2003), p.14.

³³⁶ Belgian National Focal Point (2003), pp.18f.

biggest municipalities in Denmark have decided to allocate resources for improving the staff's competencies in dealing with an increasingly multiethnic pupil group. In 2002, the municipality of Århus started an extensive project called "Intercultural education", which is developed in co-operation with The Danish University of Education and the Regional Centre for Higher Education in Århus. The project is highly extensive, with duration of three years, and has the aim that pupils receive knowledge of and respect for their own and others' cultures. After that period a "dissemination strategy" is developed for the rest of the schools in the area. The project offers in-service training for teachers and developmental guidance for the schools participating in the project.³³⁷

In **Finland**, which traditionally has a very homogenous school culture, the education system's goals, plans and contents still have a predominantly mono-cultural orientation. Because assimilative and homogenising practices are maintained quite rigidly, pupils have to adjust to the mainstream system.³³⁸ With respect to measures of racism and discrimination in school curricula or textbooks, there is little information available. However, assertions are made that inadequacies relating to the inclusion of multicultural perspectives are evident in the textbooks and materials used in Finnish basic schools. Research shows a lack of adequate teacher training and lack of information about immigrant cultures, which often causes teachers to treat immigrant pupils in a uniform way. Finnish education authorities, as well as some independent institutions, are now taking steps to educate teachers about teaching in multicultural classrooms. The National Board of Education has an extensive list of publications that give guidance, advice and instructions to teachers. The Faculty of Education at the University of Helsinki offers a special study module titled "Multicultural Education", which aims to introduce future teachers to cultural, social and educational issues related to multiculturalism in schools and race relations. Components for identifying discrimination, combating and preventing it as a part of professional skills have been tested in four universities and polytechnics during 2002-2004. In 2004-2005 these components are going to be mainstreamed in basic teacher training and in-service-training.³³⁹ The "Project to Determine Teachers' Initial and Continuing Training Needs" (OPEPRO), conducted through the University of Joensuu, deals with multiculturalism and supports teachers in their work with immigrant pupils. The National Board of Education has set up initiatives to help immigrants and non-national minorities in education-related matters. There are support persons and resource networks for immigrants and assistance for teachers, policymakers and interested parties.³⁴⁰ The Finnish NFP recommends the use of more diverse teaching material and its incorporation into current syllabi in order to increase pupils' awareness and tolerance of difference and to ensure that minority pupils feel represented in the curricula. All teachers should be introduced to diverse teaching methods and the particularities of working with children from different linguistic, cultural and experiential backgrounds.³⁴¹

³³⁷ Danish National Focal Point (2003), pp.3, 20f, 27.

³³⁸ Finnish National Focal Point (2002) RAXEN 3 Education Report, p.46.

³³⁹ [Http://www.join.fi/seis/english/training.shtml](http://www.join.fi/seis/english/training.shtml) (17.6.2004).

³⁴⁰ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), pp.36-41.

³⁴¹ *Ibid.*, p.50.

In **France**, Centres for Training and Information on the Schooling of Children of Migrants (CEFISEM) were set up in 1976 and aimed at equipping school professionals with the necessary knowledge and pedagogical tools to respond to the specific challenges of schooling the children of migrants. The creation of these centres reflected the recognition that these learners were "here to stay". At the same time, the "anthropological orientation" of intercultural education encouraged the belief that schooling these children required a non-judgmental understanding of their cultures of origin and of the issues at stake for their acculturation within the school system. Most initiatives, however, were implemented for the benefit of migrant and "disadvantaged" pupils. This encourages the idea that intercultural education is only a matter concerning minority pupils. In addition, there is a lack of centralised information about intercultural training programmes for teachers. Therefore it is difficult to estimate how many of these programmes exist in different academies or to measure the impact they have on promoting diversity.³⁴²

In **Germany**, intercultural education was initially introduced within the framework of the so-called "foreigners pedagogy" (*Ausländerpädagogik*) and was restricted to classes with a high percentage of migrant children. Today it is increasingly seen as an across-the-board duty of schools, which is relevant to all subjects and to all children.³⁴³ However, this task can be undertaken in a wide variety of curricular approaches, the implementation of which is still dependent on the initiative of the individual teachers. Therefore, demands have repeatedly been made to include intercultural education within teacher training.³⁴⁴ It is also asked that school textbooks focusing on various foreign cultures from different perspectives should be used in teaching in order to follow the principle of intercultural education. Even though some progress has been made in this area, there is still repeated criticism that school textbooks support prejudices about certain ethnic groups.³⁴⁵ In only a few federal states, the participation in a seminar on topics such as immigration, integration and interculturalism is obligatory for student teachers. Most of the seminars on intercultural education are part of the academic courses on theory and methodology of education, but there are hardly any courses on this topic within the in-depth academic course programme and in the subject-specific didactical training.³⁴⁶

In **Greece**, according to Law 2413, which went into effect in 1996, pupils whose mother tongue is not Greek are to be assisted to facilitate their integration into the education system. Methods of intercultural education were implemented, which include the establishment of intercultural schools. A school is designated by

³⁴² French National Focal Point (2003), pp.55, 76.

³⁴³ Cf. Reuter, Lutz (2001) Schulrecht für Schüler nichtdeutscher Erstsprache (School law for pupils with German as a Second Language). In: Zeitschrift für Ausländerrecht und Ausländerpolitik 3/2001, Baden-Baden, S. 111-119, p. 118; (3B0026).

³⁴⁴ Cf. Ständige Konferenz der Kultusminister der Länder in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland (2002) Bericht „Zuwanderung“ (Report "Immigration"); (PUBDE0043).

³⁴⁵ Cf. Poenicke, Anke (2001) Afrika in deutschen Medien und Schulbüchern (Africa in the German media and school books), Sankt Augustin; available at: http://www.kas.de/db_files/dokumente/zukunftsforum_politik/7_dokument_dok_pdf_177.pdf (29.10.02).

³⁴⁶ German National Focal Point (2003), p.13.

law³⁴⁷ as "intercultural" when the number of pupils with foreign nationality "reaches or exceeds 45% of the total number of pupils". In practice, however, most inner city schools in the main urban centres of Athens and Thessalonica have by far exceeded this ratio. However, they have not been designated as intercultural to avoid the increased operational costs, despite protests by both parents and educators.³⁴⁸ During the school year 2002-03, 26 intercultural schools (13 primary, 9 lower secondary and 4 higher secondary schools) operate, mostly concentrated in the urban centres. Intercultural schools must contain a "balanced mixture of majority and minority pupils" and follow the state curriculum with additional hours devoted mainly to language tuition. Critics, such as teachers' trade unions, stress that the concept of "intercultural" education implies more than gaining language skills. There are still no provisions in place for effectively encouraging the promotion of diversity in education. The language, history and culture of immigrant ethnic minorities is still not taught in any school, and very limited language support is offered to pupils whose mother tongue is not Greek. Critics suggest that the intercultural education model applied in Greece copies outdated educational policies that had been implemented during the 1970s and 1980s in Western European countries, and were replaced when attention shifted from "education for foreigners" to "multicultural education". As to the situation of Roma pupils, schools do not yet provide them with the curricula and textbooks developed by the project "Roma Children Education". In addition, there is no provision for teacher training in diversity management.³⁴⁹

In **Ireland**, the Report of the National Forum for Early Childhood Education (1998) supports the call for intercultural dimensions in teacher education courses. It contends: 'Textbooks and teaching materials should respect the diversity of ethnic and cultural images.'³⁵⁰ The White Paper on Adult Education 2000 sets out three principles which should underpin policy and practice in adult education: (1) Lifelong learning as a systemic approach, (2) Equality and (3) Interculturalism. The White Paper defines interculturalism as the 'need to frame educational policy and practice in the context of serving a diverse population as opposed to a uniform one, and the development of curricula, materials, training and in-service, modes of assessment and delivery methods which accept such diversity as the norm'.^{351, 352}

In **Italy**, clear references to intercultural education with a focus on respect of differences and on a wide variety of teaching approaches can already be found in new teaching programmes for primary schools. These programmes were approved by Decree No. 104 of the President of the Republic in 1985, and went into effect in the school year of 1987/88.³⁵³ The presidential decrees No. 249 of

³⁴⁷ According to Law 2413/1996 - Greece, N. 2413/1996 (FEK 124A/17-06-1996).

³⁴⁸ Professor Panayiotis Xohellis, coordinator of the Intercultural Education regional committee of Macedonia, presentation at the conference "The Education of repatriated Greeks and foreign students", School of Philosophy, University, Aristotelian University of Thessalonica, 26/05/2003.

³⁴⁹ Greek National Focal Point (2003), pp.3, 16-18.

³⁵⁰ National Forum on Early Years Education Secretariat, Coolahan, J. (Ed.), p.143.

³⁵¹ Department of Education and Science (2000) White Paper on Adult Education. p.13.

³⁵² Irish National Focal Point (2002), pp.29f.

³⁵³ http://www.edscuola.it/archivio/norme/edfisica/dpr_104_85.html (29/01/03).

1998³⁵⁴ and No. 275 of 1999³⁵⁵ establish that each school must adopt a Plan of Training Opportunities (or P.O.F.). This plan serves to clarify the fundamental principles on which the school is based. Among these principles are intercultural and linguistic interventions. An examination of the implementation of the Training Opportunities Plan found that it had only been introduced in 53.7% of the schools. This percentage seems small, given the fact that all schools should promote activities to enhance the intercultural values, regardless of the presence or absence of foreign pupils and their numbers (94% of the schools without foreign pupils have not implemented intercultural projects).³⁵⁶

From **Luxembourg**, no systematic efforts to integrate intercultural learning in schools were reported. However, some initiatives and projects were mentioned. Intercultural classes use an active approach in different subjects and are geared towards sensitisation and information about living together and mutual respect.³⁵⁷ "Dat sin ech" is a project of social and intercultural education for children from four to eight years. It is a European project, elaborated within the framework of the Socrates-Comenius programme and gives children of various origins the opportunity to speak about their own experiences. It points out what is common to all children and makes use of books and photographs, which represent cultural diversity in the daily reality of the children. Another example of intercultural learning in school is the project "*Integration multicultural au Lycée Technique du Centre*" which targets pupils between 13 and 17 years of age and offers cultural and linguistic co-education. The teachers develop a pedagogy based on the teaching of fundamental values like the respect for the other, tolerance, and the broadmindedness towards difference.³⁵⁸

In the **Netherlands**, by 1984 the Dutch government had already committed itself to intercultural education. In the Primary Education Act there is an official stipulation that primary education must rest on an intercultural foundation. Study programmes incorporate this in their curricula. How this is done, and the exact form of implementation, may be the choice of the study programme itself. There is still little insight into how the schools are putting these principles of interculturalism and anti-discrimination into practice.³⁵⁹ According to the Dutch NFP, the impression exists that teachers are inadequately prepared when it comes to their future pupil population and they may lack knowledge of their pupils' cultural backgrounds. In this regard, the Dutch Monitoring Centre (DUMC) recommends that the government and the educational sector invest in interculturalism for future teachers along their entire process of education. Such training would probably also be welcomed by teachers who are already actively involved in the school system.³⁶⁰

³⁵⁴ http://www.istruzione.it/argomenti/autonomia/documenti/dpr249_98.rtf (29/01/03).

³⁵⁵ <http://www.istruzione.it/argomenti/autonomia/documenti/regolamento.htm> (29/01/03).

³⁵⁶ Italian National Focal Point (2002), pp.23-26.

³⁵⁷ Luxembourg National Focal Point (2002), p.19.

³⁵⁸ Ibid., pp.34f.

³⁵⁹ Dutch National Focal Point (2003), pp.5, 36.

³⁶⁰ Ibid., p.64.

Regarding multicultural and intercultural education in **Portugal**, the Portuguese NFP states that up until the 1980s, multicultural education was the predominant concept. The expression alludes to pedagogical procedures oriented towards a plurality of cultures co-existing at the same school setting. The notion of interculturalism, which was to develop later, encompasses the interaction of cultures beyond their simple co-existence. Whereas the multicultural approach fosters a preservation of identities and often places minority groups in a "ghetto-situation", the intercultural approach emphasises the personal enrichment due to the exchange of experiences and knowledge with others.³⁶¹ Several legislative measures in recent years influenced the promotion of intercultural education. The Coordinating Secretariat for Multicultural Education Programmes (Statutory Act 63/91) follows the purpose "to coordinate, foster and promote, within the education system, the programmes aiming to teach the values of conviviality, tolerance, dialogue and solidarity between different peoples, ethnicities and cultures". This institution, currently called Intercultural Secretariat, was the most important political measure taken to this date dealing with the education of minority communities. Since 1996, however, the Intercultural Secretariat's budget has been reduced and its effective action has diminished accordingly. The PREDI - Intercultural Education Project (Ruling 170/ME/93) pursues the purpose to "increase equality of access and the right to make use of the benefits of education, culture and science" and to "consider and value the different knowledge and cultures of the populations served by the schools" and has a special emphasis on teachers training in areas relating to interculturalism. This project developed into two experimental stages between 1993 and 1997 and was supposed to eventually reach all public schools. However, this goal has not yet been attained.³⁶² Regarding intercultural-oriented projects developed by schools, the Department for Elementary Education (DEB) concluded that efforts in this area are scarce and that projects of this nature are only implemented when minority pupils are present. Also, the inclusion of mediators, which could facilitate the pupils' integration by improving their relation with the school institution, is yet very incipient. The Lisbon Region is the one that most frequently resorts to this type of support, above all directed at Roma and Cape Verdian pupils.³⁶³

In **Spain**, the drafting of the new Basic Law 10/2002 on the Quality of Education (LOCE), stirred a debate on two very different education models. On the one hand, there are advocates of cultural assimilation who claim that pupils of foreign origin must assimilate to Spanish cultural values and that the education system must not suffer any curricular variation from what has been traditionally taught in the country. On the other hand, there are those who push for intercultural education and think that integration must be a concern based on the respect for cultural differences, which are a fundamental characteristic of the current society.³⁶⁴ Overall, the Spanish educational system lacks an intercultural approach, but some initiatives have been taken by the Autonomous Communities

³⁶¹ Portuguese National Focal Point (2003), pp.52f.

³⁶² Ibid., p.12.

³⁶³ Ibid., p.32.

³⁶⁴ Spanish National Focal Point (2003), pp.12f.

and by local organisations. The Valencian Community has set up an Action Plan for Diversity, which is used by every school and incorporates aspects which promote knowledge, respect, and the appraisal of social and cultural diversity in the curriculum.³⁶⁵ In Andalusia, the Law on Solidarity in Education (Law 9/1999) focuses on the value of multiculturalism and the need to integrate knowledge of and respect for cultural diversity into the educational system. This law builds the basis for the implementation of these principles in schools.³⁶⁶ Issues related to migrants' integration in schools, interculturalism and multiculturalism have given rise to a large number of education initiatives throughout Spain, initiated by different types of organisations.³⁶⁷ Still, the Spanish NFP recommends to develop a true intercultural education policy that goes beyond anecdotes and exceptions and to provide a systematic plan for teacher training colleges and continuous training programmes related to cultural diversity.³⁶⁸

In **Sweden**, the terms multicultural and intercultural education are used synonymously and interchangeably. As the Swedish NFP asserts, cuts suffered in the 1990s within the educational system have narrowed the possibilities of developing new strategies for multicultural education. The NFP recommends that the Swedish Educational Agency reinforce their efforts in order to create, develop and institutionalise at a national level models of multicultural education and a multicultural curriculum. The most central task is to shift from a compensatory model, where the focus lies in the "other" as a problem, towards an understanding of multicultural education as central to all members of modern societies. Teaching material concerning issues of racism and discrimination, as well as pedagogical interventions emanating from the experience, knowledge, history and culture of different groups must be developed. Also, the monocultural hegemony within the schools must be counteracted by the employment of teachers with foreign background. There is also a need for the development of antiracist awareness training for all teachers.³⁶⁹

Regarding the promotion of diversity and the tackling of racism in the school curricula of the **United Kingdom**, it can be said that in England, the *Home Secretary's Action Plan*³⁷⁰ in response to the *MacPherson Report* has identified and prioritised the need to amend the curriculum in order to better reflect the needs of a diverse society. The inclusion statement — introduced as part of the revised national curriculum in 1999 — provides a statutory requirement on schools to meet pupil's diverse learning needs. This can be interpreted as to include promoting cultural diversity. The Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 also places a positive duty on the local education authorities (LEAs) and on schools to eliminate unlawful racial discrimination. This can be interpreted as a basis for developing multicultural and antiracist approaches in education. According to the U.K. NFP, it must be emphasised, however, that neither the inclusion statement

³⁶⁵ Ibid., p.35f.

³⁶⁶ Spanish National Focal Point (2002), p.10.

³⁶⁷ Ibid., p.30.

³⁶⁸ Ibid., p.40.

³⁶⁹ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), pp.25f.

³⁷⁰ Home Office (1999) Stephen Lawrence Enquiry: Home Secretary's Action Plan, London: Home Office.

nor the Amendment Act specifically mention multicultural and antiracist approaches, reflecting a historic reticence on the part of central government to embrace these approaches. Rather they talk in more guarded terms of providing 'curriculum access' and 'promoting diversity'. Nonetheless, the Curriculum and Qualifications Authority (QCA) in England has recently responded to the inclusion statement and Act by publishing a web based project titled "*Respect for all: Reflecting cultural diversity through the national curriculum*".³⁷¹ This is a resource for teachers to give them access to materials which may help them reflect diversity across subject areas. In Scotland, as part of its own response to the MacPherson report and to the Race Relations Amendment Act, the Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED) has funded the Centre for Education for Racial Equality in Scotland (CERES) to develop a similar online resource entitled *Educating for Race Equality in Scotland: a Toolkit for Teachers*.³⁷² Promoting multicultural and antiracist approaches is also an aspect of emerging policy priorities in Northern Ireland.^{373, 374}

The European Commission funded within its TSER Programme (DGXII) a two-year comparative research project with the title "Immigration as a Challenge for Settlement Policies and Education: Evaluation Studies for Cross-Cultural Teacher Training." This study focused on the analysis of cross-cultural teacher training and evaluated the effectiveness of higher education institutions in enhancing students' multicultural competence in Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Israel, and the United Kingdom. The study concluded that, broadly speaking, "teacher training institutions provide students with the competencies required to function effectively in relation to the goals expressed in the national policy programmes and curricula." However, the authors of the study recommend "a concerted effort will be made in all partner states within the European Community to ensure that the regulations governing the training of all teachers should be amended to include knowledge and skills in multicultural teaching." Furthermore, the authors ask for more educational research in order "to provide empirically validated knowledge needed to improve 'culturally responsive education'".³⁷⁵

Main Results:

- An assessment of current practices and policies in education in the EU Member States shows varying efforts and different stages of development regarding the incorporation of intercultural, multicultural, and antiracist curricula.

³⁷¹ QCA (2003) *Respect for all: Reflecting cultural diversity through the national curriculum*; available at: http://www.qca.org.uk/ca/inclusion/respect_for_all/index.asp (16/5/03).

³⁷² CERES (2003) *Educating for Race Equality: a Toolkit for Scottish Teachers*; available at: <http://www.antiracisttoolkit.org.uk/html/mainmenu.htm> (16/5/03).

³⁷³ DoE (2001) *Racial Equality in Education Conference Report*, Northern Ireland: DoE.

³⁷⁴ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), pp.15f.

³⁷⁵ "Immigration as a Challenge for Settlement Policies and Education: Evaluation Studies for Cross-Cultural Teacher Training." (November 1998) Abstract and Final report, p.58; available at: <http://www.pjb.co.uk/npl/bp1.htm> (5.7.2003); Results also published in: Pitkänen, P., Kalekin-Fishman, D. & Verma, G. (eds., 2002), *Education and Immigration: Settlement Policies and Current Challenges*, Routledge Falmer, (London-New York).

- The change of paradigm from a "pedagogy for foreigners," shaped by the demands of assimilation, to integrative learning processes, which concern members of the majorities just as much as the members of ethnic minorities, has taken place in most countries.
- There are reports about new regulations, which ask for the application of intercultural principles in schools, for the development of multicultural teaching materials, as well as a for a variety of educational projects related to intercultural education.
- In the absence of evaluations of the effectiveness of these new models of instruction, there is still little insight into how schools are putting the principles of interculturalism into practice.
- Systematic efforts to re-write curricula in order to introduce more intercultural dimensions in teaching and efforts to train teachers adequately for the teaching in multicultural classrooms have to be strengthened.
- Despite new policies asking for an intercultural approach in teaching, practical implementations to cope with the growing demand preparing pupils for life in a culturally diverse society are still lacking in all EU Member States.

7.4. Good Practice Examples for Reducing Racism, Xenophobia and Anti-Semitism and for Fostering Diversity

In the following section, a variety of selected good practice examples is described. These models can be regarded as attempts to reduce racism, xenophobia, and anti-Semitism and to strengthen a positive approach towards diversity. Some good practice examples have already been mentioned in this report in the sections on native language and second language instruction, on intercultural education, on special programmes for national minorities, or on affirmative action in universities. The NFPs reported different good practices in their national reports. Some referred to initiatives, which were carried out or sponsored by government organisations, others to initiatives by NGOs, research institutions, or EU sponsored initiatives. However, criteria constituting a good practice were defined only rarely. Positive aspects of some examples mentioned were references to an initiative's innovative idea, to the intentions to bring about positive change, to efforts to carry out a project under difficult circumstances, or to the willingness to financially support a certain programme. In other reported examples, such as conferences, research, or websites on a relevant topic, the character of a "good practice" example, however, is less clear.

The selected examples in the following section highlight successful programmes and initiatives in certain countries. Criteria for their selection included the assumption that they could also bring about positive change and developments if they were implemented in other Member States. This, however, would require further inquiry into the details of each programme or initiative.

In **Austria**, the project "School without Racism" is carried out by NGOs (*Asylkoordination Österreich, ARGE Jugend gegen Gewalt und Rassismus*) and supported by government organisations in the city of Vienna and in the federal province of Styria.³⁷⁶ Pupils, teachers and NGOs work out an individual project scheduled for one academic year in certain schools. The main objective is to raise awareness for the issues of violence, racism and other forms of social exclusion. The *Initiative Minderheiten*, a platform for minorities in Austria, developed the media package *Minderheitenbox* for higher secondary schools and adult education, which became available in 2001. It provides teaching materials on ethnic and social minorities in Austria and guides teachers to use innovative methods in teaching their pupils about minorities and topics such as racism and xenophobia.³⁷⁷

In **Belgium**, since the year 2000, the NGO *Educational Priority Policy Brussels* carries out a project that aims to strengthen the professional skills of teachers and directors of schools to help minority pupils overcome learning difficulties. Every school invests in four working areas. These are the development of language skills, diversity (intercultural) education, co-operation with parents, and co-ordination with other educational institutions. This project is implemented in 37 schools in Brussels.³⁷⁸

In **Denmark**, one 8th grade and four 7th grade classes from inner-city Copenhagen schools worked for two years on a EU-financed project, which focused on studying prejudice, looking at causes and effects of xenophobia and racism, and learning conflict management. The internal evaluation showed significant progress in improved relations between pupils and increased awareness of how to tackle racism inside and outside of the school environment.³⁷⁹ In connection with the European Year against Racism (1997), the concept of "The Baton against discrimination" was developed by the now abolished Board of Ethnic Equality. Between 2000 and 2002, the Danish Rectors' Conference, The Danish Teachers Union, a school in the municipality of Hvidovre, a kindergarten teacher training college and the parent association counted among the educational institutions which have received the baton. They all made a plan for action in relation to reducing racism and promoting diversity and some subsequently published groundbreaking new surveys and programmes. In 2003, a college for journalism tried to recruit adults with an ethnic minority background as journalists in order to counteract "Danish-only" sentiments in the country. They advertised for adult immigrants and refugees with an academic education and good skills in Danish to join a one-year supplementary course to qualify them for a career in journalism.³⁸⁰

³⁷⁶ Cf. <http://www.asyl.at/sor/projekt.html> (18.04.2003).

³⁷⁷ Cf.: <http://www.initiative.minderheiten.at/Service/mhbox.htm> (18.04.2003).

³⁷⁸ Belgian National Focal Point (2002), p. 27.

³⁷⁹ Ahmad, A. (2003) EU-Skoleprojekt: Konfliktter, fordomme, xenofobi og racisme [EU school project: Conflicts, prejudice, xenophobia, and racism], København: Info om tosprogede børn, pp. 4-5.

³⁸⁰ Danish National Focal Point (2003), pp.17f.

In **Finland**, the National Board of Education coordinates the programme Netdays 2003, which focuses on schools, universities, or youth organisations. The theme is dialogue between cultures, especially through the use of the new media.³⁸¹ Another NBE project, funded by the Finnish Cultural Fund, deals with children's artwork and aims to promote tolerance, multiculturalism and dialogue. The project is targeted especially at schools and teachers who have pupils from minority groups, particularly Somalis, Roma, Sámi, Estonians and Russians.³⁸² The special Roma Education Unit, funded by the Ministry of Education, includes the production of teaching material in Romanes and a nation-wide project on the education of Roma children in its action plan for 2002-2003. There will also be information sessions held about the Roma culture, parenting, and education, training of cultural mediators, the publication of a regular Finnish-language information bulletin, and participation in the EU-level Comenius-2 and DROM-EDU projects.³⁸³

In **France**, a prestigious tertiary institution, Science-Po, implemented a positive discrimination policy in order to make universities more accessible to school-leavers from Priority Education Areas, which were set up to deal with socially disadvantaged pupils and students. Thirteen secondary high schools were partners with Science Po in 2002, and 33 students were admitted through this procedure. A third of these students have dual nationality and three fifths have at least one parent who is not French.³⁸⁴ The Anti-Racism Education Week, a nation-wide initiative, launched in 1989 by SOS Racisme and endorsed by the Ministry of National Education and the Teaching League, offers a range of activities for junior and senior secondary school pupils every year. They include debates, meetings, film screenings with discussions, and theatrical presentations. In addition, a range of extra-schooling activities exists, such as historical workshops on the Shoah, Armenia and Rwanda. The reports from witnesses or victims of these atrocities promote awareness and raise the sensitivity of children to questions of discrimination and ethnic conflict.³⁸⁵

In **Germany**, the project "School without Racism — School with Courage " (*Schule ohne Rassismus — Schule mit Courage*) is coordinated by Aktioncourage e. V. and supported by the Federal Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs with money from the European Social Fund.³⁸⁶ The project's objectives are sensitising young people to all forms of discrimination and racism as well as promoting their commitment to integration and equal opportunities. The special feature of this project is that the development of ideas and their implementation are in the hands of the pupils. Currently, 123 German schools have been awarded the title "School without Racism." At the moment, the project coordinators are trying to encourage more East German schools to participate in the programme. The project "*Viewpoint — Educators against Right-wing Extremism*" was initiated by

³⁸¹ <http://www.netdays.fi/> (20.7.2003).

³⁸² <Http://www.edu.fi/> (20.7.2003).

³⁸³ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), pp.29f.

³⁸⁴ French National Focal Point (2003), pp.18f.

³⁸⁵ Ibid., p.51.

³⁸⁶ <http://www.actioncourage.de> (20.6.2003).

teachers in Berlin and is carried out in cooperation with the Friedrich Ebert Foundation and the Centre for Democratic Culture (ZDK). The core of the project is a series of seminars in which the teachers receive information on the causes of xenophobia as well as on the organisation, worldview, and everyday life of right-wing extremist youth. The correct way of dealing with right-wing extremist youth in class or in the schoolyard is practiced, and teaching material is developed. Starting next school year, a teacher in every school district will be appointed as an expert on right-wing extremism. This expert consults with the other schools in the district and is the person to contact for his colleagues.

In **Greece**, the 87th Primary School of Athens implements new methods of intercultural education. The school is located in a very poor district of Athens and more than 50% of its pupils are ethnic minorities, such as Turkish speakers from Thrace and Roma. The school was adopted as a pilot project on intercultural education by the Athens University Department of Education. The project aimed at creating a different environment for minority children. Rather than being regarded as disadvantaged, the pupils' knowledge of different languages and cultures as well as their survival techniques were considered an advantage. The project developed a holistic approach by using parental involvement and offered individual treatment for pupils by providing them with psychological and social support. During the two years of the project, the school became very popular and the number of pupils increased.³⁸⁷

The EU Comenius/Socrates project "Me and the Other: a voyage of discovery in game form" was developed in 1997 as a teaching tool for primary school teachers and pupils. Participants make imaginary trips around the world and retrace the routes of their ancestors. With maps, documents and photos pupils first reconstruct the routes followed by different immigrant families throughout the world. The examples, which are fictitious, enable pupils to launch themselves into an imaginary story and to discover, with the teacher's help, the similarities and differences between cultures and histories. During the second stage, pupils are urged to ask their parents and grandparents where they have come from. Using coloured threads on a map, the pupils trace the routes of their respective families. Through this exercise, pupils realise that for Greeks and non-Greeks alike, movement and exchange have taken place in all families.³⁸⁸

In **Ireland**, *Interculture Ireland and Voluntary Service International* incorporate intercultural learning as a central theme in all their international programmes. *The Youth Affairs Section* is represented on the YARD (Youth Against Racism and Discrimination) *Monitoring Committee and the Interim Committee for Traveller Youth Initiative*. The participation by young people in EU-funded youth programmes provides opportunities to experience different cultures by training or working in other EU Member States.³⁸⁹

³⁸⁷ More information in English may be found in the "Draft Minutes of the Madrid regional expert meeting on education for refugees"; at: http://www.refugeenet.org/pdf/education_madrid.pdf (22/09/2002).

³⁸⁸ Greek National Focal Point (2003), pp.58f.

³⁸⁹ Irish National Focal Point (2002), p.35.

The *Irish Vocational Education Agency* (IVEA) has established a working group on educational provision for asylum seekers, refugees and non-nationals and has published two reports in 2001 and 2002 respectively, making recommendations for a framework to progress the issue in terms of second level schooling and meeting adult needs.³⁹⁰

In **Italy**, from the end of the 1980s to the beginning of the 1990s, the Education Authority of the province of Florence (which then included Prato) established that the schools of the area had to accept the enrolments of children to compulsory schooling even if they were not yet legal residents. At a national level, this procedure became law only several years later. The Italian NFP conducted an investigation on the non-enrolment of children in schools in collaboration with local bodies (Municipality of Florence, Department of Education and District 5 Council) and with the schools. About 200 children, who had remained without a school place in the school year 2002/03, did not appear in any of the national statistics. The investigation was followed by a positive policy employed by the public and private bodies involved to find a stable solution for this problem in time.³⁹¹

In **Luxembourg**, the project "Lëtz Multi" by the National Youth Service makes young people from 12 years of age aware of the implications of a multicultural society. It has the aim of urging young people to indulge in cultural dialogue and of promoting understanding, tolerance, and acceptance of others. Moreover, it aims at awakening curiosity in the face of differences by reducing the anguish of the "Other". In order to avoid the trap of creating cultural ghettos, the project proposes contact and exchange between the different cultures, which exist side by side in the country. The project consists of a Forum for a Multicultural Europe, different projects and three regional festivals. In October 2002, the NYS promotes for the twelfth time an inter-school encounter between Luxembourg secondary schools and those in other Member States or EU Candidate Countries. The *Passe-Partout* project by the Fondation Caritas Luxembourg is directed particularly towards teenagers and young adult refugees in Luxembourg. By accompanying refugees in their daily life, the project seeks to support their relations with the Luxembourg society. Participants in the project contact young refugees in public places, propose mediation in conflict situations, meet with various institutional authorities, search for public and private buildings for vocational training, and support meetings and exchange between Luxembourgers and young refugees.³⁹²

In the **Netherlands**, the National Bureau against Racial Discrimination (Landelijk Bureau ter Bestrijding van Rassendiscriminatie, LBR) develops teaching material for schools to counteract prejudice and discrimination. The accent is mainly on pupil-pupil relationships. The *School Without Racism* (School Zonder Racisme) project has been created especially for secondary schools, but since 2001 it has also been made accessible for primary school pupils under the name 'World

³⁹⁰ Ibid., p.36.

³⁹¹ Italian National Focal Point (2002), p.30.

³⁹² Luxembourg National Focal Point (2003), pp.34f.

School'. Close to a hundred secondary and thirteen primary schools participated in the project in 2002. The LBR also launched the projects *Nou en?!* and *So What?!* for secondary and primary schools. *Nou en?!* (translated roughly as 'So what') was developed for children from 10 through 12 years of age who want to prepare a school project or talk about prejudice, discrimination, or racism. *Nou en?!* uses a clear and simple approach to explain what stereotyping, prejudice, discrimination, and racism mean. *So What?!* provides accessible explanations of concepts, such as prejudice, racism, discrimination, culture, immigration and integration, but also suggests what a young person can do to discourage discrimination and prejudice. *So What?!* is intended for young people from age 12 on and focuses on creating work projects, presentations and practical assignments.

The Breda anti-discrimination agency has developed educational material on the themes of prejudice, racism, and discrimination. The '*treasure chests*' are full of educational material, suitable to be used by teachers or youth workers and for extra-curricular activities, such as multicultural days or other events. There are four chests (children, young people, parties, bullying) whose contents are adapted to the age of the target group and the theme. The treasure chests contain teaching packages, video films, stories to read aloud, computer programmes, exhibitions, interactive CDs, and informative games. Much of the material is accompanied by handbooks for the group leaders and tips for the use of the material.

The *School Adoption Plan* is a police project in which 'neighbourhood based' police officers 'adopt' a primary school and visit this school several times a year in order to teach lessons on several subjects to children from 10 to 14 years of age. One of the subjects is discrimination. In Rotterdam these lessons are provided by the local anti-discrimination agency. Since 1995, 2.600 primary schools in the Netherlands with approximately 140.000 pupils in 23 regions were 'adopted' via the School Adoption Plan.³⁹³

In **Portugal**, in 2002, the Cooperative Organization for Inter-cooperation and Development (COID)³⁹⁴ conducted a *Training of Educational Action Agents for Interculturalism*. It trained 15 educational "action agents" of different ethnic groups by developing their sensibilities towards cultural difference. The programme's curriculum included units and themes related to interculturalism. The programme involved training periods in different work contexts so that each trainee could learn about the various countries' institutions. According to the organisation, the programme produced a positive impact and was met with good response from the public. 13 participants who finished the programme were later integrated in different institutions. The COID is presently preparing a new programme aimed at ethnic minorities with low academic qualifications, which will grant them a 9th grade certificate and thereby assisting them in their entry into the labour market.

The Intercultural Teachers' Association,³⁹⁵ whose main goal is the professional advancement of teachers, has been training teachers, administrators and

³⁹³ Dutch National Focal Point (2003), p.58f.

³⁹⁴ <http://www.inde.pt> (20.6.2003).

³⁹⁵ <http://iaprofessores.planetaclix.pt> (20.6.2003).

educational auxiliary personnel by promoting a critical and reflexive attitude towards multiculturalism. It is currently part of the "School for All" project, which conducts research on the modalities of school integration and the organisation of seminars on the subject. Together with SOS Racism, this association is creating a Recurrent Training Centre for Teachers in order to constantly promote training on the theme of interculturalism. The Amílcar Cabral Documentation and Information Centre (ACDIC)³⁹⁶ is presently carrying out a Training Programme aimed specifically at individuals working in multicultural environments. It organises, together with the Lisbon University Rector's Office, the first Formative Action on Intercultural Learning. The course's main objectives are to empower the participants with a heightened awareness of intercultural learning and its cultural and political importance in society and in global development.

In **Spain**, since 1998, the *Co-operation for Peace Association* (ACPP) has been organising the "Schools without Racism" programme that aims to combat racism and to support schooling of immigrant and ethnic minority pupils.³⁹⁷

The Andalusian Government has put in practice an Educational Immigration Plan with awareness campaigns to integrate immigrant pupils. Other plans targeting immigration and integration are put forward by the Assembly of Madrid (Integration of Roma) as well as by the Basque and the Catalan Government (Integration Plans).³⁹⁸

In **Sweden**, the group *Kontrast* was formed by pupils in collaboration with individual teachers in a north Stockholm upper secondary school in 2001 to counteract right-wing extremism. In this particular school, a group of 20–30 pupils with right-wing extremist attitudes had established a political presence and dominated the political agenda, which also transferred to classrooms. The agenda of *Kontrast* is carried on by a teachers' network formed at the initiative of Expo Foundation's Democracy Project in spring of 2003. This so-called *Association Defend Democracy* aims to assist schools targeted by extreme right wing groups.

In the last two years, the Swedish NFP, Expo Foundation, has been running the Democracy Project *Democracy against racism* in schools. It combines a mapping exercise, seminars for teachers as well as lectures and discussions with pupils. The Democracy Project has reached 13.000 individuals, among them about 8.000 pupils and 2.200 teachers and leisure time staff. Preliminary data of the project's research, a report will be finalised in autumn 2003, suggests a dramatic rise of activities and propaganda of racist and xenophobic groups in schools, both from members of the so called "suit & tie" type of "respectable" xenophobic groups (e.g. Sweden Democrats, National Democrats) as well as from members of right-wing extremist organisations (e.g. National Socialist Front, National Youth/Swedish Resistance).³⁹⁹ The collection of the data provides a basis to introduce further initiatives for combating racism and xenophobia and thus constitutes a good practice.

³⁹⁶ <http://www.cidac.pt> (20.6.2003).

³⁹⁷ Spanish National Focal Point (2002), p.23.

³⁹⁸ Spanish National Focal Point (2003a) Contribution To The EUMC Annual Report 2002.

³⁹⁹ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), p.23.

In 2002, the book *Jalla! Let us redecorate the Christmas Tree*⁴⁰⁰ was published by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs and distributed to all pupils in the first and second grade in Swedish secondary schools. The aim of the book is to combat islamophobia and to improve the image of Muslims living in Sweden.⁴⁰¹

In the United Kingdom, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) in England and the Scottish Executive have developed online resources for teachers to promote diversity across the curriculum. These resources draw on substantial expertise developed in the U.K. over the years. Besides offering curriculum guidance, they also deal with other areas, such as establishing entire school policies to support diversity, bilingual pupils, and dealing with racist incidents.⁴⁰²

The Runnymede Trust and the Commission for Racial Equality (CRE) have produced online resources to assist schools in implementing the Race Relations Act and to develop school policy to promote diversity.^{403, 404}

⁴⁰⁰ Ministry for Foreign Affairs (2002) *Jalla! Nu klär vi granen - möte med den muslimska kultursfären (Jalla! Let's redecorate the tree – Sweden and the Muslim cultural sphere)*, Stockholm.

⁴⁰¹ Swedish National Focal Point (2003a) Contribution To The EUMC Annual Report 2002.

⁴⁰² QCA resources: http://www.qca.org.uk/ca/inclusion/respect_for_all/ (16/5/03) The Antiracist Toolkit (Scottish resource): <http://www.antiracisttoolkit.org.uk/html/mainmenu.htm> (16/5/03).

⁴⁰³ Runnymede Trust: http://www.runnymedetrust.org/meb/m_f_s/re_cd.html (16/5/03).

Commission for Racial Equality: <http://www.cre.gov.uk/duty/index.html> (16/5/03).

⁴⁰⁴ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.45.

8. Discrimination and Anti-Discrimination

8.1. Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities

This section of the report provides an overview of existing legislations and policies as well as of monitoring bodies concerned with discrimination, racism, and inequalities in the EU Member States, particularly pertaining to the field of education. It is evident that there are significant differences across the EU regarding the existence and the implementation of legislative measures in official as well as in unofficial monitoring practices. Some countries, such as the United Kingdom, have had existing national legislation on this matter for decades. Others plan to introduce legislation in accordance with the new Council Directive 2000/43/EC⁴⁰⁵ and Council Directive 2000/78/EC⁴⁰⁶ in the near future. Also, several EU-sponsored initiatives and projects which aim to combat discrimination and racism are currently taking place in the Member States, such as EQUAL Initiatives by the European Social Fund (ESF) or others in relation to Article 13 of the Amsterdam Treaty of 1999.

⁴⁰⁵ Council Directive 2000/43/EC of June 29, 2000, implementing the principle of equal treatment on grounds of racial and ethnic origin (Official Journal L 180, 19.07.2000, pp. 0022-0026); to be implemented by July 19, 2003.

⁴⁰⁶ Council Directive 2000/78/EC of November 27, 2000, establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation (Official Journal, L 303, 02.12.2000, pp. 0016-0022); to be implemented by December 2, 2003.

Table 6: Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities in the Field of Education in the EU Member States

	Anti-discrimination/Equal Opportunities Legislation	Monitoring Bodies
AT	No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education.	No official monitoring in education. (NGO: ZARA – Counselling for Victims and Witnesses of Racism ⁴⁰⁷ – collects data on racism and discrimination.)
BE	<p><i>The Flemish Policy of Equal Chances in Education:</i> New decree of equal chances in education of June 28, 2002; fully implemented on January 1, 2003 – aims at the creation of optimal learning and development opportunities for all pupils and at the promotion of social cohesion by eliminating processes of exclusion, segregation, and discrimination. The decree is based on three main principles: 1) The right to enrol in schools of one's own choice; 2) Responsibility at the local level through the establishment of local consultation platforms; and 3) A supplementary support of schools hosting a large number of pupils of lower social position. (The decree replaces a non-discrimination declaration signed in July 1993 by officials of the Flemish educational system.)</p> <p><i>Policy of the French Community to ensure Equal Opportunities in Education:</i> Decree of June 30, 1998 to ensure equal opportunities for all pupils of primary and secondary schools through positive discrimination – the target group are minors with foreign nationality, of foreign descent as well as accompanied undocumented minors.</p>	<p>Assessment and Mediation Commission of the Flemish Education Council (VLOR) controls the implementation of the non-discrimination policy and registers complaints.</p> <p>The Centre for Equal Opportunities and Opposition to Racism (CEOOR)⁴⁰⁸ – deals with issues related to discrimination and racial harassment.</p>
DE	No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education. Various regulations concerning equal opportunities for migrants and the integration of children with migration background are currently under discussion.	No official monitoring in education Anti-discrimination offices (D.I.R. ⁴⁰⁹ , BDB ⁴¹⁰ ZDK ⁴¹¹) – deal with issues related to discrimination.

⁴⁰⁷ <http://www.zara.or.at> (20.6.2003).⁴⁰⁸ http://www.antiracisme.be/en/kader_eng.htm (20.6.2003).

Table 6 (continued): Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities in the Field of Education in the EU Member States

	Anti-discrimination/Equal Opportunities Legislation	Monitoring Bodies
DK	No particular anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education. Danish legislation in general ⁴¹² and the international conventions ratified by Denmark ⁴¹³ apply equally to the educational sector as to other sectors.	No official monitoring in education Documentation and Advisory Centre on Racial Discrimination ⁴¹⁴ – deals with issues related to racial discrimination, ethnicity or religion.
ES	No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education.	No official monitoring in education (NGO: SOS Racisme ⁴¹⁵ – deals with issues related to discrimination and racial harassment).
FI	No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education. Proposition of a new anti-racism law, which is currently being drafted – proposes to ban discrimination in a number of sectors, including education. Similar laws already exist, but the current initiative would be more extensive and detailed, and complementing existing statutes.	No official monitoring in education Office of the Ombudsman for Minorities ⁴¹⁶ – monitoring of the rights of ethnic minorities, reporting, promoting good ethnic relations.

⁴⁰⁹ <http://www.dir-info.de/> (20.6.2003).

⁴¹⁰ <http://www.bdb-germany.de/> (20.6.2003).

⁴¹¹ <http://www.zdk-berlin.de/> (20.6.2003).

⁴¹² Article 266b of the Danish Criminal Code prohibits the dissemination of expressions of racial discrimination.

⁴¹³ Denmark's ratification of the International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination (UN).

⁴¹⁴ <http://www.drcenter.dk/> (20.6.2003).

⁴¹⁵ <http://www.sosracisme.org/> (20.6.2003).

⁴¹⁶ <http://www.mol.fi/vahemmistovaltuutettu/ombudsmaneng.html> (20.6.2003).

Table 6 (continued): Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities in the Field of Education in the EU Member States

	Anti-discrimination/Equal Opportunities Legislation	Monitoring Bodies
FR	<p>No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education.</p> <p>French National Education continues to be characterised by the founding principles set out in 1881 and 1882, regarding the provision of secular (non-religious), compulsory and free education for all children residing in France. The Fifth Republic added the principle of equality to the above, by defining its end-goal as the promotion of equality according to each person's ability and merit. This has specific implications for the schooling of migrants and for dealing with discrimination in education.</p>	<p>No official monitoring in education</p> <p>The free help line (le "114") – offers advisory services, studies on discrimination.</p> <p>Departmental Commissions for Access to Citizenship (CODAC) – deals with issues related to discrimination and racial harassment.</p>
GR	<p>No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education.</p> <p>Law 927 of 1979⁴¹⁷ is the only anti-racist criminal law. It states that "whoever intentionally and publicly instigates, either orally or in the press or through written texts or illustrations or through any other means, acts of activities capable of provoking discrimination, hatred or violence against persons or a group of persons, only due to their racial⁴¹⁸ or national origin, is punishable by imprisonment of up to two years or a fine or both." These penalties also apply to "whoever creates or participates in organizations pursuing organized propaganda or engaging in any other activity of any kind aimed at racial discrimination." In 1984, a new article – appended to Law 1419/84 – amended the law specifying, "discrimination on the basis of religion is also punishable". Since 2001 prosecution ex officio is possible. There has never been a conviction based on this law.</p>	<p>No official monitoring in education.</p> <p>Greek Ombudsman – independent public body who also reports on the conditions of immigrants and asylum seekers; investigates administrative actions or omissions or material actions taken by government departments of public services that infringe upon the personal rights or violate the legal interests of individuals or legal entities.</p>

⁴¹⁷ Greece, N. 927/1979 (FEK 28Á/10-10-1979).

⁴¹⁸ The term "racial discrimination" or "racism" is defined according to Article 1. 1. of the International Convention for the Eradication of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1966) that was ratified by Law 494/1970. The term "race" is to be considered as a "social construction" based on personal and social characteristics of individuals including their religion, culture, nationality and ethnic origin.

Table 6 (continued): Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities in the Field of Education in the EU Member States

	Anti-discrimination/Equal Opportunities Legislation	Monitoring Bodies
IE	<p>Employment Equality Act, 1998 – prohibits discrimination in relation to employment on nine distinct grounds. Among them are religion, “race”, or membership in the Traveller community.</p> <p>The Equal Status Act, 2000 prohibits discrimination in the provision of goods, services, disposal of property, and access to education, on any of the nine grounds – prohibits discrimination (subject to certain exceptions) in all public and private services generally available to the public.</p> <p>Education Welfare Act, 2000 – schools are obliged to have written codes of practice that are to be shown to parents when enrolling their children and that honour the provisions of the Equal Status Act, 2000 as they apply to schools; Provides an education-specific legal basis for anti-racism and intercultural policies and codes of practice.</p>	<p>The Equality Authority – is responsible for overseeing and monitoring legislation, including the Employment Equality Act, 1998 and the Equal Status Act, 2000.</p> <p>The Office of the Director of Equality Investigations (ODEI) – provides redress for victims of discrimination on any of the grounds in the Equality Legislation in employment and in the area of provision of goods and services, including education. Findings on complaints to the Director are published.</p>
IT	<p>No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education.</p> <p>A legislative proposal, meant to transpose EU Directive 43/2000/CE on the principle of equal treatment irrespective of racial or ethnic origin, includes a provision on setting up a national equality body charged with monitoring discrimination on the above grounds.</p>	<p>No official monitoring in education. Ministry of Education, University and Research (M.I.U.R) has started systemic monitoring of various aspects of the presence of non-Italian pupils in schools since the school year of 1998/99; This does not include monitoring of discrimination in the education system.</p>
LU	<p>No anti-discrimination legislation for the field of education.</p>	<p>No official monitoring in education.</p> <p>Special Commission against Racial Discrimination – gives policy advice. (“Ombuds-Committee fir Rechter vum Kand” – The House of Commons adopted in July 2002 this Luxembourg Committee of the Rights of the Child.)</p>

Table 6 (continued): Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities in the Field of Education in the EU Member States

	Anti-discrimination/Equal Opportunities Legislation	Monitoring Bodies
NL	<p>The 1994 Dutch Equal Treatment Act (AWGB) forbids discrimination in labour relationships, the professions and the provision of goods and services (including education) – discrimination in the above-mentioned areas is forbidden in matters concerning: religion, belief, political conviction, race, sex, sexual orientation, or civil status. Legal precedent understands race to include skin colour, decent and national or ethnic origin;⁴¹⁹ The prohibition targets direct and indirect discrimination.</p> <p>The Quality Act provides for the establishment of complaints commissions at schools. The complaints procedure gives parents and personnel the individual right to complain about particular conduct and decisions (or failure of take decisions) on the part of qualified authorities or personnel, including discrimination.</p>	<p>The Equal Treatment Commission (CGB) – was set up to promote and monitor compliance with the Equal Treatment Act. CGB offers free service to victims of discrimination. It is frequently consulted and asked to issue judgements in cases in which unequal treatment may play a role. The CGB database is an important source of information. Each year the Commission publishes all its cases and decisions in a yearbook.</p> <p>National Federation of Anti-Discrimination Agencies and Hotlines (Landelijke Vereniging van Anti Discriminatie Bureaus en Meldpunten; LVADB) – registers all complaints of unequal treatment.</p> <p>The National Bureau against Racial Discrimination (Landelijk Bureau ter bestrijding van Rassendiscriminatie; LBR) – screens all cases and case law in the area of discrimination. The databases of the Equal Treatment Commission and the various courts of law are consulted.</p>
PT	<p>Law 134/99 (August 28, 1999) to prevent and ban all forms of racial discrimination and to punish actions that violate any fundamental rights or refuse the exercise of any economic, social, or cultural rights by whomever on the grounds that he or she pertains to a certain race, colour, nationality or ethnic origin. Article 4 refers specifically to education, e.g. to refusal or restriction of access to any educational institution or the composition of classes.</p> <p>Decree-Law 111/00 (July 4, 2000) regulates Law 134/99 in what concerns the prevention and interdiction of discrimination in the exercise of rights on the grounds of race, colour, nationality or ethnic origin, with particular reference to education in Article 2.</p>	<p>Commission for Equality Against Racial Discrimination – oversees the application of Law 134/99. It is presided by the High Commissioner for Immigration and Ethnic Minorities (HCIEM) and is constituted by a number of different representatives: from the Assembly of the Republic, the Ministry of Labour and Solidarity, the Ministry of Education, the Associations of Immigrants, Anti-Racist Associations, the Labour Union Centrals, the Employers Associations, the Human Rights Defence Associations and three personalities to be appointed by the other members.</p>

⁴¹⁹ Netherlands, Supreme Court, HR (15.06.1976, (NJ 1976).

Table 6 (continued): Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities in the Field of Education in the EU Member States

	Anti-discrimination/Equal Opportunities Legislation	Monitoring Bodies
SE	<p>Educational Act Chapter 1, Section 2 – asserts that: <i>“Educational activity should be devised in accordance with fundamental democratic values. Everyone working in schools should promote consideration for the intrinsic value of each human being and respect for our shared environment. Those working in schools must pay special attention towards promoting equality between the sexes and actively opposing all forms of abusive behaviour such as bullying and racism.”</i></p> <p>The New Act Concerning Measures to Counteract Ethnic Discrimination in Working Life (May 1, 1999) replaced the 1994 Act against Ethnic Discrimination. The Act applies to all sectors of the labour market and contains prohibitions against direct and indirect discrimination. At present, civil and administrative law provisions do not cover discrimination in sectors other than the labour market, although a new law on the equal treatment of students at the university level has come into force.</p> <p>Law on the equal treatment of students in higher education (March 1, 2002) – aims to counteract discrimination based on gender, ethnic, and religious belonging, sexual preference and disability. The Ombuds-men against discrimination JÄMO (gender equality), DO (ethnic discrimination), HO (handicap) and HomO (sexual discrimination) are responsible that the law is applied. Universities and colleges must also develop a conscious work towards a more inclusive educational system.</p>	<p>The Ombudsman against Ethnic Discrimination (DO); established in 1986 – The task of the DO is to take cases of ethnic discrimination to court. The jurisdiction of the DO is narrowed to working life. The DO is also ultimately responsible that the new law on equal treatment of students at the university level is applied.</p>

Table 6 (continued): Legislation and Monitoring of Ethnic Discrimination, Racism, and Inequalities in the Field of Education in the EU Member States

	Anti-discrimination/Equal Opportunities Legislation	Monitoring Bodies
UK	<p>The Race Relations Act 1976 and the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 are the two statute laws that govern race relations in England, Scotland and Wales.</p> <p>The Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 – places ‘positive duty’ on authorities responsible for education and training to monitor and report on incidences of discrimination, prepare anti-discrimination policies and report on the impact of these policies; (is a legislative response to the findings of the MacPherson Report, which identified ‘institutionalised racism’ as a key factor in affecting the lives of Black people in the UK).</p> <p>The Race Relations Act (Northern Ireland) 1997 is the statute law that governs race relations in Northern Ireland.</p>	<p>The Commission for Racial Equality (CRE)⁴²⁰ – a non-departmental government body operational in England Scotland and Wales, established by the Race Relations Act 1976 – has the tasks to: (a) work towards the elimination of discrimination, (b) promote equality of opportunity and good relations between persons of different racial groups, and (c) keep the Act under review and advise the Secretary of State on changes to the Act. The CRE can assist individuals making complaints of racial discrimination; it has the power to undertake formal investigations of organisations where there is evidence or a belief that racial discrimination is occurring. The CRE also has the power to enforce the specific duties placed on public bodies by the amended Race Relations Act.</p> <p>Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) – In England, OFSTED inspects schools’ compliance with the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000.</p> <p>The Equality Commission for Northern Ireland – a non-departmental government body whose role is to challenge racism and unlawful discrimination, as well as promoting equal opportunities and good race relations.</p> <p>The Equality Challenge Unit – covers all areas of equality at universities and currently offers consultative services.</p>

⁴²⁰ <http://www.cre.gov.uk/> (20.6.2003).

8.2. Direct and Indirect Discrimination

This section reports on direct and indirect discrimination in the field of education. It includes reported acts of racism and xenophobia as well as a variety of examples of ethnic discrimination on the individual and institutional level based on results from official monitoring bodies, research studies, or case reports by NGOs. Various discriminatory practices related to disproportionate pupils and student enrolment and achievement in educational institutions have been discussed in other sections of this report and therefore are not repeated in this section.

Given the lack of systematic monitoring and of data on overt acts of racism and discrimination in many Member States, the reported data cannot be seen as representative of any country's general situation with respect to the appearance and frequency of discrimination in the field of education. Also, the comparability of data across countries is rather low.

In **Austria**, there is no systematic monitoring of racism, xenophobia, anti-Semitism or of other acts of discrimination in the field of education. However, the NGO ZARA — *Counselling for Victims and Witnesses of Racism* issues an annual report on racist incidents.⁴²¹ In 2001, the report included seven cases related to education. These mainly concerned racist verbal slander in school. In two cases, Muslim girls were prohibited from choosing a certain school because of their insistence on wearing their headscarves.⁴²²

In **Belgium**, according to the Assessment and Mediation Commission of the VLOR (Flemish Education council), an official monitoring body which was installed to control the implementation of the non-discrimination policy, 204 complaints were registered between the school years 1994/95 and 2000/01. Most of the complaints were related to the right to enrol in a certain school (45%), others to the wearing a headscarf (6%) or turban (1 case), as well as to the racist behaviour of teachers (4%).⁴²³

In **Denmark**, ethnic discrimination and racism occurring within the educational system are generally not well documented. However, the Danish NFP reported several cases.⁴²⁴ For example, in 2002, the Municipality of Helsingør ascribed Roma children to segregated classes based upon ethnic criteria. After a complaint this practice was deemed illegal and the "Roma-classes" were shut down. Also in 2002, a 9th grade pupil was dismissed from her school-related vocational experience because of wearing a headscarf. The rejection of pupils as trainees because of their religious affiliation or ethnic minority background has been confirmed as a reoccurring pattern when it comes to vocational training in secondary education.⁴²⁵ As a consequence of this discriminatory practice,

⁴²¹ <http://www.zara.or.at> (20.6.2003).

⁴²² Austrian National Focal Point (2002), p. 41.

⁴²³ Belgian National Focal Point (2003), p. 24.

⁴²⁴ Danish National Focal Point (2003), p.14-20.

⁴²⁵ Håndværksrådet [The Board of Crafts] (2002), "Hvorfor skulle de ikke passe ind?" ["Why should they not fit in?"].

school-based practical training programmes have been established to ensure that all pupils get the necessary training to pass their final exam.

In **Finland**, there is a lack of official data on recorded complaints about ethnic discrimination in the education sector or on court cases relating to discrimination in education. According to research conducted in 2001 on Kosovo Albanians, Arabs, Somalis, Vietnamese, Russians, Estonians, and return migrants of Finnish origin, most groups tend to believe that they have received good service from educational institutions, but also stated that they had experienced forms of racism in an educational setting within the last twelve months. Arabs and Somalis were more likely to suffer from racism in education than others.⁴²⁶ Another study in primary schools in the Helsinki area found that migrant pupils were confronted with harassment, discrimination, prejudice and unfriendliness by Finnish pupils.⁴²⁷ It appears that there is a higher tendency of pupils of Muslim background (Somalis, Arabs) to face problems in educational settings. In general, attitudes towards Muslims and Islam have been quite negative, as was demonstrated by the results of a 1998 study in which 28% of those surveyed believed that the practice of Islam should not be allowed because it is a threat to the Finnish society.^{428, 429}

In **France**, the lack of monitoring of ethnic discrimination in education hinders a reliable assessment of discrimination experienced by migrant pupils and ethnic minorities. Therefore, the French NFP calls for a monitoring system, which may require a re-thinking of the reluctance towards collecting data based on ethnic origins.⁴³⁰ An exemplary individual case of discrimination reported by the NFP concerned a ten-year-old child, who was regularly insulted with 'racial' slurs by his peers because of the colour of his skin. He was not supported by teachers, who refused to punish his colleagues. In addition, he encountered problems with the school canteen personnel. His mother's attempts to appeal to the school principle and teachers was unsuccessful in that they usually turned things around to focus on her child's schooling deficits and behavioural problems. She eventually removed her child from the school.⁴³¹

Studies have revealed the role of schools in segregating 'ethnic' minority pupils from their French-origin peers.⁴³² Segregation in schools has been found to reflect and reinforce urban segregation. Schools in these marginalised areas tend to be overly burdened with a concentration of difficulties. At the same time, priority

⁴²⁶ Jasinskaja-Lahti, I. et al. (2002) *Rasismi ja syrjintä Suomessa: Maahanmuuttajien kokemuksia* (Racism and Discrimination in Finland: Immigrants' Experiences) Helsinki: Gaudeamus.

⁴²⁷ Häyrynen, M. (2000) *Maahanmuuttajanuoret ja suomalainen koulu: Kokemuksia pääkaupunkiseudun kunnista* (Immigrant youths and the Finnish School: Experiences from the capital city area) Office of the Ombudsman for Minorities 1/2000.

⁴²⁸ Jaakkola, M. (1999) *Maahanmuutto ja etniset asenteet. Työpoliittinen tutkimus 213* (Immigration and ethnic attitudes. Labour policy research). Edita, Helsinki.

⁴²⁹ Finnish National Focal Point (2003), pp.24f.

⁴³⁰ French National Focal Point (2003), p.57.

⁴³¹ French National Focal Point (2003), p.48.

⁴³² Payet J.-P. (2002a). *The Paradox of Ethnicity in French Secondary Schools*. In C. Stack, L. Roulleau-Berger (eds.) *Urban Youth and Unemployment in United States and Europe*. Academic Publishers Brill.

education areas do not prove to be spaces in which innovative pedagogical practices are created, but rather where disciplinary action is overly deployed. The existence of a private sector of education serves as a resource for mostly affluent parents wanting to avoid the problems encountered in inferior suburban schools. Thus, private schooling was found to participate in the social differentiation of the schooling system. While public sector schooling depends on territorial factors, such as being zoned for schools in one's residential area, the private sector does not follow this logic. In addition, a recent nation-wide study shows that, Authorisations for school transfers are granted more frequently when requested by French parents than their immigrant counterparts.^{433, 434}

In **Germany**, there is no systematic monitoring and hence no national statistics of cases of discrimination in education. However, reports are made by certain institutions (e.g. Ministry of Education, police) and individual cases are collected and documented by various organisations, such as anti-discrimination bureaus. In a study on "perceived discrimination," migrant pupils were asked: "Have you ever been discriminated at school or university because of your ethnic origin?" 30% of young Turks and 18% of pupils from former Yugoslavia agreed. The main problems in the educational system are verbal abuses by other pupils and teachers, unjustified treatment by teachers, and a lack of support for the educational career of the respondents.⁴³⁵

In another study, in the city of Frankfurt, 32% of interviewed migrants said they had experienced discrimination in schools.⁴³⁶ The extent to which certain groups of migrants are affected by discrimination, verbal insults or racist violence varies considerably. Whereas interviewed persons from countries of former Yugoslavia reported below average frequency of experienced discrimination and racism, Turks were affected much more often. A study that targeted institutional discrimination concluded that at certain intersections in the German education system (e.g. starting school, assignment to special needs schools or transition from primary to secondary schools), discrimination occurs more frequently. The authors describe these disadvantages for migrant children as the result of organisational operating and functional interests of individual schools.⁴³⁷ The occurrence of xenophobic incidents in schools varies throughout the country. Various studies cited by the German NFP conclude that this depends on a variety of factors such as regional differences (rural schools are more affected than urban schools), differences in the level of education (schools with a lower education level are more affected) or school atmosphere and school-cultural differences

⁴³³ Payet, J.-P. (Ed.) (2002b). *Mondes et territoires de la ségrégation scolaire*. Programme Mixité Urbaine et Ségrégation à l'École, Ariese-Reseau.

⁴³⁴ French National Focal Point (2003), pp. 33f.

⁴³⁵ Cf. Worbs, S. (2001) Discrimination and Racism. In: Heckmann, et al. (in cooperation with the EFFNATIS research team): Effectiveness of National Integration Strategies towards Second Generation Migrant Youth in a Comparative European Perspective. Final Report to the European Commission, Annex Volume II: Results of the Field Survey, pp. 295-313, Bamberg, p.303.

⁴³⁶ Straßburger, G. (2001).

⁴³⁷ Gomolla, M. and Radtke, F.-O. (2002) Institutionelle Diskriminierung. Die Herstellung ethnischer Differenz in der Schule (Institutional discrimination. The creation of ethnic differences in school), Opladen: Leske+Budrich.

(authoritarian actions by teachers or missing mediation potential in school seem to have a negative impact).

Based on police statistics from the city of Hamburg, from 1997 to 2000, 33 extreme right-wing incidents occurred within schools, 30 of which were so-called propaganda crimes.⁴³⁸ According to statistics by the Ministry of Education in Brandenburg, for the first time collected in 2001, almost 190 incidents with extreme right-wing and xenophobic background were registered in schools in Brandenburg.⁴³⁹ When examining the groups which are most strongly affected by xenophobia in schools, different studies showed that especially Turkish children report discrimination experiences. Apart from them African pupils, especially children from refugee families, as well as Sinti and Roma are most affected by discriminatory practices.^{440, 441}

In **Greece**, there is no monitoring mechanism in place to record phenomena of racism, xenophobia and discrimination. Until now, no studies on such phenomena have been published by the three public research institutes of the Education Ministry (the Institute for Greek Diaspora Education and Intercultural Studies — IPODE —, the Pedagogical Institute — PI —, and the Centre for Educational Research — KEE).⁴⁴² The Greek NFP reported several incidents. In November 2000, the Parents' Association of the Halastra Public School in Thessalonica prevented the enrolment of 32 Roma children from a neighbouring Roma settlement. 27 Roma children had already enrolled in the school, and parents argued that the school was already functioning at full capacity and overcrowding would occur through the enrolment of even more pupils.⁴⁴³ In October 2001, a heated public debate on racism in schools sparked after an Albanian pupil had been forced by the school authorities in a public school in Thessalonica to withdraw from carrying the Greek flag at the official school parade although he

⁴³⁸ Bürgerschaft der freien und Hansestadt Hamburg (2001) Einfluss rechtsradikaler Organisationen auf Schülerinnen und Schüler, Jugendliche und Studierende in Hamburg (Influence of right-wing extremist organisations on pupils, youth and students in Hamburg) (Große Anfrage der Abg. Dr. Hans-Peter de Lorent u.a. vom 28.02.01 und Antwort des Senates), Drucksache 16/5707, Hamburg.

⁴³⁹ Berliner Zeitung (2001) 186 rassistische Vorfälle an den Schulen (186 racist incidents in the schools); at: http://www.berlinonline.de/wissen/berliner_zeitung/archiv/2001/0717/lokales/0066/ (28.10.02).

⁴⁴⁰ Apedjinou, D. (2002) Spezifika der Lebenslagen, Erwartungen und Erfahrungen weiblicher afrikanischer Flüchtlinge in Deutschland (Special features of the living situation, expectations and experiences of female African refugees in Germany). In: Neumann, U. (eds., 2002): *Wie offen ist der Bildungsmarkt? Rechtliche und symbolische Ausgrenzungen junger afrikanischer Flüchtlinge im Bildungs-, Ausbildungs- und Beschäftigungssystem*, Münster, pp.33-55; Niedrig, H. et al. (2002) Lernen in „totalen Räumen“ – Ausgrenzung und Marginalisierung afrikanischer Flüchtlingsjugendlicher im deutschen Bildungssystem (Learning in „total spaces“ – Exclusion and Marginalization of African Refugee Youths in the German Education System). In: Neumann, U. (eds., 2002), pp.19-31; Open Society Institute (2002) *Monitoring des Minderheitenschutzes in der Europäischen Union: Die Lage der Sinti und Roma in Deutschland* (Monitoring the Protection of Minorities in the European Union: The Situation of Sinti and Roma People in Germany).

⁴⁴¹ German National Focal Point (2003), pp.22-26.

⁴⁴² Greece National Focal Point (2003), p.4.

⁴⁴³ DROM Network for Gypsy Social Rights (NGO), Press Release, 15-11-2000.

was entitled to the honour as best pupil. The school authorities had responded to parents' objections.^{444, 445}

In **Ireland**, the Equality Authority was established as an official monitoring body in October 1999. This body has statutory powers and is responsible for monitoring legislation, including the Employment Equality Act, 1998 and the Equal Status Act, 2000. Provisions within the Equal Status Act, 2000 cover all educational institutions. While there are certain exemptions, the basic premise is that educational institutions should not discriminate in four respects: admission, access, terms or conditions and expulsion. To date no cases have been determined under the Equal Status Act, which relate to the focus of this study. The Office of the Director of Equality Investigations (ODEI) was established in October 1999. It provides redress for victims of discrimination on any of the grounds in the Equality Legislation in employment and in the area of provision of goods and services, including education. Anyone who feels discriminated against may lodge a complaint to the Director. The findings of the Director in each case are published.⁴⁴⁶ However, no reports about any specific findings were made in the Irish NFP report.

In **Italy**, in the absence of a monitoring system, only little data exists regarding ethnic discrimination in education. Reports on the subject almost exclusively refer to "sensational" episodes, which, for the most part, appeared in the press. There were frequent reports that schools do not accept the enrolment of Roma children. The most common reason mentioned is that the children do not have documents. Often it is believed that Roma families have preserved their "nomadic" traditions and only stay for a short period of time in the school district. The school does not feel equipped to offer an adequate service for pupils in a situation of mobility. Also, for children of refugee families from the Balkans, this phenomenon has reached vast proportions. Enormous delays in the school enrolments ensue when schools presume that the families go back to their own countries after a short while.⁴⁴⁷

In **Luxembourg**, there is no official monitoring of complaints on discrimination and racism in education. Police recordings do not differentiate between complaints and incidents in different areas of society. Some reports on extreme right-wing developments were made by the NFP. At the beginning of 2001, several violent events occurred in Luxembourg schools. In February, the media reported on events in a secondary school in the South of the country, in which extreme right movements had been observed. The Minister of National Education responded to a parliamentary question stating that it is too early to speak of a neo-Nazi presence in Luxembourg schools. However, the Department of Psychology and Scholastic Orientation (CPOS) had found it necessary to take preventive measures following several disputes between pupils of different nationalities.⁴⁴⁸

⁴⁴⁴ Athens News, 31/10/2000, page: A03 Article code: C12790A031.

⁴⁴⁵ Greece National Focal Point (2003), pp.53f.

⁴⁴⁶ Irish National Focal Point (2002), pp.31,32,41.

⁴⁴⁷ Italian National Focal Point (2002), pp.29f.

⁴⁴⁸ Luxembourg National Focal Point (2003), p.29.

In the **Netherlands**, the monitoring of discrimination is conducted by three organisations. The Equal Treatment Commission (CGB) monitors compliance with the Equal Treatment Act and offers free service to victims of discrimination. The National Bureau against Racial Discrimination screens all cases and case law in the area of discrimination. The National Federation of Anti-Discrimination Agencies and Hotlines registers all complaints of unequal treatment and is a national network of local and regional anti-discrimination agencies. Complaints about discrimination in schools are not a marginal phenomenon, although the percentage of complaints related to education has remained constant in recent years. Between 2000 and 2002, they amounted to 5% of all complaints (ranging between 155-210 complaints from schools).⁴⁴⁹ Complaints on discrimination can also be lodged with the Educational Arbitration Board. Since schools themselves bear the primary responsibility for solving problems and conflicts, appeals to the Arbitration Board are made only in a few cases. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science does not maintain a national reporting centre. The Schools Inspectorate, however, does maintain a registry of complaints of discrimination that are lodged at National Inspection Offices. In 2001, there were a total of eleven complaints of discrimination.

Complaints about discrimination in schools concern relations among pupils, between pupils and teachers, or experiences during internships as well as searching for a position. The most striking complaints are those concerning controversial treatment, such as obstacles to admission to schools, exclusion from enrolment or discriminatory practices that result in exclusion from schools. The wearing of headscarves is a regular source of problems at educational institutions. The individuals involved are usually female Muslim pupils, with incidents occurring mostly in secondary schools and in the search for internships. In most schools, the decision concerning headscarves is made not on the basis of a specific written policy but mostly on an ad hoc basis. For those involved, such a policy can even result in the refusal to allow a pupil to continue an already chosen course of study.⁴⁵⁰

Segregation in Dutch schools is another relevant issue. This does not only concern segregation due to an over-representation of minorities in certain residential areas, but also segregation facilitated by the principle of freedom of education and the freedom of choice of schools laid down in Article 23 of the Constitution. The "freedom of education" means that one is free to found a school based upon a particular principle of life or pedagogical belief, including the right to refuse admission to pupils who do not conform to these principles. This practice creates a loophole for catholic or protestant schools to refuse admission to pupils with different religious beliefs, but it also has led to a significant increase in Islamic schools over the past years. It is interesting to note that, although these schools are not public in character, they are still financed by the Dutch State based on the principle of equality before the law. Because of this trend towards ethnic segregation, the Dutch government considers to alter Article 23 of the Dutch Constitutional Law. In addition, the "freedom to choose a school" contributes to

⁴⁴⁹ Original source: National Federation of Anti-Discrimination Agencies.

⁴⁵⁰ Dutch National Focal Point (2003), pp.39-43.

further segregation because White — and increasingly Black — parents choose 'White schools' outside their neighbourhood rather than their local 'Black school'.⁴⁵¹ "Black schools" are defined as schools with a predominant number of ethnic minority pupils or schools in which the ethnic composition of the neighbourhood and of the school diverges. The number of "Black schools" has risen in the past fifteen years. Concentration and segregation are regarded as undesirable due to the fear of negative consequences for the integration of ethnic minority pupils. Moreover, the so-called Black schools are often associated with education that is qualitatively inferior. When the percentage of ethnic minority pupils is larger than the percentage of native Dutch pupils, there is a greater chance that a language other than Dutch will be spoken outside the classroom. However, the mastery of Dutch is regarded as an important condition for full participation in the educational system. While there is no convincing proof that social integration within school or academic performance are impeded when many ethnic minority pupils are enrolled, the differences in academic achievement between schools are still noticeable. Still, these differences cannot be attributed to concentration alone. There are qualitatively good "Black schools" and qualitatively poor "White schools", which is confirmed in the 2001 Minorities Report.^{452, 453}

In **Portugal**, the Commission for Equality Against Racial Discrimination follows the application of Law 134/99, which aims to prevent and ban all forms of racial discrimination and to punish the exercise of such actions. Still, according to the Portuguese NFP, cases of discrimination, racism, and xenophobia in the education sector are not clearly identifiable. However, some reports by the NFP clearly point to discriminatory practices. This mostly concerns cases of disproportionate allotment of ethnic minority pupils to school classes. For example, in 2002, it was reported that one class in an elementary school consisted of 18 Black pupils from Guinea and one Roma who had to attend this class during two consecutive years. After protests, the school defended itself with the argument of "fortuitous occurrence", further stating that originally, the class even had had two White pupils but they applied for a transfer and that there was nothing the school could do about it. In the year 2000, a similar case found a deeper echo in public opinion since an important national newspaper published it. A school in the Central Region assembled all its Roma pupils in one class. This decision led to a controversial discussion and was highly disputed by the Central Region Teachers' Union, which caused the Ministry of Education to intervene and break up the class. In a statement the Ministry of Education declared that it does not allow "any racial discrimination practices or attitudes within the educational system".⁴⁵⁴

⁴⁵¹ Vaste grond onder de voeten; een verkenning inzake artikel 23 Grondwet. Onderwijsraad. [Sound ground: exploration of article 23 of the Constitutional Law], The Hague: Education Council. 2002.

⁴⁵² Tesser, P.T.M. and Iedema, J. (2002) Rapportage Minderheden 2001: Vorderingen op school [Minorities Report 2001: Progress at School], The Hague: SCP, p.208.

⁴⁵³ Dutch National Focal Point (2003), pp.21f.

⁴⁵⁴ Portuguese National Focal Point (2003), p.37.

In **Spain**, there is no official monitoring of discriminatory and racist acts and practices in the field of education. However, the Spanish NFP reports some relevant cases. The issue of wearing traditional Islamic clothing continues to lead to exclusion in certain schools. For example, such a case was reported about a Moroccan girl who was not allowed to attend a school in Madrid wearing a headscarf. After four months of absence the girl returned to school after the Education Minister of the Madrid Community decided, "Considering the legal obligation of school attendance for all persons, we are going to proceed to ensure that this person attends school without any conditions".⁴⁵⁵

In some areas in Spain the concentration of immigrants in public schools is extremely high as compared to the semi-public schools, which have private status but still receive public funding. While some regard this as unjustified segregation, private schools' associations attribute this disparity to the almost total lack of private state-assisted schools in areas with high migrant populations.⁴⁵⁶

Another important point relating to discrimination concerns the choice of religious education. In 1980, the Basic Law on Religious Freedom reiterated the right of all persons to receive and teach religious education of all denominations. The subject of religion is now optional for pupils, and schools must provide religious education if pupils wish to study it. The Spanish Government has signed agreements with the main religious denominations in Spain in order to guarantee this right. However, the change from an officially Catholic country to a secular one is not void of problems, and pupils who wish to study Islam, Protestantism or Judaism have difficulties receiving instruction in their religion.⁴⁵⁷

In **Sweden**, the jurisdiction of the Ombudsman against Ethnic Discrimination (DO) is narrowed to working life and only in 2002 was widened to also follow the application of the new law on equal treatment of students at the university level. Thus, there is no systematic monitoring of discrimination and racism at all educational levels. The Swedish NFP reports 25 charges involving ethnic discrimination within the educational field in 1999 and 34 in 2001. Swedish schools have been a central target of racism and radical right-wing political parties. While many principals have actively worked against racism, there is a lack of appropriate policies within the school system.

The NFP reports interview results showing that pupils attending schools in the South of Sweden, which are ethnically more homogenous, often report harassment by right-wing extremists. This is in contrast to the experience of interviewed minority pupils who feel "secure" in "migrant dense" schools, because in these schools right-wing extremists often do not dare to harass them. While many ethnic minority groups suffer from racism and discrimination, the Kurdish community in particular and the Muslim community in general have been targeted systematically.⁴⁵⁸ A study conducted by the Red Cross focusing on the presence of racism in schools involved more than two hundred principals and

⁴⁵⁵ Spanish National Focal Point (2002), pp.31f.

⁴⁵⁶ Ibid., p.33.

⁴⁵⁷ Spanish National Focal Point (2003), pp.13f.

⁴⁵⁸ Swedish National Focal Point (2003), p. 23.

pupil council chairmen. The study concluded that more than one third of the principals claim that racist attitudes could be found among the school personal. The final report *Some swastikas behind the gymnasium* published in 2002 as part of the Swedish *Save the Children* campaign shows increasing racism and xenophobia many Swedish schools are facing today.⁴⁵⁹

In the **United Kingdom**, incidents of racial harassment in educational institutions often go unreported and there is limited data available about their nature and extent. This is despite the fact that reporting was recommended by the MacPherson enquiry and subsequently has become a requirement under the Race Relations (Amendment) Act. Schools ought to report incidents of racial harassment to parents, governors and the Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and data is to be published annually on a school-by-school basis.⁴⁶⁰

A study, conducted in 1995 in the London Borough of Hackney, which included 32 refugee children (including Bosnians, Turkish Kurds, Somalis, and Vietnamese), showed that while all the children were coping in school, 19 of them reported that they had suffered racial harassment and nine had changed school as a result. The racial harassment ranged from name-calling, spitting, damage of property, to physical attack.⁴⁶¹ Another research conducted in 1997, showed that over half the refugee children reported bullying in their schools and over a quarter the existence of racism, although fewer freely admitted to having experienced bullying or racism themselves. Those children affected were targets of racism from both White and Black UK-born pupils.^{462, 463} Research conducted by the Refugee Council concluded that in 2001, an estimated 2.400 refugee children were unable to secure a school place, despite their clear rights to school education. Some schools deliberately refused to enrol them, even though they had vacancies.⁴⁶⁴ Despite of various studies indicating that pupils benefit most from being placed in mainstream education⁴⁶⁵, *The Nationality, Immigration and Asylum Act 2002* proposed that some asylum-seekers be housed in large 'accommodation centres', where they would receive education on site instead of in local schools.⁴⁶⁶

In 2001, violent unrest in Burnley, Oldham, and Bradford followed a period of growing tension between the British Asian (mostly British Pakistani) community and the White community in those towns. The Cantle Inquiry commissioned by the Home Office concluded that the White and British Asian community

⁴⁵⁹ Swedish Save the Children, *Rädda barnen, Nagra hakkors bakom gymnasalen; Om främlingsfientlighet och rasism i svenska skolor*. ("Some swastikas behind the gymnasium" On xenophobia and racism in Swedish schools), Stockholm 2002.

⁴⁶⁰ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.17.

⁴⁶¹ Richman, 1995, as cited in Rutter J. (2001). *Supporting Refugee Children in the 21st Century: a compendium of essential information*, London: Refugee Council.

⁴⁶² Save the Children (1997) *Let's Spell it Out*; available at: <http://www.savethechildren.org.uk> (16/5/03).

⁴⁶³ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.42.

⁴⁶⁴ *Ibid.*, p.25.

⁴⁶⁵ See for example: Commission for Racial Equality (2000). *Learning for All: Standards for Racial Equality in School*, London: CRE.

⁴⁶⁶ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.12.

experienced segregation, particularly in education, housing, and employment. White children and British Asian children rarely attended the same schools.⁴⁶⁷

School exclusion is another relevant issue. The U.K. NFP report states that there is a disproportionately high number of Black children who are excluded from school. Data from the Social Exclusion Unit (1998) shows that 16% of permanently excluded children are of ethnic minority origin and nearly half of them are African-Caribbeans, although they make up only about one percent of the school population. A study found that excluded African-Caribbean children had different characteristics from other excluded children. A higher proportion of them lived with a single parent and they also tended to be of higher or average ability. Still, the schools reported that they were underachieving. An OFSTED research review⁴⁶⁸ concluded that qualitative research has frequently pointed to a relatively high level of tension and conflict between White teachers and African-Caribbean pupils.⁴⁶⁹

Main Results:

- In the EU Member States, significant differences were shown regarding the existence of legislative measures to combat ethnic discrimination, racism, and inequalities. Some countries have specific anti-discrimination or equal treatment legislation pertaining to the field of education, such as Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal, the United Kingdom, or Sweden (in higher education). Other countries lack explicit legislation on this matter or are currently proposing to introduce new laws in accordance with Directive 2000/43/EC.
- The same is true for monitoring bodies, which are implemented in some countries to oversee the laws on anti-discrimination and to record incidents of discrimination and racism. Such bodies may be official and state-organised, or unofficial and run by NGOs. Depending on political developments in the Member States monitoring of racism and discrimination in the educational system is also being reduced, if public funding for monitoring organisations or for research in this field is cut or withdrawn, as has been reported from Denmark.
- The section on direct and indirect discrimination shows significant differences in the occurrence of acts of discrimination and racism. However, reported acts are not a reliable indicator of their actual frequency of occurrence. Instead, countries with a better functioning reporting system are more likely to report more cases.
- Segregation in education has been shown to be a problem affecting migrants and ethnic minorities in different ways. Several countries report segregation due to an over-representation of these groups in certain residential areas (e.g. the Netherlands, France, and the United Kingdom) and some refer to segregation due to unequal access to public and state-funded private schools (Spain and the Netherlands). There have also been reports about allocating

⁴⁶⁷ Ibid., p.16.

⁴⁶⁸ Gillborn, D. and Gipps, C. (1996). *Recent Research on the Achievements of Ethnic Minority Pupils: OFSTED Review of research*. London: HMSO.

⁴⁶⁹ U.K. National Focal Point (2003), p.37.

entire ethnic minority groups (in particular Roma or Black pupils) to one school class (e.g. from Denmark and Portugal).

- Exclusion of pupils from schools because of cultural and religious practices or inappropriate behaviour constitutes another problem. Reports were made about the exclusion of Muslim female pupils for wearing a headscarf (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Netherlands, and Spain) and about the disproportionately high rate of exclusion of Black and African-Caribbean pupils in the United Kingdom for misconduct.
- Studies show that ethnic minorities frequently report the experience of harassment, bullying, or verbal slander. Some groups, such as Roma, Muslims and Blacks, but also asylum-seekers and refugees are more prone to experience this kind of unfavourable treatment.
- Finally, certain countries report violence or harassment towards migrants and ethnic minorities by right-wing extremist groups (e.g. Sweden, Germany and Luxembourg).

Part Three

9. Conclusions and Recommendations

9.1. Data Comparability and Significance of the Study Results

The study at hand shows that the comparability of data regarding the education of migrants and minorities in the EU Member States is low. Reasons for this include differences regarding the categorisations used in the collection of data and in the supply of differentiated data. In addition, each Member State has its own unique education system and a society composed of varying ethnicities.

It is difficult to compare countries with a colonial background with countries in which the ethnic minority population established mostly due to labour migration in the second half of last century, or with countries which experience more recent immigration. For example, the situation of Luxembourg with a high foreign school population in primary education (37,9%) and a longer experience with migration, and of Finland, which has a low enrolment rate (2,4%) and more recent immigration, varies considerably. On the other hand, the situation of established ethnic minority groups in countries like the United Kingdom, France, or the Netherlands, of labour migrant groups, e.g. Turks and Yugoslavians in Austria and Germany, or returning emigrants in Greece or in Portugal, can be more easily compared. It is also easier to compare the educational experiences of the same autochthonous group, such as the Roma, who live in many Member States. Similarities and differences experienced by the Roma, by Irish Travellers, and by various groups of caravan dwellers in Belgium and the Netherlands, as well as the situation of the Sámi in Sweden and Finland or of the Swedish-speaking minority in Finland and of the Finnish minority in Sweden, can also be contrasted. In addition, more differentiated studies on the educational attainment of second and third generation migrants in various countries would lead to interesting insights regarding the successfulness of the educational systems' responses in the respective countries and developments over years. Thus, the data supplied by the National Focal Points allows some general conclusions regarding differences and commonalities of the educational situation of these respective groups in the Member States. However, further research is needed to generate in-depth understanding.

Direct discrimination and acts of racism appear to be less common in the field of education compared to other areas, such as employment or housing. However, indirect and institutional forms of discrimination often contribute to the reproduction of inequalities. Certain groups, such as Roma and Travellers, refugees and asylum-seekers, Muslims from a variety of countries, African and Caribbean Blacks, or migrant labourers from Eastern European, African, and

Asian countries, are more likely to experience racism and discrimination than others.

With respect to legislation and monitoring related to racism and discrimination in education, we notice great differences between the Member States. Some countries have laws or currently propose laws on equal treatment, anti-discrimination or anti-racism; some have a monitoring system or an Ombudsman against discrimination who collects data and is ultimately responsible that the laws are applied. Other countries lack special legislation or policies related to racism and discrimination in the field of education and have no official monitoring systems. The implementation of the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of "racial" or ethnic origin (Council Directive 2000/43/EC) will thus be an important step for all Member States which currently lack such laws.

Main results of the comparative study at hand yield similar conclusions as the "Child Immigration Project", a study, which was financed under the TSER Programme (DGXII) of the European Commission. In its final report, completed in February 2001, an analysis of national definitions, indicators, and evaluation systems as well as specific policy responses in the area of education and training was submitted, pertaining to Italy, Greece, Great Britain, France, Sweden, Belgium, and Israel. Similarities in outcomes include the identification of the difficulties caused by the inhomogeneous classification systems. On this matter, the study concludes: "Current classifications for immigrant minors and minors of immigrant origin are insufficient and vary from country to country. This promotes confusion and makes any harmonisation of policies at a European level objectively complicated."⁴⁷⁰ In addition, the study arrives at similar conclusions in revealing failures of the education systems to accommodate the needs of migrants and ethnic minorities. The summary of these conclusions reads as follows:

"The school system is failing immigrant minors and minors of immigrant origin in a variety of areas:

- i. Enrolment — minors are assessed in the host countries language, not their mother tongue. This can lead to children being placed in classes below their age group, which dramatically hinders their development.
- ii. Choice of schools — they have a tendency to choose vocational or technical schools rather than high schools. This has resulted in a very high concentration of immigrant minors and minors of immigrant origin in certain schools, which are often in underprivileged neighbourhoods and have bad reputations.
- iii. Dropout and expulsion rates — they have higher rates than native pupils.

⁴⁷⁰ New Perspectives for Learning — Briefing Paper 17 Integrating Immigrant Children into Europe; available at: <http://www.pjb.co.uk/npl/bp17.htm> (5.7.03).

- iv. Discrimination — immigrant minors struggle with the language demanded by the school, and minors of immigrant origin have difficulties in the acquisition of cultural skills that are demanded by the school.
- v. Results — they have lower results than the native population. This difference increases as pupils advance through the years.
- vi. Careers Advise — they have limited job prospects their background affects their choice of a course of study (...)
- vii. Higher Education — significantly less members of ethnic minorities choose higher education than the native population."⁴⁷¹

It can be concluded that, in spite of the existence of support programmes (e.g. reception programmes, native language and second language programmes), of efforts to introduce new curricula to suit the needs of a multicultural body of pupils, and of a variety of integration and anti-discrimination initiatives on the national and EU-level, inequalities continue to persist to a great extent. On the one hand, one needs to gain a good understanding of the particularities of each education system in order to better understand the relevance of the unequal distribution of migrants and ethnic minorities in the different school types and tracks, their lower educational attainments and earlier dropout rates. Moreover, further research will be necessary to understand which factors determine the differences in educational achievement between different ethnic groups. Aside from primary language and cultural differences as well as differences caused by the varying socio-economic conditions for different groups, discriminatory practices and unequal power relationships between the majority populations and minority groups negatively influence the educational attainment of minorities. Lasting experiences of discrimination may result in distrust in the education system by members of these groups. Such negative relations and prejudice may also interfere with communication between teachers and pupils, among peers, as well as between teachers and parents.

Other reasons which complicate the motivation to achieve and to integrate may be rooted in uncertainties, such as whether migrants are expected to stay, and in the reasons why they came to the country. The motivation to achieve may be affected by cultural perceptions of what it takes to succeed in society. Further reasons include doubts about whether acting like the majority group is desirable or not. Another important point of consideration is the question whether integration into the majority culture actually leads to advancement rather than to barriers, such as unequal chances in the employment area ("job-ceiling"). If during a prolonged contact with a dominant culture inequalities continue to persist, a phenomenon which Ogbu calls "secondary cultural differences" may emerge. This might result in a culture of resistance and a groups' collective understanding that education is not the decisive factor to make it in society.⁴⁷² In order to counteract these

⁴⁷¹ Ibid.

⁴⁷² Cf. Ogbu, J. U. (1991) Immigrants and involuntary minorities in comparative perspective. In: Gibson, M.A. and Ogbu, J.U. *Minority Status and Schooling. A comparative study of immigrant and involuntary minorities*. New York&London: Garland, pp.3-33.

negative developments, necessary steps have to be taken which go beyond the mere introduction of language programmes for minorities or multicultural curricula. Minority members not only have to believe that their efforts to attain higher levels of education will actually pay off, but they also must experience that the pledge for equal treatment becomes a reality in all areas of society.

9.2. Recommendations to the EU and its Member States

The following recommendations are based on findings and conclusions of the comparative study at hand and also rely on specific recommendations made in the Analytical Reports on Education by the 15 National Focal Points of the EUMC RAXEN.

- Efforts to combat discrimination and racism and to foster equality in the area of education require comprehensive and comparable data on the educational situation of migrants and ethnic minorities at the national as well as at the EU level. The European Union and the Member States should therefore take the necessary steps to increase the availability, the scope, and quality of data. This pertains to data on enrolment and on educational achievement (completion rates) at all educational levels, as well as to the monitoring of acts of discrimination and racism.
- The collection of differentiated data, including pupils', students' and parents' citizenship status, place of birth, ethnic group affiliation, and socio-economic status as well as pupils' or students' sex will allow the collection of data of highest relevance, improve its comparability, and avoid unjustified generalizations based on aggregate undifferentiated quantitative data.
- There is a need for more EU-sponsored research studies using qualitative (ethnographic) comparative methods to determine, which factors contribute to the variability in educational performance of minority groups. Thus, the reasons why some ethnic minority groups attain higher educational levels while others continue to lag behind must be better explored.
- The Member States are asked to closely monitor the procedures of assignment of migrants and ethnic minorities to special education programmes or to classes below their age group as well as cases of early dropouts or exclusion and to take appropriate measures in cases of wrong and unjustified practices.
- Existing legislation in the Member States should be reformed to meet the minimum requirements set out by Council Directive 2000/43/EU. More specifically, a specialised public body (e.g. Ombudsman against ethnic discrimination) should be established either as part of the Ministry of Education or as part of an independent public authority to receive complaints and monitor discrimination and racism in the area of education in all Member States.
- Schools and institutions of higher education should adopt a code of anti-discrimination and anti-racist principles and behaviour through an open and facilitated consultation process, which involves pupils, students and staff. Furthermore, educational institutions of all Member States should be mandated to record and report racist incidents by staff, pupils, and parents.

- Native language instruction, which has been recognised by many experts as fostering the language development of both, the native language as well as the language of the country of immigration, should be offered to minorities in all Member States and not be restricted to EU-nationals.
- Programmes of second language instruction should only be led by appropriately educated and well-trained staff. In addition, the scope of the programmes should meet the needs of the pupils at all educational levels and school types.
- Authorities in charge of educational programme development at regional, national, and EU levels should take concerted efforts to develop clear guidelines for the integration of intercultural approaches and comparative perspectives to teaching. In this respect, intercultural education initiatives, which are often blind towards power relations, have to be aware of the dangers of "culturalisation" and "ethnisation". The discourse on issues of cultural difference and "otherness", has to be critically examined and better understood. School textbooks and curricula have to be offered which depict the multicultural society appropriately. There needs to be adequate preparation of teachers to fulfil these tasks as well as intensive training in diversity management and in dealing with discriminatory and racist behaviour.
- To counteract the trend of ethnic segregation between school districts appropriate measures should be taken on a national and regional level, such as providing a more fair-minded allocation of funds to schools, which experience more extensive needs on account of the composition of the body of pupils. Also, school authorities have to be held accountable in cases where ethnic segregation takes place within schools without proper justification.
- Adequate grants and programmes should be established by all Member States in order to provide deprived members of socially vulnerable groups with access to advanced levels of education, as well as to ease their transition from school to work.

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APPENDIX

List of National Focal Points/Contributors

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(RAXEN 3 and 4 Education Report)

Denmark

National Focal Point Denmark- Board for Ethnic Equality, Copenhagen; The Danish Centre for Human Rights, Copenhagen; The Umbrella Organisation of Ethnic Minorities, Copenhagen; Danish Centre for Migration and Ethnic Studies, Esbjerg; Danish National Institute of Social Research, Copenhagen; Documentation and Advisory Centre on Racial Discrimination, Copenhagen
(RAXEN 3 Education Report: Mandana Zarrehparvar)
(RAXEN 4 Education Report: Centre for Bilingualism and Interculturalism)

Finland

National Focal Point Finland — Finnish League for Human Rights, Helsinki
(RAXEN 3 and 4 Education Report: Kulsoom Ally)

France

National Focal Point France — Agence pour le Développement des Relations Interculturelles/ Agency for the Development of Intercultural Relations (ADRI), Paris
(RAXEN 3 and 4 Education Report: Dr. Vijé Franchi; Group for the Study of Asymmetrical Relations, University of Lyon 2)

Germany

National Focal Point Germany — European Forum for Migration Studies (EFMS), Bamberg
(RAXEN 3 and 4 Education Report: Gisela Will; Stefan Rühl; Head of Project: Prof.Dr. Friedrich Heckmann)

Greece

National Focal Point Greece — Antigone — Information and Documentation Centre, Athens

(RAXEN 3 Education Report: Ioannis N. Dimitrakopoulos)

(RAXEN 4 Education Report: Ioannis N. Dimitrakopoulos)

Ireland

National Focal Point Ireland — Equality Authority and the National Consultative Committee on Racism and Interculturalism, Dublin

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Italy

National Focal Point Italy — Cooperazione per lo sviluppo dei paesi emergenti (COSPE)/ Cooperation for the Development of Emerging Countries, Florence

(RAXEN 3 Education Report: Maria Omodeo)

(RAXEN 4 Education Report: Udo Clement Enwereuzor)

Luxembourg

National Focal Point Luxembourg — Association de Soutien aux Travailleurs Immigrés (ASTI)/ Association for the Support of Immigrant Workers, Luxembourg

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Netherlands

National Focal Point Netherlands — The Dutch Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia (Consortium composed of the Department of Public Administration, University of Leiden; Anne Frank House, Amsterdam; National Federation of Local and Regional Anti-Discrimination Organisations, Rotterdam; and the National Bureau against Racial Discrimination, Rotterdam)

(RAXEN 3 and 4 Education Report: Rita Schriemer)

Portugal

National Focal Point Portugal — Centro de Investigacao em Ciencias Sociais e Humans (NUMENA)/ Research Centre on Human and Social Sciences, Porto Salvo; Presidencia de Conselho — Gabinete do Alto Comissário para a Imigração e Minorias Etnicas, Lisbon

(RAXEN 3 and 4 Education Report: Luiza Cortesão, António Magalhães, Alexandra Sá Costa)

Spain

National Focal Point Spain — Movimiento por la Paz, el Desarme y la Libertad (MPDL)/ Movement for Peace, Disarmament and Liberty, Madrid

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Sweden

National Focal Point Sweden — EXPO Foundation, Stockholm
(RAXEN 3 Education Report: Edna Eriksson)
(RAXEN 4 Education Report: Dr. Diana Mulinari)

United Kingdom

National Focal Point UK — Commission for Racial Equality (CRE), London
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(RAXEN 4 Education Report: Dr. Leon Tikly)

European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia

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