A Europe of differences

educational responses for interculturalism

A Europe of differences
Educational responses for interculturalism

Foreword

CIDREE

The Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe is a network of 19 curriculum and research bodies drawn from 15 education systems across Europe plus associate members in Hong Kong and the USA. The member bodies tend to have significant, in some cases statutory, responsibilities in their own countries. These encompass advising on curriculum design and reform, developing or commissioning classroom materials, running or monitoring assessment and qualification programmes, conducting research and contributing to teacher education.

CIDREE's goal is to contribute to the improvement of education in Europe by enabling its member bodies to do their jobs better. We seek thereto to enhance both the advice given to policy makers and the support and guidance offered to teachers. We address these aims by running collaborative projects, facilitating information exchange and, most recently, publishing a yearbook on an educational topic of current concern across Europe.

It is a great pleasure to introduce the yearbook for 2002 which focuses on immigration and ethnic minorities in education. The stimulus for this grew out of the increasing numbers of migrants, including children, in many European countries and the greater visibility of students from ethnic minority communities in our education systems. Our experience of minority populations varies greatly across Europe in terms of proportion of the indigenous population, distribution within a country, recency of arrival, place of origin, language, cultural congruity, legal status and so on. Because of this very diversity we can learn much from each other. There are many different initiatives under way and many success stories to report.

A conference organised in Madrid by CIDREE and our Spanish member, the Centre for Educational Research and Documentation (CIDE), provided the opportunity to share experiences, subject them to critical scrutiny and determine which practices can be transferred. This publication draws on the papers and discussions from that conference. Besides the Spanish

experience which is examined in depth, it presents accounts from Austria, England, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Sweden and Wales.

The net result is a valuable contribution to the literature on educational provision for pupils from ethnic minority backgrounds. Those many people concerned at both policy and practice levels to ensure that all our children are well educated and that our societies are enriched by the diversity that ethnic minorities bring will find much of value here.

Dr Seamus Hegarty
President CIDREE

Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa

Education systems are always undergoing important changes due to their very nature. Undoubtedly, one of the changes which is having major consequences is the integration of an increasingly greater proportion of foreign students in classrooms and, step by step, of immigrant families' children who, in the case of Spain, are already second generation citizens. Therefore, there is already a need for interrelation among different cultures, and a search for a steady coexistence on the basis of the principle that true intercultural communication is only possible on the grounds of equity, non-discrimination and respect for diversity. Starting from this assumption, the distinctive features of other cultures have to be acknowledged as enriching features for the majority culture.

The great extent of the migratory flow in the last decade, both in Spain and in the rest of the European Union, as well as its political, social and human impact, demand a deep and thorough analysis of this phenomenon that concern, not only those who come from another country of origin, but also the host peoples and cultures. In this sense, the publication of this book, which is the result of the seminar organised in Madrid in June 2002 by the Centre for Educational Research and Documentation (*Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa – CIDE*) of the Spanish Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport and CIDREE (Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe), will undoubtedly make a timely and in-depth contribution to this debate.

Since the beginning of the 1980s, Europe has made a noticeable effort, starting from the insistence by several international organisations on the need for education to contribute to a change in attitudes, especially by the Council of Europe which promoted an intercultural education model. The education systems of European Union countries were planned and established mainly as a response to the needs of more homogeneous societies than those we have today. Nowadays, we have to acknowledge the dynamic existence of a multicultural reality. This acknowledgement demands a translation into solutions to meet the needs of all individuals, regardless of their cultural origin, without a decrease in their social, cultural and employment opportunities. In fact, this acknowledgement of diversity becomes one of the focal points that drive the respective education reforms, implemented in the different countries of the European Union during the last two decades.

At the beginning of the 1990s, Spain started to become a host country for immigrants and, since then, it has become increasingly aware of the need to analyse the implications that arise from the incorporation of new ethnic minorities into the education system. The inclusion of this new intercultural horizon in education has given rise to critical changes in the structure and organisation of our system. Moreover, in the exercise of their powers, the different Educational Authorities[1] in Spain have been implementing specific plans and strategies aimed at favouring the integration of foreign pupils in their classrooms. Some of these strategies were presented at the seminar.

At the end of the 1980s, the Centre for Educational Research and Documentation, aware of the importance of dealing with this new dimension in depth, started fostering sound research focused on intercultural education. To date, this research has resulted in 27 specific studies on immigration and education carried out by practitioners and teachers at all levels of education, from all over Spain.

The ultimate aim of this seminar, which was *to reflect on immigration and education systems and to share experiences of both barriers and challenges, and of success and good practice*, is a very important one. It is hoped that this book will also contribute to the establishment of more tolerant and pluralist education systems throughout Europe, and we commend it to politicians, experts, teachers, administrators and, more generally, all those interested in education in the contemporary world.

Director Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa (CIDE)

---

[1] The 17 Autonomous Communities in Spain exercise responsibility in the field of education, subject only to the national Constitution and framework legislation.

CONTENTS

Foreword
Seamus Hegarty
María Tena García

Contents

Introduction

Joanna Le Métais

The CIDREE Yearbook 2002 considers migration in Europe from international, national and regional perspectives. It is based on contributions from eight CIDREE members, most of whom presented their paper at the CIDE/CIDREE seminar held in Madrid on 13th and 14th June, 2002 (see Seminar Programme p. 269*). The papers are grouped into three broad sections. Gundara sets the scene from an international perspective (Section 1) and is followed by seven national contributions (Section 2). Section 3 comprises a case study, which explores four ways in which Autonomous Communities have adapted the Spanish national framework to meet local circumstances. By their nature, these last four papers are able to provide a more detailed picture of policies and their planned implementation.

The terminology used for 'incomers' differs between countries; 'foreigners', 'guest workers', 'newcomers', 'oldcomers' and 'travellers' each convey distinct images and affect the perceptions that we have, and that we encourage others to have, of people in our communities. 'Soundbite' media reporting reinforces stereotypes – such as 'Turks are Muslims', 'immigrants underperform' – and encourages erroneous associations, for example, between 'illegal' and 'immigrants'. This leads to a reductionist view of immigrants and a polarisation between '*belongers'* and '*non-belongers*' (Gundara) and undermines social and political commitment to integration.

For clarity, in this book, the term 'migration' refers to mobility *within* a country or region and 'immigration' denotes the process of relocation and integration *into* a different country or region.

Background

Historical trends
The phenomenon of migration has a long and complex history. Europe has seen population flows since the earliest times and most Europeans are descended from these migrants, who ranged from individuals motivated by the search for food or fertile land, to armies – for example, the Romans, the French and the Germans – intent on invasion and colonisation.

Successive religious persecutions which caused Catholics, Huguenots and Jews to emigrate – sometimes only temporarily – to more tolerant countries gave us our first refugees and asylum seekers. Subsequently, political turmoil around the world has increased the numbers fleeing human rights abuse. Whilst international agreements seek to protect the rights of refugees and asylum seekers, there are indications that economic decline hardens attitudes, even in traditionally welcoming communities such as Sweden and The Netherlands.

Many countries have recruited workers – often unqualified – to fill the jobs which the home community did not want to take. These 'guest' workers were generally not expected to settle permanently in the country concerned. Whilst some frequently moved between their country of origin and their new host country (described by Illner and Pfaff as *Pendelmigration*), it soon became apparent that most 'guests' did not intend to return 'home' and, in many cases, the host country had become reliant on the imported labour force. A more recent phenomenon is the recruitment of highly qualified people (for example, nurses, teachers, doctors) to fill the vacancies that are arising in key service areas, with the hope and expectation that they will settle permanently.

Economic migrants left Europe to go to the New World to seek opportunities and a better lifestyle, whilst others, especially from former colonies, arrived. More recently, citizens from Eastern Europe have begun to exercise their new-found freedom to travel and, in some cases, emigrate. Whilst some regions (for example, Wales) are not currently attracting economic immigrants in large numbers, Murcia has seen immigration increase by over 700 per cent during the past five years; a sharp contrast from its previous status as a region of emigration.

In addition, most countries have internal migrants, including Gypsies and Roma and occupational travellers such as circus and barge people. In some cases, travellers find it difficult to integrate into the majority culture, so much so that, for example in Hungary, Roma have taken on the negative role of 'outsiders', which facilitates the integration of (external) immigrants.

Internal migration is also a feature in the United Kingdom and Germany. These groups can experience some of the cultural and linguistic problems faced by immigrants. For example, monoglot English-speakers can be socially and educationally isolated in predominantly Welsh-speaking north and west Wales.

On a wider scale, mobility within the European Union is encouraged to exchange ideas and expertise; this will increase, as 50 million more people accede to the Union over the coming years. However, despite their all being 'European', these migrants carry with them different languages, cultures, education and, above all, customs and expectations.

These movements have led to multicultural and multiethnic societies, comprising not solely different ethnic and cultural groups, but individuals who are, in themselves, a composite of ethnic and cultural origins. 'Immigrants' may share the ethnicity and/or mother tongue of the host population[2] and naturalised citizens retain their distinct ethnic origins and – in the case of first and sometimes second generation immigrants – their mother tongue. Asking someone to identify his or her ethnic or cultural identity may therefore result in a list, reflecting regional and national affiliation as well as (overseas) heritage.

As diversity becomes the norm, the contribution of all these 'incomers' to our languages, cultures and customs become part of the nation's heritage.

Scale and distribution

Whilst they may constitute a relatively small percentage of the overall population, there has been a steady increase in the number of immigrants and in the number and diversity of originating countries.

Immigrants tend to settle near family members and other compatriots, which has resulted in high concentrations, especially in urban areas. This places additional pressures on schools that already experience social and economic deprivation and can result in segregated 'black' and 'white' schools. Although some of the difficulties faced by immigrants in these areas result from their relocation, others are common to the wider disadvantaged community.

---

[2] For example, in Hungary, 62 per cent of foreign pupils are ethnic Hungarians from neighbouring countries.

Approaches

Educational provision for immigrants has evolved over time, and may be categorised into five broad approaches. It should be noted that most systems reflect a blend of the approaches, according to local circumstances and priorities.

Survival

In the immediate post-war period, it was expected that 'migrant workers' or 'guest workers' would only remain for a limited period and then return 'home'. Support and training focused almost exclusively on what was essential for their work. Thus, workers who had contact with customers (for example, waiters) would receive some language training, whilst those who did not (kitchen staff, cleaners) might not.

The (then) European Community and the Council of Europe issued guidance on provision for migrant workers' children. The main priority was training in the host language, to enable children to be integrated into mainstream classes as soon as possible. Mother tongue teaching was encouraged '*to facilitate the reintegration [of children] into the school system of the parents' country of origin*' (Fleck, p. 100).

Assimilation

As it became obvious that immigrants were settling permanently in their country of adoption, greater attention was given to helping them integrate into the host community as quickly and fully as possible. The host language was seen as the key both to initial integration and full participation in the democratic process, and support for mother tongue teaching declined. Sánchez Fernández describes this approach as the absorption of the minority by the majority group, so that '*the [former] becomes indistinguishable from the [latter], thereby losing its identity, language, eating habits and even its religion*' (Sánchez Fernández, p. 182).

Cultural pluralism

Although some – especially smaller – immigrant communities tended to be integration-oriented (Kovats), the assimilation approach became discredited. Immigrants were still expected to adapt to the majority culture in 'public' life, but there was greater tolerance of their lifestyles in private life and, as with previous generations of immigration, aspects of their food, music, clothing and customs became absorbed into the culture of the host community.

At school, child-centred teaching methods encouraged all pupils to draw on their own experiences as a starting point for their learning. In this way, the customs and cultures of immigrants served to illustrate studies of other countries and peoples. However, recognition of a **state** of diversity (multiculturalism) does not necessarily indicate commitment to the **process** of interculturalism (Borgström) and the inclusion of other cultures in the curriculum remained, in some cases, superficial.

Some strategies to recognise difference, for example, establishment of faith schools, resulted in greater segregation and, it could be argued, undermined integration.

Inclusiveness
The 1960s and 1970s saw a greater awareness of disparities in pupil attitudes and performance. It led to a greater emphasis on identifying individual needs and making compensatory provision in the pursuit of equitable outcomes for all pupils, irrespective of their (dis)ability, gender, race, culture, socio-economic status, religion and so forth. Commitment to this approach was strengthened in the light of evidence of the link between poor school attendance and performance, and social disaffection and deviance. There has been a strong trend across Europe to provide differentiated teaching within integrated 'schools for all'.

The incorporation of provision for immigrants into a general equal opportunities policy (for example, in Madrid and Murcia) focuses on needs arising from a range of interrelated factors and helps avoid unhelpful generalisations based solely on nationality, culture or mother tongue. However, Taylor argues that this approach may mean that cultural diversity and race equality are less systematically tackled.

Interculturalism
Economic decline and social unrest provided further motivation for differentiated teaching and, increasingly, schools now aim to promote interculturalism. This is an interactive approach, which requires both the host and the incoming communities to recognise, adapt and adopt one another's ideas so that all will benefit within a cohesive and economically stable society.[3]

---

[3] See, for example, Gundara, Van Boxtel and Brouwer-Vogel, Borgström, Jones, Sánchez Fernández, and Casanova.

Whilst this approach is now favoured by most education systems, its implementation gives rise to considerable challenges. These are addressed in the next section.

Needs and provision

When discussing 'needs', there tends to be an emphasis on compensation for deficiency and disadvantage. As indicated above, immigrants often settle in disadvantaged areas, which may aggravate the problems already prevalent in these areas. Their social and economic needs and their prior experience and expectations of education may place them at a disadvantage, in common with some members of the host community. However, the disadvantaged may include both black and white '*who may not share solidarities or a set of resemblances*' (Gundara, p. 32) and providers need to take this into consideration.

The educational needs identified by the contributors to this book may be divided into two main groups: generic and specific needs.

Generic

Generic needs, such as information about education services and provision to meet socio-economic and learning needs, are applicable to the whole community. However, special provision may need to be made for immigrants, for example, interpretation and translation, and arrangements for school admission and application for grants outside the normal application period. Consideration may need to be given to the overall allocation of school places to ensure that places remain for pupils who arrive in the course of the year, or to avoid the over-concentration of pupils with special needs in particular schools or regions (Carreras).

Information and guidance

All parents need information about the educational and other opportunities available and guidance on the most suitable choices for their child(ren)'s future development. Schools need information about the customs and cultures of incoming pupils, as well as background details on individuals. The latter can best be obtained direct from parents or carers and home-school liaison has been shown to be a crucial element in the successful integration of all pupils into school.

In relation to support for immigrant pupils, schools need to know which additional services (for example, interpretation) and resources are available from national and regional agencies.

Values and beliefs

In considering the needs of pupils, education services and schools have to look beyond the individual to his or her parents and community: '*Educators must become attuned to variations in understanding, belief systems, and values that people bring from home. If these issues are ignored … you might improve achievement, but you won't close the gap*' (Quindlen, 2002, p. 6). Assumptions about values cannot be generalised simply from nationality or ethnicity.

Problems may arise when there is a conflict of values, for example, when schools have to choose between tolerance and freedom of expression on the one hand, and values such as equality of opportunity on the other. Gundara distinguishes what he terms 'legitimate' cultural practices from 'particularistic practices', which disadvantage individuals (for example, girls) and which impair the exercise of rights such as education and employment. He argues that the state has a responsibility to intervene to protect the rights of the individuals and groups concerned. This view is endorsed by, among others, Fleck and Sánchez Fernández, who stress the importance of legitimating and encouraging a critical approach to one's own values, culture and behaviours.

Religion provides a structure for values and norms, and immigration has resulted in a greater heterogeneity of faiths in our communities. For example, there is an increase in Muslim pupils, for whom there is an overlap between race and religion and between religion and mother tongue teaching.

Respect for religious identity is supported through dress, diet and special leave for religious holidays. In England, Wales and Germany, where religious education is compulsory, special arrangements have been made. For example, under a pilot scheme in North-Rhine Westphalia, schools have been able to offer Islamic instruction as a separate subject since 1999/2000 and Christian Orthodox and Syrian Orthodox instruction are also available. In England and in Wales, religious education syllabuses are drawn up to reflect the faiths practised in the local school community. In all cases, however, instruction aims to increase knowledge and understanding, and not to secure conversion to, or active participation in, the faiths involved.

Religious denomination is not coterminous with nationality, ethnicity or mother tongue and there is increasing demand for faith schools, in some cases justified on the grounds of raising standards of achievement. However, recognition for different values and faiths may conflict with the legal requirement (for example, in Sweden) that all schools offer equivalent education and transmit agreed social values and, as indicated above, separate faith schools may undermine social integration.

Educational needs and prior education

Learning can be affected by a wide range of personal and social influences, most particularly by the child's previous learning experience at home or at school. Lack of regular schooling inhibits the learning of pupils who have truanted or been excluded and of some immigrant pupils, especially Somalis, Eastern European Roma and Kurdish boys.[4]

Although psychological and emotional needs affect the learning of all children, Taylor suggests that refugees and asylum seekers may be particularly vulnerable due to their experience of war, disaster, famine or '*of persecution, intimidation or harassment in their countries of origin*' (Taylor, p. 62). This may be further aggravated by their insecure status on arrival, a situation which may take months or even years to be resolved.

Mobility

Any change of school, even transition from one phase to another, involves a degree of disruption. Although most European countries do not systematically collect information on the number of pupils who change schools at non-standard times (EURYDICE at NFER, 2002), data from England indicate that in the schools inspected since 2000, primary schools had between zero and 80 per cent of pupil enrolments (including those arriving from another country) at non-standard times, with a median of 11.1 per cent. The figures for secondary schools ranged from zero to 35 per cent, with a median of 5.6 per cent (OFSTED, 2002, p. 4.). Special arrangements have to be made to familiarise these pupils with the school and its environment, and to compare what they have already learned with what has been taught in the receiving school, so that any gaps are filled as soon as possible.

---

[4] See: Gundara, Van Boxtel and Brouwer-Vogel

These processes are clearly more complex when the receiving teachers are unfamiliar with the curriculum previously followed by pupils from overseas, and when language difficulties prevent their examining pupils' books.

Amongst the migrant groups, two are particularly vulnerable: the process of application to stay may involve refugees and asylum seekers in further relocation from temporary to permanent accommodation and travellers, especially Roma and Gypsies, frequently experience social exclusion and even rejection.[5]

Specific

Specific needs that arise from the particular circumstances of immigrants mainly relate to familiarisation with the culture and customs of the host community and the learning of the host language(s) and the mother tongue.

Induction

Immigrant pupils and their parents need familiarisation with the customs, as well as culture, of the school and the wider host community. Introduction programmes have been developed in The Netherlands and there is a guide to Swedish customs, *Lexin*, specifically for foreigners.

Schools need general information on the country, culture and language of incoming groups, and on previous educational experiences of pupils, to enable them to tailor induction to meet the individual's needs. Strategies adopted include the establishment of specialist education information centres (for example in North-Rhine Westphalia and Aragon) and close relationships with parents. Assigning a mentor or 'buddy' to the child has also been found to be helpful.

Host language learning

Host language learning is considered to be the primary need of immigrant pupils and the numbers involved can be considerable, including first and second generation naturalised immigrants, who do not speak the host language at home. However, some immigrants speak the host country's language (Austria, Germany, Hungary), and a clear distinction should be made between learning needs and language needs, and between the language needs of secondary-age pupils and those of younger children. Advanced language courses for adults are provided, for example in Aragon, as an important way of facilitating parents' active participation in social and

---

[5] See, for example: Taylor, Kovats and Navarro Barba.

democratic life, and thereby enhancing the education of their children (Carreras, and Gundara).

There has been a tendency, perhaps because of limited resources, to withdraw pupils from mainstream schooling and make 'targeted' host language provision. However, this may lead to social isolation and limit the informal learning opportunities offered by interaction with peers and others in the classroom and in the playground to reinforce and extend what is formally taught.

Countries or regions with more than one official language, such as Spain and Wales, face additional problems. For example, whilst new arrivals who settle in the south of Wales may learn some Welsh at school, English is the predominant language. However, in north and west Wales, the main language of the host community has traditionally been Welsh and immigrants who fail to learn Welsh may find themselves socially excluded. Unfortunately, '*the value of [the Welsh] language and its culture is not so universally recognised and tensions arise*' from immigrants' negative perception of the host culture and language (Jones, p. 168).

Mother tongue
As the approaches towards the settlement and integration of immigrants changed, so did the objectives of mother tongue teaching. The original focus on 'maintenance for re-integration' gave way to the development of bi- and multi-linguistic competence. The link which mother tongue learning provides to pupils' (or their family's) original culture is also seen as important for emotional support and the development of personal identity and self confidence, which are essential for effective social integration.[6]

Some countries institute courses in a wide range of languages[7] and safeguard the quality of instruction by employing teachers who share the pupils' country or language of origin. Inspection also aims to ensure the transmission of democratic values and coherence with other lessons (Illner and Pfaff). Nevertheless, mother tongue provision has declined for a number of reasons:

- despite research (for example, in North-Rhine Westphalia and Sweden) which points to the beneficial effect of mother tongue learning on

---

[6] See: Taylor, Illner and Pfaff, Borgström, and Carreras.
[7] For example, 15 in Austria, 21 in North-Rhine Westphalia, and 60 in Sweden.

acquisition of the host language, some parents are reluctant to enrol their children for mother tongue classes for fear that it will impair their progress in the host language

- immigrants who settle or feel settled in society are less likely to maintain their mother tongue (for example, Finns and Turks in Sweden)

- the high cost of providing mother tongue education for small groups of pupils has led to reduced provision especially in systems where funding decisions are devolved to local level, for example, England, Germany and Sweden. Examples include restricting enrolment to pupils who regularly speak the relevant language at home or passing responsibility for mother tongue teaching to the immigrant communities themselves.

In England and North-Rhine Westphalia, secondary schools may offer examination courses in selected languages as part of the curriculum. Such recognition and accreditation of minority languages raises their status and that of those who speak it. However, the version of the mother tongue spoken by immigrants is not necessarily the same as that spoken in the country of origin, partly because of the influence of the host language. Learners may therefore encounter some unexpected difficulties, especially if their or their parents' knowledge of the language is limited to the oral/aural skills.

Promoting interculturalism

There are numerous references in policy papers to the contribution of immigrants' knowledge, skills and cultures to the 'enrichment' of the host community, but these may go little beyond the rhetoric; the focus tends to be on the 'deficiencies' of incoming pupils. For example, despite the initiatives to recognise pupils' other languages and cultures, Borgström reminds us that '*there is no ideological aim of a clear definition of multiculturalism*', (p. 162) and Sweden remains monocultural and monolingual.

Cultural difference is not restricted to immigration. For example, whilst many immigrants into Hungary share a cultural heritage with the host community, some UK nationals describe their cultural identity in terms of affiliations at local, regional, national and supra-national level (Gundara, and Jones). Interculturalism should therefore be seen as an extension of the recognition that individuals are all different.

The promotion of interculturalism involves the active involvement of, and interaction between, the host and immigrant communities to:

- raise awareness and knowledge of all the cultures represented in society, by means of inclusive curricula, teaching methods and materials

- adopt a curriculum with a national and supra-national focus, which recognises the linguistic and knowledge systems of all groups

- provide differentiated support within an integrated, inclusive context, avoiding concentrations of disadvantaged pupils.[8] Strategies include flexible class organisation, curricular variants, teaching methods and formative assessment

- respect and maintain cultural referents which are essential for the development of self image and self esteem

- critically examine established values and customs, and their relevance and appropriateness to current contexts and circumstances

- encourage positive attitudes towards diversity and the adaptation of existing views and practices, especially those cultural norms which deny human rights

- disseminate the values of the community

- monitor and challenge racism.

Research suggests that formal citizenship education promotes active engagement in voluntary activities and a more positive attitudes towards immigrants (Kerr *et al.*, 2001).

Challenges for implementation

The case studies in this Yearbook give numerous examples of constructive policies and good practice. However, it is clear that much remains to be done to support effective implementation, including:

- accurate information on the number and distribution of (im)migrants, their needs and expectation. This is difficult, especially as not all immigrants are formally registered

---

[8] See: van Boxtel and Brouwer-Vogel, Carreras, and Navarro Barba

- clear policies and coherence between general policies on citizenship, health, welfare and education, and those relating to immigrants

- better partnerships, at all levels, between stakeholders in the host and immigrant communities to plan, provide and evaluate services

- effective coordination between the public, private and voluntary sectors at central, regional and local levels, to avoid duplication of effort or gaps in provision

- initial and in-service training to prepare teachers for their changing role and to meet the diverse and changing needs of all their pupils. Training should be carried out within inter-disciplinary and cross-institutional frameworks, to enable teachers to deal with (possibly contentious) issues which arise and which may cause them to question their professional and personal values and assumptions[9]

- development of appropriate teaching materials

- monitoring and evaluation of policies and their implementation.

Conclusion

Whilst recognising that values, priorities and circumstances in each country differ and that educational objectives must reflect these, CIDREE members and others could contribute to enhancing the quality of education of immigrant and other pupils throughout Europe by conducting and analysing research in the following areas:

- patterns of mobility and the number, expectations and experiences of immigrants

- the impact of mobility on educational participation, performance and attainment

- the interaction of race, culture and religion, and their impact on educational participation, performance and attainment

- the impact on integrated and segregated provision on educational and social development, with particular reference to the establishment of faith-based schools

---

[9] See: Gundara, Fleck, Taylor, Van Boxtel and Brouwer-Vogel

- the characteristics of school organisation and curricula which facilitate the integration of new arrivals. This may be particularly important in the light of increasing mobility within an expanded European Union. The information systematically collected by the EURYDICE network[10] provides a valuable starting point

- effective models of language learning, including the relationship between first and subsequent languages

- guidelines for the production and evaluation of intercultural learning materials

- examples of good practice in staff training and development

- examples of good practice in the ways schools develop, implement, monitor and evaluate their policies and practices, including the development of indicators of success and evaluation models

- evaluation of policy and practice, nationally and cross-nationally, to identify intended and unintended outcomes and the extent to which they contribute to the achievement of the stated objectives. In this way, we can determine what works, under which circumstances.

We need to identify and share good practice and knowledge about the features which contribute to its success. As has been indicated by several contributors, policies are not much good if the necessary conditions and resources to carry them through are lacking. Most importantly, however, we need to examine each initiative in relation to our values and objectives. Just because a policy is effective, does not necessarily make it appropriate for each context.

References

EURYDICE at NFER (2002). Managing Pupil Mobility: *an Overview of Policies across Europe*. Unpublished findings of an enquiry conducted within the EURYDICE European Education information network.

Kerr, D., Lines, A., Blenkinsop, S. And Schagen, I. (2001). *Citizenship and Education at Age 14.* A Summary of the International Findings and Preliminary Results for England. Briefing Paper. Slough: NFER.

Office For Standards In Education (OFSTED) (2002). *Managing Pupil Mobility.* (Reference Number HMI 403.) London: OFSTED. [Also Online]

---

[10] See: *http://www.eurydice.org*

Available at:
http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/public/docs02/managingmobility.pdf
[2 September, 2002.]

Quindlen, T.H (ed). (2002). 'Reaching minority students, strategies for closing the achievement gap', *Education Update*, 44, 5, pp 1, 6-8.

I   International perspective

Social diversity, intercultural and citizenship education in the European Union

Jagdish S. Gundara

Political and social contexts

Discussions about the need for inclusion in society, intercultural and citizenship education in the United Kingdom and the European Union are taking place at a time when powers are being devolved to Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. This provides an opportunity to develop ideas about intercultural education, especially to capture the imagination of young people, who are frequently reported to be disaffected with the political process. Within this broader process of intercultural education, consideration of human rights and citizenship education is an issue of great importance.

Harmonisation and centralisation at the level of the European Union are leading to calls for eliminating racism, under Article 13 of the Amsterdam Treaty (European Community, 1999, Article 13, XEX Art. 6a).

This paper will discuss the idea of developing a framework based on historical and contemporary aspects of diversity and their relevance to an inclusive curriculum that integrates issues of historical and contemporary diversities through immigration. In particular terms, issues of identity – in singular or multiple forms – are relevant for intercultural and citizenship education. Within complex democratic societies where globalisation and technological changes may be leading to high levels of unemployment, democracies and democratic institutions are subject to great stress. The need to deepen democracy entails a critical appraisal of societal diversity and the development of collaborative community participation to set out a curriculum and appropriate pedagogies. Strategies of collaboration open up discussions about the 'belongingness' of diverse groups to a society and its institutions.

Intercultural and citizenship education

Intercultural, citizenship and human rights education should be an integral part of an entitlement to education. Entitlement to a good education includes not only a grasp of languages but also competencies in literacy and

numeracy. These skills are part and parcel of young people's acquiring an understanding of political literacy and acquiring knowledge, expertise and skills as active citizens.

It is not only what children are taught and what they learn, but also their actual experiences at school, which contribute to their understanding of their rights and their responsibilities in society. So, a democratic school ethos is important, and this needs to be experienced in the context of the wider community (International Centre for Intercultural Studies, 1996). Youth work, further and other formal and non-formal lifelong learning are all important. There is an African adage that 'it takes a whole village to educate a child'. There is obviously a lot to this adage, but nowadays it is possible that the village itself needs re-educating. This is especially true because both young people and adults may not sufficiently understand the historical and contemporary underpinnings of society and the issues of its complexity and 'belongingness' within it. The changing nature of identities, in particular, may lead either to conflict or to peace and stability.

The terms 'social diversity' and 'multiculturalism' are used descriptively, not as an educational policy, and therefore raise issues about which there is no agreement. Firstly, there is the commonsense notion that European societies have become multicultural. It is assumed that that it is the post-World War II immigrants to Britain, especially from the Commonwealth, who have caused diversity, leading to a loss of national identity. The comparative educationalist, Nicholas Hans (1949), referred to factors such as language, religion, social class and territory as forming the basis of nations. If one examines British society using this taxonomy, it can be seen as being historically diverse. In the introduction to their book, Lloyd and Jennifer Laing write:

> The term Anglo-Saxon has been used in the recent past for a variety of purposes – usually to denote a kind of fundamental 'Englishness'. Paradoxically, the origins of the term lie firmly embedded in late Roman Continental Europe, when a hotchpotch of people crossed the English Channel. They intermingled with the Romano-British population, developing a new culture in what eventually became England. (Laing and Laing, 1996, p. 49)

The use of the Gaelic and Celtic languages and different forms of regional English makes the society historically multilingual. Likewise, the pre-Christian religions, various denominations of Christianity and Judaism make Britain historically a multi-faith society.

The historical distinctions between social classes and between rural and urban areas have led to differential access to public and social institutions.

The polity has been constituted by the Welsh, Scottish, English and Irish nations and, in addition, by the presence of the non-territorially based and largely invisible Traveller/Gypsy communities. All of these form the historical basis of the multicultural past of the British nation. A similar taxonomic framework of Spain and other member states of the European Union may reveal a similar range of diversities.

An understanding of the complex historical and contemporary aspects of societal diversity ought to provide educators and young people with a more textured and layered understanding of the polity. It can also enable educators to devise systematic and integrated educational policies, practices and curricula.

Devolution within Britain and harmonisation within the European Union present an opportunity to develop a coherent historical and contemporary understanding of societal diversity within a framework which allows young people to view the complexity of the notions of 'belongingness' of different groups. In the Spanish context, educational powers have been devolved to the 17 Autonomous Communities, for example, Andalusia, the Basque country, Catalonia and Murcia. The implication of these British and Spanish realities needs to be explored in greater detail to devise the educational implications for all educational institutions and students.

Citizenship and diversity

The challenge for citizenship education within many European Union societies is the moulding of one out of the many and the construction of appropriate educational responses to difference and diversity, especially in the light of the new and emerging constitutional and institutional arrangements.

The state, the education system and anti-racist activists, either purposively or by default, have failed to develop frameworks based on historical and contemporary diversity using the disciplines of history and the social sciences. In devising programmes for inclusive citizenship education, these issues should be readdressed.

There is a need to avoid racialising intercultural and citizenship education by focusing on immigrants and ignoring the fundamental historically diverse groups within European Union member states. Public and education policy initiatives of antiracism or multiculturalism, directed at 'immigrants' to the exclusion of the dominant groups, are not useful. With devolution, this issue becomes even more complex, and previous assumptions about dominant and subordinate groups require re-examination. Citizenship becomes an important issue within devolved nations because otherwise the immigrant, Traveller and Gypsy minorities within them may be treated as second-class citizens.

The essentialist rhetoric of some antiracist or multicultural polities has led to the designation of some communities as 'other' groups and the creation of binary oppositions (for example, majority/minority, dominant/subordinate, 'belongers'/'non-belongers'). This has negated the possibilities of creating an inclusive polity based on inclusive policies, with long-term institutional and everyday implications. After September 11, the 'us–them' divide in Europe has become sharper; it needs to be narrowed.

The issue becomes more critical as the rise of xenophobia, chauvinism and racism can have consequences for even the dominant nationalities, such as the English and the Spanish, in the devolved parts of their societies (Taylor, p. 62). However, the rights of those who are not citizens, for instance refugees and asylum seekers, are more tenuous. The simmering issue of religious discrimination takes on increasing institutional importance in the secular European context, and therefore necessitates consideration within citizenship and human rights education.

Similarly, citizenship and human rights education ought to recognise the possibilities of the rise of reactive identities in Europe, which can take root in the aftermath of September 11. Amongst the minority communities a 'siege mentality', largely sustained by religion, can be developed. Amongst the dominant groups, this may be based on notions of territorial ownership and racism, which can lead to the exclusion of the 'other'.

In historical terms, societies and the nature and types of citizenship and human rights change. For instance, rights have changed over time, from the first generation of rights, which were largely civil in nature (18th century) to include political rights (19th century) and, the third generation, social rights (20th century). Given the varying levels of inequalities, states try, as Marshall (1977) states, to initiate a 'tendency towards equality' by creating

basic conditions for social equality. This concept is dynamic and active, not passive.

The challenge is to build inclusive polities which can accommodate notions of difference, and also create conditions for 'belongingness' of diverse groups. From an educational perspective, this presents a 'creative moment' since notions of citizenship and human rights can be utilised to develop integrative mentalities, based on differences and multiple identities. Diversities can be intrinsically counterproductive if they conflict with citizenship and liberal democratic principles. Given the deep divisions and uneven development, what can be done to develop new friendships and constructive and creative imaginations? There is already a legacy of exclusive and negative phenomena of racism, xenophobia, chauvinism and sexism. However, citizenship and human rights as part of the modern nation state are recent concepts; in the monarchies, empires and chiefdoms of ancient and medieval societies, people's rights were more circumscribed and people were not considered to be citizens.

Everyday problems and intercultural education

One of the ways in which history has been disarmed (that is, not used for triumphalist and narrow nationalistic purposes) in democratic states is the settlement of disputes not by war, but through the courts, tribunals and, of course, through elections.

In terms of everyday problems, the roles of communities, identities and customs are important. Access to institutions which sustain citizenship and human rights is particularly important in relation to gender in a socially diverse society, where a group or community (but not the state) wants to deny girls or women access to education or employment. The conferring of citizenship and human rights entails opposing particularistic practices that deny girls equality in education or in employment. Hence, here barriers to equality may not come from the state, but from the customs and practices of specific communities. However, some cultural practices (for example, a Sikh wearing a turban or a Muslim girl wearing a head-dress) are legitimate, because they do not impair the acquisition of education nor pose an impediment to gaining employment. The question for us is how to unpick those aspects of an identity which are legitimate and which are not.
If some groups are excluded from, or marginalised within, the education system, should the state remain neutral or should it intervene? In other words, is the state 'fair' or is it impartial? Rawls (1997, p. 60), using the difference principle, argues that the better off should not do better than the 'worst off'. So, to accord equity, the state must be 'fair' but not impartial. In

a democratic state, citizens are entitled to access to education and knowledge to equalise their life chances. If the state remains impartial, it cannot create level playing fields in educational terms; it can only do so by intervention. Other major concerns are raised by the liberalisation of economies, partly by many European governments (especially Britain), but also by the major changes brought about by economic globalisation. Not only do these economic changes negate notions of inclusiveness, but they can also fragment stable economies, industries and communities.

We currently face an additional dilemma, because old solidarities based on class have been destroyed, especially as the younger generation confronts greater levels of polarisation by being divided into 'winners' and 'losers'. Such polarisation, where the 'losers' feel that they owe nothing to the 'winners', poses a new challenge to citizenship and human rights education. How can schools build a set of mutualities and resemblances, or a stake amongst divided groups in society? Even where groups who are 'losers' contain both black and white youth, the individuals involved may not share solidarities or a set of resemblances. Citizenship and human rights education, therefore, has the complex role of addressing the sense of exclusion and loss amongst both black and white youth. In this context, genderised exclusion presents an added level of complexity and needs to be dealt with firmly, but delicately. Former policies, which privileged one or other group, may prove to be counterproductive by exacerbating differences and reducing features of commonality between different groups. Hence, the state is not impartial but intervenes through the school, the youth service, or the career guidance service, because all marginalised groups, whether white or black, indigenous or immigrant, are excluded.

Schools and other institutions have an important task of helping to turn the binary majority/minority issue into one of inclusiveness. This task, however, cannot be undertaken by the school or the education system alone, but needs a concerted public and social policy and action. The development of inclusiveness would entail reversing the polarities of majority or minority and necessitates complex policies and strategies that include both white and black groups and establish a minimum level of resemblances. Furthermore, intercultural education ought to bridge the gaps between those who are considered a 'permanent minority' and the majority and nurture notions of citizenship and human rights of both. Such policies and processes can instil the enduring notion of fraternity or new solidarities and develop 'communities of development and hope', as Judith Green (1998) describes it. Yet, this is easier said than done, because Britain, like many other states, confronts complicated issues. Habermas writes:

Today, as the nation-state finds itself challenged from within by the explosive potential of multiculturalism and from without by the pressure of globalisation, the question arises of whether there exists a functional equivalent for the fusion of the nation of citizens with the ethnic nation.
(Habermas, 1998, p. 117)

Multiple identities

So, the real challenge is how the democratic processes in society and experiential democratic education can guarantee social integration in highly differentiated contexts. Yet there are already positive examples amongst many of the young British folk. Das, of the Asian Dub Foundation, describes himself as a '*Hindi British Asian, English, Bengali European*'. Pandit G, who operates the decks, describes himself as '*a half-Irish, Asian, Scot*' (Williamson, 1999, p. 40). In the Spanish and Latin American contexts, the issues may relate to the mestizo cultures. Andrew Marr (1999), a London-based journalist, stated that the multiple Asian identities in Britain were a contributory factor in the better performances of children of Asian origin in education. He also wrote about the difference between Edinburgh and Belfast, as follows. In Edinburgh:

They began to juggle multiple identities – British, Scottish, European. The Scottish home rule movement, including the SNP, has been vigorously developing the rhetoric of liberalism and democracy. (Marr, 1999.)

Conversely, in Belfast:

The Ulster Unionist people, meanwhile, huddled inside a simple, singular view of the world that deliberately avoided complexity or intermingling. As a result, today they have no open door to the outside world. Their identity is too strong, too single. In 1999, that is a tragic predicament for any people. Ask the Serbs. (Marr, 1999.)

Hence, there are perhaps graver dangers of the old historically entrenched ethnic identities of nationalities, which may be more divisive than the ones arising from contemporary migrations.

Young people currently demand their rights, but do not necessarily accept that they have obligations. The public culture and domain therefore include values derived from both the minority and the dominant groups in society. Intercultural education, therefore, has to have an inclusive notion that symbolically and substantively captures the imagination and enchants

disenchanted young people. To engage young people who are disaffected by the political process, it is appropriate to use constitutional, citizenship and human rights principles and other progressive and democratic struggles as part of the curriculum

Amongst young people, the notion of being part of, and belonging to, complex localities is important. Hence, the notion of territorial 'belongingness', which is not exclusive but shared, is worth exploring within schools and youth clubs. There is a need to develop non-exclusivist-neighbourhoods that are not 'no-go' areas for others, but are confederal communities. Such communities would be based on shared resemblances and values, which are neither racist nor patriarchal. This necessitates revamping the old Greek concept of *paidea* or the German notion of *Bildung*, to develop the complex interactive and intercultural aspects of schools and their communities. If this process is not undertaken through academic and formal political or citizenship and human rights education, and through active citizenship engagement, underclass or pauperised groups of whatever nationality or religion will activate their own separatist 'politics of recognition'. Such dynamics could heighten fragmentation and division, with political consequences. Even if these groups are statistically small, they cannot be written off as having no political consequences. The corrosive potential of urban ghettos and rural blight has a way of permeating the body politic, which prisons and internal security cannot contain (Habermas, 1998).

Active citizenship and unemployment

A focus on the economic and technological aspects of globalisation, which ignores the political, social and cultural aspects, does not help citizens to become active participants. This becomes critical in socially diverse societies because of the massive unemployment this can create, especially amongst young people. Citizenship education that nurtures political knowledge, understanding and skills is crucial to strengthen engagement in public life and the public domain. Active citizenship that solely relies on weak and impoverished civil society institutions is not sufficient, because it does not currently possess leverage to interest young people, although in many parts of Europe, where civil society institutions are strong, dynamic young people who are involved in programmes of active citizenship are making a difference in their schools and localities.

The divisive aspects of the 'politics of recognition' are a powerful issue in the United States as well as in parts of Europe. Groups which demand a

recognition of their particularistic identities also demand separate schools and a 'curriculum of recognition', which detract from the development of intercultural understandings and an inclusive curriculum.

In Britain, there have been riots in the largely Asian areas of Oldham and Leeds, which are poor areas with high unemployment. These have exacerbated strained relations between the Asian and white communities. In the 2001 elections, the British National Party candidate in Oldham came second after the Labour candidate, and polled over 12,000 votes. The official Liberal Democratic candidate was moved to third place. The rise of anti-immigrant polities in France and The Netherlands is a recent example of this trend in other European Union member states. Such issues amongst poorer groups – whites and other – cannot be ignored, and they are relevant throughout the European Union. Inclusive employment, social and economic policies are needed. Policies that separate out different groups with stereotypical identities can be counter-productive.

Issues of employment and jobs are important. Since there will be no jobs in the virtual and privatised technological factory, and governmental institutions are shrinking, how will social cohesiveness in the context of social diversity be strengthened? Unless the public domain and the public sector are brought together with the civic and community sector, the only viable civil society of strength and glamour is the criminal fraternity, whose growth will increase levels of imprisonment and raise social and racial tensions.

Intercultural education requires a national and supra-national focus and the notion of being an 'Asian, Scottish, British and European' (and its Spanish or other equivalent) is all-important. This is especially so because Britain and Spain are members of the European Union and a critical understanding and engagement by young people should enable them to consider critically ideas of 'Fortress Europe', whose narrow interpretation of Europe is strengthened by a Eurocentric curriculum, with divisive consequences.

Young people in many European contexts often gain their understanding of rights from the media and not the school. Young people are not taught to read media messages critically. This raises important considerations, for teachers, curriculum planners, schools and other educators, of what education systems need to do about intercultural education, either in tandem with, or in response to, the media.

Deep democracy

The development of deep democracy based on social participation requires urgent attention because the private market has no public obligations and the role of mixed economies becomes important. The role of social capital amongst people is now also recognised by the World Bank, which reflects at least the acceptance of possibilities of a multitude of voices at the universal level, with social and civic virtues. Deep democracy demands strengthening values of citizenship and human rights. The inculcation of civic values in public and private domains, to activate civic virtues, puts into place a new, non-traditional understanding of these rights. Here, deep democracy can be assisted by eliminating the former private/public divide:

> *The fundamental change in the way in which the particular and the universal are related to the public and the private is to admit the civic virtues to wide areas of life: most generally wherever one can act towards the universal, therein lie the civic virtues.* (Clark, 1996, p. 118)

Part of the resolution of the contradictions, dilemmas and complexities lies in the recognition of multiple identities and a variety of political loyalties. In the contemporary British context, being an active member of a local street association, being Scottish or Welsh, British, European and global, are all consistent with the notion of deep citizenship. Parallels exist elsewhere in Europe.

'Belongingness'

The other issue, which should be raised, is that of 'belongingness' of all groups in European societies. Dominant nationalities tend to see their country as 'theirs' whilst 'others', who are regarded as aliens who do not belong, are seen to encroach on it. Obviously specificities of different localities, communities, families and groups provide a different colour, texture and hue to different parts of British and Spanish societies. Similarly, differences of local politics, economies and histories intersect and interact differently within the local, regional, national, European and global contexts.

The sharing of space – by dominant and subordinate, coloniser and colonised, rich and poor – comes together in polities and makes the functioning of modern democratic societies complex. This complexity includes the production and distribution of material and social goods, including the political, economic, literary, cultural and the media output. The 'other' is no longer 'out there', but 'here' and, as Chambers (1994) states, there is an intersection of 'histories, memories and experiences' (Chambers, 1994, p. 6). It is important to develop an agenda for public and

social policy and to create spaces in rural areas and in cities, where we can negotiate the complexity of our societies. Such an analysis should include all groups who live in them. In establishing such a context, past and current exclusions need to be put right, making it possible to initiate a dialogue between all. The interaction and intersection of cultural and linguistic histories enable us to construct a more realistic understanding of the past, and better inform us of the present which may, in turn, have implications for constructing a less biased and a more meaningful future. For instance, the teaching of British history should include the contributions of the cultures, civilisations and history of Islam, Judaism, Blacks and the regional nationalities such as the English, Scottish, Welsh. Similar issues also apply to the teaching of history in Spain and other countries in the Mediterranean region, especially since there is a long history of conflict and cooperation in the region. This includes issues of antipathy, conflicts and cooperation, and should include the history of all those who are British or Spanish to inform the understanding of the history of Britain and Spain. Hence, the issue is not ethnicised histories for ethnicised groups, but an inclusive understanding of history within the member states of the European Union.

Communities are not only situated within their localities but have other identities at national and supra-national levels. This lends an enormous range of heterogeneity to society and its life. This complexity defies simplistic definition by either the dominant or subordinate cultures. Political systems in most parts of the world have not come to terms with the public policy implications of this reality.

Societies, as such, embody notions of 'belongingness' as well as of alienation. They have universal features as well as particularities and local differences. Yet, non-confederal localisms can become parochial, racist, insular, patriarchal, stagnant and authoritarian. Thick and textured layers of political, social and economic contexts intersect with history, culture and language. British and Spanish societies therefore provide possibilities and prospects of an infinite nature, and yet, they can also be lonely and confining. The confederal nature of society requires integrative thinking and structures which link individual groups and localities. The political and educational challenge is to develop a shared and common value system, in which inclusive rights and responsibilities are developed as an outcome of the work of schools and other social and political institutions.

Such a political initiative needs to establish the basis for social policies, measures, strategies, actions and institutional changes. These initiatives need to be monitored to ensure that international standards are met.

Without these strategies, combined with the analysis of the negative aspects of exclusion, there would be further proliferation of racial and ethnic conflict.

There is an urgent need for the formation of a network of institutions and structures to initiate further work: the collation of good public and social policy practices at national level; the development of electronic and other information networks; the dissemination of findings; the establishment of educational and political strategies for different contexts.

Two more specific issues may deserve more detailed consideration to formulate policies and practices: the construction of the curriculum in the European national contexts, and teacher education.

Curriculum

Anglocentric or Hispanocentric curricula may need to be re-evaluated, because centric curricula may not serve the needs of socially diverse polities. There is a need to consider a wider and democratic European context for the new millennium of globalisation.

Knowledge implication

The taxonomy of societies discussed earlier, and the construction of those who are seen to belong or not to belong, have legal consequences, because of the accordance or denial of citizenship rights. From an academic perspective these also influence the construction of knowledge systems in a particular society. The perception of the knowledge of 'others' as external to the education systems, because they are not seen to belong to society, has clear implications for the construction of the curriculum.

In the European context, an intercultural curriculum at teacher education level is essential to ensure that teachers have the non-Eurocentric knowledge and skills to teach an intercultural curriculum. Samir Amin (1989) and Martin Bernal (1987 and 1991) have made an extremely important historiographic analysis of the reconstruction of a European history in the 18th and 19th centuries, which excludes the learnings and understandings that the Greeks acquired from the Egyptians and Phoenicians. With the rise of racism and of anti-Semitism, the Egyptians (as Africans) and Phoenicians (presumably as forebears of the Jews) were excluded and Greece became

constructed as the 'pure' childhood of Europe, with no links to other civilisations or their knowledge systems.

Such a construction excludes the linguistic and knowledge systems of groups which are seen as being semi- or uncivilised. Apart from the languages, histories and knowledge of subordinated nationalities in Europe, this construction excludes languages and knowledge of other groups who also live in Europe. The development of a non-centric curriculum in schools and, more importantly, in teacher education institutions, therefore requires pedagogues to work closely with academic historians, social scientists and other researchers in their respective cultural fields.

One problem in the implementation of intercultural education is that the languages, histories and cultures of subordinated groups in Europe are not seen as having equal value with those of dominant European nationalities. An entitlement to a non-centric curriculum is perhaps one of the greatest challenges to bringing about the development of an intercultural education.

Issues of knowledge, in this sense, are not ones of political correctness but arise out of their substantive exclusion from the mainstream or dominant knowledge systems.

Intercultural teacher education

The final issue which will be mentioned briefly is that of teacher education. It follows from the above points that teacher education, as it currently stands in many contexts, is poorly placed to implement effective intercultural policies and measures. Not only do teacher education institutions need to be postgraduate- and research-oriented and have close links with other university faculties, they also need to have close links with schools.

The structuring of intercultural dimensions would be marginalised if teacher education institutions themselves had a lower status than other university institutions. A further issue is the institutional location of intercultural issues within teacher education. If intercultural dimensions were left to a few interested staff, without any structural arrangements to allow for a more integrated approach within teacher education institutions, then such issues would be marginalised. Each subject area has to acquire and develop its own expertise, and the implementation of changes may require the development of inter-disciplinary and cross-institutional frameworks. Securing the necessary changes therefore requires, not only the

involvement of a few enthusiasts, but also of an institutional structure, mechanisms and infrastructure.

Changes within teacher education institutions are necessary because, as institutions, they have customs, procedures and practices which directly or indirectly discriminate. Discriminatory practices may not be overt and can only be eliminated if changes in institutional structures can bring about greater openness in their operations. These discriminatory practices may have relevance to intercultural education, but they may also have wider implications for educational equality, including gender equality.

Policies for intercultural teacher education cannot be effective unless they include support for all the staff, and visible changes in:

- student admissions

- staff recruitment, development and promotion

- initiation of research and curriculum development.

Such changes require an evaluation of their effectiveness and cannot be tokenistic. Hence, monitoring the implementation of any strategies and policies is necessary.

Teacher educators themselves cannot initiate changes unless there is staff development, which allows all staff an opportunity to update their knowledge, skills and understandings.

These issues therefore warrant serious consideration by national authorities. Changes which seek to bring about intercultural education require serious evaluation which, in turn, ought to inform educators about curricular change, restructuring of teacher education and broader educational strategies.

References

Amin, S. (1989). *Eurocentrism.* London: Zed Books.
Bernal, M. (1987). *Black Athena: The Afroasiatic Roots of Classical Civilisation Vol. 1.* London: Free Association.
Bernal, M. (1991). *Black Athena: The Afroasiatic Roots of Classical Civilisation Vol. II.* London: Free Association.
Chambers, I. (1994). *Migrancy, Culture, Identity.* London: Routledge.
Clark, P.B. (1996). *Deep Citizenship.* London: Pluto Press.

European Community (1999). *The Amsterdam Treaty.* Luxembourg: Office of the Official Publications of the European Community.

Green, J. (1998). 'Educational multiculturalism: critical pluralism and deep democracy' In: Willett, C. (Ed) *Theorizing Multiculturalism: A Guide to Current Debate.* Oxford: Blackwells.

Habermas, J. (1998). *The Inclusion of the Other: Studies in Political Theory.* Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Hans, N. (1949). *Comparative Education.* London: Routledge.

International Centre for Intercultural Studies (ICIS) (1996). *Routes of Racism – The Social Basis of Racist Action.* London: International Centre for Intercultural Studies.

Laing, L. and Laing, J. (1996). *Early English Art and Architecture: Archaeology and Society*. Stroud, Gloucestershire: Sutton Publishing.

Marr, A. (1999). 'Perils of Ethnic Purity', Race in Britain – Observer Special. *The Observer*, 4 July, [Online] Available http://www.observer.co.uk/race/story/0,11255,604008,00.html [14 August 2002]

Marshall, T.H. (1977). *Class, Citizenship and Social Development.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Rawl, J. (1997). *Theory of Justice.* Cambridge: The Belknap Press.

Williamson, N. (1999). 'British Folk comes of Asia', *The Times*, London: 2.7.1999.

II   National perspectives

Immigrant pupils in Austrian schools: the challenge of linguistic and cultural diversity

Elfie Fleck

Immigration to Austria

When, in the 1960s, Austria's expanding economy faced a labour shortage, it began to recruit 'guest workers' from South European countries, mainly from the former Yugoslavia and Turkey. The 'guest worker' system was based on rotation, which meant that the young workers who were recruited were not supposed to bring their families along with them and were expected to return after a few years, to be replaced by new workers. In reality, the rotation system did not work, as most guest workers transformed themselves into immigrants who, despite the intentions of the Austrian policy and despite their own original plans, began to settle in Austria. Families were reunited and most of the immigrant children, the second and third generations, were born in Austria.

Non-Austrian nationals

In 2001, approximately 730,000 residents (9.1 per cent of the total population) are non-Austrian nationals, of whom more than a third (35.2 per cent) live in the capital, Vienna (Statistik Austria, 2001). The percentage of non-Austrian nationals in Vienna is 16.4 per cent (256,971 residents) with more than 25 per cent in selected districts (Wiener Integrationsfonds, 2002).

Naturalisation

The relatively high percentage of foreign residents in Austria, is partly due to its restrictive naturalisation laws. Thus, children of foreign parents are not automatically granted Austrian citizenship, even if they are born in Austria, but take the citizenship of their parents. Dual citizenship is legally impossible, except if acquired by birth from parents of two different nationalities, and in certain other rare cases.

Even though naturalisation is a comparatively difficult, costly and lengthy process, the number of immigrants who decide to become Austrian citizens (and who fulfil the requirements for naturalisation) has continually increased over the past ten years. Whereas in 1991, 11,137 applicants were

granted Austrian citizenship, the total number of naturalisations in 1999 amounted to 21,985. Many of these were minors, who acquired the Austrian nationality alongside their parents.

Countries of origin

The Austrian National Census of 2001 (Statistik Austria, 2001) found that 85 per cent of all non-Austrian residents are not EU-nationals, which is largely due to Austria's geographical location, its previous policy of recruiting foreign workers and the admission, in the early 1990s, of refugees from the former Yugoslavia. In 2001, 45 per cent of all foreign residents in Austria were nationals of the former Yugoslavia and 17.8 per cent were Turkish nationals. Other relevant groups were Germans (10.5 per cent), Poles (3.1 per cent), Romanians (2.5 per cent), Czechs (1.9 per cent) and Hungarians (1.8 per cent).

The Austrian school system

The Constitution stipulates that state schools be accessible to all pupils, regardless of their origin, sex, race, class, language and religious belief. Compulsory schooling starts on 1 September following a child's sixth birthday and lasts for nine years. School attendance is compulsory for all children who have their permanent[11] residence in Austria, regardless of their nationality. Thus, children of asylum seekers and children whose residence status is unclear are also admitted to school.

State schools charge no fees and all pupils are entitled to purchase school books at greatly reduced prices under the school book programme, regardless of their nationality or residence status. All students whose parents receive a family allowance can use public transport at greatly reduced prices to get to school.[12]
After attending primary school for four years, pupils can continue their education:

---

[11] Permanent residence is accorded to those pupils who *intend* to stay for at least one semester (six months), which includes children of asylum seekers, as the asylum procedure usually takes longer than six months. Ideally, pupils are *immediately* admitted by the local school. School age children who(se parents) intend to stay for a shorter period have the *right*, but not the *duty* to attend school in Austria.
[12] Children of asylum seekers, who, admittedly, are a relatively small group, are not entitled to receive this benefit, as their parents do not receive a family allowance. For some of them, the Federal Ministry of the Interior bears the costs of transport to school.

- *either* at a general secondary school (*Hauptschule*) from ten to 14 years of age, followed by the pre-vocational school (*Polytechnische Schule*) from 14 to 15 years of age

- *or* at an academic secondary school (a*lgemein bildende höhere Schule*), which comprises a four-year lower level and a four-year upper level and is completed with a final exam (*Reifeprüfung*, or *Matura*), which gives access to university studies.

Parental choice is influenced by a variety of regional, social, and cultural factors, such as the location of the school and the parents' professional and educational background. As a rule, it can be said that in urban areas, parents choose academic secondary schools in preference to general secondary schools, whereas in rural areas, the opposite is true. Nation-wide, about 30 per cent of all primary school leavers attend academic secondary schools, while about 70 per cent go to general secondary schools.

Pupils who have successfully completed the fourth year of a secondary school can

- *either* progress to the upper level of an academic secondary school

- *or* progress to a technical or vocational college

- *or* attend pre-vocational school for a year and start training for a job at the age of 15.[13]

Option 3 is chosen by about 40 per cent of the age group, whereas the rest (60 per cent) opt to go on to intermediate or higher education. There are some 50 per cent more pupils in intermediate-level or higher-level technical and vocational colleges than in the upper phase of academic secondary schools.

---

[13] Apprenticeship includes compulsory part-time attendance at vocational school.

Immigrant and refugee pupils in Austrian schools

In the academic year 2000/2001, children and young people from over 160 countries attended school in Austria. National school statistics show that the majority of them were nationals of either Turkey or one of the successor states of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Approximately 44 per cent of all immigrant and refugee pupils attend schools in Vienna.

Table 1 Pupils whose nationality is not Austrian (most common nationalities)

Nationality	Number of pupils
Turkey	29,791
Federal Republic of Yugoslavia	21,841
Bosnia and Herzegovina	19,751
Croatia	11,204
Germany	4,142
Romania	3,450
Poland	2,528
Hungary	1,363
Albania	896
Czech Republic	814
Stateless, nationality unknown or unclear	777
People's Republic of China	737
Iran	619

Source: bm:bwk, 2001.

In this context, it should be pointed out that there are clear distinctions between the categories 'nationality', 'mother tongue' (first language or L1) and 'competence in German'. Not all Austrian citizens have German as their mother tongue. Speaking Serbo-Croat or Turkish as a first language has no relevance for a person's competence in a second or third language. This must be constantly kept in mind, because right-wing political groups conflate these categories and claim that non-Austrian children, or children whose mother tongue is other than German, do not understand a word of German and therefore undermine the 'proper' education of Austrian children.

Pupils whose mother tongue is other than German

In the educational context, a person's nationality is a negligible factor, whereas the number of pupils who are (potentially) bilingual is of some interest. Therefore, the number and percentage of pupils whose first language is other than German is of far greater importance than their nationality, especially as a considerable number of these pupils have acquired Austrian nationality (see Naturalisation, above).

More than ten per cent of all pupils speak a language other than German at home, for all or part of the time. Their number has continually, though not dramatically, increased from 100,407 in 1993/94 to 124,189 in 2000/2001 (bm:bwk, 2002). Thus, it can be stated that the presence of non-mother tongue German speakers at Austrian schools is by no means a temporary phenomenon.

National school statistics do not indicate the total number of pupils whose mother tongue is other than German by language. However, a more detailed analysis of pupils' mother tongue is available for Viennese compulsory schools (i.e. primary, special, general secondary schools and pre-vocational schools) (see Table 2).

Table 2   Mother tongue spoken by pupils at compulsory schools in Vienna (December 2001)

Language	Number of pupils in compulsory schools
Serbo-Croat	15,027
Turkish	12,770
Polish	1,736
Albanian	1,439
Romanian	1,283
Arabic	1,149
English	669
Chinese	616
Macedonian	571
Hungarian	561
Farsi	548

Source: Wiener Schulpflichtmatrik, 31 December 2001.

Due to legal, political and social discrimination against immigrants and refugees, these children are over-represented in general secondary schools and special schools for underachievers. They are still significantly under-represented in academic secondary schools and intermediate- and higher-level technical and vocational colleges, even though their numbers in these school types have continually gone up over the past seven years. Particularly in intermediate-level technical and vocational colleges in Vienna, the percentage of pupils of immigrant origin has recently increased significantly, so that currently more than a third (34 per cent) of all pupils in this school type are young people from immigrant families (see Table 3).

Table 3 Pupils whose mother tongue is other than German, by school type

	Austria		Vienna	
	1993/94	2000/01	1993/94	2000/01
Primary schools	11.3	14.4	27.7	36.2
General secondary schools	10.2	13.0	35.9	44.0
Special schools	18.4	23.3	34.2	36.7
Pre-vocational schools	15.9	12.5	45.9	44.8
Vocational schools	8.0	*5.4[*]*	24.7	*16.1[*]*
Academic secondary schools	4.2	7.6	11.1	16.9
Intermediate-level technical and vocational colleges	4.6	10.7	14.8	34.0
Higher-level technical and vocational colleges	3.6	6.6	9.3	18.1

* Figures from 1999/2000, as more recent data not yet available.

Source: bm:bwk , 2002.

Support for immigrant and refugee pupils

History

It was in the early 1970s that notice was first really taken of the presence of immigrant children in compulsory schools, especially in Vienna. Pressed by teachers, who began to develop methods and models to cope with the new circumstances, the administration eventually reacted. The first steps were German language classes, as well as extra instruction in the respective mother tongues (at that time only Serbo-Croat and Turkish). These measures, which ran as pilot projects, were only adopted at compulsory schools, as there were practically no immigrant children in higher education and special provisions for the few exceptions were regarded as unnecessary. Even today, more than 30 years later, support measures and models for intercultural education are generally restricted to compulsory education.

Since immigration developments in Austria were by no means unique, but comparable to those in other Western European states, recommendations for the support and promotion of immigrant children at schools were developed on a transnational level, notably by the Council of Europe.

At the Ad Hoc Conference on Migrants' Education in November 1974, the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education agreed that the member states of the Council of Europe should not only adopt programmes to promote migrant children's competence in the national language(s), but also

> *... provide opportunities for migrants' children to learn, keep up and develop a good knowledge of their mother tongue and the culture of their country of origin, so that they can both settle down well in the educational system of the host country and keep the door open for a return to their country of origin, while taking advantage, if they so desire (in particular in their careers) of their bilingual situation ...*
> (Council of Europe, 1975, p. 45)

Current measures

Integration, not segregation

Austrian education policy rejects the idea of segregation. Hence, pupils who are not Austrian nationals and who have a mother tongue other than German are not taught in separate schools or classes, but are educated alongside Austrian pupils. The establishment of separate classes needs the consent of the Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, which is usually only given in special or emergency cases. This can be illustrated by an example from the early 1990s. When schools in Vienna received approximately 2,000 Bosnian refugee children in the academic year 1992/93, most of them were taught in separate classes, due to administrative difficulties, but were integrated into the general school system a year later.

Additional legislative measures have been taken to meet the special needs of immigrant and refugee children. Pupils whose competence in German is not yet sufficient to follow the classes held in German are admitted as *ex-matricular* pupils for a maximum period of two years. This means that they are not necessarily given marks during this period, but can nevertheless move up to the next year. After this period of special treatment, it is assumed that pupils can generally follow tuition in the classroom, even though their competence in German is not yet comparable with that of native speakers. However, the general assessment criteria, as laid down in the legal guidelines, have so far failed to take into account the special learning situation of these pupils, so that they are basically treated like everyone else when it comes to marking, although teachers have a wide range of discretion and are actively encouraged not to neglect the pupils' individual circumstances.

Legal basis – curricula

In 1992/93, all pilot projects concerning the promotion of, and support for, children who have a mother tongue other than German became part of mainstream provision in primary, general secondary, special, and pre-vocational schools.

Simultaneously, curricula for German as a second language (GSL) and for the children's mother tongue were developed. Thus the various pilot projects were given a legal basis, which nevertheless provides leeway to individual schools to follow their own models within the legal framework.

The new curriculum for the first phase of academic secondary schools (Years 1 – 4 of the a*lgemein bildende höhere Schule*), which has been in force since 2000/01, has addressed the needs of the significantly higher numbers of bilingual pupils by adding educational guidelines for German as a second language and a curriculum for mother tongue instruction, both of which are identical to the respective curricula for general secondary schools (*Hauptschule*).

Since 2000/01, the two most commonly-spoken languages of immigrants in Austria (i.e. Serbo-Croat and Turkish) can also be studied as foreign languages at general secondary schools. It should be pointed out, however, that this option is hardly ever exercised as, in practice, English is offered as a first foreign language by the overwhelming majority of all secondary schools. Serbo-Croat, but not Turkish, has been added to the curriculum of academic secondary schools.

German as a second language (GSL)
According to local circumstances, schools are free to offer GSL in parallel or supplementary classes or integrated into the general timetable, which means that a team of two teachers (the class teacher or subject teacher, plus the assistant teacher) works with the whole class. The number of lessons dedicated to GSL may vary, but must not exceed:

- 12 lessons per week for *ex-matricular* pupils (that is, those who receive a dispensation from formal grading for two years) at primary, secondary, special and pre-vocational schools
- five lessons per week for *matricular* pupils (that is, those who do not receive the two-year *ex-matricular* dispensation) at primary and special schools
- six lessons per week for *matricular* pupils at general secondary and pre-vocational schools.

In practice, due to limited staff resources, relatively few schools provide the maximum number of lessons per week. As a rule, pupils with a mother tongue other than German receive two GSL lessons per week. The author believes that this is by no means sufficient to meet their needs. Thus, Austria finds itself in the paradoxical situation of having adopted a curriculum that is praised by educational experts, linguists and teachers alike, but of failing to provide for the required number of teaching posts. The situation has recently been aggravated, as funding for GSL teaching posts is no longer earmarked. Since 2001/02, the nine provincial school boards have discretion to allocate resources for special purposes to

individual schools, which has led to further reductions in the lessons dedicated to GSL.

Mother tongue teaching

In the 1970s and 1980s, the ideology of mother tongue instruction was to facilitate reintegration into the school system of the parents' country of origin, in case the family decided to return. It was therefore logical that mother tongue teachers were selected by the sender countries (Yugoslavia and Turkey) and it was expected that they would return after a period of four or five years. Similarly, teaching materials, such as course books, were supplied by the sender country. On the other hand, these teachers were employed and paid by the Austrian state.

In the course of the 1980s, the fact that most migrant workers and their families had permanently settled in Austria could no longer be ignored. By the mid 1980s, almost 70 per cent of all Yugoslav children and over 40 per cent of all Turkish children were born in Austria. Reintegration into the school system of a country where these children had never lived had largely become a fiction.

These social changes, as well as recent linguistic insights, required a reorientation of the objectives for mother tongue instruction at school. Today, the overwhelming majority of linguists and educationists claim that a fully-fledged linguistic competence in the mother tongue not only ensures a child's intellectual and emotional development, but also facilitates the acquisition of a second language and improves overall achievement. These insights were taken into consideration when the Austrian curricula for mother tongue instruction were developed in the early 1990s.

As far as teachers are concerned, the rotation system was eventually discontinued. It was inefficient, since it took some time for the teachers to adapt to the Austrian school system, to learn or improve their German, to become integrated into the teaching staff and so forth. As soon as teachers had overcome their initial difficulties and successfully met the new challenges, they were replaced by newcomers, who had to start from scratch.

Many teachers, whose four- or five-year term had expired, decided to stay and to continue teaching at an Austrian school, and new teachers were almost exclusively recruited among residents in Austria. Furthermore, there were qualified teachers among the Bosnian refugees who fled to Austria in 1992, who were also successfully integrated into the teaching profession. By

1998/99, almost 40 per cent of mother tongue teachers had acquired Austrian nationality and this trend is expected to continue.

The children's mother tongues are taught as optional subjects, either in separate (afternoon) classes[14] or integrated into the general timetable, with the mother tongue teacher working alongside the class or subject teacher (team teaching). The integrated model is widely practised in Vienna, whereas afternoon provision is preferred in the other federal states. The number of lessons may vary from two to six a week.

Currently, the following languages are offered: Albanian, Arabic, Bulgarian, Chinese, Farsi, Kurdish (Sorani), Macedonian, Polish, Romanian, Romany, Serbo-Croat (Bosnian/Croat/Serbian), Slovak, Spanish, Turkish and Hungarian. Any language may be taught, provided that there is enough demand, that trained teachers are available for the language in question and that sufficient posts are provided for in the annual budget. In the academic year 2002/03, approximately 345 mother tongue teachers were/will be employed throughout Austria, though some of them, notably teachers for the less widespread languages, worked part time, teaching only a few lessons per week.

Although the mother tongue curriculum offers suitable guidelines for the teachers, and has therefore been welcomed by teachers and experts alike, the implementation of the ambitious targets lags behind. This is partly due to the fact that the importance of a child's first language for his/her cognitive and emotional development is not yet commonly accepted, although this insight is beginning to gain ground. Some teachers, headteachers and immigrant parents still assume that the child's mother tongue delays the acquisition of German language and consequently discourage the pupils from enrolling for mother tongue classes. In addition, mention must be made of the administrative and organisational difficulties – for example, the required minimum number of pupils enrolled per language; classes in the late afternoon; classes which combine pupils from various schools and age groups – plus the precarious occupational position of most teachers, who are generally employed on one-year contracts.

Intercultural education

From the early 1970s to the mid 1980s, educational policies relating to immigrant pupils in most European countries (including Austria) followed

---

[14] In Austria, optional subjects are usually taught in the afternoon (i.e. outside the compulsory timetable).

the dual strategy of assimilation (support for the acquisition of the host language) and reintegration (provision for mother tongue teaching) and thereby – presumably unintentionally – gave ambiguous messages to the immigrant population. Subsequently, these principles were gradually revised. Increasingly, from the early 1980s onwards, integration was no longer regarded as a 'one-way street', but as a mutual process for which not only the immigrants or other minorities, but also the majority population, should be responsible.

This new turn is reflected in Recommendation 1093 of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, which aims '*at the implementation of intercultural education for all children, in all sectors of the educational system*' (Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, 1989, p. 3) and recommends '*the training of teachers in education for intercultural understanding, notably in a context of migration*' (ibid*.*, p. 1).

In Austria, intercultural education was introduced as an 'educational principle' in the early 1990s. An 'educational principle' is not a subject, but a recommendation to teachers to take certain aspects into account across the curriculum. Other 'educational principles' include environment education, sex education, political education and many more.

Intercultural education aims at a mutual understanding between pupils of various social, cultural and linguistic backgrounds and aims to make them aware of similarities and differences and to combat Eurocentrism and racism.

Problems arise from the non-compulsory nature of 'educational principles' and from the fact that teachers are not sufficiently trained to deal with them. Teachers who have never questioned their own values and preconceived ideas are unlikely to live up to the principle of intercultural education. All too often, teachers feel insecure when it comes to cultural diversity, which is only understandable. Some are tempted to ignore existing differences altogether, while others, who explicitly take up the issue of cultural differences, run the risk of putting their pupils into ethnic 'pigeon holes'. Many teachers find it less demanding to organise intercultural projects at the end of the school year, with lots of foreign food, dance and music.

To support the teachers' efforts in the field of intercultural education, the Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has published a series of intercultural teaching materials for pupils aged ten to 14. As the collection is

extremely popular with secondary school teachers, it is planned to supplement the existing volumes for German and mathematics, with materials for other subjects, such as history or geography.

Teacher training

Whereas future teachers for compulsory schools receive their education at teacher training colleges, students who wish to be teachers at academic secondary schools or intermediate- and higher-level technical and vocational colleges enrol at a university. Currently, German as a second language (GSL) and intercultural education are optional subjects at most teacher training colleges. University students training to be teachers of German must take a course of GSL and a course entitled 'Linguistic variety as a starting point and a source for motivation'. Additionally, they can choose among a number of electives in the field of GSL.

Institutes for in-service teacher training offer a variety of courses and seminars in GSL. It must be noted, however, that in-service training is not compulsory. While some GSL teachers have additional competence in the field of language teaching, others are not sufficiently qualified to teach GSL.

As the presence of schoolchildren with a mother tongue other than German has become a social reality, and will remain so in the future, every single teacher must be well prepared to teach in multilingual and multicultural classrooms. Therefore, the author considers it of the utmost importance to offer GSL and intercultural education as *compulsory* subjects at all teacher training colleges and universities where future teachers are trained. These subjects would involve some basic knowledge of the reasons for migration, of Austria's immigration and asylum policies and school regulations concerning migrant children, as well as the basics of language acquisition and language teaching strategies and methods. Students should also be given the opportunity to reflect upon their own fears and to question their own prejudices.

Conclusion

Experts in the fields of linguistics and educational sciences agree – and are supported by the recommendations of international institutions, such as the Council of Europe – that the three cornerstones of a meaningful educational policy in a country of immigration are:

- support measures for the acquisition/improvement of the national language(s)

- the promotion of pupils' mother tongue, and

- intercultural education aimed at all pupils.

Austrian curricula for compulsory schools and the lower phase (Years 1 – 4) of academic secondary schools, which take all these three aspects into account, are a solid and indispensable basis for teaching and learning in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms. However, in order to implement the objectives laid down in the curricula successfully, the author recommends that a number of additional measures be taken, notably in the fields of initial and in-service teacher training. Administrative steps should be taken to ensure a minimum number of GSL lessons for each pupil and to facilitate attendance at mother tongue classes. Finally, assessment criteria ought to be revised to reflect adequately the special learning situation of bilingual pupils.

References

Council of Europe (1975). *Report on Ad hoc conference on migrant education,* held in November 1974.

BM:BWK (Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Kultur) (2001). *Österreichische Schulstatistik 2000/01*. Vienna, September 2001. Vienna: BM:BWK in cooperation with the Bundesanstalt Statistik Österreich.

BM:BWK (Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Kultur) (2002). *Informationsblätter des Referats für Interkulturelles Lernen*, Nr. 2/2002. Vienna: BM:BWK.

Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (1989*). Recommendation 1093 on the education of migrants' children.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Statistik Austria (2001). *National Census 2001*. Vienna: Statistik Austria.

Wiener Integrationsfonds (2002). *MigrantInnen in Wien 2001, Daten & Fakten & Recht* (Report 2001, Teil II). Vienna: Wiener Integrationsfonds

A good education for all: meeting the educational needs of refugees and asylum seekers in multiethnic England

Monica J. Taylor

Background

Migration and the evolution of a multiethnic society

On the occasion of her 50th Jubilee, Her Majesty the Queen (2002), in a speech to Parliament, noted that *'We …take pride in our tradition of fairness and tolerance – the consolidation of our richly multicultural and multifaith society, a major development since 1952, is being achieved remarkably peacefully and with much goodwill.'* Yet, in the very same week, Her Majesty's Home Secretary spoke, in a radio interview (BBC News, 2002), of plans to educate children of asylum seekers in accommodation centres, to avoid *'swamping the local school'*. These statements indicate some paradoxes with respect to the development of a national Government policy of integration within diversity.

Historically, the British Isles have experienced immigration dating back to the 12th century, and continuous mobility of people within its borders. Across the UK's four constituent countries (England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales), there are distinctive national and regional characteristics reflected in cultural diversity. In the 20th century, Britain has had a history of immigration as a legacy of empire. Over the last 40 years, there has been a gradual evolution into a multicultural, multiethnic society with the integration of ethnic minorities in Britain (Commission on the Future of Multi-Ethnic Britain, 2000; Parekh, 2001). There are now many positive indicators of a pluralistic society, such as a higher public profile for Black and Asian people and increasing numbers of ethnic minority students in further and higher education. But, despite legislation, there is also latent, and sometimes overt, cultural discrimination and institutional racism (GB. Parliament. House of Commons, 1999), with persistent educational underachievement for particular ethnic minority groups and individuals, who may also experience racial attack, especially in certain locations.

The ethnic composition of England is diverse, geographically variable and visibly contrasting. In certain areas of London and other major cities, there

are substantial concentrations of ethnic minority population, where the indigenous white population can be in a minority. In such locations, some secular and faith-based schools (especially Church of England schools) have over 90 per cent of children from other religious (often Islamic) and ethnic minority backgrounds. By contrast, within a 50-mile radius of London, there are small towns and villages where a non-white member of an ethnic minority is a visible individual who will excite curiosity, comment, and possibly criticism or even hostility.

This is the context for the recent increased arrival of refugees and asylum seekers. From a wide perspective, such migration may be seen as part of a continuous process of economic and social mobility that contributes to cultural, ethnic and racial diversity and to economic prosperity. But such immigration may also be seen as a political challenge to the need to balance international and humanitarian obligations with certain perceptions of national interest and maintenance of predominantly stable race relations.

Contemporary challenges of migration

Economic and social migration appears to be a global phenomenon of the 21st century. It has been estimated that there are around 18 million migrants across the world (Rutter, 2001), mainly as a result of conflicts and natural disasters. Migration is currently a key political challenge across Europe, with the movement of people from the east into the relatively affluent and liberal countries of the west. This is likely to intensify as the accession of 12 new member states of the European Union entitles 50 million people in Eastern Europe to seek work throughout Europe. The major social and economic challenges to Western European countries and to their educational systems are thus likely to grow.

Migrants are a heterogeneous group of people – they include the wealthy as well as refugees and asylum seekers. Many refugees and asylum seekers are not only homeless and destitute but also traumatised by their experiences of persecution, intimidation or harassment in their countries of origin. They come from diverse cultural, religious and linguistic backgrounds and have a variety of reasons for their displacement and movement, including war, famine, political or racial persecution, and natural disaster. Whilst some refugees and asylum seekers come from rural backgrounds, others are highly educated urban professionals who have previously enjoyed a good standard of living in their own countries. Indeed, contrary to public belief in the UK, a recent Government overview which reported a striking lack of research on migration reached an initial conclusion that 'migration has tended to promote economic growth' (Glover *et al.,* 2001).

Table 1 sets out the number of post-World War II refugees to the UK by country of origin and date of entry.

Table 1 Post-World War II refugees in the UK

Entry date	Country of origin	Number
1945-50	Czechoslovakia, Hungary Romania	50,000
1956	Hungary	17,000
1968	Czechoslovakia	5,000
1972 –	Uganda	42,000
1973 – 9	Chile	3,000
1973 –	Ethiopia and Eritrea	23,000
1974	Cyprus	24,000
1975 – 92	Vietnam	24,000
1978 –	Iran	28,000
1979 –	Afghanistan	18,000
1980 –	Iraq	23,000
1982 – 96	Ghana	17,000
1983 –	Sri Lanka (Tamils)	46,000
1984 –	Pakistan	6,000
1988 –	Somalia	120,000
1989 –	Turkey (Kurds)	38,000
1989 –	Congo (Zaire)	23,000
1989 –	Sudan	6,500
1990 –	Angola	16,000
1992 – 6	Bosnia	9,000
1992 –	Eastern European Roma	11,000
1993 –	Sierra Leone	10,000
1994 –	Kenya	9,000
1994 –	Algeria	7,000
1994 –	Nigeria	28,000
1995 –	Kosovo	29,000
1996 –	Colombia	8,000

Source: adapted from Rutter, 2001.

Before the 1980s, most refugees were from Eastern Europe. By the late 1970s, new groups came from Asia and Africa. Numbers have gradually increased since 1989, and in 2001 – 2 there were 72,400 applications for leave to remain and settle in the UK. Yet, to date, the numbers coming to the UK constitute less than one per cent of asylum seekers world-wide. Until

relatively recently, around 90 per cent of refugees and asylum seekers lived in Greater London (Rutter, 2001). Since the Immigration and Asylum Act 1999 (GB. Statutes, 1999), the Government's policy has been to disperse refugees and asylum seekers to towns and cities throughout the UK. The settlement patterns of school-age refugees directly affect the provision that needs to be made by local education authorities (LEAs) and schools. In addition to coping with their previous experiences, once 'settled', refugees and asylum seekers face a new set of social and economic challenges. According to the Refugee Council (2000), these may include poverty, stigmatisation, isolation, vulnerability to racial attack and overcrowding. Children may suffer from interrupted, little, or no prior education; from not being cared for by their parents or from having parents who are emotionally absent. They may have little English and may experience bullying or social isolation in and out of school.

Historical educational perspective

Whilst current concerns about the increase in refugees and asylum seekers may seem distinctive, there are precedents, such as the arrival of Ugandan Asians in 1972 and of Vietnamese since 1975. Moreover, refugees and asylum seekers now enter a social setting in which there already exist at least two or three generations of ethnic minority communities, mainly from South Asia and the Caribbean, but also from Africa. The presence and socio-economic situation of these communities over the past 40 years or so has led to legislation on race relations and racial equality. This, in turn, has affected educational policy, provision and practices. Concerns and evidence about the relatively low performance of some children from certain ethnic minority groups have also influenced the Government's agenda for raising of achievement and social inclusion. There are wider implications for the education of all young people, in terms of developing respect for and valuing cultural diversity and race equality.

Thus, the response of the education system in England to refugee children does not exist in a vacuum, but should be seen as an aspect of the ongoing development of a set of policies and practices, which are being retuned and adapted to new circumstances and conditions. It is therefore worth reviewing some milestones in the response of the education system to previous immigration and the education of ethnic minority children, as a context for considering current policies, provision and practices for refugees and asylum seekers. This process highlights some key issues that may need revisiting.

From the mid-'60s into the 1970s, policies and practices relating to the education of ethnic minority pupils were assimilationist. There was a focus on teaching the English language through designated funding. Immigrant communities were responsible for maintaining their languages and cultures of origin and many groups set up supplementary schools for teaching language, cultural activities and, in some cases, religion. Gradually, a more integrationist philosophy of multicultural education emerged, with the twin objectives of improving the awareness and understanding of ethnic majority children for life in a multiethnic society and meeting the particular needs of children from ethnic minority groups. This was dubbed the 'saris, samosas and steel bands' approach, as many schools tokenistically celebrated the cultural and religious festivals of their minority pupils, but did little to counter racial prejudice between individuals or to address discrimination in their institutional procedures and practices.

In 1979, the then Government established an inquiry into 'the educational needs and attainments' of children from a range of ethnic minority groups, paying particular attention to the academic performance of pupils of West Indian origin, about whom concerns had been expressed over a number of years. The Committee's two reports (Rampton Report, 1981; Swann Report, 1985), informed by country-wide visits, testimonies and specially commissioned research and research reviews (Taylor, 1981, 1987 and 1988; Taylor with Hegarty, 1985), were educational landmarks of the time. Although the focus of the inquiry was on the distinctive needs of ethnic minority pupils, an important outcome of the Swann Report was the debate which it engendered about the nature of society and of the need for a multicultural and antiracist education for all.

For a few years in the mid- to late 1980s, some teacher training institutions, LEAs and schools attempted to develop an antiracist education, which, in its moral form, combats racism and promotes race equality, and, in its political form, supports certain kinds of positive discrimination. Attention was paid to such matters as the curriculum (Black studies, women's studies), positive representations of minorities in curriculum materials, racist incidents in school, exclusions, streaming and setting practices, teacher expectations and the recruitment and career development of ethnic minority teachers. But, instead of being seen as good and much-needed educational practice, antiracism became politicised, and was soon superseded by major educational change introduced by the Education Reform Act (GB. Statutes, 1988). The introduction of a new National Curriculum and the failure to issue specific guidance for multicultural education as a cross-curricular

dimension left schools little time or scope for cultural diversity or race equality in an overcrowded timetable.

In the early 1990s, one of the few large-scale projects on race and ethnicity at that time found that multicultural antiracist education had become subsumed in LEA equal opportunity policy and practice, together with gender, disability, occasionally class and sometimes sexual orientation (Taylor, 1992). Cultural diversity and race equality were less likely to be tackled directly or systematically in institutional structures and processes and were more likely to be addressed in terms of individuals' language learning and relationships. This occurred at a time when refugees were increasingly entering the education system. Parental choice, delegated funding, school inspection, testing and the need to respond to continuing initiatives preoccupied schools. Coherent national policies and practices to meet the diverse needs of refugees were not developed.

By the mid-1990s, further concern about the underachievement of ethnic minority groups was confirmed in a review of research undertaken by Gillborn and Gipps (1996). As part of its action plan to raise the achievement of ethnic minority groups, the Government commissioned research to provide positive and practical insights into the characteristics and strategies of successful multiethnic schools (Blair and Bourne, 1998). Two key indicators were:

- 'listening schools', which took on board the perceptions of pupils and parents about values as well as strategies and were prepared to reappraise and reconstruct their practices;
- schools' need for flexibility to deploy staff to identify, target and meet changing needs in a linguistically and culturally diverse context.

This research influenced the OFSTED report, *Raising the Attainment of Minority Ethnic Pupils* (OFSTED, 1999a).
The post-1997 Government's educational policy has sought to promote a framework of equal opportunities and social inclusion within which ethnic and racial diversity can be recognised. As so often before, the climate of race relations has influenced the educational agenda. The Macpherson Report (GB. Parliament. House of Commons, 1999) on the inquiry into the murder of a black teenager, Stephen Lawrence, had wider implications for many services, including education, as it dealt with institutional racism (see OFSTED, 2000) and prompted the Amendment to the Race Relations Act (GB. Statutes, 2000).

The Government set an agenda for raising standards in its White Paper, *Excellence in Schools* (GB. Parliament. House of Commons, 1997), which recognised that this could be especially challenging in schools with a very diverse intake. Pupils from ethnic minority backgrounds comprise 11 per cent of the pupil population. Over half a million pupils do not have English as a first language and many start school without an adequate grasp of English. Increasing consciousness of underachievement has not prevented educational inequalities among some groups. Inequalities associated with ethnicity and social class are several times greater than those related to gender. In a further research review, Gillborn and Mirza (2000) found that over the previous ten years all the principal ethnic minority groups achieved higher results than before, but white pupils had benefited more than most. The gap between the attainment of Black, Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils and the national average at General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) level has been widening, putting these groups at a disadvantage in education, labour and training, with the likelihood of later economic and social exclusion. Recently, however, there is more positive evidence from the Youth Cohort Study of improved performance of Black, Indian and Asian (including Chinese) heritage pupils (Payne, 2001).

Addressing inequalities requires attention to institutional discrimination and relationships between schools and Muslim communities in particular (Commission on British Muslims and Islamophobia, 2001a). This is relevant, since a significant proportion of current refugees are Muslim. To date the Government has not explicitly or systematically considered the overlap and distinctiveness of race and religion, although it has announced its intention to support more faith-based schools. Another set of issues arises from the fact that exclusions from school have included disproportionate numbers of Black students, although they often enter school better prepared than any other group (Gillborn and Gipps, 1996; Gillborn and Mirza, 2000). The Race Relations Amendment Act (GB. Statutes, 2000) requires schools and LEAs to assess the impact of race on their policies and attainment levels, including exclusions. This should offer a better basis for research.

According to the Department for Education and Skills website (DfES, 2002a), research in schools with good ethnic minority achievement highlights the factors which make a difference as: a strong emphasis on raising expectations; a positive culture and ethos throughout the school; strong community links and a commitment to parental involvement; and sustained ethnic monitoring to keep track of pupils' academic progress.

Issues and needs

Distinctive needs of asylum seekers
The educational needs of refugees and asylum seekers correspond to those of earlier immigrants in terms of learning English and familiarisation with the culture to function in an English-speaking education system and community. Over and above this, refugees may have emotional and physical needs arising from the reasons for their emigration; the nature of their migration experiences *en route* to the UK; and their responses to involuntary changes in country, culture, language and environment due to *force majeure.* Refugees and asylum seekers may also have needs resulting from direct experience of conflict, violence, harassment or persecution; trauma due to events witnessed, experienced or reported, including death or injury of family or friends; and lack of schooling, because of system breakdown or exclusion.

The Department for Education and Skills (2002b) *Guidance on the Education of Asylum Seeking and Refugee Children* suggests that the most vulnerable groups of refugees are: underachievers; unaccompanied asylum seekers and refugee children; later arrivals with little or no prior education; Somali pupils (who may have little or no prior education, whose parents have little English, who may be illiterate in their home language, and who may be excluded from school); Turkish Kurd boys and Eastern European Roma (because of exclusion from schooling in their countries of origin). Use of more sensitive ethnic monitoring categories is important. Suggested strategies for raising attainment include: bilingual and bicultural mentors, parental involvement, pastoral care provision, after-school and vacation programmes, small-group teaching, and materials appropriate to the age and stage of learning.

In a national survey, LEAs identified key issues for schools receiving refugees as: staff with expertise in teaching English as an Additional Language (EAL); support and training for staff; guidance on meeting needs of new arrivals; coordinated support for 'children with complex needs'; effective home – school liaison; and addressing the expression of racist views by some parents of other children in school (Mott, 2000).

Some educationists, however, see the needs of refugee pupils as being different in degree, but not in kind, from those of all pupils. For instance, the headteacher of a London community secondary school with many refugee pupils argued that *'the specific needs of very many children of*

refugee families highlight the special challenges of UK schooling' (Marland, 1998, p.17). These are induction, family communication and partnership, language needs, the pastoral curriculum, the need for an intercultural curriculum and dealing with xenophobia. Similarly, a study of education authorities, refugees and school personnel in Scotland found the main concerns to be *'as probably for all learners, implementation of enabling policies, the curriculum, the ethos of the school community, and families' own circumstances'* (Closs, Stead and Arshad, 2001).

Induction needs

The Refugee Council has stressed the importance of good induction procedures (Refugee Council, 2000, pp. 9 – 11) when refugee children join school. There are some indications of how good practice can be developed (Spafford and Bolloten, 1995). In a Department for Education and Skills Best Practice Research project (http://www.dfes.uk) on refugee induction in primary schools, Uribarri and Kapadia described how teachers cooperated to develop and trial guidelines. Refugee pupils found three main processes helpful: individually tailored induction based on personal information, assessment and 'buddy' support; valuing their languages and identities; using targeted strategies to include them in the curriculum. Good practice in induction also requires: interpretation for parents; sharing information about teaching and learning, rights to free school meals, milk, travel and uniform grants; sensitivity and confidentiality; staff preparation; bilingual support; and assessment of educational experience and educational needs.

Language needs

Fluency in English is fundamental and the key to successful integration and progress in the education system. Department for Education and Skills guidance (2002b) suggests that 70 per cent of refugee children come from homes where no English is spoken. The Audit Commission (2000) recognised language needs in education, health and housing services as a major problem. Bilingual assistants and interpreters are required to work with children and their parents. The Refugee Council handbook (2002) recognised the crucial role of the voluntary sector and includes a good practice guide for the use of interpreters. Moreover, there appears to be a need to standardise systems of assessment of language skills in order to enhance a coordinated approach when refugees change schools.

The language needs of refugees in the last two years of compulsory schooling – especially those who have had gaps in their education – are particularly challenging (Mott, 2000). The main forms of EAL provision made by LEAs were: school-based support, such as special classes; referral to

further education (FE) college; collaboration between schools and colleges, and other forms of offsite provision; peer/buddy/mentoring systems; peripatetic support; home tutoring; non-teaching assistants; bilingual learning/support assistants. Some LEAs have produced guidelines for EAL teaching. The Department for Education and Skills (2002b) provides practical advice for mainstream teachers and suggests support for Literacy and Numeracy Hours.

Cultural and home language needs

There is now general recognition that *'refugee pupils need opportunities to maintain their mother tongue and links with their home community, both for emotional support and cognitive growth'* (TTA, 2000, p. 78). Traditionally, however, there has been very little support in mainstream schools for children's home language or bilingual learning. Indeed, bilingual or multilingual skills have not been valued in the educational system or society as a whole. The voluntary sector and the wider refugee and asylum seeking communities themselves can assist with the integration of new arrivals and with cultural and language maintenance, through supplementary schools, advice bureaux and cultural activities (Audit Commission, 2000). But some refugees may be isolated in areas where there is no access to their communities of origin. Rutter (1998) discusses the benefits of bilingual learning and the role of supplementary schools for refugees. Over 50 such schools exist in the London area (Refugee Council, 1998). The Department for Education and Skills (2002b, p. 24) states that about 40 per cent of refugee children attend community schools which offer home language tuition and support the mainstream curriculum. It urges LEAs to develop a policy for supporting such schools, providing access to premises and staff training, and encourages teachers to value bilingualism and to work with refugee parents to encourage the mother tongue language development of their children. However, it offers no specific guidance on how to accomplish this.

Psychological needs

The psychological and social position of refugee pupils can affect their ability to learn, to engage fully in learning activities and to benefit from learning. Furthermore, those who live in cramped housing, shared with other families, may have difficulty in finding a quiet place to do homework, and may not have access to resources, such as computers, which others would use to complete assignments. Some refugee children live in foster care, because of death or separation from their parents. Schools need to consider how the pastoral system and Personal and Social Education

curriculum (Lodge, 1995) and counselling and art therapy (DfES, 2002b, pp. 34ff.) can help to explore and offer support for bereavement and loss.

> *Successful schools work to establish an ethos that has high expectations for refugee pupils. This recognises pupils' past experiences of education, exhibits discretion and understanding in relation to behavioural and emotional difficulties, which may arise because of past trauma, and recognises and addresses the racism which such pupils may face.* (TTA, 2000, p. 78)

Irrespective of where they live, refugees and asylum seekers have experienced racism in the form of verbal abuse or physical attacks which adds to their feelings of distress (Rutter, 2001 and DfES, 2002b). As the main perpetrators appear to be aged 19 or under, there is a continuing need for schools to address race equality and antiracism in their teaching.

Special educational needs

The inability of some previous immigrants to speak English sometimes led to mistaken judgements being made about their having a learning difficulty or special educational needs. Schools need to ensure that similar mistakes are not repeated with refugees and that support by means of withdrawal from mainstream classes is undertaken with sensitivity. Department for Education and Skills (2002b) guidance indicates that withdrawal from mainstream classes for language support may be advisable where refugees have little or no previous experience of schooling, lack home language literacy, are beginning to learn English, need help with GCSE or other coursework, have language difficulties or have behavioural challenges.

Early childhood education

Despite their particular needs, refugee children are disproportionately under-represented in early years educational provision. The age profile of the refugee community is younger than that of the general population. Parents may be working antisocial hours or studying. Children need social contact with other children for play and language development (Siraj-Blatchford, 1994; Rutter and Hyder, 1998; Rutter, 2001, Ch. 14) and play is important as a way of alleviating psychological distress. Department for Education and Skills (2002b) guidance indicates that in early years provision there should be a member of staff with designated responsibility for childcare partnerships, who can help coordinate other agency links; where there is a waiting list, priority must be given to the most socially excluded; ethnic monitoring of uptake should be undertaken; refugee groups should be supported to obtain child care qualifications; and information should be

more readily available in community languages. The Refugee Council and Save the Children (2001) have a training pack for those working with young children.

Policy, provision and good practice

Government policy

The Education Act 1996 (GB. Statutes, 1996) requires LEAs to make provision for refugees and asylum seekers as for other children resident in the UK. Children and young people may spend from three months to three years in schools while their, or their family's, claim is being assessed by the Home Office. During this time they might change schools, as they move from temporary to permanent accommodation. Funding for English language support and training for staff working with refugees and asylum seekers is provided by central and local government agencies and the voluntary sector (see http://www.refugeecouncil.org.uk).

In England, unaccompanied refugee children are recognised as 'children in need' under the provision of the Children Act 1989 (GB. Statutes, 1989) and, after assessment, are entitled to support from local authority Social Service departments. Most refugees under 16 are 'looked after' (Section 20), which entitles them to a named social worker, a care plan and a personal education plan. Unaccompanied 16- and 17-year-olds are also supported, but the quality of their support is varied (Refugee Council, 2000).

Candappa (2000a) indicates gaps between UK policy and local provision in respect of rights to care and education for 5 – 16 year-old refugees. In a Department for Education and Skills Best Practice Research Scholarship, Heap (http://www.dfes.gov.uk) explores effective strategies in secondary schools for working with unaccompanied refugees and asylum seekers. Such students may need additional sensitivity and support, but are more likely to attend schools in challenging circumstances.

Provision for refugees and asylum seekers takes place in the wider context of the Government's educational policies. A national survey of the role of LEAs revealed several tensions (Mott, 2000, pp.1 – 2), which include: the practical implementation of a policy of social inclusion and raising standards in all schools at all key stages; the delegation of a higher proportion of funds to schools, reducing the capacity of LEAs to mobilise resources centrally; dispersal of refugees away from a minority of experienced LEAs (in and

around London) to those with no previous experience and limited capacity; the need for immediate provision but lack of funding support, which relates to the previous year; lack of information about new arrivals and time to put in place policies and practices.

The Government has recently published *Guidance on the Education of Asylum Seekers and Refugees*, which gives an overview of issues and good practice examples in several key areas including early years, English language teaching, induction, home and community links, experience of racism, underachievement and the need for monitoring (DfES, 2002b).

Local education authority provision and procedures

In 2000, there were an estimated 69,000 refugee children in UK schools, about 70 per cent of whom were located in Greater London (Rutter, 2001). An LEA survey (Mott, 2000), to which 58 LEAs responded, revealed country-wide variation in the numbers of refugee children received into LEAs (ranging from 24 LEAs which received 0 – 49 refugees to two LEAs which received over 2,000 refugees). Refugees and asylum seekers tended to be concentrated in certain schools, as a consequence of the interaction of their housing, the availability of places within nearby schools (as these had not been selected by parental preference) and schools' admissions policies. Some of these schools were already facing significant challenges, demonstrated serious weaknesses and were in need of additional resources and support.

The wider dispersal of refugees and asylum seekers poses a number of challenges to local education provision. Mott (2000) found that few LEAs had developed policies on provision for refugees and asylum seekers. However, 'a good proportion' had documents in preparation or under review, or had established working groups to coordinate the efforts of different agencies (such as Health, Housing, Social Services, Legal Services, Public Relations, Police and voluntary sector organisations) (see Cable, 1997). Many LEAs dealt with refugee and asylum seekers in the context of pre-existing policies on admissions, special educational needs, free school meals, uniform grant and travel. However, the Audit Commission (2000, pp. 68 – 74) indicated local disparities and difficulties in policy implementation. LEAs had major concerns about resources to meet the needs of refugees and asylum seekers, despite access to various non-specific funding sources (Mott, 2000), and the proposed targeted grant to meet future needs (Rutter and Stanton, 2001).

In 1999, one large rural county had at least 149 asylum seekers from over 30 different countries in its schools. Its policy sets the tone by reaffirming its *'ongoing tradition of welcoming refugees and asylum seekers'* who are *'contributing to the county's economic and cultural development'*. It acknowledges that whilst *'the pupils present schools with challenges, not least because they arrive at all National Curriculum Key Stages, often mid-term, with little or no English'* they nevertheless *'present many rewards in terms of the linguistic and cultural diversity they bring'*. (Norfolk County Council, 2001, pp.1 – 2).

Gloucestershire's *Policy for the Education of Refugees and Asylum Seekers: Information and Guidance for Schools* (Gloucestershire County Council, 2000) gives a statement of intent, monitoring procedures and strategies for implementation:

- *The Education Welfare Service will liaise with families, schools, the Ethnic Minorities Achievement Service (EMAS) and the Traveller Education Service (TES), as appropriate, and other members of the School Services team to secure admissions.*

- *The LEA will arrange for the presence of interpreters at schools' initial interviews with parents or carers, where necessary.*

- *The LEA will draw to the attention of all schools the application of law and local policy on school admissions to Refugees & Asylum seekers.*

- *An information pack will be issued to all schools in receipt of refugees and asylum seekers and to staff in relevant areas of the Education Department, and appropriate training made available.*

- *INSET will be offered through the Governor Training Programme.*

- *The LEA has established a framework for monitoring incidents of racism and exclusion in schools and will advise and support schools in the monitoring of achievement of minority groups including refugees and asylum seekers. The LEA will monitor these procedures and take action to secure full returns of information.*

- *The LEA will encourage schools to review their curriculum and ensure that it encompasses the relevant intercultural perspectives.*

- *Gloucestershire LEA will make clear information about education services available to refugees and asylum seekers.*

- *The LEA will support effective inter-agency liaison e.g. Education, Social Services, Gloucester City Council, Health Trusts, the Diocese, the police,*

the voluntary sector, including refugee organisations such as Gloucestershire Action for Refugees and Asylum seekers (GARAS), Refugee Action and the Refugee Council. (Gloucestershire County Council, 2000)

A checklist of some aspects of good LEA provision and procedures might include:

- Does the LEA have a policy on the education of refugees and asylum seekers?

- Does this policy have a welcoming tone? Is it set within the wider context of race equality and equal opportunities? Does the LEA have a race equality/cultural diversity policy?

- Is it clear who is the lead person or team responsible for refugees in the LEA?

- Are there procedures for regular and effective liaison within the LEA and between agencies involved with refugees?

- Does the LEA policy set out and make known to relevant agencies and schools the legal rights and entitlements of refugees and asylum seekers, such as in respect of admissions to school?

- Are funding arrangements and sources of support (for example, for English as an Additional Language, Educational Psychologist, Educational Welfare Officer) indicated and procedures clear to schools?

- Is information available in the relevant languages and are interpreters available for refugees?

- Are schools provided with access to the latest advice and information in respect of refugees?

- Is in-service support and training, utilising identified good practice, available to schools?

- Are procedures and practices kept under regular monitoring and review?

- Are there procedures in place for consultation with and involvement of refugees and asylum seekers?

- Are there opportunities to share practices with other LEAs and learn from them?

School practices

Despite the fact that schools are responsible for making most of the day-to-day decisions about the education of refugees and asylum seekers, there has been little research about school practice, how schools interpret policy and good practice guidelines, and to what extent they meet the needs of refugee children.

Some limited research has explored the perspectives of refugees and asylum seekers on their experiences of education. One small peer-research project (Save the Children, 2000), involving interviews by the Horn of Africa Youth Scheme with young refugees in an inner London borough, found that only one-quarter had received any information about the British education system, but nearly all would have appreciated advice on choosing subjects and support in learning English. Most felt unable to ask questions about their school; one-third felt English language support was insufficient or inappropriate and also wanted more help with homework; and one in seven had been bullied. *Extraordinary Childhoods*, a study of 35 11 – 14 year-olds from Bosnia, Somalia, Sri Lanka and Turkey, and non-refugees, found that the quality of the school experience is a key factor in adjustment (ESRC, 2000). Acquiring English is crucial for education and social interaction, and refugee children may have more day-to-day responsibilities and fewer friends than their peers (Candappa, 2000b).

Research by the Ethnic Minorities Achievement Service in Harrow, *Listening to Somali Pupils and Parents*, also found that they needed more help in class and with homework. School staff and other pupils needed to develop their understanding of the challenges facing refugee pupils and their communities living at subsistence level (Harrow Education Authority, 2001). The Department for Education and Skills (2002b) states that the schools which are most successful in meeting the needs of refugees foster a high level of parent participation, which may be encouraged through language classes, parent meeting rooms and better opportunities for communication.

A checklist of some aspects of good school provision and practices might include:

- Is there a special coordinator to deal with refugees and asylum seekers?

- Does the school have a set of procedures for preparing staff, students and governors for the arrival of refugees and asylum seekers?

- Is there a recognised induction program for refugees and asylum seekers?

- How are interpretation and translation needs to be met?

- What system exists for evaluating the psychological and physical needs of refugees and asylum seekers?

- How are their English and other learning needs assessed?

- How are EAL needs to be met? Is there support in addition to formal provision?

- What are the training needs of teaching and support staff and how can they be met?

- Are there ways in which the home languages of refugees can be supported in school or through supplementary schools?

- What home – school support can be offered?

- Are appropriate teaching and curriculum materials, which reflect ethnic minority groups and counter racism, available?

- Are there befriending schemes for supporting new arrivals and procedures for monitoring integration?

Supporting good practice in the education of all

Educational structures, procedures and practices may, explicitly or implicitly, support or hinder the quality and experience of education and the achievements of refugees and ethnic minority pupils in the context of providing an education for all. The Government's policy is to promote social inclusion, equality of opportunity and race equality. As a background to specific measures to enable and promote the education of refugees, some supportive features of the education system currently in place and under development are outlined here. These include: promoting race equality and cultural diversity through inspection, citizenship education and teacher training. Some additional resources are briefly listed.

Race equality and cultural diversity
One of the most important contributions to the welfare and achievements of refugees in school is likely to be a positive approach to race equality and cultural diversity. This may take many explicit and implicit forms, in policies and practices, structures and processes, curriculum, inspection, relationships and school ethos. The Race Relations Amendment Act (GB. Statutes, 2000), implemented in May 2002, requires all public authorities, including LEAs and schools, to have a race equality policy. The aim is to

eliminate unlawful racial discrimination, to promote equality of opportunity and good relations between people of different racial groups, by placing race equality at the centre of policymaking, service delivery, regulation, enforcement and employment practice.

The Commission for Racial Equality, as a Government agency, offers guidance, including a framework for schools to develop their own race equality policies (Commission for Racial Equality, 2002; see also http://www.cre.gov.uk). This sets out the broad context, and offers checklists of questions for schools to review their leadership and management, assessment and monitoring, policy review and implementation, training and publication of race equality analyses.

Your race equality policy should be based on your values and aims. It should include a statement that your aim is to eliminate unlawful racial discrimination, and to promote equal opportunities and good race relations in all areas of school life. These could include:

- *progress, attainment, and assessment*

- *behaviour, discipline, and exclusion*

- *pupils' personal development and pastoral care*

- *teaching and learning*

- *admission and attendance*

- *the curriculum*

- *staff recruitment and professional development, and*

- *partnerships with parents and guardians, and communities.*

The statement is important because it links your race equality policy to other school activities. You should also consider including race equality statements in other relevant policies. (CRE, 2002, p. 4.)

Department for Education and Skills guidance (2002b, pp. 27 – 8) reminds schools of their obligation to record all racist incidents, to inform parents, carers, governors and LEAs of the actions taken to deal with them. Schools need to challenge racism by:

- *evaluating previous antiracist work* – what initiatives have been implemented before and did they work?

- *considering their ethos and atmosphere* – does the school promote an atmosphere of respect and trust for all?

- *reviewing how the school works with other agencies* in society that should be involved in challenging racism (parents, the police, youth clubs, etc.)

- *operating effective monitoring and sanctions* – monitoring should be consistent; all school staff need guidance on what constitutes racial harassment; sanctions against perpetrators of racial harassment are needed and should be seen by all to be fair; victims of racial harassment need support.

Schools should also examine strategies to give long-term support for victims including the use of peer support schemes and mentors (see also CRE, 2000).

Although the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) has not issued specific guidance on race equality or cultural diversity in schools, it is implicit in several guidance documents. For example, guidance on Personal, Social and Health Education for secondary schools has among its objectives 'developing good relationships and respecting the differences between people' (QCA, 2000a, p. 3) and encouraging students to play 'an active role as members of a democratic society' (ibid, p. 4). These are echoed in the preparatory role of the primary PSHE and citizenship curriculum (QCA, 2000b).

Drama can offer a powerful learning experience to address racial, cultural, moral and social concerns. Day (2002) evaluated the role of the interactive Forum theatre workshop in three London secondary schools in developing an appreciation and understanding of homeless people and refugees. Students felt that the workshop enabled them to reflect on moral dilemmas they faced everyday as they encountered refugees at school and to 'put themselves in other people's shoes'. But the effectiveness of the experience was limited by the lack of follow-up discussion in Personal, Social and Health Education, pastoral work or guidance on the issues raised.

Inspection

School inspection is one of the key tools of curriculum reform, not least in respect of race equality and equality of opportunity. The Race Relations Amendment Act (GB. Statutes, 2000) requires the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) to inspect ways in which schools implement policies on race equality and cultural diversity. The criteria are set out in *Evaluating*

Educational Inclusion: Guidance for Inspectors and Schools (OFSTED, 2000; http://www.ofsted.gov.uk). OFSTED's Race Equality Scheme (OFSTED, 2002a) describes how, in addition to monitoring the ethnicity of its workforce and providing staff training in diversity awareness, it will carry out its role with respect to race equality in inspection of LEAs, schools, colleges, teacher training institutions, and registration of child care providers.

The *Framework for the Inspection of Schools* (OFSTED, 1999b) also requires inspectors to evaluate and report on pupils' attitudes, values and personal development, including, for example, the extent to which pupils: *'form constructive relationships with one another, and with teachers and other adults … respect other people's differences, particularly their feelings, values and beliefs'* (ibid, p. 37). Under the heading, How Good are the Curricular and Other Opportunities Offered to Pupils or Students?, inspectors must consider, for example, the extent to which the school *'teaches pupils to appreciate their own cultural traditions and the diversity and richness of other cultures'* (ibid, p. 39). Ongoing reform of the inspection system encourages school self-evaluation and a strong emphasis on educational, social and racial inclusion. The proposed new Inspection Framework for 2003 (see: http://www.ofsted.gov.uk) strengthens guidance on inspection and reporting on race equality and procedures for ensuring equality of access and opportunity for all pupils, within the principle of inclusion in planning and teaching in schools.

Citizenship in the National Curriculum

The National Curriculum offers opportunities which may be used imaginatively to deal with migration, human rights, diversity and conflict (see Refugee Council, 2000), perhaps especially in citizenship education. The Government clearly sees citizenship education as a key plank in delivering equal opportunities, valuing diversity and promoting racial harmony. The Department for Education and Skills (2002c) website indicates that it has addressed the recommendation of the Macpherson Report that *'consideration be given to the amendment of the National Curriculum aimed at valuing cultural diversity and preventing racism, in order better to reflect the needs of a diverse society'*, by explicitly introducing citizenship education in the school curriculum 5 – 16. In primary schools, citizenship has been part of a non-statutory framework for Personal, Social and Health Education (PSHE) since August 2000. In the secondary phase, citizenship is a new foundation subject which schools must teach from September 2002 (QCA, 2000c). The Department for Education and Skills is also sponsoring pilot projects for post-16 citizenship.

There is scope within citizenship – with its three main strands of personal and social responsibility, community involvement and political literacy – to address issues of race equality and cultural diversity, migration and refugees, although some critics initially doubted this (e.g. Osler, 2000). For example, in the key stage 3 scheme of work for discrete citizenship provision, Unit 3 deals with Human Rights and Unit 4 with Britain – a diverse society? (QCA, 2001). At key stage 4, Unit 3 is entitled Challenging Racism and Discrimination (QCA, 2002).

There is certainly much need for such teaching and learning. Evidence from the 28-country International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study revealed that, in comparison with other young people, English 14-year-olds were less likely to report participation in voluntary activities to help the community and had relatively less positive attitudes to immigrants (Kerr *et al.,* 2001). Such findings should be used to indicate directions for teaching. Students need to be enabled to make coherent connections between involvement in the life of schools, colleges and their local communities, and implications for national and world communities. Rutter (2001), for example, has suggested that in citizenship education, schools might engage students in work that examines the commonality of experiences of refugee and non-refugee pupils.

Recently published guidelines for the inspection of citizenship (OFSTED, 2002b) indicate what will count as evidence that schools successfully promote race equality. For example, in the section 'Are pupils learning about becoming informed citizens?', inspectors are to consider *'Do they know and understand about: the diversity of identities in the United Kingdom, and the need for mutual respect and understanding?'* (ibid., p. 21); and, under the heading 'Are pupils developing skills of enquiry and communication?', inspectors must evaluate whether pupils exercise skills in *'challenging stereotypes, injustice, prejudice and discrimination'* (ibid.).

Teacher training

Every teacher is responsible for paying attention to race equality and cultural diversity. Guidance for initial teacher training, *Raising the Attainment of Minority Ethnic Pupils* (TTA, 2000), notes the role of every teacher trainee in promoting the full potential of pupils and *'preparing all pupils to play a full part in a culturally diverse, democratic society which values everybody and accords them equal rights'* (ibid., p. 7). Teacher trainees are required to understand issues in differential ethnic

performance and to be aware of, and employ successful strategies to raise, attainment. The guidance includes advice in respect of refugee children (ibid., pp. 77 – 83). In practice, whether or not the teacher training placement is in a multiethnic school or not will make for considerable variation in opportunities to address race equality and cultural diversity.

Citizenship education is also a challenging curriculum area for teachers, especially in multiethnic classrooms where heightened awareness of controversial issues and personal sensitivities for students is required. Much more attention is needed to support initial training and continuous professional development in citizenship education. For instance, teacher respondents in the IEA survey (Kerr *et al.*, 2001) felt less confident about dealing with international relations and economic and social welfare issues. They ranked training on subject matter for citizenship and better materials as top priorities for training. Other preliminary work with teachers has indicated their need for help with, *inter alia,* working with their communities, facilitating pupil participation, and developing attitudes, values and dispositions underlying citizenship.

Ongoing challenges and debates

There are many complex and ongoing challenges in the education of refugee and asylum seekers in the context of the education of all in a pluralistic society. Some key questions and issues are outlined below.

Social challenges
- What kind of society do we wish to live in? How can open and constructive debate be promoted?
- How is 'integration with diversity', the principle behind the Government's policy, to be achieved?
- How are all young people and adults in a society to be educated to actively respect its core beliefs and values and to become more active citizens?
- How can wider awareness of and respect for race equality and cultural diversity, including religious diversity, be generated and practised in institutional structures and by individuals?

Challenges for education
- Ensuring that recently issued national good practice guidelines are adopted by LEAs and schools

- Developing a flexible funding system to be able to respond to local needs for refugees at the time of arrival in LEAs and schools

- Recognising that refugee children's needs will take a specific form for each individual within a common framework

- Greater inclusion of refugee children in early years education

- Better provision of bilingual staff

- Improved interpretation and translation facilities

- Appropriate EAL classes for adults

- Meaningful school – home partnerships and outreach work with communities

- Monitoring of experience and achievement, review and strategic revision

- Continuity and coherence of provision over time.

Future research

As a result of this review, several major areas for future research can be identified:

- There does not appear to have been any national evaluation of LEA and schools' responses to the education of refugees and asylum seekers, which combines quantitative and qualitative data and helps to identify good practice.

- Little appears to be known from the perspective of refugees in schools and colleges about their response to their experiences. Such a study could offer some useful pointers to improving practice.

- Since educational institutions are now required to have a race equality policy, research is needed into how schools are developing, implementing and monitoring their policies and practices and how the performance and experiences of ethnic minority pupils and groups may be affected. Good practice examples are needed.

- The interaction of race and culture, especially religion, in relation to education needs more attention. In particular there is a need for more evidence-based research on faith-based schools to inform policy decisions.

Concluding comments

To any educationist acquainted with the policy and research of the 1960s and 70s on the immigration, settlement and education of children and young people from ethnic minority backgrounds, much of the currently available information and research on the education of refugee and asylum seekers has a depressingly familiar ring. Many of the issues reviewed in this paper were well known to the Government inquiries which, 20 years ago, made recommendations for improved procedures, practices and ethnic monitoring. Thus it is somewhat dismaying to find the reinvention of policies and practices, often apparently *ab initio*, and without necessarily avoiding the weaknesses, or building on the strengths, of previous structures and strategies. There are, however, some critical contextual differences compared with the previous era. Change is due in part to racist events involving schools and young people which shake and reshape a society by calling for urgent reform. With the passage of time, ethnic minorities have become more integrated into society, in some places and institutions.

As a consequence of the previous experiences of immigration and settlement, stronger race relations legislation now exists. This not only outlaws racial discrimination and injustice, but also requires public institutions to promote race equality and equal opportunity. It thus provides a framework against which access, experience and outcomes for ethnic minorities and refugees can be evaluated. Gillborn and Mirza (2000) argued that too few LEAs take race seriously, as around one in three did not monitor examination results for differences between ethnic groups. However, at present, there is still no provision for monitoring on the basis of religion, thus excluding the availability of information on the experience of Muslims who are likely to experience discrimination on grounds of race, religion and culture (Amin and Richardson, 2001; Commission on British Muslims and Islamophobia, 2001b and c).

The far-reaching programme of educational reform has, together with parental pressure, targeted funding, performance targets, evaluation, and inspection, made schools more accountable for learning outcomes and, increasingly, for the quality of education they provide. On the other hand, as schools have become increasingly self-managed they have also needed to respond to local diversity. Given the major variations in ethnic composition between schools, largely associated with locality, the approach that schools have taken to race equality and cultural diversity has often related to the proportion of ethnic minority pupils in the school. The requirement that all

schools have a race equality policy and procedures and the renewed emphasis in OFSTED inspections should, in principle, offer a framework against which provision and practices for the education of ethnic minority pupils, including refugees, and for the broader education of all, can be reappraised. Continuity and evaluation of provision and practices are important.

There is also a clear need to foster 'joined up' thinking, communication and action between essential services, and between education, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers, organisations acting on their behalf, and community groups. More attention should be given to building local interpretation and translation resources, initially drawing on volunteers – sometimes refugees themselves – and then developing more formal systems and structures for bilingual support, with appropriate training and reimbursement. Schools also need to develop partnerships for learning with parents, especially to demonstrate that they value and draw upon the cultural resources and understandings of refugees, as well as to inform parents about the education system and teaching and learning practices. These are forms of self-help, ethnic community support and contributions to a culturally diverse society.

Whilst this overview demonstrates that there are national policies and procedures relating to the education of refugees and asylum seekers in England, and there are systems and structures of support, provision and practice are locally variable and context dependent. Policies have to be interpreted, enabled and evaluated. There is an urgent need to establish common standards across England and the UK. Despite the increase in post-World War II immigration, the presence of considerable numbers of refugees and asylum seekers in English schools for more than 20 years, and an emerging, if uncoordinated, literature on refugees during the last decade, there appears to have been no national governmental lead on their education until very recently.

Research evidence suggests that the education of refugees and asylum seekers requires sensitivity and differentiation, with particular attention to race equality and cultural diversity in the context of the education of all. There is a need both to make provision for the education of refugees and asylum seekers, and also to educate the general population about refugees and asylum seekers as part of an antiracist multicultural education. Indeed, in order to conform to legislation, the number of policies and guidance documents on race equality published by Government departments and agencies in late May 2002 was striking. Whilst some schools, especially

those in 'the white highlands', will be addressing such matters virtually from scratch, other educational institutions already have policies and good practices in place, and will need to review and monitor their procedures for greater coherence and consistency. Quality education, which recognises the common humanity and differentiated needs of all, and which offers appropriate and enjoyable learning experiences and outcomes for individual learners and teachers, developmental opportunities for educational institutions and social, cultural and economic benefits, has much to contribute to the further realisation of a multiethnic society.

References

Amin, K. and Richardson, R. (2001). *Addressing the Challenge of Islamophobia. Progress Report, 1999 – 2001.* London: Commission on British Muslims and Islamophobia.

Audit Commission (2000). *Another Country. Implementing Dispersal under the Immigration and Asylum Act 1999.* London: Audit Commission.

BBC News (2002). *Blunkett Stands by "Swamping" Remark* [online]. Available: http://www.news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/uk_politics/1949863.stm [16 August, 2002].

Blair, M. and Bourne, J. with Coffin, C., Creese, A. and Kenner, C. (1998). *Making the Difference: Teaching and Learning Strategies in Successful Multiethnic Schools.* DfEE Research Report RR59. Suffolk: DfEE.

Cable, C (1997). 'Supporting refugee children -- working across departments', *Multicultural Teaching*, **16**, 1, 31 – 32, 34.

Candappa, M. (2000a). 'The right to education and an adequate standard of living: refugee children in the UK', *The International Journal of Children's Rights,* 8, 261 – 270.

Candappa, M. (2000b). 'Building a new life: the role of the school in supporting refugee children', *Multicultural Teaching,* **19**, 1, 28 – 32.

Closs, A., Stead, J. and Arshad, R. (2001). 'The education of asylum-seeker and refugee children', *Multicultural Teaching,* **20**, 1, 29 – 33.

Commion for Racial Equality (2000). *Learning for All: Standards for Racial Equality in Schools.* London: CRE.

Commion for Racial Equality (2002). *Framework for a Race Equality Policy for Schools.* London: CRE.

Commission on British Muslims and Islamophobia (2001a). *Addressing the Challenge of Islamophobia. Progress Report, 1999 – 2001*. London: CBMI.

Commission on British Muslims and Islamophobia (2001b). *Addressing Prejudice and Islamophobia. Resources, References and Guidance on the Internet.* London: CBMI.

Commission on British Muslims and Islamophobia (2001c). *Ethnic and Religious Monitoring in the Education System: Some Current Issues.* London: CBMI.

Commission on the Future of Multi-Ethnic Britain (2000). *The Future of Multi-Ethnic Britain.* (The Parekh Report). London: Profile Books for The Runnymede Trust.

Day, L. (2002). 'Putting Yourself in Other People's Shoes": the use of Forum theatre to explore refugee and homeless issues in schools', *Journal of Moral Education*, **31**, 1, 21 – 34.

Department for Education and Skills (2002a). *Ethnic Minority Pupils.* (Teachernet Management) [online]. Available: http://www.dfes.gov.uk/a-z/ethnic_minority_pupils [7 June, 2002].

Department for Education and Skills (2002b). *Guidance on the Education of Asylum Seeking and Refugee Children* [online]. Available: http://www.teachernet.gov.uk/mailingBank/EducatAsylumSeeking.pdf [10 June, 2002].

Department for Education and Skills (2002c). *Multi Cultural Education* (Teachernet Management) [online]. Available: http://www.dfes.gov.uk/a-z/MULTI-CULTURAL-EDUCATION.html [16 August, 2002].

Economic and Social Research Council (2000). *Extraordinary Childhoods: the social lives of refugee children.* Children 5 – 16 Research Briefing 5. Swindon: ESRC.

Gillborn, D. and Gipps, C. (1996). *Recent Research on the Achievement of Ethnic Minority Pupils.* London: OFSTED.

Gillborn, D. and Mirza, H. S. (2000). *Educational Inequality: Mapping Race, Class and Gender – a Synthesis of Research Evidence.* London: OFSTED.

Gloucestershire County Council (2000). A Policy for the Education of Refugees & Asylum Seekers: Information & Guidance for Schools. Gloucester: Gloucestershire County Council.

Glover, J., Gott, C., Loizillon, A., Portes, J., Price, R., Spencer, S., Srinivasan, V. and Willis, C. (2001). *Migration: an Economic and Social Analysis.* London: Home Office.

Great Britain. Parliament. House of Commons (1997). *Excellence in Schools* (Cm. 3681). London: The Stationery Office.

Great Britain. Parliament. House of Commons (1999). *The Stephen Lawrence Inquiry. Report of an Inquiry by Sir William MacPherson of Cluny* (Cm. 4262-1). London: The Stationery Office.

Great Britain. Statutes (1988). *Education Reform Act 1988. Chapter 40.* London: The Stationery Office.

Great Britain. Statutes (1989). *Children Act 1989. Chapter 41*. London: The Stationery Office.

Great Britain. Statutes (1996). *Education Act. 1996.* London: The Stationery Office.

Great Britain. Statutes (1999). *Immigration and Asylum Act 1999.* London: The Stationery Office.

Great Britain. Statutes (2000). *Race Relations (Amendment Act). Chapter 34*. London: The Stationery Office.

Harrow Education Authority (2001). *Listening to Somali Pupils and Parents: a Research Project.* Harrow: Harrow Education Authority.

Her Majesty the Queen (2002). *Speech Given by the Queen at Westminster Hall on Tuesday 30 April 2002* [online]. Available: http://www.royal.gov.uk/output/page1126.asp [16 August, 2002].

Kerr, D., Lines, A., Blenkinsop, S. And Schagen, I. (2001). Citizenship and Education at Age 14. A Summary of the International Findings and Preliminary Results for England. Briefing Paper. Slough: NFER.

Lodge, C. (1995). 'Working with refugees in school', *Pastoral Care,* **13**, 2, 11 – 13.

Marland, M. (1998). 'Refugee pupils. A headteacher's perspective', *Multicultural Teaching*. **17**, 1, 17 – 22.

Mott, G. (2000). *Refugees and Asylum Seekers: the Role of LEAs.* EMIE Report 59. November. Slough: NFER.

Norfolk County Council (2001). A Policy for the Education of Refugees and Asylum Seekers. Norwich: Norfolk County Council.

Office for Standards in Education (1999a). *Raising the Attainment of Ethnic Minority Pupils: School and LEA Responses.* London: OFSTED.

Office for Standards in Education (1999b). *Inspecting Schools. The Framework.* London: OFSTED.

Office for Standards in Education (2000). *Evaluating Inclusion; Guidance for Inspectors and Schools*. London: OFSTED.

Office for Standards in Education (2002a). *OFSTED's Race Equality Scheme. Corporate Document from the Office of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools* (HMI 696) [online]. Available: http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/public/docs02/raceequality.pdf [7 June, 2002].

Office for Standards in Education (2002b). *Inspecting Citizenship. Guidance Document from the Office of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Schools* (HMI XXX) [online]. Available: http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/public/docs02/citizenconsult/pdf [7 June, 2002].

Osler, A. (2000). 'The Crick Report: difference, equality and racial justice', *The Curriculum Journal*, **11**, 1, 25 – 37.

Parekh, B. (2001). *Integrating Minorities.* London: Institute of Contemporary Arts.

Payne, J. (2001). *Post-16 Students and Part-time Jobs: Patterns and Effects. A Report Based on the England and Wales Youth Cohort Study* (DfES Research Report 323)*.* London: DfES.

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2000a). *Personal, Social and Health Education at Key Stages 3 and 4: Initial Guidance for Schools.* London: QCA.

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2000b). *Personal, Social and Health Education and Citizenship at Key Stages 1 and 2: Initial Guidance for Schools.* London: QCA.

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2000c). *Citizenship at Key Stages 3 and 4: Initial Guidance for Schools.* London: QCA.

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2001). *Citizenship. A Scheme of Work for Key Stage 3.* London: QCA/DfES.

Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (2002). *Citizenship. A Scheme of Work for Key Stage 4.* London: QCA/DfES.

Rampton Report. (1981). *West Indian Children in Our Schools. Interim Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Education of Children from Ethnic Minority Groups.* London: HMSO.

Refugee Council (1998) *Refugee Community Schools Directory*. London: Refugee Council.

Refugee Council (2000). *Helping Refugee Children in Schools*. London: Refugee Council.

Refugee Council (2002). *The Refugee Council Information Service: a Survival Kit for Anyone Working with Refugees or Asylum Seekers*. London: Refugee Council.

Refugee Council and Save the Children (2001). *In Safe Hands: a Video Training Pack for Those Working with Young Refugee Children.* London: Refugee Council and Save the Children.

Rutter, J. (1998). 'Refugee supplementary schools', *Language Issues,* **10**, 1, 7 – 11.

Rutter, J. (2001). *Supporting Refugee Children in 21st Century Britain: a Compendium of Essential Information.* Stoke on Trent: Trentham Books.

Rutter, J. and Hyder, T. (1998). *Refugee Children in the Early Years: Issues for Policy Makers and Providers.* London: Refugee Council and Save the Children*.*

Rutter, J. and Stanton, R. (2001). 'Refugee children's education and the education finance system', *Multicultural Teaching,* **19**, 3, 33 – 39.

Save the Children (2000). *Let's Spell it Out: Peer Research by the Horn of Africa Youth Scheme*. London: Save the Children.

Siraj-Blatchford, I. (1994). *The Early Years: Laying the Foundations for Racial Equality.* Stoke on Trent: Trentham Books.

Spafford, T and Bolloten, B. (1995). 'The admission and induction of refugee children into school', *Multicultural Teaching,* **14**, 1, 7 – 10.

Swann Report. (1985). *Education for All. The Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Education of Children from Ethnic Minority Groups (Swann Report).* London: HMSO.

Taylor, M. J. (1981)*. Caught Between. A Review of Research into the Education of Pupils of West Indian Origin*. Windsor: NFER-NELSON.

Taylor, M. J. with Hegarty, S. (1985). *The Best of Both Worlds...? A Review of Research into the Education of Pupils of Asian Origin*. Windsor: NFER-NELSON.

Taylor, M. J. (1987). *Chinese Pupils in Britain. A Review of Research Into the Education of Pupils of Chinese Origin*. Windsor: NFER-NELSON.

Taylor, M. J. (1988). *Worlds Apart? A Review of Research into the Education of Pupils of Cypriot, Italian, Ukrainian and Vietnamese Origins, Liverpool Blacks and Gypsies*. Windsor: NFER-NELSON.

Taylor, M. J. (1992). *Equality After ERA? Concerns and Challenges for Multicultural Antiracist Education*. Slough: NFER.

Teacher Training Agency (2000). *Raising the Attainment of Minority Ethnic Pupils; Guidance and Resource Materials for Initial Teacher Trainers.* London: TTA.

Additional resources

Centre for Citizenship Studies in Education http://www.citizenship-global.org.uk

The Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations at the University of Warwick: http://www.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/CRER_RC/resources.html

Citizenship Foundation http://www.citfou.org.uk

The Commission for Racial Equality http://www.cre.gov.uk

Multicultural Teaching and the Uniting Britain Trust: http://www.runnymedetrust.org 'Materials for Schools'.

The Education Management Information Exchange: http://www.nfer.ac.uk/emie database of publicly available LEA policy and research on refugees and asylum seekers.

The Refugee Council: http://www.refugeecouncil.org.uk

Refugeenet: http://www.refugeenet.org

Teachers of English as an Additional Language http://forum.ngfl.gov.uk/eal-bilingual/

Migrant Pupils at Schools in North Rhine-Westphalia[15]

Jagoda Illner and Ulrich Pfaff

Introduction

Immigration is a federal responsibility in Germany, whereas integration policy is at least partly under the responsibility of the State (Länder). Education especially, including education of immigrants, is a State domain. Gogolin and Reich, 2001, p. 193)
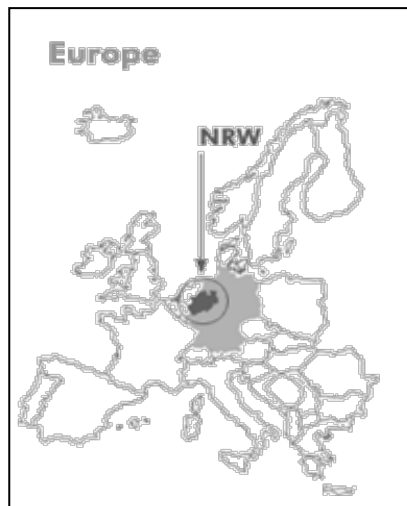
The annual official school statistics issued by the Ministry for Education, Science and Research include a section on 'Foreign Pupils and Teachers'. The figures in this survey comprise all pupils and teachers of foreign nationality. The section includes 11 tables on countries of origin, the distribution of pupils across types of school, administrative districts and so on. Only one table also includes data on immigrant Germans from Eastern

---

[15] North Rhine-Westphalia is Germany's largest *Land*, or State. Area: 34,080 sq. km and population 18 million inhabitants. Capital: Düsseldorf. Main cities in the Rhine Region are Düsseldorf, Cologne and Bonn and in the Ruhr area are Essen, Dortmund, Duisburg and Oberhausen.

Europe in the schools because, as German nationals, they do not belong in statistics on foreigners.

The categorisation of pupils into 'Germans' and 'Non-Germans' ensues from the terminology used in a regulation on 'Teaching Foreign Pupils' issued in 1982 by the Ministry for Education, Science and Research, in which the target group is defined according to its foreign nationality. The perspective used here is clearly a legal one. Today, such a perspective is no longer appropriate, and will increasingly lose its significance in the wake of the reform of the nationality law. The nationality of a pupil alone says nothing about whether he/she is a temporary or permanent resident of Germany, which mother tongue he or she speaks, whether he or she is growing up bilingually, and which type of school provision is appropriate or necessary for him or her. An all-round theory or guideline on the education of foreign children is questionable for the same reason. A good school will seize the different origins of its pupils as an opportunity and focus especially on intercultural education in its educational programme.

Terminology changes as this realisation grows. In education, politics and administration today, the term generally used to describe the group in question is *migrants*. It encompasses pupils of non-German origin or of immigrant German families from Eastern Europe, irrespective of their nationality. Admittedly, this new term has not yet been generally accepted, and migrant children are frequently grouped together with the children of travelling workers, such as travelling showpeople and bargemen's families.

The technical term 'foreign pupils' is still used for statistical purposes and for calculating requirements for extra lessons for so-called integration support and mother tongue teaching, as there are still no better or generally acknowledged criteria for categorising pupils of migrant families, and many questions still remain unanswered. For instance, for how many generations should the foreign descent be statistically recorded? Is a child born in Germany of binational parentage a migrant?

In the school year 2000/2001, there were approximately 362,000 pupils of foreign nationality and approximately 143,000 pupils from immigrant German families from Eastern Europe in North Rhine-Westphalia. These figures constitute 12.5 per cent and 5.0 per cent of all pupils respectively. These percentages increase considerably if one includes children of binational parentage and those pupils who only acquire German nationality after birth. The proportion of pupils from migrant families will increase in the next few years. Only a generation ago (1970), there were only 1.8 per

cent of pupils of foreign nationality, and the number of immigrant German families from Eastern Europe was negligible in comparison with today.

The largest group of pupils of foreign nationality is Turkish (c. 180,000), followed by Yugoslavians (c. 24,000), Italians (c. 22,500), Moroccans (c. 11,500) and Greeks (c. 13,000). As a whole, foreign pupils are significantly over-represented in general secondary schools (*Hauptschule, Realschule, Gymnasium, Gesamtschule*) and in special schools for pupils with learning difficulties. In a comparison of pupils according to country of origin, however, there are substantial variations in some cases.

School leaving statistics over the last 15 years show that the school achievements of pupils of foreign nationality have improved considerably. The percentage of (foreign) pupils leaving a general secondary school (*Hauptschule, Realschule, Gymnasium, Gesamtschule*) with a qualification has increased from 65.2 per cent in 1983 to 87.7 per cent in 1999. Over the same period, the percentage of (foreign) students taking the qualifying examination for university entrance (*Abitur*) has more than tripled. The drop in general secondary education (*Hauptschule, Realschule, Gymnasium, Gesamtschule*) awards can be explained as a consequence of the increase in other leaving qualifications. Pupils of foreign nationality have caught up considerably with pupils of German nationality.

It should not be overlooked, however, that a large number of pupils from migrant families still have difficulties coping in regular lessons. Many non-native school beginners lack the knowledge of German required for participating in lessons, although most of them were born in Germany. While they have basic interactional communicative skills (BICS) in both languages, they still have large deficits in cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP), that is, in German. Those pupils whose families frequently moved back and forth between Germany and their country of origin during their childhood and youth (*Pendelmigration*), and children and young people for whom regular attendance at a school was not possible for long periods, also have less favourable chances of success.

Compulsory School Attendance for Foreign Pupils

State schools in the *Land* (State) of North Rhine-Westphalia are open to all children and young people living within the *Land*. Paragraph 8 of the Constitution of North Rhine-Westphalia lays down that every child has a right to education. Education is compulsory for all children and young people who live, habitually reside in, or have their place of apprenticeship or work in North Rhine-Westphalia. Foreign children and young people are also subject to compulsory education if

- they have a valid residence permit

- they no longer require a residence permit

- they are allowed to stay in North Rhine-Westphalia on a long-term basis in accordance with German asylum legislation

- their family has the right of asylum

- their parents are lawful refugees.

Children for whom school is not compulsory, and who are not residing temporarily in North Rhine-Westphalia, have the right to attend school under Paragraph 8 of the Constitution of the *Land* and the Convention of the United Nations on the Rights of the Child. If they take advantage of that right, however, they are obliged to attend lessons regularly.

Lessons provided

For children and young persons who lack the necessary language requirements for attending lessons in German, the acquisition of German as a second language has priority over every other teaching objective.

This objective is best achieved through mixing pupils of German and non-German origin in mainstream classes and the provision of special remedial teaching where required.

Pupils whose knowledge of German is not sufficient for participation in mainstream classes are given preparatory lessons, the aim being that pupils achieve the transition to mainstream classes within a maximum of two years.

Migrant pupils with insufficient knowledge of German can only successfully be integrated into mainstream classes if the school offers special support, such as, for example:

- remedial lessons in German

- short-term extra lessons with special support in German as a second language

- remedial help in foreign language learning.

In order to offer such integration support, budgetary provisions are made for around 3,750 teaching posts to provide for all foreign and immigrant German pupils. These posts may, however, only be used for special classes set up for pupils from migrant families without the required standard of German. They may not be used for a school's so-called basic requirements or for pupils who no longer need special integration support.

Remedial help for migrant pupils outside of mainstream classes is provided through supervised homework groups. These admit pupils whose school education has been disrupted, as well as migrants from mainstream classes who need additional remedial help for their integration. Supervised homework groups in the primary schools are intended to give pupils a solid foundation in the German language and mathematics, and in secondary schools, they also provide help for English. They are provided for three to six lessons (of 45 minutes) per week over a period of 12 – 16 weeks.

Guidance

Before new arrivals are admitted to a German school, parents and the school authorities are often faced with the difficult questions of which class and which type of school are best for the child's educational development. Each individual case must be assessed after careful consultation. Until completion of Secondary Level 1 (age 15/16), the principle of placing new arrivals in classes with children of the same age is applied as far as possible, without formal recognition of qualifications. Pupils will be placed in the same class as they last attended in their country of origin, as far as their knowledge of German allows.

In 27 towns and districts, there are central advisory agencies for addressing such issues; these are called *Regionale Arbeitsstellen für die Förderung von Kindern und Jugendlichen aus Zuwandererfamilien* (*RAA* - Regional Bureaux for the Support of Children and Young People from Immigrant Families).

These are communal agencies, funded by North Rhine-Westphalia. Their extensive catalogue of assignments covers both educational and non-educational institutions.

Religious education

Today, as a result of migration, there are numerous followers of non-Christian religions in Germany. The largest of these groups are Muslims. Around 240,000 Muslim pupils are taught at schools in North Rhine-Westphalia, that is around nine per cent of all pupils. At least three quarters of these are of Turkish nationality or origin. Other countries of origin include Morocco, Tunisia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Iran and the Lebanon.

In North Rhine-Westphalian schools, Muslims are offered Islamic instruction, that is, state religious instruction, in which they are primarily taught religious knowledge and understanding. Preaching of the faith is not included.

Islamic instruction is an integral part of mother tongue teaching in Turkish, Arabic and Bosnian. Themes dealt with are lesson topics issued by the North Rhine-Westphalian State Institute for Schools. Lessons are taught by Muslim teachers of the mother tongue who have completed in-service teacher training courses.

In 1999/2000, the Ministry for Education, Science and Research introduced the subject of 'Islamic instruction' as a subject in its own right, as part of a pilot project. Schools may apply to participate in the trial, and lessons are in German.

Pupils are able to maintain their religious identity, not only through participation in Islamic instruction, but also through conduct according to the laws of their religion within and outside school. This can, of course, lead to a conflict of interests in school, as witnessed in the issue over whether girls should be allowed to wear headscarves or participate in coeducational sports lessons.

Generally, however, it can be said that schools in North Rhine-Westphalia manage to find an even balance, including making allowances for dietary laws at school fêtes and on school outings, and giving children leave on religious holidays.

For Christian Orthodox pupils, the Minister of Culture and Church Affairs introduced Greek Orthodox religious instruction in 1985 and Syrian Orthodox instruction in 2000 as regular subjects. In these lessons, the same legal requirements apply as for Protestant and Catholic religious instruction. Lessons may be combined with mother tongue teaching.

Mother tongue teaching

A substantial number of pupils from migrant families grow up in two or more different languages. This linguistic and cultural variety is not a passing phenomenon, but has become a permanent feature of modern European societies. Europe itself is multilingual, and the topmost politicians of member states of the European Union (EU) and the European Council have repeatedly professed their support for the development and maintenance of linguistic and cultural pluralism. The EU guidelines on the school welfare of children from migrant worker families require member states to promote mother tongue teaching.

Over the last decade, North Rhine-Westphalia has pursued two objectives in teaching bilingual and multilingual pupils. The first is for schools to give pupils, whose first language or mother tongue is not German, the chance – especially through lessons in German as a second language – to integrate into mainstream classes in German as quickly and as thoroughly as possible.

The second objective is to adapt lessons, so as to foster and improve pupils' multilingual abilities, as well as to help them find their cultural bearings within the complexities of today's cultural reality. This includes mother tongue teaching (MTT). Originally, the objective of MTT was to prepare the children of foreign migrant workers for their return to their country of origin. As this form of remigration has proved to be very rare, it no longer provides a justification for MTT. Instead, however, the fostering of multilingualism is now the principal concern.

Mother tongue teaching is provided by the state of North Rhine-Westphalia and is thus subject to inspection by the school authorities. This guarantees that all school lessons are guided by democratic values and fit in with lessons in other subjects as closely as possible.

Through mother tongue teaching, pupils growing up bilingually or multilingually are given knowledge, skills and abilities in many different languages. This provides the economy of North Rhine-Westphalia – a

heavily export-oriented *Land* – with a pool of language resources that would otherwise not be available or only at much greater cost and effort.

Nevertheless, the cost of providing MTT for North Rhine-Westphalia is considerable. It includes personnel costs for around 1,400 teachers who give language lessons and provide support for their German colleagues. It also includes the cost of adapting teaching concepts and curricula and curricular materials on a continual basis, as well as in-service teacher training. In this way, it was possible to build a bridge of confidence in the German mainstream school system for the large numbers of foreign parents. These extra lessons have been provided for over three decades and are greatly appreciated and still very much in demand.

As a rule, the language that children of immigrant families grow up with at home differs from the language that is spoken in their country of origin due to the influence of the German majority language. Most of these families, however, have daily contact with the language of their home country through the mass media, phone calls, letters and visits.

In this way, the children become bilingual to some extent, with very different, but complementary, linguistic competencies in the different languages. There are children whose language competence in the family's language of origin corresponds to that of children of the same age in the country of origin, and there are also children who only have a limited knowledge of their language of origin. In both cases, though, the children know which language to use to communicate with whom, when and on what occasion. In favourable cases, children can acquire both languages simultaneously (bilingual first language acquisition). They learn quickly and develop their language ability continuously, provided that they have the opportunity to use it in everyday situations.

Initially, supplementary lessons in MTT were provided for children and young people whose families came from countries with which the German government had bilateral agreements on the recruitment of workers (so-called recruitment countries such as Turkey and Italy). The lessons were intended to facilitate the reintegration of these young people in schools and the society of their country of origin upon their return. Now, however, nationality is not a criterion for mother tongue learning. What is decisive is whether the pupils grow up in a language other than German. Lessons are not separated according to country of origin, but rather provided in the language in question. Although attendance is voluntary, and although these lessons are provided in addition to regular lessons, often in the afternoons

when other children have gone home, still around 117,000 pupils attended these lessons in 2000/2001. Of this number, more than 70 per cent attended Turkish lessons.

Occasionally in the debate on educational policy, the reduction of mother tongue teaching in schools is demanded in favour of more extensive teaching of German as a second language. It should be made clear that these subjects are not mutually exclusive, but rather complement each other. There are clear indications, not only in academic studies, that the cultivation of the language of origin is an excellent aid to learning German. Teaching practice also frequently shows that new arrivals with an excellent knowledge of their language of origin for their age learn German much faster than children of similar age who grew up in Germany with little linguistic stimulus.

At present, MTT is provided in 21 languages: Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Croatian, Dari, Farsi, Greek, Italian, Korean, Kurmanci, Macedonian, Pashto, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Serbian, Slovenian, Spanish, Tamil, Turkish and Vietnamese. The syllabus introduced in 2000 stipulates that the prime purpose of these lessons is to promote multilingualism, to encourage intercultural communication and to foster school learning on the basis of individual abilities and needs. Furthermore, MTT must also structure language and intercultural learning, so that pupils profit from it in their schoolwork as a whole.

MTT comprises up to five lessons (of 45 minutes) a week. It is provided for Years 1 – 10, if at least ten pupils of the same language are registered for it, and if a qualified teacher is available. Normal lessons may be reduced by up to a maximum of three lessons; for organisational or didactic reasons, learning groups should not exceed 15 pupils.

If there are enough participants, MTT lessons are given during the normal school day, that is, during the morning hours.[16] This arrangement is particularly conducive to good coordination between mainstream and mother tongue teaching. In most cases, however, in order to form adequately sized learning groups, it is necessary to provide lessons for pupils from several schools and even different school types. Afternoon lessons are then, of course, the necessary consequence.

---

[16] Most schools in North-Rhine Westphalia do not have formal lessons in the afternoon.

All the teachers are native speakers, some are foreign, and others German nationals. The majority are qualified teachers and have studied in their country of origin. They are public employees and are paid according to the public sector pay scale (*Bundesangestelltentarif*, or *BAT*). As a rule, although they are formally based at one school, they are deployed at several schools.

From the sixth school year on, achievements in MTT are graded on a par with achievements in German language. Good grades in MTT are taken into consideration in decisions over whether pupils have to repeat a year or not. Pupils who have regularly attended MTT at Secondary Level 1 (age 10 – 15/16) may take a language examination at a level equivalent to Secondary Level 1 qualifications. The marks are included in the school report in the same way as marks achieved in mainstream lessons. In certain cases, good exam marks in the mother tongue may compensate for poor marks in foreign language lessons.

At Secondary Level 1, the mother tongue can be taught as a mainstream subject instead of the second or third foreign language. In this case, it is assessed on a par with foreign language lessons in every respect, even when learning groups comprise pupils from several schools of different types at Secondary Level 1, or two year-levels (Years 7/8 and 9/10). Furthermore, at selective schools (*Gymnasien*), the mother tongue may be taught instead of the first foreign language. MT lessons can be continued instead of foreign language lessons at senior grammar school (*Gymnasiale Oberstufe*) up until the qualifying examination for university entrance (*Abitur*). In 2000/2001, more than 9,000 pupils took MT lessons instead of a foreign language.

New arrivals starting foreign language lessons at a German school part of the way through Secondary Level 1, or at the beginning of Secondary Level 2, may not be in a position to catch up on everything that pupils of similar age will already have learned in English or another foreign language. In such cases, pupils may take an extra-curricular school-leaving examination at the end of Secondary Level 1 or in Secondary Level 2, to test their knowledge and abilities in their language of origin. Children of immigrant German families from Eastern Europe may also choose Russian. The exam marks replace the marks that would otherwise have been given for a foreign language. In 2001, around 7,000 pupils took examinations in 39 different languages.

Reference

Gogolin, I. and Reich, H. (2001.) 'Immigrant languages in a Federal Germany.' In: Extra, G. and Gorter, D. *The Other Languages of Europe.* Cleveland, England: Multilingual Matters.

Integration of migrant children into compulsory education in Hungary

Andras Kovats

Context

Since 1988, Hungary has received more and more foreign citizens who, temporarily or permanently, settle in the country. Some have sought asylum, some have come as immigrants, and yet others to work or to study. In the past 15 years, Hungary has experienced the influx of three major waves of refugees: from Romania in 1988 – 89 from the successor states of the former Yugoslavia in 1991 – 92, and again from Yugoslavia in 1999, during the Kosovo crisis and the subsequent NATO bombing. The Hungarian immigration and asylum system has gradually developed during this time, sometimes being heavily challenged by the crises caused by the large number of people involved. Both the legal and institutional frameworks had to develop to meet the immediate needs of their target population, as well as the – usually short-term – political and economic interest of the government.

Today, Hungary has a complex system to deal with issues related to naturalisation, immigration and asylum. However, as the chapter on Justice and Home Affairs of the EU accession talks has temporarily been closed, Hungary still lacks an approved and legitimate strategy on immigration and asylum policy, which results in several inconsistencies in the legislative background as well as in the operation of the relevant agencies.

One of these fields is the compulsory education of migrant children. There are increasing numbers of children in the Hungarian public sector education system who either do not speak Hungarian, or who speak Hungarian but are not Hungarian citizens. Although the legal background regulating their access to compulsory education is not necessarily inappropriate, there are situations where effective implementation is lacking. Judit Tóth (Tóth, 2002) suggests that most of the problems arise from the following factors:

- The Minister of Education is responsible for ensuring that refugees participate in compulsory and higher education, that they progress with the national curriculum and that they improve their knowledge of the Hungarian language (Hungary. Statutes, 1998b). Although there are

separate and individual answers to these problems, for the time being, there has been no systematic implementation of these duties.

- Existing legislation does not cater for those who do not speak Hungarian and whose socio-cultural background (as well as that of their parents) differs from the norm. There are no regulations tailored particularly to their needs, and the general guidelines are not appropriate for their problems

- Although the law concerning children of compulsory school age seems to be clear, the practical implementation is more difficult. Without research data, it is hard to know which sociological and cultural attributes determine opportunities for successful enrolment in compulsory education and which levels of language competency and duration of stay in the country are required for successful integration into a class or other form of education.

- There is no policy on the development, elaboration, introduction and dissemination of teaching methods, manuals and other reference materials necessary for helping foreign children catch up with their Hungarian peers. There are several approaches found in different schools, but neither harmonisation nor professional quality control has taken place.

- According to current legislation and practice, it is not clear who is responsible for meeting the extra costs arising from the educational activities undertaken in order to help the foreign pupils catch up.

- There are no regulations to determine the agency which should be responsible for supervising the extra-curricula elements of the public sector education of foreign children in Hungary, and the scope of its authority.

The people

According to the official statistics, there were 79,562 'settled immigrants' in Hungary in 2001 (Office of Immigration and Nationality, 2001). There are no data to show how many of them were under the age of 16, when education is compulsory. The majority of these people came from the neighbouring countries (see Table 1) and it is very likely that most of them were ethnic Hungarians.

Table 1 Settled immigrants in Hungary, by country of origin, 2001

Country	People	Per cent
Romania	37,996	47.7
Yugoslavia	9,781	12.3
Ukraine	5,859	7.4
Czech/Slovakia	1,728	2.2
Other	24,198	30.4
Total:	79,562	100.0

Source: Office of Immigration and Nationality, 2001.

Another category of foreigners entitled to public education are those that have a permanent residence permit in Hungary. Their number was 29,022 in 2001, of whom a large minority came from the neighbouring countries (see Table 2).

Table 2 People with permanent residence permit, by country of origin, 2001

Country	People	Per cent
Romania	8,579	29.6
Yugoslavia	2,236	7.7
Ukraine	1,738	6.0
Other	16,469	56.7
Total:	29,022	100.0

Source: Office of Immigration and Nationality, 2001.

Between 1988 and 2001, 172,460 people sought asylum in Hungary. Again, the majority came from ethnic Hungarian communities across the border but during the past five years, the number and proportion of those who arrived from countries outside Europe has grown rapidly (see Table 3).

Table 3 Non-European asylum seekers between 1997 and 2001

Year	Total asylum seekers	Non-European asylum seekers	Percentage of non-European asylum seekers
1997	2,109	1,411	66.9
1998	7,118	3,351	47.1
1999	11,499	6,008	52.2
2000	7,801	6,592	84.5
2001	9,554	8,974	93.9

Source: Office of Immigration and Nationality, 2001.

Although the majority of the asylum seekers are not given leave to remain in Hungary, there are always several hundred people who enjoy some form of international protection, either as recognised refugees or on a humanitarian basis. During the time taken to consider asylum application – which can take years – education is compulsory for children of asylum seekers, and this particular group is one of the major concerns of primary schools.

Ongoing research (Association for Bilingual Schools, 2002) shows that in the 1999/2000 school year, 3,830 (primary) and 3,566 (secondary) foreign children were enrolled in Hungarian schools. According to the data, the majority (4,589 out of 7,396 children) came from the neighbouring countries and were probably ethnic Hungarians. Although this number constitutes less than one per cent of the total number of pupils in public education, there are great differences between schools regarding the number of foreign pupils enrolled. Of the 1,209 primary schools with foreign pupils (an average of 3.16 pupils per school), the number in each school ranged from 1 to 238.

The number of foreign children has been found to be high in:

- schools operated by a foreign country or based on a bilateral treaty between the country of origin and Hungary. The languages are French, British and German, and the pupils are mostly from the different expatriate communities living in Budapest.

- schools where the medium of instruction is the language of the country of origin. These are usually primary schools with a special curriculum for ethnic minorities living in Hungary. Serbian, Croatian and Romanian schools fall into this category.

- bilingual or foreign language schools, with special curricula in English, French, German or Italian as a second language, usually with a strong emphasis on intercultural education. Expatriates and better-off immigrants usually from China are equally represented in these schools.

- schools located in a neighbourhood inhabited by immigrant communities. Usually Chinese and Vietnamese pupils are found in these schools

- schools close to a refugee reception centre. These pupils may come from a variety of non-European countries (the majority from Afghanistan and Iraq) and the drop-out rate is very high.

Legal background

According to the 1993/LXXIX Act on Public Education (Hungary. Statutes, 1993), education is compulsory for foreign children aged between 5 and 16 (or, 5 – 18 in the case of those born after 1992) who are:

- registered asylum seekers

- recognised refugees

- temporarily protected persons

- immigrants

- settled persons

- unaccompanied minors with a humanitarian residence permit

- children where either parent holds any type of residence permit or visa.

Once enrolled in compulsory education, children in any of the above categories enjoy the same rights and entitlements as any other Hungarian child. The duties and obligations of children and their parents regarding school attendance are also the same.

According to the Constitution (Hungary. Statutes, 1949), any discrimination based on race, colour, gender, language, religion, political or other opinion, national origin, social origin, economic situation, situation of birth or any other situation which is not expressly allowed by law, or which is disproportional, unnecessary and objectively unjustifiable, is forbidden.

Hungary is a signatory of the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO, 1960), as well as of the United Nations Conventions on

the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989), the United Nations Conventions on the Status of Refugees (United Nations, 1951) and the United Nations Conventions on the Status of Stateless Persons (United Nations, 1954). These texts also forbid discrimination on a wide range of grounds.

In accordance with the above, the Law on Public Education (Hungary. Statutes, 1993) also forbids the discrimination against children on the grounds of colour, national or ethnic background and origin, among others. Furthermore, the pupil has the right to exceptional treatment, if that is required by his/her personal abilities.

With regard to fees and financial support, foreign pupils of compulsory school age should be treated the same as Hungarian children. Post-compulsory education of foreign children has to be paid for, unless bilateral treaties or other legislations say otherwise. If compulsory education is provided free of charge for children, schools receive funding for each pupil, which consists of a standard contribution from central government and a supplementary grant from the local municipality.

Legislation (Hungary, Statutes, 1998a) provides for further support for foreign pupils:

- if they enjoy temporary protection or apply for asylum as unaccompanied minors, the costs of catering, travel and school materials related to their education, placement in kindergarten or child protection institute shall be reimbursed by the Office of Immigration and Nationality

- if they are recognised refugees, the Office of Immigration and Nationality reimburses the costs of 360 hours of Hungarian language training or any language training provided in order to help them catch up with their peers

- if the financial circumstances of the family require, school-age refugee children attending primary or secondary school are eligible for one-off schooling benefits in each year

- if the child is a 'person authorised to stay' (that is, if he or she holds a humanitarian residence permit), and the financial circumstances of the family require it, he/she is eligible for the reimbursement of the catering

costs related to his/her education, as well as for one-off schooling benefit in each year, paid by the Office of Immigration and Nationality.

According to the Law on Public Education 1993 (Hungary. Statutes, 1993), teachers have a duty to prepare and provide an educational programme tailored to the needs of those pupils who have difficulties in catching up with their peers. These pupils may be temporarily withdrawn from certain classes, but in such cases, a personal development programme must be developed for them. It is also the schools' duty to ensure that pupils receive remedial help in the form of special (complementary) classes, which are not considered as extras as long as they do not exceed ten per cent of the weekly number of classes.

Practical considerations

The situation of foreign pupils in Hungarian schools varies according to the background of the children and the circumstances of the school. In schools where the presence of foreign pupils is part of the school's policy (for example, foreign schools, bilingual schools), there are far fewer difficulties than in those situations where the schools have no choice in deciding to admit foreign children (for example, in neighbourhoods with foreign communities or near reception centres). Most of the problems arise from three sources:

- lack of knowledge about the legislative background
- inadequate language competence of the foreign pupils
- socio-cultural differences between the different children in the class.

The first issue is not easy to resolve, since the legislation concerning the public education of foreign pupils has evolved gradually, without a clear and comprehensive migration (and education) policy to support it. There is a constant move from a narrow towards a broader interpretation of entitlements, usually triggered by implementation failures and by pressure from international organisations and domestic lobby groups. It often happens that a new entitlement already exists, but that the means for its implementation are still lacking, or that there is no clear implementation policy.[17] Teachers and school managers are usually not sufficiently well

---

[17] The latest such development is the law amendment on compulsory public education for asylum seeker children, which came into force on 1 January 2002,

informed about the changes, and it is not clear who is responsible for disseminating the information or how they are required to do so.

Inadequate language competence is probably the biggest problems teachers have to face. In most cases, there is no methodological assistance as neither the general teacher training curricula nor in-service training opportunities tackle this issue. Despite these shortcomings, most schools have developed some kind of methodology and techniques for handling the situation, but their implementation is hindered by a whole range of other problems: teachers are already overwhelmed, the classroom and curriculum structures do not make individual programmes possible, there are insufficient resources to cover the extra costs of helping children catch up, and there is no professional quality control. In order to overcome their initial difficulties, foreign pupils (in Hungarian-speaking classes) are either placed in a class according to their age and provided with out-of-class language tutoring, or placed in a class which is far below their age level, but where the simplicity of the curriculum enables them to concentrate on learning Hungarian. The selection of either method (or any combination of them) is arbitrary; there is no national programme or policy which deals with this issue.

The socio-cultural differences between foreign (especially non-European) children and their Hungarian classmates may also cause problems for teachers, but this aspect is much less frequently mentioned than language problems. It is probably because of the relatively low number of non-European pupils in schools that the differences are less obvious or 'disturbing', especially when there are only one or two foreign children involved. As the phenomenon is relatively new, it is still the exotic elements that are emphasised (different holidays, eating habits, clothes). As the foreign communities (probably due to their size) are more integration-oriented, parents also encourage good school performance of their children, which reduces the possibility of conflicts at school. The situation around the refugee reception centres is somewhat different and there are more conflicts. However, the strong emphasis on the humanitarian status of the incoming foreign children, in most cases, helps to eliminate the negative sentiments. There is a considerable minority of Roma (Gypsies) in Hungary, who face serious problems in their integration into the school system, which, paradoxically, favours the relatively smooth integration of foreign children because the negative position of the 'other' is already occupied.

---

without any changes in the related legislation, such as the Asylum Act, or the relevant government decrees.

The legislative background is constantly developing in a positive direction, broadening the entitlements and fostering the integration of foreign children into compulsory education. Although the number of pupils concerned is not outstandingly high, there still remain well-articulated needs that need to be addressed in the implementation. In 2001, projects were initiated which targeted the above problems, with the support of the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) and the US, Dutch and British embassies. These projects have been implemented separately by two non-government organisations: the Civic Education Project and Menedek (the Hungarian Association for Migrants). The Centre for International Migration and Refugee Studies of the Minority Research Institute of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences is undertaking a thorough research study on the different aspects of the education of foreign children. The Ministry of Education is also willing to get involved in activities targeting this particular aspect of compulsory education, which, it is hoped, will result in significant developments in the education of foreign children in Hungary.

References

Association for Bilingual Schools (2002). Migrant Pupils in Hungarian Public Education. Unpublished manuscript.

Hungary. Statutes (1949). *Act XX on the Constitution of the Republic of Hungary*. [Online] Available: http://www.complex.hu/external.php?url=3.

Hungary. Statutes (1993). *Act LXXIX on Public Education.* [Online] Available: http://www.complex.hu/external.php?url=3.

Hungary Statutes (1998a). *Government Decree 25/1998 (II.18).* [Online] Available: http://www.complex.hu/external.php?url=3.

Hungary. Statutes (1998b). *Government Decree 162/1998 (IX.30).* [Online] Available: http://www.complex.hu/external.php?url=3.

Office Of Immigration And Nationality. (OIN) (2001) *Annual Statistics.* [Online] Available: http://web.b-m.hu/belugy/start.nsf/start.

Tóth, J. (2002). 'The Legal Background of Enrolment of Non-Hungarian Speakers in Public Education.' Paper presented at the seminar *Foreign Children in Hungarian Schools* organised by Menedék – Hungarian Association for Migrants, Budapest, 23 May, 2002.

UNESCO (1960). *Convention against Discrimination in Education*. United Nations Treaty Series No. 6193, Vols. 429-430, p. 93, Paris: UNESCO

United Nations (1951). *Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees*. United Nations Treaty Series No. 2545, Vol. 189, p. 137, Washington: United Nations.

United Nations (1954). *Convention Relating to the Status of Stateless Persons.* United Nations Treaty Series No. 5158, Vol. 360, p. 117, Washington: United Nations.

United Nations (1989). *Convention on the Rights of the Child.* Annex to the UN General Assembly Resolution 44/125, Washington: United Nations.

Education: crucial for successful integration

Roger van Boxtel with Lia Brouwer-Vogel

Introduction

After the post-war reconstruction, during the 1960s, an active pattern of immigration developed in the Netherlands. Initially, relatively large groups arrived from the Republic of Indonesia, which became independent between 1945/1949. At the same time, so-called 'guest workers' from countries around the Mediterranean started to arrive. These migrant workers were 'recruited' to fill unskilled jobs. Subsequently, from the 1980s onward, asylum seekers and other displaced persons arrived from various developing and Eastern European countries. In this way, Dutch society developed into a heterogeneous society, reflecting a diversity of ethnicities, lifestyles, and cultures (Du Bois-Reymond, Te Poel and Ravesloot 1998).

Initially, it was assumed that the foreign workers would only remain temporarily in the Netherlands. However, over time it became clear that their stay was permanent. Families were reunited, and because people preferred to live in the same neighbourhoods, concentrations of ethnic minority groups developed, particularly in the larger cities.

The presence of this ever-increasing group of new inhabitants affected government policies. It turned out that a large proportion of these new residents were unable – and quite often, not given the opportunity – to integrate socially and economically. Problems arising from unemployment, lack of communication and participation, as well as educational and language deficiencies, piled up. It became clear that politicians would have to develop new policies in a number of areas, to offer newcomers the opportunity to secure a position for themselves in the Dutch community.

In the early 1980s, on the advice of the Scientific Council for Government Policy (WRR, 1979), a specific integration policy was initiated, whose main objectives were to tackle disadvantage and to promote active citizenship. It proved quite difficult in the short term to reduce the disadvantage which had developed for these new compatriots. Integration into Dutch society was a laborious and slow process, especially because of the language barrier and the different cultural and religious views.

During the same period, the Dutch population developed rapidly. Social changes which affected individual opportunities and choices, as well as rapid technological progress during the economically booming sixties, brought about a social process of individualisation. The process was accompanied by social change, economic independence and a higher proportion of working women.

Economical and social developments and the impact of the political order[18] in the 1960s exerted a great influence on education. The high value attached to knowledge and the availability of good education for as many as possible meant that participation in higher education was no longer restricted by social class or sex, but, in fact, became accessible to everyone. During succeeding years, participation in higher education increased considerably and, during the 1990s, a balance was achieved between boys and girls from various strata of society. However, participation in higher education also meant more years, on average, spent in education. This was one of the reasons why young people developed their own culture and an independent way of life, distinct from that of working adults.

This sweeping modernisation among Dutch young people contrasted sharply with that of their peers from minority ethnic groups. Children from minority groups growing up in Dutch society faced many additional obstacles on their way from childhood to adulthood. Not only did most of them start primary education with a tremendous language deficiency, they were also unfamiliar with current Dutch customs. As a result, they achieved poorer school results and consequently developed little self-confidence. Many of these children encountered problems during their compulsory schooling, which often led to their leaving school without qualifications. Even though many ethnic youngsters managed well, the marginalisation of others gave cause for concern. This resulted in long-term unemployment, poor education, and various forms of criminality.

The obstacles which had inhibited their development, particularly in the larger cities, led to the formulation of an integrated urban policy called *Grotestedenbeleid 1994-98 (GSB)*.

---

[18] Social and economical progression in the 1960s also influenced the Dutch Government and Cabinet. For that reason new policy papers and laws made education more accessible for people with a different socio-economic status.

One important objective of the *GSB* urban policy was to help cities regain their central function in the economic and cultural development of society and to tackle, in a structured manner, the deprivation that had developed. In particular, cities had to become attractive locations for economic and social renewal and integration policies had to be considerably boosted.

However, the Netherlands was not alone: neighbouring countries faced similar problems. In the light of common concerns, a number of European cities joined forces in a European Community Initiative called Urban.[19] This initiative resulted in intensive work to overcome socio-economic disadvantage in European cities.

It was clear from the outset that the achievement of the *GSB 1994-98* urban policy objectives would require great perseverance. Although many initiatives had been started, their effects were not yet visible. In addition, the considerable increase in immigration increased demand. These facts, and the outcome of the political elections, resulted in the creation of a ministerial post for Urban and Integration Policies for the subsequent administration (1998–2002). New *GSB* urban policy agreements were made between the Government and the cities. To strengthen the integration policy, the Minister for Urban and Integration Policies drafted a policy paper entitled *Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1998b). This policy paper proposed four action programmes, to address the most important aspects of integration policy:

- youth from ethnic minority groups
- reducing unemployment
- preventing and reducing prejudice, discrimination and racism
- communication.

The central contributing factors to integration and emancipation are good education and economic independence. Especially for the younger generation, this means good schooling and employment. There is currently

---

[19] Urban II is the Community Initiative of the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) for sustainable development in the troubled urban districts of the European Union for the period 2000-06. As a follow-up to Urban I in 1994-99, Urban II aims more precisely to promote the design and implementation of innovative models of development for the economic and social regeneration of troubled urban areas. It will also strengthen information and experience-sharing on sustainable urban development in the European Union.

a high level of investment in education to overcome language deficiencies, prevent early school-leaving and stimulate participation in intermediate and higher education by pupils from ethnic minority groups. Nevertheless, there is a growing concern among politicians and civil servants at the increasing segregation between 'white' and 'black' schools that have resulted from the concentration of minority groups in specific neighbourhoods. The continuing arrival of new inhabitants from non-European countries has aggravated this situation (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 2001).

An important measure taken to promote the integration of new citizens is a compulsory integration programme. Considerable efforts have also been made to reduce unemployment among ethnic minority groups. To achieve this, agreements have been made with employers to create many new jobs. The Dutch centres for helping the unemployed obtain employment or unemployment benefits (*Centra voor Werk en Inkomen*) carry out specific functions in this area.

Following the policy paper *Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1998b), and encouraged by the vision of the second Social-Democratic coalition in the Netherlands (1998-2002) which sought to promote and, where necessary, strengthen the policy, a further policy paper, *Integration from the Perspective of Immigration* was published (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 2002a). On the one hand, this lists achievements which offer positive signs, such as

- reducing unemployment among minority groups to around ten percent

- compulsory integration programme for newcomers under the Newcomers Integration Act (Netherlands. Parliament, 1998a)

- establishment of an integration programme for the members of minority groups who have been in the Netherlands for some time (the so-called 'old-comers')

- improving school results for minority-group pupils

- the strengthening of anti-discrimination policies.

On the other hand, because of the continuing immigration, the paper also emphasises the need to persist with the integration policy, as well as efforts on the part of education, social welfare, housing, and employment agencies. In addition, the 'host' society cannot remain aloof, but has to adapt to an increasingly 'colourful' society.

More than ever, the authorities are convinced that integration has many sides and perspectives, which makes it challenging and, at the same time, sensitive. We can learn a great deal from past social developments, but also from the policies in countries with comparable patterns of immigration. Thus, there is an increase in international communication in various policymaking areas.

The remainder of this paper explores, in greater depth, a number of topics which play an important part in migration and integration. Section 2 describes the establishment and implementation of the *GSB* urban policy, the position of minority groups and associated policies. Section 3 discusses various aspects of education reform in a changing society. Section 4 deals with progress and new initiatives in education and policymaking. Finally, section 5 reflects on the relationship between education, policymaking and integration, in the light of the new policy.

Migration and urban policies

Large cities clearly reflect the heterogeneous society that has developed in the Netherlands during the past few decades. This is obvious from life on the streets, on the shop floor and in schools, while the reality of a pluralistic society is intensified in certain neighbourhoods. Notably, in large cities today, an average of forty per cent of inhabitants are of foreign descent. Even though many immigrants are doing well, and have integrated into Dutch society, the increase in immigration, especially in large cities, has aggravated urban problems. Persistent unemployment and lack of opportunities, as well as a veritable exodus of the financially powerful, have created disadvantaged neighbourhoods.

During the 1970s, a few special welfare measures would have been sufficient to meet the need. Later, a policy emphasis on education, the labour market, suitable housing, and the legal status of these new residents became unavoidable. Thus, in 1979, the Minister of the Interior was designated as the coordinating minister for minorities policy. In the Minorities Policy paper of 1982 (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1982), policy was divided into three areas for special attention:

- social and economic deprivation
- legal status and discrimination
- lack of participation and danger of isolation.

Members of minority groups were given an active role within this so-called 'minority policy'. Their experiences constituted essential input during the planning and implementation of activities, and the search for and identification of inequalities.

In practice, implementation of the integration policy proved difficult. Especially in larger cities, problems continued to accumulate. During the early 1990s, disadvantages persisted in employment, average income levels, average educational levels and housing. Usually, problems did not occur in isolation, but influenced each other, and were most prevalent in those neighbourhoods where a relatively large number of people from vulnerable groups were concentrated.

During its first, pioneering stage, the *GSB* urban policy distinguished itself through its thematic approach. Safety, security and a healthy urban economy became prime objectives of an integrated policy. A concurrent evaluation of initiatives allowed their development and results to be monitored. In order to tackle the problems satisfactorily, urban policy projects adopted an integrated approach with a maximum of policy power for large cities. To achieve this, agreements between national and local authorities defined the objectives to be achieved and the scale of Government funding to be made. Because many of the urban problems also arose in neighbouring countries, and the four big cities (Amsterdam, Utrecht, The Hague and Rotterdam, known as G4) of the *GSB* urban policy participated in the European Community initiative Urban, additional European funding was available for the relief of deprived neighbourhoods (Verweij and Goezinne, 1995).

Progress
The achievements of the first agreement period (1994 – 98) represented a firm starting point. A number of goals were partly or wholly achieved, while the European agenda also showed definite progress. What lagged behind was the achievement of the managerial objective: to work in a more integrated manner and with greater focus on results. Other unresolved matters were perception indicators such as: the perception of safety, quality of life and community problems. Finally, the evaluation clearly showed that insufficient attention was paid in the *GSB* urban policy to raising the economic and social status of members of ethnic groups (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 2002b).

During the next government (Kok II, 1998–2002), the *GSB* urban policy was strengthened, with the ultimate objective of achieving an integrated and

vital city, which would be sociable, safe and pleasant to live in, and in which citizens would enjoy equal opportunities. In his position as Minister for Urban and Integration Policies the author had primary responsibility for developing and maintaining the Urban Policy system and the associated management philosophy. In addition, he was responsible for the national integration policy and for the coordination of the European Urban Policy (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, Grotestedenbeleid voor European Council of Barcelona, 2002c) (Dutch position paper for the European Council of Barcelona).

The newly formulated urban policy for the period 1998–2002, (*GSB II*) concentrated its efforts on three pillars: physical, economical, and social.

Concrete goals were:

1 reducing (the underlying level of) unemployment, and stimulating job creation

2 strengthening economic competitiveness

3 improving the link between education and employment

4 strengthening the position of urban housing problems to regional housing conditions

5 improving the physical environment and security

6 improving equal opportunities

7 improving the social infrastructure

8 improving safety

9 lasting restoration of vulnerable neighbourhoods.

It has become clear that each of these goals can only be achieved by a coherent set of measures, which often cut right across the pillars. The achievement of an integrated approach at senior management level will be challenging. But political expectations are positive; because of the successes already achieved, initial cynicism has been replaced by a partnership between national and local authorities. However, it cannot be denied that even closer cooperation is required to achieve the formulated objectives.

Immigration and integration policies

As mentioned earlier, the history of immigration into the Netherlands is characterised by the permanent settlement of ethnic groups in the Dutch

society. Over the decades, this has resulted in a diversity in language and culture. *Integration in Perspective,* a report from the Council for Social Development (Raad voor Maatschappelijke Ontwikkeling, 1998), states that, by 2015, the number of people with foreign ancestors will have increased to over two million. On that basis it is felt that the Netherlands may be called a true immigration country.

Compared with the native Dutch population, most members of ethnic minority groups in the Netherlands started at a disadvantage. For many of them, the transition from their own, to Dutch, society has proved very difficult. From the 1960s onwards, foreign employees were mainly brought over to take jobs that Dutch people no longer wanted. Thus, they started at the bottom of the employment ladder. For many minority groups, the Dutch language proved to be a difficult hurdle in the struggle for a better socio-economic position. As a result, when starting school, the children of these first minority groups were seriously disadvantaged compared with their Dutch peers. Here, also, the obstacle was a poor command of Dutch, which prevented them from obtaining sufficient knowledge and skills to achieve good educational qualifications. One of the most important reasons for their below-average performance was that they did not speak Dutch at home. However, it was not just the lack of knowledge of the Dutch language that prevented the active participation of newcomers, their ignorance of Dutch ways and customs also played an important role.

The next policy included an active role for minority groups to enhance their socio-economic position. The Government considered it crucial actively to involve members of minority groups and minority organisations, not only as discussion partners when new policies were being created, but also to identify obstacles, inequalities and other integration problems The periodic consultations between the Cabinet and minority organisations which have taken place since 1985, were given a legal basis in 1997 and the organisations formed the *Landelijk Overleg Minderheden* (National Body for the Consultation of Minorities). This serves as a consultation partner of the Government in the development and implementation of the national policy for minorities.

It is obvious that education is an important way of overcoming disadvantage and securing socio-economic progress. At the same time, it cannot be denied that this process takes time. It is well-known that most newcomers to the Netherlands start from a modest position, having little or no education and a limited knowledge of the Dutch language. In addition, they know little or nothing about the organisation or customs of Dutch society.

Moreover, especially initially, they make little or no use of public services. That is why education policy specifically aims to encourage these new groups to participate in education. For example, the measures that have formed part of educational policy since 1974 aim mainly at improving the conditions for, and encouraging participation in, education. The general objectives are to prepare and enable members of minority groups, just like all other pupils, to function and participate in the Dutch pluralistic society as social-economically and democratically valued members.

Policy paper: Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities (Ministerie van BZK, 1998)

At the start of the second period of urban policy (*GSB II*), the Government (Kok II, 1998–2002), wanted to make substantial progress in vital areas of the integration policy. The thematic approach of the first period had initiated a great deal, but there were still numerous shortcomings in integration. For example, ethnic minority groups were underrepresented in various levels of society; the problems of housing and disadvantaged areas were by no means resolved; unemployment remained prevalent among ethnic minority groups; and educational achievements among children from ethnic minority groups remained poor, in comparison with their native peers. In addition, criminality – particularly in the drug trade – continued to attract attention. Also, the number of newcomers had increased substantially.

To foster progress with the integration policy, a specific policy paper, *Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1998b) was drafted for the second urban policy period (GSB II). This paper was an elaboration of the main policy approach and contained about hundred concrete actions to help:

- youth from ethnic minority groups

- reduce unemployment

- prevent and reduce prejudice, discrimination and racism

- communication.

These action programmes were implemented in cooperation with the specialist departments, institutions, and minority organisations concerned (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1999).

By now, it had become clear that integrating into a new society was not as natural a process as had been expected. In addition to new immigrants, many members of minority groups who had already lived in the Netherlands for a long time had never fully participated in Dutch society. A specific policy was developed to support the integration process for both newcomers and 'oldcomers'.

Integration program

'Citizenship in a democratic society may be translated into a collection of formal rights and duties, whereby the citizen as legal person may, in that capacity, expect protection by the law, and is free to act according to the law'. (Cohen, 1999.)

However, integration is also a social matter. The social status of citizenship represents a specific collective identity and involves processes of integration into the community of citizens, but also of exclusion.

It appears from the above that the position of newcomers was only considered rather late. When it became obvious that the original minority groups tended to remain in the Netherlands, it was also assumed that they would automatically integrate. However, for many of them, this was not the case. Not only did many immigrants' children experience integration problems, new immigrants kept arriving as part of family union and reunion schemes and there was an increase in asylum seekers. This directly influenced the deprivation in the major cities. Partly as a reaction to the second *WRR* report (WRR, 1990), the Government announced that it would give priority relief to disadvantaged new immigrants. Subsequently, new policy decisions focused on integration. In 1994, the Cabinet once more emphasised the importance of speedy, intensive integration of newcomers in an outline policy paper: *Contourennota: Integratiebeleid Etnische Minderheden* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1994) (Integration Policy Ethnic Minority Groups)*. After that, in 1996, the integration policy was strengthened, resulting in the *Wet Inburgering Nieuwkomers 1998* (Netherlands. Parliament, 1998) (Newcomers Integration Act). This law required local authorities to offer a compulsory integration course to all newcomers in the target group which it identified. Due primarily to the efforts of the Minister for Urban and Integration Policies (Van Boxtel), a specific integration policy was implemented for those who had come to the Netherlands before 1996, the so-called 'oldcomers'. The subsequent evaluation showed that there were still obstacles to the implementation of the integration policy and a taskforce was set up to support the implementation and overcome the identified obstacles, including improving

the local authority registration and monitoring systems and reducing the waiting lists that had developed for 'oldcomer' courses.

Since then, induction has become a focus of government policy. The national budget for the integration of 'oldcomers', has increased from € 5.5 million in 1999, to over € 95 million in 2002.

The integration programme for newcomers attracts approximately 17,000 people each year. Some € 136 million has been made available for this group. Investment concerns resources as well as the content of the programmes. Innovative ideas are implemented by means of pilot projects to identify good-practice, generate development routes and start up dual programmes, which link language tutoring with vocational training, thereby teaching practical and theoretical subjects, alongside language skills. The Cabinet expects that these combinations will reduce the high drop-out figures from integration programmes. In the near future new-comers have to pay a fee (circa € 6,600) before entering the program.

At this stage, it is too early to assess the outcome. Many aspects of integration are still being developed and their objectives have yet to be met. However, there is no doubt that the integration policy will prove fruitful in encouraging many to progress towards further education and independence. An important stage is the link with adult education and, subsequently, with employment.

Employment

Thanks, in part, to the measures of the integration policy, the employment of ethnic minority groups has improved tremendously over the past few years. However, not all ethnic minority groups benefit equally. For example, the Social and Cultural Planning Bureau (Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau, 2001), has observed that many minority group youngsters experience problems during their schooling and drop out. Also, many members of ethnic minority groups do not know how to find employment. This is why the percentage of unemployed among these groups is still substantially higher than that of their Dutch peers. Conscious that work is a vehicle for integration, the Cabinet concluded, during the Parliamentary Integration Debate held on 18 and 20 April 2000, that labour-market policy had to be strengthened to overcome these obstacles. In concrete terms, it was announced that during the parliamentary period 1998–2002, the difference in unemployment rates between Dutch and newcomers should be reduced by half.

Specific policy measures have been developed to stimulate ethnic minority groups to seek employment. Examples of these are the law *SAMEN* (Netherlands. Parliament, 1998b) ('Together' Act), the activities of the Minority Groups and Job Market Taskforce and the policy aimed at overcoming discrimination and promoting equal opportunities. In addition, targeted policies remain necessary for subgroups, such as refugees, people participating in the integration process, women, young people, and others with specific problems. In addition, the employment of women from ethnic minority groups is receiving particular attention.

As stated in the policy paper *Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1998b), members of ethnic minority groups themselves are primarily responsible for finding their own place in society. They are expected to take opportunities in education, training and employment which arise. However, this does not mean that opportunities and appropriate help to overcome the obstacles which prevent their employment should not be provided. As part of the urban policy, *GSB II* started by setting targets to reduce unemployment among ethnic minority groups by at least ten per cent. Agreements were made between the Government and employers to achieve these targets. Good results have been reported. For example, the *Christelijk Pedagogisch Studiecentrum* (Protestant Educational Advisory Centre) announced that employment among minority groups had improved substantially, although it was still markedly worse than that of comparable Dutch groups (CPS, 2001). It remains crucial to continue to promote and provide sufficient vocational training opportunities. These require firm agreements with social partners. It is crucial to offer more opportunities for 'dual processes' and ensure that education and vocational training are carefully adapted to meet the needs of those involved.

Education

Learning without boundaries

In the 21st century learning knows no boundaries. It is no longer the exclusive domain of young people and educational institutions. In this day and age, learning can take place at any age, anywhere: at school, in-company, by private tuition, abroad or electronically. The knowledge economy, options, differentiation and customisation are key concepts in the current image of education. More than was ever thought possible, learners play a central role and educational provision is based on the learner-centred principle. Information and other technological developments create endless possibilities. However, this also changes the process of teaching; the role of teacher is shifting from instructor to adviser. The learner has to take charge of his/her learning, actively and independently, so as to develop new skills and competencies.

The latest reforms in secondary education anticipate these new developments. Innovations include the so-called *Study house* (Veugelers and Zijlstra, 2001), which features new subject groupings such as Nature and Environment Education, and Culture and Art Education (Vogel and Veugelers, 2000) and has learning from and through experience at its core. Higher education, too, is continually developing to meet students', as well as society's, needs. The expectations and demands of employers are also high. Technological developments and economic growth have brought about a transition to the so-called knowledge economy. Knowledge spreads faster and is more quickly outdated. The resulting world-wide communication places high demands on the user in terms of communicative skills, problem-solving ability, and creativity.

Education and migration

Changes in society inevitably reverberate through its educational system. No wonder that educational reform has been a feature of recent decades. Reforms generally aim to improve quality or increase efficiency. Besides the above-mentioned knowledge and economic aspects, reform policy also concerns the obstacles that have developed as a result of the continuing immigration. An important motive for educational change is the increased importance of education and qualifications for future employment. This has direct repercussions for immigrants who have settled in the Netherlands. For many members of the first generation, the qualifications expected today constitute a serious obstacle to employment. In principle, however, second and third generations have every opportunity to become qualified and, in

doing so, to achieve a social status beyond the reach of their parents. During the 1999-2000 school year, there were approximately 1,542,800 children in primary education in the Netherlands, of whom 198,100 belonged to ethnic minority groups (12.84 per cent). In (primary and secondary) special education, the percentage of pupils from ethnic minority groups is even higher, approximately 17 per cent. Many children from minority groups still start school at a considerable disadvantage. Most of their parents have enjoyed little education and Dutch is often not spoken in their homes. Besides having a poor vocabulary, they also appear to have inadequate cognitive and cultural development. Research has shown that environmental factors and patterns of social interaction are important for children's cognitive development, and that this, in turn, influences their school results. More concretely, one might even say that the cultural climate within the family, the mother's role in the upbringing and her expectations concerning secondary education, all influence their children's school results. An Arabic saying expresses this very graphically: *A mother is the first school.*

Another important issue is the increasing number of schools whose pupils originate mainly from ethnic minority groups. These popularly called 'black schools' have many educational problems. Moreover, increased segregation into white and black schools constitutes a very important social problem. In these circumstances, pupils and parents have insufficient contact with their Dutch fellow-citizens, which inhibits their integration into the Dutch society.

It will require considerable effort – both now and in the future - on the part of schools, pupils, and everyone in the immediate community, to overcome the above-mentioned disadvantages during the children's education. *Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1998b), as well as the educational opportunities policy of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (Netherlands. Ministerie van OCenW, 1982, 1982 and 1998), pay much attention to a continuous development of children from nought to 18 years of age. An important condition of policy is that agencies and educational institutions create a coherent 'chain' of guidance, stimulation and support at points of transition from one life stage to another. In the context of a coherent approach, close cooperation among care, welfare, and educational institutions is essential. A good example of such cooperation is the 'Broad School', in which care, welfare and educational institutions cooperate closely. In addition, proper attention should be given to recreating culturally integrated schools, that is, schools with a balanced number of Dutch pupils and pupils from other nationalities, in all neighbourhoods. To achieve this, access to schools should be

guaranteed for all pupils. It follows naturally from this statement that parents and ethnic minority self-help organisations should be closely involved in the education and social upbringing of their children. In this way, communication can be strengthened and responsibilities shared.

Educational policy for socio-economically disadvantaged pupils

Government policy to overcome educational disadvantage dates back to the 1970s. Under the name of 'educational stimulus policy', a number of measures were formulated to meet the needs of disadvantaged children, the majority of whom, at the time, were Dutch. In 1979, views on special needs policy changed. The report by the Scientific Council for Government Policy (WRR, 1979) and the then Minister for Education (Pais) both stressed that minority groups were settling permanently in the Netherlands and that new objectives would be required to meet their needs. In the policy paper *Minorities Note, Minorities policy,* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZ, 1982), the expectation that minority groups would return to their country of origin was abandoned and it was decided that members of minority groups should be primarily educated to participate fully in Dutch society, with the possibility of achieving this from their own cultural background. Furthermore, education should promote acculturation. Following criticism of this policy, which distinguished between the Educational Stimulus Policy and the Ethnic Minority Policy, the Government decided in 1982 to unite the two strands into the Educational Priority Policy (*OVB*) (Netherlands. Ministerie van OCenW, 1982). One of the most important measures implemented under this policy was the 'weighting' of pupils for funding purposes. Schools with many pupils from minority groups received additional funding and regions with many special needs pupils received additional facilities. In 1992, the Educational Priority Policy (*OVB*) became law. (Netherlands. Parliament, 1992.)

In 1993, administrative responsibility for education policy was transferred from central Government to the disadvantaged regions (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1993). The implementation of this legislation was facilitated by an educational priority policy framework (1993 – 1997), according to which the policy had to be implemented. The transition from a central government educational priority policy to a local education policy for socio-economically disadvantaged pupils (*Gemeentelijk Onderwijsachterstandenbeleid – GOA*), marked an administrative devolution, whereby a regional approach was changed to directives given by local authorities.

The results of inspection and monitoring demonstrated a need for further strengthening and acceleration of the effort to overcome educational disadvantage (Inspectie van het Onderwijs, 2001). Further arrangements with local authorities concerning provision for special needs pupils in individual schools were necessary. These strengthened policy priorities were incorporated in the second national policy framework 2002-2006 (Netherlands. Ministerie van OCenW, 1998). A characteristic of the frameworks of local educational policy for special-needs pupils (*GOA*) is the fact that central Government is responsible for the input and process, while the local authorities are responsible for making policy and monitoring results.

Progress and initiatives

Since the publication of the Minorities policy paper (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1982), the number of members from ethnic minority groups has increased from just over 400,000 in 1983, to approximately 1.6 million in 2001 (comprising 1.4 million non-western foreigners, plus 200,000 from Southern European countries). The four largest groups originate from Turkey (319,600), Surinam (308,800), Morocco (272,800) and the Dutch Antilles, including Aruba (117,000). Those from Southern Europe originate from the former Yugoslavia (71,400), Italy (34,600) and Spain (30,400). The 'Chinese' group originate mostly from China and Hong Kong (altogether some 50,000). During the past few decades, the number of *different* nationalities has also increased, mainly as a result of people having been granted asylum. The four largest groups of refugees today come from Iraq (38,200), Somalia (29,600), Iran (24,600) and Afghanistan (26,400).

It is expected that the ethnic minority population will further increase in the coming years, as a result of continued immigration and a relatively higher birth rate. It is rare for immigrant groups to return to their country of origin. Even if there is a desire on the part of some to remigrate in the long term, this is often undermined by stronger arguments, such as the presence of children or other relatives in the Netherlands, and better social security provisions, both politically and economically. Newcomers from non-western countries still tend to settle in large cities and often concentrate in certain neighbourhoods. For example, in 2001 40 per cent of the citizens of the G4 Large Cities (Amsterdam, Utrecht, The Hague and Rotterdam) belonged to ethnic minority groups. Among children between 5 and 14 years of age, nearly half had a non-Dutch background.

In terms of social development, the integration of ethnic groups has developed very differently. On the one hand, there are ethnic groups that hardly differ from the Dutch (such as second-generation immigrants from the Dutch Antilles, including Aruba). On the other hand, there are groups with a very weak socio-economic profile (for example, first-generation Turks and Moroccans, and people from Somalia). A substantial proportion of ethnic minority groups, especially first-generation migrants, remains disadvantaged. However, there is a slow but noticeable improvement in employment, education and the adoption of related western standards and values. However, the fact that, especially in Turkish and Moroccan families, people still seek marriage partners in their countries of origin, hinders this progress (Van Boxtel, 2001).

Employment among ethnic minority groups is improving. Recent figures show that, the first period of the *Grotestedenbeleid 1994-1998* and compared with employees from Dutch origin, unemployment among these groups decreased by 10 per cent to 16 per cent in 1998, and by an additional 10 per cent in the year 2000. But, although the employment of these groups has substantially improved over the past few years, we cannot yet speak of equal employment. In 2000, the percentage of unemployment among ethnic minority groups is still approximately three times that of the Dutch. Further improvement in employment remains essential.

The *School Results, Minorities Report 2001* (SCP, 2001) showed that the educational performance and results of pupils from minority groups improved substantially during the past ten years. During this period, primary schools improved their ability to enhance the performance of these pupils. Between 1988 and 1998, the results of pupils from minority groups substantially improved. For example, Turkish, Moroccan and Surinam pupils overcame half of their deficiency in arithmetic. However, their deficiency in language is still a problem; at the end of primary education, they are still approximately two years behind their Dutch peers. Also, the relative disadvantage at the start of primary education has hardly diminished during the past ten years. An important cause for this seems to be that little or no Dutch is spoken in the children's homes. In this respect, the pre-school and early-school education policy *(VVE)* (Netherlands. Ministerie van OCenW, 1998a) and integration courses, which both promote the speaking of Dutch, should show positive effects in the long term.[20]

---

[20] Legislation has recently been passed to make primary education compulsory from the age of 4.

Given the consistent disadvantage of ethnic minority groups at the start of education, the progress in their performance demonstrated by the results of the CITO tests[21] therefore appears to be mainly due to the schools. The results in these summative test scores have increased substantially between 1994 and 1998. This means that the advice which primary schools give parents concerning the most appropriate secondary education for their child tends towards greater participation in the more demanding tracks (*HAVO* and *VWO*[22]) which grant access to higher education. Recent studies have shown a particular improvement among Turkish and Moroccan girls. Moreover, the proportion of students from ethnic minority backgrounds undertaking higher education has increased, which indicates that the education policy initiatives have been successful.

However, let us not cheer too soon. Reports show that the number of pupils from minority groups who leave school prematurely is still four times larger than that of their Dutch peers. The number of ethnic pupils failing their secondary-school examinations is also 20 per cent higher. This shows that there are still too many ethnic minority pupils in lower educational tracks[23], and that the are still underrepresented in higher education. While second-generation young people, in general, perform better in secondary education than their first-generation peers, their performance still does not equal that of their Dutch peers. Because Dutch pupils have also improved their educational results, even more will have to be invested in the creation and promotion of opportunities for minority groups.

Experience with the educational policy for special needs pupils has particularly shown us that disadvantages should be tackled at as early a stage as possible. This has led to the implementation of a new, national programme of pre-school and early-school education *(VVE)* (Netherlands.

[21] These voluntary standardised tests are taken by pupils in some 60 per cent of Dutch primary schools.

[22] *HAVO*: five-year general secondary education for pupils normally aged 12-17, which grants access to higher vocational education (*HBO*). *VWO*: six-year general secondary education for students normally aged 12-18, which offers access to university education (*WO*).

[23] The *VBO* and *MAVO* tracks (sometimes combined as *VMBO*) provide four-year secondary education for students normally aged 12-16 and provide access to intermediate vocational education (*MBO*) or to Year 4 of intermediate general secondary education (*HAVO*). Alternatively, students can seek employment. It should be noted that students who leave full-time education at age 16 are required to undertake a further two years of part-time education.

Ministerie van OCenW, 1998a) whereby the Government wishes to improve the position of ethnic minority pupils at the start of primary school. This programme concentrates on language and social skills for toddlers from ethnic minority groups. A play and teaching programme has been set up, which actively involves parents and educators.

Another promising concept, which is also stimulated by the *GSB* urban policy, is the previously mentioned *Brede School* (Broad School). Poor performance in education is almost always related to social disadvantage. Care, relief and educational support can play important roles in this. The *Brede School*, which seeks to provide an integrated approach to education, guidance and support, represents a linked approach to care, welfare and socio-cultural services. The institutions responsible work together at local levels, under the direction of the local authorities. An important goal is to offer children and their parents opportunities for education, guidance and support in an easily accessible way. Another goal is to bring about greater unity between the various cultural inhabitants in a neighbourhood.

In addition to national measures, there are many local initiatives in which self-help organisations play a central role. Excellent examples of these are mentoring and tutoring projects (Crul, 2000), homework classes, courses for parents and residential-school facilities.

Although the above policy initiatives and successful projects make an important contribution to the integration of minority groups, it is of the utmost importance to guarantee access to all primary schools to pupils with an ethnic minority background. As part of this, Article 23 of the Constitution, which permits grant-aided schools to refuse admission to certain pupils on denominational grounds, is currently being reviewed. In the interest of social participation and fulfilling citizenship, founded on collective and shared responsibilities, schools should open their doors to anyone who is prepared to relate to others in a respectful manner.

International contacts

United World Colleges (UWC)
There is a common view that immigration is primarily a matter of problems and disadvantages. But it also enriches Dutch culture and society. Clear examples are the increased knowledge about other cultures, customs and eating habits, and new experiences in music, art and literature. The younger, school-going generation in particular, is growing up with an international perspective, which is further enhanced by various projects

undertaken during their schooling. In this respect, it is interesting to draw attention to the contacts in secondary education with the United World Colleges (UWC). The UWC brings young people from various cultures together, to learn from each other and to work together to create a better world. Each year, approximately two thousand pupils from 110 countries world wide are educated in ten UWC colleges, located in Wales, Canada, the United States of America, Norway, Hong Kong, Italy, India, Swaziland, Venezuela and Singapore. The UWC programme lasts two years and replaces the fifth and sixth years of pre-university secondary education (*VWO)*. The second year culminates in the International Baccalaureate, which offers access to virtually all universities and institutes of higher education in the world. UWC colleges aim to develop mutual understanding between young people from different cultures, racial backgrounds, nationalities and religions. The primary objective is to develop a sense of social responsibility. Young people from the Netherlands, including those from ethnic minority groups, participate in this project. Each year, awards are granted to secondary pupils from ethnic backgrounds and the UWC exchange is one element of these awards. The *Expertise Centrum voor allochtone leerlingen in het Hoger Onderwijs (ECHO)* (Centre of Expertise for Ethnic Students in Higher Education) also facilitates projects for ethnic pupils in secondary education, to motivate them to progress to higher education.

Metropolis

The intensive migration patterns between various countries around the world have led to numerous international studies, conferences and symposiums. Attention to new developments in knowledge, research, policy and implementation contribute to the increase in knowledge and the identification of solutions. As part of international cooperation in pluralism and integration, a large annual conference, 'Metropolis', brings together politicians, policymakers, academics and non-government organisations. The programme addresses a range of immigration and integration issues. One major objective is to develop a shared vision of a dynamic society, based on involvement and partnership. This week-long conference attracts dozens of interested parties and experts from all over the world. The sixth conference took place in Rotterdam in November 2001.

The social function of education

The image created by education and its heterogeneous population, and the policy which has been formulated around it, indicates that many lines converge in the educational system. Schools have, over the years, become autonomous organisations, that shape their own management and

outcomes. High-quality education and a good school climate are important pre-conditions. For pupils, their parents and educators, compulsory schooling forms a substantial part of daily life for many years. In addition to the acquisition of knowledge, this includes learning socially acceptable behaviour and learning to take responsibility. In principle, the prevalent school climate reflects the societal values and standards, and transmits these to learners.

Continued secularisation has brought societal values back to the educational system. In 1992, the then Minister of Education drafted a policy paper entitled: *The Moral Task of Education* (Ritzen, 1992), which drew attention to the '*joint efforts of all citizens to find a balance between freedom and individuality of citizens and the communality needed for the smooth functioning of society*'. Schools should initiate this process by making pupils aware of these values. In subsequent years, the term 'pedagogical mandate' – which meant a greater focus on social behaviour – was increasingly linked to school and education. The social aspect of daily attendance at schools and the related skills and conditions can no longer be ignored when we talk about 'good' education. In addition, society is paying increasing attention to values and standards, and their significance for individual and social functioning (Vogel, Klaassen, ten Dam and Veugelers, 1999).

The events of 11 September 2001, among others, have increased discussion of not only social, but more particularly, religious values. Current educational systems cannot ignore these developments. Given the diversity of the pupil body, every school, irrespective of its denomination, should be prepared to enter into these discussions.

Summary and perspectives

Given the central role of education in the process of emancipation and integration, high demands are being made of related policy. Policy papers pertaining to educational disadvantage and opportunities have been published in rapid succession. Many intercultural institutions and organisations are, and will continue to be, involved in their development and implementation. In future, education and knowledge will play an increasingly important role. A modern society, with a well-educated population, forms the basis of a 'knowledge economy'. Knowledge is an essential element of productivity and the engine for economic growth and employment. In the context of modern education, supply and demand will be more closely linked, as flexibility and customisation are parts of a high-

quality learning environment. An education system without modern information and communication technologies is inconceivable. The individual learner will have to devise his or her own learning process.

In the current education system, pupils face choices at an early stage. Information about schooling and careers is important to enable them to make wise choices. Choices all too often constitute obstacles for ethnic minority pupils, because they do not fully understand the options, resulting in unfavourable choices and the unnecessary extension of their secondary education.[24] A good information and guidance service would certainly help to avoid this.

Care and guidance for pupils at risk of dropping out of school will continue to demand a lot of attention. The drop-out figures among ethnic minority pupils is still too high. Education, care, and social institutions have to translate their coherent approach into a clear, social infrastructure.

Research into education systems, which underpins future policymaking, proposes an integrated policy, within which lifelong learning opportunities are created. In addition, societies become more and more knowledgeable. Future education will have to include, besides knowledge, the teaching of skills such as problem-solving, creativity, cooperation, flexibility and self-reflection. These skills will play an increasingly prominent role in a flexible and customised knowledge-economy.

The above-mentioned developments and opportunities make heavy demands on the education system. Politicians and civil servants must continuously anticipate changes in society. In addition, we must not forget that integration is a multifaceted process which does not leave the host community unaffected. Of course, a good education will offer the best chances for successful social promotion. But the neighbourhood school also plays an important social function. As a meeting place for children and parents, this is where the first contacts can be made between the various

---

[24] The Dutch secondary education system is divided into a series of 'tracks' (from highest to lowest: *VWO, HAVO, MAVO, VBO*) and students are placed in these tracks according to their academic ability. After successful completion of one of the lower tracks, it is possible to transfer into the penultimate year of the next higher track and, in this way pupils can achieve the highest level of secondary education over a longer timescale. Inappropriate choices at an early stage, whilst not totally depriving a pupil of the chance to secure the highest qualifications, may lengthen the 'route' to such a qualification.

cultural inhabitants of Dutch society. The shared expectation, namely, optimum education for their children, will bring parents from different cultures together and help create shared goals. In addition, schools and teachers have important pedagogical and didactical functions. Heterogeneity and diversity require additional skills. As a result of a much longer period of compulsory education, pupils experience school as a crucial part of their perception of the environment. In this way, the central position of the school and education will contribute significantly to social cohesion and a sense of responsibility.

GSB Urban Policy and Educational Policy: sufficient opportunities for integration?

The Netherlands has become a heterogeneous country. This has influenced all areas of society and has had consequences for politics and policy. Integration, employment and education have become increasingly important issues. It is essential for newcomers to settle into an unfamiliar society. An important part of the integration process, the learning of the Dutch language is crucial to successful education and employment. Only then will there be sufficient opportunities to make initial participation and integration successful. *Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities* (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 1998b) gave a boost to tackling the most urgent elements of the integration process. Its successor, *Integration from the Perspective of Immigration*, (Netherlands. Ministerie van BZK, 2002a) further enhanced this, by revising and strengthening certain aspects as required. It is important to recognise that the Netherlands has become a true immigration country and that policies and attitudes must change to accommodate this fact. Policies should be implemented coherently, so that the many organisations and institutions in all areas of society cooperate effectively.

GSB urban policy and integration policy are closely linked. As already mentioned: newcomers mainly converge in large cities and therefore the Government intensified its urban policies along three important lines: physical, economic and social. By means of this structure, the Government seeks to achieve an integrated policy for the future. Maintaining the link between the different 'pillars' of the *GSB* urban policy requires persistence. The key words are structure and integration, concepts which require much time and effort to implement and maintain.

However, it is clear that the present policy will only achieve the desired results if everybody concerned, both minority groups and society in general, are aware of, and willing to make, the effort required for success. That is

why programmes and projects must primarily aim at this joint responsibility and provide the resources for adjustment and innovation. A good example is the programme 'It's our neighbourhood's turn'.

Knowledge of and research into relevant areas are essential to promote the development and communication of knowledge. New developments and perspectives can be generated and tested through international contacts and joint ventures.

Education is a crucial part of the emancipation and integration process. Good schooling is essential for social progress – especially for children from second-generation minority groups. Their parents are fully aware of this. Like all parents, they want their children to develop to their full potential and obtain an economically independent position in Dutch society. This wish is realised for many young people with ethnic minority backgrounds; statistics show that second-generation ethnic minority pupils gain better school results, continue into secondary and higher education and are, slowly but surely, reaching the upper echelons of employment. However, a sizeable proportion still miss out, characterised by language deficiencies, low-level education and premature school-leaving. The cause is not simple, but has to do with a complexity of related problems.

Although the focus is still on individual cognitive development, schools are increasingly expected to play a very important social role as well. A concrete example is the 'Broad School'. These neighbourhood schools occupy a central position not only as a learning institute, but also as a meeting place and information centre.

The increase in immigration during the past few decades has not only initiated and intensified the focus on education. Teachers and school management may never before have had to be as creative and resourceful as during the past few years. Pupils who speak no Dutch, who have often had traumatic experiences or lived in poverty, make high demands on schools and higher education institutions and their staff.

Politicians and civil servants are well aware of the hindrances and obstacles of present-day life. The *GSB* urban policy intended to address these and, by crossing national frontiers through the European Community Initiative, Urban, sought support and expertise at European level. Academics and policymakers have come together on a worldwide scale to develop shared views and perceptions and, where possible, reach agreement.

In fact, the modern metropolis has become a miniature world. It is where many ethnic groups live together, often in a relatively small space and all too often in segregated neighbourhoods. But it is also a place where a great deal is happening, where a heterogeneous culture is developing and where numerous initiatives are taken.

However, much needs to be done to prevent substantial segregation in the future. The Government will have to make decisions, based on appropriate knowledge and in continuous consultation with local authorities and all parties involved. The events of 11 September 2001 have intensified discussions about standards and values. Undoubtedly, these will influence the processes of integration and acculturation. More than ever, it is of the utmost importance that people interrelate, learn from each other and continue to respect one another. The neighbourhood school can play an important social role in this. Parents all over the world share the same goal: good social and intellectual development for their children. Current education policy places the child, in all his/her diversity, in a central position. From this starting point, a continuous line of development is drawn. Customisation and flexibility will remain important goals. Politicians and civil servants are aware of the complexity this involves. Disadvantage has proved very persistent, requiring continuous policy efforts. In addition, new immigrants, with similar problems, continue to arrive.

However, history has shown that social developments take years. Integration is a similar process, comparable with trying to fix a moving train. Many interventions determine the final course. From this perspective, the Government will, on the one hand, have to continue to offer opportunities to facilitate integration. On the other hand, Dutch society will have to continue to develop the knowledge, attitudes and skills to make integration successful.

References

Christelijk Pedagogisch Studiecentrum (CPS) (2001). *Cultural Minorities and Education.* Amersfoort: CPS.

Crul, M. (2000). *De Sleutel tot Succes. Over Hulp, Keuzes en Kansen in Schoolloopbanen van Turkse en Marokkaanse Jongeren van de Tweede Generatie.* Amsterdam: Het Spinhuis. [The Key to Success. Concerning Help, Options and Opportunities in Schooling for Second-Generation Turkish and Moroccan Youth.]

Du Bois-Reymond, M., te Poel, Y. and Ravesloot, J. (1998). *Jongeren en hun Keuzes.* Bussum: Coutinho B.V. [Young people and their choices.]

Inspectie Van Het Onderwijs (2001). *Onderwijsverslag over het Jaar 2000.* Utrecht: Inspectie van het Onderwijs. [Education Report for the Year 2000.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (1982). *Minderhedennota, Minderhedenbeleid 1982-1983.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Minorities Note, Minorities Policy 1982-1983.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (1993). *Schevenings Akkoord.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Schevening Agreement.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (1994). *Contourennota: Integratiebeleid Ethnische Minderheden.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Integration Policy Ethnic Minority Groups.]

Netherlands. Council for Societal Development (1998a). *Integratie in Perspectief.* Den Haag: Ministerie van Volksgezondheid, Welzijn en Sport (VWS). [Integration in Perspective.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (1998b). *Nota Kansen Krijgen Kansen Pakken Integratiebeleid 1999-2002,* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Policy paper: Receiving Opportunities, Taking Opportunities, Integration Policy 1999-2002.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (1999). *Bestuursakkoord Nieuwe Stijl. Overheden over Toekomst.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Government Agreement New Style. Authorities Discuss the Future.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (2001). *Rapportage Integratiebeleid Etnische Minderheden 2000.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Report on Policy for Integration of Ethnic Minorities 2000.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (2002a). *Integratie in het Perspectief van Immigratie.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (2002b). *Tussenstand GSB 1994–2002.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Interim Report on Urban Policy 1994-2002.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties. Grotestedenbeleid voor European Council of Barcelona. (2002c). *Nederlands Standpunt voor de Europese Raad van Barcelona.* Den Haag: Ministerie van BZK. [Dutch position paper for the European Council of Barcelona.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen (1982). *Onderwijsvoorrangsbeleid.* Zoetermeer: Ministerie van OCenW. [Policy for Positive Discrimination in Education.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen (1998a). *Beleidskader Onderwijskansenbeleid, Landelijk Beleidskader 2002–2006.*

Zoetermeer: Ministerie van OCenW. [Outlines for the Educational Opportunities Policy, National Framework 2002–2006.]

Netherlands. Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschappen (1998). *Voor- en Vroegschoolse Educatie* or *VVE*. Zoetermeer: Ministerie van OCenW. [Pre- and Early School Education.]

Netherlands Parliament. (1998b). *Wet: Inburgering Nieuwkomers*, 1998. Den Haag: SDU. [Newcomers Integration Act.]

Netherlands Parliament. (1998c). *Wet: SAMEN* 1998. Den Haag: SDU. ['Together' Act.]

Ritzen, J. (1992). *De Pedagogische Opdracht van het Onderwijs*. Zoetermeer: Ministerie van OCenW. [The Moral Task of Education.]

Raad voor Maatschappelijke Ontwikkeling (1998). *Integratie in Perspectief.* Den Haag: RMO. [Integration in Perspective.]

Sociaal En Cultureel Planbureau. (2001). *Vorderingen op School Rapportage Minderheden 2001.* Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau. [School Results, Minorities Report 2001.]

Van Boxtel, R.H.L.M. (2001). *Van tweeën één. Eenakter.* Amsterdam: New Dutch Theater Cosmic [Two into one. One-act play.]

Verweij, A.O. and Goezinne, B. (1995). *Jaarboek 1995 Grote Stedenbeleid.* Rotterdam: Instituut voor Sociologisch-Economisch Onderzoek. [Year Book 1995 Urban Policy.]

Veugelers, W. and. Zijlstra, H. (2001). *Leren in het stuDiehuis.* Leuven–Apeldoorn: Garant. [Learning in the Study House.]

Vogel, L., Klaassen, C., Ten Dam, G. And Veugelers, W. (1999). *Pedagogische Waarden in het Basisonderwijs.* Amsterdam: Instituut voor de Leraren Opleiding Universiteit van Amsterdam. [Pedagogic Values in Primary Education.]

Vogel, L. and Veugelers, W. (2000). *Culturele en Kunstzinnige Vorming als Vak in HAVO en VWO*. Amsterdam: Instituut voor de Leraren Opleiding Universiteit van Amsterdam. [Values in Secondary Education.]

Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid (1979). *Etnischne Minderheden.* Den Haag: WRR. [Ethnic Minorities.]

Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid (1990). *Allochtonenbeleid*. Den Haag: WRR. [Immigrant Policy.]

Relations between Swedish society and schools with children from other ethnic and linguistic backgrounds

María Borgström

Background

The first immigrants to arrive in Sweden came from countries with similar cultures, such as Finland and the other Baltic countries. The Walloons, who arrived in the 17th century, were Calvinists, the Jews came from Central Europe and the Gypsies were always a marginal group. The last significant invasion of Sweden took place in 1718, when the Russians made incursions along the Swedish coasts and settled in small towns. However, they never managed to take Stockholm.

Immigration to Sweden never gave rise to internal changes. Official policy in Sweden has always been one religion, one administration and one law.

After the Second World War, and especially in the 1960s, immigrants were mainly workers, from Turkey, the former Yugoslavia, Italy, Greece and Spain. At that time, the most important thing was to begin working immediately; Swedish could be learned afterwards.

From the 1970s, immigration acquired a different character and Sweden received many political exiles and war refugees, usually from non-European countries. Hence, the differences between the latter exiles and the Swedish community have become even greater. At the same time, according to Andreas Carlgren, General Director of the *Integrationsverket* (Swedish Integration Board), immigrants have come to be seen as a special group which has to be integrated and for whom learning Swedish is important, since without a command of the language, there is no possibility of finding work nor of integration (Carlgren, 2002).

In December 1997, the population of Sweden reached 7,893,394 inhabitants, of whom 954,231 had been born in another country (Statens Invandrarverk, 1997). If those born in Sweden with one or two immigrant parents are included, today's figure rises to 1,700,000 (see Figure 1). This

means that five per cent of the population of Sweden, and around 11 per cent of the pupils in Swedish schools, have another native language

Figure 1 Swedish population in 2001
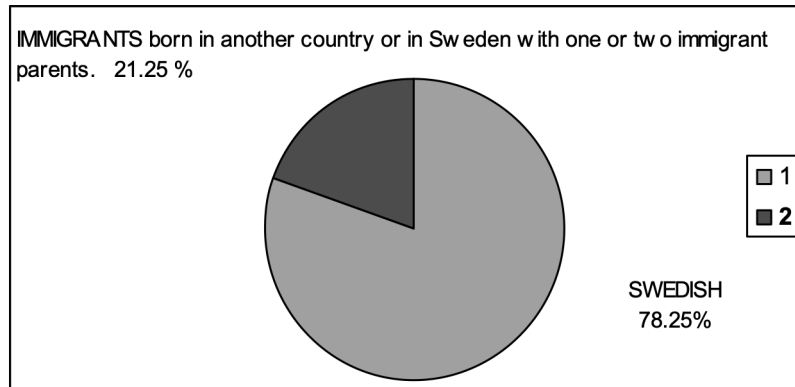
Source: Integrationsverket, 2001a.

The Swedish state had to respond to this situation by laying down regulations to govern Swedish schools. In 1975, the Swedish Parliament therefore presented the objectives of Swedish immigration policy: equality, freedom of choice, and cooperation, which were reflected as the political principles to be adopted for the education of immigrants (Socialdepartementet, 1974, p. 69) The official objectives of Swedish immigration policy from 1975 until 1997 were as follows:

...Immigrants or exiles arriving in Sweden with another language or culture must learn Swedish in order to participate and function in society.

The objective of 'equality' means that immigrants and exiles have the right to training in Swedish in order to have access to education, to the media and to Swedish culture, thereby guaranteeing them a participation in society that is not differentiated from that of Swedish people.

Thanks to state subsidies, immigrants and exiles and their children will, likewise, have the opportunity to develop their original language, undertake cultural activities, and maintain contact with their countries of origin; these rights are to be completely comparable to those of the majority society.

The objective 'freedom of choice or right of choice' means that immigrants themselves may chose the degree to which they wish to maintain and develop their culture of origin and their linguistic identity.

The objective of 'cooperation' intends, through education and information, to increase understanding on the part of Swedish society of people from other cultures, in order to facilitate an interaction of community interests between foreigners and the rest of society. A reciprocity of objectives is hereby obviously striven for.
(Socialdepartementet, 1974, p. 69)

This policy gave rise to clear indications that cultural and linguistic diversity was desirable. These three objectives were complemented with a specific objective aimed at schools, which was that of *active bilingualism* (Sweden. Parliament, 1976, p. 118). Pupils were offered training in their native language and in Swedish as a second language.

In 1994, the Swedish government nominated a committee to carry out a sweeping and in-depth assessment of immigration policy. It focused on the knowledge of Swedish on the part of pupils with a different linguistic and ethnic background, given that alarming reports had been received describing the lack of this knowledge, in particular among pupils from multicultural urban areas. The committee also studied aspects related to education (Socialdepartementet, 1996) and proposed that:

- subsequent immigration policy be exclusively directed at recently arrived immigrants, with the objective of securing integration, with an induction process lasting for five years

- the necessary steps be taken within general social policy, to achieve integration

- both immigration and general policies take ethnic, linguistic and cultural diversity into account

- subsequent policy be more clearly based on the concept of the immigrant as an independent individual, with his/her own resources and ability to take on responsibilities.

As general guidelines for immigration, as well as for general policy towards all those entitled to live in Sweden, the committee proposed:

- self-support
- joint participation in and responsibility for the activity of society regardless of cultural and social background.

The new immigration policy gave rise to changes in the reception of immigrants. 'Programmes of introduction and programmes on individual plans of introduction' were offered (Socialdepartementet, 1996, p. 316). Schools emphasised learning Swedish, and Swedish as a second language was recognised as an academic subject.

Proposition SOU 1996 (Socialdepartementet, 1996, p. 55) refers to Sweden as a multicultural society, due to the large numbers of people of different cultural, ethnic and social backgrounds who have arrived in Sweden in recent decades. This proposal holds that Sweden's general policy as a multicultural society should reflect and provide opportunities, for those who wish to do so, to develop and maintain a culture other than that of the majority. None the less,

> the state has the historic responsibility to protect Swedish culture ... and Swedish is the common language for all those living in Sweden....The responsibility for deciding how other cultural heritages are to be made available, developed and passed on to successive generations, is left in the hands of the individuals themselves. (Socialdepartementet, 1996, p. 353)

On the basis of two reports, (Socialdepartementet, 1983a and Socialdepartementet, 1983b), the Swedish Parliament decided in 1985 that Swedish schools were to be characterised by a multicultural outlook.

In 1986, the highest educational authority, the Swedish Board of Education (*Skolöverstyrelsen* (*SÖ*), predecessor of the *Skolverket,* or National Agency for Education), along with the then National Institute for Didactic Material (*Statens Institut för Läromedeln, SIL*), presented a brief brochure entitled *Interkulturell synsätt i undervisning och läromedel* (SÖ and SIL, 1986) (Intercultural Perspective in Education and Didactic Material), which pointed out the different ways of benefiting from the multicultural reality of schools and of society.

The term *intercultural* is defined as the *process* by which people with different languages and cultures influence each other, whereas *multicultural* refers to a *state.* Today's intercultural education:

- involves all pupils

- is not an academic subject, but rather a way of relating to one another to be applied in all subjects

- should characterise all school activities

- generates possibilities for mutual understanding in the classroom, school and neighbourhood

- commences a process of solidarity among the groups within Swedish society and takes a step towards international solidarity.

The intercultural perspective is to be found in syllabuses from 1991 onwards, when the *Skolverket* (National Agency for Education) took over responsibility for school development (Skolverket, 2001a).

Teachers play a crucial role in fostering international understanding, as well as respect and tolerance towards others. There are many pupils who, either personally or through friends, have close contacts with other countries and cultures and teachers are to take advantage of this opportunity. It should also be remembered that, when pupils feel secure with regard to their own culture, they may share their knowledge with others and acquire the habit of accepting other cultures.

Also worthy of mention is that in 1999, on the basis of two reports (Socialdepartementet, 1997a and Socialdepartementet, 1997b), the Swedish Parliament ruled that national minorities and their languages were to be recognised and that support was to be given to these languages in order to avoid their extinction. The groups referred to are: Lapps, Finns, the Tornedalen group, Gypsies and Jews. Minority languages are: Saami, Finnish, meän kieli, Romany and Hebrew. Initiatives were therefore undertaken to achieve this aim.

In 2000, there were 360,300 children between the ages of one and five registered in the pre-school education programmes in nursery schools. 41,200 of these children, that is to say 8.7 per cent, had another native language, but only 12 per cent of these children received support in their native language. This marks a decrease of 13 per cent compared with the previous year, and the difference is even more significant in comparison with 1990, when 57 per cent of children were receiving support. In 1998, only 18 per cent received such training, and the present figure is even lower (see Figure 2).

Figure 2 Children with pre-school support in their native language
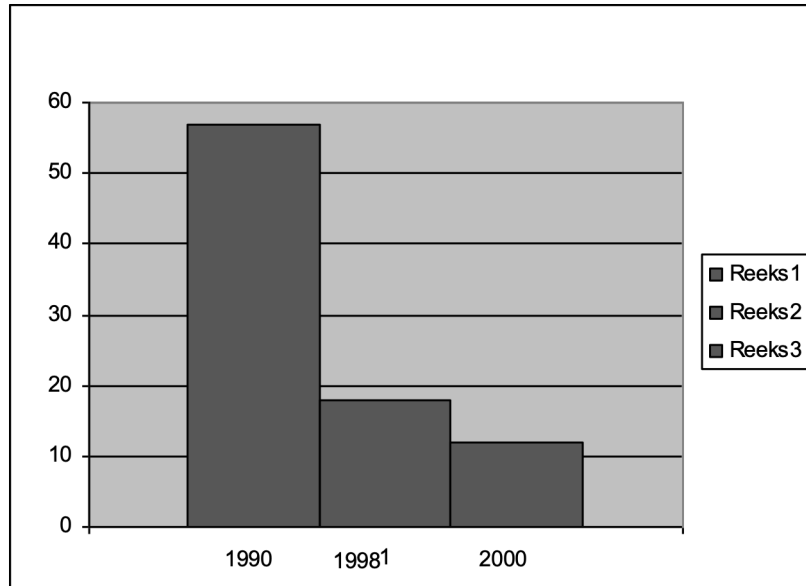
Source: Skolverket, 2001a

In 2000/2001, 107,505 pupils were registered in the pre-school education programme provided in schools for six-year-olds, of which 11.1 per cent spoke a language other than Swedish. Of these, 4.3 per cent received support in their native language with scant variation to be observed in this figure over the previous year (Skolverket, 2001b)

In the same year, 1,051,929 pupils were registered in basic education (*Grundskola*, which caters for 7 – 16 year olds). 125,000 of them were entitled to participate in training in their native language, representing 11.9 per cent of the total. Although the percentage of pupils entitled to receive training in their native language remained steady during the past ten years, the number availing themselves of the possibility has decreased drastically. The groups witnessing the greatest decrease in participation are Finnish and Turkish, that is, the two groups who have become most settled within Swedish society. Whereas in 1990/1991, 65 per cent of those entitled to training took advantage of the opportunity, the figure was 53 per cent for 1998/1999 (see Figure 3). The same could be said about the teaching of Swedish for foreigners.

Figure 3 Pupils receiving native language training in basic education
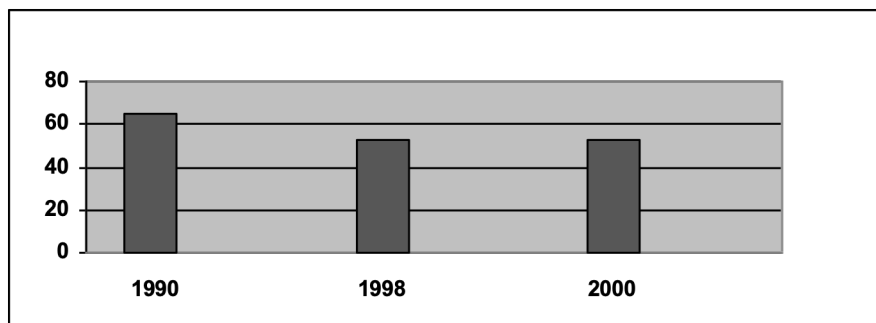
Source: Skolverket, 2001b

The most recent statistical data regarding the number of pupils speaking a language other than Swedish at secondary school level refers to 1994/95, when six per cent were entitled to training in their native language. The figures for those who took this opportunity are 47 per cent in 1991/1992 and 37 per cent in 1994/95 (see Figure 4).

Figure 4 Pupils receiving native language training in secondary school
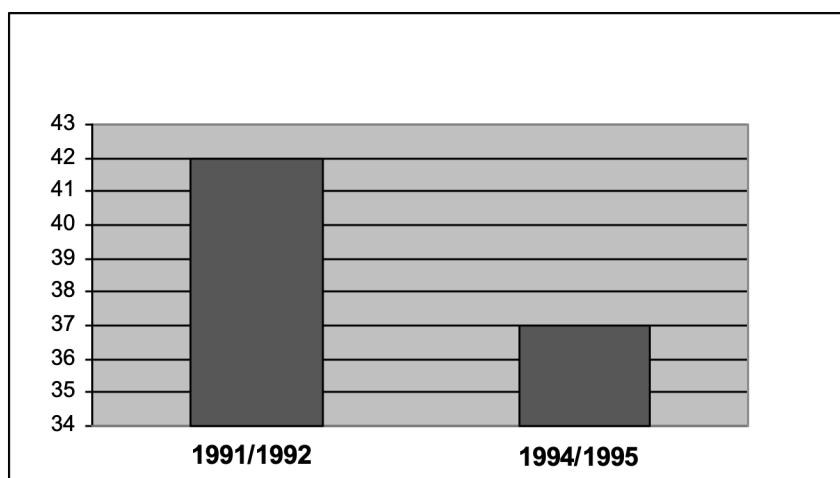
Source: Skolverket, 2001a

The ten most commonly spoken native languages in Swedish schools, from highest to lowest and in proportion to the total number of pupils for 2001/2002, are: Arabic, 1.8 per cent; Bosnian, Croatian and Serbian 1.3 per cent; Finnish 1.1 per cent; Spanish 0.9 per cent; Albanian 0.7 per cent; Persian 0.6 per cent; English 0.5 per cent; Kurdish, Polish and Turkish 0.4 per

cent. The remaining 121 languages account for 4.4 per cent and there are 306 pupils with unspecified languages (see Figure 5).

Figure 5 Most commonly spoken languages in schools, other than Swedish
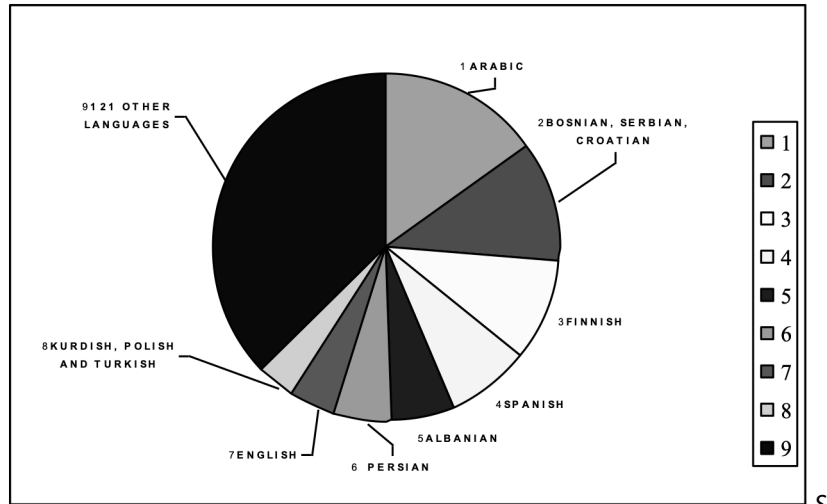
ource: Skolverket (2002c) Table 3,8 B

All these figures make it clear that schools themselves had to make preparations to respond to the presence of exiled[25] and other children who have a non-Swedish ethnic and linguistic background, with both of these groups being increasingly represented in Swedish schools.

The *Skolverket* (2002a) stipulates that children with an ethnic and linguistic background other than Swedish are entitled to primary education integrated with their Swedish classmates, as well as to mother tongue classes. Adults with permission to be in Sweden are entitled to communal education in Swedish for foreigners.

Pre-school children with a non-Swedish ethnic and linguistic background are entitled to receive support in their native language, which is to be provided several hours a week through *attention to childhood* (in nursery schools) and *infant education* (in schools). These programmes will allow them to develop their language and to foster their identity.
Non-Swedish children in primary school are entitled:

---

[25] Defined as those who have left their country due to fear of persecution owing to their race, nationality, religious faith or political position.

- to learn *Swedish as a second language* as another school subject. The goal of this training is to help pupils develop the Swedish language as a means of communication in their daily lives and as a tool for acquiring knowledge during the school learning process.

- (if they have not yet received permission to stay in Sweden) to receive training in Swedish as a second language, along with training in their native language, mathematics, natural and social sciences. They may also take part in gym and art classes.

- to learn their *native language* as a subject and to receive *'study support'* in their native language.

The goal of native language training is to help pupils develop a strong sense of self-confidence and to foster their development as bilingual individuals with a dual identity and cultural capacity, that is, to offer knowledge regarding their cultural and society of origin and thus to contribute to the development of that culture.

This education is organised differently, depending on the communes. The communes are obliged to provide native language training, which is provided in more than 100 languages.

Participation in native language training is optional, the decision and the request being made by the parents. It is offered to:

- all pupils speaking a language other than Swedish at home

- pupils speaking a minority language, even when it is not their everyday language, and

- adopted children who, for obvious reasons, do not speak their language in their new homes.

Pupils who study their native language outside schools time are entitled to seven years' training. Unfortunately, the majority of municipal councils have not implemented this law.

Pupils in secondary school may study Swedish as a second language, which grants them the same possibility of going on to university as if they had studied Swedish as their first language.

Secondary school pupils with limited knowledge of Swedish may choose 'the individual programme', whereby they may broaden their knowledge of other languages, as well as of mathematics, social or natural studies. This training prepares them subsequently to participate in certain national programmes.

Newly arrived adults over the age of 16 are entitled to training in Swedish for Foreigners (SFI), organised in the municipalities. The goal is to provide adults with knowledge of Swedish so that they may become active members of society.

Attention to childhood, infant education and schooling are regulated by *regulatory documents*. All educational activity is regulated by school law and by education plans. Existing documents define the number of hours to be spent on each subject as well as the academic year programmes. The latter are referred to as *national regulatory documents* and as such comprise a regulatory framework. None the less, the freedom of municipalities and schools to *define activities, the school plan and the work plan* is to be as broad as possible.

Implementation

The implementation of the above policies may be divided into two periods or eras, the first from the mid 1970s until the beginning of the 1990s, and the second from the beginning of the 1990s until the present day. These two eras correspond to differing policies regarding the education of foreign or refugee children.

During the 1970s, the majority of foreign pupils were in mainstream Swedish classrooms, which led to teaching difficulties. Controversial ideas arose at the end of the 1970s regarding linguistic planning in bilingual education, given that the goal was to foster pupils' active bilingualism. Supporters of native language classes, included Hanson (1982), Skutnab-Kangas (1981) and Lasonen and Toukomaa (1978); opponents included Löfgren (1981) and Ekstrand (1979a, 1979b, 1981).

The divergences were based on differing opinions regarding the way to learn one or more languages and whether or not to preserve identity.

Skutnab-Kangas (1981) holds that children should learn their native language before being exposed to another. Meanwhile, Ekstrand (1979a and 1979b), whose views the author shares in this matter, states that a child can learn two

or more languages at the same time. Ekstrand does not deny the importance of the language learned during the early years of life (L1) in the learning of a second language (L2). The EPÅL project (Holmstrand, 1978) demonstrated that the learning of a second language at an early stage is not harmful, as had been previously thought.

In his books, *Bilingualism or Semi-lingualism?* (Hansegård, 1972) and *Semi-lingualism or Bilingualism?* (Hansegård, 1975), Hansegård holds that bilingualism leads to a situation whereby the child speaks neither of the languages correctly. Consequently, the ideas of Skutnab-Kangas (1981) were heeded, and the beginning of the 1980s marked the opening of day care centres divided by languages. Turkish children attend some centres, Greeks others, and so on with the remaining languages. The same distinction was made in schools preparing to receive the various language groups. Turkish, Greek, Finnish and Spanish speakers were subsequently taught in native language classes or in shared classes.[26]

The principal role of language is to enable the individual to communicate with others in the surroundings. Language is also the instrument with which we analyse and understand reality and plan our activities. It is important to enable a child growing up with a minority language to develop his/her own language, as well as to learn a second language.

Bratt-Paulston (1983), who assessed bilingual education models, states the following regarding bilingualism:

> *When the goal is for pupils to maintain their native language at a level approaching the national standard but at the expense of their Swedish, native language classes should be chosen for them. Where the goal is for pupils to attain a good level of Swedish, without doubt at the expense of not maintaining a good level of their native language, Swedish classes with support in Swedish are to be selected for these pupils. When the*

---

[26] In native language classes, all pupils have the same native language and receive education in this language in the same way as a Swedish child does in Swedish. Half of the pupils of shared classes are Swedish, while the other half have a common language other than Swedish. All subjects are initially taught in the native language, and the number of hours in Swedish gradually increases until, in the seventh grade (age 13), all teaching is provided in Swedish. This type of class may be offered for a maximum of six years of primary school for all language groups except Finnish, for which classes in the native language have been organised on a trial basis during the first three years of primary school in some municipalities.

goal is to achieve bilingual pupils, shared classes are to be chosen. (Bratt-Paulston, 1983, p. 52)

Bratt-Paulston's work contributed to the debate by holding that Sweden did not distinguish between language sciences and linguistic policy. The debate regarding bilingual models was carried out in academic terms by researchers, who were neither politically empowered, nor capable of reaching an agreement on such a complex issue.

Virta (1994) sums up the debate as follows: '*instead of giving rise to clear ideas to serve as a basis for resolving educational policy, the debate contributed to creating insecurity among politicians, school staff and the parents of immigrant children*' (Virta, 1994, p. 14).

At the beginning of the 1990s, Virta (1994) observed that both models may succeed in Swedish schools, but that there is insufficient scientific knowledge of important issues, such as identity and emotional development, or questions related to the environment in which immigrants develop and the opportunities for their integration.

The 1975 (Socialdepartementet, 1974) policy called for a plan for linguistic and cultural conservation within an identifying undertone of integration.

1987 marked the beginning of a policy for change, which led to the assimilation of pupils. The official line was held until 1997 but, in practice, the change was only gradually carried out.

Educational and curricular reforms in the 1990s were subsequently linked to the integration policy. At that time, the idea was that children learning their native language would not learn Swedish well. Emphasis was placed on learning Swedish, and Swedish as a second language was given the status of an academic subject. Moreover, the significance accorded to the teaching of native languages lessened from 1975, when state subsidies for this purpose were eliminated and stricter conditions for its provision were set down. Support had initially been offered to all but, from 1990, only those pupils using the native language daily at home were entitled to receive it, and school groups had to comprise a minimum of five pupils (Skolverket, 2002b).

Decentralisation meant that municipalities and municipal districts had devolved responsibility for schools and each school could define itself in the manner which it deemed most suitable.

The background to this state of affairs is that, in the 1990s, Sweden went through a period of economic and structural crisis, during which the stability to which the Swedish were so accustomed disappeared. There were many unemployed, and large companies went bankrupt. Many of the previously available resources no longer existed. This unaccustomed uncertainty led to a greater marginalisation of foreigners. Structural changes required savings to be made at all levels.

Many so-called 'independent' schools sprang up under private initiative during this period. These schools have a wide range of characteristics, but those of interest with regard to children with an ethnic and linguistic background other than Swedish, are those which granted priority to maintaining cultural heritages, not so much from the point of view of language, but through religion and culture. Examples are Islamic schools[27] and Finnish schools.[28]

The existence of these schools led to a conflict of values among the Ministry of Education, the national syllabuses and the schools. This conflict arose between the obligation, on the one hand, to foster cultural heritage and, on the other, to integrate pupils into Swedish society, which required them to receive the same education as Swedish children.

Furthermore, the responsibility for schools had been devolved and principals were now in charge of how resources were to be used. The manner in which native languages and Swedish were to be taught therefore depended on the principals' knowledge concerning children with an ethnic and linguistic background other than Swedish. Hence, in urban areas, where foreign children represent over 60 per cent of school pupils, we find examples such as the Rinkeby School, which has received international prizes for the way in which it has integrated children into society. It started off as a school with many discipline problems, but thanks to parental participation and the integration of neighbourhood activities, it has become a conflict-free school. Furthermore, four specific programmes offer young people with a different ethnic and cultural background the opportunity to become competent within Swedish society. However, integration is not carried out by means of a bilingual or bicultural model, but rather by

---

[27] Between 1992 and 1998, 22 Islamic schools were allowed to open. They were defined as general, seven confessional, three non-confessional Islamic, and others with emphasis on language and culture.
[28] Finnish is one of the national minority languages of Sweden, having been accepted as such since 1999. There are a limited number of bilingual Finnish/Swedish classes.

offering training in more than 20 native languages and providing permanent native language teachers. This does not occur in many schools in other municipalities.

That is to say, a similar evolution has not taken place in schools with respect to the education of children with an ethnic and linguistic background other than Swedish. The number of children receiving support in their native language in nursery schools has decreased by more than 43 per cent since 1990. The same may be said of primary schools, with a fall of 12 per cent. Statistics are no longer provided for the participation of secondary school pupils in native language learning (Skolverket, 2001a, 2001b and 2002b). The fall is due to the abolition of state resources for these purposes, to the fact that municipalities are free to determine whether they provide this training, and to the necessity to reduce state expenses. All the foregoing indicates that efforts over recent years have been principally directed towards the teaching of Swedish and to questions related to bilingualism. There are the so-called *Handlingsplan för Skolverkets Arbete med Frågor om Elever med Invandrarbakgrund* (*HINVA* – Action Plans of the National Agency for Education Regarding Pupils of Foreign Background)[29], which support themes such as School and Cultural Diversity (under the responsibility of the Institute for Literature of the University of Lund), the Social Networks and Linguistic Competence of Pupils with a Language Other than Swedish (under the responsibility of the Centre for Bilingualism of the University of Stockholm) or The Secondary School as a Cultural Powderkeg: How Children from Different Ethnic Groups see Themselves and Others (under the responsibility of the Institute of Pedagogy of the University of Gothenburg).

With regard to didactic material, the Swedish National School Board (Skolöverstyrelsen or *SÖ*), along with the then National Institute for Didactic Material (*Statens Institut för Läromedeln* or *SIL*) drew up material in 20 languages from 1975 to 1991. The *Metoder och Material för Undervisning av Elever med Invandrarbakgrund* Project (MINV), now comprising 20 sub-projects (MINV, 1997), was created in order to support the development of methods and material for use in teaching pupils belonging to national minorities or pupils of foreign origin by using their native language or Swedish.

---

[29] The HINVA Project (*Handlingsplan för Skolverkets Arbete med Frågor om Elever med Invandrarbakgrund*) was carried out between 1993 and 2000. The report is not published.

In 1991, responsibility for this matter passed to the *Skolverket*, which continued developing projects aimed at the Persian, Syrian, Kurdish and Somali groups. That is to say, it currently focuses almost exclusively on exiled children, for whom it is difficult to find any type of material. Such material is produced on a small scale and encounters difficulties in reaching the schools.

Native language teaching is carried out in 60 languages. In most cases, the teaching material is imported from the countries of origin. However, a great problem arises in so far as the material is not adapted to the pupils' reality in Sweden. Not only do the contents often differ with respect to values, but also as to perceptions of the world. This situation requires mother tongue teachers to have a broad knowledge of the Swedish school and society in order to adapt the materials. There are complementary materials for some languages, such as games, books, poems, magazines, scientific books, etc., but they are generally to be found in libraries or neighbourhoods with a large number of foreign or exiled families. Many families now have access to the Internet, television and radio in their native language, all of which contribute to maintaining their mother tongue.

The *Skolverket* has drawn up a dictionary called *Lexin*, which is on the Internet in English and Spanish, as well in print in 20 languages. This dictionary compiles concepts related to the experience of living in Sweden which are difficult to translate. The aim is for children of a non-Swedish ethnic and/or linguistic background to have access to these concepts.

The results of evaluations made by the *Skolverket* show that, after taking into account any differences arising from social origin, foreign pupils, as well as those of foreign origin born in Sweden, leave primary school without having a satisfactory grade in all subjects or with a lower average grade than their Swedish peers. With regard to secondary schools, pupils of foreign origin obtain a grade enabling them to enter the university less frequently than Swedish pupils. 84 per cent of Swedish pupils reached the necessary level in 1999, compared with 75 per cent of pupils of foreign origin. That is not to say that there are no pupils of foreign origin who obtain good results. Twelve per cent of pupils participating in the natural sciences programme were from this group; 12 per cent of this group obtained a 'very good' or 'excellent' grade (Skolverket, 2001a).

Furthermore, the *Skolverket* has requested the Centre for Research into Bilingualism of the University of Stockholm to carry out research projects. One project, carried out in 1995, studied whether young people (both

foreign and Swedish) who had finished *grundskol* seven years previously were still in education or had joined the labour market. In general terms, fewer pupils of foreign origin were continuing their secondary and university studies. This is the case of the Turkish and Finnish. However, there were groups, such as the Greeks and Iranians, who went on to university to a greater extent than the Swedes. It is noteworthy that those pupils who had continuously participated in studies in their native language felt more biculturally integrated. That is to say, they felt a strong sense of belonging both to the Swedish culture and to their culture of origin. Another study, by Veli Tuomela (Skolverket, 1996), shows that pupils who have continuously participated in education in their native language obtained good grades in Swedish, English and mathematics.

Other problems which were discussed relate to the integration of pupils of foreign origin in employment after finishing school and the crime rate of young people living in ethnically 'segregated' neighbourhoods.

Based on two research studies, *Entrance to the Market of Young Immigrants* and *The Life Project of Youths with School as their Field of Action*, Goldstein-Kyaga (1999) finds that when speaking of segregated neighbourhoods, one uses as a point of departure a homogeneous cultural norm in which there is no place for diversity. Both in academic and public debate, there is a tendency to consider the propensity of people of the same ethnic origin to group together in neighbourhoods as something negative.

There is no general tendency in Sweden for ethnic groups to concentrate into a sort of 'China Town', as in American cities. Residential segregation takes place in Sweden when a large number of nationalities concentrate in a neighbourhood alongside a large group of Swedes with social problems (Socialdepartementet, 1997c). As Molina (1997) shows, there are none the less some groups who do tend to concentrate in certain zones. She points out that 80 per cent of Kurdish pupils are concentrated in the district of Fittja and 80 per cent of Syrian pupils in the district of Norsborg, which both belong to the commune of Botkyrka.

Goldstein-Kyaga's (1999) research did not discover anything to indicate that ethnic concentration was the cause of integration problems for young immigrants. What this research does point out is that many studies start off by researching groups with inherent problems which are not necessarily linked to their place of residence. Borgström (1998) shows that Spanish-speaking youths living in marginal neighbourhoods such as Rinkeby – a multicultural zone on the outskirts of Stockholm – feel secure within the

neighbourhood, given that they do not feel marginalised there, but rather part of the neighbourhood. This serves as a springboard for them to carry on in society.

There is discrimination at the workplace, more specifically against first-generation immigrants than against their children. There are also groups of foreigners who have not had to make their way in the (Swedish) work market because, on finishing school, they start work with their parents in ethnic labour networks (Goldstein-Kyaga, 1999).

Until now, Sweden has been a model of tolerance and an example of a country which has received exiles and refugees with open arms. Today, the doors are being closed to many and there are some parts of society who hope that the Government will change the law and accept as refugees only those fulfilling the conditions of the Geneva Convention.

The foregoing, along with a lack of knowledge, lead the average Swede, and employees to consider a foreigner as someone who is depriving them of job opportunities. Racist outbreaks have taken place in various places.

Society is willing to accept 'exotic foods', some types of clothing that seem suitable, and certain original dances, but always provided that their influence on society can be controlled. Swedish society only accepts new things which seem interesting and are not beyond its control.

This means that each cultural ethnic group may exist, as long as it keeps its culture to itself or restricts its relationships to other ethnic minorities.

This is perhaps a logical reaction, in so far as individuals always tend to enjoy that which belongs and is familiar to them. Hence it is important to find and know oneself, in order to avoid the prejudices that we all have when faced with that which is unknown and strange.

Integration in Sweden has failed on several points, if the proposal of 1997, which aspired to a rapid integration, is taken into account. Many immigrants have problems finding work; according to Carlgren (2002), this is due, on the one hand, to the system of receiving and integrating immigrants and, on the other, to conscious or unconscious discrimination on the part of employers. According to the *Kommunernas Mångfaldsarbete* report of autumn 2001 (Integrationsverket, 2001b), only one out of every five municipalities has a central multicultural policy and only 14 per cent have a plan for increasing ethnic diversity. This suggests that a multicultural policy,

whereby the right to be different is aspired to within a culturally and linguistically plural society, is not seen as a clear ideological aim.

Carlgren (2002) holds that a joint effort is called for to achieve suitable integration. A proposal therefore exists for greater cooperation between all the agencies concerned with foreigners, such as the National Migration Board (*Migrationsverket*), the National Agency for Education (*Skolverket*), the National Labour Market Administration (*Arbetsmarknadsstyrelsen*) and the Association of Local Authorities (*Kommunförbundet*).

There are other proposals under discussion. Firstly, on 15 May 2002, the National Agency for Education presented a report to the Swedish Government which proposes the following:

- that municipalities be required to provide *support for native language learning* at the pre-school level for children from the age of one, if parents so desire

- that recently arrived refugees and other pupils with a mother tongue other than Swedish, who have difficulty in following education in Swedish, be entitled to receive native language training while they are learning Swedish

- that more points be awarded to secondary-age pupils taking part in mother tongue language learning

- that teaching staff receive opportunities for training to work with multicultural groups, given that since 1987, there has been no *specific* training for teachers to help non-Swedish speakers in their class in either initial or in-service training for teaching staff at pre-school or school level. In autumn 2001, for the first time, the Higher Institute of Södertorn introduced a university programme with an intercultural profile for secondary teachers.

Secondly, Mona Sahlin, Minister for Integration Issues, proposes 'positive labour discrimination' that is to say, if two people (one Swedish and the other of foreign origin) request the same job and have the same merits, the job is to be given to the foreigner (*Svenska Dagbladet*, 14 May 2002).

These new proposals aim to foster the immigrant's adaptation to society. There is no declared minority policy expressing itself openly in favour of multiculturalism (the maintenance of languages and cultures) or of assimilation. A report presented to the National Education Council

(Skolverket, 2002b) states that linguistic plurality, that is, the knowledge of several languages, is a resource for Sweden. However, the overall policy is of a 'pseudo-pluralist' nature which leads, in the long term, to assimilation. Sweden is defined as a multicultural society in so far as there are residents from many ethnics groups. However, there is no ideological aim or a clear definition of multiculturalism. Lahdenperä (1997) expresses the same point of view:

> *Sweden is officially, and continues to be, a monocultural and monolingual country, with a dominant Swedish culture and the so-called 'immigrant cultures'. Official documents exist which describe Swedish society as multicultural, although it is not clear what multiculturalism is. (*Lahdenperä, 1997, p. 164*)*

The same may be said of the integration policy. There is mention of structural integration, that is, social and employment integration. However, there is no mention of cultural or linguistic integration. In this way, evaluation may be conducted more easily and an open discussion of the issue avoided.

According to the *Samarbestorgan för Etniska Organisation i Sverige* (*SIOS –* Cooperation Group for Immigrant Organisations in Sweden) and its plan for political action, multiculturalism may only be achieved within a process of integration which involves cooperation between the majority society and the minority groups. Achievement of this aim requires a clear policy which safeguards the human right to be a minority and to have this status respected by other groups in society.

References

Borgström, M. (1998). Estar en Medio. Como jóvenes Hispanohablantes en Suecia perciben las condiciones del desarrollo de su identidad sociocultura. Doctoral thesis. University of Stockholm, Institute of Pedagogy. [To be in between. How Latin American youths in Sweden understand the conditions for their socio-cultural identity development.]

Bratt-Paulston, C. (1983). *Forskning och Debatt om Tvåspråkighet. En Kritisk Genomgång av Svensk Forskning och Debatt om Tvåspråkighet i Invandrarundervisningen i Sverige från ett Internationellt Perspektiv.* Stockholm: Skolöverstyrelsen. [Research and Debate in Bilingualism. A

Critical Analysis of Swedish Research and Debate on Bilingualism in the Teaching of Immigrants in Sweden.]

Carlgren, A. (2002). 'Att mötas. 1' (Om våra försök att bli vi. Det är genom arbete du blir en del i Samhället), *Dagens Nyheter*, 22 April, p. A4. [Meeting. From the Series: Concerning Our Attempts to Become 'Us'.]

Ekstrand, L. H. (1979). 'Early bilingualism theories and facts.' Paper presented at the Symposium on the Position of the Second Generation of Yugoslav immigrants in Sweden. Split, Yugoslavia. Offprint available from Pedagogisk-psykologiska institutionen, Lärarhögskolan i Malmö, Lunds Universitet. ISSN 0349-1188;305.

Ekstrand, L. H. (1979). 'Organization and research in programs of bilingual and bicultural adaptation in Sweden', *Slant,* **9,** 2, pp. 1–9.

Ekstrand, L. H. (1981). *Unpopular Views on Popular Beliefs about Immigrant Children. Contemporary Practices and Problems in Sweden.* Malmö: Lärarhögskolan. (Offprint available from Läararhögskoplan i Malmö ISSN 039-1188; 393)

Goldstein-Kyaga, K. (1999). 'Reggae eller rock som etnisk markör: Invandrarungdomar från skola till arbete'. In: Hagström, T. (Ed). *Ungdomar i Övergångsåldern. Handlingsutrymmet och Rationalitet på Väg in i Arbetslivet.* Lund: Studentlitteratur [Reggae and Rock'n'Roll as an Ethnic Marker. Immigrant Youth From School to Working Life. In: Hagström (ed). Youth in the Period of Transitions. Scope of Action and Rationality on the Road to Working Life.]

Hansegård, N. E. (1972). *Tvåspråkighet eller Halvspråkighet?* (Aldusserien No. 254). Stockholm: Aldus/Bonniers. [Bilingualism or Semi-Lingualism?]

Hansegård, N. E. (1975). 'Halvspråkighet eller tvåspråkighet?', *Invandrare och Minoriteter*, No.3, pp. 7–13. [Semi-Lingualism or Bilingualism?]

Hanson, G. (1982). *Finnkampen. Om Finska Invandrarbarn i Tvåspråkig Hemspråksklass.* Stockholm: Stockholms Universitet, Psykologiska Institutionen [Finnish Fighting: Concerning Finnish Immigrant Children in Bilingual Home Language Classes.]

Holmstrand, L. (1978). *Effekterna på Allmänna Färdigheter och Attityder i Skolan av Tidigt Påbörjad Undervisning i Engelska.* Uppsala: University of Uppsala, Institute of Pedagogy. [Effects of Early English Training of General Abilities and Attitudes in School.]

Integrationsverket (2001a). *Rapport Integration 2001.* Norrköping: Integrationsverket. [Report on Integration 2001.]

integrationsverket (2001b). *Kommunernas Mångfaldsarbete: en Sammanställning av en Enkätundersökning Våren 2001.* Norrköping: Integrationsverket. [Communal Work on Diversity: a Presentation of a Survey in the Spring of 2001.]

Lahdenperä, P. (1997). 'Invandrarbakgrund eller skolsvårigheter? En textanalytisk studie av åtgärdsprogram för elever med invandrarbakgrund', *Studies in Education Sciences*, 7, p. 206. Stockholm: HLS Förlag. [Immigrant Background or Learning Deficiences? A text analysis of an action program regarding children with immigrant background.]

Lasonen, K. and Toukomaa, P. (1978). *Linguistic Development and School Achievement among Finnish Immigrant Children in Mother-Tongue Medium Classes in Sweden*. Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä.

Löfgren, H. (1981). *Modersmålsklasser eller Sammansatta Klasser för Barn till Invandrare.* Lund: Lunds Universitet, Pedagogiska Institutionen. [Mother-Tongue Medium Classes or Combined Classes.]

Metoder och Material för Undervisning av Elever Med Invandrarbakgrund (Minv) (1997). *Lägesrapport och Arbetsplan för 1997.* Stockholm: Skolverket. [Report on Workplan for 1997.]

Molina, I. (1997). 'Stadens rasifiering. Etnisk boendesegregation i folkhemmet.' Geografiska Regionstudier. University of Uppsala: Department of Social and Economic Geography. [The Racialisation of the City. On Ethnic Housing Segregation in the Swedish Welfare State.]

Svenska Dagbladet. (2002). 'Sahlin vill ha positiv särbehandling', (Nyheter) *Svenska Dagbladet*, 14 May, p. 8. [Sahlin wants positive segregation.]

Sweden. Parliament. (1976). *Hemspråksundervisning för invandrarbarn*. (Regeringens proposition 1975/1976:118). Stockholm: Riksdagen. [Home Language Teaching for Immigrant Children.]

Samarbestorgan för Etniska Organisation i Sverige (Sios). (2001). *Handlingsprogram. Språk (Första Språk/'Minoritetsspråk), Utbildning och Kultur*. Stockholm: SIOS. [Action Program. Language (first Language/Minority Language), Education and Culture.]

Skolverket (1996). *Hemspråksundervisning – en Översyn av Veli Tuomela*, (Rapport Nr 105). Stockholm: Skolverket. [Home Language Teaching – an Examination.]

Skolverket (2001a). *Gemensam Ansvar. Skolverkets Arbete med Frågor Kring Undervisning för Elever med Invandrarbakgrund* (Rapport 194). Stockholm: Skolverket. [Divided Responsibility. The Swedish National Agency of Education and its Work With Questions Regarding Teaching of Immigrants Pupils.]

Skolverket (2001b). *Beskrivande Data om Barnomsorg, Skola och Vuxen Utbildning 2001* (Rapport 206). Stockholm: Skolverket. [Descriptive Statistics on Child Care, School and Adult Education.]

Skolverket (2002a). *Invandrar- och Flyktningselever. Fakta blad. 2002-03-22*. [Online] Available: http://www.skolverket.se/fakta/faktablad/invandrar.shtml

Skolverket (2002b). *Flera Språk- Fler Möjligheter, Utveckling av Modersmålsstödet och Modersmålsundervisning 2002* (Rapport till regeringen, maj 2002). Stockholm: Skolverket. [Several Languages, Several Possibilities, the Development of the Mother Tongue Strengthening and Mother Tongue Training 2002. Report to the Government.]

Skolverket (2002c). *Barnomsorg, Skola och Vuxenutbildning i Siffror* (Rapport 214, del 2). Stockholm: Skolverket. [Child Care, School and Adult Education in Numbers.]

Skutnab-Kangas, T. (1981). *Tvåspråkighet*. Lund: Liber Läromedel. [Bilingualism.]

Skolöverstyrelsen (SÖ) and Statens Institut för Läromedeln (SIL) (1986). *Interkulturell Synsätt i Undervisning och Läromedel. Stockholm: SÖ* and *SIL.* [Intercultural Perspective in Education and Didactic Material.]

Statens Invandrarverk (SIV) (1997). *På tal om Invandrare. Statistik om Invandring och om Personer med Utländsk Bakgrund.* Norrköping: Statens Invandrarverk. [Speaking About Immigrants. Statistics of Immigration and Persons With Foreign Background.]

Socialdepartementet (1974). *Den Svenska Invandrarpolitiken på Utbildningsområdet' i BILDER från Skola och Vuxen Utbildning, R91:14 Rapporter, Planering, Uppföljning, Utvärdering.* (Reports of the Government Commission, No. 69). Stockholm: Statlig Offentlig Utredning (SOU). [The Swedish Immigrant Policy on Education Reflected in School and Adult Education.]

Socialdepartementet (1983a). *Olika Ursprung. Gemenskap i Sverige* (Reports of the Government Commission, No. 57). Stockholm: Statlig Offentlig Utredning (SOU). [Different Origins. Spirit of Community in Sweden]

Socialdepartementet (1983b). *Kunskap för Gemenskap* (Reports of the Government Commission, No. 58). Stockholm: Statlig Offentlig Utredning (SOU). [Knowledge for Spirit of Community]

Socialdepartementet (1996). *Sveriges Framtiden och Mångfalden. Slutbetänkande från Invandrarpolitiska Kommittén* (Reports of the Government Commission, No. 55). Stockholm: Statlig Offentlig Utredning (SOU). [Swedish Future and Diversity. Final Conclusion from the Committee on Immigrant Policy.]

Socialdepartementet (1997a). *Steg Mot en Minoritetspolitik- Europarådets Konvention om Historiska minoritetsspråk* (Reports of the Government Commission, No. 192). Stockholm: Statlig Offentlig Utredning (SOU). [Steps Towards a Minority Policy – The Convention on Historical Minority Languages of the European Council.]

Socialdepartementet (1997b). *Europarådets Konvention för Skydd av Nationella Minoriteter* (Reports of the Government Commission, No.

193). Stockholm: Statlig Offentlig Utredning (SOU). [The Convention of the European Council on Protection of National Minorities.]

Socialdepartementet (1997c). *Delade Städer. Underlagsrapport från Storstadskommitté* (Reports of the Government Commission, No. 118). Stockholm: Statlig Offentlig Utredning (SOU). [Divided Cities. Working Report from the Committee of the City.]

Virta, E. (1994). *Tvåspråkighet, Tänkande och Identitet. Studier av finska barn i Sverige och Finland. Del 1, Sammanfattning.* Stockholm: Stockholms Universitet, Psykologiska Institutionen. [Bilingualism, Thinking and Identity. Studies of Finnish Children in Sweden and Finland, Part 1, Summary.]

Immigration and Education in Wales

Elin Jones

Cultural diversity in Wales

Wales has been a culturally and linguistically diverse nation for at least a thousand years. Native Welsh, English, Normans, Flemings and Irish shared this patch of ground for centuries, before the rapid development of industry in the 19th century led to immigration into Wales from many countries in Europe. For most of that time, also, Wales had no national institutions and no legislative independence, and yet its identity survived without bitter divisions or racial hatred.

While there may be cultural and linguistic diversity in Europe, there is much that is shared too. The English word *'Welsh'* comes from the Anglo-Saxon *'Wealas'*, meaning people who have been part of the Roman Empire, as do the terms *'Walloon'* in Belgium, *'Welsch'* in the Tirol, and *'Vlachs'* in Romania – a reminder of our common European heritage. The Welsh word is *'Cymry'* which means 'people who share the same locality'. This sense of sharing and belonging was recently noted by Professor Hervé Abalain:

> *Au pays de Galles coexistent des Gallois d'origine et des Anglais, ainsi que des personnes originaires de pays non-britanniques, qui se sentent gallois … Ce sentiment d'appartenance, qui genère des liens de solidarité, est le fruit d'une assimilation de valeurs humaines et sociales, et le signe d'une volonté de participer pleinement à la vie communautaire.* (Abalain, 2000, p. 243) [30]

---

[30] In Wales, there are native Welsh, English, and people of non-British origin who feel that they are Welsh. The sense of belonging, which generates ties of solidarity, is the result of an assimilation of human and social values, and indicates a willingness to engage fully in communal life.

Key issues

There are two aspects to the successful integration of immigrants. Immigrants need to become fluent in the language and understand something of the culture of the host country, while the host community itself needs actively to accept incomers. Mutual understanding and respect are the keys to success – education is crucial to this process.

In Wales, there are also two aspects to immigration. As well as receiving immigrants from countries outside the British Isles, Wales also receives immigrants from other parts of the British Isles.

Languages of Wales
It is estimated that 22 languages are commonly spoken in Wales. However, Wales has two official languages: under the Welsh Language Act of 1993, the Welsh and English languages must be treated on an equal basis in the conduct of public business and in the administration of justice in Wales.

Most non-white ethnic minority immigrants make their homes in towns in south Wales, where the language is predominantly English, and where they form a small minority within the whole community. English is the medium of instruction in the majority of schools in those areas and, while pupils learn some Welsh, the languages of the ethnic minorities represented in the school are usually recognised and the diverse cultures of the school community celebrated. The importance of English, the global language, is recognised by everyone.

There is a much greater problem, however, for immigrants whose only language is English and who move from other parts of the UK to areas in north and west Wales, where the main language of the host community has traditionally been Welsh. The value of this language and its culture is not so universally recognised, and tensions arise. Natives of the area feel that their community, its culture and language are under threat: immigrants are often ignorant of the differences between Wales and other parts of the UK, particularly with regard to language, and they may have a stereotypical or negative view of the culture of Wales itself.

So, in Wales, we have two challenges with regard to immigration and integration: the challenge posed by non-white ethnic minority immigration (which mainly affects the predominantly English-speaking urban areas of south Wales) and that of white ethnic majority monoglot English-speaking

immigrants into traditionally Welsh-speaking areas of north and west Wales.

Ethnic composition of the population

'The dumping ground of Europe' was how the general secretary of the seamen's union described Cardiff, the capital city of Wales, 30 years ago. The ports of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport had prospered during the second half of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th as a result of the rapid growth of the coalmining industry in south Wales. This prosperity had brought immigrants to the area from all parts of Europe and beyond. The decline of coalmining after 1920 brought unemployment and poverty to the communities which had been dependent on it, but did not end immigration, as the words of the secretary of the seamen's union show. Most of it centred, as it does today, on the three ports of Cardiff, Swansea and Newport, where there are now long-established ethnic minority communities.

Figure 1 Geographical distribution of non-white ethnic minorities in Wales, 1997
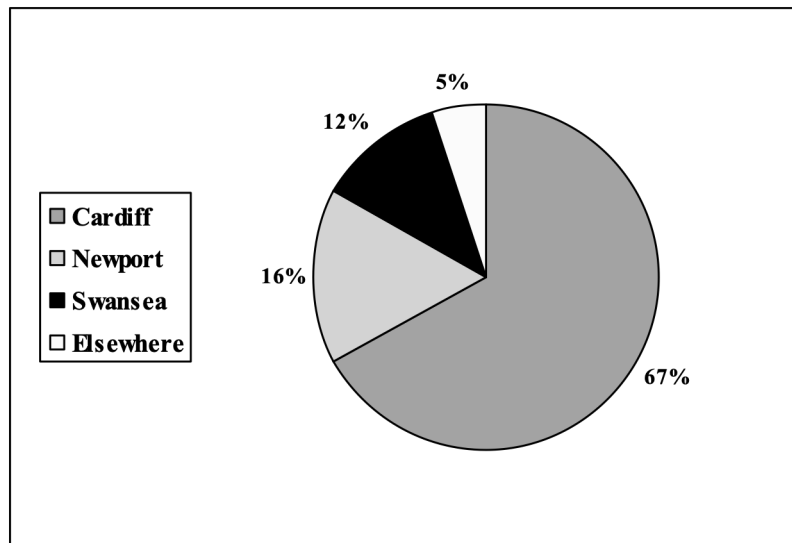
Source: Information provided by the Council for Racial Equality in Wales, based on information from the Office for National Statistics, whose URL is http://www.statistics.gov.uk.

Wales does not, at present, have the pressures of a large transient immigrant population nor are the work opportunities in Wales such as to

attract large numbers of immigrants from economically disadvantaged areas outside the UK. The latest information available from the Office for National Statistics shows that, in 2000, Wales had 51,000 inhabitants from minority ethnic groups out of a total population of 2,907,000. A questionnaire survey conducted in 1997 showed that the largest concentration of refugees and asylum seekers in Wales was in the areas that already had a comparatively high ethnic minority population (see Figure 1 above). The greatest number of refugees and asylum seekers coming to Wales had settled in Cardiff (67 per cent), followed by Newport (16 per cent) and Swansea (12 per cent).

Of these, 70 per cent were Somali, with much smaller percentages of Vietnamese (9 per cent), Iranian (7 per cent), Iraqi (6 per cent) and Sudanese (6 per cent). Figure 2 illustrates the composition of the minority ethnic groups living in Wales.

Figure 2 Minority ethnic groups living in Wales, 2000
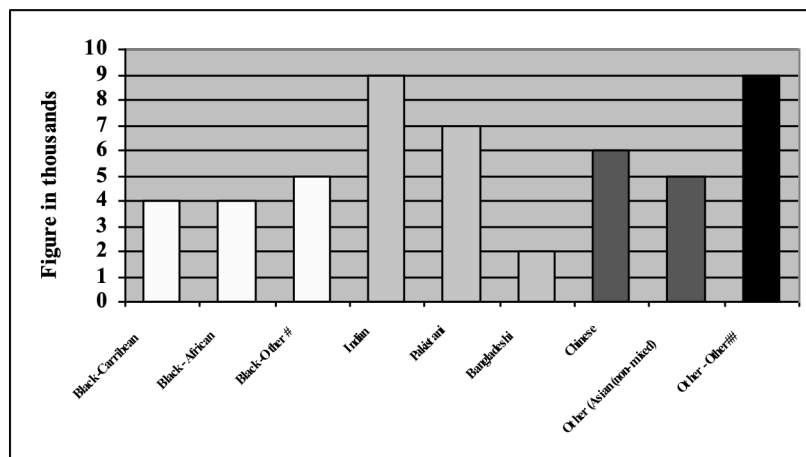
| # | Includes 'Black-Mixed' ethnic group |
| ## | Includes 'Other-Mixed' ethnic group |

Source: Data derived by the author from information on the labour force survey, 2000, provided by the Office of National Statistics, whose URL is http://www.statistics.gov.uk.

More recent statistics, which include refugees and asylum seekers, are not available, although there is anecdotal information about more recent arrivals in Wales. While the number of immigrants overall may be comparatively small, they settle in areas where there is already an ethnic minority population. These tend also to be areas of considerable social and

economic deprivation, where the arrival of immigrants places an additional strain on resources.

Government initiatives

For most of its history, Wales has been a region within the United Kingdom: for much of that time, its identity has been hidden within that of England. In 1997, however, following a referendum, a Welsh Assembly was established.

The new Assembly is very conscious of its responsibilities, both to the traditions and history of Wales, but also to the needs of immigrants to this country. In its paving document, *The Learning Country*, it has set out far-reaching policies to support inclusion and to recognise the diversity of experience and background within Wales.

Practical steps, already taken or in progress, to promote equal opportunities include:

- surveying the number and attainment of pupils from ethnic minority communities, to identify patterns of underachievement and deploy resources to deal with them

- supporting schools in setting high expectations and attainment targets for ethnic minority pupils

- providing additional financial assistance to those areas in Wales that either are, or are likely to become, hosts for refugees and asylum seekers

- requesting ACCAC (the Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales) to publish guidance on promoting equal opportunities and understanding of diversity.

School inspections

Schools and colleges in Wales are inspected regularly by *Estyn* (Her Majesty's Inspectorate For Education and Training in Wales) and the inspection reports are published for public information. *Estyn* reports to the Wales Assembly Government on particular aspects of teaching and learning, and these reports are also published. Its recent report *Providing for Pupils Learning English as an Additional Language* (Estyn, 2000) highlights both the general desire by schools to do their best for all their pupils, but also the lack of information regarding numbers of ethnic minority pupils (the majority of those learning English as an additional language). At the same

time, the report gives a number of examples of good practice in ensuring that ethnic minority pupils are both supported in developing their knowledge and understanding of English and ensuring that they receive their full curriculum entitlement. It lists key issues for action, including:

- the need for more all-Wales data on numbers and locations of pupils from different ethnic groups;

- the need to monitor and evaluate achievement

- ensuring better planning and cooperation between teachers of pupils for whom English is an additional language.

Curriculum development

While revising the *Wales Curriculum 2000* (ACCAC, 2000), ACCAC also developed a Framework for Personal and Social Education. This supports schools in developing students' understanding of cultural diversity, of different beliefs and traditions, and in helping them to recognise and challenge prejudice and stereotyping. The revised curriculum also identifies, within each subject, explicit opportunities for developing aspects of Personal and Social Education. In December 2001, ACCAC published guidance for schools in Wales on *Equal Opportunities and Diversity in the School Curriculum in Wales* (ACCAC, 2001). More details on these and other ACCAC publications can be obtained from the ACCAC website at http://www.accac.org.uk.

Into the future

All schools in Wales are required to teach both Welsh and English to their pupils up to the age of 16, and all must develop their pupils' understanding of the culture and history of Wales and the diversity of traditions embodied in that culture and history. The educational benefits of dual literacy (being literate in two languages) are increasingly recognised. A recent discussion paper, *Developing Dual Literacy/Datblygu Llythrennedd Deuo,* (Estyn, 2002), sets out practical strategies for enriching and developing pupils' literacy and communication skills, by using one language to enrich the other.

Schools in Wales are also required to teach religious education. There is an agreed common syllabus for each local authority, which must reflect the religious composition of each community. Children learn about the Christian traditions in Wales, but also about the other faiths which co-exist with Christianity in their community and across the whole of Wales.

In the traditionally multiethnic ports of south Wales, there are many shining examples of schools celebrating the diversity of cultures represented within their playgrounds. One primary school in Cardiff's docklands, with a long tradition of multicultural education, has made this permanent by installing wrought-iron gates which incorporate in their design the word for 'Welcome' in all the languages spoken in the school. Another large secondary school draws on different ethnic musical traditions, including Caribbean steel bands and Indian drumming and dancing, to enrich their traditionally Welsh school *Eisteddfod*, often going on to compete at the national youth *Eisteddfod*. Pupils at this school include 55 asylum seekers, and they, like all the other pupils there, will study both Welsh and English to the age of 16, as well as following examination courses, if they wish, in languages chosen from French, German, Arabic, Gujarati, Punjabi, Urdu and Bengali.

In north-west Wales, one of the strongholds of the Welsh language, the education authority has responded to the challenges of immigration by setting up units to give incoming pupils aged seven to 11 years a term's grounding in the language and culture of Wales. They can then be integrated into the nearest Welsh-medium primary school. This induction is done by the schools themselves for pupils aged five to seven, so that, by the time they are 11, all children are able to attend a bilingual (Welsh/English) comprehensive school. The education authority has extended this policy for children under 16 who speak neither Welsh nor English, but have come to the area with their families. The Welsh Assembly provides funding for these children to be taught both Welsh and English, so that they, too, can be integrated into the schools in their locality – and can enrich those schools in turn.

The tensions of racism and xenophobia are always present, particularly in economically and socially deprived communities. Despite all the efforts being made to increase tolerance and acceptance of diversity, some police forces in rural Wales report a relatively high (in proportion to their population) incidence of racially motivated violence. Nevertheless, the role of schools in Wales in developing better mutual understanding is increasingly recognised.

Conclusion

The Welsh Assembly Government and those involved in education – most importantly, the teachers and students of Wales – continue to work to develop this awareness of human and social values to ensure that everyone participates in the life of the whole community – and contributes to it.

Current research being undertaken at the University of Cardiff indicates that most 8 – 11 year olds in Wales regard everyone living in Wales as being Welsh, but those from ethnic minorities are less sure that they are accepted by the host community. One pupil from a Chinese family told the interviewer: *'Some people say I'm Welsh, some people I'm from Cardiff.'* When the interviewer asked her: *'What do you say you are?'*, her reply was: *'I say I'm from Cardiff but at the same time I like to think I'm Welsh'* (Scourfield and Davies, 2002).

Note: The author is grateful to Jonathan Scourfield, Cardiff University School of Social Sciences, and Andrew Davies, University of Wales Board of Celtic Studies, for permission to quote from their paper (Scourfield and Davies, 2002).

References

Abalain, H. (2000). *Le Pays de Galles: Identité, Modernité.* Crozon: Editions Armeline. [Wales: Identity, Modernity.]

Estyn (Her Majesty's Inspectorate For Education and Training in Wales) (2000). *Providing for Pupils Learning English as an Additional Language.* Cardiff: Estyn.

Estyn (Her Majesty's Inspectorate For Education and Training in Wales) (2002). *Developing Dual Literacy/Datblygu Llythrennedd Deuo*. Cardiff: Estyn.

The Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales (2000). *Wales Curriculum 2000.* Cardiff: ACCAC.

The Qualifications, Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales (2001). *Equal Opportunities and Diversity in the School Curriculum in Wales.* Cardiff: ACCAC.

III Case study: Spain

The Spanish Constitution and national legislation

Juan Navarro Barba

The Spanish Constitution (Spain. Statutes, 1978) recognises the right of all Spaniards to be educated and calls upon public authorities to foster the necessary conditions and to remove all obstacles, so that all citizens may exercise this right in conditions of equity.

Enacting the principle of equal opportunities entails implementing and maintaining a series of compensatory measures so that social or cultural inequalities and the disadvantages with which certain pupils start school, do not become educational inequities.

Royal Decree 1.174/83 (Spain. Statutory Instruments, 1983) marked the official beginning in Spain of compensatory education, which is defined as '*preferential provision for groups of individuals whose condition of disadvantage or inequality is especially acute with regard to the priorities offered to them by the education system*'. The Decree gave rise to a set of initiatives aimed at improving the conditions to promote the access and attendance throughout compulsory education of disadvantaged people with respect to an educational system which, at that time, manifested imbalances, inadequacies and dysfunctions which further aggravated these initial differences.

Organic Law 8/1985 on the Right to Education (Spain. Statutes, 1985), recognises the right for all Spaniards and foreign residents in Spain to education without discrimination on social, moral, racial, economic, or place of residence grounds.

The Organic Law on the General Organisation of the Education System (Spain. Statutes, 1990) calls for further action against inequity and discrimination; Title V of the Law is devoted to establishing the basic principles for 'compensatory education' which seeks to compensate for inequalities. Additional measures of positive discrimination are also established to implement the principle of equal opportunities and to provide further guidance regarding the preferential treatment to be granted in the schooling of infant education pupils who are economically, geographically or otherwise disadvantaged. The provision of additional

material and human resources to support educational establishments with disadvantaged pupils is also planned.

Article 3.6 of Royal Decree 696/95 on the Organisation of Education of Pupils with Special Education Needs (Spain. Statutory Instruments, 1995) calls for the establishment of educational services for pupils with special educational needs in hospitals and rehabilitation clinics, to provide suitable schooling in infant, primary, and compulsory secondary education pupils in these centres.

The Second Additional Order of Organic Law 9/1995 on the Participation, Evaluation and Administration of Educational Establishments (Spain. Statutes, 1995) guarantees the schooling of pupils with special educational needs within publicly funded educational establishments. The Law also specifies that these educational needs may arise from physical, psychic or sensory disorders, but also from severe behavioural disorders, or from social or cultural deprivation.

Royal Decree 299/1996 of 28 February on the Organisation of Actions aimed at Compensating for Inequities in Education (Spain. Statutory Instruments, 1996) builds on Title V of the LOGSE (Spain, Statutes, 1990) and establishes the fields of action, target population, objectives, principles, courses of action and evaluation of the compensatory education programme for pupils with social and cultural disadvantages. Chapter III also outlines the compensatory education measures for children who are in hospital and considers the desirability of continuing compensatory education measures for pupils in rural schools (Spain. Statutory Instruments, 1996, Section 2, Articles 18, 19 and 20).

References

Spain. Statutes. (1978). *Constitución Española de 6 de diciembre de 1978* (B.O.E. 19.12.1978). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Spanish Constitution.]
Spain. Statutes. (1985). *Ley Orgánica 8/1985, de 3 julio, Reguladora del Derecho a la Educación (LODE)* (B.O.E. 4-7-1985). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law on the Right to Education.]
Spain. Statutes. (1990). *Ley Orgánica 1/1990, de 3 de octubre, de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo (LOGSE)* (B.O.E. 4-10-1990). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law on the General Organisation of the Education System.]

Spain. Statutes. (1995). *Ley Orgánica 9/1995, de 20 de noviembre, de Participación Evaluación y Gobiernbo de Centros Docentes (LOPEG)* (B.O.E. 21-11-1995). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law 9/1995 on the Participation, Evaluation and Administration of Educational Establishments.]

Spain. Statutory Instruments. (1983). *Real Decreto 1.174/83, de 27 de abril, por el que se Regula la Educación Compensatoria en España* (B.O.E. 11-5-1983) Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Royal Decree 1.174/83 of 27 April 1983 on the Organisation of Compensatory Education in Spain.]

Spain. Statutory Instruments. (1995). *Real Decreto 696/95, de 28 de abril, de Ordenación de la Educación de los Alumnos con Necesidaded Educativas Especiales* (B.O.E. 2-6-1995). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Royal Decree 696/95 of 28 April on the Organisation of Education of Pupils with Special Education Needs.]

Spain. Statutory Instruments. (1996). *Real Decreto 299/1996, de 28 de febrero, de Ordenación de las Acciones Dirigidas a la Compencación de Desigualdades en Educación* (B.O.E. 12-3-1996). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Royal Decree 299/1996 of 28 February on the Organisation of Actions aimed at Compensating for Inequities in Education.]

Plan for educational provision for immigrant pupils in the autonomous community of Andalusia

Sebastián Sánchez Fernández

Introduction

We live in an ever more plural society, with a new international dimension, which gives rise to the need to educate for solidarity among the peoples of the world.

Education in the values of respect, active tolerance and solidarity are the best instruments for eradicating the racist and xenophobic attitudes that are quite often manifested in the societies of the developed world as a reaction to immigration.

The recognition of cultural diversity becomes vital for achieving truly intercultural societies. Schools must lay the foundation for real and effective equality in school, at work and in society, as well as making provision for addressing the diversity of gender and ethnic and cultural background. Education has undoubtedly an important role to perform in the dialogue between cultures, by helping to break down the barriers built up by ignorance and the lack of understanding, communication and solidarity.

For ethnic and cultural diversity to become an enriching factor, it is necessary to start from recognition among equals, respect for diversity and the fostering of interaction. Only in this way will multiculturalism develop into interculturalism. Herein lies the challenge.

Migratory phenomena

The international migratory movements that have arisen in recent times affect half of the existing countries in the world, with fewer and fewer zones remaining unaffected. Furthermore, the number of immigrants has constantly increased over the past 20 years and does not follow a single pattern: there are war refugees, economic refugees, cheap manual labour, highly skilled workers, students; settled people, with a stable legal situation, coexist alongside others who do not enjoy this security.

A key element in the new migratory situation is its feminisation. Although women have been present in migratory movements over the course of history – in some cases travelling alone, in others accompanied, or to rejoin their male partner – recently more and more women have been emigrating alone. They either do so independently, or they set off the migratory chain, to be joined by the men at a later date.

Immigration in Spain is characterised by diversity. Only a proportion of people come from developing countries; the rest come from the developed countries. The majority of immigrants in Spain come from the European Union, followed by those from the Maghreb, South America, Asia, Central America and the Caribbean, Sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern Europe and North America. Immigrants from developing countries tend to concentrate in Madrid and Catalonia, while those from the developed countries settle in Andalusia, the Valencian Community, the Canary or the Balearic Isles.

The feminisation of immigration is also seen in Spain. There is a clear predominance of European women, followed by women from the Americas and, last, those from Africa and Asia. During the past eight years, the total number of immigrant women has increased more than that of men. Although European immigrant women make up 47.8 per cent, this group has been characterised by its social invisibility.

Immigration in the autonomous community of Andalusia

Over time, Andalusia has changed from being an 'exporter' of manual labourers, chiefly bound for Northern and other parts of Europe, to a region which receives workers, many of them from the Maghreb and various locations in Africa.

This fact requires us to consider educational provision for boys and girls of immigrant families and training for adults, bearing in mind the severe socio-economic deprivation underlying some of these migratory movements. This deprivation requires a sweeping effort towards compensatory and special provision.

Table 1 shows the distribution of the 18,656 immigrant pupils educated in the Autonomous Community of Andalusia in the 2001–2002 school year.

Table 1 Distribution of immigrant pupils in Andalusia, 2001–2002

	Infant and primary				Secondary			
Provinces	Public schools		Private schools		Public schools		Private schools	
Almeria	2,753	97.18	80	2.82	1,226	96.76	41	3.24
Cadiz	1,032	83.77	200	16.23	441	90.74	45	9.26
Cordoba	480	89.55	56	10.45	178	84.76	32	15.24
Granada	973	84.10	184	15.90	385	76.69	117	23.31
Huelva	494	92.68	39	7.32	265	96.72	9	3.28
Jaen	313	83.24	63	16.76	153	92.17	13	7.83
Malaga	4,220	85.51	715	14.49	1,976	86.06	320	13.94
Seville	1,005	84.52	184	15.48	590	88.86	74	11.14
Andalusia	*11,270*	*88.11*	*1.521*	*11.89*	*5,214*	*88.90*	*651*	*11.10*

	Public-sector schools		Private schools		TOTAL
Provinces	Total	%	Total	%	
Almeria	3,979	97.05	121	2.95	4,100
Cadiz	1,473	85.74	245	14.26	1,718
Cordoba	658	88.20	88	11.80	746
Granada	1,358	81.86	301	18.14	1,659
Huelva	759	94.05	48	5.95	807
Jaen	466	85.98	76	14.02	542
Malaga	6,196	85.69	1,035	14.31	7,231
Seville	1,595	86.08	258	13.92	1,853
Andalusia	*16,484*	*88.36*	*2,172*	*11.64*	*18,656*

Source: Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Andalucía

As Table 1 shows, the majority of the pupils in Andalusia (88.36 per cent) are educated in public sector schools and 11.64 per cent in private establishments.

Table 2 indicates the place of origin of immigrant pupils. There are 3,316 pupils (17.77 per cent) from the European Union, the majority of whom (1,911) attend schools in the province of Malaga.

Of the 5,099 pupils originating from Africa (27.33 per cent of the total), 1,764 pupils attend schools in Almeria and 1,018 in Malaga. The 4,845 pupils from Latin America (25.97 per cent) attend school in different provinces, but above all in Malaga (1,629), Almeria (912), Seville (710) and Granada (532). There is a total of 4,013 (21.51 per cent) European pupils from non-EU countries, especially from Eastern Europe, and most of these have settled in Malaga (2,163) and Almeria (959). Next in order, but significantly fewer, are pupils from Asia (948 pupils, 5.08 per cent), the majority of whom are settled in Malaga (385) and Seville (156). The number of pupils from the United States and Canada is even smaller (403 pupils, 2.16 per cent), principally settled in Cadiz (166 pupils) and Malaga (112 pupils). A very small number of pupils originate from Oceania (0.17 per cent).

Table 2 Place of origin of immigrant pupils in Andalusia, 2001–2002

	Almeria	Cadiz	Cordoba	Granada	Huelva
European Union	371	351	45	316	98
Rest of Europe	959	212	85	328	80
Asia	75	78	60	86	28
Africa	1,764	589	220	360	373
USA and Canada	19	166	9	29	7
Rest of Americas	912	318	326	532	221
Oceania	0	4	1	8	0
TOTAL	4,100	1,718	746	1,659	807

	Jaen	Malaga	Seville	Total	%
European Union	32	1,911	192	3,316	17.77
Rest of Europe	34	2,163	152	4,013	21.51
Asia	80	385	156	948	5.08
Africa	194	1,018	581	5,099	27.33
USA and Canada	3	112	58	403	2.16
Rest of Americas	197	1,629	710	4,845	25.97
Oceania	2	13	4	32	0.17
TOTAL	542	7,231	1,853	18,656	100.00

Source: Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Andalucía

88.36% of immigrant pupils study in public sector schools. The majority of pupils originate from Africa (27.33 per cent), Latin America (25.97 per cent), from European countries not belonging to the European Union (21.51 per cent) and from European Union countries (17.77 per cent). These pupils have primarily settled in the provinces of Malaga (7,231 pupils, 38.76 per cent) and Almeria (4,100 pupils, 21.98 per cent), followed by Seville (1,853 pupils, 9.93 per cent), Cadiz (1,718 pupils, 9.21 per cent) and Granada (1,659 pupils, 8.89 per cent).

Theoretical framework

Culture

The concept which we hold of culture affects relationships between the different cultural groups. It is therefore necessary to define what is understood by culture, since the focus and the character of social and educational interventions depend on this definition.

Culture has many definitions; the common use of the term refers to the body of achievements, over time, of a given community. This definition of culture is static and possessive, whereby a 'person of culture' is one who has had access to a body of knowledge, information and skills which are held to be 'cultural products'.

Culture may also be understood in a less restricted, broader manner. In this context, culture refers to community's way of behaving, the way it interprets the world and situates itself therein. Seen from this point of view, culture concerns values, behavioural norms and social roles; that is to say, it has changing, dynamic and adaptable elements that provide a system for explaining and interacting with reality.

From this perspective, it is meaningless to refer to people as having no culture. All human groups have developed their own culture, in short, the composite of the knowledge, beliefs, art, moral values, laws, customs and all other skills and habits acquired by man as a member of society.

Each individual, in so far as he or she belongs to a group, is a carrier, producer and reproducer of his or her culture, which is different and specific and constitutes the manifestation of the group's human, social and cultural identity.

Multicultural approaches

The concept of culture is closely linked to the different ways of interpreting interaction between the cultures. Social and educational policies initially interpreted multiculturalism as a means of helping the incoming person to adapt to the customs, values and organisational methods of the host society, the latter being considered superior. This perspective, which is clearly grounded in assimilative ideology, was tied to immigration and based on the belief that different cultures cannot live together within the same social context. Following this line of reasoning, the majority group absorbs the minority, so that the latter becomes indistinguishable from the former, thereby losing its identity, language, eating habits and even its religion.

We have progressed beyond this approach, to the understanding of multiculturalism as the valuing of cultural pluralism. This interpretation formally recognises diversity and accepts and tolerates the maintenance of the minority group's cultural identity.

Interculturalism

The intercultural perspective is based on an interactive approach, that is, the recognition that culture is necessarily an interactive phenomenon which cannot be constrained. Building interculturalism entails the opportunity of affirming one's own culture when relating to other cultures. This is only feasible within a process whereby everyone contributes and where these contributions are subject to discussion and critical evaluation.

Interculturalism goes beyond multiculturalism in so far as, based on the recognition and verification of observable cultural diversity, it holds cultural interaction to be an intrinsically educational action. Interculturalism requires thinking about cultural relations within an educational context, but also within a social context which involves the enactment of equal rights and opportunities among the human beings who coexist within a given society.

School: a privileged place for intercultural education

Interculturalism, therefore, implies progression from emphasising the integration of the immigrant population into the host society, to stressing an education aimed at the population as a whole, not solely at national or immigrant cultural minorities. Instead, it implies teaching citizens to look at others in a different light, to understand how those persons feel and to appreciate that intercultural education benefits all concerned.

Consequently, intercultural education does not imply a body of objectives or educational strategies exclusively for schools educating pupils who belong to cultural minorities. One of its basic objectives is, rather, for the members of the majority group to accept those of the minority groups as their equals.

Intercultural education involves securing equal opportunities for members of underprivileged cultural minorities. Following along these lines, intercultural education has compensatory features and also includes measures and action specifically targeted at groups with special educational needs. The latter are to be understood in the broadest sense of the term, but within the framework of a new school model: the intercultural school.

Hence, only by becoming 'intercultural' can the school implement an educational model from which to awaken and strengthen the desire to understand, and maintain dialogue with, other cultures and ways of life. An intercultural school will enable its pupils to put themselves in the place of others and to understand that everyone deserves respect, thereby leading them to avoid any type of cultural arrogance. In short, the aim is a school model which secures the personal commitment of all the members of the educational community, in defence of the equality of human civic rights, rejecting any and all forms of exclusion.

Plan for educational provision for immigrant pupils

Rationale

This Plan may be justified in so far as the collective group of immigrant children has educational needs which require specific provisions. It is also upheld by legislation, by the aims of education, and by the regulations that govern the implementation of compensatory provision targeted at the most underprivileged groups. An especially valid point of reference for this Plan is Law 9/1999 of 18 November for Solidarity in Education, which aims to consolidate and strengthen the compensatory education measures which have been undertaken for over a decade in the Autonomous Community of Andalusia.

Needs manifested by immigrant pupils

Children of immigrants, especially from Africa, Asia, or Eastern Europe, manifest three characteristics which affect their schooling. Firstly, they come from cultures which are different from that of Andalusia. Secondly, their native language has oral and written elements which are substantially

different from those of the Spanish language. Lastly, these pupils generally have educational needs arising from their socio-economic disadvantage.

Once they start attending school, immigrant pupils face certain obstacles which affect their integration into the education system. The first of these is learning the language of instruction, if they have a native language other than that used in school. If this is unsatisfactorily resolved, it will result in academic failure. However, these pupils also face other challenges arising from their familiar cultural referents.

The inadequate fulfilment of these pupils' language needs may reinforce academic deficiencies and difficulties that pupils may never completely overcome. Pupils who do not speak the language of the school encounter academic problems, but also difficulties with relationships with their classmates and teachers; in short, with their entire social and school environment.

It should be kept in mind that the linguistic integration of a boy or girl in infant education is not the same as that of a pupil joining school in the last years of primary education or in secondary education. In the first case, direct immersion in the classroom may be a suitable procedure. Older children require additional support to foster initial language learning, as well as complementary measures and resources.
Moreover, pupils from immigrant families have diverse cultural referents, some from their family circle and others from their school. It is important that these referents are not seriously undermined. In order to avoid this, pupils must perceive that their language and culture of origin are granted the recognition they deserve. It is also useful for them to learn their mother tongue well, to enhance their understanding of the cultural values of their family circle.

Immigrant pupils should be educated in such a way that the variety of cultural referents does not distort their education and so that each individual may freely establish his or her own cultural values. With this aim in mind, schools educating pupils from ethnic minorities must ensure that their school project fosters equitable treatment of different cultures, promotes social integration and helps pupils learn to live within culturally diverse contexts.

Legal foundation

The above policies derive from a number of legislative and other documents.

The Spanish Constitution proclaims that *'education will strive towards the full development of the human personality with regard to respect for the democratic principles of coexistence and to the fundamental rights and freedoms'* (Spain. Statutes, 1978, Article 27.2).

Furthermore, the Organic Law on the Right to Education (LODE) lays down the aims of the education: *'… with respect for rights and fundamental freedoms and the exercise of tolerance and freedom within the democratic principles of coexistence; training for active participation in the social and cultural realms; education for peace, cooperation and solidarity among peoples'* (Spain. Statutes, 1985, Article 2.1). Article 1 of the Organic Law on the General Organisation of the Education System (LOGSE) (Spain. Statutes, 1990) defines the objectives of education in the same terms.

LOGSE also proclaims *'in order to implement the principle of equality in the exercise of the right to education, public authorities will carry out compensatory actions for underprivileged people, groups and territorial areas and also provide the economic resources for this purpose'* (Spain. Statutes, 1990, Article 63).

The General Conference of the United Nations for Education, Science and Culture proclaimed the Declaration of the Principles of International Cultural Cooperation, the first article of which states:

> *Each culture has a dignity and value which must be respected and preserved. Every people has the right and the duty to develop its culture. In their rich variety and diversity, and in the reciprocal influences they exert on one another, all cultures form part of the common heritage belonging to all mankind.* (UNESCO, 1966, Articles I.1 and III)

The Andalusian Law 9/1999 of 18 November on Solidarity in Education (Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Andalucía, 1999a) holds, as one of its aims, to foster the value of interculturalism. Education should embrace the enrichment involved in understanding and respecting the culture of minority groups and encourage interaction and respect among all the members of the education community, regardless of their personal skills or their social or cultural circumstances.

Law 9/1999 further states that

… educational establishments with pupils from the Andalusian Gypsy community, or ethnic or cultural minorities or immigrants are to include within their Establishment Projects measures which encourage the development of and respect for the cultural identity of these pupils, which promote coexistence, and which enable their participation in the social environment. (Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Andalucía, 1999a, Article 17*, pp. 23 – 24)*

Objectives of the Plan

Through the Plan for Educational Provision for Immigrant Pupils, the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* strives to integrate these pupils in the context of a mutual enrichment of the majority and minority cultures, as a basic principle of interculturalism. It firmly believes that schools are the ideal environment for teaching coexistence through the practice of values such as respect, tolerance and solidarity.

Following this line of reasoning, the coeducation of people from different cultures entails working to achieve a common cultural space that does not involve loss of identity but rather its enrichment, as well as an open mental approach to life and towards that which is different. Accepting the richness of other societies does not, however, imply that there are no limits. Where cultural features involve the denial of basic human rights of women and of men, of girls and of boys, a critical framework will be required to allow for the right and freedom to disagree with and to abandon part of one's own culture.

The plan is set out concretely under the following seven objectives:

1   to provide schooling for all girls and boys from immigrant families under the same terms as those for Andalusian pupils

2   to encourage schools to draw up intercultural Educational Projects which provide for, and promote procedures for exchange, interaction and cooperation among cultures

3   to promote support programmes for Spanish language learning

4   to foster pupils' learning of their native language, so that they do not lose the link with their original culture

5   to foster a social climate of coexistence, respect and tolerance, especially in zones receiving immigrants. Schools should be encouraged

to be a place for introducing and disseminating the democratic values, not only of the educational community, but also of the neighbourhood

6   to promote multidimensional training for adult immigrants, with particular emphasis on immigrant parents whose children are receiving basic education

7   to provide impetus to Plans for Social Integration for the most underprivileged immigrant population, with the participation of the various administrations and non-profit organisations.

Measures and courses of action

The Plan's Measures and Courses of Action are directed toward ensuring that immigrant pupils' education is provided under the same conditions of quality as that of Andalusian girls and boys. The Plan also strives to promote, within the educational community, the development of attitudes of respect for ethnic and cultural diversity, as well as the appreciation of different cultural values and customs. It seeks to achieve this aim through critical analysis of other cultures, as well as that of the native-born majority.

First objective
To provide schooling for all girls and boys from immigrant families under the same terms as that provided for Andalusian pupils.

The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* (Department of Education and Science) will ensure that immigrant pupils' education is carried out in the same terms and conditions of equality as the schooling provided for Spanish pupils. Express instructions will be given to avoid any action that may discriminate or restrict the schooling of foreign pupils.

Measures
- *To provide information to immigrant families and groups regarding the basic features of the schooling process, the organisation of the education system in Andalusia and the availability of study grants and aids*
  The immigrant population must be informed about the organisation of the education system and the process of school registration, including the necessary documents, enrolment and registration periods. The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will publish brochures in Spanish and in the various languages of the immigrants, to facilitate access to information. Among others, parents' associations, the counselling and

information services of the education authority, town councils and non-profit organisations may collaborate in this measure.

- *To conduct campaigns among the immigrant population to raise awareness of the education of girls and boys at the infant education stage*
  Given the importance of education during the early years, campaigns will be carried out to encourage immigrant families to enrol their child(ren) in the second cycle of infant education. The campaigns are particularly aimed at pupils in underprivileged families, with special emphasis on the education of girls, to overcome disadvantages and enable these pupils to start compulsory education on an equal footing with other pupils.

- *To provide additional human and material resources to schools with a significant number of immigrant pupils*
  Immigrant pupils, and especially those who start schooling late (an event which has become considerably more common in recent years, as immigrants are encouraged to bring their family members to Spain) usually have difficulties in following the teaching – learning process. This has educational repercussions when there are a significant number of immigrant pupils in the class or cycle. Schools with a significant number of immigrant pupils will therefore receive support teaching staff to help these pupils overcome their initial difficulties and participate in education in the same way as their peers. These schools will also have priority in the implementation of the improved staffing measures set down in the 'Agreement for Education' (Quota 13-23-33) [Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Andalucía, 1999b, apartado 7.2]

- *To provide access to complementary services*
  In order to facilitate access to compulsory education isolated locations for pupils from cultural and ethnic minorities whose families are economically underprivileged, the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will provide complementary dining and transport services, and if necessary, boarding facilities as laid down in the relevant annual public calls for support.[31] The school dining room can represent a suitable place for cultural learning (including the various ways of choosing and preparing food), and for analysing boys' and girls' preconceptions regarding the

---

[31] The annual 'public calls for support' are the mechanism whereby the authorities invite parents and others to apply for support of various kinds, for example, for parents to facilitate their children's participation in education, for other organisations to provide educational services.

division of roles. The aim is to discourage stereotypical role divisions. Through the tasks involved in food preparation and eating, pupils may acquire the skills to independently satisfy their own needs and those of the people with whom they coexist, as well as to understand that this is a responsibility of both boys and girls.

- *To provide places in School Residence Halls so that immigrant pupils may continue their studies after compulsory education*
  It is desirable for immigrant pupils to progress from compulsory education to *bachillerato* or vocational training studies, so that they will be trained for skilled employment. To fulfil this aim, immigrant pupils will receive a place in the School Residence Halls of the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia*, where necessary, under the conditions established for the entire student body in the relevant public call. Given that the culture of the majority of immigrant families does not encourage adolescent girls to go on to post-compulsory studies, the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* sees a particular need to offer residential places to these girls.

- *To encourage immigrant pupils' participation in extra-curricular activities*
  It is also deemed important for immigrant pupils to participate in extra-curricular cultural and sporting activities organised by schools, to promote their personal development and their participation in the various realms of social life. To fulfil this goal, support will be provided for school projects and initiatives which expressly include immigrant pupil participation. Such support will be provided in accordance with the annual public calls for extra-curricular activities published by the Provincial Delegations.

- *To make formal agreements with non-profit bodies to establish the post of intercultural mediator*
  The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia*, in collaboration with the *Consejería de Asuntos Sociales* (Department for Social Support), will draw up formal collaboration agreements with non-profit associations and non-governmental organisations to carry out compensatory education activities with pupils and their families. Where necessary, an intercultural mediator will participate, to encourage a closer relationship between the pupil and his/her family and the school and with other educational services and agencies.

Second objective

To encourage schools to draw up intercultural Educational Projects which provide for and promote procedures for exchange, interaction and cooperation among cultures

Intercultural education affects the entire educational community and therefore requires schools to revise their educational project. Schools need to be conscious of the cultural diversity of their intake in terms of quantity (degree of multiculturalism) and quality (perception, value attributed, types of relationship).

Intercultural education should be clearly evident in all aspects of the educational project, explicitly acknowledging the richness of cultural diversity. The educational project must be based on the principle of difference as an enrichment for all and on interculturalism as a process of interrelation and exchange.

- The school's curricular project must be inclusive and address, equally, the experience and needs of male and female pupils of different cultures. It should include the historical contribution of women and of the majority and minority cultures to the economic, social and cultural development of humanity. The curricular project is intended to develop boys' and girls' ability to understand different cultural interpretations of the world, to consider critically their own culture and that of others and to generate a positive attitude and way of life that is committed to, and enriched by, relations between cultures.

- Of special importance within the curricular project is the Counselling and Tutorial Action Plan. This enables teaching teams to provide reception programmes and other specific programmes to foster the integration of ethnic minority pupils, and to take steps to prevent rejection, intolerance or discrimination. Form teachers are best placed to minimise school truancy, which is more prevalent among girls, because families tend to send sons to school more systematically than daughters. Given the culture of the majority of immigrant families, it is especially important to encourage girls to participate actively in class and school activities, to secure pupils' equal rights and opportunities.

- One of the aims of vocational and academic guidance is to offer pupils and their families information and guidance which are not constrained by traditional gender expectations. Schools similarly strive to present career options and studies in such as way as to break down stereotypes, including the involvement of men and women who do not follow the

traditional role models, for example, by inviting women who carry out traditionally male jobs to the school.

- The general school programme reflects the concrete steps taken to achieve an ideal climate of coexistence, to secure respect and tolerance for minorities and avoid messages which might lead girls and boys to follow gender-linked stereotypes. The programme also includes measures to secure a balanced view of different cultures, ethnic groups, sexes and religions, without stereotypes, prejudice or discrimination. This goal is to be pursued in the texts and pictures of school publications and teaching material, as well as on school bulletin boards and posters.

- An intercultural school project is implemented in the classroom, first and foremost by creating a learning framework supported by the pupils' different cultural referents. Only in this way will it be possible to avoid pupils' confusion of the terms and codes used to solve the problems of daily life, and those used to work in the school environment.

- The second, concurrent, step is to encourage the coming together and interaction of the various cultural referents. This requires a framework for authentic communication and interaction, in which the spontaneous expression of one's own cultural identity is possible and such expression is recognised, evaluated and critically analysed. Consideration should also be given to exploring the ideological values that influence cultural perceptions, to constructing one's own cultural identity in an enriching way, and to developing an awareness of the cultural perceptions of the context.

Measures
- To provide specific training and advice for teachers at schools with pupils from immigrant families and ethnic minorities to help them draw up intercultural school projects and to learn about and understand the values and cultural referents of the girls and the boys enrolled in their schools. The 2000 – 2001 Biannual Programme for teacher training will therefore include the necessary training to support these teachers. It is also recommended that these schools draw up their own in-school training plan to match their needs. Teachers' in-service training centres will provide the necessary resources

- To publish support and advisory material for schools and teachers. The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will develop and publish curricular material for intercultural education to support and advise those teaching ethnic minority pupils.

Third objective
To promote support programmes for Spanish language learning.

One of the priorities for this group of pupils is to learn Spanish as quickly as possible, to integrate themselves into the school and social environment and to join the learning process.

Learning a foreign language involves learning a world of cultural meanings linked to a set of signifiers, along with the ways in which people understand and interpret reality. Language thus plays a part in constructing a world view which is shared and communicated within the socio-cultural environment.

It is therefore necessary to consider concrete features, such as sexual/gender ideology, in the construction and use of language and its social repercussions, for example, non-sexist language as an instrument for changing attitudes, values and norms and non-sexism in verbal and non-verbal communication will foster the non-discriminatory use of language.

Measures
- To set up 'temporary classrooms'[32] for the teaching of Spanish. One of the initial difficulties for the integration of immigrant pupils into schools is their lack of knowledge of Spanish and of behaviour and relationships in schools, which may differ considerably from that of their own cultural referents. Hence, it seems advisable in certain cases to provide an induction focused on learning Spanish and school behaviour. 'Temporary classrooms' for Spanish will be set up to facilitate induction into the education system, and the number of existing classrooms of this type will be increased.

  'Temporary classrooms' are to have several basic characteristics. Firstly, the immigrant pupil's stay will be temporary, limited to the time which is strictly necessary to obtain minimum oral skills in the Spanish language and to understand school procedures (for example, timetables), services (for example, school meals) and extracurricular activities, etc. Another basic feature is coordination between the 'temporary classroom' and the school in which the pupil is registered. This is necessary before, during and after the pupil's learning in the 'temporary classroom' to

---

[32] 'Temporary classrooms' provide targeted support for pupils withdrawn from their ordinary class.

provide guidelines for his/her future teacher and for the teaching team. Further distinguishing features of these classrooms are their heterogeneous nature with regards to pupils' age, sex, country of origin, etc. and the individual nature of the teaching provided, to meet the characteristics of each pupil. One final feature is the close collaboration with the family throughout, to ensure continuity.

♦ To make formal agreements with non-profit agencies to support initial language teaching, with qualified teachers who know the native language(s) of the pupils

The involvement of qualified teachers who have the same origin as the group of immigrants or who know their native language, is desirable to recognise pupils' cultural contribution to the school. Furthermore, such teachers ensure social and communicative contact between teachers and pupils. As the rest of the teaching staff, these teachers always use the Spanish language, but they can understand immigrant pupils who use their native language.

As a complementary measure, the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will draw up formal agreements with relevant non-profit bodies and associations to provide bilingual persons to support the induction and Spanish language learning process in schools where there are few immigrant pupils.

Fourth objective

To foster pupils' learning of their native language so that they do not lose connection with their original culture.

The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* recognises the need to foster immigrant pupils' learning of their native language, to broaden their linguistic awareness and enhance their understanding of the values of their socio-cultural origins. Moreover, there is a link in so far as a command of one's native language, along with appreciation by others of this language, lead to improved attitudes and skills for learning a new language.

In view of the above, it is important that teachers of immigrant pupils make the effort to phonetically write, learn and correctly use the pupils' names, forms of greeting, etc. – that is to say, to make each girl and boy feel appreciated and valued for what belongs to him or her and for their contribution to the community.

Measures

- To support programmes for learning and developing native languages and cultures agreements will be drawn up with relevant agencies to offer instruction within the school framework, but outside the normal school day

- To develop educational materials to support mother tongue teaching for immigrant pupils. Educational materials are an important resource for teachers. Hence it is essential to make specific mother tongue materials available to schools to support the teaching process.

- To make arrangements with the countries of origin to supply teachers, so that immigrant pupils may achieve a command of their mother tongue, and other pupils may have the option of learning these languages. Respect and appreciation for their mother tongue and its teaching are basic elements for immigrants to learn the language of the school. When this is carried out by teachers from the country of origin, an element of quality is introduced in the process. Hence, the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia*, within the framework of cooperation agreements, will encourage the presence in schools of teachers provided by the relevant authorities of the pupils' countries of origin.

Fifth objective

To promote a social climate of coexistence, respect and tolerance, especially in zones receiving immigrants. Schools should be encouraged to introduce and disseminate democratic values, not only of the educational community itself, but also of the neighbourhood.

The integration of the population within and outside the school context must be based on the right of all to live in a society that does not discriminate between immigrants and native-born but, instead, strives towards a society comprising citizens with the same rights, along with the capacity to recognise themselves as universal individuals. In this way, the diversity of origins and skills and of cultural and social characteristics will be recognised as an element common to the entire population.

Measures

- To support schools which implement processes of reflection and contrast of opinions regarding intercultural outlooks and which involve all sectors of the neighbourhood where the school is located. Schools are ideal places to analyse migratory phenomena objectively and responsibly and to foster social and cultural empathy towards others, based on the belief that all human beings are born free and equal in their dignity and rights.

- To foster the participation of the parents of immigrant pupils in schools as coeducators. The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will take steps for schools located in areas with significant numbers of immigrants to encourage the participation of mothers and fathers from these minorities in the parents' association and in school life. Information campaigns, intercultural days and diverse cultural activities will be carried out to achieve this aim. The *Consejería* will furthermore make public calls for support to finance the activities of federations and confederations of parents' associations to foster their participation, support their training, enhance their knowledge of the education system and increase their involvement in fostering coexistence within schools.

- To foster the participation of immigrant pupils in pupils' associations. To enhance their integration, it is important to encourage immigrant pupils to participate in pupil organisations. In this way they will feel informed and advised so that they can participate in school life on equal terms. The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will make annual public calls for support to finance the activities of pupil organisations in Andalusia. These public calls will particularly support projects which expressly involve the participation of immigrant pupils in pupils' associations.

Sixth objective
To promote multidimensional training for adult immigrants, with particular emphasis on immigrant parents whose children are receiving basic education.

Measures
- To integrate immigrants in basic training for adults. The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will encourage immigrants to enrol in establishments for adult education so that they can receive basic training for adults. There will be specific information campaigns for immigrant women interested in signing up for this training, given its importance for effective social and professional integration.

- To implement educational plans for immigrants in adult centres. The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* sees the necessity of encouraging educational programmes which involve intercultural exchange and socio-cultural entertainment, leading to an enhanced knowledge of diverse cultures. Relevant educational plans will be implemented under the terms of Law 3/1990 for adult education (Spain. Statutes, 1990b, Article 4) in Andalusia. Such plans aspire to enhance coexistence, knowledge of, and respect for cultural diversity.

- To provide specific training for adult education teaching staff working with the immigrant population. A basic necessity for working with immigrant adults is familiarity with, and a positive attitude towards, the values of other cultures. The importance of space, its organisation, and its function are different in each culture, as is the ideal distance from which to hold a conversation. Similarly, place, time, the extent to which something is to be kept a secret, and topics that may or may not be freely discussed are all features of the life of every culture The concept of time, its measurement, the use to be made of it, and the value placed on punctuality similarly differ. Given that each culture organises its daily life around its needs, its rites and its religion, it is important that teachers be aware of such information and act accordingly. Specific timetable adaptations may be made so that Muslim pupils, who wish to do so, may fast during the month of Ramadan.

- Teachers need to have the maximum of information regarding their students' culture, with respect to features concerning men and women respectively. Women often suffer inequalities, which, in many cases, deny them the basic rights to develop and maximise their capacity to choose, from the existing possibilities, their personal, educational, labour and social development.

- Teachers' training programmes will therefore include activities which address the training needs of this area. Adult educational institutions with high proportions of migrant students will also be encouraged, with the support of the corresponding Teachers' In-Service Training Centres, to carry out their own training plan within the establishment in order to adapt provision to their students' needs.

- To make agreements with associations, organisations or institutions working with immigrant communities. Joint work between the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* and non-profit associations working with immigrant communities will encourage the exchange of experiences and of materials which enhance both language learning and training for social participation. This collaboration will give immigrant students the basic tools to understand and analyse the range of situations and processes in which they are involved in their new cultural environment.

- To foster the participation of adult immigrants in associations for students, neighbourhoods, culture, etc. To foster their integration, immigrants must feel that, as citizens, they are members of social groups. The education of adult immigrants must be committed to the community's projects and therefore must provide immigrant students

with the necessary resources to analyse and participate in the different forms of social organisation and participation. To this end, Adult Education Centres will provide information about the different types of organisations in the area, and encourage the immigrant population to participate in them.

- To provide impetus to Plans for Community Action which provide social integration activities. The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will continue to promote agreements with town councils to provide social integration activities for adult immigrants.

Seventh objective

To provide impetus to Plans for Social Integration for the most underprivileged immigrant population, with the participation of the various administrations.

The proposal for an intercultural society does not limit itself to education, and much less to the educational establishment. The structure of relationships between social majorities and minorities is criss-crossed by other central themes, such as socio-economic dynamics, national immigration policy, citizenship and cultural pluralism, as well as by the attitudes and behaviours of the native-born population and the strategies of the immigrant groups themselves in their role as social actors. The proposal of interculturalism represents a challenge for all social institutions and public administrations. The work of educational establishments must therefore be reinforced by initiatives within the socio-communitary sphere of other institutions and administrations.

Follow-up and evaluation

A Follow-up Commission is to be established, comprising representatives from the various General Directorates of the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia*. The Commission will be chaired by the General Director of *Orientación Educativa y Solidaridad*, or his/her delegate.

A Technical Commission will also be established, comprising the General Directorate of *Orientación Educativa y Solidaridad*, the Provincial Coordinator for *Educación Compensatoria*, and the Inspector for *Atención a la Diversidad* of each of the Provincial Delegations.

The *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* will establish a procedure for evaluating the initiatives carried out under the Plan. This evaluation will be performed in collaboration with the educational establishments involved.

References

Consejería De Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Andalucía (1999a). *La Ley de Solidaridad en Educación*. Sevilla: Consejería de Educación y Ciencia. [Law on Equal Opportunities in Education.]

Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Andalucía (1999b). *Acuerdo por la Educación en Andalucía 1999 – 2003*. Sevilla: Consejería de Educación y Ciencia. [Agreement on Education in Andalusia 1999 – 2003.]

Spain. Statutes. (1978). *Constitución Española de 6 de Diciembre de 1978* (B.O.E. 19-12-1978). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Spanish Constitution.]

Spain. Statutes. (1985). *Ley Orgánica 8/1985, de 3 Julio, Reguladora del Derecho a la Educación (LODE)* (B.O.E. 4-7-1985). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law on the Right to Education.]

Spain. Statutes. (1990a). *Ley Orgánica 1/1990, de 3 de Octubre, de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo (LOGSE)* (B.O.E. 4-10-1990). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law on the General Organisation of the Education System.]

Spain. Statutes. (1990b). *Ley 3/1990, de 27 de Marzo, para la Educación de Adultos de la Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía* (B.O.E. 8-6-1990). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Law 3/1990 for adult education.]

Spain. Junta de Andalucía. Statutes. (1999). *Ley 9/1999, de 18 de Noviembre, de Solidaridad en Educación* (BOJA 2-12-1990). Sevilla: Junta de Andalucía. [Law 9/1999 of 18 November for Solidarity in Education]

UNESCO (1966). *Declaración de los Principios de la Cooperación Cultural Internacional*. Paris: UNESCO.

Integration plan for immigrants in Aragon 2002–2004

Carmen Solano Carreras

Introduction

The *Plan de Integración para la Inmigración en Aragón 2002–2004* (Integration Plan for Immigrants in Aragon 2002–2004) currently submitted for debate is the result of diverse initiatives by the Parliament of Aragon and by the Government of Aragon to link policies to achieve the social integration of immigrants within Aragon in a coherent way. It is also a response to the quantitative and qualitative changes in immigration over recent years and aims to prevent conflict by means of mutual understanding, dialogue and participation.

Following a Statement and consultation, the Government submitted a *Plan Integral de Política Demográfica* (Integrated Plan for Demographic Policy) to the Aragon Parliament in October 2000. Among the strategies included were the establishment of a plan for provision for immigrants and the creation of a consultative forum, with representation from the various stakeholders.

The signing of the *Acuerdo Económico y Social para el Progreso de Aragón* (Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Aragón, 2001) or economic and social agreement for the development of Aragon, expresses the commitment to draw up a plan for the integration of immigrants, which aims to ensure that all immigrants in Aragon, regardless of their administrative situation, may live in dignity and enjoy the fundamental rights to which all people are entitled. Similarly, as citizens, they are to be encouraged to participate in the welfare state provided for by the Spanish Constitution.

As early as 1994, the *Departamento de Bienestar Social y Trabajo* (Department of Social Welfare and Labour) formulated a draft Plan for the Social Integration of Immigrants in the Autonomous Community of Aragon. Although the Plan did not become law, some of its initiatives have been developed, to a greater or lesser extent, during the past seven years. The Government of Aragon wishes to assume its responsibility for providing basic services to citizens by means of this Plan and in the formulation,

management, coordination and evaluation of the various policies which affect immigrants.

The Plan is based on the concept of immigrants as citizens, and therefore as subjects with rights and duties. Given that the reception, provision for, and integration of immigrants is required by the principles of solidarity and respect of human rights, they must not be blocked for administrative reasons.

On the basis of this interpretation, the Government of Aragon has lodged an appeal of unconstitutionality against Organic Law 8/2000 (Spain. Statutes, 2000b), which reformulates Organic Law 4/2000 on the Rights and Freedoms of Foreigners in Spain and their Social Integration (Spain. Statutes, 2000a), because it considers that the latter Law encroaches on the rights to assemble and demonstrate, to associate, to join a trade union and strike, and to obtain free legal counselling. All of these are rights of all foreigners as human beings, whose human dignity is to be safeguarded. These rights may therefore not be affected by their administrative status.

The Autonomous Community of Aragon receives immigrants who settle in the Community and therefore grants them access to all the services which it makes available to its own citizens. One of the objectives of the Plan is therefore to facilitate the integration of immigrants into the systems and services provided.

However, foreigners sometimes have difficulties in accessing these general services due to linguistic or cultural differences. Action, support and sometimes specific temporary resources are required to help the most vulnerable sectors of immigrants compensate for, and overcome their difficulties, and to promote their access to general public services and resources.

In addition to these two principles, the Plan takes the following general considerations into account:

- Immigration is a *complex and changing phenomenon* which requires coordinated, flexible strategies and activities, adapted to the new situations. Language, nationality, culture, etc. are variables which affect the appropriateness and outcomes of the proposed measures and policies

- In view of its complexity, the implementation of the Plan involves several departments and agencies of the Autonomous Community, municipal and regional authorities, as well as non-profit organisations, trade unions, business organisations and other bodies involved in provision for immigrants. The various activities require coordination and planning and a mechanism is necessary to implement a coordinated, global and integrated strategy aimed at equal opportunities for immigrants. This mechanism will also allow for the monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness and efficiency of the strategies adopted, as well as of the activity and responsibility of the various agents involved. The Plan is drawn up with these objectives in mind.

- Account must also be taken of the host community; consideration of immigration therefore involves working simultaneously with both Spanish and immigrant populations. Integration will only be successful if there is adaptation and negotiation of identity on both sides. In this way, it will be possible to avoid the reductionist view of immigration as a social problem, and which denies its contribution to the social and cultural (not only economic) enrichment of society as a whole. Social awareness of immigration, rejection of racism and xenophobia, and interculturalism as an intrinsic value are the elements that have inspired the formulation of this Plan. They are similarly present in each of the strategies.

The Plan is a planning tool, whose strategies and priorities are based on the needs of the immigrant population. It takes into account not only existing actions, but also the objectives for the next three years. It should none the less be interpreted and implemented with the flexibility inherent in the phenomenon of immigration. This has led the Government of Aragon to consider that the Plan should be developed over a period of three years, from 2002 to 2004.

Existing plans with common programmes or activities, at national, Autonomous Community, regional or local levels, have also been taken into account when drawing up the Plan.

The principal methodological difficulty in drawing up the Plan has been that of obtaining data on the scale of immigration in Aragon. Its characteristics and, more specifically, the question of 'irregularity' (that is, immigrants who have not registered their residence) make it extremely difficult to estimate the number of immigrants who currently live in Aragon. Moreover, there is no single register of immigrants. Analysis of the 2001 census will provide a

more exact idea of the number of immigrants in Aragon, who they are, and how they live.

The data obtained from the continuous Municipal Register, although indicating a larger number of immigrants than reflected by the national administration, none the less contain inaccuracies. Manuel Pinos Quilez (2000) conducted a qualitative research study into foreign immigration in Aragon.[33]

The Integration Plan for Immigrants in Aragon is the result of the joint work of different Departments of the Government of Aragon, along with the social agencies which have recently signed the *Acuerdo Económico y Social para el Progreso de Aragón* (AESPA) the economic and social agreement for the development of Aragon (Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Aragón, 2001). The *Comisión Interdepartamental* (Interdepartmental Commission) decided, at its meeting of 21 January 2002, to take the Plan as a basic document for debate and enrichment. The *Comisión de Seguimiento* (Follow-up Commission), which was established under the terms of AESPA, has developed the Plan to its current form.

However, the Plan will not be complete until it includes the contributions of the various social organisations, representing the host and the immigrant communities. These contributions are preferably to be channelled through the *Foro de la Inmigración en Aragón* (Forum for Immigration in Aragon).

The Government will approve the Plan subject to the outcome of the public consultation.

Guiding principles

This section describes the principles that guide the proposed activities of the Plan and those that may complement its implementation.

---

[33] This unpublished study was commissioned by the Aragon Administration. The findings were based on 908 interviews, 122 in the province of Huesca, 82 in the province of Teruel and 693 in the province of Zaragoza.

Equality

The integration of immigrants into Aragon society is to be carried out under conditions where their rights, duties and opportunities are comparable to those of Spanish citizens, leading to a common, shared citizenship. Not to do so would amount to renouncing the ultimate goal of full integration.

Normalisation

'Normalisation' is the principle of inclusion, which requires that, generally speaking, provision for immigrants will be carried out within the existing framework of public services, thereby avoiding the generation of parallel structures.

The right to be different and respect for identity deserve special attention and call for the establishment of specific services to foster equal access, by immigrants and Spaniards, to standard public services. This means that provisions for immigrants should be characterised by a balance between the principle of inclusion – which is to be a general criterion – and specialised services, where required.

Comprehensiveness

The planned initiatives should keep the overall population in mind and include measures to cater for all sectors of the community. Dissemination strategies are required to inform the whole population of the strategies and outcomes. This concerns professionals and the media in particular, given that their activity may contribute to the process of integrating immigrants into Aragon.

Interculturalism

Cultural diversity should be valued as a source of mutual enrichment and progress for society.

Multiethnic coexistence in a democratic society is only possible on the basis of respect for cultural differences and the recognition of diversity. The limits to be established are those common values shared by the host community, such as respect for human rights, democratic procedures and equality between men and women.

In so far as it is an instrument for social integration, the principle of interculturalism should be shared by majorities and minorities, with both learning to live with difference and holding the value of tolerance as the fundamental principle in the process of integration.

Integration

All initiatives will contribute to this principle, thereby unleashing synergies which will foster the full integration of immigrants into the host community. It is therefore necessary to consider the immigrants, not only from the labour or administrative point of view, but as people with many dimensions.

Participation

In so far as it is a guiding principle, democratic participation calls for the active involvement of all economic and social agencies and institutions, in the planning process and in the implementation of the activities. This in turn implies providing opportunities for consultation to ensure that the proposed measures reflect a consensus of the host community and of the immigrants for whom the initiatives are intended.

The Plan includes two previously established bodies: the *Comisión de Seguimiento del Acuerdo Económico y Social para el Progreso en Aragón* (Monitoring Commission of the Economic and Social Agreement for the Progress of Aragon) and the *Foro de la Inmigración* (Forum for Immigration).

Coordination

One of the characteristics of immigration is its complexity, given that different institutions and agencies participate at the levels of authority. It is therefore essential to set up channels to allow social agencies, authorities and bodies and especially national and local administrations, to coordinate activities.

Improved coordination will ensure best use of existing resources, increase the effectiveness of the intervention and allow new needs to be identified and addressed as they arise.

The Government of Aragon guarantees the internal coordination of the various Departments, directly or indirectly intervening in the provision for immigrants by means of a *Comisión Interdepartamental* (Interdepartmental Commission), established for this purpose.

Decentralisation

The Plan intends to establish the global framework to govern and guide all activities undertaken in the field of immigration within the Autonomous Community of Aragon.

A decentralised management, originating in local administrations (municipalities and regions) is advisable for the practical implementation of the strategies, in so far as they are closer to, and more familiar with, the needs of the immigrant community.

Cross-sector involvement

Certain activities and principles concerning immigration, such as equality of rights and duties, are seen to pervade all aspects of provision and should be kept in mind when considering specific strategies in the areas of housing, health, work, and so forth.

Objectives

Any type of planning should contain objectives that contribute, in a very general manner, to the coherence of the measures adopted. None the less, the specific objectives to be fulfilled are defined in each area of the Plan. These objectives will be achieved by implementing all of the following:

- promoting a global integration policy for immigrants who have settled in the territory of Aragon, fostering the necessary conditions to ensure coexistence based on the recognition of rights and duties

- fostering equal access to public services by immigrants and the rest of the population, thereby avoiding exclusion

- encouraging the democratic participation of foreign immigrants in Aragon society, whilst recognising their differences and valuing diversity as a factor of mutual enrichment

- establishing far-reaching mechanisms to disseminate information, which will allow Aragon society to understand the reality of immigration, thereby contributing to fostering intercultural coexistence

- raising general awareness and encouraging positive attitudes towards immigration, as well as rejecting all manifestations of racism, xenophobia or discrimination

- establishing channels for collaboration between administrations and societal agencies which, through coordinated efforts, will maximise the positive effects of the intended measures

- collaborating in the development of the most underprivileged countries, promoting greater guarantees for stability and democratic participation within the framework of respect for human rights and fundamental liberties through *Cooperación Aragonesa al Desarrollo* (Aragonese

Cooperation towards Development) In this way, it will be possible to have some impact on the causes which lead to migration.

Proposed activities

The proposed education activities are complemented by those proposed for the other six policy areas: work and training, legal provision, social services, housing, health and raising awareness.

Education

Programme 1: Schooling and Reception of Immigrants
Description
Current regulations require free books, meals and other assistance to be allocated at the beginning of each school year. Because immigrants sometimes arrive in the Autonomous Community of Aragon during the academic year, outside the official school enrolment periods, it is necessary for such support, and their associated budgets, to remain available throughout the school year.

Objective
- To guarantee equality in the enrolment process for immigrant children and adults.

Strategies
- To develop reception plans that consider the special needs of pupils at this stage, whereby schools focus, not only on educational issues, but also on those concerning nutrition, health and psychology

- To promote and foster pilot projects which consider educational alternatives in response to the specific needs of children during their compulsory education

- To enable applications for support for school meals, books, school materials and transport during compulsory education to be made without bureaucratic obstacles, at any time during the school year

- To ensure the control and follow-up of school enrolment, through the intercession of the *Comisión de Escolarización* (Committee for the Allocation of School Places) and in accordance with the criteria set up under the relevant regulations, especially when the process takes place outside the normal enrolment period

- To provide study grants and support at non-compulsory education levels

- To secure schooling for children below compulsory school age who accompany seasonal workers during farming seasons.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia (Department of Education and Science)

Collaborating bodies
- Department of Health, Consumers and Social Services

- Municipal Councils

Evaluation indicators
- Number of schools with reception plans (number of participating pupils and teachers; evaluation and degree of satisfaction)

- Number of school meal grants awarded (percentage increase in number of grants and in budget, compared with the previous year)

- Number of school registrations after the normal deadline

- Number of grants awarded (percentage increase in number of grants and in budget, compared with the previous year)

- Number of pupils receiving temporary schooling.

Programme 2: Centro Aragonés de Recursos para la Educación Intercultural (CAREI)
Description
The setting up of CAREI (the Intercultural Education Resource Centre of Aragon) responds to a need which has been felt and expressed by teachers working in areas where immigrant has grown very significantly over the past two years. CAREI currently has a specific location and is staffed by three professionals, although it should have a number of advisers to reflect the scale of its task.

Objectives
- To support infant, primary, secondary and adult education establishments in Aragon, in teaching issues as well as those concerning educational materials

- To inform teachers about curriculum features relevant to immigrant pupils.

Strategies
- To secure the physical and legal establishment of the CAREI, along with a budget for staff and necessary materials

- To promote the dissemination of information about the CAREI

- To foster the development and adaptation of curricular materials for teaching Spanish and especially for obtaining a driver's licence

- To include, within the *Planes de Formación* (Annual Training Plans), specific courses, permanent seminars and work groups to support schools and teachers with regard to new training needs which may arise

- To carry out research into immigrants in the education system, thereby providing quantitative and qualitative data.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Evaluation indicators
- Number of visits received (number of requests for advice; percentage of teachers and non-teaching professionals who know about and use the CAREI; number of activities)

- Number of information activities carried out

- Classification of activities

- Number of requests satisfied for adaptation of materials (number of publications)

- Number of courses taught (number of hours; evaluation and level of satisfaction with the courses)

- Number of reports/studies (information issued).

Programme 3:   Information on Educational Resources in Aragon
Description
The arrival of immigrants involves access to various systems, among them, the education system. Additional difficulties in making contact may occasionally arise due to language problems or to a lack of knowledge about available resources. An effort will therefore be made to facilitate this task for the immigrant, by gathering together in one place all the opportunities for integration into the education system.

Objectives
- To acquaint immigrants with the resources offered by the education system in Aragon
- To provide information regarding the system for study assistance and grants.

Strategies
- To produce and distribute brochures in various languages – in collaboration with the CAREI and the *Servicios Provinciales de Educación y Ciencia* (Provincial Services of Education and Science) – which include the necessary information about the educational opportunities available to immigrants
- To provide and disseminate information about the procedures for obtaining assistance, to immigrant associations, neighbourhood associations, educational professionals and all the organisations and bodies working with immigrants
- To designate, in each Provincial Service, referral professionals who will be trained in issues concerning foreigners, and contribute to improving information and referrals in the case of specific needs of the immigrant population
- To adapt school enrolment forms.

Responsible organisation
Servicios Provinciales de Educación y Ciencia

Collaborating bodies
- Intercultural Education Resource Centre of Aragon
- University of Zaragoza
- Immigrant Associations
- Provincial Councils
- City Councils of Huesca, Teruel and Zaragoza
- Trade Unions
- Business Organisations.

Evaluation indicators
- Number of brochures issued and number of languages covered
- Degree of dissemination

- Number of brochures disseminated

- Level of knowledge about the aid mechanisms among public and private bodies

- Number of public and private bodies which use the brochures to promote access to the service.

Programme 4:   In-service Teacher Training
Description
Immigration constitutes a new phenomenon in all sectors of society, including that of education. Professionals working in educational establishments are aware of new needs and request training in cultural and pedagogical aspects to help them understand the new situation and to facilitate their teaching in increasingly multicultural classrooms.

Objectives
- To respond to the training needs expressed by the teachers

- To offer Aragon teachers training which is appropriate with respect to its timing and content

- To foster innovative projects that favour intercultural coexistence in schools.

Strategies
- Setting up of a *Seminario Regional Permanente* (Permanent Regional Seminar) on educational provision for staff responsible for teaching the reception language to immigrants in primary and secondary schools

- Setting up of a *Seminario Regional Permanente* for the staff responsible for language teaching in adult establishments

- To foster the development of *Planes de Formación* (Annual Training Plans) in centres which include aspects of interculturalism and Reception Plans for immigrant pupils

- To include, in regional training plans, courses which deal with interculturalism, reception plans for immigrant pupils in schools, and education from the point of view of diversity

- To designate a referral consultant in Teachers' and Resources Centres, who will serve as a driving force and coordinate Centres' training programmes on interculturalism

- To include subjects such as intercultural education and Spanish for foreigners in undergraduate and post-graduate teacher training programmes.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Collaborating bodies
- Teachers' Federation of CCOO of Aragon and UGT (FETE-UGT)

- Education Sector of CSI-CSIF

- Aragonese Federation of Education Trade Unions FASE-CGT

- *Centro Obrero de Formación* (Workers' Training Centre)

- Aragonese Association of Psychopedagogy

- Spanish Red Cross

- *Movimiento contra la Intolerancia* (Anti-intolerance Movement).

Evaluation indicators
- Number of people taking part in the seminar (level of satisfaction with respect to their participation; number of sessions)

- Number of schools with reception plans (overall assessment by professionals in schools)

- Number of courses/hours (number of professionals; course evaluation by participants)

- Programme evaluation by the *Centro de Profesores y Recursos (CPR)[34]* (suitability of training programmes).

Programme 5: Spanish Language Classes for Immigrant Pupils of Secondary Compulsory Education
Description
Language is the principal means of communication within society. Lack of knowledge of the language impedes many daily activities as well as social integration. When pupils have started their schooling in another country and continue their education in a new, unknown language, a significant part of teaching must be dedicated to the host language. The aim is to enable

---

[34] Institutions for continuing training of non-university public teachers, as well as for staff performing educational tasks in technical support services.

pupils to engage in the process of socio-educational integration in a normal way.

Objectives
- To support immigrant pupils in secondary education whose special needs arise from their lack of knowledge of the host language and culture

- To facilitate their integration into, and coexistence within, Aragon society.

Strategies
- To set up new Spanish language classes and to maintain those already in existence in secondary schools where the number of new immigrant pupils warrants them

- To study and evaluate the feasibility of setting up support strategies in the teaching of Spanish for immigrant pupils in the final years of primary education

- To provide back-up, through tutorials, for the educational needs of pupils.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Evaluation indicators
- Number and profile of participants (number of newly set up classes; number of teachers; pupil satisfaction; teacher satisfaction; demand for classes; number of requests)

- Evaluation by form teachers in schools with immigrant pupils (number of teaching hours; number of pupils attended; number of requests).

Programme 6: Spanish Language for Adults
Description
Language is the principal means of communication within society. Lack of knowledge of the language impedes many daily activities as well as social integration. The increase in adult immigrants, especially of women of different nationalities, who know neither the Spanish language nor its cultural codes, means that more courses are needed. These should be adapted to the availability and circumstances of this new user group.

Objectives
- To foster the access by immigrants to Spanish language and formal literacy classes

- To increase and suitably adapt existing courses in Spanish language for adult immigrants

- To foster knowledge of the Spanish language and culture among immigrant women, and promote their integration into the community in which they live.

Strategies
- To develop and adapt language courses aimed at adults in the three provincial capitals and in those regional administrative centres with an immigrant population. Courses are to be especially aimed at women, at the times and under conditions which are compatible with their family circumstances and their work. Needs will therefore be evaluated on a yearly basis, and the necessary staff and materials adjusted accordingly

- To develop the materials and resources necessary to implement these strategies.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Collaborating bodies
- Trade Unions

- Business Organisations

- Local Agencies

- Non-profit Organisations

- *Instituto Aragonés de Empleo* (Aragonese Institute for Employment)

Evaluation indicators
- Number of language courses provided (number and profile of students; increase in number of teachers compared with the previous year; teacher satisfaction; student satisfaction)

- Number and type of educational materials (suitability; course evaluation by staff and students).

Programme 7:   Advanced Spanish Language Courses
Description
It is unanimously agreed that language plays an essential role in communication and social relations. Once a basic command has been achieved, there is a need to acquire deeper knowledge and improvement in order to participate in community life. This measure strives to address this perceived need by offering suitable training to achieve an advanced level of Spanish language competence.

Objective
To offer opportunities to improve knowledge of the Spanish language, once the level of the basic language course for adults has been achieved.

Strategies
- To carry out curricular adaptation of existing courses of Spanish for foreigners

- To extend the offering of existing Spanish language courses to the language schools of the Autonomous Community.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Evaluation indicators
- Number of activities carried out

- Number of new Spanish language courses established in the Official Language Schools (number of participants; number of applications; participant evaluation of the training).

Programme 8:   Interculturalism in Parents' Associations
Description
The arrival of immigrants in Aragon should include their integration into its participatory organisations. The school attended by their children can, and should, provide opportunities to learn about, and to participate in, the social and cultural community in which they have chosen to live. It should therefore be a place which fosters their integration into a new society.

Objectives
- To encourage active participation by parents of immigrant pupils in schools' parents' associations

- To foster, through parents' associations, activities which may help parents get to know and respect the different cultures coexisting in the school.

Strategies
- To promote activities of intercultural participation within schools, in their extracurricular activities and in the *Planes de Integración de Espacios Escolares* (Plans for the Integration of School Enrolment Catchment Areas), as applicable

- To support programmes for cultural exchange within schools, in which the diverse sectors of the educational community jointly participate.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Collaborating bodies
- Parents' Federations and Associations

- Immigrant Associations

Evaluation indicators
- Number of activities (total participants; evaluation and levels of satisfaction; participation rate by category (pupils, parents, associations, teaching staff))

- Number of schools that have carried out programmes of cultural exchange

- Number of participants overall and by category; evaluation and level of satisfaction.

Programme 9: Towards an Intercultural School
Description
Awareness of the cultural characteristics of other peoples is without doubt one of the most enriching, as well as socially integrating, activities. The sharing of different traditions may provide pupils, parents and teachers with cultural codes for explaining attitudes and behaviours. School may therefore provide a forum in which parents, pupils and teachers gather to share and understand cultures and traditions.

Objectives
- To foster cultural interchange between the immigrant population and the host society

- To conceive of schools as places for bringing different cultures together

- To foster the integration of immigrants within schools' organisations for democratic participation.

Strategy
- To promote innovation programmes and projects aimed at fostering coexistence and interculturalism as an educational resource in schools, at the same time encouraging the participation of all social and educational sectors.

Responsible organisation
School Councils

Collaborating bodies
- *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia*

- Parents' Federations and Associations

- Immigrant Associations

Evaluation indicators
- Number of innovation programmes presented; number of programmes implemented; number of pupils and teachers involved; level of satisfaction.

Programme 10: Basic Literacy for Adult Immigrants
Description
Daily life in society requires basic literacy and a knowledge of procedures, including reading/writing, mathematical operations and social skills. One of the concerns most frequently expressed by immigrants is their difficulty in obtaining a driver's licence in Spain. A driver's licence is an essential tool for many jobs. Immigrants find it extremely difficult to secure recognition of their existing licence or obtain a new one, especially when their native language is not Spanish. This is because they must take a written test, for which understanding of the language is essential.

Objectives
- To organise courses and materials in accordance with the regulations (Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Aragón, 2002) governing the formal literacy courses for obtaining a driver's licence

- To facilitate access to the important tool which a driver's licence represents for certain jobs

- To coordinate, through the Educational Authority, all activities aimed at the immigrant population which are carried out by public or private non-profit organisations in Aragon.

Strategies
- To establish provincial courses in basic literacy for adult immigrants and to develop and publish the materials needed to obtain a driver's licence

- To set up three working groups, one per province, to plan literacy courses and to develop and publish materials

- To set up a commission to study, plan and regulate the literacy activities for immigrants in the Autonomous Community of Aragon

- To make agreements with City Councils and non-profit organisations for the provision of literacy courses.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Collaborating bodies
- Provincial Councils and City Councils

- *Patronato de Educación* (Education Board) of the City Councils of Zaragoza

- Trade Union Organisations and Business Organisations

- Non-profit Organisations

Evaluation indicators
- Number of courses provided; number of pupils and teachers participating in the programme; levels of satisfaction; number of materials published; suitability of these materials (as evaluated by pupils/teachers)

- Number of agreements drawn up and coverage (that is, number of requests made and percentage satisfied).

Programme 11: Maintenance of the Language and Culture of Origin
Description
Under Ministry of Foreign Affairs agreements between Spain and Portugal, the Portuguese Government sends Portuguese language teachers to Spanish schools with a significant number of Portuguese pupils. This experience has proven very positive and stimulating, suggesting that the existence of a similar programme with other countries, and in particular with the Maghreb and Eastern Europe, would enhance the integration of pupils of other nationalities.

Objective
- To foster the maintenance of the language and culture of the country of origin.

Strategies
- To ask the Spanish Government to make agreements with the governments of countries from which there are significant numbers of people migrating to Spain, to provide mother tongue teachers for Spanish schools

- To develop programmes for maintaining the language and culture of origin, and collaborate with programmes in Spanish schools with the culture and customs of different countries.

Responsible organisation
Consejería de Educación y Ciencia

Collaborating bodies
- Department of Culture and Tourism

- Ministry of Foreign Affairs

- Local Authorities

- Immigrant Associations

Evaluation indicators
- Number of schools with mother tongue maintenance programmes; number of cultural exchange activities carried out in schools; number of participants; programme evaluation by schools.

Coordination

As stated in the Guiding Principles, the complexity of immigration requires the involvement of different authorities and each of their departments, as well as that of societal bodies and non-profit organisations.

The effectiveness of the activities proposed in the Plan will depend on the establishment of mechanisms to coordinate complementary resources and thus avoid duplication and problems of communication or coordination between the various agencies.

Three levels of coordination are to be distinguished: national, Autonomous Community and local.

National
Coordination between the activities of the Autonomous Community and of Central Government has three forums:

- the *Consejo Superior de Política de Inmigración* (Higher Council for Immigration Policy), set up to coordinate the actions of the respective Public Authorities

- the *Foro para la Integración Social de los Inmigrantes* (Forum for the Social Integration of Immigrants), created as a body for consultation, information and advice for Central Government, the Autonomous Communities and local authorities

- the *Comisión Ejecutiva Provincial del INEM* (Provincial Executive Commission of the National Institute for Employment) annually determines the number of foreign workers required. The Commission comprises business associations, trade union associations and the Central Government and Autonomous Community Authority.

In addition to these agencies, the *Observatorio Permanente de la Inmigración* (Permanent Observatory for Immigration) will collect and analyse data about immigration in Spain as a whole, and in the individual Autonomous Communities.

Autonomous community
The Government of Aragon is aware of the need for coordination among its departments and therefore, under the terms of Royal Decree 113/2001 of

22 May, (Aragon. Statutory Instruments, 113/ 2001, Chapter I, art. 3), set up the following:

- The *Comisión Interdepartamental para la Inmigración* (Interdepartmental Commission for Immigration) which *'coordinates the immigration policy of the Government of Aragon.'* The Interdepartmental Commission is the natural body to coordinate and monitor the Integration Plan for Immigrants, given that it includes representatives from the departments on which the implementation of the Plan's proposed strategies and actions depend. This Commission also develops the Government of Aragon's proposals for provision for immigrants. It therefore deals with review and feedback from the different programmes, as well as the action to be taken.

- The *Oficina para Inmigración del Gobierno de Aragón* (Office for Immigration of the Government of Aragon) coordinates and monitors the implementation of the Plan's proposed activities.

Local

It is essential to coordinate policies and initiatives at national and Autonomous Community levels with those at a local level. Collaboration agreements have therefore been made between the local and the Autonomous Community authorities to facilitate, specifically, the coordination of the strategies and activities of both authorities, in order to avoid problems of communication, coordination and duplication.

Monitoring and evaluation

The Integration Plan for Immigrants aims to affect the daily lives of everyone living in Aragon, both Spaniards and foreigners, to secure coexistence and intercultural enrichment. It therefore proposes a wide series of measures, structured into various cross-departmental programmes of community action, which affect education, housing, employment, social awareness, personal attitudes, and so on.

A plan which intends to influence many sectors, at many levels and with many different types of initiative requires close monitoring and on-going evaluation in order to secure the feedback necessary continuously to correct and improve its effectiveness and efficiency.

Monitoring
The coordination bodies mentioned above will participate in this task, given that they combine both roles.

- As part of its coordination of departmental activities, and especially with reference to the development of the Government of Aragon's proposals for provision for immigrants (Junta of Aragon. Statutory Instruments, 2001a), the *Comisión Interdepartamental para la Inmigración* (Interdepartmental Commission for Immigration) will periodically evaluate the extent to which the Plan has been implemented, as well as any problems of communication or coordination or dysfunction between the various Departments.

- Among its functions, the *Foro para la Integración Social de los Inmigrantes* (Forum for the Social Integration of Immigrants) will be consulted on the *'activities and programmes that are drawn up by the various public and private institutions'*. It will also *'prepare an annual report which analyses the situation of immigrants and the effect of immigration on Aragonese society'* (Junta of Aragon. Statutory Instruments; 2001a, Chapter II, art. 6). The report is to include the evaluation of the implementation of the Integration Plan activities.

- The *Comisión de Seguimiento* (Monitoring Commission) was created within the framework of the economic and social agreement for the development of Aragon (Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Aragón, 2001). This agreement establishes that the signatories will prepare guidelines for formulating measures to integrate immigrants. It will meet on a quarterly basis.

- The *Servicio de Análisis y Atención a la Inmigración* (Service of Analysis and Provision for Immigration) was set up by Royal Decree 146/2001 (Junta de Aragón. Statutory Instruments, 2001b) as the administrative body to support initiatives which contribute to the study and follow-up of the diverse activities in the field of immigration. One of its principal tasks is to monitor the implementation of public policy of the Autonomous Community on issues of immigration.

- *Oficina para Inmigración del Gobierno de Aragón* (Government Office for Immigration in Aragon).

Evaluation
The Plan aims to affect the specific policies of various departments, the activities of local administrations, personal and professional attitudes, and so forth. It also aims to involve very diverse sectors, including public

authorities, representative of the different sectors of society and social agencies, and the – Spanish and immigrant – population as a whole.

Both aspects demand regular and frequent evaluation to facilitate ongoing improvement of the form and content of strategies, ensuring that the timescale is met.

Evaluations will be carried out by the designated organisations according to the following timescale:

- *Servicio de Análisis y Atención a la Inmigración* (Service of Needs Analysis and Provision for Immigration): quarterly evaluation, reporting to the president and vice president of the *Comisión Interdepartamental para la Inmigración* and to the president of the *Foro para la Integración Social de los Inmigrantes.*

- *Comisión Interdepartamental para la Inmigración* and *Foro para la Integración Social de los Inmigrantes*: biannual evaluation.

- *Comisión de Seguimiento del Plan Integral para la Inmigración del Acuerdo Económico y Social para el Progreso de Aragón* (Follow-up Commission of the Integration Plan for Immigrants of the Economic and Social Agreement for the Development of Aragon). Continual evaluation.

References

Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Aragón (2000a). *Plan Integral de Política Demográfica.* Zaragosa: Junta de Aragón. [Integrated Plan for Demographic Policy.]

Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Aragón (2000b). *Orden de 4 de diciembre de 2000, del Departamento de Educación y Ciencia, por la que se modifica la orden de 24 de octubre de 2000, por la que se concedían y denegaban subvenciones a entidades privadas sin fines de lucro, para la realización de actividades en el marco de la Educación de Personas Adultas, para el curso 2000-2001.* [B.A.O. 21 December]. Zaragosa: Junta de Aragón. [Order of 4 December 2000 modifying the order of 24 october 2000.]

Consejería de Educación y Ciencia de la Junta de Aragón (2001). *Acuerdo Económico y Social para el Progreso de Aragón* (*AESPA*). Zaragosa: Junta de Aragón. [Economic and Social Agreement on the Development of Aragon.]

Junta de Aragón. Statutory Instruments. (2001a). *Decreto 113/2001, de 22 de Mayo, del Gobierno de Aragón, por el que se crea la Comisión*

Interdepartamental para la Immigración y el Foro de la Inmigración en Aragón (B.O.A. 8-6-2001). Aragón: Junta de Aragón. [Decree 113/2001 of 15 May 2001 for the creation of the Interdepartmental Commission for Immigration and the Forum for Immigration in Aragon.]

Junta de Aragón. Statutory Instruments. (2001b). *Decreto 146/2001, de 3 de Julio, del Gobierno de Aragón, por el que se modifica el Decreto 201/1999, de 2 de Noviembre del Gobierno de Aragón por el que se aprueba la Estructura Orgánica del Departamento de Sanidad, Consumo y Bienestar Social* (B.O.A. 27-7-2001). Aragón: Junta de Aragón. [Decree 146/2001.]

PINOS QUILEZ, M. (2000). 'La inmigración extranjera en Aragón. Estudio sociodemográfico.' Unpublished Report to the Aragon Administration. [Foreign Immigration in Aragon. A Socio-demographic Study.]

Spain. Statutes. (2000a). *Ley Orgánica 4/2000, de 11 de Enero, sobre Derechos y libertades de los extranjeros en España y su integración social* (B.O.E. 12-1-2000). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law 4/2000, 11 January 2000, on the Rights and Freedoms of Foreigners in Spain and their Social Integration.]

Spain. Statutes. (2000b). *Ley Orgánica 8/2000, de 22 de Diciembre, de Reforma de la Ley Orgánica 4/2000, de 11 de Enero, sobre Derechos y libertades de los estranjeros en España y su integración social* (B.O.E. 23-12-2000). Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law 8/2000, 22 December 2000, on the Amendment of Organic Law 4/2000, 11 January.]

Provision for diversity in the autonomous community of Madrid

Mª Antonia Casanova

Introduction

If one were to characterise modern society in developed nations by some features common to recent times, these would undoubtedly refer to technological advance and to the ease of communication and mobility around the world. This leads to a culture of globalisation and hence to the need for people who are very different (in ideas, religions, ethnic origin, customs, cultures, etc.) to live together (either physically or virtually) within the same space, or to communicate with each other by means of technology. All of this takes place at a speed that, all too often, does not allow the person concerned to adapt to the new situations as they arise.

The Community of Madrid closely reflects the above-mentioned characteristics and our society must clearly face the challenges of coexistence, so that its members may achieve it to a high degree. The population includes those from different nations, as well as people with different abilities and talents, along with the usual differences among all human beings. These factors give rise to a society of 'different' people, making it necessary to learn to coexist while respecting this diversity, and searching within it (by learning and discussion) for reasons and sources of enrichment for all.

In Madrid, in the 2001–2002 school year, there were nearly 52,000 pupils from other countries. They speak more than 30 different languages and are of more than 100 nationalities. Over 14,000 pupils have special educational needs arising from some type of disability and about 1.5 to 2 per cent of all the pupils are highly gifted.

This entire population is in the compulsory education stage, compelling us to meet the challenge of addressing the diversity which these boys and girls present, so that they may all achieve the general aims proposed in the Spanish system to the fullest extent possible. That is to say, that all of them may develop their abilities to the utmost, supported by the general structure and the working of the system, as well as by the teachers, who are ultimately in direct charge of the situation depicted.

Initial approaches

School is the place where the education which the law prescribes for the citizens of a nation is carried out.

As may be seen on a day-to-day basis, present society is extremely diverse. Diversity is the norm, not the exception. We are very aware of this in the Community of Madrid, where multiculturalism is a palpable fact.

If a school is to respond to educational and social demands, it must have a margin of autonomy in its governance, organisation and curriculum, to tailor its educational provision to the needs of pupils. In this way, the school will address diversity and thus achieve the quality of education demanded by society, and which it could otherwise not offer. Those who assume that they are working with homogenous groups in a school or a classroom (which in principle is false, for all of us are different) can never respond to the characteristics of each pupil. Instead, they will focus on a non-existent 'standard pupil' or 'virtual pupil', and will neglect anyone not conforming to the assumed standard. As previously stated, diversity is the norm and it must serve as the point of departure for any realistic approach to education.

This line of reasoning is especially valid, and must be accepted without reservation in compulsory education, which aims to adapt to the characteristics of each pupil and target provision to develop his/her capacities. As people, we are all different and the education system must be sufficiently flexible to adapt to the particular features of an individual and to make provision in line with these features. It is the system which must adapt itself to the pupil, not vice versa.

It is necessary to maintain a satisfactory level of coexistence within society. Hence, thought must be given to the model of schooling, which will in turn give rise to the evolving social model. If we want an inclusive society, education must be inclusive. We must achieve a **school for all**, which accepts diversity, adapts to each individual and is enriched by the differences. As mentioned above, this goal is reached by means of a school that makes itself responsible for all the pupils. It must be kept in mind that each pupil has educational needs to which the school must respond. Individual differences, and therefore educational needs, may be more or less acute due to different causes, including:

- different cognitive styles, learning pace, motivation or interests, etc.

- special educational needs stemming from:

- being highly gifted

- disabilities or disorders (motor, sensory, psychic, other)

- need for compensatory education for those who:

- belong to ethnic or cultural minorities

- grow up in socially marginal or underprivileged areas

- are in hospital or convalescent

- are itinerant

- lack knowledge of the majority language of the surrounding area.

In short, and reinforcing the same idea: diversity is currently the norm and the education system should be structured according to this principle if it is to respond suitably to pupil needs and characteristics.

Diversity in the education system

Autonomy becomes indispensable if schools are to adapt general norms to the particular situations which arise in day-to-day educational practice. What types of autonomy should the educational establishment develop in order to fulfil its commitment to provide for diversity? In outline form, they would be limited to:

- autonomy of government

- organisational autonomy

- curricular autonomy.

Curricular structure

Spain comprises 17 Autonomous Communities, which have full powers over educational matters. Madrid, which took on these powers on 1 July 1999, is among these Communities.

The curriculum in Spain has, as its point of departure, a foundation or 'core curriculum' for infant, primary, compulsory secondary and post-compulsory secondary (*bachillerato*) education, laid down in Royal Decrees. The aim of

this curricular base is to guarantee educational quality and to standardise education qualifications throughout Spain. Using these core curricula as a starting point, each Autonomous Community draws up the curricular design for the territory it administers. The curriculum contains general objectives for the educational stage (infant, primary, compulsory secondary and *bachillerato*), formulated in terms of skills to be achieved in the subject areas laid down in the curriculum. Each subject area in turn has its own general objectives, content blocks (concepts, procedures and attitudes) and end-of-stage assessment criteria.

Using this as a starting point, each school (which may cater for pupils in one or more educational stages) draws up its institutional projects. This chapter refers specifically to the educational project and to the curricular projects (one for each stage). The curricular project states, in concrete terms, how the general curriculum framework is to be applied, depending on the characteristics of the school. These characteristics include the social, cultural, economic, etc. surroundings, and hence the nature of the school population as a whole, as well as each pupil, considered individually.

Therefore, the management team and the teachers must:

- adapt the general objectives of the educational stage and the curriculum areas, including progression by cycles and school years (where applicable)

- adapt the curriculum content, including progression by cycles and school years (where applicable)

- determine the teaching methods for different stages and curricular areas

- decide upon the method for assessing the teaching and learning processes, as well as that for institutional evaluation

- design an organisational model for the school which will allow the curricular project that has been drawn up to be put into practice.

Curricular elements

The following section expands on each of the elements of the curriculum, given that the basis of addressing pupil diversity depends on the potential for adapting these elements according to the circumstances. Above all it focuses on two fundamental elements: teaching methods and assessment, with special reference to their role within compulsory education.

Objectives and content

Adjustment and sequencing of the general stage and subject area objectives will help schools manage teaching and learning to achieve the relevant education goals. If the framework is flexible, the school may modify it (without eliminating any key objective), by means of adaptation and coherent sequencing of objectives, with the possibility of clarification or modification wherever deemed necessary. Similarly, schools may choose the most appropriate curriculum content to provide coherence with the objectives.

This approach assumes that the objectives and content can be adapted to foster pupils' individual development, depending on their personal characteristics. In this way, the most suitable education will be offered.

Teaching methods

Given that no teaching methodology is prescribed, schools should consider all the options. None the less, the model must be coherent with the objectives and the content. To this end, guidelines will be laid down providing advice on best practice. If we truly wish to change things in education, a change in teaching methods is indispensable. Although, in many cases, opportunities for pupil participation have increased and pupils may express themselves very openly with their teachers, we still need a varied methodology, which combines teacher explanations – as required – with pupil activity, either as individuals or in groups, as appropriate. It is also necessary to use varied educational resources and materials, to enhance provision for learning diversity in all its dimensions (learning styles and paces, different abilities, different social situations).
It should also be acknowledged that this is the only way of enabling curricular differentiation. Traditional methods – which require all pupils to learn in the same way, within the same timeframe, with the same motivation, and on the assumption that they all learn in the same way – do not allow pupils to work at different paces to respect their learning styles.

Pupils learn from what they do and not so much from what they are told. 'Doing' in the classroom is determined by the method chosen. Based on this principle, many general objectives, topics and skills currently proposed in the curriculum call for a varied and active methodology. Otherwise the objectives will never be achieved: to participate is learned by participating; to value by valuing, to respect by respecting, and so forth. It is not just a question of learning, but also of applying ways of doing things in school and in the classroom on a day-to-day basis. We shall see that methodology becomes learning content.

We therefore must encourage pupils to carry out more activities which vary in complexity or nature, according to their individual differences. These differences will be more or less acute, according on the individuals and circumstances.

Assessment

Assessment constitutes a conditioning factor of educational practice. The teaching and learning model implemented depends on the assessment model chosen. The entire system is built around assessment: what counts is that which is assessed, and the rest does not count. Pupils learn to 'pass exams', not for its own sake. Heads are filled up, but not well trained, and they promptly empty during holiday periods. We all know that – and also that 'refilling' is encouraged by an assessment system which only values memorisation, hinged upon on a test sat at certain moments, in which pupils demonstrate what they 'know', even if they forget it the following day. Moreover, given that the same test is given to all, regardless of their initial abilities, this model tends to standardise and to make pupils uniform with regard to their learning levels. The model does not cater for the pupil who has not reached this standard test level, nor does it allow the one who has passed it to advance. In this way, pupils who do not fit the established model are marginalised, with serious repercussions for their future lives.

It is time that we stop using assessment solely to monitor and that we start using it for improvement (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1987) in all areas covered by the education system: learning and teaching processes, operation of schools and administration and so forth.

A model of ongoing educational assessment implies evaluating processes and not just outcomes. Hence, assessment should be brought into play continuously from the outset to provide data about the progress of learning (Casanova, 1999). This enables us to encourage the personalised and continuous learning of each pupil, without tying them to uniform standards or levels. It empowers us to adapt the teaching pace, accommodating it to the learning pace and style of each child or young person. Differences are also, and especially, addressed by a differentiated assessment model which does not force or constrain progress. If we wish to address diversity, assessment should not be used to standardise learning, but rather as a key for differentiation.

Moreover, we must strive for a reporting mechanism that expresses in words both the achievements of pupils and their difficulties. In this way, both pupils and parents will clearly know the aspects in which they are

outstanding and those in which they should make an effort to improve. A letter or a numerical grade mean nothing; these symbols do not express what a pupil does or does not know. We must be more explicit, to foster self-assessment of pupils as well as their truly educational assessment. Moreover, the legal regulations in the Spanish system encourage assessment along these lines.

Organisation: a key element for curricular development

Some specific, though brief, comments should be made regarding school organisation. If the curriculum is flexible and the aim is to adapt it, striving for the system to adjust to the pupil and not the pupil to the system, the organisation model must allow for this. A rigid organisational framework impedes the implementation of many curricular projects that have been perfectly conceived from a theoretical point of view – in the words of Brighouse and Woods, *'adults of the twenty-first century taught by professionals of the twentieth century in classrooms of the eighteenth century'* (Brighouse and Woods, 2001, p. 121).

In Spain, the 'grade' does not exist; the 'cycle' is the curricular and organisational unit until pupils reach the age of 14. It is the ideal instrument for addressing diversity, given that it covers two school years and pupils may be in either of the year groups within the cycle. The students in each cycle need not be in the same year group for all subjects, nor need all the students in each year group be working on the same activities at the same time.

Implementing these possibilities demands flexible school organisation: timetables that allow for pupil changeover without letting things get out of control, or the creation of flexible groupings within the same cycle, so that the same pupils are not necessarily constantly together.

In the case of compulsory secondary education (*ESO*), where the greatest difficulty arises, quarterly activities could be set up in which two or more teachers work together and block individual lessons to provide longer sessions which would enable them to undertake more time-consuming activities.

Flexible classroom organisation is also necessary. As mentioned above, not all pupils need be doing the same thing within the same length of time. There are methods which allow for different pupil teams to work at

different levels according to their educational needs – all within the curriculum.

Specific provision for diversity

In addition to this general approach, which aims to provide education for all (especially in compulsory education) and to make differentiated provision within the established curricula, there are specific measures for those situations that may call for them. These measures are outlined below.

Remaining two additional years in compulsory education
Pupils can repeat a maximum of two years during the period of compulsory education (6 – 16)

Remaining two years less in compulsory education
The curriculum is made more flexible for gifted pupils, who can complete compulsory education in up to two years less than the norm, by completing (up to a maximum of two) two-year cycles in a single year.

Educational reinforcement
Educational reinforcement represents a small degree of organisational and curricular modification to enable a pupil to overcome a learning difficulty. A pupil who experiences temporary difficulties with specific content receives specific help from the teacher to overcome the problem and go on learning at the regular pace.

Curricular adaptation
Curricular adaptation may be made at two levels. In the case of *significant curricular adaptation*, the general objectives prescribed for all the pupils of a stage are modified and the content, methodology, resources, assessment, etc. are modified accordingly. *Non-significant curricular adaptation* applies where the pupil is likely to achieve the objectives of the relevant educational level, but where curricular elements (contents, methodology, educational resources or assessment) may be modified. In this case, the path is changed, but the proposed goal is achieved.

Curricular diversification
Similarly, curricular diversification may be applied in compulsory secondary education (*ESO*). It represents the greatest degree of curricular modification possible without changing the objectives of compulsory education. It is aimed at pupils aged 16 who will, in the judgement of their teachers, be unable to achieve the educational objectives for the stage if they follow the standard curriculum. Secondary schools must devise a curricular diversification programme (nearly always for two school years), in which the usual subject areas are set aside, and the focus is on two fields: socio-

linguistic and science-technology. The former includes the areas of language and literature, social sciences, and geography and history; the latter covers the areas of mathematics, natural sciences and technology. Pupils study the remaining learning areas alongside their group or class. An important point is that the number of pupils in a diversification group may not exceed 15.

Optativity
Optativity is the opportunity given to pupils in compulsory secondary education (*ESO*) to choose 'optional subjects' outside the prescribed core curriculum. Secondary schools offer a range of subjects, so that each pupil may select those that he or she prefers, according to personal interests and needs. The percentage of time for optativity increases as pupils progress through secondary education. This is important, in so far as it allows for broadening or diversifying learning, or for reinforcing areas or subjects through specific workshop sessions for pupils who need this type of support to reach the goals of secondary education.

Curricular pathways (bachillerato).
The pathways within *bachillerato* offer pupils opportunities to choose subjects according to their future study plans. Although this measure is similar to optativity, it focuses on future occupation or studies.

Compensatory Education Regional Plan for Madrid
19 January 1999 marked the signing in Madrid of the 'Agreement for Quality Improvement in the Education System of the Community of Madrid' by the Autonomous Community of Madrid and by 18 organisations of various types and ideologies.

Overcoming educational inequalities is the focus of many activities among the priority programmes aimed at achieving improvement. 15,000,000,000 pesetas (€ 90,150,000) have been devoted to this five-year programme; that means the annual budget will include an additional 3,000,000,000 pesetas (€ 18,030,000).

The Regional Plan was unanimously approved in the Assembly of Madrid in November 2000, following group meetings with the signatory organisations and others affected by the Plan. It was agreed to structure action around three large blocks:

- Schooling
  - actions performed in publicly funded schools
  - complementary actions

- Development of intercultural education

- Inter-institutional collaboration and social participation.

The text begins with a description of the circumstances in Madrid. These require compensatory education actions as a priority to secure quality, equity and equality of opportunity for pupils in the Autonomous Community. Also included are schooling data for the 1999 – 2000 school year.

The essential points outlined in the Plan are directed towards:

- implementing measures to ensure the effectiveness of the principle of equal educational opportunities for socio-economically underprivileged pupils

- fostering actions to secure education quality and individual provision for pupils

- implementing specific inclusive measures for pupils with compensatory education needs

- coordinating different public services (for example, health, social service and so forth), with educational provision.

As a starting point, some issues must be addressed to achieve the adequate development of the Plan. A needs analysis which includes the aforementioned data must be carried out. Information is also required on other indicators established for the Autonomous Community of Madrid, such as:

- participation rates in infant education

- academic outcomes

- school truancy and/or early drop out from the education system

- percentage of families whose income is less than twice the minimum inter-professional salary

- families receiving the 'Minimum Income for Insertion'. [35]

---

[35] The 'Minimum Income for Insertion' is a programme of financial support for economically disadvantaged families. Families who have school-aged children must ensure their regular attendance at school to receive it.

The general criteria for action centre around:

- integration (normalisation)[36]

- positive action

- social integration and interculturalism

- balanced allocation of disadvantaged students and resources between the territories and sectors

- social participation

- coordination

- multidimensional initiatives

- ongoing evaluation.

Courses of action are grouped into these *sections*, with broad goals set down within each. These goals are in turn broken down into concrete and assessable *actions*.

To cite an example, the following goals are proposed for point 4, the implementation of intercultural education:

1 to encourage integration into the education system of ethnic and cultural minorities, based on the principles of normalisation and respect for differences

2 to carry out support and instruction activities for parents belonging to ethnic and cultural minorities

3 to take complementary action to support the integration of gypsy pupils

4 to take complementary action to support the integration of immigrant pupils.

A model for continual evaluation will also be established during implementation, to allow the Plan to be adjusted during its various phases in order to maximise achievement of its aims.

---

[36] The 'criteria of normalisation' refer to the fact that people must, wherever possible, remain integrated within the community, or within mainstream schools and administrations have to provide help when necessary to achieve this.

The Plan comprises a total of 17 goals and 69 actions.

Achievements and projects to compensate for inequalities in education

The following are noteworthy examples of the achievements under this Regional Plan (although some of them were already under way).

1   The Home Education Support Service (*SAED*). Pupils who are convalescent for more than one month are taught by teaching staff of the Educational Authority. This began as a pilot plan in Southern Madrid, and was extended to Madrid Capital in the 2001–2002 school year. Pupils in primary education and in the first cycle of compulsory secondary education are taught by teachers based in hospital classrooms. Pupils in the third and fourth year of compulsory secondary education are taught by teachers from schools, with at least two teachers per pupil, one for linguistic and social studies and another for science-technology. All Madrid hospitals have had classrooms, equipped with paediatric beds, for many years. They are now equipped with computers to 'break down hospital walls' and they aim to enhance the child's communication with the outside world and enhance his or her learning pace. In this way, a situation of temporary disadvantage may well turn into a situation of educational privilege.

2   The Itinerant Support Service for Immigrant Pupils (*SAI*). This service allocates a variable number of teachers to pupils who do not know Spanish and are enrolled in schools which do not have permanent support, either because they do not have a sufficient number of non-Spanish-speaking pupils registered to qualify for a full-time language teacher, or because the pupils have been admitted in the course of the school year.

3   There is a significant increase in the number of support teachers to compensate for socio-economic inequities. This figure has grown from 374 support teachers in 1999, when the Community of Madrid took over full powers, to 900 in the 2001 – 2202 school year.

4   To achieve a balance of pupils with compensatory education needs within publicly funded schools, the Schooling Committee has a system of distributing of students between public sector and private grant-maintained schools throughout the year. This has led to a more balanced distribution among the schools within the Community of Madrid.

5   Noteworthy among complementary actions is the increased aid for free or subsidised schools meals, amounting to nearly € 15,000,000 for the 2001–2002 school year, with a planned increase of 17 per cent for 2002–2003.

6   Provision of free textbooks for pupils requiring them.

7   The regulation of compensatory measures in compulsory secondary education (*ESO*) represents yet another element towards the regulated and systematic provision for these pupils. This is implemented through four curricular and organisational models:
    - support within groups
    - support groups
    - specific groups for compensatory education
    - compensatory education classrooms.

8   The broadening of Social Guarantee[37] under the training-job mode also represents a significant measure for integrating pupils over 16 into society and the world of work. The establishment of 'Training and Labour Insertion Units' and the increase in subsidies to local agencies and non-profit organisations are also indicators of what has been achieved.

9   All this activity is also to be based on the provision of ongoing training to help teaching staff make differentiated provision. Present priorities for the *Consejería de Educación*[38] are courses on teaching Spanish as a second language, interculturalism, conflict resolution and social development.

10 Yet another factor fostering the support and social integration of pupils is the increase in compensatory education activities, designed and provided to schools by the educational institutions themselves and external non-profit agencies.

11 Prevention and follow-up of school truancy is a principal factor in avoiding falling behind in school. The Municipality of Madrid and 23

---

[37] 'Social Guarantee' is a free training programme, with several modalities, offered to young people (16 – 21) who have not achieved the compulsory secondary education goals and have no professional training qualification. These programmes aim to help these young people to improve their general training and develop the necessary skills for specific trades and professions.
[38] The *Consejería de Educación* is the Department which has powers over educational matters in the Autonomous Community of Madrid.

other agencies in the Region have signed agreements on measures to avoid truancy and ensure pupils' school attendance.

12 Open classrooms for music, dance, theatre, library and sport open the schools to their surrounding area in the afternoons, thus contributing to the social improvement of neighbourhoods.

13 Some infant education and primary schools open early to serve breakfast to those children whose parent(s) start work early ('the first kids at school').

14 *Escuelas de Padres* (Family Classes) provide family guidance and training.

15 The network of adult education centres has been extended and reinforced, and offers a path to ongoing education and lifelong learning, to which all the citizens of Madrid are entitled. The education system does not close its doors at age 18 but continues to make wide and interesting education provision, of initial or compulsory education, initial professional training, open education, and Spanish as a second language. Together, these comprise a guarantee for equal opportunities at any stage of life.

16 The Service of Translators and Interpreters fosters communication between families and schools, especially during the initial period following arrival, when they do not know Spanish. School documents which pupils may bring from their native land are also translated.

Furthermore, among the more immediate projects on which the *Consejería de Educación* is working are:

- the establishment of the Madrid Institute of Intercultural Support and Documentation, as a reference centre for documentation, training and initiatives in this field

- the drawing up of the cross-curricular focus of intercultural education as a part of the curriculum for all pupils in Madrid. The aim is to achieve the aforementioned levels of coexistence. This aspect is already incorporated into the most recent secondary education curriculum regulations

- the revision of compensatory measures in primary education and the drawing up of a basic curriculum for compensatory education classrooms.

It is hoped that these projects, along with all the compensatory education activities carried out by the *Consejería de Educación* in collaboration with

other *Consejerías,* local public services, local authorities, non-profit associations and parents' federations who work in this field, will effectively enhance provision for pupils with educational needs arising from social deprivation. In this way, social and educational integration will become a reality in Madrid and interculturalism and equality of opportunities will be the habitual way of life in this Community.

Provision for pupils with special educational needs arising from different abilities

The school system supports pupils with identified special educational needs arising from different abilities (giftedness or disability) according to the principles set out at the beginning of this chapter, that is, to maximise integration within mainstream classes.
Following psycho-pedagogical assessment and recommendations concerning the most appropriate schooling, pupils with a disability may be educated in a special school or in mainstream schools. There are about 14,000 special needs pupils, of whom about 80 per cent are integrated in the mainstream system.

Pupils with different abilities are catered for by specialised professionals who support classroom teachers. Curricular adaptations – either of reinforcement or broadening – are made to meet the needs of each pupil.

Highly gifted pupils receive their schooling in mainstream establishments. They may also attend extra-curricular enrichment programmes organised by the *Consejería de Educación*, in agreement with the CEIM Foundation[39] and the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport. These programmes take place outside school hours, allowing pupils to pursue their interests in an independent and individual way.

Madrid has 31 general guidance teams, four specific teams (for motor, hearing, vision impairment and personality problems) and 24 early intervention teams. Nearly 700 professionals of different specialities work in these teams. 1,225 professionals work as support teachers in schools, in addition to physical therapists, health and hygiene assistants, and technical-educational assistants. Secondary schools have a guidance department, whose director is a guidance counsellor. Seventy schools already have a

---

[39] The CEIM Foundation is a non profit teaching institution, of a cultural nature, sponsored by the Business Confederation of Madrid-CEOE.

second counsellor, and this provision is to be gradually extended to the entire Community of Madrid.

The challenge of quality

Bringing these comments to a close, the author wishes to reiterate that the principal challenge facing the education system is to offer the quality demanded by society. This entails differentiation and the ongoing evaluation of the system:

- differentiation, because it implies making the specific provision that each pupil requires and thus guarantees quality, along with equity, for all

- evaluation, because it provides credible and valid evidence to support measures to improve elements of the system. Continual improvement is also a fundamental element of quality. The binomial expression quality/evaluation is indivisible.

References

Brighouse, T. and Woods, D. (2001). *Cómo Mejorar los Centros Docentes.* Madrid, La Muralla. [Also published as: Brighouse, T. and Woods, D. (1999)*. How to Improve Your School.* London: Routledge.]

Cano, E. (1999). *Evaluación de la Calidad Educativa*. Madrid: La Muralla.

Casanova, M.A. (1999). *Manual de Evaluación Educativa*. Madrid: La Muralla.

Casanova, M.A., Carbonell i Paris, F. (Coord). (2002). 'De exclusiones, igualdades y diversidades. Monográfico de Interculturalismo y Ciudadanía, *Cuadernos de Pedagogía,* Nº 315, julio-agosto. Barcelona: Cisspraxis.

Muñoz Sedano, A. (1997). *Educación Intercultural. Teoría y Práctica*. Barcelona: Cisspraxis.

Reimers, F. (Ed). (2002). *Distintas Escuelas, Diferentes Oportunidades. Los Retos para la Igualdad de Oportunidades en Latinoamérica*. Madrid: La Muralla. [Also published as: Reimers, F. (ed). (2000). *Unequal Schools, Unequal Chances.* Cambridge, MA: David Rockefeller Center for Latin American Studies, Harvard University.]

Reyzábal, M.V. and Sanz, A.I. (2002). *Los Ejes Transversales, Aprendizajes para la Vida*. Barcelona: Cisspraxis.

Ross, J. and Watkinson, A.M. (1999). *La Violencia en el Sistema Educativo. Del Daño que las Escuelas Causan a los Niños*. Madrid: La Muralla. [Also

published as: ROSS, J. and Watkinson, A.M. (1996). *Systemic Violence: How Schools Hurt Children*. London: The Falmer Press.]

Santos Guerra, M.A. (2000). *La Escuela que Aprende*. Madrid: Morata.

Soriano, E. (Ed). (2001). *Identidad Cultural y Ciudadanía Intercultural. Su Contexto Educativo*. Madrid: La Muralla.

Stufflebeam, D.L. And Shinkfield, A.J. (1987). *Evaluación Sistemática. Guía Teórica y Práctica*. Barcelona: Piados-MEC. [Also published as: Stufflebeam, D.L. and Shinkfield, A.J. (1985). *Systematic Evaluation: a Self-Instructional Guide to Theory and Practice.* Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff Publishing.]

Vlachou, A.D. (2000). *Caminos Hacia una Educación Inclusiva*. Madrid: La Muralla. [Also published as: Vlachou, A.D. (1997). *Struggles for Inclusive Education*. Buckingham: Open University Press.]

Educational equal opportunity plan for the autonomous community of Murcia

Juan Navarro Barba

Introduction

The social and economic situation in the Region of Murcia has undergone significant changes in recent years. A growing socio-cultural plurality has arisen, largely due to immigration.

The *Consejería de Educación y Cultura*[40] of the Region of Murcia is aware of the cultural plurality of its citizens and of the challenges which this situation sets for the effective performance of the education system. It has therefore proposed the *Plan Regional de Solidaridad en la Región de Murcia* (regional plan for equal opportunity in education)

- to ensure that the right to education is not undermined by factors related to social inequity

- to ensure that those in rural areas are not disadvantaged in terms of access to education

- to formulate the most effective provision within a common and multicultural school framework, for pupils from groups with different socio-cultural characteristics

- to introduce the measures necessary to prevent temporary ill-health from causing inequity in exercising the right to education

- to encourage schools to teach the values of tolerance, respect, peace, freedom and solidarity.

There is a danger that continued differences in education may be justified by reference to the impossibility of changing social inequalities. Experience shows, however, that education has an impact both on overcoming inequalities and, unfortunately, on aggravating them. The principle of equal opportunities does not mean devising identical education provision for all

---

[40] The *Consejería de Educación y Cultura* is the body which has powers over educational matters in the Autonomous Community of Murcia.

pupils, but rather adapting provision to the circumstances of the individuals and social groups in education, so that all have a real chance to benefit. It is therefore necessary to stress the intrinsic value of education in terms of individual and social development, as well as in its instrumental role in contributing to equal opportunities for all citizens, in so far as it strives to compensate for inequalities among them.

The inspiring principle of the *Plan Regional de Solidaridad en la Región de Murcia* is the idea that its impact will be much more effective when educational provision is planned coherently throughout the region. This Plan is therefore intended to guide compensatory education provision in the Autonomous Community of the Region of Murcia.

General objectives and actions

The present Plan aims to achieve the following objectives:

- to continue developing measures to ensure the implementation of the principle of equal opportunity in the education of socio-educationally deprived pupils

- to foster actions which ensure educational quality and suitable provision for pupils with compensatory education needs

- to carry out specific measures to integrate pupils with compensatory education needs, to encourage the participation of the various stakeholders of the educational community at all social strata to achieve effective and equitable access to education and society, and to facilitate the social integration of families from other cultures and with special social difficulties

- to foster coordination and collaboration between those responsible for the social and educational initiatives of the various authorities, institutions and non-governmental organisations, and the compensatory measures proposed in this Plan.

The education of disadvantaged pupils should help them to achieve the general education objectives established for all pupils and should be governed by the principles of 'normalisation' (that is, social inclusion) and academic integration.

The implementation of the Plan is structured into seven broad fields of action, namely:

1 Schooling

2 Provision for socio-educationally underprivileged pupils

3 Provision for underprivileged pupils in rural areas

4 Pupils who, for legal[41] or health reasons are unable to attend school

5 Development of intercultural education

6 Complementary measures

7 Inter-institutional collaboration and social participation.

Three preliminary issues form the basis for interventions in these fields:

- identification of the geographical areas for preferential measures which, given their nature, may be subject to global initiatives of compensatory education. These initiatives will be determined on the basis of criteria[42] and with the collaboration of the various institutions

- identification of the educational establishments eligible for preferential educational action (establishments with specific characteristics which require permanent provision for diversity)

- identification of establishments eligible for a compensatory education project (whose need for action is of a more temporary nature).

Target population

The compensatory education proposed in the present Plan is aimed at non-university pupils who:

- are socially disadvantaged due to social inequality or to residence in a rural area

- are disadvantaged due to their ethnic minority or cultural origin

---

[41] This refers to pupils who are unable to attend school, for example, because they are in prison or in psychiatric hospital. The Autonomous Community has to provide for their education in specific classrooms or schools.

[42] Indicators for determining the geographical areas of performance are: rates of school failure, absenteeism, number of students with special needs, level of family income, etc.

- are unable to participate in normal schooling, due to social or family considerations

- need teaching outside educational establishments, for legal (see above) or health reasons

- are disadvantaged for other reasons.

Needs analysis in Murcia

As a result of the economic and social development which has taken place during the past two decades, Spain has changed from a country of emigration to one of immigration. Immigrants principally originate from non-EU nations, and although the numbers are small in comparison with surrounding countries, they have settled in specific regions, above all Levante (Provinces of Alicante, Castellon and Valencia) and Murcia. This is due to their predominantly agricultural nature, which has attracted foreign citizens to steady employment in these Regions.

As a result, immigrant families have decided to settle permanently in Murcia. This has had an impact on sectors where this phenomenon was previously unknown, principally education, which has had to respond to the needs of new co-citizens from different linguistic and cultural worlds.

Many new pupils arrive without having attended school in their own country and with a total lack of knowledge of the Spanish language and Spanish social and cultural customs.

One of the factors contributing to the disadvantage of some groups is the (greater or lesser) distance between the educational values of their original culture and those of the education system which they join. Their integration should be fostered within a framework of mutual respect among cultures, such as that inherent in intercultural education.

The Educational Service of Murcia (which reports to the *Consejería de Educación y Cultura de Murcia*) must foster the socio-educational integration and personal development of immigrants within the host societies. This is not a unidirectional process, such as cultural adaptation. It is, rather, a question of laying down foundations at school whereby future adult citizens – native-born and foreign – recognise their cultural differences, and which enable an authentic process of socio-cultural integration to take place through intercultural policies which foster an

attitude of tolerance and respect towards those personal, cultural and linguistic differences which lead to mutual enrichment.

Table 1 Evolution of foreign non-university pupils in Murcia.

Year	Foreign pupils	Percentage change
1996	976	48.10
1997	1178	20.70
1998	1871	51.19
1999	2834	59.12
2000	4233	49.36
2001	7910	86.87

Source: Consejería de Educación y Cultura de la Comunidad Autónoma de Murcia

Furthermore, we should not forget our compatriots belonging to the Gypsy people, who for centuries have been socially at risk. Technological change and the relative modernisation of Spain during the first half of the 20th century led to a decline in traditional Gypsy handicrafts. Due to cultural features, Gypsies did not integrate into the new socio-economic structure which followed the industrialisation of Spain during the 1960s. This lack of adaptation to the new conditions of modernisation of the past three decades and their high degree of social disorganisation, following the loss of their traditional cultural bases, have led to an difficult situation for Gypsy people and the Authorities must provide for their socio-cultural integration

A further group of boys and girls are at risk because they belong to economically deprived families who generally live in urban areas with socio-cultural problems. This situation undermines their school attendance and, in some cases, leads to drop-out and academic failure. In view of this, steps must be taken to improve their conditions for access, attendance and progress within the education system.

It goes without saying that these policies must be implemented through various compensatory education and intercultural initiatives. Action must therefore be aimed at pupils of Spanish, as well as of foreign origin.

Table 2 Pupils with compensatory education needs

Centres providing compensatory education courses	Gypsy pupils	Immigrant pupils	Other	Total
129	2,630	4,233	2,352	9,215

Source: Consejería de Educación y Cultura de la Comunidad Autónoma de Murcia

Compensatory education includes provision for pupils who are hospitalised or convalescent for prolonged periods, because chronic illness interrupts their school attendance and impairs their educational progress.

Table 3 Provision for pupils in hospital classrooms (5 classrooms in 2 hospitals)

Long stay	Medium-length stay	Short stay
44	388	868

Source: Consejería de Educación y Cultura de la Comunidad Autónoma de Murcia

The rural population is also in need of special attention, given that their ways of life, economy, ways of dealing with one another, communication, habits and customs are different from those of the urban population. Moreover, there are significant differences between some rural areas. Based on these considerations, special educational provision for boys and girls in isolated rural areas is particularly important, to give them enriching experiences and acquaint them with other environments.

Table 4 Rural schools

Grouped rural centres	Small single-grade schools	Total rural schools
11	54	104

Source: Consejería de Educación y Cultura de la Comunidad Autónoma de Murcia

The implementation of Organic Law 5/2000 (Spain. Statutes, 2000b), which regulates the penal responsibility of minors, intends legal measures to contribute to the minors' personal development and social integration by means of education, instead of being solely of a restrictive and punitive

nature. This entails the planning of appropriate education initiatives for the new group of pupils.

In addition to general socio-demographic data, and data regarding the education of pupils who are the targets of compensatory education programmes, the needs analysis of the Educational Equal Opportunity Plan in the Region of Murcia should consider the following indicators in the Region of Murcia:

- participation rates in the first and second cycle of infant education

- academic outcomes

- school truancy and/or early drop-out from the education system

- percentage of families whose income is less than twice the minimum inter-professional salary

- socio-educational resources of the zones.

A detailed study will be carried out as soon as possible to collect this information. The study will serve to match resources to the needs identified during 2001–2002 and successive academic years. Planning for the 2001–2002 school year was based on existing data available and through resources allocated through the *Dirección General de Formación Profesional, Innovación y Atención a la Diversidad* (General Directorate of Professional Training, Innovation and Provision for Diversity).

General criteria for action

The principles prevailing throughout the proposed objectives and measures will be governed by the following general criteria for action.

Inclusiveness
The Plan will be developed from the very outset under the principle of inclusiveness and provision for diversity. That is, compensatory education is to be provided within the framework of mainstream institutions and services. Adaptation of provision to meet the needs of these pupils, and any ensuing broadening of its scope, will be ensured through specific programmes. Bearing in mind that diversity is the norm within the Region of Murcia, mainstream education is required to make the necessary adaptations to meet diverse pupil needs.

Positive action

The application of the principle of positive action involves taking, essentially preventative, measures and initiatives to overcome the causes and factors which lead to structural or *de facto* disadvantage.

Integration and interculturalism

Full integration of ethnic and cultural minorities within the educational community should involve respect for difference and mutual recognition of the expression and creativity of different cultures and to establish a framework for balanced social interaction within the pluralistic and democratic society in the Region of Murcia.

Territorial and sectoral balance

The balanced distribution of pupils with compensatory education needs among all the publicly funded establishments will help avoid ghettos and concentrations of school marginalisation, along with the subsequent risks of anti-social behaviour and conflict.

Social participation

The principle of participation, together with the technical support to enable families to become closer to schools, is a key element for the full incorporation of these pupils into educational and social institutions.

Coordination

Coordination between institutions, administrations and social agents underpins planning, the channelling of resources, the coordination of effort, the uniformity of approaches and the distribution of workloads and responsibilities.

Integrated action

Medium- and long-term programmes require a global perspective of all interrelated actions, given the multi-dimensional nature of the integration process.

Ongoing evaluation

By means of the General Directorate for Vocational Training, Innovation and Provision for Diversity, the *Consejería de Educación y Cultura* of Murcia will annually assess the achievement of objectives and the application and implementation of the measures proposed in this Plan.

Details of actions

The Regional Plan for equal opportunity in education covers the seven spheres of action mentioned above. Each action proposes objectives and strategies for achieving them. This will facilitate ongoing evaluation of the Plan throughout each school year and at the end of the process, with the goal of comparing definitive outcomes.

Schooling

Objective 1
To develop strategies to secure schooling for disadvantaged sectors with regard to the integration of the socially disadvantaged as well as strategies to improve information to families on the right to choose a school and the availability of study support.

Strategies
- To enhance the information available to schools, educational services and families on school enrolment, the structure of the education system, and the eligibility criteria for grants and study support

- To support the education in publicly funded schools of pupils needing compensatory education, by including them in ordinary and extraordinary admission processes, through the schooling committees[43]

- To give priority financing to second cycle public-sector infant education to facilitate access to early schooling and provision, especially for socially and culturally underprivileged pupils

- To structure complementary services in coordination with other Authorities. To increase funding for school meal grants and adaptation of the application procedure and deadlines for those who enrol after the start of the school year. To provide school transport services for infant education pupils in exceptional cases, where required.

Objective 2
To introduce procedures to allocate pupils with compensatory education needs equally between publicly funded schools.

---

[43] The Schooling Committee is a work group comprising several professionals of the educational community.

The goal is to prevent a distribution which leads either to the non-schooling of certain groups or to their concentration, which in turn may give rise to socially segregated establishments. The Schooling Committee must secure a balanced distribution of pupils between schools at the beginning of the school year, to avoid exaggerated concentrations of disadvantaged students, or 'ghettos'. Moreover, the enrolment period should be extend so that admission may be ensured at any time during the school year in special circumstances, such as the arrival of immigrant families.

Strategies
- To adapt the enrolment regulations relating to ethnic and cultural minorities and underprivileged pupils

- To establish reserved places in public sector schools, prior to the ordinary registration process, which will accommodate a balanced distribution of pupils with compensatory education needs, according to the characteristics of the geographical zone

- To draw up agreements whereby subsidies are provided for private infant education units in schools only if the proportion of pupils with compensatory education needs in these schools is equivalent to that in other publicly funded schools in the surrounding area

- To adapt current regulations in the light of new social realities, to foster the education of pupils with compensatory education needs throughout the school year, under the control of the *Comisiones Permanentes de Escolarización* (Permanent Schooling Commissions)

- To establish follow-up mechanisms to prevent school truancy and to ensure the continuity of schooling and the educational progress of pupils compensatory education needs.

Objective 3
To develop an outline programme to monitor attendance, to combat truancy and ensure progression to the next educational phase.

Strategies
- To establish municipal commissions to monitor and prevent school truancy, in collaboration with the local authority and other public services (for example, health, social service) and non-government social agencies

- To define procedures in schools and educational services to prevent truancy, in collaboration with local (especially municipal) social services

- To develop strategies to ensure a smooth transition between educational stages, cycles and levels.

Underprivileged pupils

Objective 1
To ensure the education of underprivileged pupils at various educational stages, and to adapt educational provision as required.

Strategies
- To make special provision for early schooling and integration and to support work with families

- To prevent truancy and to enrich educational provision to improve academic performance in primary education

- To develop curricular, methodological and organisational features which are adapted to the needs of compulsory secondary education (*ESO*) pupils, along with strategies to avoid drop-out and to encourage attendance throughout compulsory education

- To adapt and develop guidelines to identify the needs of pupils who are the target of compensatory education programmes, in accordance with current regulations

- To define models of provision adapted to compensatory education at the various stages, and to foster specific projects for coordination between the educational community, other public services and private non-profit agencies

- To develop strategies to foster the stability of teaching teams in public sector schools which provide compensatory education activities, and to facilitate teachers' adaptation to the demands of their work

- To establish criteria for compensatory education posts and details of specific job descriptions and competitive recruitment procedures[44]

- To adjust the pupil-to-teacher ratio in publicly funded schools with pupils with compensatory education needs.[45]

---

[44] In Spain, teachers are recruited by means of open competitions known as *concursos de provisión de puestos de trabajo para funcionarios docentes.*
[45] The number of students per teacher is smaller when there are special need pupils.

Objective 2
To adapt the level of support staff to the need for compensatory education in publicly-funded schools.

Strategies
- To increase resources to support compensatory education in publicly funded schools

- To provide resources in private subsidised schools, by means of educational agreements, with criteria that are comparable to those of public sector schools which cater for pupils needing compensatory education

- To increase resources for educational and psychopedagogical guidance at the various educational stages.

Objective 3
To foster on-going teacher training, participation in European Union Programmes and in experiments in educational innovation, which enable teachers to adapt their knowledge and methodological strategies and to develop teaching materials to improve provision for socially underprivileged pupils and those from different cultural backgrounds.

Strategies
- To develop ongoing training programmes aimed at teaching teams of schools providing compensatory education programmes, through the network of teachers' and resource centres, with training advisors in compensatory education and interculturalism in Cartagena, Lorca, Murcia and Torre-Pacheco

- To develop specific training plans for compensatory education and interculturalism, which will lead to, and are an essential prerequisite for, enhanced teaching performance

- To include programmes related to social disadvantage and cultural diversity in teacher training programmes

- To foster activities which underpin a teaching style grounded on the premises of action-research, and which allow for the development of specific educational projects aimed at differentiated provision

- To support participation in European Union Programmes by schools offering compensatory education programmes

- To grant priority access to Murcia's complementary education programmes (for example, mobile schools, school holidays, school libraries) to schools with pupils from ethnic and cultural minorities and from socially underprivileged families

- To promote participation in public and private initiatives, as well as in specific innovation plans.

Objective 4
To improve the provision of teaching equipment and materials in schools offering compensatory education programmes.

Strategies
- To adapt infant education furniture and fittings in public sector schools with pupils with compensatory education needs

- To fund textbooks in publicly funded schools and to secure free provision for socio-economically deprived pupils

- To provide new technologies equipment and specific software, under the *El Plumier* programme, to schools offering compensatory education programmes

- To make specific budgetary allocations to support compensatory education provision to meet special needs.

Objective 5
To foster actions aimed at providing vocationally related education and guidance, and continuing and lifelong education for socio-educationally disadvantaged people who have not achieved the objectives of compulsory education.
Strategies
- To increase the number of places on Social Guarantee Programmes[46] following the identification of needs on a regional basis

- To monitor and guide pupils who complete Social Guarantee Programmes, to facilitate their transition to working life

---

[46] Social Guarantee' is a free training programme, with several modalities, offered to young people (16 – 21) who have not achieved the secondary compulsory education goals and have no professional training qualification. These programmes aim to help these young people to improve their general training and develop the necessary skills for specific trades and professions.

- To include further actions aimed at fostering pupils' social integration in the Social Guarantee Programmes of training

- To reinforce educational activities aimed at providing vocationally related education and guidance and continuing and lifelong education (for example, Spanish for foreigners)

- To design, implement and evaluate compensatory measures at the compulsory secondary education (*ESO*) stage.

Disadvantaged pupils in rural environments

Objective 1
To secure suitable educational provision, adapted to the needs of pupils who are disadvantaged due to their living in rural or isolated areas.

Strategies
- The *Consejería de Educación y Cultura* will provide complementary school transport services, and where necessary, boarding places, to ensure that geographic isolation and communication difficulties do not undermine access to compulsory education

- To develop curricular, methodological and organisational features adapted to the needs of pupils educated in Grouped Rural Centres

- To develop measures to foster the stability of the teaching teams in Grouped Rural Centres and to facilitate teachers' adaptation to the demands of their work

- To make special provision for the Educational Guidance Teams of rural schools.

Objective 2
To foster ongoing teacher training, and participation in European Union programmes and innovation activities, to enable teachers to adapt their teaching skills to meet the needs of pupils in Grouped Rural Centres

Strategies
- To develop ongoing training programmes aimed at the teaching teams of Grouped Rural Centres

- To include activities related to rural schools in teacher training syllabuses

- To foster activities which underpin a teaching style grounded on the premises of action research, and which allow for the development of specific educational projects aimed at rural schools

- To support the participation of Grouped Rural Centres in European Union Programmes.

- To grant priority access to Murcia's complementary education programmes (for example, mobile schools, school holidays, school libraries) to rural schools

- To promote participation in public and private initiatives, as well as in specific plans for innovation seeking pedagogical and organisational models for rural schools.

Objective 3
To improve the provision of teaching equipment and materials in Grouped Rural Centres.

Strategies
- To adapt infant education furniture and fittings in public sector schools with pupils with compensatory education needs

- To fund textbooks in publicly funded schools and secure free provision for socio-economically deprived pupils

- To continue equipping Grouped Rural Centres with new technologies

- To set up Rural Centres for Entertainment and Documentation as support measures for rural schools.

Pupils who cannot attend school for legal or health reasons

Objective 1
To guarantee continuity of education for compulsory education level pupils who, for legal or health reasons, are unable to attend mainstream schools.

Strategies
- To make special provision, by means of hospital classrooms, for pupils who are hospitalised, thereby guaranteeing the continuity of education

- To make special provision, by means of specific classrooms in the establishment in which the pupil is an inmate, or adaptation of schooling in establishments in the surrounding areas, for those pupils who, for legal reasons (see above) are unable to attend a school

- To develop curricular, methodological and organisational provision for pupils who cannot attend mainstream educational establishments for legal or health reasons

- To develop projects allowing pupils to register for distance education under existing regulations, when they cannot be educated in schools, hospital classrooms or in special education units in mainstream schools

- To establish strategies and procedures which ensure effective coordination between specific or hospital classrooms and the schools to which they are attached

- To establish a tutorial action plan to secure educational provision for pupils who, on medical advice, must stay at home, so that the schools in which these pupils are enrolled make suitable educational provision.

Objective 2
To overcome disadvantage arising from prolonged periods of hospitalisation or convalescence.

Strategies
- To establish an agreement with the competent health institutions for the adaptation of the *Red de Unidades Escolares de Apoyo en Instituciones Hospitalarias* (Network of School Support Units in Hospitals) to the needs arising from the hospitalisation of pupils of compulsory education age

- To set up School Support Units in public hospitals and to enhance their educational equipment

- To implement the Home Educational Support Service for long-term convalescent pupils.

Development of intercultural education

Objective 1
To enhance integration of ethnic and cultural minorities within education, based on the principles of inclusiveness ('normalisation') and respect for difference.

Strategies
- To include intercultural education as a cross-curricular theme, along with explicit references to the Gypsy and other cultures represented in

schools, as a result of immigration and cultural diversity characteristic of Spain and the European Union

- To develop programmes to maintain the language and culture of minority groups, in collaboration with public institutions and private non-profit organisations. Of utmost priority within this point is the development of a programme for Arabic language and culture and for Moroccan culture

- To draw up and distribute intercultural curricular and educational materials to support the integration of minority groups (induction programmes and the teaching/learning of Spanish), and other materials which include content referring to different cultures

- To include, within ongoing teacher training syllabuses, actions specifically aimed at updating teachers in the field of intercultural education

- To provide training in teaching team centres on educational projects which include the intercultural perspective and minority integration, with content addressing language learning, differential psychology and socialising processes in diverse cultures

- To apply new information technologies through specific projects which contribute to the construction of a society of solidarity and interculturalism. (Intercultur@net)

- To continue equipping and developing the *Centro de Animación y Documentación Intercultural* (CADI – Centre for Entertainment and Intercultural Documentation) as driving force for initiatives aimed at training and research in the area of intercultural education and educational provision for ethnic and cultural minorities

- To establish the means and necessary human and material resources to identify the needs of, diagnose, support, advise and train teachers, to help them adapt their teaching for pupils who may need compensatory education.

Objective 2
To support the training of parents from ethnic or cultural minorities.

Strategies
- To develop programmes within schools' plans for tutorial action (family support programmes)

- To develop programmes for mediating with and accompanying families, as well as actions aimed at informing minority families about the organisation and operation of schools and the education system

- To develop actions to raise the awareness of the educational community with regard to the integration of minorities and training programmes for parents.

Objective 3
To develop complementary support for the integration of Gypsy pupils.

Strategies
- To develop specific programmes for mediation, monitoring of and support for pupils' difficulties and progress, by schools acting in collaboration with social organisations

- To encourage Gypsy parents to enrol their children in schools from an early age

- To support the development of organisational and curricular strategies aimed at enhancing the performance of Gypsy pupils in primary education

- To support the transition of Gypsy pupils to compulsory secondary education (*ESO*)

- To carry out programmes to open up socio-educational spaces outside school, (for example, library, toy library) for Gypsy pupils.

Objective 4
To carry out complementary actions in support of the integration of immigrant pupils.

Strategies
- To implement measures aimed at Spanish language learning, with an increase in support resources for those schools which cater for immigrant pupils with compensatory education needs

- To implement an interpreter service to support the integration of immigrants who do not know Spanish. This is to be carried out by the Educational Authority in collaboration with community associations and non-government organisations.

Complementary initiatives

Objective 1
*To implement complementary activities in the field of external
compensatory education, in collaboration with public institutions and
private non-profit organisations, to secure the enrichment of educational
provision and the equality of educational opportunities for the most
underprivileged sectors.*

Strategies
- To set up complementary services, outside the school timetable, to
  support extra-curricular education activities which, at the same time,
  will help the social integration of pupils from socially underprivileged
  sectors, such as: assisted study halls, open sports classes, library,
  computers, etc. This is to be carried out in collaboration with non-profit
  organisations

- To offer leisure and free time activities, fostering those performed
  outside these pupils' cultural environment as a means of improving
  socialisation – among these are support and training activities for
  parents.

Objective 2
*To adapt in-school and out-of-school compensatory activities to ensure their
complementarity and coherence.*
Strategies
- To integrate out-of-school compensatory actions within the schools'
  Annual General Programme, ensuring that their implementation suits
  the needs and demands of the teaching teams

- To adapt the procedures for public tenders and economic support to
  include schools' external compensatory activities.

Inter-institutional collaboration and social participation

Objective 1
*To develop plans for integrated action in priority action zones, as defined by
territorial, educational and socio-economic criteria.*

Strategies
- To diagnose the needs and factors which influence the implementation of
  compensatory education

- To set up educational contexts by means of schools' integration plans, which involve the surrounding area, and aim to enhance the use of the zone's social resources

- To bring together the resources of the different authorities, institutions and social organisations

- To make priority provision for compensatory education programmes in rural areas

- To raise awareness of, and promote, interculturalism in formal and informal education contexts.

Objective 2
To foster the participation of Authorities (local services, administrations) and social agents (families, students, trade unions and so forth) in education initiatives.

Strategies
- To foster the establishment of work commissions within Municipal School Councils, including Permanent Schooling Commissions and commissions to prevent and combat school truancy

- To structure the participation of social organisations providing compensatory education activities in School Councils
- To subsidise, through specific public invitations to tender, compensatory education and intercultural activities carried out by associations and private non-profit organisations.

Reference

Spain. Statutes. (2000). *Ley Orgánica 5/2000, de 12 de Enero, Reguladora de la Responsibilidad Penal de los Menores* (B.O.E. 13-01-2000) Madrid: Jefatura del Estado Español. [Organic Law 5/2000 of 12 January, on the Regulation of the Penal Responsibility of minors.]

IV Seminar programme

Immigration and education systems: new challenges and new solutions in the European context

Salón de actos del Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, Madrid
13 – 14 June 2002

In the last two decades, Spain has increasingly become a host country for immigrants from a variety of linguistic, cultural and religious backgrounds. Still more recently, the figures of the incoming flow of immigrants are rising fast. Moreover, the education system also has to cater for the children of immigrants, who are second generation citizens in our country. This new situation calls for new attitudes, policies and courses of action from all the actors involved in education: policy-makers, researchers, teachers and other professionals of education.

Other countries in Europe have gone or are going through similar situations and have already developed and implemented the appropriate measures to respond to the new needs and questions posed by immigration in the field of education.

The objective of the Seminar is to reflect and share experiences that highlight the barriers/challenges as well as the successes in other European countries.

The Seminar is organised by the Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe (CIDREE) and by the Centro de *Investigación y Documentación Educativa* (*CIDE*), which is member of the Consortium.

Thursday 13 June 2002

12:00   Opening
Ms. Isabel Couso, Secretaria General de Educaçion y Formación Profesional del Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte de España

Introductory address
Dr. Seamus Hegarty, President of the Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe (CIDREE) and Director of the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER)

12:30   Introduction to the Seminar
Ms. María Tena, Director of Centro de Investigación y Documentación Educativa (CIDE)

Social Diversity, Intercultural and Citizenship Education in the European Union
Dr. Jagdish Singh Gundara, Director of the International Centre for Intercultural Studies of the Institute of Education, University of London, England

13:30   Buffet lunch

15:00   *Education: Crucial for Successful Integration*
Mr. Roger H.L.M. van Boxtel, Minister for Urban Policy and Integration of Ethnic Minorities, Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations, The Netherlands

Migrant Pupils in Austrian Schools: The Challenge of Linguistic and Cultural Diversity
Ms. Elfie Fleck, Bureau for Intercultural Education, staff member of the Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, Austria

Discussion

16:30   Coffee

17:00   *Solidarity Regional Plan in the Andalucía Region*
Mr. Sebastián Sánchez Fernández, Director General de
Ordenación Educativa y Solidaridad. Consejería de Educación y
Ciencia, Comunidad Autónoma de Andalucía

Education Proposals for Immigracion in Aragón
Ms. Carmen Solano Carreras, Jefa de la Unidad de Orientación
Escolar. Departamento de Educación y Ciencia, Comunidad
Autónoma de Aragón

Discussion

Friday 14 June 2002

9:30   *Provision for Diversity in the Autonomous Community of Madrid*
Ms. Mª Antonia Casanova Rodríguez, Directora General de
Promoción Educativa, Consejería de Educación, Comunidad
Autónoma de Madrid

*Educational Equal Opportunity Plan for the Autonomous
Community of Murcia*
Mr. Juan Navarro Barba, Jefe del Servicio de Atención a la
Diversidad, Consejería de Educación y Cultura, Comunidad
Autónoma de Murcia

Discussion

11:00   Coffee

11:30   *The Relationship of the Swedish Society and the Swedish School to
the Immigrant Children*
Dr. María Börgstrom, Faculty of Education, Stockholm University,
Sweden

*Immigration and the Response of the British Education System:
from an historical perspective to contemporary policies and
practices*
Dr. Monica Taylor, Principal Research Fellow, National
Foundation for Educational Research

Discussion

13:00   Conclusions
          Dr. Joanna Le Métais, Head of International Project Development,
          National Foundation for Educational Research

          Closure
          Authority from the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport of
          Spain and Dr. Seamus Hegarty

About the authors

María Borgström

Dr María Borgström carries out interdisciplinary research related to young people's language, identity and culture. Her Master's degree, presented in 1994 to the Department of Education, Stockholm University, was about the significance of developing education models for mother tongue awareness and capacities, and was part of research into Bilingualism in the School then being conducted in the Centre of Research into Bilingualism at Stockholm University. Since then, Dr Borgström has concentrated her attention on questions of culture and identity. She received her doctorate in 1998, for her thesis: Being in-Between. How Spanish American Young People in Sweden Perceive the Conditions of their Socio-cultural Identity Development.

Dr Borgström contributes to courses and conferences in this area at Stockholm University, Rovira i Virgilis University in Tarragona and Universitat Autònoma in Barcelona. She teaches a course on cultural knowledge and is involved in seminar programmes at the Universities of Stockholm and Barcelona.

From 1991, Dr Borgström has had systematic contact with experts, researchers and politicians who work with education in Catalonia and can provide a good insight into bilingual education situation in Catalonia. She has just finished a postdoctoral project at Barcelona University on Sociocultural Identity among young Moroccans in Barcelona. She currently:

- coordinates a study into how mother tongue teachers and interpreters view the acquisition of cultural, social and language codes of Chileans in Sweden, which is part of a research programme at Stockholm University, 'Language and Identity of Spanish speaking living in Sweden' (SPIIS)

- participates in a European Union (COMENIUS) project, INTEGRA, which involves joint work between the Universidad Politécnica in Barcelona, the Centre Bruxellois d´Action Interculturelle in Belgium and the Department of Spanish, Portuguese and Latin-American studies in

Stockholm. Its objective is to develop and prepare a course to increase the intercultural competences and awareness of teachers of the 13 - 16 age group.

- conducts research within the project Globalization and Identity, together with Associate Professor Katrin Goldsteiin-Kjaga in The Department of Education at Stockholm University.

Roger van Boxtel

Mr Roger Henri Ludovic Maria van Boxtel was born in Tilburg, The Netherlands. He studied medicine and then Dutch law at the University of Amsterdam, graduating in 1981. He worked as a sports writer for the *Volkskrant*. He then worked for the municipality of Amsterdam on appeals against administrative decisions, and from 1981 to 1986 for the Union of Dutch Local Authorities (VNG). This was followed by eight years as a management consultant and interim manager in the private sector.

Mr van Boxtel held various positions within his party, Democrats 66 (D66) including that of Political Secretary in Amsterdam and member of the National Executive. In 1994, Mr van Boxtel became a member of the Lower House of the States General (Parliament), and in August 1998, he was appointed Minister for Urban Policy and Integration of Ethnic Minorities in the Government of The Netherlands.

Mr van Boxtel has also been Vice-Chairman of the POA, a non-profit body concerned with the care of asylum seekers, Chairman of the Supervisory Board of the 'Tot en Met' organisation in Amsterdam, dealing with residential provision for the elderly and disabled, and a member of the Board of the Hollandia Theatre Company.

Lia Brouwer-Vogel

Ms Lia Vogel was born in Groningen, The Netherlands. She worked in primary education from 1963 to 1992, after which she studied Pedagogy and Education at the University of Leiden, and developed a special interest in education for minority groups. On graduating, in 1998, she started working at the University of Amsterdam: Institute for Teacher Education (ILO) as a researcher.
Since August 2000, Ms Brouwer-Vogel has been an adviser in the Minorities Integration Policy Department of the Netherlands Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations. In this role, she has particular responsibility for

minority pupils in secondary education and works closely with the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science.

Together with colleagues in the Ministry of Education, Ms Brouwer-Vogel initiated a mentoring project for Turkish and Moroccan pupils in secondary education. This project will start in 2003 in three major cities of The Netherlands. The project involves links with Cardiff University in Wales and the Weizmann Institute of Rehovot in Israel.

Ms Brouwer-Vogel has written two reports about the educational task of the school and about cultural education in secondary education.

Mª Antonia Casanova

Ms Mª Antonia Casanova is Inspector of Education and is currently Director General of Educational Promotion in Madrid, where she works in the fields of attention to diversity within the education system and intercultural and adult education. She has a university degree in Special Education and she was responsible for this area in the Ministry of Education and Culture for three years.

From 1996 to the end of 2001, Ms Casanova represented Spain in the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education. Since 1996, she has directed, on behalf of Spain, the *Proyecto de Integración Educativa* (Project for Educational Integration) in Mexico, sponsored *by Fondo Mixto de Cooperación Técnica y Científica México-España.*

Ms Casanova is the author of several publications, including *Manual de Evaluación Educativa* (The Manual for Educational Evaluation), which is widely used in Ibero-American countries. It proposes a model of evaluation which favours provision for diversity and improvement of education processes. She runs the pedagogy collection *Aula Abierta*, for the publishing company Editorial La Muralla.

Elfie Fleck

Ms Elfie Fleck has been a civil servant in the Austrian Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture since 1992. In the Bureau for Intercultural Education she is responsible for the integration of immigrant and refugee pupils, notably for measures in the fields of German as a second language, mother tongue instruction and the educational principle 'Intercultural Education'. From 1977 till 1992 she taught English in secondary and adult education in Austria.

Jagdish S. Gundara

Dr Jagdish Gundara (BA, MA, PhD) is Professor of Education at the Institute of Education, University of London, where he founded the Centre for Intercultural Education in 1979. He is also the holder of a UNESCO Chair in Education at the Institute of Education.

Born in Kenya, Dr Gundara was educated in the United States, Canada and Scotland. He holds a BA in Government, History and Economics from Bowdoin College and an MA in Political Science and International Relations from McGill. He was awarded a PhD by the University of Edinburgh for his thesis entitled 'British Extra-terrestrial Jurisdiction in 19th Century Zanzibar'.

Dr Gundara is the founder and President of the International Association for Intercultural Education. His honours include the Bhai Vir Singh International Award for his extensive work in education in socially diverse societies, presented by the Dalai Lama, and, for his contribution to intercultural and international understanding, an award from the Indian Council for World Affairs.

Dr Gundara's many publications include *The History of Blacks in Britain* (co-editor, Gower, 1992), the *World Year Book of Education: Intercultural Education* (Kogan Page, 1997), European *Intercultural Social Policies* (co-editor, Ashgate, 2000) and *Interculturalism: Education and Inclusion* (Paul Chapman, 2000).

Seamus Hegarty

Dr Seamus Hegarty is Director of the National Foundation for Educational Research. This is the largest educational research institution in the United

Kingdom, comprising about 270 staff and running 70–80 research projects at any given time.

Initially a teacher, he has been a researcher and research manager for close on 30 years. He has a particular interest in the links between research and educational policy/practice. He has directed and participated in numerous research projects covering special educational needs, ethnic minority issues, assessment, professional development and local authority services. He has written and co-authored more than 20 books and numerous papers and has been involved in many other publications. Several books have been translated into other languages, and various papers and book chapters have been anthologised. He is Editor of *Educational Research* and founding Editor of the *European Journal of Special Needs Education.*

Dr Hegarty has acted as adviser to UNESCO on special needs issues since 1985. He has acted as expert for the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation in OECD on various projects since 1980. He has acted as consultant to education ministries or government agencies in numerous European and Asian countries. He has recently completed an evaluation of the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education. He is currently President of the Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe.

He is a graduate of University College Dublin and the University of London. He holds honorary doctorates from a number of universities.

Jagoda Illner

Jagoda Illner works at the North Rhine-Westphalian State Institute for Schools (IfS) and is responsible for the development of concepts, models and material to support students with migration background in all types of schools in North Rhine-Westphalia.

She is also engaged in organising in-service education and training for teachers (INSETT) for German and foreign teachers and in advising schools and school districts on effective support programs for students with migration background.

Born in Croatia, Ms Illner completed studies in literature, linguistics and German as a foreign language at the University of Zagreb. In 1975, she went to Germany and completed her studies in German and history at the University of Bonn. She is a qualified teacher at Secondary Level 2.

Ms Illner started her professional career as a teacher for German as a second language and for native language for students from former Yugoslavia. In 1992 she was appointed to the North Rhine-Westphalian State Institute for Schools.

Ms Illner published classroom and support materials for students and teachers in native language, second language and foreign language learning. She is the author and editor of German, Greek, Italian and Turkish schoolbooks.

Elin Jones

Dr Elin Jones attended St Hugh's College, Oxford, where she gained an MA in Modern History and a Postgraduate Diploma in Celtic Studies. She went on to complete a further MA and a PhD in Mediaeval Welsh History and Literature and a Postgraduate Certificate in Education at the University of Wales.

After teaching students of 11 – 18 years in Welsh-medium comprehensive schools, Dr Jones moved to work as a Senior Education Officer at the National Museum of Wales. She is currently a freelance educational consultant, and works as History Officer for ACCAC (Awdurdod Cymwysterau, Cwricwlwm ac Asesu Cymru/Qualifcations, Curriculum and Assessment Authority for Wales) with responsibility for developing the history curriculum.

Andras Kovats

Andras Kovats is a researcher at the Centre for International Migration and Refugee Studies of the Minority Research Institute of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, and a program coordinator of Menedek – Hungarian Association for Migrants.

Joanna Le Métais

Born in Amsterdam, Dr Joanna Le Métais was educated in the Netherlands, Australia, France and England. She is a qualified teacher and holds the degrees of Bachelor of Education, Master of Arts (Public and Social Administration) and Doctor of Philosophy (*Conservative Values and*

Education Policy 1979 – 1990). She was awarded the degree of Doctor of Education *honoris causa,* by Brunel University in 2000.

Dr Le Métais is Head of International Project Development at the National Foundation for Educational Research. Her main area of work is comparative analysis and evaluation of education policy, implementation and reform. She directs the International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks (*INCA* – see http://www.inca.org.uk), an ongoing study of curriculum and assessment systems and organisation in 18 countries. She has conducted *INCA* thematic studies on aims and values, upper secondary education and (jointly) the arts, creativity and cultural education, as well as a review of curriculum reform in Vietnam (1999) and a critique of the New Zealand curriculum framework and statements.

Dr Le Métais has undertaken advisory assignments, research projects and service activities in a wide range of countries and has authored numerous research-based publications and conference presentations on education policy and provision, the training and management of teachers, and specific aspects of teaching and learning.

Juan Navarro Barba

Mr Juan Navarro Barba has a university degree in geography and history and psycho-pedagogy. He was a primary teacher from 1980 to 1995, teaching students of cultural and ethnic minorities. He was Advisor of Compensatory and Intercultural Education from 1995 to 1999 and, since 2000, has been Head of the Service for Provision for Diversity.

Mr Navarro Barba's publications include:
Orientaciones sobre la Escolarización de Inmigrantes [Guidelines for the Schooling of Immigrants]
La Educación Intercultural como Respuesta del Siglo XXI [Intercultural Education as a Response for the 21st Century]
La Atención a la Diversidad [Provision for Diversity]
La Educación Compensatoria en España [Compensatory Education in Spain]

Ulrich Pfaff

Ulrich Pfaff is Head of the Education for Migrants Section in the North-Rhine-Westphalian Ministry for Education, Science and Research. His responsibility covers all matters concerning pupils from migrant families, such as German as a second language, instruction of the mother tongue and religious instruction for Muslims.

Mr Pfaff is a lawyer by profession. During his career he has worked in different sections of the ministry (school law legislation, planning of the educational system, European affairs).

Sebastián Sánchez Fernández

Dr Sebastián Sánchez Fernández obtained the qualification of primary teacher at the *University of Córdoba,* Bachelor of Arts (Pedagogy) at the University of Valencia and Doctorate in Philosophy and Education Sciences (Education Sciences) at the University of Valencia.

Dr Sánchez Fernández is Professor of the Department of School Didactics and Organisation at the University of Granada in Melilla, where he has managed the department since its establishment. He is a researcher at the Peace and Conflict Institute (*Instituto de la Paz y los Conflictos)* of this University, where he has edited its book collection *EIRENE* and has served on the management standing committee as a representative of the research projects. He has directed the research project Curricular Innovation in Multicultural Contexts (*Innovación Curricular en Contextos Multiculturales*) of the Andalusia Research Plan (*Plan Andaluz de Investigación*), since its establishment in 1988. His teaching and research activities are mainly focused on intercultural education and education for peace, and he has written several articles and specialised books on this issue, the most recent being *Los Relatos de Convivencia como Recurso Didáctic (*Stories of Coexistence as a Didactic Resource), recently published by Editorial Aljibe.

Since May 2000, Dr Sánchez Fernández has been Director General of Educational Counselling and Solidarity (*Orientación Educativa y Solidaridad*) in the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* of the *Junta de Andalucía,*[47] responsible, among other things, for: educational counselling, special

---

[47] *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* is the department which has powers over educational matters in the Autonomous Community of Andalusia.

education, compensatory education, continuing education, complementary education services, education for immigrants, peace and non-violence education.

Carmen Solano Carreras

Ms Carmen Solano Carreras is a primary teacher, specialising in therapeutic pedagogy and hearing and language, and has a *Diplomado* (the first three-year cycle) of the university degree in Law.

Ms Solano Carreras was a Member of the Aragonese Parliament representing Zaragoza for two Parliamentary cycles (1979-1982 and 1982-1986) and City Councillor and Deputy Mayor of the Council of Zaragoza (Culture, Education, Youth, Police, Fire Brigade, Civil Defence Organisation) in two Local Corporations (1987-1991 and 1991-1995).

Ms Solano Carreras is Head of the Counselling Unit (*Unidad de Orientación*) and responsible for the education programmes for immigrants in the Directorate General for Pedagogical Reform (*Dirección General de Renovación Pedagógica*) of the *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* of *Gobierno de Aragón*[48].

Monica J. Taylor

Dr Monica Taylor is Principal Research Fellow at the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales and Editor of the *Journal of Moral Education*. She is responsible for most of the Foundation's initiatives on the education of ethnic minority pupils and values education.

In the early 1980s, she undertook a series of major research reviews on the performance of ethnic minority pupils for the then Government's Swann Committee. Her research for the Council of Local Education Authorities in the early 1990s addressed the development of LEA race equality policies and practices and was complemented by an in-depth evaluation of one LEA's policy implementation. In 2000, she undertook a consultancy for the Commission for Racial Equality about race equality and inspection.

---

[48] *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* is the department which has powers over educational matters in the Autonomous Community of Aragon.

She has carried out research and evaluation projects at the boundaries of race, religion and cultural diversity, on citizenship, personal and social education, on spiritual, moral, social and cultural education and in informal learning in adult education. She has published widely in these fields and held professional leadership positions in values and moral education.