



Integrating Immigrant Children into Schools in Europe





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PREFACE

'How do education systems attempt to integrate immigrant pupils?' This is the question that the present survey sets out to answer by providing policy-makers with some insight into the different measures adopted in 30 European countries to support immigrant children at school. The study discusses measures that have been devised and implemented in the education system of the host country with due regard for its demographic circumstances.

Integration of immigrants into society has indeed become a major concern for policy-makers in Europe. Many European countries face the challenge of integrating various groups of immigrants resident within their borders for different reasons. Some such countries already have long-standing experience of policies for the integration of immigrant children in schools. Others have acquired this experience more recently or, where immigration is very recent indeed, have just begun to debate how their education systems should be adapted accordingly.

Since the Treaty of Amsterdam came into force on 1 May 1999, immigration policy has become an area in which the European Union exercises a full share of responsibility. Policies for the integration of immigrants are intended to help ensure equality and prevent racial or ethnic discrimination. Mobility and exchange are also an integral part of the 'detailed work programme on the follow-up of the objectives of education and training systems in Europe', which was formally approved by the European Heads of State or Government meeting in Barcelona on 15-16 March 2002. In all cases, the way in which education systems deal with the integration of immigrant children is a foremost concern.

This appraisal of the educational measures that have been implemented relates to markedly different national contexts as regards immigration, depending on the economic, social, historical and political factors that have shaped the countries concerned. A corresponding variety of approach is apparent in the measures themselves that their education systems have introduced to integrate immigrant children.

A key mechanism for information on education systems in Europe and how they develop, the Eurydice Network has sought to provide an overview of practice in this area. The present survey has been completed using information gathered by the Network's National Units to which we should like to express our warm gratitude for their highly profitable collaboration.

Patricia Wastiau-Schlüter

Head of the Eurydice European Unit

July 2004

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

This survey, which focuses on the different modes of integration of immigrant pupils adopted in European education systems, is made up of six chapters. The first two of these give the general political and demographic context with respect to the situation in Europe. Rights to education for immigrant children and support measures in schools are described in detail in subsequent chapters. A number of links are established between the various measures and their objectives at the end of the publication.

After briefly presenting the content of each chapter, this introduction presents the definitions used and the scope of the analysis in a second section, followed by a final section describing the methodology and the sources used for this survey.

Content

Chapter 1 begins with an overview of integration policies and cooperation as outlined in recent legislation and decisions reached at EU level, before going on to consider the important work undertaken in this field also by the Council of Europe. Current EU legislation on the education of immigrant children seeks to ensure that they are entitled to education on the same terms as those applicable to EU Member State nationals. In addition, the Council of Europe works to ensure that any of them may be taught the language of their host country as well as their mother tongue.

Chapter 2 examines demographic trends in Europe and is divided into two parts. The first discusses the general and widely differing trends in each country, using Eurostat data and demographic indicators on immigration, the proportion of immigrants in the population by nationality and age, and asylum seekers and refugees. The second focuses on immigrants at school, using indicators taken from the PISA 2000 (OECD) international survey.

Chapter 3 discusses the right to education and support measures intended specifically for immigrant schoolchildren. Although the right to education to some extent depends on the legal status of the children concerned, the survey establishes that the measures designed for them are not usually dependent on status.

Measures for the integration of immigrant schoolchildren are examined in **Chapter 4**. The chapter first considers arrangements for their initial reception and guidance and for determining the level of schooling they require, and then examines how they are integrated into mainstream schooling. It demonstrates that support measures correspond to two main models, an integrated model and a separate model, and discusses the different types of measure and the part played by teachers in implementing them.

Chapter 5 describes a specific type of measure to ensure that immigrant pupils remain proficient in their mother tongue and aware of their own cultural heritage. Schools may also sometimes adapt their daily provision to accommodate certain cultural or religious practices of immigrant pupils. The ways in which arrangements and practice of this kind are implemented again vary widely from one country to the next.

Chapter 6 examines how curricula, legislation and other official sources promote an intercultural approach to school education, which is also an important dimension of initial teacher education and in-service teacher training. This approach is distinct from the foregoing measures intended specifically for immigrant children, in that it is meant to raise general awareness of different cultures among all pupils. The great majority of education systems in Europe are geared to this approach though its precise form and content vary.

The comparative overview is supplemented by detailed national contributions based on a common structure. Each contribution sets out definitions and the demographic context of immigration, measures for school-based support to immigrant children and their families, and different forms of intercultural approach, with a final section on developments such as evaluation, pilot projects, debates and prospective reforms. All these contributions are contained on the CD-ROM supplied with the publication, as well as on the Internet (www.eurydice.org).

Focus and scope

The present survey defines an immigrant child as a child from any other country (within or outside Europe), whose parents or grandparents may have settled in the host country, or who may be seeking asylum, have refugee status, or be an irregular immigrant. Children from families who have been settled in the host country for more than two generations do not therefore come within the scope of the survey.

Measures intended specifically for migrants **within** a particular country, such as the Roma and various kinds of traveller, are covered only if these groups correspond to the foregoing definition. The same applies to support measures for groups of ethnic or national minorities.

School-based measures are those devised and implemented by the education system of the host country. They do not include measures introduced from outside the education system, such as those initiated by embassies, diplomatic missions, non-governmental organisations, volunteers or other players.

Information in the survey covers the pre-primary, primary and compulsory general secondary levels of public-sector or government-dependent education. In the case of information on support measures, the reference year for Eurydice data, including the national contributions, is the 2003/04 school year. In the case of demographic information, it is the most recent year for which data is available. The reference year for Eurostat data is 2002 and for PISA (OECD) data, 2000.

The survey covers the 30 member countries of the Eurydice Network.

Methodology

Three different types of data constitute the source for the survey: data provided by national units in accordance with a common guide to content; material taken from key documents on European policies; and statistical data derived from Eurostat and the PISA 2000 (OECD) survey.

At the outset, European policy documents and other relevant literature were studied in order to understand the common background (see the bibliographic references at the end of this volume).

On the basis of a guide for contents prepared by the European Unit, each National Unit drafted its own contribution following the predetermined structure. This common format was established to allow readers to access readily comparable information with due regard for national characteristics.

As demographic data supplied by the National Units differed very widely, Eurostat and PISA 2000 (OECD) data has been used in Chapter 2 to illustrate major demographic trends across Europe.

Information from the national contributions on certain key questions concerning the integration of immigrant children at school is then summarised in the comparative overviews contained in Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6. These chapters seek to provide an overall picture by comparing the various approaches to integration in the participating countries, with examples.

CHAPTER 1

EUROPEAN POLICIES IN EDUCATION FOR IMMIGRANT CHILDREN

1.1. General Background

The European Union is gradually adopting a fully consistent policy for asylum and immigration, an area in which it exercises a full share of responsibility since the Treaty of Amsterdam came into force in May 1999 ⁽¹⁾. The main aim of the policy is to ensure that the conditions governing the entry of immigrants and asylum seekers into Member States and their residence therein are wholly compatible. School-based measures for immigrant children which are the focus of the present survey may be regarded as belonging to the part of this policy concerned with 'integration'. The target populations consist of citizens of third countries who emigrate for a variety of reasons, including economic motives, the desire to keep families together, or because they are refugees or asylum seekers, etc.

The new competences of the European Union in the area of immigration policy should be seen in conjunction with the conclusions of the (March 2000) Lisbon Summit when the EU set itself the objective for the decade ahead of becoming *the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion* ⁽²⁾. The integration of immigrants in accordance with law is thus an important constituent of the European Union policy now taking shape, and the education system has been identified as an arena in which integration can occur.

The conclusions of the Tampere European Council (15-16 October 1999) have had a decisive impact on European policy for the integration of citizens from third countries. They clearly state the need to bring the legal status of third-country nationals who are legally resident in a Member State (for a period of time to be determined) and hold a long-term residence permit on EU territory, closely into line with that of citizens of the Member State of residence, including the right to **receive education**. This point of view was reiterated at the Seville European Council (21-22 June 2002). At the Thessaloniki European Council (19-20 June 2003), it was stated that EU policy for integration of third-country citizens should cover factors such as education and language training. The integration of legal immigrants was again referred to as a priority during the Brussels European Council of 16-17 October 2003.

The European commitment to developing a policy for the integration of immigrants (and their children) who are legally resident also implies a commitment, from an educational point of view, to ensuring that they enjoy the same rights as those of children who are EU citizens. The conclusions in this area reached by different European Councils are shown in Figure 1.1 of annexe 1.

⁽¹⁾ See articles 61 and 63. Denmark does not take part in the adoption of measures under these articles. Ireland and the United Kingdom may do so at their discretion in accordance with article 3.

⁽²⁾ Conclusions of the Presidency, Lisbon European Council, 23-24 March 2000.

1.2. European Legislation on the Right to Education of Immigrant Children

The 25 July 1977 Directive of the Council constitutes the first legislative measure of the European Community concerning the education of the children of migrant workers. It relates solely to the children of immigrants from the Member States and includes provision for education adapted to their special needs, as well as tuition devoted to their mother tongue and culture of origin. Consideration of this Directive has been important for countries joining the European Union in May 2004, in that it has sometimes influenced their national policy for the education of immigrant children.

Recent European Directives (shown in Figure 1.1 of annexe 1) define immigrant children as minors who are nationals of third countries, whether or not they are accompanied. They enjoy certain educational entitlements which depend on their legal position. Once these entitlements are established by Council directives, they have to be incorporated into national legislation before taking full effect.

According to European law, **minors who are children of third-country nationals with the status of long-term residents** ⁽³⁾ have since November 2003 received the same treatment as nationals as far as education is concerned, including the award of study grants ⁽⁴⁾. But Member States may restrict this principle of equal treatment, by requiring proof of appropriate language proficiency for access to the education system.

Since January 2003, **minors who are children of asylum seekers or are themselves asylum seekers** have been able to access the education system under conditions similar to those applicable to citizens of the host Member State ⁽⁵⁾. Such education may be provided in accommodation centres. Access to the education system may not be postponed for more than three months once the application for asylum by the minor or one of his or her relatives has been submitted. However, it may be postponed for a year when special tuition is provided to facilitate access to the system. If access is not possible because of the particular situation of the minor concerned, the Member State may offer other educational arrangements.

In the case of **immigrant children who are irregularly present** on European Union territory, no form of educational entitlement is specified in European legislation.

Directive 2000/43/EC is liable to have a bearing on the education of all immigrant children but does not cover differences in treatment based on nationality and is without prejudice to the conditions of residence of third-country nationals. It seeks to prohibit any discrimination based on race or ethnic origin in different areas, including education (see article 3). The same Directive entitles immigrant children or children of immigrant origin to appeal in the event of treatment less favourable than that applicable to nationals (direct discrimination), or when an apparently neutral provision, criterion or practice would put them at a disadvantage (indirect discrimination).

⁽³⁾ This status is obtained after 5 years of continuous legal residence in the Member State, except in certain circumstances, assuming those concerned can support themselves financially. For further details, see Directive 2003/109/EC, articles 4 and 5.

⁽⁴⁾ See Directive 2003/109/EC, article 11. Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom do not take part in the adoption of this Directive.

⁽⁵⁾ See Directive 2003/9/EC, article 11. Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom do not take part in the adoption of this Directive.

To sum up, current European legislation on the education of children who are nationals of third countries and either have legal status or have been resident for at least a certain minimum period, is concerned with granting entitlement to education under the same conditions as those applicable to nationals, but subject to certain possible exceptions (see above). It contains no provisions regarding the entitlement to education of children who are third-country nationals and irregularly present on European Union territory. Neither does it include any positive measures for the assistance of immigrant children.

1.3. Definition of Common Objectives and the Monitoring of Integration Policy

One of the general objectives set by the 2000 Lisbon Summit was to improve active citizenship, equal opportunities and social cohesion. This relates in particular to the access of immigrants and their children to education and training systems.

Among the European benchmarks for education and training which were adopted by the 'Education, Youth and Culture' Council of 5 May 2003 and should be achieved by 2010, three benchmarks are particularly relevant in promoting integration and employment of the immigrant population:

- the average proportion of young people in the EU who leave school early should not exceed 10 %;
- at least 85 % of young people aged 22 in the EU should have completed upper secondary education;
- the percentage of young people in the EU who have achieved poor results in reading and writing should decrease by at least 20 % compared to 2000.

It is indeed clear that specific difficulties, essentially linguistic in nature, that may be experienced by immigrant children during their education are liable to give rise, first, to problems with reading and writing and then to school dropout. These three benchmarks should therefore prompt Member States to step up their efforts on behalf of schoolchildren in difficulty, and certain immigrant pupils in particular.

The European Commission has several means at its disposal for monitoring policies adopted by Member States for the integration of immigrants. In accordance with the conclusions of the Thessaloniki Summit, the Commission is developing cooperation and the exchange of information between Member States through the Group of national contact points on the integration of third-country nationals. More particularly, introduction programmes for newly arrived immigrants, language training for immigrants and their participation in civic, cultural and political life, have been identified as priority areas in this respect. Furthermore, in 2003 the Commission agreed to prepare an annual report on policies for immigration and integration in Europe, so as to collect a broad set of data on migratory movement throughout the EU, as well as on policies and practice in the areas of immigration and integration.

Finally, the European Monitoring Centre on Racism and Xenophobia, which commenced its activities in 1998 ⁽⁶⁾, focused its activities in 2003 and 2004 on the discrimination experienced by immigrants in the fields of employment and **education**.

⁽⁶⁾ According to Council Regulation (EC) No 1035/97 of 2 June 1997.

1.4. Concrete Actions Supported by the European Commission

In 1997, which was decreed as the 'European Year against Racism, Xenophobia and Antisemitism', the Directorate-General for Education, Training and Youth supported different schemes introduced by the Member States, which sought primarily to fight racism. Such schemes were not always concerned specifically with immigrant children and might also be intended for all schoolchildren with the aim of teaching them to live in a multicultural society.

For example, a project initiated by **Greek** researchers related to the use by teachers in primary education and by pupils aged between 9 and 12, of a teaching kit dealing with the fact that all populations derive originally from cross-breeding. Other schemes were concerned with the promotion of intercultural education in compulsory education (in the **French Community of Belgium, Spain and Italy**), with adapting the content of initial teacher education and the continuous professional development of teachers, introducing a training module for primary school heads, or with the integration of parents of immigrant origin in school activities (**Denmark, Germany and Sweden**).

Under the Comenius action of Socrates, the Directorate-General for Education and Culture is continuing to finance many projects initiated by Member States, which deal with intercultural education (particularly in teacher training modules) and with the fight against racism and xenophobia at school, for example through the use of appropriate school books.

1.5. Work by the Council of Europe

In legal terms, the main Council of Europe reference to the education of immigrant children is the 1977 ⁽⁷⁾ European Convention on the Legal Status of Migrant Workers, which came into force in May 1983. As in the case of the European Community Directive of the same year, the Convention relates to migrant workers from Member States. It confers on their children the right to enter the education system under the same conditions as those applicable to the children of workers who are nationals. Furthermore, the host State has to facilitate teaching of the national language (or one of them if there are several) to migrant children and seek to ensure that they are granted scholarships on the same terms as those applicable to nationals. Finally, steps have to be taken to enable these children to be taught their mother tongue.

Subsequently, a resolution and three recommendations on the education of immigrant children were passed by the Council of Europe ⁽⁸⁾ between 1983 and 1989. Their implementation is not binding on the Member States.

⁽⁷⁾ In 1977, the present Member States of the European Union were members of the Council of Europe, with the exception of the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and Finland. Neither were Bulgaria nor Romania members at that time. Today the 25 Member States are members of the Council of Europe, together with Bulgaria and Romania and the three EFTA/EEA countries.

⁽⁸⁾ Resolution adopted by the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, 10-12 May 1983. Recommendation No. R (84) 9 of the Committee of Ministers to Member States on second-generation migrants, Recommendation No. R (84) 18 of the Committee of Ministers to Member States on the training of teachers in education for intercultural understanding, Recommendation 1093 (1989) of the Committee of Ministers to Member States on the education of migrants' children.

Compared to the 1977 Convention, these measures broaden the remit to include immigrant children from non-member countries. They have to do with children who enter the territory of a Member State with their parents, and children of immigrant origin who were born in the host country but whose legal status has not been explicitly clarified.

On the basis of these four legal provisions, the Council of Europe recommends that action concerned with the integration of immigrant children into the education system should be taken in three areas as follows: adapting the system to their special educational needs; including lessons on the language and culture of the country of origin in mainstream school curricula; and promoting intercultural education for all. In recent years, the Council of Europe has carried out a whole range of activities aimed at supporting more intensive work in these areas by its Member States.

According to the reference documents (shown in Figure 1.2 of annexe 1), the special educational needs of immigrant children require in particular that the cultural environment should be taken into account in assessing abilities and knowledge. The importance of drawing up measures for the integration of girls is also referred to.

The promotion of intercultural education entails initial and in-service training of teachers, and the development of suitable teaching materials.

In 2000, the Committee of Ministers issued a recommendation on immigrants who are long-term legal residents (i.e. who have been residents for at least five years) ⁽⁹⁾. This recommendation states that they must have the same educational entitlements as host country nationals.

⁽⁹⁾ Recommendation (2000) 15.

CHAPTER 2

DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS

Demographic trends within a country are the outcome of ongoing changes in three variables, namely the birth rate, the mortality rate and net migration. These trends differ markedly among European countries some of which have been affected by international migration on a growing scale.

The aim of this chapter is twofold. It seeks first to compare the scale of immigration between European countries and secondly to measure in each case the proportion of the school population attributable to immigration. However, national definitions of the immigrant population vary from one country to the next and the lack of a uniformly consistent definition poses problems when attempting any statistical comparison of migratory trends ⁽¹⁾.

Demographic data relating to immigration and the proportion of immigrants in the population by nationality and age are from Eurostat (the Statistical Office of the European Communities). The main criterion enabling the different groups of people living within the EU Member States to be identified and distinguished from each other is the legal one of nationality. The resultant demographic data are the most consistent available although differences between countries in definitions and sources used for data collection limit the scope for comparison.

This first analysis describes the ebb and flow of immigration (Figure 2.1), the structure of the immigrant population with respect to nationality (Figures 2.2A and 2.2B), the number of applications for asylum (Figures 2.3 and 2.4), and the proportion of immigrants aged under 15 within the population for the same age-group in European Union countries (Figure 2.5).

The indicators prepared with reference to the proportion of immigrants within the school population are derived from the PISA international survey ⁽²⁾ conducted under the auspices of the OECD. The survey includes the distribution of questionnaires to 15-year-old pupils, the aim of which is to identify variables linked to their school and family circumstances. They do not contain any question about the nationality of those surveyed, but do ask about their place of birth and that of their parents. By **immigrants** here are meant pupils aged 15 who may or may not have been born in their host country and both of whose parents were born abroad. **Natives** are defined as 15-year-old pupils, irrespective of their place of birth, at least one of whose parents was born in the host country. As the population subject to comparison only concerns 15-year-old pupils regardless of their nationality, the indicators seek simply to deal on a comparable basis with the complexity of situations in which large groups of immigrants or pupils of immigrant origin are present in school systems.

⁽¹⁾ According to the definition used for this survey of school-based support for immigrant children, any child from another country (inside or outside Europe) may be regarded as an immigrant. This includes refugee children, the children of asylum seekers, and irregular child immigrants in the host country as well as children of immigrant origin, whose parents or grandparents have settled in the host country. By contrast, children from families that have been settled in the country for over two generations are not covered by the survey.

⁽²⁾ Definition of PISA in the glossary at the end of this volume.

In this second analysis, immigrant pupils are considered in terms of the location of the schools they attend (Figure 2.7), the level at which they are present in schools (Figure 2.8) and the language they use at home with their families (Figure 2.9).

2.1. Immigration Trends over the last 25 Years

In the period between 1985 and 2001, trends in immigration to the various countries of the European Union differed markedly. Figure 2.1, which illustrates these immigrant flows in relation to the total population in five-year intervals over the total period, shows that countries may be classified into three main categories in accordance with the trends observed.

Within the last 20 years, four countries have experienced immigration flows corresponding to over 1.5 % of the total population for several consecutive years, namely Germany, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Iceland. During this period, Luxembourg has experienced the highest sustained inflow of immigrants with respect to the total population (over 2 % annually). These flows satisfied requirements linked to its demographic deficit as well as to the labour shortage resulting from its strong economic growth. Immigration to Iceland has increased in the last six years and the origin of immigrants has changed: an inflow of Nordic country nationals has partly given way to immigration from eastern Europe (Poland and Lithuania) and from Asia (the Philippines and Thailand). After experiencing immigration on a considerable scale in the years immediately following reunification and the political opening up of the eastern European countries, Germany has recorded a constant decrease in immigration into the total population since 1992. However, these flows still represented 1 % of the total population in 2001.

The situation is less striking in a second category of countries which have experienced annual immigration of between 0.5 % and less than 1.5 % of the total population (Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Norway). Among these countries, Belgium, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have a long history of immigration linked to their colonial past, their industrial characteristics or both. These countries remain attractive as a result of the privileged relations they have retained with their former colonies, the tendency for families to stick together and the establishment of informal reception networks developed through past migrations. Countries such as Ireland and Norway have experienced an upsurge in immigration since the 1990s and 1980s respectively, in the wake of their economic growth.

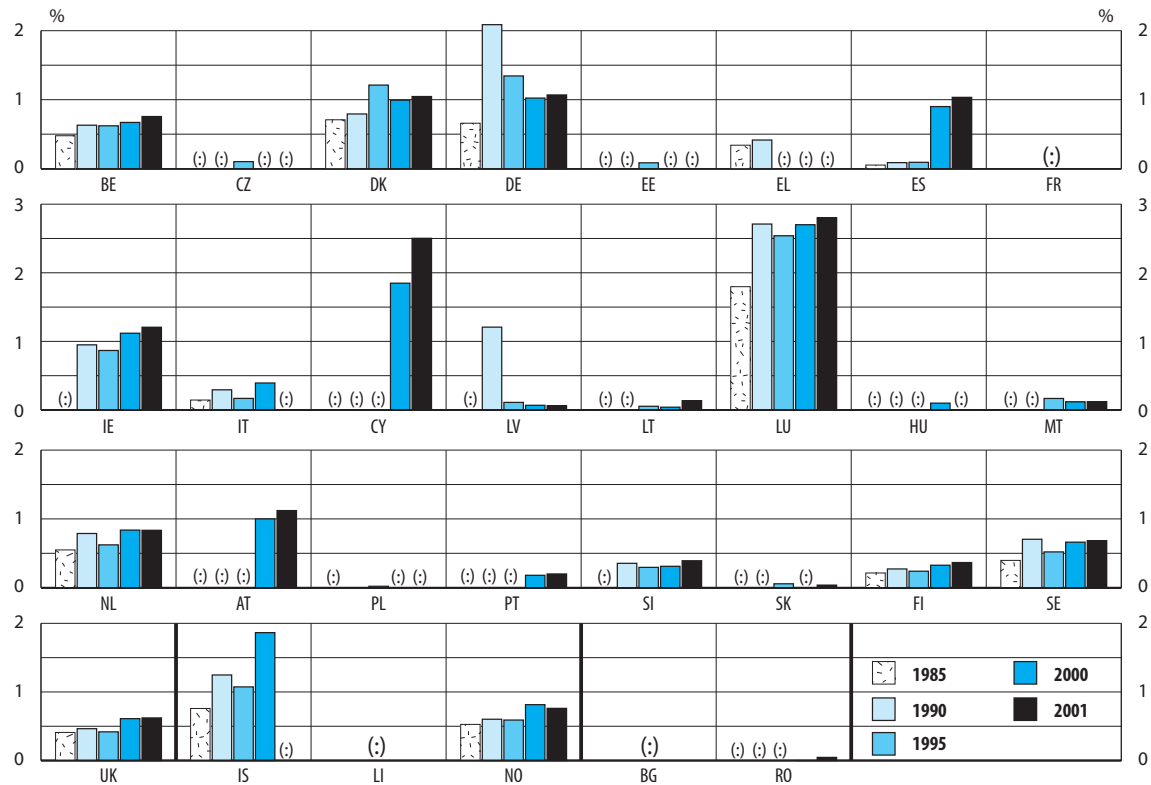
Explanatory note (Figure 2.1)

This indicator has been calculated by dividing the number of immigrant arrivals during reference year (X) by the total population on 1 January of the year (X). Detailed data for each year in the period are available on the CD-ROM annexed to the Eurostat publication (2002).

The immigrants are either non-nationals who have arrived from abroad, or nationals returning from abroad who intend to be resident in the country for a certain period. This period, which ranges from one month in the case of a Dutch person returning to the Netherlands, to 12 months for anyone entering the United Kingdom, is determined by the appropriate authorities in each country.

The population on 1 January corresponds to all inhabitants within a given area on 1 January in the calendar year (or in certain cases, on 31 December of the previous year). This population is based either on data obtained during the most recent census, which have been corrected by data on the components of population growth since that census, or on population registers.

**Figure 2.1: Annual immigration
as a percentage of the total population between 1985 and 2001**



	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
1985	0.5	(:)	0.7	0.7	(:)	0.3	0.1	(:)	(:)	0.1	(:)	(:)	(:)	1.8	(:)	(:)	0.5	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	(:)	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.8	(:)	0.5	(:)	(:)
1990	0.6	(:)	0.8	2.1	(:)	0.4	0.1	(:)	0.9	0.3	(:)	1.2	(:)	2.7	(:)	(:)	0.8	(:)	0.0	(:)	0.4	(:)	0.3	0.7	0.5	1.2	(:)	0.6	(:)	(:)
1995	0.6	0.1	1.2	1.3	0.1	(:)	0.1	(:)	0.9	0.2	(:)	0.1	0.1	2.5	(:)	0.2	0.6	(:)	0.0	(:)	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.4	1.1	(:)	0.6	(:)	(:)
2000	0.7	(:)	1.0	1.0	(:)	(:)	0.9	(:)	1.1	0.4	1.8	0.1	0.0	2.7	0.1	0.1	0.8	1.0	(:)	0.2	0.3	(:)	0.3	0.7	0.6	1.9	(:)	0.8	(:)	0.0
2001	0.8	(:)	1.0	1.1	(:)	(:)	1.0	(:)	1.2	(:)	2.5	0.1	0.1	2.8	(:)	0.1	0.8	1.1	(:)	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.4	0.7	0.6	(:)	(:)	0.8	(:)	0.0

Source: Eurostat, Population and social conditions, demography, New Cronos (data obtained in February 2004) and Eurostat, *European social statistics - Migration* (2002).

Additional notes

Belgium: The immigration flow data for 2000 is provisional.

Germany: Including the former German Democratic Republic from 1991.

Spain: The data relating to the total population in 2000 are estimates.

Ireland: Immigration flow data relates to the year ending in April. Data for 2000 are provisional estimates. The data relating to the total population are provisional estimates for 2000 and 2001.

Luxembourg: Data for the total population in 2000 and 2001 are estimates. There is a break in the series for the total population in 2001.

Hungary: The total population data for 2000 is provisional.

Malta: Estimate of the total population in 2001.

Portugal: Only non-nationals and long-term migrants are counted in the immigration flows. The immigration data for 2000 and 2001 are provisional (and estimated in the case of 2001). The total population for 2001 is estimated.

United Kingdom: International Passenger Survey for immigration flows. The immigration flow data for 2000 and 2001 are estimates. The total population is estimated in the case of 2001.

Annual immigration of less than 0.5 % of the total population has mainly been recorded in the new EU member countries (except Cyprus) as well as in Greece, Italy and Finland. This situation also applied to Spain and Portugal until the end of the 1990s. Both these countries underwent a major transitional phase during the period concerned. From being countries associated with emigration, they became host countries. This change in migratory flows is attributable to several factors, the most important of which seems to be strong economic growth and the structural changes induced by these countries joining the European Community in 1986. Greece also experienced renewed immigration when the countries of eastern Europe opened up between 1990 and 1995 and citizens of Greek origin returned to the country on a substantial scale.

In eastern Europe, immigration has been attributable to two main factors, namely population movements related to political renewal in the countries concerned and their transition to a market economy. They have accordingly experienced a renewed modest increase in immigration following their transition to democracy (Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Bulgaria and Romania) or their declaration of independence (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania). This transition has often gone hand in hand with the return of a proportion of those belonging to ethnic minorities who were scattered throughout various countries in the (former) eastern bloc, or who had settled in western Europe immediately after the Second World War. These countries have also had to confront an influx of refugees as a result of the conflicts that deeply affected central Europe and the Balkans in the final years of the 20th century (refugees from the former Yugoslavia in Slovenia or from the Republic of Moldova in Romania). Yet immigration to them has remained modest in relation to their total population.

Finally, very limited immigration to Malta (under 0.2 % a year in the period between 1985-2001) may partly be attributed to the small size of the island.

2.2. Countries and Continents of Origin of the Foreign Population

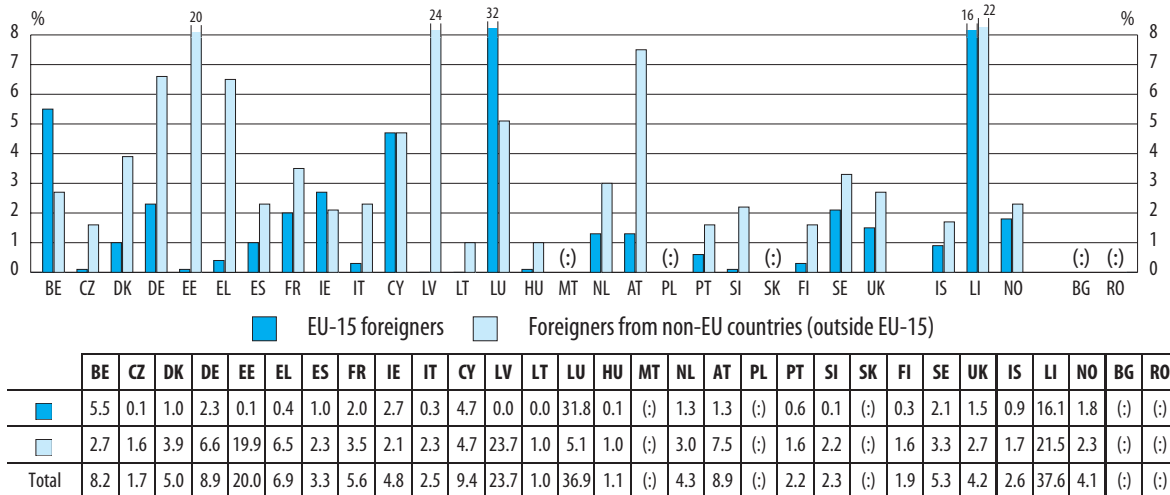
The data in the table under Figure 2.2A show that, on 1 January 2002 in the majority of countries, the foreign population was recorded as between 2.5 % and 9 % of the total population. This applied to Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, France, Ireland, Italy, Cyprus, the Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway. The situation in the other countries was markedly different. The proportion of the foreign population recorded in the total population was 20 % in Estonia and Latvia – as a result of the size of their minority population of Russian origin (many of whom were not Estonian or Latvian nationals) – Luxembourg and Liechtenstein, whereas in Hungary, Lithuania, Portugal, Slovenia and Finland, the foreign population accounted for under 2.5 % of the total population.

Over and above the relative size of these foreign populations in the various countries, it is important here that their own countries and continents of origin should be more clearly identified. Two major approaches have been adopted to examine, on the one hand, the proportion of non-nationals who are nationals of EU-15 countries as opposed to any other country of origin (Figure 2.2A) and, on the other, the proportion of the foreign population in the population, by continent of origin (Figure 2.2B). As the free circulation of persons has not yet been established on a fully uniform basis for the 25-member European Union, both these indicators still relate to the 15-country EU.

From both these diagrams, it may be concluded overall that the origin of the foreign population varies among the countries for which data are available. More specifically, as illustrated in Figure 2.2A, the proportion of all nationals of third countries in the total population (i.e. countries other than those in the 15-member EU) is higher than the proportion of citizens of countries in the 15-member EU, in all countries except Belgium, Ireland and Luxembourg. However, the breakdown of the immigrant population by their

continent of origin illustrated in Figure 2.2B clearly indicates that in Cyprus, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway, the 15-country EU is the main geographical region of origin.

Figure 2.2A: Proportion of the foreign population comprising nationals of one of the EU-15 countries and proportion of the foreign population from outside the EU-15 countries, with respect to the total population, 1 January 2002



Source: Eurostat, Population and social conditions, demography, New Cronos (data obtained in February 2004) and Eurostat, *European social statistics - Migration* (2002).

Additional notes

Czech Republic, Italy, Luxembourg, Lithuania and Austria: Data for 2001.

Estonia and Iceland: Data for 2000.

Greece: Provisional data for 2001.

France: Data from the 1999 census.

Ireland and Hungary: Provisional data.

Italy, Luxembourg and Austria: Data for 2001.

Latvia: The 'Foreigners from non-EU countries' category includes former citizens of the former USSR who have a non-citizen status.

United Kingdom: 2000, estimated provisional data.

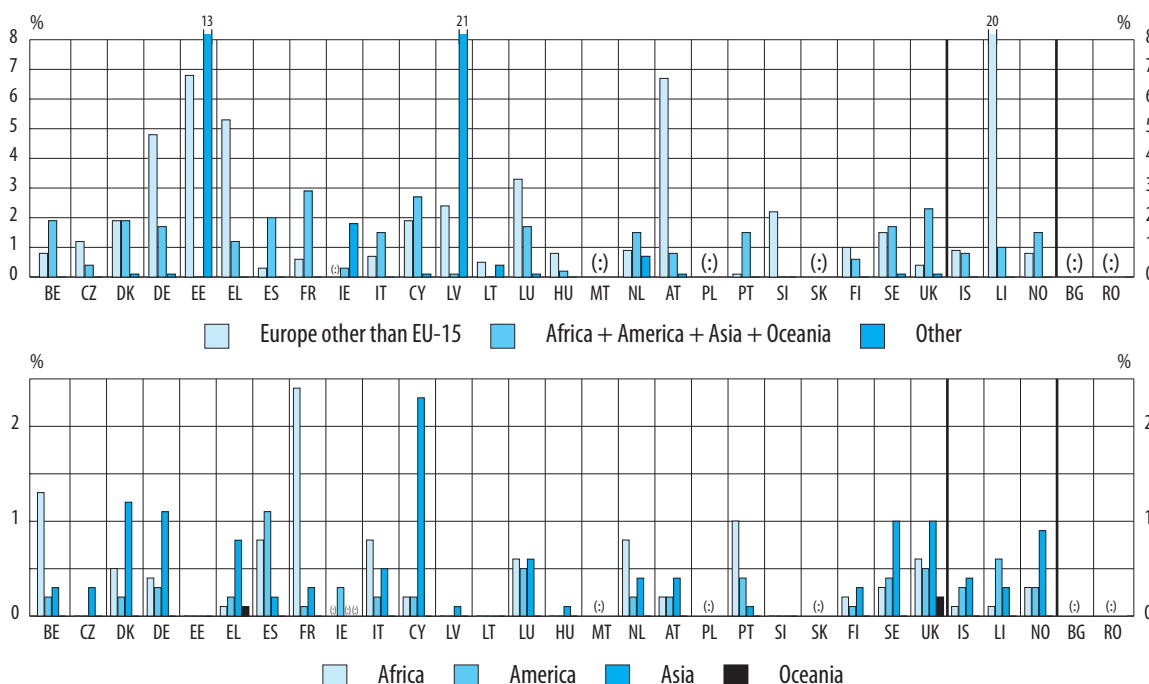
Liechtenstein: Data for 1997.

Explanatory note

This indicator has been calculated by dividing, on the one hand, the number of foreigners who are nationals of one of the EU-15 Member States by the total population on 1 January 2002 and, on the other, the number of foreigners who are nationals of a country outside EU-15 also by the total population on 1 January 2002.

Figure 2.2B also shows that the origin by continent of foreign populations within the EU varies to some extent but also that the origins of the foreign population as a whole within the EU are primarily European. However, a few countries are exceptions. Africa is the main continent of origin in France, Italy and Portugal, whereas Spain takes in a growing proportion of American citizens. This is largely attributable to the fact that parts of Africa and America are former colonies of these host countries.

Figure 2.2B: Proportion of the foreign population comprising nationals of countries outside the EU-15 with respect to the total population, by continent of origin, at 1 January 2002



%	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
(1)	0.83	1.20	1.95	4.81	6.79	5.28	0.28	0.62	(-)	0.75	1.89	2.36	0.53	3.30	0.84	(-)	0.86	6.67	(-)	0.05	2.16	(-)	0.98	1.53	0.36	0.89	20.45	0.78	(-)	(-)
Africa	1.32	0.02	0.48	0.37	0.00	0.14	0.77	2.43	(-)	0.80	0.19	0.00	0.00	0.61	0.01	(-)	0.82	0.18	(-)	1.04	0.00	(-)	0.16	0.27	0.64	0.07	0.06	0.32	(-)	(-)
America	0.23	0.04	0.20	0.27	0.01	0.25	1.08	0.14	0.28	0.24	0.18	0.02	0.01	0.50	0.03	(-)	0.24	0.15	(-)	0.38	0.01	(-)	0.08	0.35	0.48	0.30	0.57	0.32	(-)	(-)
Asia	0.31	0.34	1.19	1.06	0.02	0.76	0.19	0.35	(-)	0.47	2.33	0.06	0.03	0.59	0.14	(-)	0.39	0.45	(-)	0.09	0.02	(-)	0.31	1.01	0.99	0.40	0.32	0.88	(-)	(-)
Oceania	0.01	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.01	(-)	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	(-)	0.03	0.01	(-)	0.01	0.00	(-)	0.01	0.03	0.18	0.02	0.02	0.02	(-)	(-)
Other	0.03	0.00	0.10	0.09	13.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.83	0.00	0.10	21.25	0.42	0.12	0.00	(-)	0.66	0.07	(-)	0.00	0.00	(-)	0.03	0.09	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.01	(-)	(-)

(1) Europe other than EU-15.

Source: Eurostat, Population and social conditions, demography, New Cronos (data obtained in February 2004) and Eurostat, *European social statistics - Migration* (2002).

Additional notes

Czech Republic, Italy, Luxembourg, Lithuania and Austria: Data for 2001.

Estonia and Latvia: Data for 2000. The 'Other' category accounts primarily for former citizens of the former USSR who have not acquired a fresh nationality.

Greece: Provisional data for 2001.

France: Data from the 1999 census.

Ireland and Hungary: Provisional data.

United Kingdom: 2000, estimated provisional data.

Iceland: Data for 2000.

Explanatory note

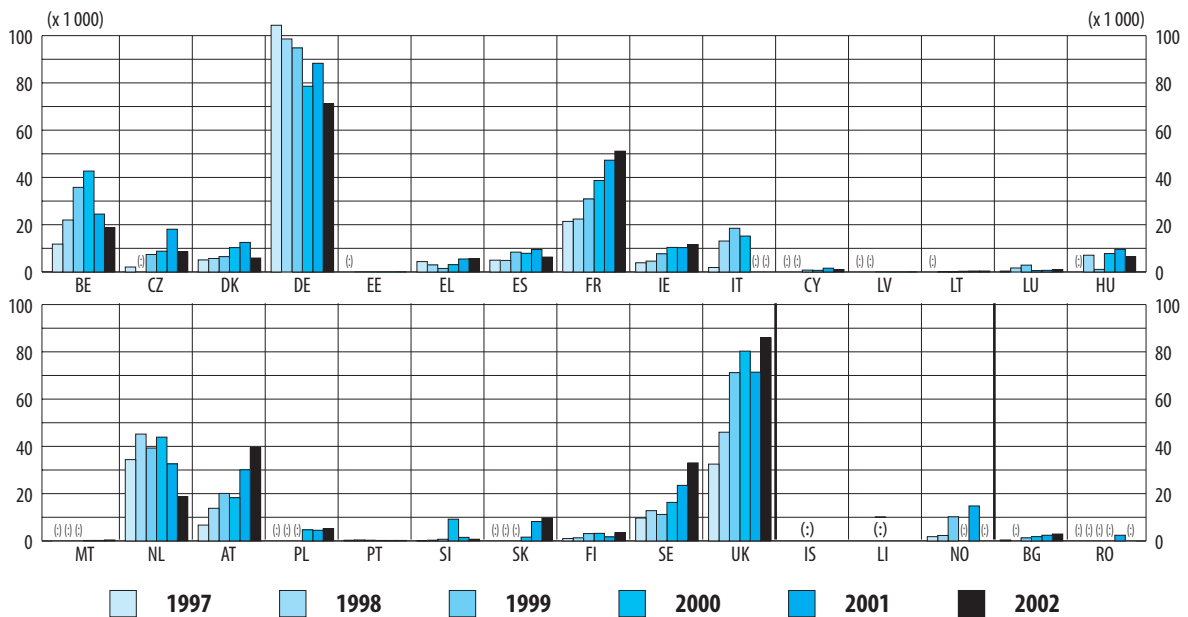
The 'Europe other than EU-15 category' comprises citizens of the following countries: the new EU Member States on 1 May 2004 (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia); the candidate countries (Bulgaria, Romania and Turkey); the EFTA countries (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland); and Andorra, Albania, Belarus, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, the Republic de Moldova, Monaco, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the Russian Federation, San Marino, Ukraine, Vatican City and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

The 'Others' category corresponds to stateless persons, unknown persons and British overseas citizens.

2.3. Breakdown of Numbers of Asylum Seekers in Europe

European countries are destinations recognised by asylum seekers, given their political stability and democratic regimes, which imply a commitment to respect for human rights. Figure 2.3 illustrates trends in the number of applications for asylum by country during the period from 1997 to 2002. It reveals that the majority of applications are made to certain EU Member States in particular.

Figure 2.3: Number of applications for asylum by country, 1997-2002



	BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
1997	11.8	2.1	5.1	104.4	(-)	4.4	5.0	21.4	3.9	1.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	0.4	(-)	(-)	34.4	6.7	(-)	0.3	0.1	(-)	1.0	9.7	32.5	(-)	(-)	1.8	0.4	(-)
1998	22.0	(-)	5.7	98.6	0.0	3.0	4.9	22.4	4.6	13.1	(-)	(-)	0.2	1.7	7.1	(-)	45.2	13.8	(-)	0.4	0.3	(-)	1.3	12.8	46.0	(-)	(-)	2.3	(-)	(-)
1999	35.8	7.4	6.5	94.8	0.0	1.5	8.4	30.9	7.7	18.5	0.8	0.0	0.1	2.9	1.1	(-)	39.3	20.1	(-)	0.3	0.7	(-)	3.1	11.2	71.2	(-)	0.1	10.2	1.3	(-)
2000	42.7	8.8	10.3	78.6	0.0	3.1	7.9	38.7	10.4	15.2	0.7	0.0	0.3	0.6	7.8	0.2	43.9	18.3	4.7	0.2	9.2	1.6	3.2	16.3	80.3	(-)	(-)	(-)	1.8	(-)
2001	24.5	18.1	12.5	88.3	0.0	5.5	9.5	47.3	10.3	(-)	1.6	0.0	0.4	0.7	9.6	0.2	32.6	30.1	4.5	0.2	1.5	8.2	1.7	23.5	71.4	(-)	(-)	14.8	2.4	2.4
2002	18.8	8.5	5.9	71.1	0.0	5.7	6.3	51.1	11.6	(-)	1.0	0.0	0.4	1.0	6.4	0.4	18.7	39.4	5.2	0.2	0.7	9.7	3.4	33.0	85.9	(-)	(-)	(-)	2.9	(-)

Source: Eurostat, Population and social conditions, demography, New Cronos, data obtained in February 2004.

Additional notes

Italy: 1999 and 2000, provisional data.

Norway: 1999, estimate

Explanatory note

Data relating to applications for asylum include all persons who apply for asylum or similar protection in accordance with Article 1 of the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees of 28 July 1951, as amended by the New York Protocol of 31 January 1967. This data is recorded on an individual basis either at an airport or land border on the arrival of the persons concerned, or actually inside the country and irrespective of whether those concerned have entered it legally (for example, as tourists), or irregularly.

Most EU member countries register individual applications. Other countries register them solely in certain cases. National totals may include renewed applications. Because of these various methods of collecting data, the latter are not fully comparable from one country to the next.

The EU Member States that have registered the greatest numbers of applications for asylum during the period under consideration are Germany and the United Kingdom. Between them, they account for almost 40 % of the total number of applications for asylum submitted within the European Union.

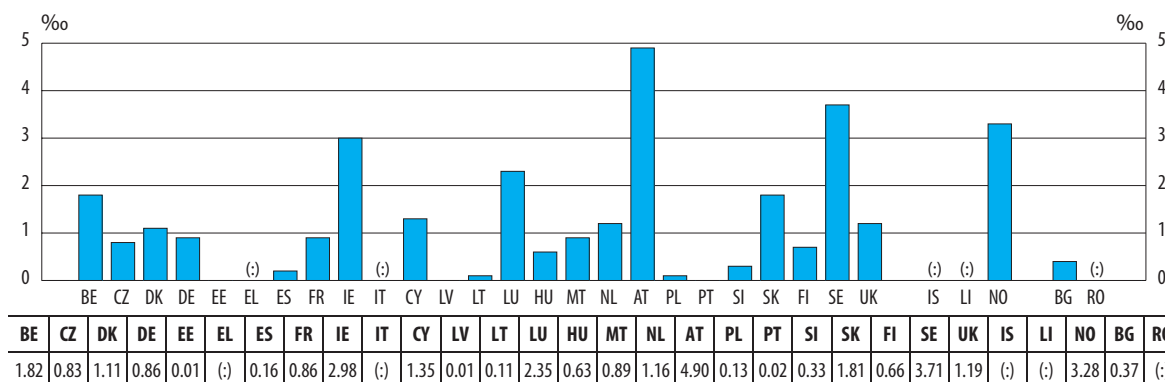
The number remains relatively high in Belgium, France, the Netherlands and Austria. Yet in 2002, these countries registered considerably fewer applications for asylum than Germany and the United Kingdom. In all, the foregoing six Member States alone account for around 73 % of the total number of asylum applications submitted in the 25 EU countries (excluding Italy for which the figure is not available). All countries have experienced marked variations in the number of asylum applications during the period concerned. For example, Germany and the United Kingdom experienced contrasting trends in changes in the number of asylum applications between 1997 and 2002. While there was a net decrease in this number in Germany during those years, the United Kingdom reported an increase.

The size of the population of a particular country may have a bearing on the number of registered applications for asylum. The total number of applications should therefore be considered in relation to the total population of the country concerned. Figure 2.4 shows the 'asylum ratio' relating the number of applications registered by each country to its population.

In 2002, Austria, Sweden and Norway recorded the highest asylum applications ratios (over 3 ‰). Ireland and Luxembourg have an asylum ratio of over 2 ‰. In Germany and the United Kingdom in which the highest absolute numbers of asylum applications are registered, the asylum ratios are 0.86‰ and 1.2‰ respectively. The situation is fairly similar in France.

Finally, a few countries for which data are available have very low ratios (under 0.05 ‰), namely Estonia, Latvia and Portugal.

Figure 2.4: Number of asylum applications per 1000 inhabitants (asylum ratio), 2002



Source: Eurostat, Population and social conditions, demography, New Cronos (data obtained in February 2004).

Additional notes

Czech Republic, Ireland and Malta: Total estimated population.

France: Provisional estimate of the total population.

United Kingdom and Norway: 2001.

Explanatory note

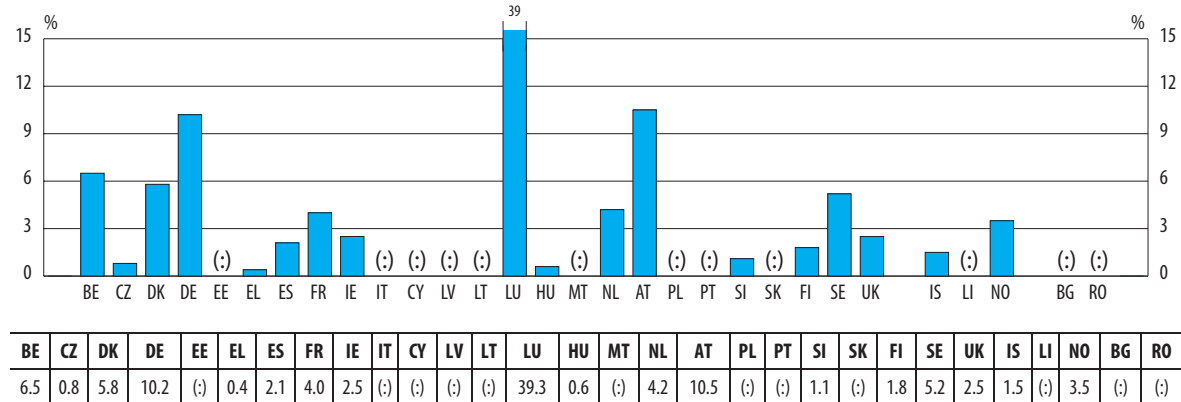
This indicator has been calculated by dividing the number of applications for asylum, by the total population. The asylum ratio expresses the number of applications for every 1000 inhabitants.

2.4. Foreign Population Aged under 15 in Europe

Over and above the study of immigration and the geographical origin of foreign populations within the EU, an examination of the age structure of the foreign population also provides some insight into the challenges that international migration may represent for education systems in the countries affected by it. Figure 2.5 indicates the proportion of the foreign population aged under 15 in the total population of persons in this age-group.

The proportion of young foreigners in the population of school age is under 6 % in the majority of countries for which data are available. The corresponding proportion is a little over 10 % in Germany and Austria, whereas it is very low in countries only recently affected by immigration. It is lower than 3 % in the Czech Republic, Greece, Spain, Ireland, Hungary, Slovenia, Finland, the United Kingdom and Iceland. Luxembourg, in which over a third of the population aged less than 15 are of foreign nationality, is an exception.

Figure 2.5: Proportion of foreign nationals aged under 15 in the total population of those aged under 15 at 1 January 2001



Source: Eurostat, Population and social conditions, demography, New Cronos (data obtained in February 2004).

Additional notes

Greece: 1998.

France and Luxembourg: 1999.

Ireland: The immigrant population aged under 15 is an estimate; the figure for the total population aged under 15 is a provisional estimate.

Sweden: The total population aged under 15 is an estimate.

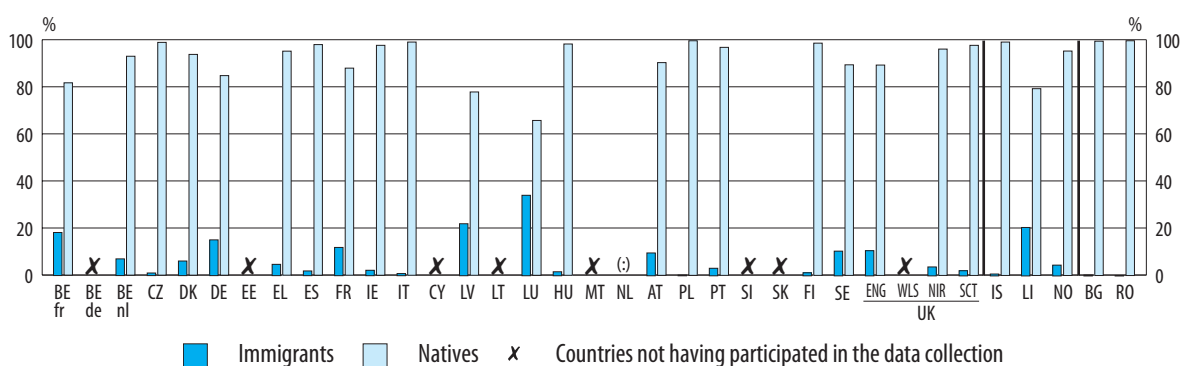
United Kingdom: 2000, the population aged under 15 is an estimate.

Iceland: 2000.

2.5. Presence of Immigrant Pupils Aged 15 in Education Systems

Figure 2.6, which has been prepared on the basis of replies obtained from 15-year-old pupils during the PISA international survey, shows the breakdown of the population of pupils aged 15 in accordance with their family origin in terms of the place of birth of individuals (parents and pupils). It would appear that the extent to which 15-year-old immigrant pupils are present in education systems varies from one country to the next.

Figure 2.6: Proportion of immigrant pupils aged 15 (whose parents were born abroad) and native 15-year-old pupils (one or both of whose parents were born in the country concerned) in the total population of pupils aged 15, 2000



	BE fr	BE nl																		UK							
			CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	FI	SE	ENG	NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
■	18.3	7.1	1.1	6.2	15.2	4.8	2.0	12.0	2.3	0.9	22.1	34.2	1.7	(:)	9.7	0.3	3.2	1.3	10.5	10.7	3.8	2.2	0.8	20.6	4.6	0.4	0.2
■	81.7	93.0	98.9	93.8	84.8	95.2	98.0	88.0	97.7	99.1	77.9	65.8	98.3	(:)	90.4	99.7	96.9	98.7	89.5	89.4	96.2	97.8	99.2	79.4	95.4	99.6	99.8

Source: OECD, PISA 2000 database.

Additional note

Netherlands: The response rate to the PISA 2000 survey was considered to be too low for purposes of meaningful comparison. This is why the data (immigrants = 11.9; natives = 88.1) are not shown in the Figure. See the glossary for further details.

Explanatory note

This indicator has been calculated by dividing the number of pupils aged 15 in each category by the total number of 15-year-old pupils. Both categories shown are based on the criteria of the place of birth of the parents and the pupils aged 15.

The group referred to as **immigrants** corresponds to replies of the type 'both parents and the 15-year-old pupil born abroad' or 'both parents born abroad and the 15-year-old pupil born in the country concerned'. The group referred to as **natives** corresponds to replies of the type 'one parent born abroad' and 'both parents born in the country concerned', irrespective of the pupil's place of birth.

In all countries, the most commonly encountered situation is that in which at least one of the parents of a 15-year-old pupil was born in the country concerned. This group accounts for over 80 % of the population in the great majority of countries. It is least represented in Luxembourg in which it corresponds to only two-thirds of all pupils aged 15. It should be noted that the same group may also include pupils whose grandparents migrated in the past.

In the French Community of Belgium, Germany, France, Latvia, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England) and Liechtenstein, immigrant pupils covering all pupils whose parents were born abroad, account for over 10 % of pupils aged 15.

2.6. Presence of Immigrant Pupils by Location of School

On comparing the breakdown of the population of 15-year-old immigrant pupils in accordance with the population density of the area in which their schools are situated, with the corresponding breakdown for native pupils aged 15, it is clear that the former tend to congregate more in areas of high urban density than the latter. The geographical distribution of immigrant pupils and their parents is thus not spatially uniform but concentrated within urban environments.

This phenomenon is illustrated in Figure 2.7 which shows the percentages of immigrant and native pupils respectively for each of four major categories of school location. It indicates clearly that the geographical distribution of these two groups is far from identical, and shows that immigrant pupils are clustered within towns and cities in a sizeable majority of the EU-25 countries.

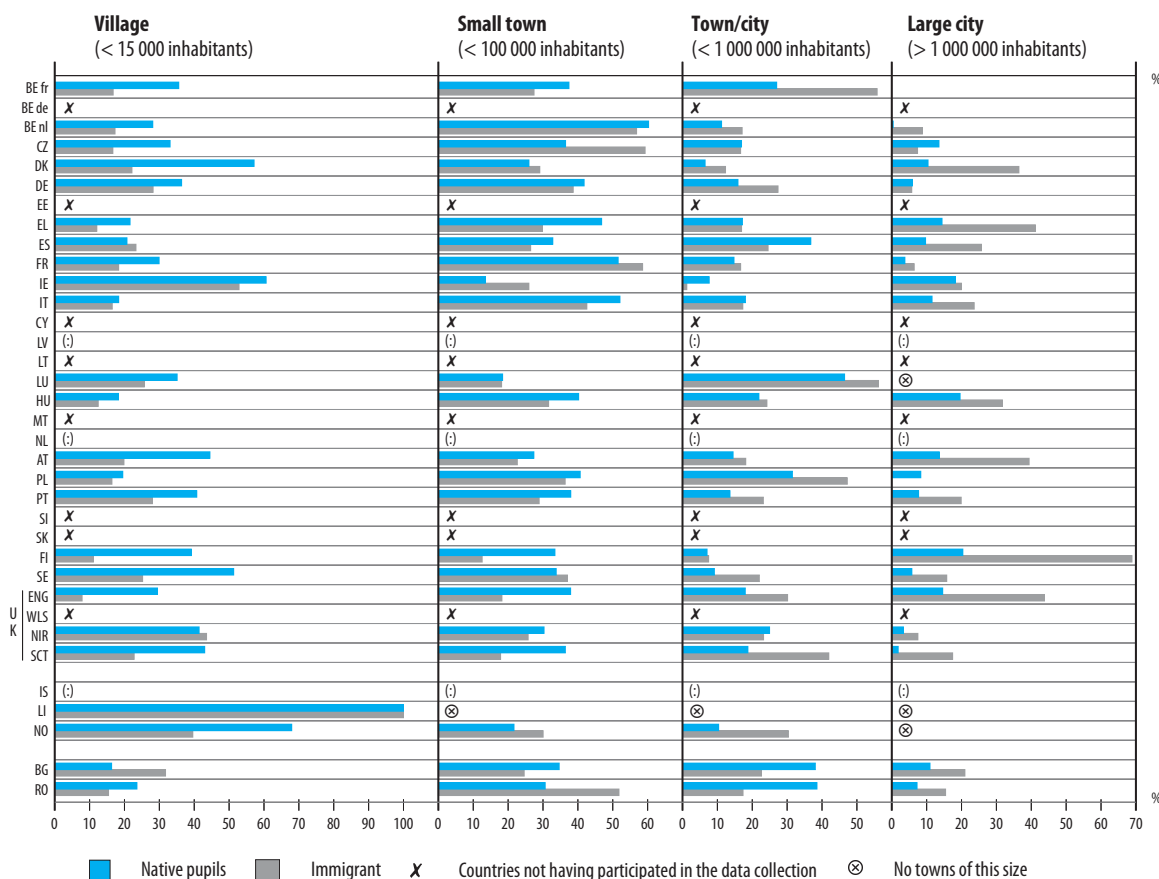
As can be seen, the relative proportion of immigrant pupils in urban areas with populations of over 100 000 is higher than that of native pupils in the majority of countries. Conversely, in many countries the proportion of native pupils is relatively stronger than that of immigrants in areas in which the population is not as dense (villages and towns with under 100,000 inhabitants).

In only a minority of countries, namely the Czech Republic, Greece, Spain, Ireland, Italy, Bulgaria, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) and Romania is the proportion of native pupils in towns or cities of over 100 000 inhabitants (and under a million inhabitants) relatively greater than that of immigrant pupils.

Certain countries report a very high share of immigrant pupils in large cities. It is indeed in cities with a population of over 1 000 000 that immigrant populations in schools appear to be most densely concentrated. As an example, it may be noted that 68.9 % of immigrant pupils in Finland attend school in Helsinki.

The reasons for this non-uniform distribution of immigrant pupils aged 15 within European Union countries are found in the intensive international immigration experienced by certain urban areas in EU countries. This is a result of historical and socio-economic factors, given that this flow satisfied the need for labour in those areas in years of strong economic growth. The impact of this highly intensive immigration has subsequently been magnified by the behaviour patterns of families seeking to stay together, the establishment of informal networks for solidarity among former and more recent immigrants and certain social exclusion phenomena. Finally, some countries bring asylum seekers together in order to provide them with more effective assistance, which accentuates the physical concentration of groups of foreign origin within certain geographical areas.

Figure 2.7: Proportions of 15-year-old immigrant and native pupils respectively, in relation to the location of the schools they attend, 2000



	BE fr	BE nl																	UK								
%			CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	FI	SE	ENG	NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
Native pupils																											
Village	35.6	28.1	33.1	57.2	36.4	21.6	20.7	29.9	60.6	18.3	(:)	35.1	18.3	(:)	44.5	19.5	40.7	39.2	51.3	29.5	41.4	43.0	(:)	100	68.0	16.3	23.6
Small town	37.4	60.3	36.5	26.0	41.8	46.8	32.8	51.6	13.5	52.1	(:)	18.4	40.2	(:)	27.4	40.7	38.0	33.4	33.8	37.9	30.3	36.4	(:)	⊗	21.7	34.6	30.6
Town/city	27.0	11.2	16.9	6.5	15.9	17.2	36.8	14.8	7.7	18.0	(:)	46.5	21.9	(:)	14.5	31.5	13.6	7.0	9.1	18.0	25.0	18.8	(:)	⊗	10.4	38.1	38.6
Large city	0.0	0.4	13.5	10.4	5.9	14.4	9.7	3.8	18.2	11.6	(:)	⊗	19.6	(:)	13.6	8.3	7.7	20.4	5.8	14.6	3.4	1.8	(:)	⊗	⊗	11.0	7.3
Immigrant																											
Village	16.8	17.3	16.7	22.1	28.2	12.1	23.3	18.3	52.9	16.5	(:)	25.7	12.5	(:)	19.9	16.4	28.0	11.1	25.2	7.9	43.5	22.8	(:)	100	39.6	31.8	15.4
Small town	27.4	56.8	59.3	29.1	38.7	29.8	26.5	58.6	26.0	42.6	(:)	18.1	31.6	(:)	22.6	36.4	28.9	12.6	37.0	18.2	25.7	17.8	(:)	⊗	30.0	24.6	51.8
Town/city	55.8	17.1	16.7	12.3	27.4	16.9	24.5	16.7	1.2	17.3	(:)	56.2	24.2	(:)	18.1	47.3	23.2	7.5	22.0	30.1	23.2	41.9	(:)	⊗	30.4	22.7	17.4
Large city	0.0	8.8	7.4	36.5	5.7	41.2	25.7	6.4	20.0	23.6	(:)	⊗	31.7	(:)	39.4	0.0	19.9	68.9	15.8	43.8	7.5	17.5	(:)	⊗	⊗	21.0	15.4

Source: OECD, PISA 2000 database.

Additional notes

Latvia: Data were not considered to be representative of the situation at national level and were therefore excluded.

Netherlands: The response rate to the PISA 2000 survey was considered to be too low for purposes of meaningful comparison. This is why the data (native pupils: village = 12.9; small town = 62.0; town/city = 25.1; large city = no towns of this size. Immigrants: village = 4.1; small town = 40.9; town/city = 55.1; large city = no towns of this size) are not shown in the Figure. See the glossary for further details.

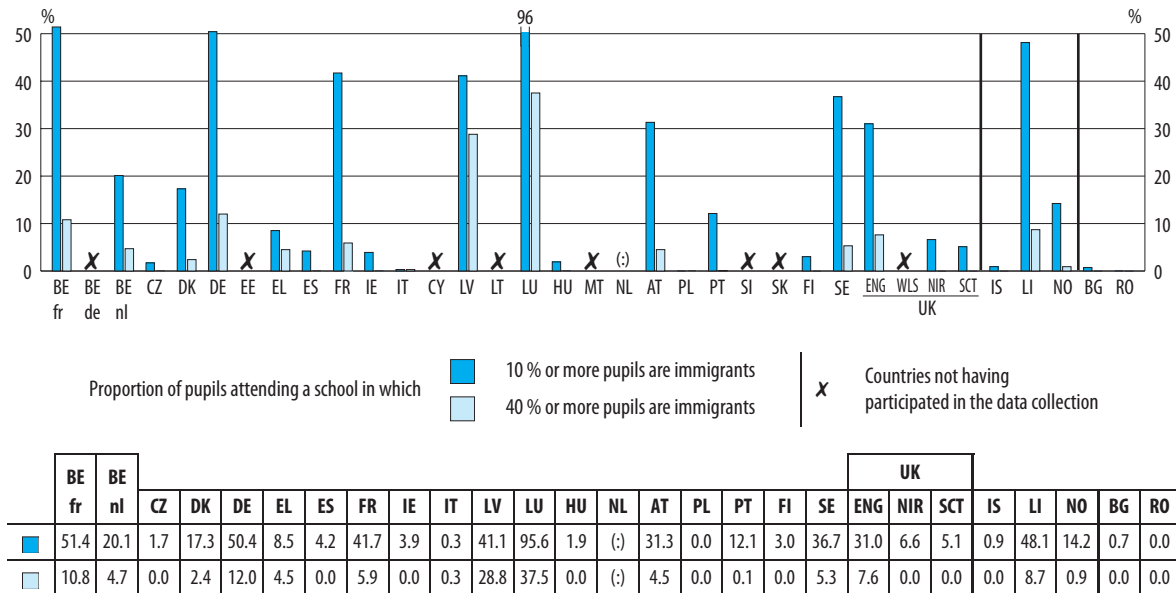
Explanatory note

The group referred to as **immigrants** corresponds to replies of the type 'both parents and the 15-year-old pupil born abroad' or 'both parents born abroad and the 15-year-old pupil born in the country concerned'. The group referred to as **natives** corresponds to replies of the type 'one parent born abroad' and 'both parents born in the country concerned', irrespective of the pupil's place of birth.

2.7. Breakdown of Immigrant Pupils among Schools

The tendency for large numbers of immigrant pupils to come together in major urban centres or large cities may be matched by their presence in strength within certain schools. This means that some schools may have to manage a higher level of intercultural mix in their population than others. In order to examine this phenomenon, data available from the PISA database have been used. Figure 2.8 represents two contrasting situations, namely the percentage of pupils attending a school in which over 10 % of pupils are immigrants, on the one hand, and those with over 40 % on the other.

Figure 2.8: Proportion of all 15-year-old pupils attending schools in which 10 % or 40 % of pupils aged 15 are immigrants, 2000



Source: OECD, PISA 2000 database.

Additional note

Netherlands: The response rate to the PISA 2000 survey was considered to be too low for purposes of meaningful comparison. This is why the data (10 % or more pupils are immigrants = 34.2; 40 % or more pupils are immigrants = 7.0) are not shown in the Figure. See the glossary for further details.

Explanatory note

The group referred to as **immigrants** corresponds to replies of the type 'both parents and the 15-year-old pupil born abroad' or 'both parents born abroad and the 15-year-old pupil born in the country concerned'. The group referred to as **natives** corresponds to replies of the type 'one parent born abroad' and 'both parents born in the country concerned', irrespective of the pupil's place of birth.

In nearly all new EU Member States for which data are available, as well as Italy and Iceland, under 2 % of pupils aged 15 are educated in schools in which over 10 % of pupils of the same age are immigrants. This is partly attributable to the modest demographic impact of immigrant pupils in these countries, in which they account for under 6 % of all 15-year-old pupils.

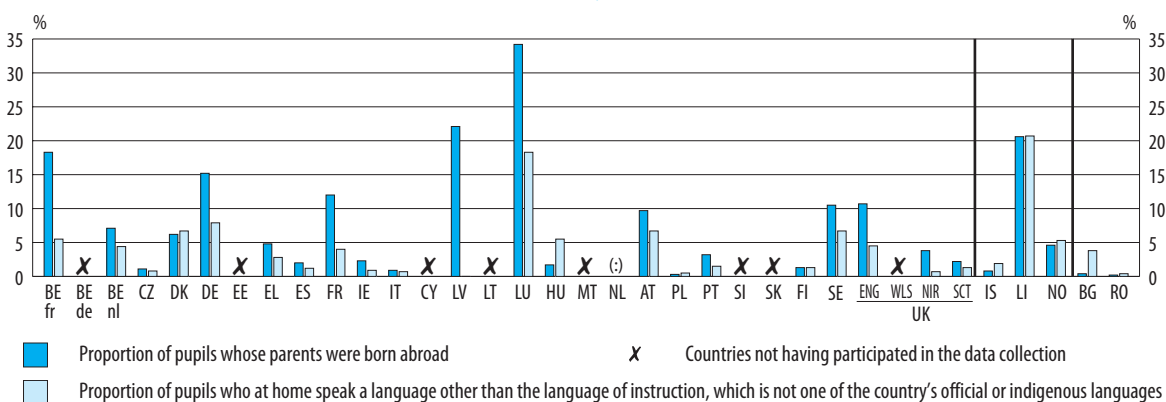
At the other extreme, a few countries report far higher levels: almost half of all pupils belong to the foregoing category in the French Community of Belgium, Germany, Latvia and Liechtenstein. An exception is Luxembourg in which over 95 % of pupils aged 15 are educated in schools in which over 10 % of the (15-year-old) intake consists of immigrant pupils. This situation is attributable to the presence of large numbers of immigrants throughout the country as a whole. Immigrant pupils form much denser groups when over 40 % of a school's intake comprises pupils born abroad. In the great majority of countries, under 5 % of pupils attend schools in this situation. In the French Community of Belgium,



Germany, France, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England) and Liechtenstein, the proportion of pupils attending schools in which over 40 % of the intake consists of immigrant pupils varies between 5 % and 12 %.

2.8. School Pupils Aged 15 whose First Language is not the Language of Instruction

Language is often the first barrier to integration encountered by immigrants pupils when they enter school. The number of pupils whose first language is not the language of instruction is therefore an issue of central importance to the education system concerned. Figure 2.9 shows both the proportion of pupils whose parents were born abroad and the proportion of those whose first language is not the language of instruction. To eliminate the impact of national ethnic minorities or various linguistic communities in the statistics, only languages that are not national languages (official or otherwise) have been taken into account.

Figure 2.9: Proportion of 15-year-old-immigrant pupils (whose parents were born abroad) and the proportion of pupils of the same age who at home speak a language other than the language of instruction, which is not one of the country's official or indigenous languages, 2000



	BE	BE																			UK								
	fr	nl	CZ	DK	DE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	LV	LU	HU	NL	AT	PL	PT	FI	SE	ENG	NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO		
	18.3	7.1	1.1	6.2	15.2	4.8	2.0	12.0	2.3	0.9	22.1	34.2	1.7	(:)	9.7	0.3	3.2	1.3	10.5	10.7	3.8	2.2	0.8	20.6	4.6	0.4	0.2		
	5.5	4.4	0.8	6.7	7.9	2.8	1.2	4.0	0.9	0.7	0.0	18.3	5.5	(:)	6.7	0.5	1.5	1.3	6.7	4.5	0.7	1.3	1.9	20.7	5.3	3.8	0.4		

Source: OECD, PISA 2000 database.

Additional notes

Latvia: The PISA survey was held in Latvian and Russian. In Latvia, the language of instruction is not only Latvian (the state language, thus official language of instruction) but also Russian, which is the language of instruction in Russian (minority) schools.

Netherlands: The response rate to the PISA 2000 survey was considered to be too low for purposes of meaningful comparison. This is why the data (proportion of pupils whose parents were born abroad = 11.9; proportion of pupils who at home speak a language other than the language of instruction, which is not one of the country's official or indigenous languages = 18.3) are not shown in the Figure. See the glossary for further details.

Explanatory note

The group referred to as **immigrants** corresponds to replies of the type 'both parents and the 15-year-old pupil born abroad' or 'both parents born abroad and the 15-year-old pupil born in the country concerned'. The group referred to as **natives** corresponds to replies of the type 'one parent born abroad' and 'both parents born in the country concerned', irrespective of the pupil's place of birth.

The rate of foreign mother tongue pupils has been calculated by dividing the number of 15-year-old pupils who at home speak a language other than the language of instruction, which is not another national language, official or otherwise, by the total number of pupils aged 15.

The proportion of pupils in the total school population, whose first language is not the language of instruction, is very high in Luxembourg and Liechtenstein in which they represent around one-fifth of all pupils. In Denmark, Germany, Austria and Sweden, the proportion of pupils in the same linguistic category varies between 6 % and 8 %.

In the majority of countries, the proportion of pupils whose first language is not the language of instruction is less than the proportion whose parents were born abroad. Thus the French Community of Belgium and France enrol a proportion of pupils whose native language is not their school language, which is much lower than the proportion of pupils whose parents were born abroad, because of the scale of immigration from French-speaking Africa to both countries. Ireland and the United Kingdom (England and Northern Ireland) for their part both gain from the status of English as an international language. England is also home to a substantial number of immigrants from the former English-speaking colonies. In Luxembourg also there is a considerable disparity between the proportion of pupils whose first language is not the language of instruction and the proportion of those whose parents were born abroad because two of its official languages are identical to those of the three countries bordering it.

In three countries (Hungary, Iceland and Bulgaria), the proportion of pupils whose first language is not the one used at school is greater than the proportion of those whose parents were born abroad. This apparently atypical situation may be attributed to the size of indigenous linguistic communities whose native language is not an official national language.

*

* *

The statistical data contained in this chapter have provided a broad illustration of major characteristics of foreign populations in the European Union. More specifically, they indicate how the situation varies enormously from one country to the next in terms of immigration. In some countries, the foreign population corresponds to a very small proportion of the total population so they are less concerned by the need to develop school-based measures for young immigrants. Conversely, in some countries the proportion of 15-year-old pupils who were born abroad is higher. This situation may go hand in hand with large numbers of these pupils in some schools and a high proportion of pupils who at home speak a language other than the language of instruction.

As emphasised at the outset, fully consistent statistical data that provide the grounds for a wholly reliable comparison are rarely available. Definitions of the target population vary from one survey to the next and do not always correspond to the definitions used at national level. Furthermore, it is not possible to use this statistical material either to evaluate the difficulties that immigrants may experience in integrating at school, or to measure the proportion of those for whom support measures may be available. The second part of this survey will attempt to give a comparative account of national definitions of immigrant children and the measures introduced in different education systems throughout Europe, in order to further the school integration of children of immigrant origin and to develop an intercultural approach to school activities.

CHAPTER 3

RIGHTS TO EDUCATION AND TO SUPPORT MEASURES

This survey takes as its starting point children who experience schooling in a country other than the country of their, or their parents' or grandparents', origin. This frame of reference therefore encompasses a number of legally distinct situations, including refugees, as defined by the 1951 United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and persons seeking asylum in terms of that Convention as defined by national laws. Children of migrant workers may benefit from the provisions of European legislation to the extent that they are nationals of EU member states (Council Directive 77/486/EEC) or children of third country nationals with long-term residence status (Council Directive 2003/109/EC). Other immigrant children who fall within the scope of this survey, namely, children of third country workers who are not long-term residents, irregularly resident children and children of immigrant origin do not necessarily benefit from specific legal provisions with respect to education.

This chapter looks firstly at the extent of rights and obligations to attend school and to benefit from support measures and secondly, at the right to benefit from school services and financial assistance offered by the school system. It shows that although the right to receive education may to some extent depend on the legal status of the child, special measures designed for immigrant children are not usually status-based. In almost all countries, the right to support measures is based on the need to ensure that the immigrant child is proficient in the language of instruction. The types of support measures available will be described in greater detail in Chapter 4.

3.1. The Right and the Obligation to Receive Free Education

Most countries extend the right to education to all children of compulsory school age irrespective of their immigration status. This right takes expression in a number of international legal instruments, including the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 26) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (Article 28). As a general rule, all children in compulsory schooling are given equal access to school services and have the same rights to financial assistance (see 3.2).

Children whose residence status is irregular

Belgium, the Czech Republic, Greece, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria and Portugal explicitly permit school enrolment for the children of irregular immigrants ⁽¹⁾.

The right to education can also be considered to be implicit where there is no impediment to the enrolment of children who do not have legal residence status in the country. This is the case in Germany, Estonia, Spain, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, Malta, Slovenia, Finland, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria and Romania. In these countries, either no link is established with the need to hold a specific type of residence status in order to be admitted to school, or no mention is made at all of categories of children who have a right and an obligation to attend school.

⁽¹⁾ Belgium: reference to the Constitution, article 24 paragraph 3, Czech Republic: Regulation No. 21 836/2000-11, Greece: Article 40 of L. 2910/2001, France: Ordonnance n° 2000- 549, article L.131 – 1, Ireland: Education Act 1998, Italy: 1995, legislation not specified, Luxembourg: July 2003 regulation, Netherlands: reference contained in the Constitution, Austria: reference to the Constitution and to the *Schulpflichtgesetz*, Portugal: Constitution of the Portuguese Republic.

By contrast, in some countries there is no obligation for schools to enroll children who are irregularly resident. This is the case in Denmark, Lithuania, Poland, Sweden and Iceland. These countries require proof of residence status prior to admitting children into the school system. In Poland, for example, children must be registered as an inhabitant of the municipality, while in Iceland, children must have their legal domicile in the country.

Schooling and length of residence

In some countries, the principal approach is to define the right, together with its corollary, the obligation, to attend school in terms of length of residence in the country. This is the case in all of the Nordic countries (although in Denmark the length of residence requirement only applies to asylum seekers), as well as in Hungary (one year residence permit) and in Austria (six months).

In **Sweden**, children who have applied for a residence permit or who hold a permit for a limited period have a right to education but are under no obligation to attend school. This is the only example of a country where the right to schooling is disassociated from the obligation.

Legal residence status may take a number of forms. Permanent residence permit, temporary residence permit, legal domicile, persons who have been granted asylum or who have submitted an application for asylum are all cited as distinct categories. Several countries have also adopted different categories of asylum as a response to recent conflict or upheaval in bordering regions.

This association between length of residence and education does not at a first view appear to take account of persons residing irregularly. By definition the length of stay of these persons is undocumented. However, it is apparent that a number of countries take a flexible approach in this area.

The situation in **Norway** is that all children have a right to attend primary and lower secondary school if it is expected that they will remain in the country for more than three months. There is an obligation to attend school once the period of residence has exceeded three months.

Asylum seeker children

Asylum seekers are in a provisional situation pending the handling by the appropriate authorities of their application for refugee status. These applications are individually determined subject to national rules. The length of time taken to process applications, as well as the rights and obligations of asylum seekers during this time therefore vary between countries.

Demographic data show that some countries accept a very high number of asylum applications, whether in absolute terms or in proportion to total population (see Chapter 2, Figures 2.3 and 2.4). The number of children falling into this category will by definition be greater than the number of refugee children, sometimes very significantly so. Some of these children are unaccompanied minors, that is, children 'who are separated from both parents and for whose care no person can be found who by law or custom has primary responsibility.' Very little mention is made in the national contributions of specific guarantees or rights to educational support measures for unaccompanied minors. There is specific provision for these children in Ireland, by means of the Separated Children Education Service, set up in 2003.

The Czech Republic is the only country to have adopted specific legislation on the education of asylum seeker children (the 2002 Methodological Directive on School Attendance by Asylum Seekers). In Denmark, the right to education for asylum seeker children is conditional on their staying in the country for more than six months. If their application is processed in less than this time, arrangements for their education tend to be of a more flexible nature.

Rights for children younger than compulsory school age

A few countries encourage the access to education for immigrant children who are not yet of compulsory school age. Spain and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland) take the clearest stance in this respect. In these countries, there is a legal obligation to provide sufficient places in pre-primary education for non-Spanish residents and 'eligible' children (all 3 and 4 year olds resident in the area in Scotland and all 4 year olds in England and Wales) respectively. In Belgium, France, Finland and Sweden, foreign children may not be discriminated against with respect to admission to nursery schools, while in Lithuania, immigrant children may attend nurseries or, on request, pre-primary preparatory groups.

In Denmark and Sweden, pre-school children who do not have Danish or Swedish respectively as their mother tongue are given support with a view to learning those languages before starting school.

Eligibility for support measures

Support measures are almost always offered on a 'needs' basis to all immigrant children who have a right to schooling, irrespective of their particular immigration or residence status. Most countries do not make a distinction between rights for different categories of immigrant children. Belgium, France and Luxembourg apply specific measures for so-called 'new arrivals', broadly speaking, children who have recently entered the school system and who have no or very limited knowledge of the language of instruction. This focus on providing language support is also found in a number of other countries.

Three countries (the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia) reserve their specific support measures for asylum seeker and refugee children.

The approach adopted in the **United Kingdom** does not take account of rights of residence or immigration status at all. All children of compulsory school age have a right to receive education. Additional support is offered on the basis of need, which may be assessed in relation to ethnic and socio-economic background.

Other countries also design measures aimed to achieve equality of educational opportunity and target vulnerable groups, defined on the basis of socio-economic indicators, rather than immigrants per se (see Chapter 4, section 4.4.1).

3.2. Access to School Services and Financial Assistance

Immigrant pupils throughout Europe have access to school services on the same basis as other pupils. This rule applies to all pupils who have a right to compulsory schooling. 'School services' encompasses the use of school facilities such as canteens, school equipment and materials, extracurricular activities, health services and so on. It also includes transport to and from school. Some countries (such as Finland and Sweden) provide these services free of charge to all pupils.

Other countries (such as Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Portugal) offer children from low-income families, including immigrant families, means-tested assistance with meeting the costs of using these services. Special grants are available in France and Luxembourg, and children from low-income families are exempt from some financial contributions to the provision of school services. In the Netherlands, there is some provision for low-income families, such as subsidies to cover school fees and other expenses. Immigrant families have the same right to apply for these as other families. Greece, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania and Iceland offer help to meet the cost of travelling to and from school. Lithuania and the United Kingdom provide free meals for children from low-income families, while

Ireland offers children from low-income families means-tested assistance in purchasing schoolbooks and equipment as well as school uniforms and shoes.

Immigrant children are eligible for financial assistance (exemption from registration fees, study grants, etc.) on the same basis as other pupils. The decisive factor here appears to be their right to attend school rather than their nationality or their residence status.

However, immigrant children are rarely given more favourable treatment with respect to free or reduced-cost access to school services, nor do they receive specific financial assistance by virtue of their immigrant status. Where special treatment is the rule, this tends to be reserved for asylum-seeker children. This is, of course, in keeping with the nature of the asylum-seeking process. Applications for asylum are subject to a high degree of administrative intervention, and depending on the country concerned, asylum seekers may be required to stay in special reception centres while their application is being dealt with.

In the Czech Republic, transport to school is directly organised or the cost of transport refunded by the administration for asylum seekers who stay in reception centres provided the school is not within walking distance from the centre. The refugee facilities administration (an organisation established by the Ministry of the Interior) supplies asylum seeker children of compulsory school age with the teaching aids they need if these are not provided by the Ministry of Education. Also in this country, basic schools with asylum seeker children can request funding for after-school clubs to help these children integrate into the school system. In Hungary, a special allowance is given to the school maintainers for all children at compulsory school age having obtained or applied for refugee status. The allowance covers purchase of school textbooks, travel expenses and canteens. Norway also provides funding for children in asylum reception centres to cover all expenses in relation to children's education, to make it possible for them to attend mainstream schools as soon as possible. The funding is given to municipalities and is meant to cover some of their costs.

Cyprus is an example of a country where immigrant children more generally benefit from special treatment with respect to school meals. In this country, children whose mother tongue is not Greek are encouraged to stay on at school in the afternoon for remedial classes and homework supervision. They are offered a free lunch if they do so. In **Iceland**, immigrant pupils who must travel to school by bus receive bus tickets at school.

Funding for school services is allocated either to the school or education authority (as in Hungary and Norway) or to the families or guardians of the eligible children.

CHAPTER 4

MEASURES FOR THE INTEGRATION OF IMMIGRANT CHILDREN AT SCHOOL

4.1. Orientation Measures

Schools frequently take steps to assist immigrant pupils and parents with enrolment, settling in and accessing information about future choices within the school system. These measures extend from help with administrative formalities to supporting the psychosocial welfare of the child in her/his new environment. They will often focus on improving the quality of information between home and school, particularly by facilitating the use of languages other than that normally used in the school. In broad terms, schools adopt one or more of the five types of measures shown in Figure 4.1.

This figure does not attempt to show the extent to which there is an obligation to make support available nor the way in which funding is made available for these measures. It is based on the information reported in the national contributions. More informal examples are, however, shown only when they represent common practice in the countries concerned. The level of decentralisation of school systems has, of course, an influence on the type of approach adopted. Measures relate to all immigrant children, irrespective of their status, except where otherwise stated

Figure 4.1: Principle types of information and orientation measures for immigrants in schools, pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK ENG/ WLS/NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO
A			●		●	●		●		●	●		(:)	●		●	●		●	●		●			●		●		●	(:)	●		
B	●	●			●					●	●	●	(:)												●	●	●		●	(:)			
C	●	●	●	●			●		●		●	●	(:)			●			●			●		●	●		●	●		(:)			●
D								●	●	●			(:)		●	●									●	●				(:)			
E			●						●				(:)						●						●	●	●			(:)			
A	Written information about the school system																																
B	Provision of interpreters																																
C	Special resource persons/councils																																
D	Additional meetings specifically for immigrant families																																
E	Information about pre-primary education																																
●	Existence of orientation measures																																
■	No orientation measures for immigrant children																																

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Spain: Measures are put in place by the Autonomous Communities and are therefore specific to each Community.

Czech Republic and **Slovakia:** Relates to asylum seeker children only (measures supported by the Ministry of Education).

Written information about the school system

Several countries publish information in foreign languages with a view to explaining the school system. Most countries producing this type of information do so at the level of the ministry of education.

In **Ireland**, information is prepared by a specialist agency (the Reception and Integration Agency) in the nine main languages of the asylum population and is made available in three versions, for the parents of asylum seekers, unaccompanied minors, and parents of other non-national children. In **Luxembourg**, the *Centres de Psychologie et d'Orientation Scolaire* at secondary level publish information in Portuguese aimed at children finishing primary school. The Federal Ministry of Education in **Austria** publishes, updates and distributes a series of leaflets covering topics such as school enrolment, language learning and educational opportunities for immigrants. Regional school boards and advice centres also issue their own information leaflets and translate various school forms. The Office of the High Commissioner for Immigration and Ethnic Minorities in **Portugal** (ACIME) publishes regularly updated leaflets of general interest, which are also available on the ACIME website in English and Russian⁽¹⁾. **Latvia** also provides information in those languages. In **Finland**, municipalities (as education providers) publish information on their websites and in separate brochures (for instance, Helsinki has such brochures in English, Russian, Estonian and Somali).

This type of measure is generally very recent (brochures describing the rights and obligations of children and parents with respect to pre-primary and primary education have been available since 2003 in the Flemish Community of Belgium, while in Norway a similar initiative is to be launched in autumn 2004). Hungary and Estonia have both also just launched a multilingual portal on the Internet providing information on educational opportunities for immigrant children and their families⁽²⁾.

Figure 2.5 in Chapter 2 shows that, of the countries publishing multilingual information, Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, Austria, the United Kingdom (England) and, to a lesser extent, the Netherlands and France, are countries with a high number of foreign nationals aged under 15 (it should also, of course, be remembered that in France, many children are French nationals due to the nationality laws of this country). Ireland and Norway, on the other hand, are both countries that have experienced a recent upsurge in immigration, which may help to explain the move to publish information for immigrant families.

Provision of interpreters

This measure covers a variety of situations in which school/home communication takes place, including (but not restricted to) regular parent-teacher meetings. Although a number of countries report having recourse to interpreters in a school setting, Finland and Sweden are the only countries in which immigrant parents have a statutory right to an interpreter.

In **Sweden**, interpretation must be provided if necessary at special introductory meetings held with newly arrived families in order to explain their rights with regard to pre-school and school education, as well as to explain the basic values underpinning the national curriculum. They are also entitled to interpretation in order to follow the twice-yearly 'personal development dialogue' held with all parents. In **Finland**, immigrants have a statutory right only in issues initiated by the authorities. However, the provision of interpretation services is encouraged by national authorities and also in practice available according to the resources of the municipality. There is a specific subsidy provided by the Ministry of

⁽¹⁾ www.acime.gov.pt

⁽²⁾ For Hungary, this can be visited at www.migrans.edu.hu and for Estonia, at <http://www.hm.ee/uus/hm/client/index.php?135262301339141555>

Employment to promote the use of interpreters in municipalities and they can be compensated for the interpretation costs in home-school cooperation.

In other countries, there is no compulsion to provide interpreters although this is often strongly encouraged. In France, teams of educators are expected to develop a dialogue with immigrant families so that they are aware of how the system works and of their right to take part in school councils and other activities. The use of interpreters to supply this information is advocated. Similarly, in the United Kingdom (England), schools are advised to provide translations of essential information and to use interpreters and bilingual classroom assistants for school admission interviews, assessments, and parent-teacher meetings. In other countries, such as Denmark, the decision to use interpreters is entirely informal, taking place on a case-by-case basis depending on the individual teacher's judgement.

Availability of additional resource persons/councils

Schools in countries such as Ireland, the Netherlands, Finland, and the United Kingdom have considerable autonomy with respect to how they meet the needs of immigrant children. They employ a range of strategies at their discretion and on their initiative including employing counsellors and/or home-school liaison officers. They sometimes also provide a referral service for parents. Luxembourg and Italy also use what are termed 'intercultural mediators' in their schools. The role of these mediators is flexible, but they tend to be involved particularly in helping pupils and parents with language issues. Specially trained socio-cultural mediators are also an option in Portugal in order to develop links between home, school and the community more generally.

In the Czech Republic, Estonia, Slovakia and Romania, where asylum seekers are accommodated in residence centres, social workers and workers attached to these centres cooperate with schools of the catchment area to help resolve all matters concerning the schools' relations with parents, including information about the child's progress, information on further education opportunities, and so on (in Romania, this role is taken on by non-governmental organisations). In Ireland, the Separated Children Education Service performs a similar function for unaccompanied minors in the Greater Dublin area.

Luxembourg, with its exceptionally high numbers of immigrants (see Chapter 2 on demographic trends), has set up a rather unusual structure for immigrants at the local government level. Municipalities with a foreign population of more than 20 % are required to have *commissions consultatives pour étrangers* (consultative councils for foreigners). One of the principal tasks of these councils is to address schooling issues for foreign pupils in the municipality. A structure for so-called 'new arrivals' (*primo arrivants, nieuwkomers, neuankommende Schüler*) has also been set up in Belgium, known as the 'council for integration'.

Meetings specifically for immigrant families

In Luxembourg the ministry of education organises a meeting every year especially for parents of foreign language children in order to explain the different choices open to pupils moving from primary to secondary education. This meeting is held in French.

In other countries, such as Spain (some of the Autonomous Communities), Finland and Sweden, special introductory information sessions are held by schools for immigrant parents to explain the education system and to discuss matters of mutual concern. In Finland and Sweden, these meetings are organised with interpretation.

Information about pre-primary activities

Structured information about schooling will also sometimes cover younger children with respect to pre-primary provision (in Finland and Sweden, for example). Several of the Spanish Autonomous Communities also focus on schooling awareness in pre-primary education. In the Netherlands, a campaign by the Multicultural Development Forum aims to encourage immigrant parents to have their children participate in pre-primary provision and register them as early as possible in primary school.

4.2. Determining the Appropriate Level of Schooling

The question arises of how to establish what schooling the immigrant child has already had and to what extent this is equivalent to the school system the child is about to enter. When a child enters a new school system, there is a need to assess what the s/he already knows in the main curricular areas as well to evaluate her/his existing level of ability in the language of instruction. This has a close bearing on the way in which the child is integrated into the school system according to the type(s) of model offered by that system (see below, sections 4.3 and 4.4).

Figure 4.2 shows that two approaches are possible. The first approach relies on case-by-case assessments generally carried out by the school head or teaching staff. Schools are free to determine the level of a pupil in their own way. There is thus no requirement to refer to externally developed assessment tools. This approach is the one generally found in European countries in compulsory education.

Many of the countries adopting this approach use the age of the child concerned as the primary criteria in placing her/him at school.

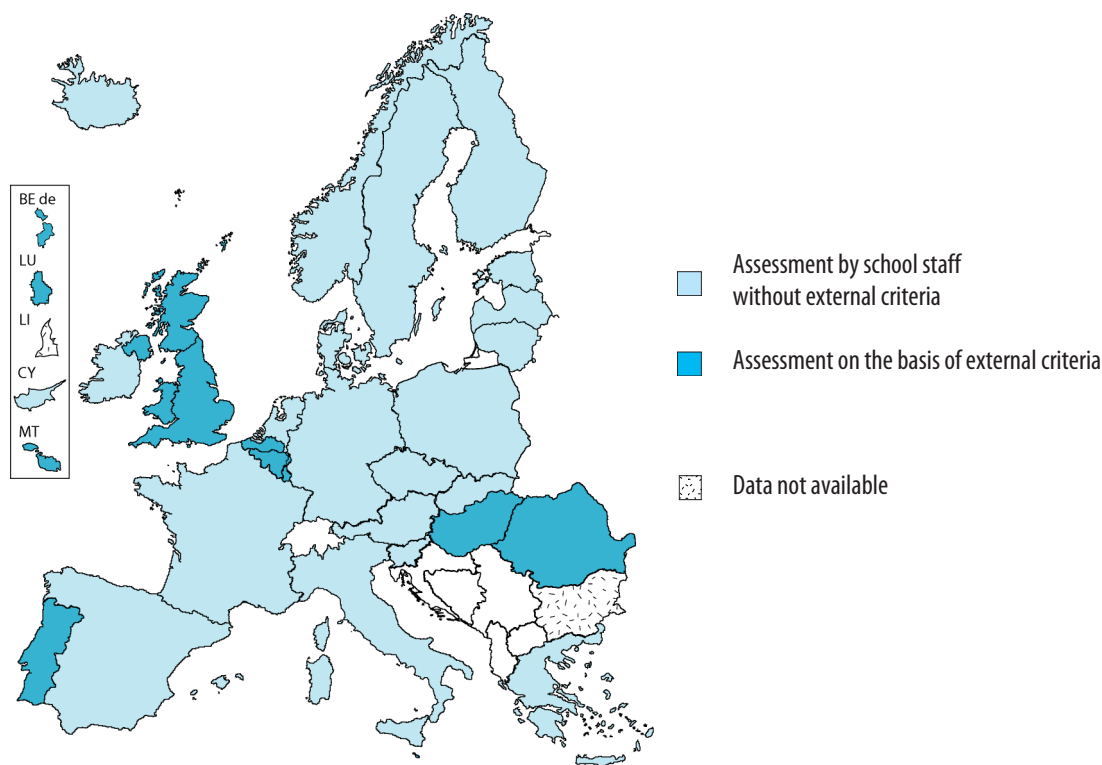
In **France**, for example, the evaluation is carried out at school and in the pupil's previous language of instruction if possible. The pupil should not however be placed in a class more than two years below that of her/his age.

The second approach relies on the use of criteria which are uniformly applied across the school system to determine the level at which immigrant children entering that system should be placed. These criteria are often of a formal nature, including the requirement that equivalencies be established on the basis of certificates of previous school attendance. They can take the form of tests developed or monitored by the Ministry of Education, or of a formal application to a central authority for the purpose of enrolling in secondary schools.

In **Belgium**, for example, the same procedure applies in both primary and secondary education. Pupils who hold a foreign certificate or diploma can apply for equal recognition. This is followed by an administrative investigation into the file, which must contain proof of studies and sworn translations of documents. Asylum seekers and refugees may make a solemn declaration if they are unable to provide the necessary documentation.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, assessments of this nature may be carried out against the common assessment scale developed for the purposes of the National Curriculum levels of attainment. Pupils may be assessed either by school staff or by Local Education Staff.

Figure 4.2: Types of assessment of prior educational attainment, full-time compulsory education, 2003/04



Source: Eurydice.

4.3. Patterns of Integration

With the common aim of achieving integration rapidly, European countries have found several ways of organising life at school for immigrant children resident on their territory. As pointed out in the preceding section, among the first criteria considered when allocating immigrant children to mainstream classes is that of language: are those children capable of following lessons in the language of instruction used at their school? If the answer is no, then most education systems consider that they require special assistance to meet their needs.

Where measures to support immigrant children have been introduced, they correspond to two main models as follows:

- an **integrated model** in which immigrant children are allocated to classes consisting of children of the same age (or younger depending on circumstances) in mainstream education. Here they follow methods and the curricular content intended for native pupils. **Measures for support** (essentially linguistic in nature) are implemented on an **individual basis** for each pupil during normal school hours.

Extracurricular tuition in addition to mainstream provision may also exist. Where this is the case, immigrant pupils are given lessons outside normal school hours but always on school premises. The host country education authorities are responsible for such tuition.

- a **separate model** which may assume two forms:
- **transitional arrangements:** immigrant children are grouped together separately from other children (in their school) for a limited period so that they can receive special attention geared to their needs. However, they may attend some lessons in the corresponding mainstream classes with all other pupils;
 - **long-term measures:** special classes are formed within the school for one or several school years, and often group immigrant children together in accordance with their competence in the language of instruction (basic, intermediate or advanced tuition). Course content and teaching methods are geared to their needs.

Figure 4.3 offers a general picture of these different arrangements for integrating immigrant children of compulsory school age within host education systems. In general, the two main models for the provision of assistance to immigrant children are not mutually exclusive. They often exist in combination within a given country. Nevertheless, a small group of countries provide solely for direct integration within mainstream classes with additional support for pupils where appropriate, as occurs in Ireland, Italy and the United Kingdom (Scotland), or alternatively solely for separate support as in Germany and Romania.

Figure 4.3: Arrangements for assisting immigrant children in host country education systems, pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04

																												UK									
		BEfr	BEde	BEnl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	ENG/ WLS/NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO			
A	A1	●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●			●	●			●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	(:)	●					
	A2		●			●						●									●		●					●		●	(:)						
B	B1	●	●	●	●		●			●	●					●	●			●		●		●	●	●	●				(:)	●		●			
	B2				●		●	●	●															●							(:)						
C						●		●	●					●		●					●	●	●				●	●		●	(:)						
A	Integrated model		A1 Direct integration with support provided within the mainstream classroom																																		
			A2 Direct integration with support provided in withdrawal from the mainstream classroom																																		
B	Separate model		B1 Transitional support																																		
			B2 Long-term support (a year or more)																																		
C		Extracurricular support: Support provided outside official school hours																																			
● Existence of support measures for immigrant children																																					
■ No support measures for immigrant children																																					

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE fr and BE nl): Under action schemes or programmes that give all pupils equal opportunities for their social well-being, schools may receive additional human or material resources. Where this occurs, measures corresponding both to the integrated model (with additional teaching support for individual pupils) and the separate model (provision of classes to help pupils who do not speak the language of instruction) may be provided.

Belgium (BE de): So that immigrant pupils in a transitional class can be properly prepared for integration, it may be decided that, for part of the timetable, some of them attend mainstream classes with pupils of their age.

Czech Republic: Schools are not obliged to offer assistance with learning the Czech language to immigrant pupils in mainstream classes who are not the children of asylum-seekers, but this occurs in practice. The separate model applies only to the children of asylum seekers.

Estonia: These measures relate mainly to immigrant children of Russian mother tongue who are enrolled in schools or classes in which the language of instruction is Russian (for at least 60 % of the curriculum). In such cases, the children concerned have to learn Estonian from the first year of school onwards.

Ireland: A small number of schools with large proportions (over 20 %) of non-national pupils choose to run 'initiation/immersion' classes in which children spend most of their time joining their mainstream peers for the least language-dependent subjects, in the weeks immediately following enrolment. As their English language skills improve, they are integrated into mainstream classes for all subjects and continue to receive language support on a withdrawal basis for up to two years.

Latvia: There are no specific school-based support measures for immigrant children in mainstream schools. Nevertheless, children from Russian, Polish, Ukrainian, Hebrew, Lithuanian, Estonian, Romany and Belorussian language minorities can receive education in those eight languages alongside Latvian.

Austria: Pupils may receive this special support following temporary withdrawal from their regular class, or from a support teacher working alongside the class or subject teacher. Only in rare cases, which need the consent of the Federal Ministry, is it possible to set up special classes for pupils who are newcomers to Austria.

Poland: Implementation of the measures described in the Figure is under way (legislation came into force in May 2004).

United Kingdom: The Nationality, Immigration and Asylum Act 2002 enables the Government to set up accommodation centres for some destitute asylum seekers and their families while their claims are being processed. The intention is that education will be provided in these centres.

Norway: With effect from June 2004, pupils in primary and lower secondary education whose mother tongue is not Norwegian are entitled to separate education in Norwegian until they are sufficiently proficient in the language to follow mainstream teaching in it at the school concerned. In appropriate cases, the same pupils are also entitled to mother tongue education, content and language integrated learning, or both these forms of provision.

In the **integrated model**, the education authorities give priority to integrating immigrant children immediately in their corresponding mainstream class for normal provision with other pupils of their age. However, the decision to allocate pupils to the class below the one meant for children of their age may also be taken, subject to an initial assessment of their language proficiency (in the language of instruction) or their general performance at school (see section 4.2), or both. Within this context, measures for individual – or less frequently collective – support (involving withdrawal of these pupils from mainstream lessons devoted to the language of instruction) may be planned during normal school hours. In general, the immigrant pupils concerned receive special assistance to help them overcome their language-related problems and, to a lesser extent, their more general difficulties (weaknesses in other areas of the curriculum).

Figure 4.3 also shows that in many cases the integrated model exists side by side with the **separate 'transitional' model**. In the latter, 'reception' or 'transitional' classes or groups are formed regularly for the benefit of immigrant pupils who are newcomers to the country, for a period that varies but is generally no longer than the first school year spent in the host establishment. These classes aim to offer assistance to the children concerned which is focused on their special needs (and particularly their linguistic needs) and to facilitate their gradual integration into the host education system.

The organisation of **separate groups or classes for longer than a year** is much less widespread. Several criteria (the proportion of immigrant pupils, concerns related to teaching, asylum seeker status, etc.) may be considered when setting up such groups or classes. For example, if the proportion of immigrant pupils in a mainstream class in Germany is over 20 %, special classes may be formed solely for the children concerned. This provision may be at different levels (basic, advanced or for support) depending on the

level of proficiency in German of the pupils involved. In Greece, special learning groups may be formed for a maximum period of two years. Immigrant pupils in them are taught separately but may join their native peers during lessons in music, sports, artistic subjects and foreign languages, in which any lack of proficiency in Greek does not significantly hinder understanding of their content. In Slovenia, children who are asylum seekers are taught in their accommodation centres. In the Czech Republic, mainstream schools provide Czech-language tuition for the children of asylum seekers either within separate classes, or in residential asylum facilities on the basis of an agreement with their staff.

In around a third of all countries, additional lessons are also offered to immigrant pupils **outside the official school timetable**. This extracurricular provision often occurs in the afternoon, during the summer or, in any event, whenever school premises are unoccupied and may be more easily used for this purpose.

Austria constitutes a special case in that immigrant children with insufficient knowledge of German are enrolled as pupils who, for up to two years, do not have to take examinations, which enables them to attend lessons with their native peers without being subject to assessment. During this period, they may move on to the next class at the end of the year.

4.4. School-based Support Measures

Types of support

Within these two main models, European education systems offer immigrant children an exceptionally wide range of measures that fall into three categories:

- measures for support intended to compensate for the **language needs** of immigrant pupils whose mother tongue is not the language of instruction. In general, such measures correspond to tuition based on 'linguistic immersion' in which pupils are exposed directly to the target language and receive intensive tuition, individually or in small groups (special linguistic support) during normal school hours. 'Bilingual' tuition offered partly in the language of instruction and partly in the native language of pupils is also possible;
- measures for support aimed at addressing the **learning needs of immigrant pupils in certain areas of the curriculum** at the level of education at which they are enrolled. Under these circumstances, the content and teaching methods of the mainstream curriculum may be specially modified; curriculum support may be organised and immigrant pupils may sometimes not be assessed in the same way as other pupils;
- **classes may be reduced in size** in the interests of a more favourable pupil/teacher ratio.

These main forms of provision are often combined in integrated or separate models. Figure 4.4 does not therefore reflect this distinction. Linguistic forms of support are by far the most extensive in European countries, regardless of the model under which they are implemented. In certain countries (Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, Luxembourg, Iceland and Norway), solely this kind of support is on offer. More general educational support is provided to a lesser extent.

All countries that offer support begin by **teaching the host country language of instruction**. In this respect, it should be emphasised that a large proportion of the immigrant population are from countries in which the languages spoken are not the same as the one or more languages of instruction in their host country. The probability that classes at schools in Europe will contain immigrant pupils to whom this applies is thus fairly high, except in a few host countries such as Belgium (the French Community),

Estonia, Spain, France, Latvia or Portugal, in all of which a major proportion of immigrant citizens speak the language of instruction (or, if there is more than one, at least one of them).

Generally speaking, linguistic tuition is based on a teaching approach to this language as a 'second or additional language' (i.e. not the mother tongue of the pupils concerned). Meanwhile, in a few Nordic countries (Finland, Sweden and Norway), as well as Estonia, Cyprus and Latvia, it is also possible to offer bilingual tuition in which teachers use both the mother tongue of immigrant pupils and their school language of instruction.

As regards the amount of time earmarked for teaching immigrant pupils the host country language of instruction, major differences may be observed between countries, ranging from 2 to 14 hours (or class periods) a week.

The integration of children in pre-primary education is not often the subject of priority measures on the part of the authorities concerned. However, quite recently a few countries have started **programmes to introduce very young children to the language of instruction** before they begin compulsory education. In Germany, these programmes are intended for children who were born in the country or who came to it when they were very young indeed. Belgium (the Flemish community), Lithuania, Luxembourg and Norway also provide reception classes for these children to prepare them for their transition to primary school (especially in terms of language). The Czech Republic, Finland and Sweden (in some municipalities) run special groups for immigrant children at pre-primary level to introduce them to the language of instruction so that they will be ready for their transfer to compulsory education. In the United Kingdom (England and Scotland), pre-school staff are advised to give particular attention to addressing the needs of children for whom English is an additional language.

Even if there is considerable emphasis on the need to acquire rudiments of the language of instruction rapidly, other support measures are also implemented for the benefit of immigrant children.

Among **measures to help them with certain areas of the curriculum, additional support for learning** is the most widespread form of arrangement. Pupils are taught individually or in groups, generally during the part of the school timetable set aside for learning basic subjects such as reading, writing or mathematics. Often countries that organise curriculum support activities at school may also modify the content of what is learnt or alter their assessment methods to take the special requirements of immigrant pupils into account. This applies to the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Slovenia, Finland and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). Furthermore in Finland, the certificate awarded on completion of compulsory education refers specifically to the mother tongue of immigrants, provided that at least half of their instruction was given in that language, as well as in Finnish or Swedish.

Reducing the number of pupils in each class is another measure adopted in some countries. It is often recommended that separate classes or groups should contain 15 pupils at most. Mixed group classes in mainstream education may be required to include no more than a limited number of pupils of immigrant origin (as in the Czech Republic, Germany and Italy).

Figure 4.4: Types of support offered to immigrant children in pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium, Netherlands, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway: Because of decentralisation, the measures for support described here represent no more than possible examples of what local education authorities or schools might do depending on the resources at their disposal.

Czech Republic: The Figure relates solely to special support offered to the children of asylum seekers.

Germany: Some *Länder* offer bilingual tuition (in the mother tongue/language of instruction) in a limited number of primary schools.

Latvia: In schools that implement the educational programme for minorities, a bilingual approach is used (part of the content is taught in the minority language concerned and the remainder in Latvian).

Lithuania: As yet, curriculum support is only a theoretical possibility referred to in the General Education Plans for Schools of General Education approved by the Minister of Education and Science.

Portugal: In order to develop support for teaching Portuguese to immigrant children who do not speak it, the Ministry of Education department for *Ensino Básico* undertook a survey of pupils in compulsory education in 2001/02, and in particular those whose mother tongue was not Portuguese.

United Kingdom: Category A2 in the figure relates only to curriculum guidance in England.

The majority of these measures are devised for **children who have recently arrived** in the host country. Temporary support measures are mainly intended to overcome initial problems which hinder rapid integration of these children at school. Even in the separate model involving long-term measures, special classes for immigrant children last no longer than two years.

School dropout and **absenteeism** among immigrant pupils are also a serious concern for those responsible for education. Because the family and socio-economic circumstances of immigrant pupils may often be somewhat unsettled, they are the focus of special attention as a potentially vulnerable group. Accordingly, countries such as Belgium (the French and Flemish Communities), Spain and the Netherlands have introduced programmes designed to prevent and fight school failure among these children.

Financing

Financing of these measures falls largely within the broader framework of procedures for financing education as a whole. In general, the central education authorities determine how much additional funding will be earmarked for school-based measures to assist immigrant children. Subject to certain conditions, the central authorities may also award block grants for this purpose to regional or local authorities or schools themselves, whose room for manoeuvre in administering such allocations will vary depending on the extent to which the education system concerned is decentralised. It is not uncommon for local authorities or even schools to receive financial resources that they are entirely responsible for administering in this respect.

For example, this applies to **Belgium**, **Denmark**, the **Netherlands**, the **United Kingdom (England and Wales)**, **Iceland** and **Norway**, in which the amounts allocated may be earmarked for different support measures to match requirements. Thus in the **United Kingdom (England and Wales)**, the government provides local education authorities with two funding streams to finance a variety of activities on behalf of their ethnic minorities and children at risk, including immigrant children. Much of this funding must be devolved to schools.

Several countries require compliance with strict norms relating to the number of pupils of immigrant origin or the exact point in time at which they arrived in the host country, if schools are to receive additional funding.

For example in the **Czech Republic**, schools enrolling children who are asylum seekers obtain an additional financial allocation. Since 2003 in **Lithuania**, the coefficient used to determine the number of pupils has been increased by 10 % in the case of the children of migrant workers. Finally, in **Iceland**, at least 12 immigrant pupils have to have arrived in the country within the preceding year.

Legislative Framework

Key legislation concerned with support measures for immigrant children dates for the most part from 1998-99 and 2002-03. In Greece, for example, immigrant children in mainstream schools received no special assistance until 1999. Since then, the government has adopted special measures for the educational integration of these children, as well as for refugees or Greek nationals who have returned home after emigrating (a fairly common occurrence in Greece). In 2002 and 2003, several countries enacted legislation designed to encourage support measures for immigrant pupils. In Spain, the 2002 Law on the Quality of Education (LOCE) referred explicitly for the first time to the integration of immigrant children in the Spanish education system. In Lithuania, the education of immigrant children has been the subject of special attention in the June 2003 reform of the law on education.

Figure 4.5: Principal dates of current applicable legislation on support measures for immigrant children in pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04

1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
		SI SK	BE nl LU PT UK-NIR	IE LV NL FI UK-NIR	CZ EL IT LV IS SI UK-ENG UK-WLS	CZ IE LU PL UK	BE fr BE de PL PT RO	BE nl CZ ES FR UK-SCT CY SK	DE CY LT NL UK	HU MT NO RO

bold: Countries that have adopted more than one item of legislation in different years

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Netherlands: A new programme to improve the linguistic proficiency of immigrant children aged between 2 and 4 was introduced as a pilot project in 2002/03.

Hungary: Measures to assist the children of immigrant workers are being introduced with effect from September 2004.

Malta: Measures to assist the children of immigrant workers are being introduced with effect from May 2004.

Bulgaria: There are no support measures for immigrant children.

Explanatory note

Depending on the country concerned, this table relates to laws, decrees or orders providing for measures to assist immigrant children, or a general framework for the implementation of such measures by the appropriate authorities. See Figure 2.2 in annexe 2 for further details.

4.5. Staff Responsible for Implementing Support Measures

The various support measures are implemented by teachers responsible for the class with help from an auxiliary teacher or staff member (see Figure 2.3 in annexe 2). It is unusual for teachers of a particular class to hold additional qualifications enabling them to supervise or cater for immigrant pupils unassisted. In Germany, Greece, Slovenia and Slovakia, teachers are specially trained at the outset to tackle the linguistic and educational problems of pupils of immigrant origin. In these four countries, teachers work within organisational arrangements corresponding to the 'separate model' described above (groups in the *kindergarten* and special classes to encourage familiarity with the language of instruction in compulsory education in Germany, special learning groups in Greece, or centres for asylum seekers in Slovenia and Slovakia).

In general, **support teachers** are concerned with putting the different measures for assisting immigrant pupils into practice. Their training enables them to help with teaching the language of instruction, as well as basic subjects such as reading, writing and mathematics. Depending on the country concerned, this kind of teacher is employed to work both with pupils integrated into mainstream classes and those who have been allocated to separate classes or special groups. All possible forms of arrangement exist in practice.

Assistance may also mobilise other players who act as mediators between the culture of origin of immigrant pupils and the culture of the host country. Pupils in the case of Cyprus and teachers in Austria who are familiar with the mother tongue of immigrant pupils may provide support of this kind. Some schools in England have set up mentoring programmes; these programmes may provide peer mentoring, whereby an older pupil helps a younger pupil with academic and social concerns, mentoring by teachers, or mentoring by adults from the wider community, often from the same cultural and ethnic background as the pupil.

Training teachers to work with immigrants is a priority aspect of in-service training. Institutions of teacher education often offer a variety of courses on different aspects of the integration of immigrant children at school. By means of seminars, special modules or Master's level courses, teachers who work – or wish to work – with this category of pupils may acquire greater familiarity with languages or cultures of origin and learn how to manage mixed group classes, communicate better with parents, or teach pupils of differing ability, etc. Often, training of this kind involves courses on teaching the language of instruction as a 'second/additional language', as in Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Slovakia or Finland.

In general, teachers responsible for working with immigrant pupils receive no special remunerative or fringe benefits. However, a handful of countries are exceptions to this rule. In the Czech Republic, teachers with full tenure may be paid more if they work in schools attended by asylum seekers. In Cyprus, teachers with immigrant pupils in their classes are entitled to a reduction in their teaching or overall working time.

CHAPTER 5

SCHOOL-BASED RECOGNITION OF IMMIGRANT CULTURE

Support measures for immigrant pupils have been put in place in almost all European countries, generally on the basis of a twin strategy. First, the education systems of those countries support acquisition by the pupils concerned of at least one official host country language so that they can integrate more effectively into the host society and be educated more easily (see Chapter 4). Secondly, support may also be concerned with ensuring that the same pupils remain proficient in their mother tongue and responsive to their own cultural heritage so as to maintain firm contact with their culture of origin. Provision for this latter type of support will be dealt with in the present chapter, which will also consider how schools may adapt their daily activities in response to the cultural or religious practices of immigrant pupils.

5.1. Measures to Support the Language and Culture of Origin

Mother tongue support is often introduced on the grounds that this will improve the development and learning ability of children with a mother tongue different from the language of instruction, and also cement their sense of identity. Support measures enabling immigrant schoolchildren to be taught their mother tongue are in some cases developed as part of minority language programmes, put in place in some countries for specific minority language groups. The countries have adopted varying approaches for the provision and organisation of these measures. The precise implications of different approaches to mother tongue support have been the subject of much ongoing research⁽¹⁾. The same issue has also been the focus of recent political debate in several European countries that have decided to earmark significantly more resources for immigrant pupils to become fully proficient in the language of instruction, and less for teaching them their mother tongue. This applies to Denmark, the Netherlands and Norway.

However, as regards measures for teaching immigrant pupils their language of origin, many European countries do indeed offer many immigrants such provision. The nature of these measures varies widely from one country to the next. Often support of this kind is available to pupils in compulsory education irrespective of their precise immigrant status, but depending on which language is their mother tongue. Only in Lithuania is there a special arrangement of this kind for immigrants with refugee status, for whom locally provided teaching of the mother tongue may be funded at central level to promote their social integration. Sweden is the sole country in which all immigrant pupils undergoing compulsory education are formally entitled to mother tongue tuition if they wish. In other countries, its provision may be linked to practical considerations such as the presence in school of a minimum number of pupils set to benefit or the availability of qualified teachers. Furthermore the existence of a bilateral agreement between the host country and country of origin may be the basis on which some mother tongue tuition is provided.

In many cases, therefore, the provision of support depends on which country pupils or their families originally come from. This is so, for example, when support is available in accordance with Council Directive 77/486/EEC, which lays down that appropriate measures should be taken to ensure that

⁽¹⁾ See for example: Thomas, W.; Collier, P; Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. *A National Study of School Effectiveness for Language Minority Students' Long-Term Academic Achievement* http://www.crede.ucsc.edu/research/llaa/1.1_final.html 2002 and Cummins, J. *Language, Power, and Pedagogy. Bilingual children in the cross-fire*. England: Multilingual Matters

children of migrant workers from another (then EEC) Member State, who are subject to compulsory education, are taught their mother tongue and culture of origin (see Chapter 1). Another approach is the existence of support measures based on bilateral agreements between the host country and country of origin, as in Belgium (the French Community), Germany, France, Luxembourg, Portugal, Slovenia and Romania, in most of which large communities of immigrant workers have been present for a longer period of time. In such cases, the provision of resources for support measures may be a shared responsibility between the two countries concerned.

Elsewhere, the responsibility for organising and funding this type of measure lies either with local education providers – for example, the municipalities in Denmark, Finland and Sweden – or with regional authorities such as the Autonomous Communities in Spain. In Finland, the government allocates financial support to municipalities that provide for mother tongue support. In Estonia and Lithuania, the provision of any such teaching is a matter for the school. This is also the case in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), where community-run supplementary schools may also offer mother tongue teaching outside school hours.

In yet other countries this type of measure is provided by the central (or top-level) authorities (sometimes in cooperation with private actors). This applies to Belgium (the Flemish Community), Greece, Ireland, Italy, Hungary and Austria.

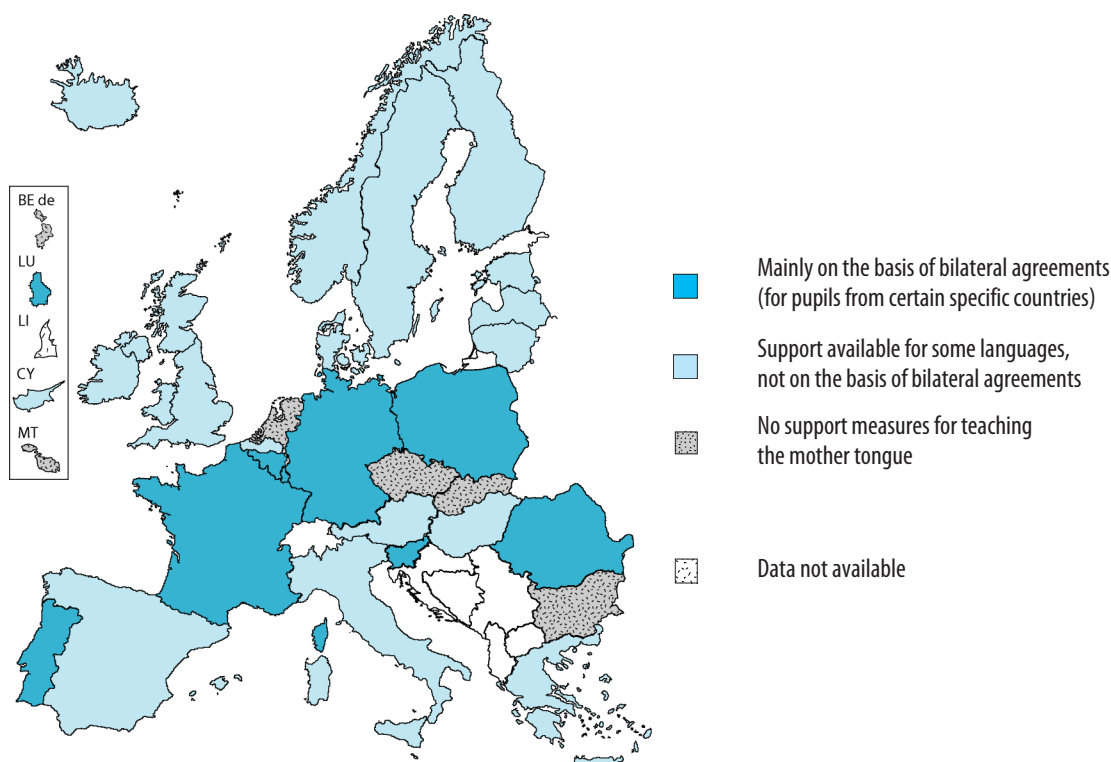
Teaching of the mother tongue is in most cases an extracurricular activity occupying a few hours a week. However, in France, Luxembourg, Austria, Finland, Sweden, and the United Kingdom (England and Wales), ‘mother tongue studies’ may be an optional subject in compulsory education.

Generally speaking, measures to support teaching of the mother tongue encompass not merely language tuition in its own right but instruction related to aspects of the culture or history of the country of origin.

Some European countries offer tuition in the language of instruction to the parents and families of immigrant pupils. However, in most cases this occurs as part of adult education programmes, or in the form of general support to immigrants under centrally devised programmes for the integration of adults irrespective of whether they are the parents of children at school. In Italy, Cyprus and Iceland however, there are examples of provision for native language tuition specifically for the immigrant parents of schoolchildren.

In **Italy**, Italian-language classes have been introduced for the families of immigrant pupils with support from the Ministry of Education and in cooperation with local organisations. In **Cyprus**, afternoon or evening conversation classes in Greek funded by the government are offered free to all parents of pupils of foreign mother tongue. Finally, in **Iceland**, Icelandic-language tuition for parents is provided at evening classes. Furthermore, in some local initiatives, parents are invited to contribute to their children’s progress with learning Icelandic at school by assisting them with the language at home.

Figure 5.1: Provision of support by host countries for teaching the mother tongue, 2003/04



Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Italy: The school board encourages agreements with foreign associations or representations, for the provision of activities to safeguard the mother tongue and culture of origin of immigrant pupils.

Latvia: One bilateral agreement exists with Poland. Children may be taught their mother tongue and aspects of their culture of origin within eight minority education programmes (Russian, Polish, Ukrainian, Jewish, Lithuanian, Estonian, Romany and Belorussian). Mother tongue tuition may also be provided in Sunday School, with state and municipal support.

Malta: Mother tongue support measures are currently being developed.

Netherlands: Some schools are allowed to implement measures.

Poland: Teaching of the mother tongue is organised in cooperation with consular units or cultural associations of the country of origin.

Iceland: Although municipalities are authorised to teach children their mother tongue when this is not Icelandic, such provision has not yet occurred in practice.

5.2. Adaptation of Daily School Life

In European countries, there are few central level regulations concerned with possible adaptations to the organisation of daily life at school in recognition of the cultural or religious convictions or requirements of immigrant children. Adjustment of this kind (for example, special concessions regarding religious holidays, educational activities, dress codes or school menus) most commonly occurs at the discretion of the school itself, or may be made by education providers, such as municipalities, in the event of broader local demand.

Some examples of formal adaptation with respect, first of all, to **religious holidays** not referred to in the school calendar or timetable are cited in the national contributions.

In **Belgium** (the **Flemish Community**), legislation provides for absence from school for the 'celebration of festivals constituting an inherent element of a pupil's philosophical beliefs if recognised by the Constitution'. Recognised religions or denominations are Anglicanism, Islam, Judaism, Catholicism, Orthodoxy and Protestantism.

In **Italy**, Jewish pupils may refrain from attending school on Saturday if it is a day in the school timetable. This arrangement has been established under an agreement between the Italian government and the *Unione della Comunità ebraiche* (Union of Italian Jewish Communities). However, there are no agreements of a similar kind with other religious communities.

In **Germany**, pupils may obtain permission from the school supervisory authorities not to attend classes on religious holidays. The situation is similar in **Sweden**, in which agreements on how many days of leave may be granted to pupils are reached at local level. In neither case is there any indication as to which religions qualify for this kind of leave. The situation is similar in **Latvia**, in which religious holidays are observed where necessary in state and municipal educational institutions. In **Norway**, pupils who belong to a religious community outside the Church of Norway, may on application be granted leave of absence from school on holidays for the community concerned.

There are a few similar examples of adjustment with respect to specific **educational activities**, for example the adaptation of group activities, such as sports and music.

In **Germany**, compulsory 'physical education and swimming instruction' is usually taught in groups including both sexes. However, schools must offer to teach boys and girls separately if immigrant parents so request. If this is not possible, an immigrant child may be exempt from the instruction concerned. Similarly, in **Sweden** compulsory 'physical education and health' is also usually taught in groups including both sexes, but schools can choose to teach boys and girls separately, particularly in the case of Muslims.

In **Finland** it is generally possible for pupils to be exempted from involvement in sports (e.g. swimming), music lessons, school festivities, etc.

The daily act of collective worship in schools in the **United Kingdom (England and Wales)** must normally be wholly or mainly of a broadly Christian character. Most schools should be able to include all pupils in their act of collective worship, but where, in view of the family background of some or all pupils, the school feels that a broadly Christian act of worship is not suitable, the head teacher may apply to the local Standing Advisory Council on Religious Education (SACRE) to have the Christian content requirement lifted. Parents also have a right to withdraw their children on an individual basis from the daily act of collective worship in their school.

How the matter of **dress codes** is handled depends, first, on whether schools require their pupils to wear uniform, or whether there are other official conventions relating to dress.

In **Ireland**, pupil or student dress codes are a matter for individual school managements and, generally, where a religious or cultural requirement is out of keeping with the school uniform a compromise is agreed between the family and the school. Such a compromise might include wearing a required garment under – or together with – the uniform.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland)** the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 places a specific duty on schools to assess the impact of their policies on minority ethnic pupils, staff and parents. School policies such as uniform/dress codes fall within these general requirements, and schools are expected to be sensitive to the needs of different cultures, races and religions. Schools are expected to accommodate these needs within a school uniform policy, for example by allowing Muslim girls to wear appropriate dress and Sikh boys to wear traditional headress.

In countries where schools less commonly lay down requirements regarding what pupils should wear, introducing policies in this area seems more far-reaching. Belgium (the French Community), France, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway have witnessed recent public debate on matters of school dress, and especially the display of various religious symbols.

Debate of this kind appears to be a melting pot for different sets of values. In some countries, respect for freedom of religion is combined with the belief that public measures should not be discriminatory. Strictly secular approaches – as well as educational considerations – seem to run counter to respect for diversity. In the cases of dress, this applies most notably to garments covering most of the face, which make it difficult for teachers and the class to identify and communicate with the pupil, thus obstructing smooth teaching and learning.

In **Belgium** (the **French Community**) the issue of school dress has been discussed at the level of government and, as no agreement has been reached, schools may act at their own discretion.

In **France**, in which public education is secular and non-confessional, a bill was approved in February 2004 following intense debate. It aims to ban confessional items worn conspicuously on school premises and becomes law on 1 September 2004.

In the **Netherlands**, the degree of tolerance to be observed with regard to dress codes is also still subject to debate. Tension over the increasingly varied cultural backgrounds of school pupils is reflected in the ban imposed by some schools on the headscarves worn by Muslim girls. The courts have granted school management the right to ban clothing considered to interfere with normal educational processes or eye-to-eye contact.

In **Sweden**, school education is non-denominational. At the same time, schools are meant to encourage all pupils to discover their uniqueness as individuals and, in so doing, to contribute actively to the life of society by giving of their best in a spirit of freedom responsibly exercised. Given the controversy over pupils wearing *burqas* in class, the Swedish National Agency for Education (NAE) has said that any school may ban the practice. Schools must above all be able to educate effectively through teaching and learning in which face-to-face communication is regarded as very important. The NAE stresses that any ban should be accompanied by a discussion of values, equality and democratic rights and obligations.

Schools do not serve **meals** in all countries. In some countries, pupils are expected to provide their own meals, so schools are not necessarily faced with any need to adapt in this respect. In countries in which meals are served on school premises, there is scope for adaptation. However the level of the decision and the approach adopted vary.

For example, several Autonomous Communities in **Spain** have taken steps to adapt canteen menus to the religious and cultural precepts of immigrant pupils and, in both **France** and **Luxembourg**, school menus take account of the customary preferences of immigrant families. In **Finland** and **Sweden**, adaptation of the school menu in recognition of cultural or religious precepts is often possible and approached in the same way as changes on dietary grounds in the case of vegetarianism, allergies, diabetes, etc.

Figure 5.2: Official or common practice regarding adaptation of daily school life, 2003/04

		UK																																	
		BE fr	BE de	BE nl	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	ES	FR	IE	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	SI	SK	FI	SE	ENG/ WLS/NIR	SCT	IS	LI	NO	BG	RO	
AREAS OF ADAPTATION	A	○	○	●	■	■	○	■	■	■	●	●	●	■	○	○	○	■	■	○	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	○	●	●	○	(:)	●	■	■
	B	○	○	○	■	■	○	■	■	■	■	○	■	○	■	○	○	■	■	○	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	○	●	●	○	(:)	○	■	■
	C	○	○	○	■	■	■	■	■	■	●	○	■	■	■	○	○	○	○	○	○	■	■	■	○	■	○	●	●	●	■	(:)	■	■	■
	D	○	○	○	■	■	■	■	■	●	●	○	■	■	○	○	○	○	■	■	○	■	■	■	○	■	○	○	●	●	●	■	(:)	■	■
A		School timetable and religious holidays																																	
B		Educational activities																																	
C		Dress codes, clothing, etc.																																	
D		School menus																																	
●		Central level regulations or guidelines concerning local adaptation																																	
○		Common practice for local adaptation on an ad hoc basis																																	
■		Central level regulations or common practice not reported																																	

Source: Eurydice.

Additional notes

Belgium (BE nl): (A) Recognised religions or denominations are Anglicanism, Islam, Judaism, Catholicism, Orthodoxy and Protestantism.

Spain: (D) Several Autonomous Communities have taken measures to adapt food served in school canteens to the religious and cultural precepts of immigrant pupils.

Italy: (A) An agreement regarding the school timetable exists between the government and the Union of Italian Jewish Communities, but there are no similar agreements in the case of other religions.

United Kingdom (ENG/WLS/SCT): According to the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000, schools are expected to be sensitive to and accommodate the needs of different cultures, races and religions.

United Kingdom (NIR): Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998 requires public authorities to have a regard to the need to promote equality of opportunity on grounds of race. For example, schools should be aware of, and accommodate, different religious observances and festivals, and to ensure that rules on, for example, school uniform do not disadvantage particular groups.

CHAPTER 6

THE INTERCULTURAL APPROACH AT SCHOOL

Today, virtually all European education systems (those in the European Union, the candidate countries and the EFTA/EEA countries) pay due regard to the intercultural approach, namely 'the set of processes through which relations between different cultures are constructed' ⁽¹⁾ in curricula. The definition considered here does not include learning concerned with national culture and values, even though a sound appreciation of this may be necessary for a better understanding of other cultures.

The intercultural approach should enable schools to manage the cultural diversity of different societies, which has expanded following the migratory movements of recent decades. It is an integral part of education or activities intended for all pupils, whether immigrant or native. While it reflects a concern common to the countries under consideration, its aims and patterns of implementation within education systems differ from one country to the next.

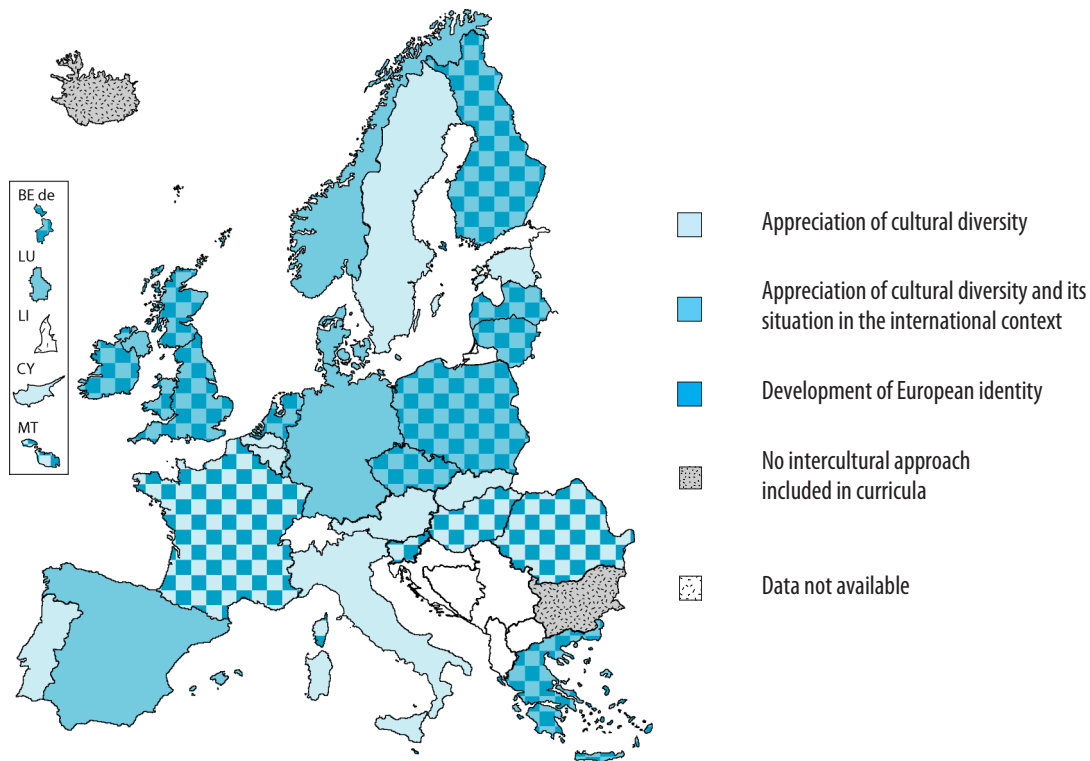
6.1. Aims

A study of the curricula of education systems and legislation or other official sources relating to education in European countries reveals that the aims of the intercultural approach embody three main dimensions, as follows:

- that of **learning about cultural diversity**, which is expected to develop values of respect and tolerance among pupils. In some countries, the fight against racism and xenophobia is an integral part of this aspect;
- the **international dimension** which – through study of the economic and social concerns that underlie international relations (and particularly North/South relations), as well as of the history of migration and its causes – provides for an understanding of contemporary cultural diversity in its historical and social context;
- the **European dimension** which focuses on insight into the cultural characteristics of European peoples, the history of European integration and the overall significance of the country concerned within Europe, and enables pupils to develop a sense of European identity.

⁽¹⁾ Council of Europe, 2004. *Facets of interculturality in education* (2004), p.9.

Figure 6.1: Aims of the intercultural approach according to curricula and official documents relating to education. Pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04



Source: Eurydice.

Only Iceland and Bulgaria do not explicitly take account of the intercultural approach in their curricula. However, in Iceland, a pilot project developing this approach has been started in one school in Reykjavik, with the aim of circulating the results among other schools.

In all other countries, a focus on cultural diversity is omnipresent in the curricula. In several of them, namely Belgium (French Community), Estonia, Italy, Austria, Portugal and Sweden, the main emphasis is on this dimension. Where the intercultural approach is part of pre-primary education, the focus is mainly on respect and tolerance vis-à-vis cultural diversity. More formal objectives, such as international relations issues and the development of a European identity, make their appearance at more advanced levels of the education system.

The European dimension is addressed in half of the countries considered, including former and new EU Member States alike. It is always combined with an appreciation of cultural diversity.

The three main aims of intercultural education identified above may be pursued via the teaching of certain types of (academic) knowledge relating to the cultural characteristics of different peoples, and to the historical, social and economic contexts in which cultural distinctions are rooted. This more theoretical component of provision stresses the importance of not stereotyping other people by their 'otherness' so that the prime aim of intercultural education (facilitating intercultural relations) is not thwarted. Appreciation of cultural diversity may also be induced by a more general approach aimed at the acquisition by pupils of certain social skills that guide them towards values of respect and tolerance in their relations with different cultures.

6.2. Position of the Intercultural Approach in Curricula

In the great majority of countries, the intercultural approach is among the general aims of their national curricula or reflected in other official documents on education. In just a few countries, namely, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, this approach features solely in other such official sources ⁽²⁾.

In curricula of European countries and other official documents relating to compulsory education, the intercultural approach is generally reflected in skills, subjects or values that should be developed on a **cross-curricular** basis or, in other words, via the different components of the curriculum whenever they offer scope for doing so. Indeed, around half of the countries considered have identified certain **subjects through which the intercultural approach should be developed** (Figure 6.2.). In the case of each subject, they thus specify the intercultural content that should be included (for example, the study of texts from foreign literature in lessons on the language of instruction), teaching recommendations (for example, the promotion in history classes of discussion with pupils from cultural backgrounds other than that of the national culture) or skills, values or objectives associated with the intercultural outlook that should be developed among pupils. In just a few countries, the intercultural approach is limited solely to certain subjects, with no indication as to whether it should also be developed on a cross-curricular basis.

The intercultural approach is most frequently defined in terms of combining its integration into specific subjects and its cross-curricular situation. It is never regarded as a subject in its own right.

The subjects into which the intercultural approach is most frequently incorporated are history and geography, followed by foreign languages ⁽³⁾, religion and the language of instruction. In just over a third of the countries, the intercultural approach is also included in lessons concerned with knowledge and understanding of society, such as those devoted to civics and political education, sociology or ethics, thus placing intercultural issues among the major concerns of education in citizenship.

In **Greece**, pupils are offered two optional hours of provision a week for which there are no formal curricular requirements and during which subjects such as European identity, multiculturalism and globalisation may be discussed.

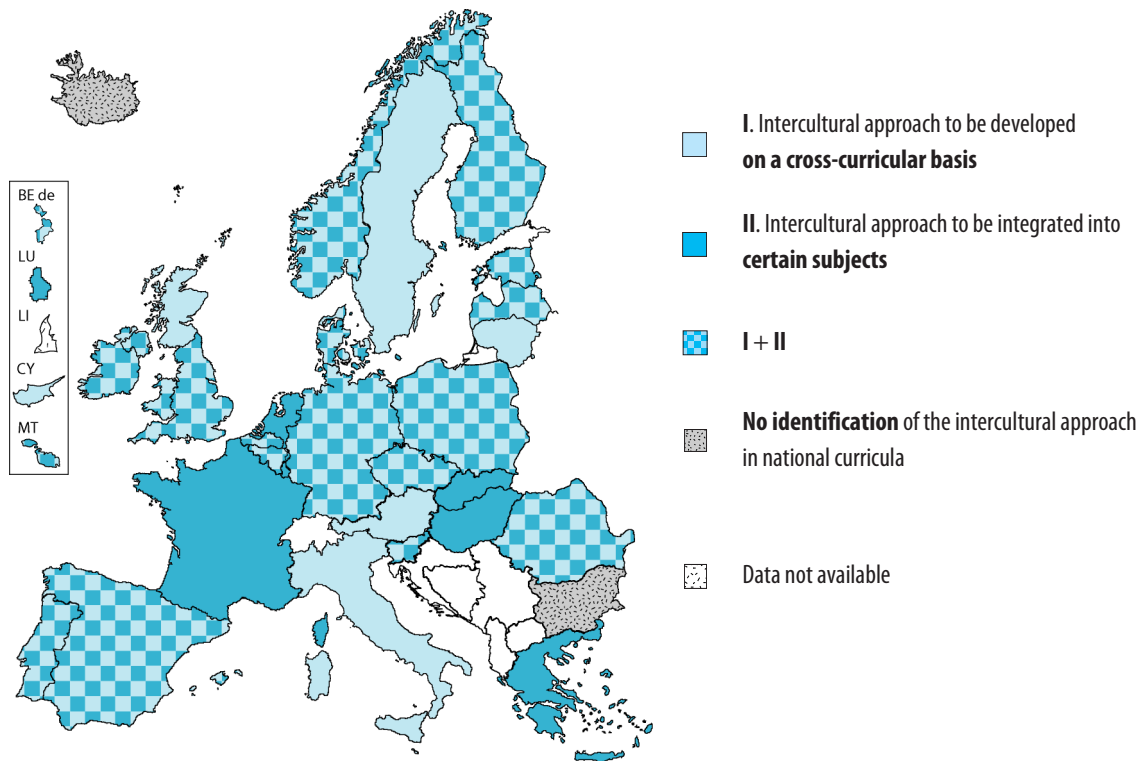
As far as the pre-primary education level is concerned, the instructions or recommendations from higher authorities regarding the intercultural approach usually express a general objective in terms of the intercultural awareness that should be developed among children, or outline proposals for initiating them to the concept of linguistic and cultural diversity (as in the French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, and in Luxembourg).

Such guidelines are often less specific than for other levels of education. Indeed, in around 10 countries, no declared objective associated with intercultural issues would appear to be assigned to pre-primary education.

⁽²⁾ These sources are ministerial circulars in Italy, school handbooks in Luxembourg, decrees outlining the major aims of education in the Netherlands.

⁽³⁾ The development of multilingualism is regarded as an aspect of intercultural education in certain countries such as Belgium (in the German-speaking Community), the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Poland. However, it is not considered as such for purposes of this comparative overview, even though foreign language skills may have a positive impact on intercultural relations. On the other hand, where foreign language lessons include aspects of the culture of countries in which the languages concerned are spoken, they are regarded as an integral part of the intercultural approach.

Figure 6.2: The position of the intercultural approach in curricula or official documents issued at the central or top administrative level for full-time compulsory education, 2003/04



Source: Eurydice.

6.3. Evaluation

To date, there has been little evaluation at national level of how schools actually implement curricular instructions or recommendations regarding intercultural education. In the case of some countries, this may be attributed to the fact that these considerations have been introduced into curricula only very recently, so that evaluation of their impact would be premature.

Five countries have so far conducted evaluations of this type.

Alongside the general evaluation of implementation of the intercultural approach in schools in the **Czech Republic**, arrangements also exist for specifically monitoring the practice of individual schools in this area. Inspectors check that the school head, teachers and other school staff implement the guidelines in the directive from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports for fighting racism, xenophobia and intolerance in schools. This directive states that education should provide for greater understanding of – and high regard for – the differences between individuals, as well as respect for each person, minority and culture.

In **Denmark**, an evaluation carried out by the Danish Evaluation Institute in 2003 of the international dimension in *Folkeskolen* shows great variation in the extent to which schools' practice reflects the cross curricular international dimension stated in the Act on the *Folkeskole*. The report recommends developing guidelines at national level, and that municipalities and schools to cooperate to further develop aims for the international dimension.

In the **Netherlands**, the findings revealed that provision of this kind in schools was not sufficiently widespread, due to a lack of commitment on the part of school management, insufficient time and competition from other priorities.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, school inspections must evaluate what the school does to cultivate pupils' personal development. Inspectors assess how the school actively enables pupils to understand and respect other people's feelings, values and beliefs, and to appreciate their own and others' cultural traditions. Two reports (respectively for primary and secondary education) published by Ofsted in March 2004, entitled *Managing the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant*, found that schools that use the funding more effectively are strongly committed to an ethos that values cultural diversity and challenges racism.

In **Norway**, a recently conducted report concludes that teaching aids published in recent years reflect multicultural Norway in the sense that they contain pictures of children whose appearance is different from the majority. Nevertheless, it is still the majority population and the socio-cultural customs of the middle class – with regard to food, holidays, religion, and family and living conditions – that are depicted. Several of the projects in the survey conclude that the opportunities provided by a multicultural perspective in teaching aids are hardly utilised. Neither do the teacher guidance sections give teachers the help they need to tackle the challenges represented by working in classes with children from diverse minority cultures.

6.4. Activities Associated with Life at School

In over half the countries, the intercultural approach is not confined to classroom learning but is integrated into other aspects of school life. This may imply extracurricular activities, such as the organisation of festive events at school to celebrate cultural diversity, international exchanges of pupils, or activities involving members of the broader educational community outside the school, such as meetings with representatives of the immigrant community. The organisation of such initiatives is encouraged or supervised by the central or top-level education authorities in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Finland, the United Kingdom and Romania.

In the **Czech Republic**, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports has recently launched a broad programme for the integration of immigrants, which funds schemes to develop multicultural education and respect for diversity among teachers and pupils in particular.

In Ireland, the Netherlands and Slovakia, there are no recommendations from the central or top-level education authorities regarding activities of an intercultural nature, but some schools organise them.

Some countries conceive of the intercultural approach at school as a general matter affecting all aspects of the way schools function. This applies to Finland and Sweden, as well as to the Czech Republic, the United Kingdom and Norway. The intercultural approach is meant to influence school culture, meaning all those values on which interpersonal relations (among pupils and among teachers, as well as between both groups) are based.

6.5. Training and Support for Teachers

Over and above the definition of content as specified in the curriculum, the challenge of the intercultural approach in education systems lies in the ability of teachers and other school staff to ensure that it becomes operational. In this respect, the way teachers are trained and the support they receive from the education authorities are of vital importance.

Thus the intercultural approach calls for ability on the part of teachers and indeed other school staff to react to ethnic or racist kinds of stereotyping by pupils. Initially, this presupposes that teachers themselves are capable of protecting their own behaviour from the influence of cultural stereotypes and that they then possess the arguments needed to discuss stereotyping by pupils. In short, they require a complex type of skill that should be acquired during initial teacher education or in-service training. It involves not just acquiring a theoretical body of knowledge but above all confrontation with real situations and practical experience. According to a research article on preparing teachers for intercultural education in the Netherlands ⁽⁴⁾, teacher training for intercultural education which is restricted to learning a theory is no longer appropriate. Ideally, it should be regarded as learning activity in which practical experience is considered in combination with reflection based on interaction and dialogue with fellow students, teacher trainers and in-service teachers.

In virtually all countries surveyed, topics associated with the intercultural approach are included in curricula for initial teacher education or in provision for in-service training. The only exceptions in 2003/04 are Estonia and Bulgaria. In Estonia, however, a pilot project to provide teachers with training in this educational approach is currently being implemented. In the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Lithuania, Malta and in Sweden, training in the intercultural approach is primarily part of initial teacher education.

Institutions for initial teacher education are at least partly free to draw up their own curriculum in almost all countries. In the majority of countries, the inclusion (or otherwise) of an intercultural approach in the curricula of these institutions is governed solely by their internal policy. Around 10 countries formally require institutions to provide for intercultural education.

Thus in the French Community of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands (in primary education), Finland, the United Kingdom, Norway and Romania, the central or top-level authority has firmly stated that intercultural education must be included in teacher education programmes. There is also a recommendation along these lines in Austria (applicable solely to institutions that train teachers for pre-primary education) and in Slovakia.

The French and Flemish Communities of Belgium, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Norway have specified the skills related to intercultural education that teachers should have acquired by the end of their training. These skills relate essentially to the knowledge acquired by teachers regarding the situation of pupils from cultural backgrounds other than that of the national culture, as well as their perception of those pupils and their ability to handle relations between pupils of different cultural origin.

⁽⁴⁾ Preparing teachers for intercultural education, Yvonne Leeman & Guuske Ledoux, *Teaching Education*, Vol. 14, No. 3, December 2003, pp 281-283.

Figure 6.3: Content of skills in intercultural education which have been clearly specified at the central or top level for inclusion in initial teacher training for pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04

BE fr	According to two decrees on initial teacher education dating from 2000 and 2001, the first responsibility of initial teacher education is to activate knowledge in the social sciences for an accurate interpretation of situations experienced in or close to the classroom, and for enhancing ability to work with different types of pupil intake at school. Furthermore, in order to satisfy the aims of their education, prospective teachers should acquire socio-cultural insights concerned with the theoretical approach to cultural diversity, with initiation into art and culture and with the philosophy and history of religion.
NL	For primary education, the ministry has set standards of competence that include intercultural education and state that all teachers have to be prepared to teach in multi-ethnic classrooms, that they should be capable of offering all pupils a safe and powerful learning environment and preparing them for citizenship in a multicultural society.
AT	The curriculum for persons responsible for pre-primary education aims to strengthen their ability to express themselves and pass on an understanding of traditional standards and beliefs, encourage problem-solving, cooperative behaviour and the peaceful resolution of conflicts, provide an insight into established cultural practice, and subject social values to critical analysis.
UK-ENG	Standards for achieving qualified teacher status (QTS) require those to be awarded QTS to demonstrate that they have high expectations of all pupils. They must be able to plan and manage lessons which take account of the varied interests and experiences of pupils with differing backgrounds.
UK-WLS	Standards for achieving qualified teacher status (QTS) require those to be awarded QTS to demonstrate that they have high expectations of all pupils and that they can plan opportunities to contribute to pupils' cultural development.
UK-NIR	The professional model of teacher competences require teachers to demonstrate that they can take account of cultural differences among children.
UK-SCT	<p>In the list of competences that future teachers are expected to be able to demonstrate on completion of their courses, it is stated under the heading 'Communication and approaches to teaching and learning' that 'he or she must be able to respond appropriately to gender, social, cultural, linguistic and religious differences among pupils.'</p> <p>Beyond that, the 'Standard for Full Registration' which details the attributes that teachers are expected to have acquired by the end of their period of induction includes a requirement that 'Registered teachers must possess sensitive and positive attitudes towards differences (e.g. gender, social, cultural, religious, linguistic) amongst pupils.'</p>
NO	The latest framework plan for the general teacher training programme published by the Ministry of Education in April 2003 states that teachers must be knowledgeable about the situation of bilingual and multilingual pupils and about interaction between cultures in general, and capable of cooperating with parents from different cultures. Pupils in compulsory education represent social, linguistic and cultural diversity. The framework plan requires that teachers have insight into the environment in which children grow up.

Source: Eurydice.

Yet in around 10 countries, the framework defined at national level does not in general govern the way in which institutions for teacher education really regard their own provision for intercultural education. The two most commonly adopted practices are the development of an intercultural approach via certain subjects, and training specifically for intercultural education.

The first practice is characteristic of certain institutions in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, Slovenia, Slovakia, Norway or Romania. The subjects including elements of education for an intercultural approach are in most cases the language of instruction, foreign languages, geography, history and religious education. In Norway, these subjects are governed by the framework plan for teacher training. In Latvia, teachers of ethics and social sciences play an important role in intercultural education in compulsory education.

Special modules intended to train teachers for an intercultural approach exist for example in certain training institutions in France, Ireland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland, Slovakia and Iceland. Their content is usually determined by the institutions themselves. In Austria, the government has established the length, optional nature and content of courses on intercultural education that are part of teacher training for pre-primary education.

There are thus very few countries that provide institutions with clear instructions as to how curricula should implement intercultural education. Here and there, support intended directly for those who train teachers has been introduced.

In the **Netherlands**, the Ministry of Education has stated that teacher training for primary education should cover special teaching methods for intercultural education, which are communicated through a network of training institutions. In the **United Kingdom (England)**, the Teacher Training Agency's latest annual survey (2003) of newly qualified teachers shows that many of them felt that their initial training had not properly prepared them for teaching in a diverse classroom. In response, the Agency is developing an Initial Teacher Training Professional Resource Network to identify and spread good practice. The Network will also develop exemplification materials on diversity for teacher trainers. In **Norway**, various measures have been implemented to enhance the perception of multiculturalism in institutions that provide this training.

Continuous professional development in intercultural education, which usually focuses on acquiring competence in teaching practice or methodology geared to work with pupils from different cultural backgrounds, exists in the great majority of countries. It may be provided by many different players, such as institutions for teacher education, teacher associations, ministries of education and in-service training centres, etc. In most cases, it is optional. In Greece, in-service training is compulsory for teachers in schools that have adopted an intercultural curriculum.

In Portugal (where there is no centralised directive on the inclusion of intercultural education in initial teacher education) and in Finland, guidelines on the development of an intercultural approach have been set as part of continuous professional development.

The 2001 legislation in **Portugal** on the professional qualifications and background of teachers in pre-primary, primary and secondary education specifies the skills related to intercultural education that teachers should acquire in the course of lifelong training if necessary. In **Finland**, the teacher education programme established in 2001 by the Ministry of Education considers that training related to linguistic minorities and immigrants is a priority area for continuous professional development

Implementation of the intercultural approach in schools, which requires the exercise of complex skills by teachers, thus calls for special support on the part of the education authorities. Initial teacher education and continuous professional development are two important components of this but other forms of assistance also seem to be necessary. Over 10 countries have taken action along these lines, in some cases very recently.

In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, the **Czech Republic**, **Greece**, **Ireland**, **Latvia**, **Austria**, **Slovenia**, **Finland**, **Sweden** and the **United Kingdom**, this has entailed providing teachers with guidance and teaching materials which emphasise the importance of the intercultural approach in education, or which may guide them in actually implementing it. Schools in **Denmark** may apply to the Ministry of Education for resources enabling them to develop teaching materials for intercultural education. In **Germany** in 1996, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs stated that its aims would include promoting the inspection of school textbooks in order to identify negative prejudices vis-à-vis other cultures or societies, and the preparation of educational guidelines on the intercultural approach for schools. In **Latvia** and **Norway**, meetings are organised between teachers so that they can enhance the multidisciplinary dimension of intercultural education, or develop their intercultural skills jointly by analysing practical situations. In **Slovenia**, schools may contact the National Institute of Education for ad hoc support from specialists in intercultural education.

CONCLUSIONS

The question of how to integrate immigrant populations within the societies in which they have settled is at the heart of current political debate in the majority of European countries. In some of them, immigration has occurred only fairly recently, whereas others have long-standing experience of devising and implementing policies in this area. For all these countries, immigrant populations correspond to a social reality to be taken into account.

Aware of these concerns, the European Union is gradually developing a common policy to ensure that the conditions governing the entry of immigrants and asylum seekers into its member countries and their residence therein are fully consistent (see Chapter 1).

A second challenge is to ensure that immigrants are successfully integrated within their host societies. How can one implement appropriate arrangements to facilitate the integration of immigrant persons while also remaining fully mindful of their origins and attentive to requirements deriving from them? The many possible answers to this question depend on the specific circumstances facing each of the countries concerned.

The survey undertaken by the Eurydice Network has focused mainly on the integration of immigrant children at school and highlighted the crucial importance of the following points.

Everyone has a Basic Right to Education

In one way or another, most European countries are equally concerned to ensure that immigrant children benefit from their **basic right to education**. To this end, appropriate legislative measures have been made an integral part of national law in the majority of countries. At European level, the *Charter of Fundamental Rights* ⁽¹⁾ also states in its Chapter II on Freedoms that:

- ‘1. Everyone has the right to education and to have access to vocational and continuing training.’
- ‘2. This right includes the possibility to receive free compulsory education.’ (Article 14, Right to Education).

Over and above official documents and statements of intent, European education systems have to decide what measures they will take to ensure that all young people within the compulsory education age-range, irrespective of whether or not they are nationals of the countries concerned, exercise their right to education in practice.

While some countries associate the right to education with the length of time that the families of immigrant children have been resident within them, almost all European countries comply fully with this basic right, extending it to all immigrant children, irrespective of their residential status. In other words, families of refugees or asylum seekers or those who are irregularly resident, no less than those with long-term residential status, may all enrol their children at a school in the host country. These children are also entitled to benefit from school services or from financial support awarded by the education authorities, in the same way as nationals of the country concerned (Chapter 3).

⁽¹⁾ Signed and proclaimed by the Presidents of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission at the Nice European Council on 7 December 2000.

Outside the compulsory education age-range, education of the very youngest children (whether immigrants or nationals) is more a question of their right to access pre-primary provision. The survey reveals that few countries have devised special arrangements to cater for the youngest immigrant children in schools or centres for pre-primary education.

The Language of Instruction as a Foothold in the Host Education System

National education authorities are aware that special support measures have to be available for immigrant pupils if they are to derive full benefit from their right to education in the same way as nationals. In nearly all countries, such measures are devised as a priority for those who are recent arrivals in order to overcome the initial problems that prevent them from integrating rapidly at school. The content of these measures is inspired above all by the need for immigrant children to understand and speak the language of instruction as soon as possible. Unquestionably, **proficiency in the language(s) of instruction of the host country** is a sine qua non for their successful integration at school. Indeed, this is particularly crucial in the light of the statistical evidence that, in the great majority of European countries, a substantial proportion of immigrants speak languages other than their host country languages of instruction.

Linguistic support measures are thus by far the most generally widespread in European countries, irrespective of whether they have adopted arrangements based on the direct ‘immersion’ of immigrant pupils in mainstream classes, or a transitional approach in which these pupils are kept separate at the outset (Chapter 4). Such measures are not geared solely to pupils learning the language of instruction on an intensive basis but also cover other considerations with a view to ensuring that they will be fully integrated within mainstream educational provision. Figure 1 highlights the prevalence of various linguistic measures adopted for the benefit of immigrant children by host education systems.

The Mother Tongue of Immigrants as a Bridge between Two Cultures

Besides introducing measures to help immigrant children learn the language of instruction, the majority of European countries also provide parallel **support to be taught their mother tongue and learn about the culture of their country of origin** (Chapter 5). Since Council Directive 77/486/CEE came into force, the obligation to develop this provision lies mainly with the education authorities of the host country, usually in collaboration with partners in the EU country of origin. The initial aim was to ensure that children of migrant workers from the Member States remained fully familiar with their mother tongue and culture of origin, so that they could return to their home country more easily if they wished. The foregoing Directive has held special significance for the new Member States that joined the European Union in May 2004 and, in several of them, has influenced national policy orientations concerning the education of immigrant children.

The causes of immigration today are numerous. It is no longer considered a transient phenomenon as it was in the context of the 1970s but a built-in feature of our increasingly multicultural societies. Those responsible for integrating immigrant children into the education systems of many European countries continue to attach importance to teaching these children their mother tongue but with the very different aim of supporting pupils whose families wish to settle in the host country. Often, schools take steps to assist families in their mother tongue (by publishing brochures in several languages or engaging interpreters), so that they can satisfactorily complete the enrolment of their children and – more important still – monitor their progress at school. Finally, the authorities concerned may ascertain the

level of provision best suited to the educational attainment of immigrant pupils if their knowledge and ability are assessed in their mother tongue. This is also a sign that the authorities are flexible, attentive to the requirements of newcomers to the host country, and committed to close intercultural relations.

However, as Figure 1 illustrates, different types of linguistic measure aimed at helping immigrant children to integrate into host education systems are not all granted the same priority. Some of them (those italicised in the Figure) are at present implemented in only a few countries.

When the two main forms of linguistic support are considered in relation to their aims, several possibilities become apparent. In many countries the active involvement of immigrant parents appears to be prominent in the performance of their children at school. The publication of information on the host education system in the mother tongue of immigrant families and the provision of interpreters are fairly widespread measures. On the other hand, the proficiency of immigrant pupils in the language of instruction is in general assessed at the outset to determine the level of provision that suits them best. Finally, in order for these pupils to perform as well as possible at school, a sizeable majority of countries use intensive tuition to teach the language of instruction, whereas the mother tongue is taught on a more limited basis (only some languages are taught and, in most cases, outside the normal school timetable).

Figure 1: Linguistic support measures for immigrant children in pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04

	LINGUISTIC SUPPORT MEASURES	
	<u>Host country language of instruction</u>	<u>Mother tongue of immigrant pupils</u>
Help with guidance and parental involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Provision for teaching the parents of immigrant pupils the language of instruction</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Publishing information on the education system in the one or more languages of immigrant pupils • Providing interpreters for parents and immigrant pupils
Assessing the appropriate level of provision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Initial assessment of how far immigrant pupils master the language of instruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Initial mother tongue assessment of the previous educational attainment of immigrant pupils</i>
Furthering progress with learning at school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intensive teaching of the language of instruction • <i>Programmes to promote the language of instruction before children reach compulsory school age</i> • <i>Initial and/or in-service teacher training in how to teach the language of instruction as a second language</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching of the mother tongue of immigrant pupils (in the case of certain languages often taught outside the normal school timetable and/or as optional subjects in the curriculum) • <i>Bilingual teaching provided partly in the language of instruction and partly in the mother tongue of immigrant pupils</i>

italics: Measures introduced solely in a limited number of countries

Source: Eurydice.

Intercultural Education as a General Approach

Intercultural education involves an approach to teaching that is conducive to interaction between cultures whose origins differ widely. It is intended for the benefit of all pupils and points up the role of schools in developing values of respect and tolerance vis-à-vis cultural diversity (Chapter 6). At present, the majority of European education systems take account of this dimension, which is concerned as much with the content as with the methodology of teaching. In general, national curricula develop intercultural provision on a 'horizontal' basis (i.e. across the entire curriculum in each case), or establish specific areas of school subject content that are liable to encompass intercultural issues. Quite often, curricula in European countries combine both approaches.

Certain countries broaden the intercultural approach by regarding it as an **integral aspect** of how the whole school community should function, over and above just ways in which the approach can be taught. As a result, extracurricular activities in some countries are organised on the basis of dialogue and interaction between the different cultures represented in their schools. Where this novel open outlook is present, integrating pupils of immigrant origin may be experienced more positively and naturally by everyone, whether members of the immigrant or indigenous community.

Teacher Education and the Development of New Skills

The challenges posed by immigration, and the expansion of the intercultural approach in the education of all pupils inevitably mean that teachers in Europe will have to **mobilise new skills**.

As the survey emphasises, there is a demand for teachers and other professionals in the following three areas of action:

- support for immigrant pupils in school-based measures for their benefit, especially as regards teaching the language of instruction (Chapter 4);
- teaching the mother tongue and culture of origin to immigrant pupils (Chapter 5);
- developing the intercultural approach for the benefit of all pupils (Chapter 6).

Teachers do not always have the necessary skills to perform the tasks required in these three areas. Organised provision for teacher education and, above all, for the continuous professional development of teachers is gradually starting to include in its curricula topics associated with multiculturalism in schools and society. Certain countries tend to concentrate on integrating immigrant children by offering those who teach them training modules or specialised instruction that often focus on teaching the language of instruction as a second language.

As far as teaching immigrant children their mother tongue or aspects of their culture of origin is concerned, provision of appropriate teacher training is far more limited. Furthermore, professional teachers for these tasks are often recruited under bilateral agreements between the host and home countries. The teachers are thus not trained in the former but in the native country of the immigrant pupils concerned. Quality control of their training is more difficult, necessitating closer cooperation between EU Member States and third countries in the recognition of qualifications.

Finally, a few European countries are taking fresh action to support teachers, who now work with pupils in increasingly multicultural and mixed language groups. For example, some countries are funding the development of teaching materials geared to the intercultural approach, or provide schools that so wish with specialist services in this area.

The Evaluation of Outcomes

Evaluation of support measures for immigrant children or of implementation of the intercultural approach in education is **not a widespread practice** in Europe (see section 4 of the national summaries published on CD-ROM and the Eurydice website at www.eurydice.org). Where it does occur, this is often solely as a contribution to fighting school failure. All that is available is a comparison of the school attainment rates and absenteeism rates of pupils of immigrant origin and native pupils, respectively.

In addition, the existence and nature of action to support pupils of immigrant origin often depend on regional or local authorities (or both), or even schools themselves. Where this kind of decentralisation has occurred, collecting data to assess what has been achieved on a rigorous and reliable basis is not always an easy task.

It should also be stressed that, in the case of some countries, it would be premature to measure the impact of support measures that have been implemented only very recently.

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Educational policy-makers in European countries are faced with the difficult task of transforming the intercultural diversity now characteristic of schools into an asset for everyone concerned, whether immigrant or native pupils, teachers or parents.

The close examination of various issues in this survey has provided a clear indication of the effort European countries are now making to encourage successful integration of immigrant children at school in a way consistent with the children's requirements. As we have noted, procedures for the reception and support of these children vary from one country to the next. The majority of countries provide for transition classes, separate lessons or measures for individual or collective assistance concerned mainly with learning the language of instruction, irrespective of the proportion of young foreigners in the school education age-range.

Thus, according to the demographic data available (Chapter 2), countries in which the proportion of young foreigners in the school population is not very high appear to be implementing measures for their support on much the same scale as European countries in which the corresponding proportion is higher. It is important here to draw attention to the case of certain countries in which immigration is a recent and expanding trend. Taking in immigrant children and providing appropriately for them in host education systems have become major concerns. As a result, countries such as Spain and Ireland (which have been more associated with emigration in their past) have recently introduced a whole range of initiatives designed to encourage the integration of such children.

GLOSSARY

Country codes

EU	European Union	PT	Portugal
BE	Belgium	SI	Slovenia
BE fr	Belgium – French Community	SK	Slovakia
BE de	Belgium – German-speaking Community	FI	Finland
BE nl	Belgium – Flemish Community	SE	Sweden
CZ	Czech Republic	UK	United Kingdom
DK	Denmark	UK-ENG	England
DE	Germany	UK-WLS	Wales
EE	Estonia	UK-NIR	Northern Ireland
EL	Greece	UK-SCT	Scotland
ES	Spain		
FR	France		
IE	Ireland	EFTA/EEA	The three countries of the European Free Trade Association which are members of the European Economic Area
IT	Italy	IS	Iceland
CY	Cyprus	LI	Liechtenstein
LV	Latvia	NO	Norway
LT	Lithuania		
LU	Luxembourg		
HU	Hungary		
MT	Malta		
NL	Netherlands	Candidate countries	
AT	Austria	BG	Bulgaria
PL	Poland	RO	Romania

Abbreviations of statistical tools and other classifications

EU-25	The 25 Member States of the European Union after 1 May 2004
EU-15	The 15 Member States of the European Union before 1 May 2004
Eurostat	Statistical Office of the European Communities
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
(:)	Data not available

PISA Data

PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment): an international survey conducted under the auspices of the OECD in 32 countries worldwide, including 26 countries involved in the SOCRATES Programme. The aim of the survey is to measure the performance level of pupils aged 15 in reading literacy, mathematical literacy and scientific literacy. Data collection has been programmed in three stages, namely PISA 2000 (used to prepare the present publication), PISA 2003 and PISA 2006.

Among the countries covered by the Socrates Programme, Belgium (the German-speaking Community), the United Kingdom (Wales), Estonia, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia did not take part in the collection of data for PISA 2000.

Besides measurements of outcome (tests in reading, mathematics and science), the survey includes questionnaires for pupils and school heads, which are intended to identify variables linked to family and school circumstances that may help explain the findings. It is these questionnaires that have been used to prepare the indicators in the present publication.

The survey is based on representative samples of 15-year-old pupils in secondary education, who were selected by their school. Education at each school may last a greater or lesser number of years corresponding to curricula at ISCED levels 2 and/or 3, or in some cases even ISCED level 1. This explains why the titles to Figures in the present publication refer to schools attended by pupils aged 15 and not secondary education in general.

Further observations on PISA

The indicators derived from the OECD/PISA database have to be interpreted in context. For example, the percentage of pupils aged 15 who said that, at home, they spoke a language other than the language of instruction cannot be interpreted as the percentage of the population speaking a foreign language at home.

Where the number of replies to the surveys in general, or to one particular question, is insufficient to ensure that the data are truly representative, the latter are not shown in the Figures. In the case of the Netherlands, in which the proportion of those who did not reply to the PISA 2000 survey is relatively high, the data are not given in the Figures, but in an additional note under them. It should be noted that a study carried out in this country after publication of the PISA findings showed that, despite its low rate of response, the sample remained representative.

EUROSTAT – Migration data

Eurostat annually collects data on aspects of international migration but also on populations via national institutes for statistics, using a questionnaire prepared jointly with the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, the United Nations Statistics Division, the International Labour Organization and the Council of Europe.

In some countries, one institution, normally the National Statistical Institute, is responsible for all official statistics on migration. In other countries, several institutions may be responsible for different migration-related topics. For example, the National Statistical Institute may remain responsible for general statistics on migration, the Ministry of the Interior may collect statistics on asylum seekers, and the Ministry of Labour collect statistics on migrant workers. Data sources used include population registers, censuses, general or labour force surveys, passenger surveys, and administrative registers. The data collection may be organised on a national or regional basis. Often, this will depend on the organisation of the administrative activities linked to migration and asylum.

Length of stay in a destination country is an important factor in determining whether a person is a migrant as opposed to a shorter-term visitor. Eurostat requests national authorities to supply data based on definitions contained in the United Nations Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration (Revision 1). According to these definitions, a person is a long-term migrant when they change their country of usual residence for a period of 12 months or more – in effect, their country of destination becomes their new usual residence. However, many countries are unable to supply data that meet these definitions and instead supply data according to national definitions. Some countries base their statistics on the stated intention of the individual to stay for a certain period of time – this period varying from three to twelve months or more. In other countries, migration is defined in terms of the actual length of stay, or on some administrative action such as registering as a resident. (*Source: Eurostat*)

Immigration

Total immigration consists of the inward migration of all persons – both nationals and non-nationals. This category of statistics is usually well recorded, due to the implementation of frontier and immigration controls, and due to the registration of residents in administrative systems within destination countries. However, some countries do not record inward migration of nationals. As nationals often form a large group within the immigration flows, for these countries it is not possible to give a figure for total immigration. (*Source: Eurostat*)

Asylum

Data relating to applications for asylum include all persons who apply for asylum or similar protection in accordance with Article 1 of the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees of 28 July 1951, as amended by the New York Protocol of 31 January 1967. This data is recorded on an individual basis either at an airport or land border on the arrival of the persons concerned, or actually inside the country and irrespective of whether those concerned have entered it legally (for example, as tourists), or irregularly.

Due to different methods of collecting the information, data from different countries may not be entirely comparable. In particular, countries differ in terms of how repeat applications for asylum, and the dependants of asylum applicants, are recorded in the statistics. The figures in the tables on asylum applications should therefore be interpreted with due caution. (*Source: Eurostat*)

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ANNEXE 1 (CHAPTER 1)

Figure 1.1: Reference documents on European Union policies and legislation relating to the education of immigrant children

A. Children of migrant workers who are Member State nationals

Legislative document:

Council Directive 77/486/EC

The Directive obliges Member States, in cooperation with States of origin and in coordination with mainstream education, to promote teaching of the mother tongue and culture of the country of origin. It calls on Member States to promote teaching adapted to the specific needs of such children within a period of four years and to take the measures necessary for the initial and further training of the teachers who are to provide this tuition.

B. Children of third-country nationals who arrive on EU territory as well as ethnic minorities who have already settled in the EU

Legislative document:

Council Directive 2000/43/EC

The Directive provides a legal framework for combating discrimination based on racial or ethnic origin in different areas such as education. But the principle of non-discrimination does not extend to differences of treatment based on nationality and is without prejudice to provisions governing the entry and residence of third-country nationals and to any treatment arising from their legal status.

C. Minors who are the children of asylum seekers or themselves asylum seekers

Legislative document:

Council Directive 2003/9/EC

Access to the education system in accordance with conditions similar to those applicable to Member State nationals. Such education may be provided in accommodation centres.

D. Children of immigrant parents who are legal residents and hold a long-term residence permit

Legislative document:

Council Directive 2003/109/CE

Obligation on Member States to afford access for minors to the educational system under conditions similar to those laid down for their nationals, including the award of study grants in accordance with national legislation. But Member States may restrict access to the educational system by requiring proof of appropriate language proficiency.

D. Children of immigrant parents who are legal residents and hold a long-term residence permit (continued)

Policy documents

Conclusions of the Tampere European Council, 15-16 October 1999

Granting of the same rights as those enjoyed by citizens of the State of residence, including the right to **receive education**. Application of the principle of non-discrimination vis-à-vis the citizens of the State of residence.

Conclusions of the Seville European Council, 21-22 June 2002

Restate the commitment to an integration policy for 'lawfully resident' immigrants.

Conclusions of the Thessaloniki European Council, 19-22 June 2003

Restate the need for the elaboration of a comprehensive policy on the integration of 'legally residing' immigrants that seeks to grant them rights and obligations comparable to those of EU citizens, covering different areas such as education.

Conclusions of the Brussels European Council, 16-17 October 2003

Restate the commitment to a balanced approach between, on the one hand, the need to stop illegal immigration and to fight against the trafficking of human beings and, on the other, the reception and integration of 'legal' immigrants.

Figure 1.2: Official Council of Europe documents dealing with the education of immigrant children

Children of Migrant Workers from Member States

1977

Convention of 24.11.1977

Same educational entitlements as the children of national workers, including the award of scholarships. Facilitating the teaching of the national language. Promoting the teaching of the mother tongue.

Children of Migrants (from Member States) and other countries and Descendants of Migrants (second and third generation)

1983

Resolution adopted at the Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education, 10-12 May 1983

Taking account of educational and cultural needs and making appropriate resources available; devising intercultural education; maintaining links with the culture of origin; training teachers to give lessons on the mother tongue and culture of origin

Children of Migrants (from Member States) and other countries

1984

Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to Member States (1984) on the training of teachers in education for intercultural understanding

Make the intercultural dimension and understanding between different communities a feature of initial and in-service teacher training

Children of Migrants (from Member States) and other countries and Descendants of Migrants (second and third generation)

1984

Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to Member States (1984) on second generation immigrants

Adapt teaching to their needs, promote intercultural education, promote lessons on the mother tongue and culture of origin and the intercultural training of teachers

1989

Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to Member States (1989) on the education of migrants' children

Recommend that the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe promote intercultural education and teacher training in this area.

Long-term immigrants

2000

Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to Member States on the security of residence of long-term immigrants (13.9.2000)

Should not enjoy less favourable treatment in the area of education than Member State nationals.

Source: Eurydice.

ANNEXE 2 (CHAPTER 4)

**Figure 2.1: Types of support for immigrant children.
Pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04**

	Language-learning support measures	Educational support measures	Smaller class sizes /special norms governing the composition of classes
	Intensive teaching of the language of instruction and/or bilingual tuition (the mother tongue and language of instruction)	Additional support for learning and/or adaptation of assessment	
BE fr	Intensive teaching of the language of instruction (in secondary education, the frequency of intensive tuition in French cannot be less than 15 class periods of 50 minutes a week; there is no set frequency for pre-primary or primary education, but a so-called 'adapted' or flexible timetable.	Under the policy for positive discrimination applicable to all pupils (pre-primary, primary and secondary), special operational and supervisory resources are allocated for their benefit so that pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds, including immigrants, have the same chances of doing well at school and in terms of their social development.	
BE de	In the integrated model, a second teacher supervises one or more pupils for a few hours or – as happens most frequently – withdraws them from the class primarily to teach them German (the language of instruction). The separate model involves intensive tuition in the language of instruction and, after a few weeks or months (but no longer than a year) depending on the progress achieved, pupils are integrated within mainstream classes for a gradually increased number of hours.	In the integrated model, compensatory classes may be provided in other subjects (6-7 hours of tuition a week on average).	
BE nl	Primary education: a maximum of 12 periods of teaching a week for one school year (if necessary, pupils are integrated within mainstream activities for the remainder of school time). Secondary education: a minimum 28 periods of teaching a week for one school year – pupils spend a maximum of 4 periods integrated within mainstream school activities.	Under the equal educational opportunities policy	
CZ	Schools are not obliged to provide Czech-language lessons for the children of non-asylum seekers in mainstream classes, but this occurs in practice. The school is obliged to provide Czech- language tuition either within the school in compensatory classes, or in centres for asylum seekers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ In preparatory classes (in the basic or nursery school) to further the children's development and help them catch up with other children ➤ If migrant children integrated within mainstream classes are not sufficiently proficient in Czech to continue their studies, they are not assessed under the 'language' subject heading during their first year at school. 	<p>Mainstream classes with three or more children who are asylum seekers may not have more than 25 pupils.</p> <p>'Preparatory classes': a minimum of 10 and a maximum of 15 pupils from disadvantaged social backgrounds (including asylum seekers).</p> <p>'Compensatory classes' are established for 12 pupils or over who are asylum seekers.</p>

	Language-learning support measures	Educational support measures	Smaller class sizes /special norms governing the composition of classes
	Intensive teaching of the language of instruction and/or bilingual tuition (the mother tongue and language of instruction)	Additional support for learning and/or adaptation of assessment	
DK	Generally, there are a certain number of sessions each week. However, this is determined at municipal level.		
DE	Preparatory classes: 10-12 45-minute periods a week. Mainstream classes: 6-8 45-minute periods a week.	The examination of the compulsory foreign language may be replaced by the native language.	No more than one-fifth of a class should consist of immigrant pupils. Separate classes may be formed where appropriate.
EE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The immersion methodology is used in compulsory education. Immersion classes adopt the integrated approach to subject learning; these classes have at least four lessons a week devoted to Estonian. ➤ Bilingual education for long-term immigrants (in some languages). 		
EL	In reception classes, 14 hours a week of intensive tuition in Greek is provided.	<p>Additional support classes are provided either for students who have not attended reception classes at all, or for those who, even after doing so, still have linguistic weaknesses.</p> <p>These classes may be offered for up to 10 hours a week.</p> <p>The School Teachers' Association is responsible for selecting the subjects to be taught, whereas decisions on the number of hours per subject, as well as the timetable and teaching materials are taken by the School Advisor in cooperation with the Association.</p>	
ES	Different language-learning support programmes are provided in certain educational establishments in Spain. Their organisation and duration vary depending on the Autonomous Community concerned.	Additional support to reinforce teaching of the basic subjects (like language and mathematics)	
FR	First of all oral French and then reading and writing (reception classes for pupils who have not previously attended school).		At least 15 pupils are required to form a reception class for pupils who have not previously attended school.
IE	Two hours a week are recommended, although schools can allocate more or less time according to individual pupil needs.		
IT	Intensive language tuition is organised at school or regional school office level, depending on the degree to which a school is autonomous, so what happens in practice varies widely. In all cases, however, pupils attend the lessons concerned within the regular school timetable.		Grouping by language (no more than five immigrant pupils in a given class).

	Language-learning support measures	Educational support measures	Smaller class sizes /special norms governing the composition of classes
	Intensive teaching of the language of instruction and/or bilingual tuition (the mother tongue and language of instruction)	Additional support for learning and/or adaptation of assessment	
CY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Establishment of three levels of knowledge of Greek. A formula has been developed to calculate the number of (40 minutes) periods a week of support teaching provided: up to five pupils of another mother tongue: 3 periods; between 6 and 10 pupils of another mother tongue: 6 periods; between 11 and 15 pupils of another mother tongue: 9 periods; between 16 and 20 pupils of another mother tongue: 12 periods. ➤ Use of bilingual teachers. 	Pupils only evaluated in language, history and mathematics.	
LV	A bilingual approach is used in schools implementing minority educational programmes.		
LT	Two lessons a week in addition to mainstream curricular provision.		Separate groups should consist of no more than 15 immigrant pupils.
LU	German and French (children aged under 10); German in reception classes (technical lower secondary education); French in integration classes (technical lower secondary education).		
HU	No support measures for immigrant children.		
MT	No support measures for immigrant children.		
NL	<p>Reception classes: provision depends on the proficiency of individual pupils. Those who have mastered Dutch to a sufficient level are taught in mainstream education.</p> <p>International transition classes: provision depends on the proficiency of individual pupils. Those who have mastered Dutch to a sufficient level are taught in mainstream education.</p> <p>Special language classes: pupils receive one full year of intensive Dutch-language training.</p>		Additional allocations awarded to schools with pupils whose residential situation is irregular (for example, in order to reduce the size of classes).
AT	A maximum of 5 or 6 class periods a week for immigrant pupils who are subject to normal assessment requirements ('matricular pupils'); a maximum of 12 class periods a week for immigrant pupils exempt from such requirements ('extra-matricular pupils')(in the first two years). In practice, there are often no more than 2 class periods a week.	'Extra-matricular pupils' not bound by normal assessment requirements.	

	Language-learning support measures	Educational support measures	Smaller class sizes /special norms governing the composition of classes
	Intensive teaching of the language of instruction and/or bilingual tuition (the mother tongue and language of instruction)	Additional support for learning and/or adaptation of assessment	
PL	At least two class periods a week.		At least 15 pupils required to establish 'preparatory' classes. Under 15 pupils for the provision of additional Polish-language classes.
PT	The schedule is established by each individual school (in accordance with its strategy and resources).	Schools are free to plan this type of support as they wish.	
SI	184 class periods a year (corresponding to four hours during the day twice a week).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Compensating for linguistic and academic weaknesses. ➤ Special assessment plan. 	
SK	Intensive teaching is organised in courses with 184 teaching hours a year (four hours three times a week).		No more than 10 pupils (and a minimum of 4) for Slovak-language classes.
FI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The syllabus for Finnish (or Swedish) as a second language, as defined by the national core curriculum, is based on an equal number of weekly lessons a year, as is the syllabus for the mother tongue. However, the scope of instruction is determined by the local curriculum. ➤ The Basic Education Act also authorises the provision of education, in whole or in part, in the mother tongue of immigrants. Some municipalities have offered either bilingual or mother tongue provision in Arabic, Somali, Russian, Vietnamese and Estonian. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Curriculum support in various subjects may also be offered to immigrant pupils in their mother tongue. ➤ The background of pupils and their progress in Finnish/Swedish is also taken into consideration when assessing them in other subjects. To reduce the impact of possible weaknesses in the language of instruction, versatile and flexible methods of assessment are used. 	
SE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Tuition is organised in special groups or during parts of the school day. ➤ Guided study (in Swedish or the pupil's mother tongue). 	Guided study (in Swedish or the pupil's mother tongue): extra help given by a support teacher who often brings together a small group of pupils in need of further assistance for special lessons, but the same teacher may also help individual pupils during their mainstream classes.	
UK-ENG/WLS/NIR	Individual schools/pre-school education centres and local authorities are free to decide how best to meet the needs of the young people concerned.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ The support offered might be support for learning English or support for other curriculum subjects or both. There is now an emphasis on learning English 'across the curriculum'. ➤ National tests and qualifications include special arrangements for children who, for example, have limited fluency in English. 	

	Language-learning support measures	Educational support measures	Smaller class sizes /special norms governing the composition of classes
	Intensive teaching of the language of instruction and/or bilingual tuition (the mother tongue and language of instruction)	Additional support for learning and/or adaptation of assessment	
UK-SCT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ No central guidelines. Language support is generally provided by specialist, peripatetic language support teachers. ➤ Classes using the foreign language as a medium (example of measures that may be introduced by the local authorities). 	Support for learning is provided within mainstream classes where possible as part of mainstreaming of additional support needs policy. It is normally delivered by specialist staff from within the school (except for smaller schools where provision may be the responsibility of peripatetic teachers).	
IS	Two hours a week for teaching Icelandic.		
LI	(:)		
NO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Pupils whose mother tongue is not Norwegian or Sami are entitled to receive education in Norwegian as a second language. The frequency of this provision varies but, as a general rule, it is almost daily. <p>Pre-primary level: there is no obligatory language learning for immigrant children. The new grant earmarked for improving the language skills of children under school age with a minority language background, will be used differently in the municipalities, depending on different local circumstances.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Content and language integrated learning in certain subjects using Norwegian in addition to the pupil's mother tongue. <p>Pre-primary level: bilingual assistants play an important part in assisting immigrant children in early childhood education and care facilities, by helping them to understand Norwegian and become more proficient in their mother tongue.</p>		
BG	No support measures for immigrant children.		
RO	Four class periods a week.	Curriculum support is provided, in addition to the normal school programme, when on the evidence of their attainment levels pupils find it hard to adapt to learning activity, or have insufficient knowledge of Romanian. With parental consent, school heads may decide either to transfer pupils to a lower class, or retrain them in the Romanian language.	

Source: Eurydice.

Figure 2.2: References for main legislative provisions currently in force for support measures for immigrant children. Pre-primary and full-time compulsory education

BE fr	Decree concerning the integration of pupils new to education provided or grant aided by the French Community (14 June 2001).
BE de	Decree of 17 December 2001 concerning provision for pupils new to education in the German-speaking Community (<i>Moniteur belge/Belgisch Staatsblad</i> of 4 April 2002).
BE nl	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>Besluit van de Vlaamse regering van 17 juni 1997 betreffende de personeelsformatie in het gewoon basisonderwijs, art. 21, 22 en 23</i> (order ... concerning staff training for pre-primary and primary education). ➤ <i>Besluit van de Vlaamse regering van 24 mei 2002 inzake de organisatie van onthaalonderwijs voor anderstalige nieuwkomers in het gewoon voltijds secundair onderwijs</i> (order ... concerning the organisation of reception education for newcomers to full-time secondary education). ➤ <i>Decreet van 28 juni 2002 betreffende gelijke onderwijskansen-I</i>. (Decree concerning equal educational opportunities, 28 June 2002.)
CZ	<p>Methodological Directive of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports on Establishing Preparatory Classes for Socially Disadvantaged Children and the Position of Educator/Teacher Assistant, No. 25 484/2000-22.</p> <p>Regulation on Education of Foreigners at Basic Schools, Upper Secondary Schools and Tertiary Technical Schools including Special Schools, No. 21 836/2000-11.</p> <p>Methodological Directive on School Attendance of Asylum Seekers, No. 10 149/2002-22.</p>
DK	The Act on the <i>Folkeskole</i> from 2003, §5, sections 6 and 7.
DE	In 2003, pre-school language promotion programmes were adopted.
EE	No specific legislation on special support measures for immigrant children.
EL	Joint Decision of the Ministry of Education and Ministry of the Economy Φ10/20/Γ1/708, ΦΕΚ 1789, τ. Β, 28 September 1999.
ES	Article 42 of the 2002 Organic Law on the Quality of Education (LOCE).
FR	Ministry of Education special <i>Bulletin officiel</i> No. 10 of 25 April 2002, concerning the education of newcomers to France whose mother tongue is not French.
IE	<p>Integrate Ireland Language and Training (IILT) was established in 1998 as the Refugee Language Support Unit under the aegis of the Centre for Language and Communication Studies at the University of Dublin, Trinity College.</p> <p>Decision of the Minister for Education and Science of 24 January 2000 concerning provision for non-English speaking pupils in primary schools.</p>
IT	Presidential Decree No. 394 of 31 August 1999 (Article 45, school registration) establishes the procedure for integrating immigrant pupils into the Italian education system, and enumerates the basic principles and regulations governing that procedure.
CY	<p>Decision 56.335 of 28 August 2002 states that support teaching is to be provided by each school with pupils whose mother tongue is not Greek.</p> <p>Decision 58.424 of 27 August 2003 states that instruction in the Greek language is to be provided free of charge to all pupils whose mother tongue is not Greek. Instruction will take place during school hours or in the afternoon.</p>
LV	Education Law (1998) and Law on General Education (1999) contain provisions on education for ethnic minorities.
LT	The revised Law on Education of the Republic of Lithuania adopted in June 2003 devotes considerable attention to the education of immigrant children.
LU	In 1997, the Ministry of Education set up a department for the education of immigrant children, which coordinates school-based measures to integrate children of foreign mother tongue. The Guidelines for this policy are set out in the document 'Pour une école d'intégration: constats-questions-perspectives' ('striving for integration at school: facts, issues and prospects') published by the Ministry of Education in 1998. This document served as the basis for a policy debate in the Chamber of Deputies in November 2000, during which a 24-point motion was adopted (Motion adopted by the Chamber of Deputies during the debate on integration at school, 29 November, 2000). The aims and measures set out in this motion are being steadily achieved and implemented by the Ministry of Education.
HU	No support measures for immigrant pupils.
MT	No support measures for immigrant pupils.
NL	<p>Local Compensatory Education Act (<i>Wet GOA</i>, 1998), under which the government has decentralised education policy for disadvantaged pupils, to local authorities. Municipal authorities with a certain proportion of disadvantaged children are allocated a specific budget to improve provision for them.</p> <p>According to the Decree on Education for Aliens (17 July 2003), municipalities may claim a government subsidy to organise educational provision for asylum seekers' children, provided certain conditions are met.</p>

AT	Curricula for German as a second language (GSL) for primary school children have been in force since the 1992/93 school year (BGBl. 528/1992). The GSL curriculum for general secondary schools was revised in 2000 (BGBl. II Nr. 134/2000). It is identical to the curriculum for the first phase of academic secondary schools (BGBl. II Nr. 133/2000).
PL	The Act of 21 December 2000 amending the Act on the Education System. The Regulation by the Minister of National Education and Sport of 4 October 2001 on the admission of persons with no Polish citizenship in public pre-schools, schools, teacher training institutions and units.
PT	The Order in Council 219/97 of 20 August 1997, which defines the model of equivalences, facilitates the immediate integration of immigrant pupils into the school system by allowing conditional enrolment so that they can attend school without delay. Schools must identify, offer, and manage specific measures for the diversification of the curriculum (Order in Council 6/ME/2001 of 18 January 2001).
SI	The Elementary School Act (1996) states that Slovene may be taught to immigrant children. In compliance with the Order on norms, standards and elements for the allocation of posts, which is the basis for organising and financing the 9-year Elementary School Programme from State Budget Resources (Official Gazette, No. 27/1999), schools for immigrant pupils must apply to the Ministry of Education which in each individual case approves a certain number of hours of individual or group support for pupils.
SK	The concept of integrating and educating immigrants is established by the Government Resolution of the Slovak Republic No. 105/1996 – Complex Solution to the Problem of Integrating Foreigners into Society. Law No. 408/2002 of Law Code whereby the Law 313/2001 of Law Code on public service is changed and amended. There is a section on the education of the children of foreigners.
FI	According to the Basic Education Act (628/1998), municipalities and other bodies authorised to provide education may arrange preparatory teaching for basic education. The provisions for bilingual education and teaching of Finnish (or Swedish) as second languages are included in the same Act.
SE	These support measures are included in each legislative text on all school forms for all school levels.
UK	In England, Wales and Scotland, the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 puts a general duty on public bodies, including Education Authorities in respect of the schools they manage, to eliminate unlawful racial discrimination, and to promote equality and good race relations. Specific duties were drawn up to support the general duty; these include the requirement for all schools to have a race equality policy, and for schools to assess and monitor the impact of their policies on staff, pupils and parents of different racial groups, including the impact on attainment levels. Separate legislation applies in Northern Ireland – the Race Relations (NI) Order 1997 and Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. In England and Wales, the Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant (EMAG) replaced the education element of the Home Office Section 11 grant in 1999. In England, the Vulnerable Children Grant, which amalgamates and builds on existing grants, was introduced in April 2003 to give local authorities and schools greater flexibility to respond to the immediate educational needs of children of asylum seekers and others. The Scottish Executive launched 'Welcoming Newcomers' in January 2002. This is a resource to support schools in sharing good practice in integrating asylum seekers and refugees, and also in dealing with particular issues such as bullying and racial harassment.
IS	Under Ministry Regulation No. 391/1991, all immigrants are entitled to two hours of special Icelandic-language teaching per week. In primary/lower secondary schools, this service is extended to all immigrant pupils aged 6 to 16. Since 1999, the National Curriculum Guidelines have included provisions on special Icelandic-language tuition for pupils whose mother tongue is not Icelandic.
LI	(:)
NO	Norwegian Act on education, §2-8, friskoleloven §3-5 (changed in June 2004).
BG	No support measures for immigrant pupils.
RO	Order of the Minister of Education and Research 4638/2001 concerning the approval of the methodological norms related to the schooling of immigrant children and provision for the corresponding qualified teaching staff. Governmental Ordinance 44/2004 concerning the social integration of foreigners who have received a form of protection in Romania.

Source: Eurydice.

Figure 2.3: Training of staff responsible for implementing measures to support immigrant pupils. Pre-primary and full-time compulsory education, 2003/04

	Person responsible for support (other than the class teacher)	Special initial training	Special compulsory in-service training
BE fr	Support teacher (both in mainstream and transitional classes).	NO	For all teachers working or wishing to work in transitional classes.
BE de	Support teacher (both in mainstream and transitional classes).	NO	For all teachers working with immigrant pupils who have recently joined transitional or mainstream classes.
BE nl	Support teacher (both in mainstream and transitional classes).	NO	Additional financing to develop in-service training schemes under the equal opportunities policy.
CZ	An educator/teacher assistant helps regular teachers in class with a larger number of socially disadvantaged pupils. He must be older than 18, and should have at least successfully completed basic education. The training includes 40 observation lessons, and 80 lessons of an accredited course in basic teaching methodology.	NO	NO
DK	Support teacher.	NO	NO
DE	Qualified teacher (for language promotion groups in the kindergarten). Language teacher (for special classes/courses).	Teaching qualification in German and/or in 'German as a foreign language'.	NO
EE	Specially trained teacher (in mainstream and national reception classes).	Specialised training of teachers in Estonian as a second language is part of both initial and in-service teacher training.	
EL	Class teacher with additional qualifications or specialist teacher employed by the State (in mainstream classes, extracurricular preparatory courses, and special learning groups).	Knowledge of the mother tongue and culture of origin of the immigrant pupil is essential.	For all teachers.
ES	Support teacher, curriculum support teacher (both types of teacher work in either permanent external classes or transitional classes).	NO, but in the compensatory class groups (consisting mainly of immigrants), teachers do receive special initial training.	For all teachers.
FR	Teacher who has been trained to teach French as a second or foreign language (in introductory classes and reception classes for pupils who have not previously attended school).	NO, but many teachers with initial training in French as a foreign language are often recruited as a priority.	Training in French as a foreign language.
IE	Language support teacher (in mainstream classes and under the withdrawal system).	Integrated Ireland Language and Training (IILT) set up in 1998 mainly under in-service training. However, it also inputs into certain initial teacher education courses, by invitation of the institution concerned.	
IT	Only the class teacher.	NO	
CY	Bilingual teacher (in some schools). Class teacher whose working time is reduced. Bilingual pupils who are Cypriot nationals.	NO	For all teachers.
LV	Only the class teacher.	NO	Specialised training of teachers in Latvian as a second language.

	Person responsible for support (other than the class teacher)	Special initial training	Special compulsory in-service training
LT	Support teacher (working closely with the class teacher in classes in which immigrant pupils do not understand the language of instruction).	Special courses during initial teacher education and in-service training from 2003 onwards.	
LU	Solely the class teacher.	NO, but in initial teacher education and the continuous professional development of teachers, courses on managing mixed group classes, the reception of pupils new to Luxembourg, communication with parents, and differentiated teaching, etc. are optional.	
HU	No support measures for immigrant pupils.		
MT	No support measures for immigrant pupils.		
NL	Support teacher.	Special courses during initial teacher education and in-service training.	
AT	Support teacher. Teacher of immigrant origin.	Optional	Optional
PL	Teachers who have undergone special in-service training. They are delegated by the school head and, in most cases, are Polish language teachers.	NO	Special training in teaching Polish as a foreign language.
PT	Only the class teacher.	NO	Master's qualification and actions for language teachers, in teaching Portuguese as a second and foreign language.
SI	A specially trained teacher in additional and mainstream classes (if there are over three immigrant pupils in the mainstream class).	Knowledge of the one or more native languages.	Organisation of seminars (prior to the reception of immigrant pupils) on different aspects of their culture.
SK	A specially trained teacher (in centres for asylum seekers and in the 'zero grade' of primary schools).	Initial training in the theory and practice of teaching, psychology, or social work.	Special language training.
FI	A network of support teachers for matters relating to the education of immigrant children.	Special study modules and courses during initial and in-service teacher education and training.	
SE	Support teacher.	They have studied Swedish as a second language, or the mother tongue of the students.	NO, but further education for teachers in Swedish as a second language or for teaching bilingual children is provided at several universities in Sweden.
UK-ENG/ WLS/NIR	Support teacher. (Bilingual) classroom assistant. Mentor.	NO	Provision varies.
UK-SCT	Bilingual support staff.	NO	NO
IS	A peripatetic teacher in Reykjavik.	NO	
LI	(:)		

	Person responsible for support (other than the class teacher)	Special initial training	Special compulsory in-service training
NO	The regular teacher is normally in charge. Pre-primary level: there may be bilingual assistants, teaching staff or others, in accordance with the wishes of each municipality.	All basic teacher education has to develop competence in working with immigrant children. In addition, teachers are able to specialise in this area by taking educational programmes that vary in length. For teachers of the mother tongue, there are separate requirements and paths through education. Pre-primary level: there is no mandatory training for bilingual assistants. The municipality may organise training courses, as may the universities and state university colleges.	NO, apart from the education of mother tongue teachers.
BG	No support measures for immigrant pupils.		
RO	Language teacher.	Special training during initial and in-service training.	

Source: Eurydice.

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