

# **EPASI** Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

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## Educational Policies that address Social Inequality

### Country Report: Luxembourg

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# Education Policies to Tackle Social Disadvantage: Luxembourg Country Report

Luxembourg is a small country of about 2,586m<sup>2</sup> surrounded by Germany in the east, Belgium in the west and France in the south. The political system is a representative democracy presenting a constitutional monarchy. The districts are the only implementation of territorial decentralisation. In spite of a limited area this country has got some specific characteristics quite influential on the policies and the national: multilingualism with three administrative languages (Luxembourgish, French and German) and an important immigrant population<sup>1</sup>. According to the UNO this double originality is 'a source of wealth' and in the meantime 'a heavy mortgage' for the school in Luxembourg<sup>2</sup>.

As part of a study led by the University of Liège on the right of minorities in eighteen European countries, the uniqueness of the Grand Duchy in the management of minorities has been raised several times (Colla and Marique 1994). Luxembourg does not recognise – either in its constitution or in its legislation – the presence of 'minorities' on its territory and thus the necessity to confer them a specific protection, even though 20 percent of pupils are Portuguese.

Adopting an inclusive position in this field – rather like the French position and its opposition to a multicultural approach – the country favours the idea of belonging to the national community of Luxembourg without any distinction of race, colour or religion (United Nations 1992). So Luxembourg does not directly and unequivocally settle the fate of 'minorities' on its territory and the constitutional measures do not mention this issue. The Grand Duchy just keeps protecting indirectly the minorities by maintaining the principle of equal rights and non-discrimination. But for all that, the experts who prepared the aforementioned report note that 'an outright implementation of these rules will not always allow to protect enough and in a satisfying way the minority groups, nor certainly to take into account their distinctive features or their specific interests. Sometimes the implementation of the principle of equal rights could even lead rather paradoxically in the discrimination as regards some minorities' (Colla and Marique 1994).

## 1 - The educational system in Luxembourg

In accordance with the Constitution of Luxembourg, the State organises and controls education. In the Grand Duchy, the length of compulsory schooling is still eleven years, two years of pre-school education, six years of primary education and three years of secondary school<sup>3</sup>. Education is in German and in French<sup>4</sup>. The public school system is free and costs are covered by the public budget.

In Luxembourg, some schools follow the curriculum of the Ministry of Education. They are public institutions and private schools subsidised by the State: this kind of organisation forms the majority of the educational scene in Luxembourg. Other schools do not have to follow the curriculum of the Ministry of Education: they are mainly financed by private funds (MENFP 2007).

As regards public education (and in summary), the administrative structure in Luxembourg revolves around the Ministry of Education, Vocational Training and Sports, which develops bills, plans and

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<sup>1</sup> Luxembourg now counts a population of 420,000 inhabitants, with a rate of foreigners of around 33.4 and around 120 nationalities have been registered; some studies value an average of half a million of inhabitants for 2050 and an average annual net immigration between 1,500 and 2,000 residents (STATEC issue 8/1995).

<sup>2</sup> ONU, <http://www.un.org/esa/agenda21/natlinfo/countr/luxem/social.htm>

<sup>3</sup> A bill (du 13-09-2007) relating to the reform on compulsory education plans to extend it from 11 to 12 years old (so from 4 to 16 years old)

<sup>4</sup> [http://www.gouvernement.lu/tout\\_savoir/education\\_recherche/systeme\\_scolaire.html](http://www.gouvernement.lu/tout_savoir/education_recherche/systeme_scolaire.html)

manages the budgets – if they are State controlled – and carries out the management control of funded public and private institutions. The *Conseil supérieur de l'Éducation* (Education Council) is the general consultative body for the whole education, and the Luxembourg National Education Committee (Commission grand-ducale d'Instruction) authorises school textbooks and gives its opinion on 'theory and general interest' issues submitted by the Secretary of State for Education. At the local level, school boards – under local council authority - supervise the education.

The Luxembourg educational system is officially based on<sup>5</sup>:

### ***Early education***

Optional early education targets three-year-old children. Early education puts the stress on the development of language, oral and social, physical and motor, emotional and cognitive abilities through a play-based approach to language, adapted to the age and to the needs of each child. For immigrant children, one of the priorities is the familiarisation with the language and the culture of Luxembourg. Such a contact with Luxembourgish makes the learning of German easier. This is essential within the educational system of Luxembourg, as the literacy tuition is in German.

### ***Pre-school education***

Pre-school education ('kindergarten') is compulsory for children over four years of age before September 1<sup>st</sup>; the educational position is to get close to the family atmosphere: theoretical and subject education is absent.

### ***Primary education***

Any child who is over six years of age before September 1<sup>st</sup> must follow primary education. Compulsory education for nine years from this age was introduced in 1912. Primary education includes six years of studies, and consists of: German, French and Luxembourgish languages; mathematics; geography; history; introduction to sciences; biology; information technology; art and music education; physical education; religious and moral instruction.

### ***Secondary education***

Secondary education offers various choices to pupils between 'classic education' and 'technical education': except for language training, the syllabus is the same for both. 'General education' is a preparation for higher education. It includes seven years divided into two levels. Secondary technical education is divided into three cycles: lower, medium (leading to getting an official diploma, the Craft certificate (*Certificat d'aptitude technique et professionnel*), and upper, which is subdivided into 'professional system', 'medium system' and 'technical system', whose final diploma enables student to follow higher education and university studies.

### ***University education***

The University of Luxembourg ([www.uni.lu](http://www.uni.lu)) was established in 2003. It comprises three faculties: the Faculty of Science, Technology and Communication; the Faculty of Law, Economics and Finance; the Faculty of Letters, Mathematical Sciences, Arts and Education. In addition Luxembourg offers other opportunities of higher education (postgraduate studies, MBA [Master of Business Administration] and *Graduate Professional Certificate* curriculum).

The educational system of Luxembourg is characterised by its current and deep reforms, which are now seen as an overdue necessity. NGOs have been calling for significant changes for several years, objecting to a series of pernicious effects that were a consequence of government education: school failure, discrimination against the children of immigrant workers and disabled people, inequality in the setting up of the early education system, a lack of willingness to enter into political

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<sup>5</sup> Source : [http://www.gouvernement.lu/tout\\_savoir/education\\_recherche/systeme\\_scolaire.html](http://www.gouvernement.lu/tout_savoir/education_recherche/systeme_scolaire.html)

dialogue with the organisations of civil society and a lack of willingness to initiate structural reforms (Coalition Nationale pour les droits de l'enfant Luxembourg 2005).

The recent assessment of the PISA study concluded that 'the educational system of Luxembourg is among the most inequitable system at the European level, not to say at the international level', noting in particular huge gaps between the performance – compared with other European countries – of pupils 'of Luxembourg' and 'foreign' pupils, and also between pupils from 'privileged classes' and 'underprivileged classes' (MENFP, PISA 2006). We now consider the public and educational management of inequalities and of discrimination relating to gender, disability, ethnic, religious affiliation or linguistic group.

**Table 1 - Distribution of the pupils for school year 2004/2005**

Order of teaching	Public education	Subsidised private education	Not-subsidised and international private education	Total
Early education	3,410		81	3,491
Pre-school education	10,441		868	11,309
Primary school education	32,346	240	2,176	34,762
Special teaching	254			254
Differentiated education	749			749
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>47,200 (93.3%)</b>	<b>240 (0.5%)</b>	<b>3,125 (6.2%)</b>	<b>50,565 (=100%)</b>

Source: Luxembourg Ministry of Education. General statistics for school year 2004/2005

## 2 - The educational system of Luxembourg as regards school inequalities in terms of gender

The first problem concerning inequalities relating to gender is the lack of disclosure of information in social activities. The appropriate procedures to collect data according to gender in Luxembourg were until very recently insufficient (ACORD 2003). There is still a significant gap, characteristic of Luxembourg, in the quality of the statistical system, in particular in terms of employment, unemployment and work organisation, when analysed by gender and other basic variables. In spite of these difficulties, some reports have highlighted an under-representation of women, for example in the field of employment or in the decision making process in companies, a phenomenon indirectly questioning the effects of earlier education and training processes (ACORD 2003).

The few existing statistical studies do not necessarily provide a convergent analysis: some note that in Luxembourg – contrary to most European countries – girls are more affected by dropping out of school than boys, while other analyses refute this trend (MENFP 2006 (1)). As part of the implementation of the community based program EQUAL, the data collected seem to reinforce that school drop-outs are mainly boys (56.3 percent against 43.7 percent), and that girls tend to resume their studies (MENFP 2006 (1)).

However it is also suggested that women's disparity in the labour market originates in an initial lack of diversification of occupational choices for girls. Indeed, if the statistics prove that the access for girls to different education levels is equal to that of boys – that they succeed better than boys – schools and professional choices for girls and boys remain different. For example, the number of girls in the mathematics/physics department is low (33 percent); in electro-technology, computer and mechanics, the percentage of girls is below 5 percent (ACCORD 2003). In the light of these inequalities of access, the national policy in Luxembourg in favour of equality in education and training stresses the need to promote the diversification of educational choices for girls and boys. The PISA study asserts that to stop the unequal divide according to sex ruling math and science professions today, the curriculum must be developed to increase girls' skills and their motivation to learn mathematics and science (MEFP- PISA 2006).

For Luxembourg, the recent basic text which considers the problem of inequalities related to gender within education and training is the National Action Plan on Gender Equality (Plan d'Action National d'Égalité des femmes et des hommes). The targets of this are the 'introduction of equality between men and women as one of the principle of any education, training, educational and professional guidance', the 'equal promotion of women and men and [the development] of new methods to achieve it', thanks to 'integration of the gender aspect in the policies and actions as regards education and training', and also 'to promote the diversification of school and professional choices for girls and boys'<sup>6</sup>.

Several measures are proposed to promote equality between women and men in education and training. For example, the Plan seeks to fix the school mission to promote equality between women and men, to integrate gender in performance assessment, to analyse differences as regards girls and boys guidance and to take into account gender dimension in educational activities, etc. [see case study] (Ministère de l'Égalité des chances 2006).

**Table 2 - Gender Gap/Education**

Gender Gap/Education	Rank	Score	Sample average	Female	Male	Female-to-male ratio*
<b>Educational Attainment</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.000</b>	<b>0.929</b>			
Literacy rate	1	1.00	0.87	99	99	1.00
Enrolment in primary education	1	1.00	0.97	98	96	1.01
Enrolment in secondary education	1	1.00	0.92	86	82	1.05
Enrolment in tertiary education	1	1.00	0.86	11	10	1.12

\*0.00 = inequality; 1.00 = equality; Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2008: [www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/ggg08\\_luxembourg.pdf](http://www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/ggg08_luxembourg.pdf)

### 3 - The educational system of Luxembourg and taking care of 'pupils with special educational needs'

Taking care of pupils with special educational needs is tackled in several ways all over Europe. The first policy approach is the 'single track' chosen by some countries, where the practice is to include most pupils in common educational settings ('mainstreaming'). Another approach is found in countries where pupils with special educational needs are generally put in special schools or in special classes, where they do not follow the standard syllabus. An alternative group of countries has convergent integration and offers a range of services across both systems: Luxembourg belongs to this group (Metra 2005).

The difficulties met by disabled children and the link between their education and the reform of the educational system of Luxembourg have now attracted some media attention, particularly when a grouping of 14 associations working for disabled children lodged an appeal against an administrative court for a reform bill about primary education, which planned to abolish parents' right to choose an appropriate education for their children. Despite some criticism of the educational system, which can always be improved, disability has been addressed since 1973 by institutionally organised collaboration between different centres and institutes specialised in a differentiated education (DE) and the Ministry of Education. Meanwhile compulsory education for disabled children has been introduced.

With the 1989 law, local or regional DE centres are granted by the State. More recently, a reorientation of some centres towards integration into the classic educational system has been noted, and thus DE is now considered not as a parallel system, but truly as 'a differentiated supporting way to basic education', even though for some disabled children being integrated can be beneficial. The 1944 law on mainstreaming in Luxembourg specifies that 'school instruction of severely disabled children is done in specialised centres and institutes, some assistance and support measures are

<sup>6</sup> <http://www.men.public.lu/priorites/gender/index.html>

planned for disabled pupils and pupils with special educational needs within classrooms of pre-school education and basic primary education' (UNESCO 2004). In 2003-2004, differentiated education in Luxembourg was used for 775 pupils (Berg and Weis 2005).

If advice on a pupil about DE school is given in accordance with the principles recommended by the national commission (*Commission médico-psycho-pédagogique nationale-CMPPN*), the decision will remain in the hand of the parents of the child concerned, who have the right and the responsibility to choose the education they feel most adapted to their child. They can choose the complete integration of a disabled child in basic education; or the partial integration of a disabled child in a DE school and also, for some activities in a basic education classroom; they can also choose education to be wholly within a DE school or a specialised institution abroad<sup>7</sup>.

As regards DE, the Ministry of Education and vocational training in Luxembourg manages the organisation of this, which involves a large number of centres, institutes and services such as an ambulatory assistance<sup>8</sup>. These organisations are for pupils with special educational needs and who 'due to their mental, emotional, sensory or motor particularity are not able to follow in a basic education classroom'. The action is also meant for children in basic education classrooms, and for other school age children when parents and teachers notice a psychological, educational or school problem. Even if the DE can substitute for pre-school and primary education, the experiments of living together and the integration concern, in accordance with the ministerial directive of 1991, are given priority. The centres and the institutes work closely with the educational institutions and the cooperation between differentiated education and pre-school education, or even primary education, is increasing.

Differentiated education allows a small number of pupils to undertake independent learning, adapting what is to be learnt to the special educational needs of each pupil. Groups are supervised by teachers, youth workers, nurses and other socio-educational or rehabilitation workers. The professionals also help parents or teachers in case of school, educational and/or psychological problem of the child.

#### **4 - The educational system of Luxembourg and the management of 'foreign' minorities**

Over the past twenty years four countries have experienced an influx of immigrants as a proportion of the total population of over 1.5 percent for several consecutive years: Germany, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Iceland. Luxembourg has experienced the highest increase of immigrant influx (more than 2 percent). These movements met demographic needs and the shortage of labour generated by strong economic growth (European Commission 2004). Today the population of Luxembourg is of 480,000 inhabitants (2007 estimate) and comprises more than a hundred nationalities. Yet, it seems difficult to talk of specific minorities in Luxembourg as, *a fortiori* 'ethnics', because such groups are not acknowledged in Luxembourg law (United Nations 1992). Moreover, the 2002 law on personal data protection prohibits any reference to ethnic or religious origins except to nationality: the only data that can be obtained relates to nationality.

European Union residents represent the great majority of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg non-native population. According to the report *European Network against racism*, in 2004, of the 38.6 percent of the total population who were foreign residents, 63.8 percent were Portuguese, 21.9 percent French, 18.9 percent Italian and 16 percent Belgian. While in 1991 Portuguese nationals were only 39.1 percent of the foreign population, by 2004 this percentage reached 63.8 percent. The

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<sup>7</sup> For this part, most information come from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training of Luxembourg; [http://www.men.public.lu/sys\\_edu/ediff/index.html?highlight=handicap](http://www.men.public.lu/sys_edu/ediff/index.html?highlight=handicap)

<sup>8</sup> The "Service de Guidance de l'Enfance (SGE)" and the "Service rééducatif ambulatoire (SREA)"

proportion of residents coming from outside of the Union has been increasing since 1991, but they are still a minority in the Grand Duchy; in 2004 they represented 25.5 percent of the foreign resident population. The largest communities from other countries settled in Luxembourg come from former Yugoslavia (labour agreements), from North America and Cape Verde islands. The massive arrival of refugees following the war in the Balkans (Montenegro, Serbia, and Kosovo), family reunification and the regularisation of illegal immigrants in 2001 also contributed to the increase of non-Union residents, cross-border inhabitants and asylum-seekers (Petersheim 2004).

To complete this short description, one must add the Gypsies, of whom there are around 250 to 500 living in Luxembourg. They arrived mainly in the 1990s with asylum-seekers, and they seem to be quite well integrated in Luxembourg's society; 'they do not want to be 'identified' and do not want to be labelled as Gypsies or Travellers' (Petersheim 2004). Finally the statistics about the evolution of asylum-seekers by country/region of origin show a sharp increase in the number of people coming from the African continent (Petersheim 2004).

According to UNESCO, most immigrant groups do not necessarily mix with the native population, or with other migrant groups, but form closed communities (UNESCO 2004). In addition, even if the expression of racism, xenophobia, anti-Semitism or intolerance does not appear to be alarming in Luxembourg, no large-scale survey has been carried out and it is very difficult to get at accounts of racism or racial violence from the victims (Petersheim 2004). And if 'no case of racist act or words has been registered by the Ministry of Education', the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination of the UNO however note that racist and xenophobic incidents, in particular towards some Arabs and Muslims, as well as the behavioural discrimination towards some ethnic groups still exist in the country (United Nations 2005).

In any case, the dynamic influx of population and the proportion of foreigners is a distinctive feature in the Grand Duchy, which has led to an almost proportional transposition in the educational system, and this has generated some problems. Luxembourg shows an exceptionally high proportion of young immigrants: more than a third of the population below 15 is of foreign nationality (European Commission 2004). In most other European countries the most common pattern is that at least one parent of 15 year-old children has been born in the country: in Luxembourg two thirds of the population of 15 year-old pupils have a parent born outside the country. In addition, Luxembourg is exceptional with more than 9.5 percent of 15 year-old pupils going to school in a school attended by more than 10 percent immigrant pupils. We must also add the recent issue of asylum-seekers below 18 or 'unaccompanied foreign children below the age of 18' (95 at the end of 2004) (European Commission 2004).

In each country, the PISA analysis categorises three groups of pupils according to the children's and parents' place of birth: native pupils (ie pupils whose parents and themselves were born in the country of origin), pupils from the first generation (ie those who were born in the country of origin but not their parents) and the non-native pupils (ie those who were born abroad). Native pupils are mainly merged under the denomination of pupils 'native' (MEFP-PISA 2006). In Luxembourg, the population of 'foreign' pupils account for 33.5 percent and for PISA experts, the combination of the strong proportion of 'foreign' pupils and some important differences in results between 'native' and 'foreign' pupils make Luxembourg 'an unfair country'. The 'foreign' pupils' results also show that the educational system in Luxembourg has difficulties in integrating a significant immigrant population.

One reasons for this lies in the educational system, in particular in the management of multilingualism and the orientation process, which at the end of the primary education 'puts 'foreign' pupils at an unfair disadvantage'. There is a cumulative effect of a series of characteristics: birth place, socio-economic status and the language spoken at home. Amongst 'foreign' pupils there

are more underprivileged pupils and, conversely, ‘underprivileged’ pupils have more ‘foreign’ pupils than ‘privileged’ pupils. There is an interaction effect between the pupils’ birth place and their socio-economic background (PISA 2006).

Nevertheless, there is the political will in Luxembourg in favour of the integration of all pupils – notably young immigrant children – within the educational system. Some supporting measures are offered, according to need, to immigrant children, who have the right to education, regardless of their specific immigrant status or residency status. The object is to support integration measures, to avoid policies which might lead to a polarisation of society and to make sure that immigrant children are taken care of like Luxembourgish children. In its functioning, the school is the same for all, even if some measures are planned and organised to meet the specific needs of immigrant children (Unesco 2005). In this sense, Luxembourg implements some specific measures for the ‘firstly-arrived’, ie children who have just integrated the educational system and do not have any basic knowledge or very little of the language taught (European Commission 2004).

Thus one approach to support integration is the learning of the country’s languages. Initially the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, through the Schooling Department of Foreign Children (*Service de la scolarisation des enfants étrangers*), offers the service of intercultural mediators speaking Serbo-Croatian, Albanian, Russian, Portuguese, Cape-Verde or Chinese at the disposal of schools and parents (Petersheim 2004). The possibility of using people close to the heritage language of the child is meant to ease the transition from family to school culture (Unesco 2005). Within the educational system, the linguistic lever is favoured. For example, the very young are integrated in regular pre-school or primary classrooms where they learn Luxembourgish, German, French; if need be, some supporting lessons are also set up and mother tongue lessons (in Italian and Portuguese) have been included in the primary education syllabus since 1983-84.

Some measures are also taken to support the children of asylum-seekers. Their schooling is compulsory in the same way as it is for other children and teenagers, whatever their status: pending application for asylum, claim appeal, claim rejected. Children are integrated in regular classes with specific support, or in a welcome class for the newly-arrived. The Ministry of Education has developed a ‘School Passport’, a small portfolio in French, Serbo-Croatian and Albanian, summarising information on the schooling undertaken in the country of origin and in Luxembourg. This document is filled in when they arrive, in collaboration with an intercultural mediator. If there is a change of school, or a return to their country of origin, this can be used as an additional school report to provide information on the knowledge acquired in Luxembourg. Other strategies include the intensive language courses from Luxembourg Language Centre offered to children over 16, etc. The Schooling Department of Foreign Children closely collaborates with the Government Commissioner for the school integration of children of asylum-seekers (Unesco 2005).

Various private schools offer other possibilities, for example: the European School (different linguistic sections for children of European government officials), French-speaking Nursery and Primary School and the Lycée Vauban (training in French), the International School of Luxembourg (training in English), St George School (training in English).

The main challenge for education in Luxembourg is the provision of adequate schooling for the high number of immigrant children, whose linguistic origin is becoming increasingly heterogeneous. To combat potential difficulties, the efforts of public authorities are concentrated on the following objectives: to improve the continuity between different schooling levels (particularly the transition from primary to secondary education); to review skills assessment and particularly those for linguistic skills; to refocus the curriculum on the essential and to prioritise the implementation of knowledge; to improve the initial training and continuing education of teachers;

to grant more autonomy to schools; and to commit schools to organisational and educational development projects (Unesco 2005).

These reforms seem inevitable. Observers see that foreign children remain the most underprivileged group: this is shown by the 2006 EC report *Analysis of Progress: Towards the Lisbon Objectives in Education and Training*, taking EFT data as a basis. For Luxembourg, ‘the rate of school drop outs’ is 8.9 percent among the foreign residents’. In the Grand Duchy, contrary to other EU countries, the majority of ‘early school leavers’ are non-native. Compared to the parent population (67.4 percent of Luxembourgish), the Luxembourgish are under-represented among school drop outs, and the non-Luxembourgish are over-represented (38.5 percent among school drop outs in the true sense and 32.6 percent in the parent population (MEFP 2006 (1)).

These problems have existed for a long time, and most measures to date have not led to significant improvements for these children. The first reason is that the ‘policy of forced integration’ requires the learning of Luxembourgish and German, and these are not used at home nor in the child’s family circle; the second reason is ‘the negative teaching attitude’ implicit in putting forward German as initial language in which to learn reading and writing; thirdly, ‘the perfectionist education’ penalises mistakes and freezes progression by requiring a repeated year or exclusion (special or supporting class, exodus to foreign countries), combined to the lack of a real multicultural policy (Coalition Nationale pour les droits de l’enfant 2005).

The 2003 ENAR report suggest that there is no obvious racism in the field of education, but that ‘discrimination’ affects some pupils of foreign origin, because the school does not always take them into account. It must be emphasized that some children from the native population are also penalised by the current educational system and face important learning disabilities. The school is supposed to and must take into account the continuing evolution of immigration, as the wealth of the country is directly linked to it. The school will have to adapted its organisation to this in order to enable each child living in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg to have the same opportunities to succeed at school’ (Petersheim 2004).

**Table 3 - Distribution Luxembourgers-foreigners (school year 2004/2005)**

Order of teaching	Nationality				TOTAL	
	Luxembourg		Foreign			
Early education	1,996	4.2%	1,414	3.0%	3,410	7.2%
Pre-school education	5,897	12.4%	4,544	9.6%	10,441	22.0%
Primary school education	19,540	41.2%	13,046	27.5%	32,586	68.7%
Special teaching	82	0.2%	172	0.4%	254	0.5%
Differentiated education	429	0.9%	320	0.7%	749	1.6%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>27,944</b>	<b>58.9%</b>	<b>19,496</b>	<b>41.1%</b>	<b>47,440</b>	<b>100%</b>

Source: Luxembourg Ministry of Education. General statistics for school year 2004/2005

**Table 4 - Nationalities (school year 2004/2005)**

Nationality	Early education	Pre-school education	Primary school education	Special teaching	Differentiated education	Total	%
Luxembourg.	1,996	5,897	19,540	82	429	27,944	58.9%
Portuguese	699	2,285	6,882	128	203	10,197	21.5%
former Yugoslavian	112	557	1,641	8	13	2,331	4.9%
French	135	458	1,036	7	19	1,655	3.5%
Italian	102	268	901	4	30	1,305	2.8%
Belgian	98	252	619	2	9	980	2.1%
Deutsch	45	134	382		11	572	1.2%
Cape-Verde	14	35	223	5	5	282	0.6%
other	209	555	1,362	18	30	2,174	4.6%
<b>TOTAL foreigners</b>	<b>1,414</b>	<b>4,544</b>	<b>13,046</b>	<b>172</b>	<b>320</b>	<b>19,496</b>	<b>41.1%</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>3,410</b>	<b>10,441</b>	<b>32,586</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>749</b>	<b>47,440</b>	<b>100%</b>

Source: Luxembourg Ministry of Education. General statistics for school year 2004/2005

## 5 - The educational system of Luxembourg and religious minorities

Two factors are important in considering the link between education and religion in Luxembourg. First, the Constitution of Luxembourg defines (as well as freedom of worship and liberty of conscience) the relationship between Church and State by not defining any strict separation between the two. Secondly, there is no accurate data on religious choice (or choice not to profess a religion): thus there is no system explicitly dealing with the reduction of inequalities. In addition, the main religious minorities do not seem to face any major difficulty in Luxembourg (Petersheim 2004).

In his work on the links between Law and Religion within Europe, Messner explains that the 1868 Constitution of Luxembourg specifies in article 22 that ‘the Church and the State have passed an agreement’ (Messner 2004). This scope of this text initially concerned only the Catholic Church, but has applied since the late 1990s to all recognised faiths, after being successfully extended to the Protestant Reformed Church in 1982<sup>9</sup>. Since then, five agreements have been made between the Government of Luxembourg and the Archdiocese, the Jewish Communities, the Protestant Church of Luxembourg, the Hellenic Orthodox Church and finally the Archdiocese on the organisation of Catholic Religious Instruction in primary education.

These five agreements in 1997 (followed by parliamentary adoption in 1998) modified the relationship between state and religions. Messner concludes that the Conventional Law now ruling replaces the former system of recognised faiths and could affect other religious minorities. The group of Churches subsidised by the State includes the Orthodox Church. Unlike other countries, support is undifferentiated and all registered religions have the same advantages.

The educational system in Luxembourg has the great majority of primary and secondary education schools as public and non-denominational. But some private schools have a religious education role.

As the most widespread religion in Luxembourg is Catholic, these schools are logically and predominantly Catholic. In addition, if according to the law all recognised faiths (Catholicism, Protestantism, Judaism, Hellenic Orthodox worship) have the opportunity to provide religious education, because of the limited number and scattered nature of pupils only Catholic classes can be really integrated into the curriculum of public schools. There is also a special focus in the organisation of daily school life that adapts to the cultural and religious characteristics of immigrant children, for example, serving *halal* food for some children (Unesco 2004).

The formation of a private school is subject to very strict state control. To be recognised and receive some subsidies from the state, a private school must teach the same subjects as a public school and it must fulfil conditions about teaching objectives. The curriculum of registered private schools in theory corresponds to the official curriculum given by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. The 1912 Act on primary education and 1982 Act on the relationship between the State and private post-primary education determine the conditions that must be fulfilled for recognition. The State plays no part in appointing head teachers or employees in private schools, or in fixing tuition fees. The government controls the subjects taught and the curriculum. Article 3 of the 1982 Act stipulates that ‘no one can create, open or run a private post-primary school, if he does not have an authorization issued by the Grand Duchy decree, taken from a proposal from the Ministry of Education’ (Eurydice-Socrates 2000).

The 2007 Act on compulsory education stated that ‘in respect of pupils freedom of conscience and apart from religious and moral education classes, educational background does not give priority to

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<sup>9</sup> 23 November 1982 law mentioning the approval of the recognition convention on the Protestant Reformed Church of Luxembourg

any religious, philosophical or political doctrine' (art.4) and that 'except for a teacher teaching a class in religious and moral education, a teacher must not obviously display, in his dress or by any other signs, membership of any religious, philosophical or political group' (art.5).

## **6 - The educational system of Luxembourg and linguistic minorities**

The linguistic situation originates in the founding Act of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg in 1839: the country has always been characterized by plurilingualism, a term used following the distinction made by the Council of Europe between 'multilingualism' and 'plurilingualism'. Multilingualism refers to the presence, in a given large or small area, of several languages (forms of verbal communication, whatever its status); plurilingualism characterizes the ability of people and refers to the language register that the speaker can use, whatever the status of these languages at school and in the society. Trilingualism in Luxembourg (knowledge of German, French and Luxembourgish) is thus a particular form of plurilingualism (MENFP 2006 (3)).

This does not prevent (unlike as in most European constitutions) the Grand Duchy from determining the national language of the country, and does not officially recognise the plurilingualism of the country. The constitutional text, in article 29 of the 1948 revised Constitution, gives the legislature the authority to set the languages used in administration and the courts. The 1984 Act on the language system partially filled the historical gap, making Luxembourgish 'the national language' of the inhabitants. From then on, functionally French became the language written by elders, German that written and read by the working-class, and Luxembourgish gradually gained ground as the identity language (MENFP 2006 (3)). By avoiding the term 'official language', the 1984 Act maintains the vagueness set in 1948 while it also translates into trilingualism. Thus there is not, legally speaking, an official language in the Grand Duchy, but the language of the written legislation is French (art.2), while the administrative and legal languages are French, Luxembourgish and German (art.3). In fact, French is the administration language, above all when writing and in secondary schools (Leclerc 2008).

As far as 'multilingualism' is concerned, the 'languages of immigration' or the 'international languages' used by a great number of residents, are not referred to at all in the 1984 Act (Berg and Weis 2005). All this implies that Luxembourg has a complex and paradoxical linguistic situation, and explains the limits of the current system which do not satisfy any needs for social cohesion, the integration of residents, personal success or economic competitiveness.

In education, Luxembourgish is the teaching language in early education and pre-school education classes (Leclerc 2008). In primary education, this language is considered as an auxiliary language for literacy tuition during the first three semesters of the curriculum, but literacy tuition is in German. From the second semester of the 2<sup>nd</sup> year the oral teaching of French begins, and the written form is introduced from 3<sup>rd</sup> year of primary education. From the age of seven, education is in French and in German. Nearly half of teaching time is given to language learning. At secondary school the transition from unilingualism (all in Luxembourgish) to trilingualism (Luxembourgish – German – French) takes place. English is also taught in technical secondary education, and also choice from Latin, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese. The Luxembourg University adopted as a basic principle the 'multilingual character of its education'. Today, several private schools exist where education is given in the immigrants' mother tongue to pupils who – due to high tuition fees – mainly come from wealthy backgrounds (Leclerc 2008).

The educational complexity and the pupils' heterogeneity have paradoxical effects when mingled with linguistic policy. Even though some regret the lack of in-depth research into plurilingualism in

Luxembourg,<sup>10</sup> there are trends. Firstly, many pupils ‘acquire outstanding skills in several languages’, which proves the effectiveness of the language teaching for a significant number of young people. Secondly, the educational system does not ‘take enough into account individual capacities and the different linguistic realities of children’, and ‘the educational tools are not always adapted to the variety of situations and to the pupils’ heterogeneity in class<sup>11</sup>’.

In the country’s Language Education Policy Profile, the result of auto-evaluation and expert review, it is stated that ‘the formal education of two, three and four languages in the post-primary schools turns out to be too selective for most foreign pupils and for many Luxembourgish pupils’. The outcome is that ‘many pupils suffer from a considerable school disadvantage’, and ‘too many young people leave the educational system without any basic qualification or even with a truncated education following repeated failures’<sup>12</sup>. However, issues continue to change and the linguistic situation has become, as immigration becomes more diverse, more complex and sensitive.

The public debate is mainly about German, French and Luxembourgish, the three official languages, but the authorities point out that ‘it is nevertheless surprising that the other spoken languages in the Grand Duchy by a great part of the population, Portuguese or Italian but also other languages brought by recent immigration, are not the subject of in-depth reflections. While an important proportion of the population of Luxembourg (38.6 percent of foreigners) have a different culture and language than those of the native population, the other languages than the three common languages are not present in public debate’ (MENFP 2006 (3)).

The example of Portuguese, mainly spoken by immigrants, is particularly significant. It has a double status: simultaneously a not well-respected ‘sub-language’, not promoted and taught only outside the educational system, but at the same time the Portuguese language is a significant marker for belonging to a community and to a family group. As a result, the identity brought by the Portuguese language – the mother tongue of a great part of the population – must not be underestimated: “Portuguese parents are generally proud to pass down Portuguese to their children. For the Portuguese, family ties with the ones in Portugal and their annual return to the country are important practices. Thus nearly 80 percent of them attach importance to learn Portuguese. Today in Luxembourg, ambivalence in social recognition of Portuguese is certainly one of the critical issues in the social culture” (Berg and Weis 2005). Even if the divide between foreigners/Luxembourgish is not uniform in all education levels, we can note that amongst foreign pupils, the Portuguese (52.7 percent) and numerically the most important group (Berg and Weis 2005).

Even though some Portuguese and Italian classes have been included, little effort has been made to set up positive links between this practice of a mother tongue and schools. The support and development of skills in these ‘other’ languages are considered the private sphere, the consolidation or the development of these linguistic abilities not being an issue for public educational policy. On the contrary, compared to the elite habit of trilinguism, other languages seem to be the markers of additional factors of exclusion - or at least a marker of ‘social reproduction’ as described by Bourdieu. The role of linguistic capital in the selection operated by school, and the status granted – or not – to various schools thus is likely to have some discriminatory effects in the educational system<sup>13</sup>. The Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe warns: ‘In any case where the linguistic variety is not the maternal variety, we can expect that this situation might

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<sup>10</sup> MENFP Duché du Luxembourg-CESIJE, (2007), *Plan d’action pour le réajustement de l’enseignement des langues*, Dossier de presse 15 mars

<sup>11</sup> <http://www.men.public.lu/priorites/index.html>

<sup>12</sup> <http://www.un.org/esa/agenda21/natlinfo/countr/luxem/social.htm#edu>

<sup>13</sup> Council of Europe, *Guide for the Elaboration of Educative Linguistic Policies in Europe: from linguistic diversity to plurilingual education*, 2003, quoted in “Ministère de l’Education nationale et de la Formation professionnelle” (Ministry of Education and Vocational Training), Luxembourg, *Profil de la politique linguistique éducative: Grand-duché de Luxembourg*, Division des Politiques linguistiques, Strasbourg 2005-2006

bring some inhibition or some delay in the learning process of these children. They may take up the written form of their mother tongue later on'<sup>14</sup>.

Recent statistical reports illustrate the possible effects of this: more than 33 percent of pupils of Portuguese origin suffer educational disadvantage at primary school, against 14.4 percent of pupils of Luxembourgish origin<sup>15</sup>; whilst 44.8 percent of children of Luxembourgish nationality are directed towards general secondary education (the privileged track to get to the university) at the end of primary education, only 16.3 percent of pupils of Portuguese are guided towards these courses<sup>16</sup>; among these 16.3 percent of pupils of Portuguese, 25.2 percent have some insufficient marks in German at the end of the first class of secondary education, against 3.7 percent of pupils of Luxembourgish origin; the percentage is respectively of 13.6 and 12.4 in French and of 15.5 percent and 6.9 percent in mathematics<sup>17</sup>.

The arrival of immigrants from Italy, Portugal and Spain has shaken the educational system of Luxembourg, and the country is taking time to adapt to a new situation. For Leclerc (from the University of Laval-Québec) 'Portuguese, Spanish or Italian parents are focusing on what is familiar to them, ie Portuguese, Spanish or Italian classes, which can be arranged by the authorities from the country of origin during some free afternoons. Immigrants perceive school in Luxembourg as immovable and without prospects for their children' (Leclerc 2008).

The problems which generate educational inequalities are often linked to the difficulty in reconciling learning and literacy tuition in German to the role of the language of origin of the children of immigrants. For some, German is the way in which Gypsy speaking children are excluded from the educational system, during the transition to post-primary education, because their lack of an oral command of German deprives them of the baseline communications necessary for the acquisition of the written language (Berg and Weis C 2005).

French also has an ambiguous status. In one respect it is a prestige language, but sometimes Luxembourgish children coming from families with a lesser cultural knowledge and with French as a home language may fail overall. On the other hand, there are a number of important and varied French-speaking training programmes on offer, and this may seem an answer to integration issue for some children of immigrants. But the immigrant population is increasingly coming from East European countries, particularly from the Balkans, and for these children the French-speaking training is not an advantage (Berg and Weis C 2005).

These aspects show that plurilingualism can be, for some, a source of enrichment (giving a greater capital background, and the fluency to communicate and participate in the cultural life of several countries); for others, it will have a severely stigmatising effect, triggering negative career events. It may lead to semi-linguism, blocking the acquisition of language skills, and it can seriously prejudice language development and the social or even mental health of children or teenagers<sup>18</sup>. The consequences of resource issues, school failure and social exclusion means that the language policy helps shape a rather elitist education system, and the risk of a two-tier system.

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<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>15</sup> "Education préscolaire - Enseignement primaire et spécial - Education différenciée - Statistiques générales - Année scolaire 2002/2003, page 80" quoted in MENFP, (2006), *Profil de la politique linguistique éducative : Grand-duché de Luxembourg, Division des Politiques linguistiques*, Luxembourg : MENFP

<sup>16</sup> "Statistiques générales - Année scolaire 2002/2003, page 96" (quoted in 2006), *Profil de la politique linguistique éducative : Grand-duché de Luxembourg, op.cit.*

<sup>17</sup> "Enseignement secondaire général - Statistiques globales & Analyse des résultats scolaires - Année scolaire 2002/2003, page 35" quoted in MENFP, *Profil de la politique linguistique éducative..., op.cit.*

<sup>18</sup> *Ibid.*

In the face of this evidence, the *Plan gouvernemental pour la législature 2004-2009* (Government Action Plan for 2004-2009 Parliamentary Term) raised the question of language teaching: “in a linguistic situation getting more and more complex and sensitive, particularly due to the more diverse immigration, a readjustment of language teaching is becoming urgent” (MENFP 2006 (3)). Language teaching is now a ‘key modernisation process of the school in Luxembourg’ (Berg and Weis C 2005). The Profile of the Educational Linguistic Policy in Luxembourg puts forward a series of basic principles: for example, the need to approach language training in a “holistic way, that is, by including all the languages traditionally spoken in Luxembourg (mother tongues and lingua franca), and the languages of recent or formerly settled minorities and foreign languages” (MENFP 2006 (3)). For the policy makers, there are two objectives: ‘first it appears to describe the future generation by a continuous development of a high-level plurilingualism and to react simultaneously against the exclusion effect that the educational system in Luxembourg induces, in particular through language teaching. Therefore the quality of language knowledge and communicative abilities of young people, while avoiding that language schools requirements, do become insurmountable barriers to get a qualification and a job’ (Berg and Weis C 2005).

The Ministry of Education and Vocational Training has developed measures to minimise the negative effects of plurilingualism and to promote the integration of children, while at the same time protecting their cultural identity. Some integration measures concern the creation of ‘French lingua franca classes’, where subjects are taught in French and ‘integration classes’, where German and French learning are carried out by the intensive method. Other measures, arising from the debate on the integrated school, have been initiated in recent years, such as policies to better inform and increase the awareness of foreign language speaking parents through information and meetings. News bulletin for parents have been translated in several languages (Portuguese, English, Serbo-Croatian and Albanian) and intercultural mediators also play a significant role in teacher/parent communication (Berg and Weis C 2005). Recently the focus has been on intercultural education through, for example, early-learning language activities in various pre-school and primary classes.

**Table 5 - Spoken language and nationality, 2004/2005**

Spoken language (in family)	Nationality				TOTAL	
	Luxembourg		Foreign			
Luxembourg	25,072	91.1%	1,922	10.0%	26,994	57.8%
Other	2,443	8.9%	17,254	90.0%	19,697	42.2%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>27,515</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>19,176</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>46,691</b>	<b>100%</b>

Source : Luxembourg Ministry of education. General statistics for school year 2004/2005

## 7 - A summary of educational disadvantage in Luxembourg today: markers for inequality

In other EPASI country reports, educational disadvantage is considered in relation to seven indicators:

- Literacy levels,
- Exclusion/expulsion rates,
- Attainment levels at end of compulsory education,
- Continuing in education post compulsory leaving age,
- Participation rate in higher education,
- Employment rates,
- Evidence of social exclusion, being bullied, etc.

For Luxembourg the assessment is difficult with regard to these markers. Through the above description and analysis it has been suggested that the concept of ‘minorities’ is not found in Luxembourg. It has been suggested that the main sources of explicit inequality that are addressed

in schools are those linked to language, originally foreign language, and to a lesser extent, to gender. However, apart from measures relating to the organisation of private and parochial education, there are no specific measures that relate to religion, which does not seem to suffer any intense discrimination. Neither religious affiliation nor ethnic origin can be measures statistically in records on the population, as these categories are outside the scope of public policies. Nevertheless, in the areas indicated, some issues are being addressed under the logic of affirmative action.

In an IRSS study, Raileanu Szeles pointed out that few papers have investigated social exclusion in Luxembourg: most studies use cross-country comparisons to examine social exclusion in the European Union, based on the European Consortium Household Panel dataset. As Luxembourg is included in the ECHP, there are a few papers on social exclusion that provide data and results on social exclusion in Luxembourg, compared to other countries. They generally find that social exclusion in Luxembourg is not significant, and that social exclusion cannot be rated as contributing to a 'spiral of precariousness'. Estimates suggest that only 6 percent of the adult population was in social exclusion in the period covered by this IRSS study (1996-2000), while the proportion of deprived people is 13.7 percent. All those findings indicate that social exclusion is rather low. Most of the social exclusion determinants rely on labour market participation and family structure. Unemployment represents a cause, as well as a symptom of deprivation and social exclusion. The analysis revealed that deprivation and social exclusion have the same determinants: the household of single parents (especially single mothers), immigrants and less well-educated people are the most exposed groups at risk of deprivation as well as at risk of social exclusion (Raileanu Szeles 2007). The recent migratory influx poses problems about the migrants' insertion into cultural and social life, particularly at school: about a third of young people leave school without a diploma (drop out of school was 31 percent in 1997 according to LFS/Eurostat; and 20 percent for EU-15). The general educational level of 15 year old young people, as measured by the PISA study, is relatively low (pupils of Luxembourg achieve lower scores than the average of OECD<sup>19</sup>): for most analysts, Luxembourgish education remains a major element of exclusion<sup>20</sup>.

Changes in society and the reform process underway (in particular, the review the 1912 Act on primary education) make it difficult to present public authority intentions. Several experimental situations are underway, and it is necessary to consider their setting up, systems, pertinence and long-term efficiency. It seems that central and local government authorities in Luxembourg have realised both the contextual changes and the educational challenges: the increasing heterogeneity of the school population, the need for a balanced and less unfair policy on plurilingualism, a reduction in school failure and drop-out rates, the impact of social or cultural origins on educational progress in schools, and the increased struggle against inequalities<sup>21</sup>.

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<sup>19</sup> [http://www.gouvernement.lu/dossiers/education\\_jeunesse/pisa-pirls/index.html](http://www.gouvernement.lu/dossiers/education_jeunesse/pisa-pirls/index.html)

<sup>20</sup> for example : [http://www.forum.lu/pdf/artikel/4727\\_213\\_Groff.pdf](http://www.forum.lu/pdf/artikel/4727_213_Groff.pdf)

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<http://www.nationmaster.com/country/lu-luxembourg/edu-education>

## Appendix 1: Project Summaries

Theme	Project	Database Code	Subsidiary themes
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<a href="#">Intercultural Centre OASIS</a> / Centre de Rencontre multiculturel OASIS	267	L
	<a href="#">Welcoming unit for parents and children newly arrived in Luxembourg</a> / Cellule d'accueil scolaire pour les élèves nouvellement arrivés au pays (CASNA)	271	L
	<a href="#">Passe-partout Project</a> / Projet Passepartout	268	L
	<a href="#">Intercultural Mediators</a> / Médiateurs interculturels	272	L
	<a href="#">Project "Dat sinn ech – Das bin ich- Det er mig- Dit ben ik "</a> / Projet "Dat sinn ech – Das bin ich- Det er mig- Dit ben ik "	273	L
	<a href="#">Integration class for young adults (ICYA)</a> / Classe d'insertion pour jeunes adultes (CLIJA)	276	L
	<a href="#">Welcoming classes of technical secondary education</a> / Classes d'accueil de l'enseignement secondaire technique	280	L
	<a href="#">Promote the integration of foreign pupils – Boussole Project</a> / Promotion de l'intégration des élèves d'origine étrangère - Projet Boussole	285	L
<b>Socio-economic</b>	<a href="#">Grund socio-educational project</a> / Projet socio-pédagogique du Grund	277	EL
	<a href="#">The Kannernascht – ASTI “transition house”</a> /Le Kannernascht – “maison-relais” de l'ASTI	283	EL
<b>Religious Minorities</b>	/		
<b>Linguistic Minorities</b>	<a href="#">Plan of action for the readjustment of language teaching</a> / Plan d'action pour le réajustement de l'enseignement des langues	266	CE
	<a href="#">Allet Classes</a> / Classes Allet	274	E
	<a href="#">Integration classes in the Lycée Technique du Centre in Luxembourg</a> /"Classes d'intégration" - ou d'insertion - du Lycée Technique du Centre à Luxembourg	281	E
	<a href="#">School project Lycée Hubert Clement</a> / Projet d'établissement Lycée Hubert Clement	278	E
	<a href="#">DECOLAP Project</a> / Projet DECOLAP	282	E
	<a href="#">Included lessons in Italian and Portuguese mother tongue</a> / Cours intégrés en langue maternelle italienne et portugaise	284	E
	<a href="#">The Centre for Logopedics</a> / Le Centre de Logopédie	269	
<b>Disabilities</b>	<a href="#">The Ambulatory Rehabilitation Department (ARD)</a> / Service ré-éducatif ambulatoire (SREA)	270	
	<a href="#">Child Guidance Centre (CGE)</a> / Le Service de Guidance de l'Enfance (SGE)	279	
	/		
<b>Indigenous Minorities</b>	/		
<b>Gender</b>	<a href="#">National Action Plan for Gender Equality (NAPGE)</a> / Plan d'Action National d'Égalité des Femmes et des Hommes (PAEFH)	275	

Key: E ethnic minorities; C Socio-economic; R religious minorities; L linguistic minorities;  
D disability; I indigenous minorities; G gender

## Appendix 2: Project Overview

- ✓✓ Indicates main theme addressed
- ✓ Indicates additional themes also addressed

Project	Target age range						Target theme(s)					
	pre-school	primary	secondary	higher	working life	minority ethnic	Socio-economic	religious minority	linguistic minorities	disability	indigenous minorities	gender
<a href="#">Intercultural Centre OASIS</a>		✓	✓			✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Welcoming unit for parents and children newly arrived in Luxembourg (CASNA)</a>			✓	✓		✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Passepartout Project</a>			✓	✓	✓	✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Intercultural Mediators</a>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Project "Dat sinn ech – Das bin ich- Det er mig- Dit ben ik"</a>	✓	✓				✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Integration class for young adults</a>			✓	✓		✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Welcoming classes of technical secondary education</a>			✓			✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Promote the integration of foreign pupils – Boussole Project</a>	✓	✓				✓✓			✓			
<a href="#">Grund socio-educational project</a>	✓	✓				✓	✓✓		✓			
<a href="#">The Kannernascht – ASTI “transition house”</a>	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓✓		✓			
<a href="#">Plan of action for the readjustment of language teaching</a>	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓✓			
<a href="#">Allet Classes</a>		✓				✓			✓✓			
<a href="#">Integration classes in the Lycée Technique du Centre in Luxembourg</a>			✓			✓			✓✓			
<a href="#">School project Lycée Hubert Clement</a>			✓			✓			✓✓			
<a href="#">DECOLAP Project</a>	✓					✓			✓✓			
<a href="#">Included lessons in Italian and Portuguese mother tongue</a>	✓	✓				✓			✓✓			
<a href="#">The Centre for Logopedics</a>	✓	✓								✓✓		
<a href="#">The Ambulatory Rehabilitation Department</a>	✓	✓								✓✓		
<a href="#">Child Guidance Centre</a>	✓	✓								✓✓		
<a href="#">National Action Plan for Gender Equality</a>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓							✓✓