

EPASI Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

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Educational Policies that Address Social Inequality

Thematic Review: Ethnic Minorities

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1: What is meant by minority ethnic Status and educational disadvantage?

Overview

This thematic review examines how different European states frame policies to address issues of educational inequality affecting minority ethnic groups. This report aims to unpick the policy responses generated by differing nations and what they can tell us about how ethnicity, migration and debates about equity are framed in these states. It is important to acknowledge that different groups may be affected in different ways as are majority ethnic groups. Indeed it must also be noted that minority ethnic groups themselves are not homogenous and gender, social class and migration history also play a role in inequalities within and between different ethnic groups.

It takes as its starting point the contrasting ways that different states construct ethnic group difference, noting that conceptions of ethnic minority groups are conditioned by their history of migration, their immigration status, political influence and current and historical geo-political conditions. The review examines recent changes in Europe's demographics and goes on to explore the gaps in attainment between ethnic groups which have influenced changes in educational policy across the countries studied. The review then explores and looks in more detail at policies in place across Europe and examines the types of interventions proposed, using Nancy Fraser's work on social justice (Fraser 1997) to explore the assumptions and constructions that underpin them. The review concludes by proposing policy recommendations at national and local level for policy makers and practitioners.

Issues of definition form a key part of this theme. European policies and statistics use differing proxies for minority ethnic status; some focus on refugee groups, others on 'immigrant' groups (sometimes defined as current migrants and sometimes including EU nationals whose parents were migrants) and other data focuses on foreign nationals (also defined in differing ways including EU citizens living in another EU state).

Many European Community policies structure debates about ethnicity and immigration as differences between citizens (Member state nationals and other EU citizens) and 3rd country nationals (including long-term residents who have lived in the EU for more than five years). This makes the gathering of data on the children of immigrant background (who are themselves EU citizens) difficult and explains the difficulty in uncovering statistical data on outcomes for the young people in this report. Werner Haug (Haug 2003) explores the complexity of definition in relation to race and ethnicity arguing that statistical comparison across Europe in this area is fraught with complexity stemming from the divergent means by which countries collect and classify populations. The differing approaches range from the absence of data due to political resistance to data gathering (as explored below) to partial recognition (so data is collected for foreign nationals but not their children who may be also disadvantaged) or indeed data is collected on linguistic or religious difference but not collected on groups who may be from different racial groups but share the majority language or religion. Indeed the Spanish country report notes that in seeking advice about projects, all the projects and policies referring to Roma pupils were labelled as "minority ethnic groups", as there is not a recognised and distinct indigenous minority status. As such they are put in the same category as recent immigrants, such as pupils from Africa or Latin America. ([Dooly and Vallejo 2008:14](#)). Indeed the Roma are classified as ethnic minorities rather than indigenous minorities in a few states including Denmark ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:15](#)). In states such as Greece (which only officially recognises one minority group, the Muslims of Thrace) and Malta there is silence about the existence of certain minority groups ([Vallejo and Dooly 2008:8](#) and [Spinthourakis et al. 2008b:10](#)). In Greece, however programmes of policies to address disadvantages suffered by newer immigrants and the Roma suggest that some level of recognition

exists on a policy if not a constitutional level. It is also falls inline with changes in the educational policy in Greece which are increasingly addressing multicultural and intercultural education.

Indeed in some states use of the term ethnicity itself is contested as some countries eg France, Luxembourg do not collect data by ethnicity and officially refuse to recognise ethnic difference (see the France and Luxembourg reports for further details). Luxembourg, despite its multicultural population (100 nationalities represented out of 480,000 inhabitants) passed laws in 2002 on personal data protection which expressly prohibit data collection about ethnicity and restrict the recording of such information to nationality instead.

Demographic Data

According to the OECD (2006), between 1990 and 2000 the number of people living outside their country of birth nearly doubled worldwide, reaching 175 million. Historically immigrants from Europe's ex colonies (including many countries across Africa the Caribbean and Asia) formed part of a large scale wave of post war immigration in last century. Many were encouraged to migrate to their former colonial mother country (such as the UK, France, and the Netherlands) to help rebuild the shattered post war infrastructure. This generation stayed, raised families and have built communities which are now generations old.

More recently, conflict and resultant refugees, EU accession and the impact of globalisation on labour flows have changed the face of Europe both in terms of the labour market and the classroom. According to the OECD (2006) 10 percent of 15 year olds in the EU 15 countries school population was either born abroad or the child of foreign-born parents. This shift is continuing as the figure rises to 15 percent amongst children in their fourth year of primary school. The increase is not uniform and countries, such as Ireland, Italy and Spain, have seen their percentage of foreign-born school pupils multiply by three or four times since 2000. In the UK, the number of pupils joining schools shortly after arriving from abroad has grown 50 per cent in two years (OECD 2006).

1.1 European conceptualisations of race and ethnicity

Much of the complexity in this area arises from wider social difficulties in framing debates about race and ethnicity. Debates about race and ethnicity are framed in differing ways across the countries studied and this related to their demographics and history of diversity. Although many states use the term 'immigrant' to describe (particularly visible) minority groups who were born in the state to migrant parents, Sweden's shift in terminology provides an interesting insight into how political priorities shift the definitions used. As the term 'immigrant' became increasingly associated with discrimination and exclusion, in 2000 it was determined that the term 'immigrant' should only refer to people arriving from another country and settling down in Sweden ([Hartsmar 2008:12](#)).

The intensifying of negative attitudes towards particularly new migrants is an important part of the changes in political and policy discourse. In the Netherlands debates about social segregation and 'concentration schools' (where a school is predominantly from one racial group) have increased in prominence over the last decade (Arts and Nabha 2001). The use of racial terms such as 'Black schools' for schools where more than 50 percent of the pupils are from non-western backgrounds is of concern particularly as there is noticeable stigma attached to these schools and the term is increasingly associated with deprivation, behavioural problems and crime ([Geurts and Lambrechts 2008:13](#)). This terminology is problematic and is being challenged in academic research as Arts and Nabha note;

If the main point to identifying ethnic minorities in the Netherlands as "Black" is to indicate that they are not Dutch, then it would seem logical to also refer to the western

immigrants as “Black.” Ascribing “Black” only to non-western immigrants ostracizes these immigrants and suggests that they are “different” or “backward.” (Arts and Nabha 2001:1)

Indeed this form of terminology reveals underlying perceptions of visible minority groups as lesser citizens and reinforces the notion that visible minorities are a homogenous group with a wholly foreign culture without a claim on the culture of their home state ([Hartsmar 2008:12](#)).

In France, ethnic difference is conceptualised through a model of citizenship which minimises difference in order to promote integration and equality. The state rejects visible manifestations of difference within schools (such as religious symbolism) as part of its core principles of republicanism and secularism (Moreau 2009). This contrasts with the UK which has moved away from policies of assimilation towards a model of citizenship which celebrates difference. The British model however has been criticised for homogenising difference and failing to recognise inequalities between and within ethnic groups (Maylor *et al.* 2007)

‘Other’ explanations for educational disadvantage

Across some states there is a marked reluctance to name race or ethnicity as a cause of educational or social disadvantage and this often reflects a desire to avoid debates around racism and discriminatory practices. The search for ‘other’ reasons to explain social and educational disadvantage underpins some of the policy responses in this area. Some countries approach to policies in this area (see [Lambrechts and Geurts 2008:20](#); [Hartsmar 2008:12](#) and [Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:12](#)) focus on other explanations for educational disadvantage such as language spoken at home, the mother’s educational background and socioeconomic factors.

In many states minority ethnic status is seen as a problem of assimilation, particularly in relation to language learning. The deficit model of the minority ethnic student focuses on language as the source of their educational disadvantage rather than looking for other issues. Politicians in Sweden have cited an inability to speak Swedish as the main cause of minority groups’ educational disadvantage ([Hartsmar 2008:12](#)). It is important to note that issues of language tend to be framed in terms of wider arguments about the differing value placed on different languages and community resources ([Dooly et al. 2009:11](#)).

Debates about language learning and immigrant groups are also twinned with their socio-economic status ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:12](#)). The cultural deficit (which is discussed later) of minority ethnic families is seen to be part of a linguistic, economic and cultural set of problems which are collectively termed ‘weak social heritage’. These families need to overcome the problems in their background in order to succeed ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:12](#)). In the Flemish context the deficit model leads to an intense focus on the language spoken at home as a cause of educational disadvantage which schools must correct in some way ([Lambrechts and Geurts 2008:20](#)). The desire to construct minority ethnic educational disadvantage as problems of individual integration can obscure wider structural factors such as racism and xenophobia and their role in creating and sustaining these inequalities.

‘New migrants’

EU accession, war and globalization have changed the kinds of pupils in schools as some countries experience immigration for the first time. There is also a contrast in terms of the kinds of minorities; some states are dealing with their first wave of ‘visible’ minorities and the impact on wider politics and society. These European demographics place increased demands on education systems across the states studied. In Spain funding for new schools and teachers has been found by scaling back

projects aimed at improving quality across the system ([Dooly and Vallejo 2008:5](#)). Attitudes towards new migrants have hardened across the states studied with the term immigrant becoming associated with crime and disorder ([Vallejo and Dooly 2008](#) and [Hartsmar 2008:12](#)). These attitudes feed into the ways that these groups are perceived in terms of education and employment.

For many countries recent migration has had an important impact on previously homogenous societies such as Ireland and Greece which have gone from emigration to reception countries ([Moreau et al. 2008:7](#) and [Spithourakis et al. 2008b:9](#)). Immigrants to countries such as Ireland and Greece pose a challenge both to the educational infrastructure but also the national identity (and ideas about who can be a citizen). The state's role in policing the boundaries of citizenship and defining who is 'national' and who is 'alien' (Mac an Ghail 1999:86) must not be overlooked. The need to change educational provision in the form of intercultural education ([Spithourakis et al. 2008b:9](#)) or to provide additional resources is sometimes read in positive terms but often in terms of new problems. The cross national focus on immigrants' socioeconomic and linguistic status constructs them as citizens in training who only need to acquire the right outlook and skills to gain the full citizenship afforded to the native population. This has particular relevance in countries such as the Czech Republic where the government's approach to minority groups is through citizenship and providing an equal opportunity for immigrants to gain citizenship.

Multiculturalism

For some countries there is an understanding that changes in the ethnic make up of society require all citizens to understand different cultures. This approach to race and ethnicity creates policy predicated on a two way process of integration rather than a one way approach of assimilation.

For example, in Cyprus bilingualism is encouraged and pupils are spread through the school population to encourage integration between Greek Cypriot and minority ethnic children ([Spithourakis et al. 2008a:8](#)). There is recognition however that this for this process to work students and teachers need an awareness and understanding of other cultures and backgrounds. The education department provides teachers with continuing professional development focusing on working with other cultures. The need to support children's cultural heritage as well as the national culture requires investment in teacher training and changes to the curriculum which some countries have adopted (see ES218: [The Trip Around Books](#) project), and moves beyond linguistic instruction.

Social segregation and 'white flight'

A key issue related to immigration and increased diversity is that of social segregation. Many countries in this study cite segregation between minority ethnic groups and majority populations as a source of political concern. In Sweden this is linked to attainment as it is argued, minority ethnic pupils struggle with Swedish is exacerbated by growing up in communities with few native speakers ([Hartsmar 2008:12](#)). The Dutch debates about 'concentration' schools (see page 4 of this report for further discussion), form part of wider cross European concerns about educational segregation and 'White Flight'. The problems of 'White flight' from multiethnic areas are exacerbated by a move towards increased parental choice in schools across Europe. In the UK Education research suggests that in the geographies of school choice there is 'white middle class flight' from urban comprehensives (Butler and Robson, 2003) which are as parents move to whiter and more affluent areas in order to gain access to what are popularly deemed 'better' schools. In Spain parents tend to move their children out of those schools where ethnic and indigenous minorities have become the majority school population ([Dooly and Vallejo 2008:6](#)). Across the countries studied there is increasing concern about the resultant 'ghetto' effect. Although there is increased awareness of this few projects in this study aim to address this in Amsterdam, has

introduced a ‘postal code policy’ so that parents cannot enrol their children in a school outside of their local area region ([Geurts and Lambrechts 2008:14](#)). The [Diversity in the Copenhagen Daycare \(DK140\)](#) project (see for an instance of policy in this area) is another local initiative aimed at reducing segregation in the district. The lack of national policy work or initiatives in this area reinforces the sense that integration is a minority group’s responsibility rather than a societal one.

1.2 Our analytic approach: Recognition vs. Redistribution

The first question to ask in framing our analytic approach is in some sense the most complicated: What do we mean by minority ethnic groups? The initial starting point of the EPASI project defines minority ethnic groups as;

people who have largely migrated to Europe from outside Europe since the end of the Second World War, including refugees and asylum seekers from these areas.

This review therefore focuses on non-indigenous minorities (as indigenous minority groups are the focus of a separate EPASI strand). This paper categorises the groups in this strand as follows:

- New arrivals to a country from established minority ethnic communities
- New arrivals from new minority ethnic communities to a country
- Descendants from established minority ethnic communities
- Descendants from new minority ethnic communities

The countries in this study employ a range of policy interventions (national and supra-national to community led) and vary in terms of the groups targeted and their theoretical aims (assimilation to multiculturalism). This review analyses different countries approaches using the two models of social justice policy proposed by Nancy Fraser: recognitive and redistributive policies.

Recognitive policy is rooted in what Fraser terms a ‘struggle for recognition’ a post socialist form of identity politics where social groups (in this case minority ethnic groups) seek to move beyond resource allocation and demand cultural respect for their communities, eg a curriculum that embraces their history and language. While influenced by the unfair allocation of resources, crucially their demands are not solely motivated by resource allocation. Policies which address the question of cultural recognition aim to challenge the existing ‘cultural domination’ of majority groups (Fraser 1997:11) For Fraser, the key to recognitive policy is how far it creates cultural or symbolic change. This could involve upwardly revaluing disrespected identities and the cultural products of maligned groups. It could also involve recognising and positively valorising cultural diversity (15).

For Fraser the ‘struggle for recognition’ contrasts with demands for remedies to injustice via exploitation and unequal resource allocation. In terms of education this can mean improved access to higher status qualifications/routes, equal opportunities to access better performing schools, improved provision in schools which serve disadvantaged groups. In countries which have a strong link between education and the labour force the issue of racism in employment can produce unequal educational outcomes for vocational programmes which rely on employer based apprenticeships. Indeed, when students leave education issues of economic marginalisation may still affect minority ethnic groups despite high academic achievement (as reported in [Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:10](#)). Policies which enact cultural recognition include those which attempt to change societal and employer perception of young people from minority ethnic communities.

Fraser defines redistributive policy as: redistributing income, reorganising the division of labour, subjecting investment to democratic decision-making, or transforming other basic economic structures (Fraser 1997:15). In the educational context this refers to redistribution of resources to equalise access to educational goods. This includes attempts to widen access to higher education

amongst underrepresented groups and increased spending for schools with high levels of minority ethnic pupils.

While all of these projects engage in resource allocation in terms of teacher time, additional training or budgets to address inequality, they differ in terms of their aims and the level of cultural recognition that underpin them. Racist practice though borne of cultural disrespect also creates inequalities in the distribution of educational goods therefore any attempts to tackle these must employ both strands of policy. It is important to remember that recognition and redistribution are often intertwined as Fraser makes clear; “Cultural norms that are unfairly biased against some are institutionalized in the state and the economy; meanwhile, economic disadvantage impedes equal participation in the making of culture, in public spheres and in everyday life. The result is often a vicious circle of cultural and economic subordination” (Fraser 1997:15).

The language used about groups is a recurring theme of this paper and provides an important indicator of the power relations between ethnic groups. These groupings are often crosscut with race as evidenced by the demographic changes in UK schools brought about by immigration from the EU accession countries. New white populations from Eastern Europe present a challenge to reified notions of Western whiteness (Bonnett 2005:111) and these groups can find themselves with ambivalent status: in possession of a whiteness that is sometimes visible and sometimes ignored (Hartigan Jnr. 1997:188). Although some groups’ minority status is stressed, for many (particularly those who are visible minorities) their assumed foreignness is stressed. Indeed the OECD’s PISA study categorises pupils by their immigrant status, defining children as ‘native’ (both child and parents were born in the state), ‘first generation’ (born abroad to parents born abroad), ‘second generation immigrant’ (born and educated in country studied to parents born abroad).

As Bonnett argues in European/ Anglo-US discourse, ‘whiteness continues to be reified as a racial and cultural norm’ (Bonnett 2005:111) and across Europe whiteness often remains synonymous with the term ‘Western’ (Bonnett 2005:110) and ‘European’. Therefore the use of the term immigrant is complex and often problematic in this area, where for visible minorities the relationship between race and immigrant status form a constant reminder of the conditional nature of their citizenship. Indeed the demographic shift in population composition accompanying the accession of new EU states has left some families from visible minorities with continuing immigrant status despite many generations of their families having lived in a particular state while newer white arrivals are presumed native.

Racism

Racism is the clearest form of what Fraser terms cultural disrespect and a key component of racial inequality. Many researchers have examined racism in education (Gilborn and Youdell 2000; Sewell 1997) and its contribution to educational and social inequality. Racist practice in education manifests itself in many ways from to the systemic and institutional practices such as low teacher expectations, stereotypes (of parents and young people) and prejudicial attitudes to behaviour which leading to harsher sanctions for young people from particular ethnic groups. Essed defines racism as; “repetitive, recurrent and familiar practices” (Essed 1991:3) and the practices of racism in education (and the attendant issues or school exclusion, early school leaving and lower attainment which result) appear to fit this pattern.

In the UK there has been increasing debate about racist practices in public institutions following the Stephen Lawrence case where the police were found to have failed to adequately investigate the racist murder of a Black teenager due to ingrained stereotyping, prejudicial attitudes and behaviours. The Macpherson report into the case defined such behaviours as ‘institutional racism’ and explained it as such;

“the collective failure of an organisation to provide an appropriate and professional service to people because of their colour, culture or ethnic origin”, which “can be seen or detected in processes, attitudes and behaviour which amount to discrimination through unwitting prejudice, ignorance, thoughtlessness, and racist stereotyping which disadvantages minority ethnic people.”

This ‘unwitting prejudice’ it has been argued is a key component of racial educational disadvantage. Recent studies in the UK have shown that teachers have lower expectations of Black children than their White counterparts. Recent research in the UK has found that (after controlling for all other factors) for every three White British pupils entered for the higher tiers examination only two Black Caribbean pupils are entered (Strand 2008) and Black students are more likely to be placed in lower ‘ability’ groupings than their white peers (Gilborn and Youdell 2000; GLA 2006). The OECD also found that countries with the largest gaps between immigrant and non-immigrant students also have more ability grouped ‘tracked’ systems (OECD 2006). However minority ethnic stereotyping moves beyond Black and White and studies have shown that although pupils of Chinese descent benefit from higher teacher expectations than other ethnic groups in the UK, this is due to an essentialised discourse which constructs them as more compliant and hard working than other ethnic groups (Francis 2007). In this sense it is important to note that different groups are treated in differing ways and as discussed earlier, their attainment also differs.

Indeed as mentioned earlier, the increasing hostility towards refugees and new migrants across the states studies is a cause for concern. There has been concern in the UK about prejudice towards new Polish migrants. Swedish research has demonstrated that new migrants were viewed as non-whites and met with fear, hostility and racist treatment. Indeed research showed that 34 per cent of young people, totally or partly, agreed that non-Europeans should return to their home countries. ([Hartsmar 2008](#):14)

2: The effects of disadvantage on minority ethnic groups and strategies to address this

2.1 An indication of the extent of/ effects of minority ethnic educational disadvantage across Europe

Literacy

Despite EU commitments to equity, PISA assessments in maths, reading and science demonstrate that gaps in attainment between immigrant¹ and native students remain. On average, immigrant students lag 58 points behind their native counterparts this difference is significant and equates to a year of schooling. The PISA study found that the gap between migrants and non-migrants was much smaller in Ireland compared to most OECD countries ([Moreau et al. 2008](#):14).

The most pronounced difference in scores are perhaps understandably between first generation (children who have themselves migrated to their country of residence) immigrant children and native children (OECD 2006). Belgium had the widest gap at 109 score points (the equivalent of 2 years of schooling). In the majority of the 14 OECD countries studied the gap between first generation and native children's performance was more than 62 points (equivalent to a full proficiency level) (OECD 2006:30).

For second generation children although the gap is smaller there is a marked difference in attainment with Germany having the largest a gap at 93 points between native children and second generation children (OECD 2006:32). In maths, more than 40 percent of first generation students in Belgium, France, Norway and Sweden, more than 30 percent of first generation students in Austria, Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, Switzerland, US and the Russian Federation and in the Netherlands 25 percent of first generation students perform below level 2 (having only the most basic maths skills and often unable to apply this knowledge in everyday contexts). This is compared with a small percentage of native children.

A separate study in the UK found that adults from black or South Asian ethnic groups tend to have poorer literacy skills than their white counterparts, and this was particularly marked for women (Grinyer, 2006 in [Leathwood et al. 2008](#):14). Studies in Denmark find that in Copenhagen while around a sixth of the total number of pupils in school year nine fail in certain reading tests, the percentage rises to around 47-55 percent for ethnic minority pupils. (Dahl 2005; Colding et al. 2005 in [Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):13). In Greece minorities such as Roma, repatriates, immigrants and members of the Muslim Minority of Thrace are the groups most likely to being identified as functionally illiterate. ([Spinthourakis et al. 2008b](#):14)

Difficulties with language may be a factor for newly arrived pupils, but issues of racism within schools and its impact on attainment is an issue that many governments are reluctant to address. There is some evidence from the policies studied for this project that attention is often focused on integrating minorities (linguistically and culturally) rather than reducing racism in schools and communities.

It is also important to make clear that not all ethnic minority groups are educationally disadvantaged. Many of the country reports and policies compiled for this project discuss the achievement gap between minority ethnic groups and majority ethnic groups however the picture remains complex. The performance of different groups varies across ethnic groups with some minority groups outperforming majority ethnic peers (see pupils of Vietnamese heritage pupils in [Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):14 and children of Chinese heritage in [Leathwood et al. 2008](#):15).

¹ PISA uses the term immigrant to refer to both child migrants living in an EU country where they were not born, and the children of migrants who were born in their country of residence.

Exclusion

There are few comparable statistics in this area (particularly between countries) but some states have collated data in this area.

In the UK there are marked differences in school exclusion rates between minority and majority ethnic groups. Ethnicity is also an important factor here, with Travellers and Black young people far more likely to be excluded than other groups (DfES 2006b). The evidence suggests that ethnicity operates independently of other factors as even when entitlement to free school meals (used as a proxy for poverty) and special educational needs status were controlled for, Black Caribbean pupils were over two and a half times more likely to be excluded than their White peers (*ibid.*). ([Leathwood et al. 2008](#)). Pupils from Chinese backgrounds are the least likely to be excluded, closely followed by pupils of Indian heritage. The exclusion rate for 2003/4 for Black pupils was around 25 in every 10,000 pupils. This was around twice the rate for White pupils (DfES 2005).

In Denmark there is little data on exclusion or expulsion rates during compulsory education (primary and lower secondary). However, in common with a few states (UK, Ireland) children living in asylum centres are not allowed access to local schools and are instead tutored in the centres ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):14).

Attainment levels after compulsory schooling

There are few comparable statistics in this area (particularly between countries). Looking across the states which have data in this area there is a clear trend that minority groups overall are less likely to complete compulsory schooling and less likely to reach the standard measure of attainment in their home country.

In the UK the standard measure of attainment at the end of compulsory schooling is the proportion of pupils achieving 5 GCSE² passes with A to C grades. Results for 2006-07 for England (DCSF 2007) show that 5 A-C passes were achieved by: 59.5 percent of White, 62.7 percent of Asian and 52.5 percent of Black ethnicity. Levels of achievement vary significantly between different ethnic groups, with only 14 percent of Gypsy/Romany and 15.6 percent of Irish Travellers attaining 5 A-C passes compared to 74.4 percent of Indian pupils and 83.3 percent of Chinese pupils ([Leathwood et al. 2008](#):14-15).

In Denmark, data from a study conducted between 1988-2001 found that only 38 percent of migrant children who arrived in Denmark aged six to twelve completed upper secondary education. The completion rate for second generation immigrant children was 55 percent compared with 70 percent for ethnic Danish children (Colding 2005). (The official goal for the entire age group in 2015 is 95 percent ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):18).)

In the Netherlands research shows that children from minority ethnic backgrounds are less likely to successfully complete secondary education than their classmates of Dutch heritage (90 percent as opposed to 96 percent). There is also a completion gap between pupils from non-western backgrounds (88 percent) and those from Western backgrounds (94 percent) ([Geurts and Lambrechts 2008](#):11).

² GCSE: General Certificate in Secondary Education. These are individual subject specific qualifications, with pupils usually taking between 5 and 9 different GCSEs. Grades A to C are the higher grades generally considered necessary for progression on to higher level courses.

Continuing in education post compulsory leaving age

Again the trend across the states for which we have data shows a complex picture. In the UK research found that young people from minority ethnic groups are *more* likely than White young people to stay on post-16 (Bhattacharyya *et al.* 2003 in [Leathwood *et al.* 2008](#):15). However in Greece the situation is starker as Greek data suggests that immigrant children (from Greek and other ethnic backgrounds) have a higher dropout rate after *primary* education than Greek born young people. These pupils have a lower enrolment rate into lower secondary education despite it being a compulsory stage (Dimitrakopoulos 2004 in [Spinthourakis *et al.* 2008b](#):15).

HE Participation

In the UK, minority ethnic students are more likely to go to university than their White peers, although there is evidence that Black African-Caribbean applicants are significantly less likely to be accepted on to degree courses than their white and Asian counterparts (Tolley and Rundel 2006 in [Leathwood *et al.* 2008](#):15). There is also evidence that students from lower socio-economic groups, minority ethnic students and women are more likely to study in universities with lower levels of resourcing and prestige. The types of university they enter has consequences for their future success as “research shows that graduates from ‘new’ universities and minority ethnic groups are likely to benefit less from having a degree in terms of employment opportunities and/or salary” ([Leathwood *et al.* 2008](#):16).

In contrast, pupils from immigrant backgrounds are under-represented in Denmark and are expected to continue to do so until inequalities in primary and secondary level attainment are significantly reduced ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):18).

Employment rates

As this report discussed earlier employment is a key educational outcome, particularly in educational systems with a strong focus on vocational education. In 2004, employment rates amongst immigrants from non-Western³ countries were 38 percent for women and 51 percent for men. The corresponding figures for native Danes were 71 percent for women and 77 percent for men ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):18). In the UK, minority ethnic groups, lone parents, and people without formal qualifications had an unemployment rate of about 10 per cent in 2003. This was roughly twice the rate for the total working-age population. ([Leathwood *et al.* 2008](#):16).

There is strong evidence across states that employer discrimination remains a key problem for young people seeking an apprentice contract and research shows that employers avoid employing immigrant young people ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):18). Danish research has found that while young people who completed vocational education tend to gain employment, there is much concern and debate about the problems in accessing employment faced by pupils with an interrupted vocational education. 60 percent of immigrant pupils and 32 percent of native Danish pupils drop out of vocational education ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008](#):18).

Evidence of social exclusion, being bullied, etc.

In many countries there is a lack of knowledge and understanding about how bullying and social exclusion is affected by ethnic status. However across Europe many states report that students from minority ethnic backgrounds are at greater risk of violence, bullying and verbal assault in school:

³ Western countries are defined as EU 27, other Western European countries, USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

- In Ireland a study by Fanning *et al.* (2001) found evidence of discrimination and racism in schools against ethnic minority groups, while a report from the Higher Education Equality Unit (1997) highlighted similar issues at tertiary level ([Moreau *et al.* 2008:21](#)).
- In the UK there is evidence that bullying is a particularly serious problem for minority ethnic pupils in mainly white schools, 25 percent of whom had experienced racist name calling in a 7 day period ([Leathwood *et al.* 2008:16](#)).
- In Spain the Human Rights Index Committee expressed concern about evidence of bullying and social exclusion of non-native students. They also found incidences of physical assault on immigrant students (see [Dooly and Vallejo 2008:13](#)).
- In Greece research has reported both physical and verbal violence as a problem with 11.6 percent having been victims of violence. Students of non-Greek origin were mentioned amongst groups involved in violent episodes ([Spinthourakis *et al.* 2008b:16](#)).

2.2 Strategies to address educational disadvantage

Policymaking structures

Responsibility for setting educational policies remains firmly a matter for Member States. Nevertheless, the challenges outlined here are, increasingly, widely shared and subject to EU direction. The EU policy framework has been an important impetus for national policymaking in this area and EU Accession has encouraged newer EU countries to take this policy area on board as they are required to address issues of ethnic inequality as a requirement of EU entry. Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 aims to implement the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin and under the current EC legal framework, racial discrimination is prohibited in the areas of employment, training, education, social protection, social benefits and access to goods and services (Directive 2000/43/EC). The European Council of 13-14 March 2008 called on Member States to improve the attainment of learners from a migrant background and 2008 Joint Report on the implementation of the Education and Training 2010 Work Programme drew attention to issues of educational disadvantage for many migrant pupils. The EU also provides funding for many of the projects in this study. Some key aspects of EU policy in relation to minority ethnic groups are:

EQUAL Community

The European Union is developing an integrated strategy to combat social exclusion and discrimination on grounds of sex or sexual orientation, race or ethnic origin, religion or beliefs and disability or age. The policies and programmes in this area, take as their starting point Articles 13 (combating discrimination) and 137 of the Treaty (promoting social integration). The EQUAL Community fund forms part of the European Social Fund (ESF) and is worth 3.274 billion euros over seven years. The fund aims to create experimental policies to reduce racial discrimination and inequality in employment. It has a broad remit both to increase employability and to reduce employer prejudice. Although its projects are confined to labour market activity there are important overlaps with training and education, particularly in countries with a strong focus on vocational education. As part of this each member state must create a national action plan based on four pillars: of employability, entrepreneurship, adaptability and equal opportunities.

Strategies to address educational disadvantage

The projects in this study approach educational disadvantage in contrasting ways and their approach provides insight into how different minority groups are constructed and where responsibility for educational inequality is placed. This paper categorises their approaches both in terms of their target group and the type of intervention proposed:

Projects aimed at minority ethnic groups:

- Projects which offer mentoring or support to improve performance
- Projects focused on language/ integration

Projects aimed at the whole population:

- Changing Schooling Practice
- Welfare and schooling
- Enhancing Cultural understanding

This section reviews the policies set in place to address educational inequality between ethnic groups and looks initially at the target group (general population or minority ethnic group) and then assesses their place in the framework of redistributive and recognitive policy exploring what these thematic differences tell us about different ethnic groups' status within their national society:

2.3 Projects aimed at minority ethnic groups

Projects which offer mentoring or support to improve performance

The model of disadvantaged group families (often including minority ethnic groups) as lacking the right cultural resources or dispositions towards education is reflected in a policy focus on 'raising aspirations' amongst minority ethnic families. These projects operate across a variety of states and offer strategies to address early school leaving or raise attainment amongst minority ethnic groups by encouraging young people and their families to value education, providing them with new and different opportunities (work experience, university open days or summer schools) or by providing additional support through mentoring schemes or family advocates.

Projects which involve mentoring and support are often aimed at reducing youth unemployment (which as mentioned earlier is often higher amongst minority ethnic groups.) In the UK, the [16-24 Job Ready](#) (UK45) project offers mentoring to encourage young people from minority ethnic backgrounds to think about their future careers and to empower them to make non-traditional career choices. The French project in Languedoc-Roussillon – [PAIO Frontignan-La Peyrade](#) (FR251) provides professional mentoring for children and young people who are having problems at school and for young people at risk of post-school unemployment. The project aims to enable minority ethnic young people to undertake professional training and gain professional employment.

Projects such as [The Hinge](#) (BE2) based in Flanders aim to improve familial relationships with schools and encourage university applications by raising aspirations and "strengthening school culture" amongst disadvantaged families. These projects aim to remedy inequality by enabling young people and their families to take advantage of the educational and career opportunities on offer. However, a number of assumptions underpin the type of intervention offered by these kinds of projects: These projects construct the opportunities within the education system as equally accessible to all and the cause of unequal outcomes as 'fearful' minority ethnic families, lacking in knowledge or the cultural capacity to enable their children to progress in education.

These assumptions are problematic when examined critically and in many cases fail to take into account fully the impact of racism and xenophobia on young people's aspirations and their ability to achieve them. Research in Sweden and Denmark ([Hartsmar 2008:13](#) and [Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:18](#)) make clear that employer prejudice has a continuing impact on minority ethnic pupils' ability to obtain apprenticeships and employment. In the UK employment amongst minority ethnic graduates is lower than average and they gain less financial benefit from higher education (in terms of earnings) than other graduates ([Leathwood et al. 2008:16](#)). Therefore in order to reduce inequalities in education and employment, racism and prejudice in education and employment must be tackled in tandem with mentoring and work support.

Siraj-Blatchford argues these forms of policy derive from a compensatory discourse which constructs a deficit model of minority groups (Siraj-Blatchford 1993) positioning the school as a place to 'compensate' for the deficit culture and home life of minority ethnic families. For example an official document from the Danish Minister of Education identifies home background as a key cause of educational disadvantage noting: "...it is often children from homes where education is not recognised as important. And there are also many bilingual among them..." (Minister of Education 2007 in [Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:11](#)). Tellingly, this is linked to minority ethnic status and the assumption (in evidence earlier) that such families do not support their child's education. Although policy interventions based on these constructions offer redistributive solutions (money for extra 'remedial' schooling or language tuition) the underlying assumptions about minority ethnic families devalue the experiences and aspirations pupils bring from their home communities and far from revaluing disrespected cultural identities (Fraser 1997:11) they may compound 'cultural disrespect'.

Welfare and schooling

The lack of practical support for children and young people seeking refuge remains a problem across the EU and many countries across Europe are employing increasingly punitive measures against Refugees and asylum seekers. In the UK, Ireland and Denmark young people at risk of absconding or who have been denied asylum are treated particularly harshly and they and their families are increasingly forced to stay at asylum centres and refused entry to local schools ([Cederberg and Lingarde 2008:14](#)). These children are often only receiving tutoring at the asylum centre and many families remain at these asylum centres for several years.

For young refugees in the local community there are projects which aim to provide extra support to newly arrived children who may have suffered trauma in their home country or who are living in unstable circumstances (eg unaccompanied children seeking asylum, refugee children in reception centres). Projects such as the [Transition Supports Project](#) (IE35) in Ireland offer support and training to unaccompanied asylum seekers approaching the end of compulsory schooling or leaving reception centres. The project offers peer support and professional guidance in relation to employment, further training and housing. The Danish project [Post Traumatisk Stress - Post Traumatic Stress Disorder](#) (DK141), PTSD works with practitioners to raise awareness of and improve practice with children with PTSD (in relation to pupils from conflict areas and children who witness conflict at home). The project aims to create greater understanding of the condition and its impact on behaviour in the classroom. These projects offer both crucial redistributive assistance and are also engaged in revaluing these young people's cultural background and identities, resisting sometimes hostile political discourses about asylum seekers and refugees.

Projects focused on language/integration

Although policy in relation to linguistic minorities is covered in a discrete thematic review, it is mentioned here as language and integration form a key part of governments' response to minority

ethnic groups in education. These projects predominantly focus on newly arrived children (although some broaden their attention to the children of immigrants) and aim to provide intensive language support and to integrate children into the school system/wider society.

Projects in this area focus on language acquisition in order to integrate new arrivals into the new school and national culture. In Flanders the [Chatterbox game](#) (BE4) is used to stimulate language acquisition amongst 'immigrant' children. Children are taken out of some of their lessons to play the chatterbox game in order to develop their confidence and fluency in the majority language. Other policy initiatives provide additional resources to schools with pupils who do not speak the majority language. For example, in Greece the [Integration of Repatriates & Foreign Students in Secondary Education](#) (GR109) provides additional support to schools with ethnic minority children to enable them to integrate into the Greek school system and reduce the risk of them dropping out of education.

These projects aim to ensure that young people leave school able to communicate and operate as equal citizens in adulthood. The redistributive nature of these projects is important as many states are channelling a considerable amount of money into these initiatives and away from projects aimed at improving school quality for all ([Vallejo and Dooly 2008](#):4). Although many of these projects place integration as part of their equality agenda an equal playing field is not always available to minority ethnic young people and these policy responses can reinforce the idea that 'immigrants' are the problem and need to be made to 'integrate' or indeed to give up their culture, language and tradition and assimilate. In Denmark it is official policy that 'immigrant' children are expected to attend pre-school to develop their Danish language and cultural skills in part, a response to fears about 'immigrant' children's ability to integrate with other children. In this sense that notion that children from immigrant backgrounds are somehow lacking is reflected in the kinds of policies designed to raise their educational achievement.

2.4 Policies aimed at the general population

Changing Schooling Practice

These projects differ from the previous two themes in that they focus on changing institutional practice rather than changing minority ethnic families' behaviour to address inequality. These projects aim to revalue disrespected cultural identities (Fraser 1997:11) by examining the kinds of curriculum on offer to young people and the teaching practices that occur in school and reshaping them to include minority ethnic young people's experience and knowledge. These projects also aim to reduce prejudice by examining community, parental and teacher/institutional attitudes.

At school level both Sweden and Malta are working on initiatives to challenge teacher assumptions about minority ethnic groups and to revise the curriculum to enable greater access for all. The Swedish government has undertaken a review of assessment policy in schools to challenge assumptions and attitudes which may disadvantage pupils from ethnic minorities, with disabilities or economically disadvantaged groups. The policy entitled [Att utveckla bedömarkompetens – Ett diskussionsunderlag om kunskap och bedömning med inriktning mot elever som har svårt att nå målen](#) -*Developing competence to assess – A basis for discussion about knowledge and assessment, focusing students with difficulties in attaining the goals* (SE119) forms the basis for discussion about knowledge and assessment, shifting the focus towards the curriculum and how it can reinforce or create inequality for particular groups. In Malta, [the Diversity: Within and Without](#) (MT240) project aims to improve equality of access to education by encouraging schools to value students as individuals and members of the education community and to help them develop their self-esteem, positive personal qualities, sensitivity to the needs of others and the ability to achieve sound personal relationships. The project challenges schools to adopt a long-term policy in relation

to social and educational changes –such as immigration- and be proactive rather than reactive in anticipating change in order to minimise discrimination. In common with the Swedish policy it works within institutions to make the school cultures more inclusive and to value difference rather than view it as a problem. Both projects focus on discussion amongst practitioners about how they can change their practice and also provide help for teachers in developing strategies for helping newly arrived students.

The Spanish [Trip around books](#) (ES218) project also aims encourage schools and pupils to value difference and works through embedding multiculturalism across the curriculum. It uses books to stimulate children’s curiosity about the world and uses pupils’ skills at searching for, managing and transforming information into knowledge to embed knowledge of different cultures into the curriculum. The curriculum materials offer students a wider perspective of towns, people and cultures of the world and form part of a concerted effort throughout the school to integrate intercultural education through student knowledge of distant realities, thereby generating understanding, solidarity and acceptance of cultural differences.

These projects focus heavily on teacher practice and assessment and the cultural biases that may underpin them and emphasise valuing the skills and experience that students bring with them. In this sense these projects need not focus purely on minority ethnic status and some (such as the Swedish and Maltese examples) use this approach to address a broad range of educational inequalities under a ‘diversity’ banner. The sense of respect for the individual and their cultural heritage provides a challenge to traditional education systems underpinned by majority ethnic ‘cultural dominance’ and in this sense is both redistributive and recognitive in approach.

Enhancing Cultural understanding

These projects stress the importance of shared multicultural understanding and provide opportunities for young people from different ethnic backgrounds to mix in and outside school. In Slovakia, one project held an [Art Competition](#) (SK185) amongst schoolchildren to accompany an equalities campaign for minority ethnic groups. The project aimed to provide a global dimension to the Slovakian curriculum and to foster a greater respect for human dignity, diversity, equality and equity in relation to all minorities and protection of human rights for all human beings.

These projects also stress the importance of encouraging active citizenship and participation of all children and young people. An example of policies aimed at whole communities is the [Mangfoldighed i Koebenhavns Dagtilbud](#) - Diversity in the Copenhagen Daycare project (DK140). The project is designed in response to fears about ‘white flight’ (see page 7 for earlier discussion) and aims to aims to change the composition of children in daycare institutions in order to encourage greater diversity within all institutions. A key goal is that each crèche and kindergarten should have the same share of bilingual children as the average crèche or kindergarten in the township. The project aims to strengthen mutual integration, to develop all children’s knowledge of diversity, and to counteract ethnic and social segregation in daycare settings by encouraging increased contact between children from ethnic minorities and majorities. The project also aims to strengthen the Danish language, social competence, and subject knowledge among children of ethnic minorities in order to improve their success at school in line with political concerns about social segregation.

Although a majority of projects in this area are designed and led by government or local agencies there are some projects which have been designed and implemented by minority groups.

In Flanders a Muslim local association set up an educational project [VOEM](#) (BE249) to overcome discrimination and prejudice about Muslims in Flanders by providing educational materials about Muslim countries in school. The project also produces DVDs and online materials to provide

school resources to support teachers. In Catalonia a local Arabic-Muslim foundation offers a [Scholar Suport](#) (ES219) programme which aims to work with young Muslim young people and the local community to build bridges between newcomers and the local population, and spread knowledge about cultural diversity and the reality of Arabic countries and the Islam. Although its focus is on Arabic-Muslim pupils living in Catalonia, who are having problems reaching primary and secondary school attainment targets.

The geographical spread of ethnic groups is also important as programmes such as the school support programme are more likely to be set up amongst groups who are concentrated in an area rather than dispersed. Respect for pupils' cultural heritage should be part of the mainstream curriculum and projects which encourage this in addition to social mixing may provide better preparation for living in a multicultural society for all young people. The need to change local communities as well as focusing on immigrant groups is an important part of reducing inequality in this area. The recognitive aspect of these policies is important as they offer opportunities for minority ethnic groups to share their culture and heritage as well as learning about the majority culture and language.

3: Recommendations and Conclusions

3.1 Conclusion

In examining the projects selected as part of this project it has been interesting to use Fraser's redistribution and recognition criterion to assess the priorities in this area. It appears that newer EU states and countries with only recent experience of migration (particularly non-western migration) focus on redistributive policy which has a focus on citizenship and 'foreigner integration'. States which have a longer history of migration and states with recognised national minorities more often look at recognitive policies which aim to provide recognition of different cultural traditions, languages in national or local curricula. It would appear that longer-standing minority groups who live in geographically defined areas are also more likely to have the political resources to obtain state recognition and to self-organise. In contrast newer visible minority arrivals may be more isolated and unable to gain the political strength to overcome cultural disrespect.

3.2 Recommendations

EU

A key issue in this review is the difficulty in getting accurate and comparable data. Therefore the key recommendations are:

- That definitions of minority ethnic groups are accurate (immigrants as current migrants rather than including EU nationals whose parents were migrants). That refugee status, cultural heritage, religion and home language are not used as a proxy for minority ethnic status. Many minority ethnic groups in Europe have a long history in a state, share the majority language and religion and still face disadvantages which are missed in much cross-national research.
- That comparable cross-national data is made available so that researchers and policy makers can assess the educational experiences and outcomes for minority ethnic young people more effectively.

National

At state level problems of definition are still acute (as discussed in the EU recommendations). There is also an important issue in relation to states which do not officially collect statistics about race and ethnicity. Although there is still evidence of ethnic inequality in states such as Luxembourg and France the lack of national statistics makes it difficult to assess the scale of the problems in these countries.

Even amongst countries that collect this data there is very little about the educational outcomes and experiences of minority ethnic young people. There should be a greater emphasis on research into completion rates, employment rates and issues of social exclusion and bullying in relation to race and ethnicity. This would enable projects set up in these areas to be informed by young people's experiences of prejudice and exclusion as well as political desires for integration and improving immigrant home cultures.

Political debates about race and ethnicity are too often focused on negative popular attitudes towards immigration and refugees. Debates about minority ethnic educational disadvantage should shift their focus away from deficit models of minority ethnic groups and look beyond remedial measures to examine the causes of inequality. Policy responses in this area should broaden their

focus and expand their efforts from targeting individual families and communities towards educational institutions:

- Challenging low teacher expectations, racist bullying and unequal access to elite courses and institutions.
- Embedding anti-racist practice as part of initial teacher training and continuing professional development.
- Increased funding to provide extra resources for schools and districts to enable them to provide a good standard of support for students of all ethnicities.
- An awareness that parental school choice policies often result in increased ethnic segregation and social polarisation.
- That changes in society should be reflected in the classroom and that there needs to be greater research into the ethnic composition of the teaching workforce and policy should look to remedy the under representation of particular groups.

The treatment of children and young people seeking asylum and their access to equal educational opportunities also needs to be addressed.

Local

At a local level there needs to be an increasing focus on evaluation. Many projects in this study were not evaluated and as such there is little information on the success or challenges which resulted from these interventions.

There is also a greater need to work with minority ethnic groups in designing and implementing projects in this area. The projects which work with both majority and minority populations play an important role in shifting debates in this area away from changing minority groups to communities working together to reduce inequality.

School and Practitioner level

At a practitioner or school level this review recommends that:

- Schools and local education authorities draw up and implement full race equality policies which set out clear guidelines for staff and students in relation to staff recruitment, school admissions, discipline, curriculum, attainment.
- Schools take account of allegations of racist bullying and work to create a respectful and inclusive school environment.
- That assessments, ability groupings and outcomes are examined in relation to ethnicity so that differences in group attainment can be highlighted and strategies (to raise pupil attainment and to challenge teachers' perceptions of particular students) can be put in place.
- Schools should ensure Practitioners have access to high-quality training in anti-racist practice.
- That schools work with parents and all sections of the local community.

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Appendix: Project Studies targeting ethnic minority groups

| Country | Project | Link |
|--------------------------------------|---|-------|
| Belgium | V.O.E.M vzw (Association for development and emancipation of Muslims) | BE249 |
| | Kerkerk Multicultureel Samenleven (KMS) | BE15 |
| | GOK - leerachterstand – kleuters – ouders (Equal Educational Opportunities-lag in education - preschoolers – parents) | BE11 |
| | Diverse lecturers... diverse students | BE8 |
| | De wereld op je bord (The world on your plate) | BE7 |
| | De basisschool uitgedaagd (The elementary school challenged) | BE6 |
| | De babbeldoos Chatterbox | BE4 |
| | Wonderwel | BE22 |
| | Time-outproject Kortrijk (TOK) | BE21 |
| | Tellen en meetellen in het hoger onderwijs (to count and to matter in higher education) | BE20 |
| | Proefpas | BE18 |
| | KOOS (Kleuters en Ouders Op School) (preschoolers and parents at school) | BE16 |
| | Het Beroepenhuis The House of Professions (Antwerp) | BE12 |
| | IQRA (Antwerp) | BE14 |
| The Hinge (Flanders) | BE2 | |
| Czech Republic | Practical Support for Media, Multicultural and Global Education at School Educational Frameworks of Prague Secondary and Vocational Training Schools | CZ180 |
| | Amaro Phurd (Civic Association Salinger Hradec Králové) | CZ178 |
| | Summer Integrational Camp Rohozná 2007 | CZ165 |
| | Open School: Intercultural Education for Social Equality | CZ170 |
| Denmark | Ungdomsskole -The Rolling Full-Day School | DK152 |
| | Post Traumatisk Stress - Post Traumatic Stress Disorder, PTSD | DK141 |
| | Enghoejskole som magnetskole - Enghoej magnet school | DK142 |
| | Mangfoldighed I Koebenhavns Dagtilbud - Diversity in the Copenhagen Daycare | DK140 |
| France | ELCO : Enseignement des Langues et Cultures d'Origine - Teaching First Country Language and Culture | FR250 |
| | PAIO Frontignan-La Peyrade - Sponsoring in Languedoc-Roussillon | FR251 |
| Greece | Initiatives for the Teaching of Greek Language to Immigrants Refugees and Repatriates | GR111 |
| | Implementation of Programmes about Fighting against Social Exclusion and Alienation of Refugees , towards their Integration to the Greek Society | GR110 |
| | Ένταξη παιδιών παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών στο σχολείο για την Β/θμια εκπαίδευση- Integration of Repatriates & Foreign Students in Secondary Education | GR109 |
| Ireland | Transition Supports Project | IE35 |
| Luxembourg | Welcoming unit for parents and children newly arrived in Luxembourg / Cellule d'accueil scolaire pour les ves nouvellement arrivs au pays (CASNA) | LX271 |
| | Intercultural mediators | LX272 |
| | Promote the integration of foreign pupils – Boussole Project / Promotion de l'integration des eleves d'origine etrangere - Projet Boussole | LX285 |
| Malta | Sahha fid-Diversita' - Diversity Strengthens | MT236 |
| | Chaplaincy in Dialogue for University Students and Academic Staff | MT243 |
| | Safe Schools Programme : Anti-Bullying Service | MT242 |
| | The Drama Unit's " Theatre-In-Education " | MT241 |

| | | |
|-----------------------|---|-------|
| Netherlands | Diversity: Within and Without | MT240 |
| | Van zwarte naar gemengde school in Rotterdam-Kralingen -from Black to Mixed school in Rotterdam-Kralingen | NL72 |
| | Full Colour | NL69 |
| | Diversiteit voor het voetlicht | NL68 |
| | Thuiswerk- en huiswerkbegeleiding - Home and homework guidance (Protestantse Diaconie) | NL71 |
| | ProFor Huiswerkbegeleiding - homework guidance | NL70 |
| Slovakia | Artistic Competition Accompanying the Campaign: All Different - All equal | SK185 |
| | New Minorities and Us | SK184 |
| Spain | School support/reinforcement program (Programa de reforzamiento escolar) | SK219 |
| | Trip around books Project | SK218 |
| | " Young Guides " Programme (Buddy system) | SK220 |
| Sweden | Att utveckla bedömarkompetens – Ett diskussionunderlag om kunskap och bedömning med inriktning mot elever som har svårt att nå målen - Developing competence to assess – A basis for discussion about knowledge and assessment, focusing students with difficulties in attaining the goals. | SE119 |
| | Parental Involvement in an Urban school | SE136 |
| | Andraspråksutveckling och teknik i förberedelseklasser - Language Development and Technology in Preparatory Classes | SE130 |
| United Kingdom | National Resource Centre for Supplementary Education (NRC) | UK44 |
| | Aimhigher | UK47 |
| | Sure Start | UK46 |
| | 16-24 Job Ready (Scotland) | UK45 |