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Session 3

Impacts of migration on society and policies

Issues of schooling and housing

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1. Introduction

In the year 2003 the world population increased by another 60 million people, thus adding another “France” to the existing world population. This means about 166,000 individuals every day, in some part of the globe, joined the growing ranks of mankind.

In 1950 one in three individuals lived in the more developed countries; fifty years on, only one in five lives in an economically developed country, while more than 80% live in less developed countries (UN, *World Population Prospect. The 2002 revision*). In half a century the part of the world population living in poverty has increased 12 percentage points. Proportionally the population has grown faster in Africa and Asia than in other parts of the world. Indeed, two thirds of the world population lived in these two continents in 1950, whereas at the beginning of the present century these areas now account for three quarters of the world population.

At the beginning of 2002 about 20 million foreigners were living as immigrants in the fifteen member states of the EU. The figure does not include illegal immigrants, naturalized citizens or most minors. Most of these immigrants (66%) were resident in three countries: Germany, the United Kingdom and France. More than half the immigrants came from Europe, of whom about one third were EU citizens. 16.1% of all migrants in the EU came from Africa, 11.5% from Asia, 5.6% from America and 0.7% Australasia.

Throughout the world the fertility rate is falling, but the down-turn is relatively slow in the more developed countries, whereas it is quite rapid in the less-developed countries. For the first time the United Nations Population Division forecasts that at some point in the current century fertility levels in most developing countries are likely to fall below 2.1 children per woman, the level needed to ensure the long-term replacement of the population (UN, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 Revision*).

Another revolutionary change is due to the impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The disease has been explicitly modelled for 53 countries (8 more than in the previous Revision of the projections) and the dynamics of the epidemic are expected to remain unchanged until 2010. Thereafter the levels will probably decline and in a consistent manner, but will still be quite high by mid-century.

A further reduction in fertility, as forecast in the 2002 Revision, will have a significant influence on the populations of developing countries which are ageing very quickly. Globally the number of older persons (over 60 years of age) will approximately triple by the end of the first half of the century: from 606 million in 2000 to 1900 million by 2050.

In the more developed countries the present percentage of people aged 60 and over is 19% and it is expected to reach 32% by mid-century. In these areas the elderly population already exceeds the young population (individuals aged 0-14 years) and by 2050 there will be 2 elderly persons for every child.

International migration flows will probably remain high during the first 50 years of the 21st century and the more developed regions, including Europe, are expected to remain net receivers of international migrants.

Table 1 – Projected population of the world, development groups and main areas. 2003, 2050. Average variant. (population in millions)

Main areas	2003		2050	
	Population (million)	%	Population (million)	%
World	6 301	100.0	8 919	100.0
More developed region	1 203	19.1	1 220	13.7
Less developed region	5 098	80.9	7 699	86.3
<i>Least developed countries</i>	<i>718</i>	<i>14.1</i>	<i>1 675</i>	<i>21.8</i>
<i>Other less developed countries</i>	<i>4 380</i>	<i>85.9</i>	<i>6 025</i>	<i>78.2</i>
Africa	851	13.5	1 803	20.2
Asia	3 823	60.7	5 222	58.6
Latin America and the Caribbean	543	8.6	768	8.6
Europe	726	11.5	632	7.1
North America	326	5.2	448	5.0
Australasia	32	0.5	46	0.5

Source: UN, *World Population Prospects, The 2002 Revision*

According to UN projections the world population will reach approximately 9 billion people (based on the average variant) half way through the present century. The number of people living in the part of the world where there are better economic conditions will fall by more than 5 percent: at the beginning of the 21st century one in 5 people lives in one of the more developed countries, whereas by 2050 only 1 in 7 will live in such privileged areas. The number of people living in the less developed regions will rise from 5 billion to 7.7 billion. The poorer populations will double from 718 million to 1675 million and their share of the world's population will grow from 11.4% to 18.8%. In fact, instead of decreasing, the differences between countries will increase. This is likely to increase the pressure to migrate.

Table 1 shows that in 2050 the percentage of the world population in all the different continental areas will decrease, except in Africa where it will grow rapidly. In fact Africa's share of the population will move from 13.5% at the beginning of the century to 20.2% in the middle of the century.

Table 2 – Projected population in the Council of Europe countries (average variant)

Country	Population (thousand)			Growth rate (%) *			Life expectancy at birth (years) *		
	2000	2025	2050	2000	2025	2050	2000	2025	2050
Albania	3 113	3 629	3 670	- 0.46	0.45	- 0.19	72.8	76.9	79.9
Andorra	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Armenia	3 112	2 866	2 334	- 1.32	- 0.56	- 1.09	71.4	75.6	77.9
Austria	8 102	7 979	7 376	0.14	- 0.11	- 0.39	77.7	81.7	83.6
Azerbaijan	8 157	10 222	10 942	0.92	0.69	0.04	70.9	75.4	78.0
Belgium	10 251	10 516	10 221	0.22	0.03	- 0.19	77.9	81.4	83.8
Bosnia & Herzegovina	3 977	4 183	3 564	3.02	- 0.33	- 0.80	73.3	76.5	78.9
Bulgaria	8 099	6 609	5 255	- 0.75	- 0.81	- 1.00	70.9	75.1	78.7
Croatia	4 446	4 088	3 587	- 0.03	- 0.48	- 0.58	73.3	77.3	79.6
Cyprus	783	892	892	1.03	0.28	- 0.12	77.6	80.2	82.2

Czech Republic	10 269	9 806	8 553	- 0.12	- 0.41	- 0.65	74.3	79.7	81.4
Denmark	5 322	5 469	5 273	0.36	0.04	- 0.24	75.9	79.7	81.4
Estonia	1 367	1 017	657	- 1.12	- 1.37	- 2.04	70.1	76.0	79.4
Finland	5 177	5 289	4 941	0.27	- 0.02	- 0.31	77.2	81.4	83.0
France	59 296	64 165	64 230	0.39	0.18	- 0.12	78.1	81.5	84.0
Georgia	5 262	4 429	3 472	- 0.34	- 0.69	- 1.17	72.7	76.3	78.3
Germany	82 282	81 959	79 145	0.15	- 0.08	- 0.15	77.4	80.9	83.5
Greece	10 903	10 707	9 814	0.84	- 0.25	- 0.48	77.8	80.3	82.3
Hungary	10 012	8 865	7 589	- 0.40	- 0.51	- 0.68	70.6	76.0	79.3
Iceland	282	325	330	1.09	0.41	- 0.10	79.3	81.4	83.4
Ireland	3 819	4 668	4 996	1.13	0.52	0.13	76.1	79.3	81.4
Italy	57 536	52 939	44 875	0.08	- 0.49	- 0.80	78.2	80.6	82.5
Latvia	2 373	1 857	1 331	- 1.03	- 1.10	- 1.51	69.3	75.6	79.1
Liechtenstein	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Lithuania	3 501	3 035	2 526	- 0.36	- 0.62	- 0.80	71.4	76.6	79.7
Luxembourg	435	580	716	1.44	1.04	0.70	77.4	81.2	83.7
Malta	389	418	402	0.59	0.10	- 0.21	77.3	81.2	83.7
Moldova	4 283	4 096	3 580	- 0.26	- 0.33	- 0.66	67.3	73.5	77.8
Netherlands	15 898	17 123	16 954	0.56	0.18	- 0.15	77.9	80.2	82.2
Norway	4 473	4 859	4 895	0.51	0.29	- 0.10	78.1	81.2	83.7
Poland	38 671	37 337	33 004	0.04	- 0.27	- 0.61	72.8	77.4	80.1
Portugal	10 016	9 834	9 027	0.20	- 0.22	- 0.49	75.2	78.8	81.0
Romania	22 480	20 806	18 063	- 0.18	- 0.43	- 0.70	70.5	74.5	77.3
Russian Federation	145 612	124 428	101 456	- 0.34	- 0.73	- 0.86	66.1	69.9	74.2
San Marino	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Serbia & Montenegro	10 555	10 230	9 371	0.01	- 0.25	- 0.45	72.2	76.0	79.1
Slovak Republic	5 391	5 397	4 948	0.10	- 0.11	- 0.48	72.2	76.7	79.6
Slovenia	1 990	1 859	1 569	0.00	- 0.41	- 0.84	75.2	79.8	81.9
Spain	40 752	40 369	37 336	0.41	- 0.22	- 0.48	78.4	81.6	84.1
Sweden	8 856	9 055	8 700	0.07	0.06	- 0.18	79.3	82.1	84.6
Switzerland	7 173	6 801	5 810	0.15	- 0.33	- 0.72	78.6	80.9	82.9
The Former Yugoslav Republic	2 024	2 199	2 156	0.61	0.13	- 0.23	72.7	76.4	79.5
Turkey	68 281	88 995	97 759	1.59	0.75	0.10	69.0	74.9	78.5
Ukraine	49 688	40 775	31 749	- 0.73	- 0.88	- 1.11	68.1	74.2	78.2
United Kingdom	58 689	63 287	66 166	0.34	0.32	0.12	77.2	81.1	83.0

Source: UN, *World Population Prospects. The 2002 revision*, vol. I

*values refer to 1995-2000, 2020-2025, 2045-2050 periods

The 45 countries in the Council of Europe zone accounted for 800 million inhabitants at the start of the third millennium. By mid-century the figure will fall to approximately 740 million. The growth rate in 2050 will be negative throughout the area with the exception of Azerbaijan, Ireland, Luxembourg, Turkey and the United Kingdom. However, while the demographic contribution of the first three will be slight, that of the United Kingdom and Turkey will be more appreciable. In fifty years time the British population could increase by 7.5 million, quite a limited increase if compared with that of Turkey which could well amount to 29.5 million. This could change the present situation in the distribution of the population in Europe.

In 2003 the EU reached an agreement about family reunifications. The directive on the question of reunifications was approved (2003/86/CE) in September 2003, but it also raised many criticisms. For example, the right to family reunification has not been clearly defined, so it remains at the discretion of the states and the waiting period can be very long (three years). The term 'reunification' is based on a very restrictive concept of the family that does not take into account family models other than the nuclear family, the one that is generally acceptable to EU nationals.

Migration is a very broad term which covers many different types of movements, mainly depending on the cause and motivation of the move. The most important type is economic migration that accounts for half, and frequently much more than half, the total number of migrants. People looking for a job, whether as an employee or self-employed, represent most of the incoming flows.

Non-economic migration can be, and often is, equally important. There are many different reasons encouraging many different kinds of people to move, such as family reunifications, adoptions, health care and treatment, prisoners in jail, the accused waiting for sentence, missionaries, students, public officers and employees, sportsmen or retired people who decide to live abroad. Non-economic migrants are classified into many sub-categories, which taken singularly are not particularly relevant, but, considered as a whole, become significant. The integration process may differ from one group to another, as well the responsibility for the government that must deal with the newcomers.

2. –Migration: consequences

2.1 - Responsibilities and problems for the receiving countries

Both births and immigrants weigh positively on the demographic balance of a country. Both represent an extra unit to be added to the total population. Whereas the new born baby will grow up within the community and progressively acquire the culture of the local population, an immigrant brings his own culture with him and is expected to abandon it and marry the local one. This is the concept of assimilation. A new born baby is completely assimilated as he receives from his family and from the community the information and the rules required by the society in which he is being brought up, but a migrant should not be expected to suddenly change his past, his cultural heritage, style of life, way of thinking that were acquired in a different social environment.

The receiving country should help migrants to solve their daily problems in the initial period after their arrival. Housing, schooling, health care and the availability of public services are the most pressing issues. Central and local government must take responsibility for these problems in order to facilitate the integration process and allay any fears among the native population.

However, there is no single solution to these problems, since there are many factors involved, such as the historical momentum, the general economic and social conditions, pressures in the job market and the pressure of migrant flows. Probably finding a meeting point between demand and supply in the labour market could go some way to helping the system. If firms clearly identified their needs in terms of jobs, it would be possible to establish how many foreign workers were needed and the public authorities, at a central as well as at a local level, could prepare to receive the new workforce and organize the services for these new citizens. Very often, however, there are too many workers available and the burden on the services is so great that the system tends to overload.

Another difficulty in connection with migration policy is how the different functions and powers of the central government and the local authorities are shared out. The systems vary from one country to another; in some countries the local authorities have two levels, in others three or more levels and the responsibility for these problems may be divided between all of them or it may be concentrated in one specific level.

Often there are many financial difficulties for the local authority that has to deal with immigrant problems. In an area of migration, the central government establishes a migration policy, setting out

the general guidelines about the reception and the integration of immigrants into the local community. However, the regions are responsible for implementing the said policy at a lower level, and more specifically have to deal with the local effects of the phenomena. In turn, the regions give the provinces and/or the municipalities under their competence further directions, which may or may not be accompanied by financial support. The province is responsible for planning and directing the provisions, whilst the municipality must carry out what the upper levels, both central and local, have decided.

This “top-bottom” model has a logic and could work. But we cannot exclude the possibility that sometimes, or even very often, the opposite model, the “bottom-top”, would be necessary. The upper levels of local authorities may not be entirely aware of the real extent of the phenomena. If their knowledge is lacking or incomplete or not updated, instructions and provisions will not match the needs. The “top-bottom” model is likely to fail. In this case the order of decision-making should be inverted. First the municipalities should express their opinions based on the real problems at a local level, and then the provinces and the region should transform these realities into programs that take into account the general policy laid down by the central government or parliament.

2.2 - The integration of migrants

Integration is a process of mutual acceptance and not adaptation on one side only. Integration means that every individual has the chance to improve himself and his position, but he also has to give up some of his previous freedom.

The idea of integration is not the same everywhere and at all times. Different models of integration have been theorized. The following table, after Ambrosini (2001) provides a brief glance at the most important ones:

Table 3 –Models of immigrant integration

Area of integration	Temporary	Assimilative	Multicultural	Implicit
Concept of immigration	Workforce useful to fill temporary vacancies	Persons assigned to become citizens in the receiving society	Discriminated minorities to safeguard	Officially not necessary. Actually utilized both in regular and hidden forms
Admission to citizen status	Difficult and partial (<i>jus sanguinis</i>)	Quite easy (<i>jus soli</i>)	Quite indifferent (generally acquired in time)	Difficult and uncertain
Native-immigrant relationship	Isolation	Discrimination/indifference	Tolerance. Tendency towards separation	Ambivalence between humanitarian reception and intolerance
Work policies	Active recruitment. Link between stay permit and work permit. Equal pay	Flows selection; assimilative populations, equality in treatments	Positive actions. Quota system. Encouragement of entrepreneurship	Equal pay in regular jobs. Great tolerance towards irregular work. Fragmented promotional activities at local level
Social policies	Guarantee of housing for workers. Difficulty of family reunification and naturalisation	Not specific. Trend to facilitate the individual's insertion and eventual naturalization; territorial dispersion	Tendency to reinforce ethnic communities, also as fellow immigrants supply services to members	Not very developed, of a voluntary nature, mainly handed over to local authorities and third sector

Source: Ambrosini, 2001

The first is the *temporary* immigration model, as used to refer to the German situation before the 1999 reform, when migration was considered as transitory. Immigrants were invited to meet some specific needs in the labour market, but they were asked not to remain indefinitely. On the contrary, they had to be ready at all times to leave as soon as they were no longer useful. This model follows a functionalistic concept of immigration, only linked to the benefits and profits of the receiving country. Citizenship is granted on the basis of the *jus sanguinis* principle; integration is at a minimum level; equal pay and good working conditions are generally guaranteed, but family reunification is not easy (often hindered); no social investment to facilitate the inclusion of immigrants in the local community is made. The second and third generations cannot acquire citizenship automatically.

The second model, the *assimilative* one, can be attributed to the French case (or to the American one in the past). The incumbent aim is to assimilate as far as possible, also in a cultural sense. Citizenship is granted quite easily and becomes automatic starting from the second generation following the principle of *jus soli*, that is, whoever was born in the country becomes a national. The assimilation of a foreigner as an individual meant the model was useful for the state mission which wanted to hamper the formation of group minorities since they were considered to be opposed to the national identity.

The third model is called *multicultural* and is flexible and pluralistic. It can be associated with Britain or in the USA nowadays and more specifically Canada, the Netherlands and Sweden. Ethnic minorities have firmly established their presence and the idea of tolerance towards immigrants and their culture has been widely accepted. The tendency is towards building a pluralistic social organization, placing great value and importance on the formation of immigrant communities and associations. However, scholars are beginning to re-evaluate this total positive approach as a result of a comparison with the other two forms. The emphasis on maintaining the original language and culture of the immigrant, encouraged by specific education programs, may condition the new generations. On the one hand, they remain within their ethnic enclave and obtain a certain standing, but within the same ethnic group. On the other hand, they may find some obstacles in their way when they want to continue their studies and enter the job market. The process can trap them in their cultural membership, independently of their ambitions and expectations. This can produce some isolation and segregation of the minorities instead of inclusion and reciprocal communication.

The last model, the *implicit* one, can be linked to the new countries of immigration. It is not specifically designed by a political institution nor has it been formed intentionally, but rather in a vague and indefinite way. It has the following characteristics:

- immigrants arrive and stay spontaneously; there is no recruitment of manpower or any efficient scheduling of arrivals
- immigration controls are very limited. Legislation is mainly used to regularize the position of illegal immigrants, instead of preventing and controlling their entry into the country.
- the burden of responsibility lies with the local organizations. National agencies are (almost) completely absent. Migration is dealt with (almost) entirely by local administrations, associations, voluntary bodies, church organizations and the unions. All of them act to solve the emergencies created by the new arrivals
- the reception offered to immigrants reflects the general mixed attitudes of the host society: humanitarian reasons are counterbalanced by increasingly hostile behaviour due to a sense of insecurity about their own situation
- employment opportunities are initially informal and temporary, but gradually become more regular

- a fairly rapid evolution towards a more mature phase of the migration cycle with the consolidation of migration chains, family reunifications, the birth of the second generation and its introduction into the local school system
- the creation of widespread spontaneous networks of mutual aid, specifically ethnic associations, very different among themselves, but generally not too evolved and efficient.

The integration process passes through different aspects of the daily life. Some of these are not traumatic, others are more so. Food can arouse the curiosity of the native population, as indeed the sounds, instruments, voices and rhythms of ethnic music, without creating any kind of discord. The telling of tales and fables may do the same and children can learn to compare different cultural traditions. Events where various ethnic groups present their food, music and dress can be useful to make their culture known to others.

Some other areas, however, can cause conflict. Religion is a minefield. A comparison of religions, instead of being a meeting of people, often becomes a clash of cultures.

Language is a major issue for the integration process. For this reason governments are encouraged to organize language courses for adults.

Another difficult problem on the path towards integration is housing. Every one needs a roof over his head. But at the beginning of his migratory project and the migrant is alone, his roof may be temporary, crowded and unhealthy. As his stay becomes more permanent, his housing requirements will grow in importance. It then becomes a point on the agenda of governments, central as well as local, making housing into one of the major issues of integration. Both these topics, language courses and housing, will be dealt with in the following sections.

3. Integration issues: schooling

Schooling for immigrants is an umbrella term that covers a number of items. The three main issues are the following:

- a – schooling for foreign pupils and students
- b – adult education and training
- c – university students

and concern very different kinds of immigrants. Foreign pupils and students are second generation migrants, meaning they are involved when there has been a family reunification or a new family has been created. They are a sensor of integration as they are a sign of the migration becoming more stable and probably in the long run even permanent.

The question of adult education concerns first generation immigrants and involves three main aspects:

- knowledge of the language
- the achievement of the educational qualifications required by the labour market and recognized by the national bodies
- retraining in a professional sense requiring attendance at college courses.

Immigrants have some years of schooling behind them. They are not completely illiterate. Generally they can read and write, but they have not been part of the national system of education.

They need to acquire some knowledge of the local culture and history and very often to update their technical training. This is also a sensor of integration. For the temporary immigrant, who intends to stay just long enough to earn as much money as possible and then return home, attendance at school is not considered so important, whereas if he remains for a longer period and he is working on a continuous basis for a firm, he may become more aware of the importance of having some official acknowledgement and an upgrading of his own qualifications. These needs will grow as the immigrant becomes more integrated.

As far as these two first points are concerned, it is well to point out that it is not just a one way process involving the immigrant alone. The whole school system is involved and the process must be mutual; on the one hand, the immigrants (themselves or their children) must join a new school system, but, on the other hand, the school system must deal with the problems arising from the needs of these new users.

The third section - university students – covers a complex situation. In the countries new to immigration university students are *first generation* migrants who find themselves on their own. They enter the country with a temporary stay permit for study purposes and remain until they finish their studies. Some of them may remain permanently and find jobs in the local labour market. Many others go back home. Yet others may move to another foreign country to look for a job or continue with their studies at another university. All of them are migrants, however, even if they are well educated.

A second segment of foreign university students is made up of those who have gone through the host country's school system before entering higher education in the same way as the nationals have. In other words, they are foreign university students (foreign according to citizenship) who attended all the previous school orders in the same way as the native students did. They are second (third, fourth,...) generation migrants. They are well integrated, as are their families. This is an indicator that migration has become permanent and the immigrants are integrated into the local community.

3.1 – Foreign pupils at school

3.1.1 – How many are there?

When we talk about foreign pupils, the first questions to be asked are: how many are there? Are schools available and ready to receive these new pupils? The answers to these questions vary greatly if we analyse the phenomenon both in terms of space and time. In fact, every country has its own specific domestic situation which is changing in time, at a more or less rapid rate. Some of these countries are not interested in the schooling problems of foreigners as they do not have sufficiently large incoming flows of migrants. Such is the case of **Ukraine** where an expert answering our questions said: *Ukraine is not an attractive country for migrants. That is why politicians do not pay much attention to migratory policy.* In other countries the number of new arrivals is growing rapidly, while in others it is increasing steadily. In yet other countries foreign pupils are just beginning to enter schools. Emigration, rather than immigration, characterizes some countries and therefore they are not faced with these problems. Lastly, some countries are experiencing a similar situation which is new but temporary, because they are places of transit for migrants and their children.

In spite of the different attitudes of countries, the problem is growing in intensity and is finally being given some attention. In order to find an answer to the question “How do education systems attempt to integrate immigrant pupils?”, a special working group (*Eurydice European Unit*) has been set up with the financial support of the European Commission. Very recently (June 2004) it produced a document, entitled *Integrating immigrant children into schools in Europe*, in which the main issues of school integration are tackled. Geographically speaking, the Eurydice network has 30 member countries and therefore covers a larger area than the European Union.

As pointed out in the report, there are many reasons why it is very difficult to have comparable statistics on foreign pupils in local schools:

- . different ways of collecting the data may influence its availability and reliability
- . some countries are not interested in immigration flows
- . the definitions on which the collection of data is based can, and often do, vary.

For example, the **Eurydice** report defines “an immigrant child as a child from any other country (within or outside Europe), whose parents or grandparents may have settled in the host country, or who may be seeking asylum, have refugee status, or be an irregular immigrant. Children from families who have been settled in the host country for more than two generations do not therefore come within the scope of the survey.... Information in the survey covers the pre-primary, primary and compulsory general secondary levels of public-sector or government-dependent education.”

In **France** a distinction is made between *l'enfant d'immigrés*, *l'enfant de réfugiés* and *le nouvel arrivant*. *L'enfant d'immigrés* normally comes from a family whose father can speak French, has a job and a house and is well integrated into the local community. *L'enfant de réfugiés* refers to people that have made a very long and painful journey from some geographical areas like South-East Asia, Bosnia, Iran or Algeria. The *nouvel arrivant* is a pupil who has just arrived without any knowledge of the French language and comes from countries that have no political or historical connections with France. The term “nouvel” is used to distinguish between the newcomer and the immigrant who has been brought up in France; the first represents the beginning, the latter the continuation. But this is a temporary status, since normally they are considered “new arrivals” only for the first two years.

In **Slovenia** current legislation classifies children of immigrants into two categories according to their residential status:

- children of persons holding a *permanent* residence permit
- children of persons holding a *temporary* residence permit. This category includes:
 - o minors with temporary asylum. This status was in force until 26 July 2002 and referred to former refugees from Bosnia and Herzegovina.
 - o minor asylum seekers and children who have been granted a special form of protection
 - o minor refugees: foreign refugees are granted asylum and thus a permanent residence permit based on reasons determined by the Geneva Convention and Protocol relating to the status of refugees

In the research there is also something which would appear to be rather debatable. The **PISA** (Programme for International Student Assessment) is an international survey conducted under the auspices of the OECD in 32 countries worldwide. The aim of the survey is to measure the performance level of *pupils aged 15* in reading and mathematical and scientific literacy. This research is not a “census” of the students of this age group, but is based on representative samples of 15 year old pupils in secondary education, who were selected by their school.

As for the statistical evaluation of individual countries, it is worth mentioning the **Danish** one as an example of a very modern system. The Statbank, set up by the Statistical office, makes its own tables based on the data inserted in its memory. It is possible, therefore, by entering the variables available into the data set, to ask for a specific table and it is compiled in real time. But even if the system is ultra-modern and functional in specific cases, it is unable to answer the general question “How many are there?”, since the information on the foreign users of the school system are not provided at all school levels.

Another example may be the **Slovak Republic** where they too collect statistical information on foreign pupils and students. The following table is a summary of the most recent estimates.

Table 4 - Foreign children and pupils in kindergartens and primary schools, foreign students in secondary schools. Slovak Republic, September 2003

School level	Public schools			Private schools			Church schools		
	All pupils	Foreign pupils	%	All pupils	Foreign pupils	%	All pupils	Foreign pupils	%
Kindergartens	149728	237	0.16	318	1	0.31	672	1	0.15
Primary schools	553.249	861	0.16	503	19	3.78	25259	27	0.11
Secondary schools: apprentice, vocational schools	127202	87	0.07	4859	0	0	423	0	0
Secondary schools: specialized schools and conservatories	87524	100	0.11	3436	7	0.20	2393	5	0.21
Gymnasia	83072	170	0.20	3240	32	0.99	13745	21	0.15

Source: Institute of Information and Prognoses of Education, Slovak Republic

In **Italy** the Ministry of Education, in collaboration with the National Statistical Institute, carries out an annual statistical survey specifically on immigrant children, so that it is possible to have information on how many foreign pupils there are in the different school levels, both public and private, and in the different administrative areas (regions, provinces, towns).

The following table refers to the Italian situation over the last twenty years. At the beginning of the 80s, when Italy was changing from an emigrating to an immigrating country, the number of foreigners in schools was very limited, just slightly over 6,000. But twenty years later the number of foreign pupils has reached almost 300,000. The index number (base year 1983-84) touched the value of 4631 in the school year 2003-04. The share of non-Italian pupils initially was negligible: less than one per thousand. It reached 1% in 1998-99 and 3.5% last year (2003-04). The speed of the increase is all the greater (index number 5816) due to the simultaneous reduction in the number of native pupils.

Table 5 – Number and origins of foreign pupils in all schools in Italy – 1983-2003

School year	European Community		Non EU (1)		Total non-Italian pupils	Index Number (1983-84=100)	Percentage of non-Italian pupils in the school population
	Value	%	Value	%			
1983/84	2 706	44.33	3 398	55.67	6 104	100	0.06

1984/85	2 792	43.17	3 676	58.63	6 468	106	0.06
1985/86	2 915	41.35	4 135	58.65	7 050	115	0.07
1986/87	3 097	41.72	4 327	58.28	7 424	122	0.07
1987/88	3 605	40.20	5 362	59.80	8 967	147	0.09
1988/89	4 559	38.67	7 232	61.33	11 791	193	0.12
1989/90	4 988	36.49	8 680	63.51	13 668	224	0.14
1990/91	6 044	32.16	12 750	67.84	18 794	308	0.19
1991/92	8 351	32.42	17 405	67.58	25 756	422	0.27
1992/93	11 045	36.16	19 502	63.84	30 547	500	0.32
1993/94	14 938	39.86	22 540	60.14	37 478	614	0.41
1994/95	18 161	42.42	24 655	57.58	42 816	701	0.47
1995/96	21 736	43.19	28 586	56.81	50 322	824	0.56
1996/97	24 423	42.40	33 172	57.60	57 595	944	0.66
1997/98 (2)	30 134	42.65	40 523	57.35	70 657	1 158	0.81
1998/99 (3)	35 687	41.73	49 835	58.27	85 522	1 401	1.09
1999/00	51 361	42.92	68 318	57.08	119 679	1 961	1.47
2000/01	64 342	43.65	83 064	56.35	147 406	2 415	1.84
2001/02	80 622	44.35	101 145	55.65	181 767	2 978	2.31
2002/03	103 717	44.56	129 049	55.44	232 766	3 813	2.96
2003/04	131 104	46.38	151 579	53.62	282 683	4 631	3.49

Source: Istat until 1993/94; Istat and Sistema Informativo of the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) from 1994/95 until 196/97; Sistema Informativo of the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR) from 1998/99

- (1) including the stateless
- (2) data on high schools is estimated by applying the same growth rate as in the two previous school years
- (3) except for non-state high schools

The demographic situation is becoming quite serious all over Europe. The number of births is falling drastically and at the beginning of the new century (and millennium) the overall fertility rate, except in two countries, Turkey at 2.5 in 2000 and Iceland at 2.08 in the same year, is lower than the replacement level. This means that the share of native pupils in the school population is decreasing practically throughout Europe, and obviously at the same time the share of immigrant pupils is increasing.

The second part of Table 6 on the Italian situation gives us other useful information about the share of foreign pupils in the total pupil population at different school levels. With reference to the whole of Italy, foreigners account for 3.83% of all pupils in nursery schools. The highest value is in primary schools where 4.47% are foreigners. In first level secondary schools the percentage is quite high at 4.01%, whilst in the upper secondary schools the percentage falls to 1.87%. To understand the domestic situation we have to take into account the fact that primary and secondary (I level) schools are part of compulsory education. The secondary II level schools are freely chosen by students and families. As a consequence attendance during compulsory education is obviously higher than in the upper secondary schools. Due to the general economic conditions of immigrants, who are generally worse off than the local population, not all foreign families can afford to send their children to the upper secondary schools.

Table 6 - Foreign pupils in Italy: share according to geographical distribution and rate of non-Italian pupils in the school population and kind of school. School year 2003/04

Geographical sector	Pupils		Kind of school				Total
	Absolute values	%	Nursery school	Primary school	Secondary I level	Secondary II level	
North-west	107 976	38.20	6.19	6.98	6.46	2.98	5.61

North-east	81 097	28.69	6.24	7.71	6.87	3.44	6.05
Centre	67 260	23.79	5.04	5.97	5.68	2.68	4.73
South	19 059	6.74	0.83	1.11	1.02	0.41	0.83
Islands	7 291	2.58	0.76	0.85	0.78	0.31	0.66
ITALY	282 683	100,0	3.83	4.47	4.01	1.87	3.49

Source: Sistema Informativo of the Ministry of Education, University and Research (MIUR), Italy

Another important consideration is necessary: a comparison of the situation reported in the table with that of a few years ago will show a growing presence of foreign pupils in upper secondary schools too. In the 80s and 90s this percentage in upper secondary schools was very limited, not just for the reason mentioned above, but mainly due to the small numbers of pupils involved. The families of migrants were young or very young, with small children still attending primary schools. In an unpublished study, we found that in the 1991-92 school year three quarters of foreigners were under the age of 11 and 90% under 13, the upper limit for compulsory education (CSER, 1992). In the 1999/2000 school year the share of foreign students in upper secondary schools was 0.58% (Caritas, 2001), whilst five years later, in the school year 2003/04, the percentage has tripled.

As the migration process becomes stable and permanent, the children move through the educational system starting from the lower levels and gradually filling the upper levels. As soon as migrants have the chance to be introduced into the local community when they have a job, a house and access to services, they and their families soon become part of it. The integration process starts and is rapidly completed. In other words, children at school are a good integration indicator.

For **Liechtenstein** information is available about the general share of foreigners in the total pupil population.

Table 7 – Percentage of foreign pupils. Liechtenstein, 1995/2004

School year	Percentage of foreigners
1995/96	42.07
1996/97	42.88
1997/98	37.61
1998/99	34.73
1999/2000	33.47
2000/01	32.14
2001/02	32.73
2002/03	31.77
2003/04	36.81

Source: Liechtenstein for Eurydice

The downward trend of the percentage of foreign pupils in the period 1996-2000 is due to the introduction of an Amendment of the Act on the Acquisition and Loss of National Citizenship. In the last school year the total amount of pupils in schools in Liechtenstein was 4,392, of whom 1,575 pupils were of foreign origin. More than half (59%) were German native speakers or with a good knowledge of the German language. The remaining part was made up of pupils whose mother tongue was not German and who were not very fluent in German. This group amounted to 646 pupils that represented 13.1% of the total number of pupils.

Another country which is very attentive to foreign enrolments in local schools is **Cyprus**, which gave us the following information:

School year	1999/2000	number of “bilingual” students	1330
	2000/2001		1600
	2001/2002		2843
	2002/2003		2570

Bilingual students in Cyprus come from a number of diverse linguistic backgrounds. In a survey conducted in 2001 it emerged that its foreign pupils came from 96 different countries, speaking 13 different languages (Ministry of Education and Culture, Cyprus).

As mentioned above, it is not possible to draw up a similar picture for all European countries at the moment. Only information about the share of foreign pupils in second level secondary schools is available for some of the Council of Europe countries. The data is shown in Table 8.

Table 8 – Foreign pupils in high schools in some Council of Europe countries

Country	Foreign pupils		Share of foreign pupils as % of total pupils	Continental area of origin						
	MF	% F		Africa	North America	South America	Asia	Europe	Austral -asia	Not available
Austria	31682	51	13	965	554	320	3885	25777	29	152
Azerbaijan	2224	8	1	7	1	n.a.	1742	474	n.a.	-
Belgium	38150	49	11	10973	485	646	2609	22690	17	730
Bulgaria	8130	41	3	146	20	10	1555	6399	-	-
Cyprus	2472	39	21	105	29	2	1595	734	7	-
Czech Rep.	9753	47	3	226	102	77	820	6474	3	2051
Finland	6288	43	2	716	294	69	1666	3465	27	51
France	147402	...	8	75465	5242	4253	19828	41404	200	1010
Germany	219039	49	10	20723	5422	4656	75500	110621	349	1768
Hungary	11783	46	3	167	319	21	1776	9495	5	-
Ireland	8207	52	5	415	2044	21	1399	4247	81	-
Italy	29228	55	2	2186	612	1233	3463	20857	26	851
Latvia	7917	...	8	12	24	4	7124	753	-	-
Moldova	2909	31	3	97	-	-	-	1568	-	1244
Netherlands	16589	49	4	2559	348	1079	3308	9205	42	48
Norway	8834	46	5	733	393	149	1017	5067	21	1454
Poland	7380	54	-	271	567	58	1112	5367	5	-
Portugal	11177	50	3	6093	601	1846	142	2314	25	156
Romania	11669	42	2	691	155	33	1681	9086	4	19
Russian Federation	70735	...	1	30676	17394	...	22665
Slovak Rep.	1463	41	1	118	16	9	408	1092	-	-
Spain	44860	56	2	4364	3195	8451	1149	27661	38	2
Sweden	28664	46	7	661	1472	605	2558	17211	234	5923
Switzerland	27765	44	17	1802	697	866	2175	21070	58	1097
Ukraine	17210	...	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	17210
United Kingdom	225722	48	10	18134	18564	2926	74400	109454	1790	454
Belarus	2601	...	1	118	26	38	2105	177	n.a.	137

Source: Unesco, *Recueil de données mondiales sur l'éducation 2004*

Generally speaking, the higher percentages of foreign students in upper secondary schools are to be found in Western Europe, while the lower ones are in Eastern Europe. More specifically, the

percentages tend to be lower than 10%, with the exception of Belgium (11%), Cyprus (21%), Germany (10%), Switzerland (17%) and the United Kingdom (10%), whilst negligible values (1%) are recorded in Azerbaijan, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Ukraine and Belarus.

The list of the migrants' countries of origin can be very long. In Italy, in the last school year, it included 191 countries, so we can say that foreign pupils come from practically all over the world. In Rome and Milan more than 150 nationalities are represented. It is easy to imagine that when there is such a large number of countries of origin involved, the multiculturalist approach becomes very complicated.

There is no single model to explain the territorial distribution of migrants. Sometimes migrants prefer to go and stay in the capital or generally in the bigger cities, as they can find regular employment more easily if they entered the country legally, or can be less visible if they are entered illegally. Another model takes into account the possibility and the cost of accommodation. At first a migrant will look for make-shift, temporary lodgings, but as soon as the stay becomes more permanent, the migrant will look for a more satisfactory and economic solution. Practical reasons may push the immigrant towards the suburbs of the big cities or towns, because he has no alternative. City centres (the big city) usually offer places of work and places to live for all, both native and migrant, whilst the suburbs are residential areas. Some scholars stress the importance migrants place on recreating pockets of their own social and cultural communities so that they can live in close contact with their fellow countrymen.

Table 9 shows the data from the PISA survey. It is about the distribution of students, aged 15, in the different localities, according to their size (village, small town, city, big city). In general, foreign students are concentrated in cities and larger cities. As evidence of what has just been said, we can pick out the Danish case where more than half the native pupils live in small villages, as opposed to 36.5% who live in large cities. A very similar situation can be found in Austria, Portugal, Finland, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and Norway.

Table 9 – Proportion of 15 year old immigrants among native students of the same age according to the location of their schools. 2000

Country	Village		Small town		Town/city		Large city	
	Native pupils	Immigrants	Native pupils	Immigrants	Native pupils	Immigrants	Native pupils	Immigrants
Belgium Fr.	35.6	16.8	37.4	27.4	27.0	55.8	0.0	0.0
Belgium Nl.	28.1	17.3	60.3	56.8	11.2	17.1	0.4	8.8
Czech Republic	33.1	16.7	36.5	59.3	16.9	16.7	13.5	7.4
Denmark	57.2	22.1	26.0	29.1	6.5	12.3	10.4	36.5
Germany	36.4	28.2	41.8	38.7	15.9	27.4	5.9	5.7
Greece	21.6	12.1	46.8	29.8	17.2	16.9	14.4	41.2
Spain	20.7	23.3	32.8	26.5	36.8	24.5	9.7	25.7
France	29.9	18.3	51.6	58.6	14.8	16.7	3.8	6.4
Ireland	60.6	52.9	13.5	26.0	7.7	1.2	18.2	20.0
Italy	18.3	16.5	52.1	42.6	18.0	17.3	11.6	23.6
Luxembourg	35.1	25.7	18.4	18.1	46.5	56.2	*	*
Hungary	18.3	12.5	40.2	31.6	21.9	24.2	19.6	31.7
Austria	44.5	19.9	27.4	22.6	14.5	18.1	13.6	39.4
Poland	19.5	16.4	40.7	36.4	31.5	47.3	8.3	0.0
Portugal	40.7	28.0	38.0	28.9	13.6	23.2	7.7	19.9
Finland	39.2	11.1	33.4	12.6	7.0	7.5	20.4	68.9

Slovenia	51.3	25.2	33.8	37.0	9.1	22.0	5.8	15.8
United Kingdom	29.5	7.9	37.9	18.2	18.0	30.1	14.6	43.8
Norway	68.0	39.6	21.7	30.0	10.4	30.4	*	*
Bulgaria	16.3	31.8	34.6	24.6	38.1	22.7	11.0	21.0
Romania	23.6	15.4	30.6	51.8	38.6	17.4	7.3	15.4

Source: OCDE, PISA 2000 data base

* no towns of this size

3.1.2 – The reaction of schools

When immigration is new to a country, the newcomers are mostly adults. Generally when migration becomes more “institutional” and permanent, adults call their family from back home to join them and then the first pupils arrive. As a consequence, schools are faced with a new situation which creates problems for them at first because they do not know how to deal with them and they have no information about what to do. Sometimes, however, the problems appear to be bigger than they really are, as a research (CSER, 1992) has shown. It told the story of a teacher’s experience when, for the first time, in the history of the school a foreign pupil, who could speak no Italian, was enrolled in the school. All the teaching and administrative staff and all the local families were worried. A long period of discussions, meetings and consultations started between the school board, the class representatives and the teachers’ board. It seemed to be a very difficult task for which no one had the necessary training. Many hypotheses were advanced, both inside and outside the school, but before any final decision could be reached, it was too late. The schoolboy had learnt Italian, made friends with his Italian classmates and adapted to the school environment!

This story proves that sometimes problems appear bigger than they actually are. Nevertheless, past experiences can be a useful guide for others who find themselves in a similar situation. The Italian case could be a very interesting example. During the 80s immigration gradually exceeded Italian emigration. The school system had no previous experiences of its own to draw on and the international references seemed too distant from the domestic situation. The issues were raised at some conferences, meetings and work group activities organized by the Ministry of Education. During these meetings many local experiences were reported by teachers who were in need of solutions. They posed many questions which were useful to pinpoint the main problems and to discuss what was possible inside school and what should be done outside school, mainly by the central offices and boards of the Ministry.

The Ministry Commission, specifically created to deal with the problems of foreign students, set out some general principles (Ministry Circular 205, 26 July 1990). The following are the main points:

- Compulsory education is available to all pupils, native as well as immigrant. This is a constitutional rule and applies to everyone who lives in our country, either legally or illegally.
- Schools can and must simplify as far as possible the administrative procedures in receiving foreign pupils. The school must accept all kinds of pupils without insisting on the possession of the documents normally required for Italians. Administrative certificates about family status, citizenship, vaccinations and state of health can be replaced by a simple declaration of the parent who is personally and legally responsible for his statement.
- Generally it is desirable not to concentrate all the foreign pupils in one class only. It is better to spread the newcomers over all the classes (which generally should not have more than 20 foreign pupils) in order to favour their integration with Italian pupils.

- Schools must introduce multicultural education into the teaching programs for both Italians and foreigners.
- The multiculturalist approach must be introduced into all schools, even when they have no foreign pupils.
- Contacts with ethnic representatives like embassies, consulates and ethnic communities must be encouraged or introduced as much as possible. The same must also happen with local authorities and local public or private associations that can be a useful bridge with the foreign culture.
- Special attention must be paid to adult education by creating more courses for the “alphabetisation” of migrants and for the “150 hours” corresponding to primary school and to secondary school (I level) education.

The following synoptic Table 10 lists the dates (years) of the main legislative measures introduced in favour of foreign pupils by some European countries. Key legislation concerned with supportive measures for foreign children was passed in most of the countries listed below between 1998-99 and 2002-03, so that it is only quite recently that attention has been given to immigrant children. In **Spain**, the 2002 Law on the Quality of Education (LOCE) referred explicitly to the integration of immigrant pupils into the Spanish educational system for the first time. In **Lithuania** specific attention was given to the education of immigrant children during the reform of the education legislation in June 2003 (Eurydice, 2004).

Table10 - Dates of current legislation favouring immigrant children in pre-primary and compulsory education. 2003-04

Year	Countries
1996	Slovenia, Slovakia
1997	Belgium (Flemish Community), Luxembourg, Portugal, United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)
1998	Ireland, Latvia, Netherlands, Finland, United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)
1999	Czech Republic, Greece, Italy, Latvia, Iceland, Slovenia, United Kingdom (England), United Kingdom (Wales)
2000	Czech Republic, Ireland, Luxembourg, Poland, United Kingdom
2001	Belgium (French Community), Belgium (German Community), Poland, Portugal, Romania
2002	Belgium (Flemish Community), Czech Republic, Spain, France, United Kingdom (Scotland), Cyprus, Slovakia
2003	Germany, Cyprus, Lithuania, Netherlands, United Kingdom
2004	Hungary, Malta, Norway, Romania

Source: Eurydice, 2004

Table 11 indicates the kinds of measures adopted in European countries. Eurydice introduces two different models of support to immigrant pupils:

- “the *integrated model* in which immigrant children are allocated to classes with pupils of the same age in mainstream education. Here they follow methods and a curricular content intended for native pupils. Measures for support (essentially linguistic in nature) are implemented on an individual basis for each pupil during normal school hours. Extracurricular tuition in addition to mainstream provision may also exist. Where this is the case, immigrant pupils are given lessons outside normal school hours, but always on school premises. The host country education authorities are responsible for such tuition.
- the *separate model* which may assume two forms:
 - *transitional arrangements*: immigrant children are grouped together separately from other children (in their school) for a limited period so that they can receive special attention geared to their needs. However, they may attend some lessons in the corresponding mainstream classes with all other pupils
 - *long-term measures*: special classes are formed within the school for one or several school years, and often group immigrant children together in accordance with their competence in the language of instruction. Course content and teaching methods are geared to their needs.” (Eurydice, 2004)

The two models can be combined in some way in the same country. Other countries, on the other hand, apply mainly the direct integration approach, but with additional supports where they are appropriate and requested, as happens in Ireland, Italy and Scotland

Table 11 – Arrangements for assisting immigrant pupils in pre-primary and full time compulsory education. 2003-04

Country	Integrated model		Separate model		Extracurricular support: provided outside official school hours
	Direct integration with support provided within the mainstream classroom	Direct integration with support provided in withdrawal from the mainstream classroom	Transitional support	Long-term support (a year or more)	
Belgium Fr.	+		+		
Belgium De.	+	+	+		
Belgium NL.	+		+		
Czech Republic	+		+	+	
Denmark	+	+			+
Germany			+	+	
Estonia	+			+	
Greece	+			+	+
Spain	+		+		+
France	+		+		
Ireland	+	+			
Italy	+				
Cyprus	+				
Latvia	-	-	-	-	-
Lithuania	+		+		+

Luxembourg	+		+		
Hungary	-	-	-	-	-
Malta	-	-	-	-	-
Netherlands	+		+		
Austria	+	+			
Poland	+		+		+
Portugal	+				+
Slovenia	+		+	+	
Slovakia	+		+		
Finland	+		+		
Sweden	+		+		+
United Kingdom	+	+			+
Iceland	+	+			+
Norway	+		+		
Bulgaria	-	-	-	-	-
Romania			+		

Source: Eurydice, 2004

Language is indeed the first issue that has to be tackled when a newcomer enters a school. Language has a vehicular meaning and is necessary so that all the school pupils use the same linguistic code. Many of the problems related to these new users of the school system are caused by their lack of language ability and much of the support introduced in various countries is directed at this very problem. As stated in the Eurydice report, “the European education systems offer immigrant children an exceptionally wide range of measures that fall into three categories:

- measures for support intended to compensate for the language needs of immigrant pupils whose mother tongue is not the language of instruction. In general, such measures correspond to tuition based on “linguistic immersion” in which pupils are exposed directly to the target language and receive intensive tuition, individually or in small groups (special linguistic support), during normal school hours. ‘Bilingual’ tuition offered partly in the language of instruction and partly in the native language of pupils is also possible;
- measures for support aimed at addressing the learning needs of immigrant pupils in certain areas of the curriculum at the level of education at which they are enrolled. Under these circumstances, the content and teaching methods of the mainstream curriculum may be specially modified; curriculum support may be organised and immigrant pupils may sometimes not be assessed in the same way as other pupils;
- classes may be reduced in size in the interests of a more favourable pupil/teacher ratio.” (Eurydice, 2004)

These main forms of provision are often combined into the integrated or separate models as mentioned above. All the countries start their measures of support by teaching the host country language of instruction, whereas in some Scandinavian countries (Finland, Sweden, Norway) and in Estonia, Cyprus and Latvia bilingual tuition, in which teachers use both the mother tongue of immigrant pupils and the language of instruction, is also available.

Reducing the number of pupils in each class is a way of facilitating the integration of foreign children, as happens in the **Czech Republic**, **Germany** and **Italy**. The situation may vary quite extensively from one country to another, as well as inside the same country from one place to

another. In fact, sometimes a foreign pupil arrives alone or in a small family group. Generally the age difference of children in an immigrant family means they can be put into different classes. But, when many foreign families arrive and settle together in the same locality, an ethnic community may be created and consequently a large number of children will go to school together. The same could happen in certain places where immigrants, independently of their origins, intend to stay. Due to the cost of accommodation, job opportunities and their life style, immigrants of different origins may decide to live in the same part of a (big) city or in small Municipalities. In all these cases the number of immigrant children can grow quite quickly. Whilst one or a few foreign pupils can be integrated into a class, it becomes much more difficult when there is quite a large number of them.

Some countries also work towards the integration of parents. They can be seen to work on two fronts: firstly, parents become directly involved in the schooling system as they need retraining or to attend school themselves, and secondly, they are called upon to take an active interest in the school life of their children. The first concerns adult education, the second the education of their children. Some measures are taken specifically to encourage the presence of parents in the education of their children. The main obstacles to this are culturally based. Muslims in particular find it difficult to trust the local school system. They send their children to school because it is compulsory for all. Even though they generally appreciate the efforts made by teachers and staff in the education process, they nevertheless believe they themselves have a much more important role to play in the education of their children. Another problem is often connected with the parents' poor knowledge of the local language, because it stops them from sitting on school committees where programs, activities and policies are discussed and decided.

3.1.3 – The updating of teachers and school programs

In many cases the arrival of new kinds of pupils presents a new challenge for a school. The teaching staff are faced with new problems and need special training to help them deal with the situation and be aware of recent developments in pedagogy. Education lays the foundations for the future of society and must not focus on the national heritage alone, but also embrace other cultures so that children can have a better understanding of the world about us. School education is no longer just the transmission of one culture, but is directly involved in the formation of citizens who should respect and appreciate diversity (MIUR-Luiss, 2001).

In other words, the school must work to raise the awareness of different forms of diversity and prevent the formation of stereotypes and prejudices.

The multi-cultural approach must be, and in many cases already has been, introduced into teacher training. They need to be prepared to deal with new issues that may be caused not only by native pupils, but also by the newcomers.

As for the teachers, their attention must be focussed first and foremost on the language when a new foreign pupil arrives. The pupil's integration and future education will depend on how and how quickly the problem is solved. From the point of view of the teachers, these problems cannot be solved by the class teacher alone, otherwise the whole class will suffer. Furthermore, not all teachers have the competence and the instruments necessary to teach the foreign student the local language as an *L2, second language* (MIUR-Luiss, 2001).

The knowledge of the local language is the first main issue that involves the school program. The speed of the integration process will also depend on whether the local language or the language of origin is spoken at home. But there are also some other cultural aspects that can influence the school careers of foreign pupils. In the Muslim world, religion plays an extremely important role in everyday life and its values are shared by all the members of the community. This could lead to a certain conflict or rejection of the pupil's new environment outside his own community. In particular, when this uneasiness involves the school as an institution, the performance of a pupil may be negatively influenced and also his attitude towards the teachers. The social organization and the system of interpersonal relationships in the Muslim culture, especially between parents and children or men and women, can lead to some difficulty in accepting women in the role of teachers.

The updating of teachers is the first requirement; the second is the updating of school programs.

3.2 – Foreign adult education and training

There are not just two parties, schools and foreign pupils, active in the integration process. It requires the collaboration of different figures with different roles at different levels. When a foreign pupil arrives in a school with his own needs and difficulties, but is keen to communicate with his companions and to have an opportunity to learn, we have seen the efforts made by the school system to facilitate the integration of the pupil into the school.

This is one reading of the problem. Another figure is formed by the parents. As matter of fact, in all European school systems, parents are called upon to cooperate with the school boards in helping their children through their school careers. By asking the parents of foreign pupils to follow closely

the progress made by their children, they can also contribute to the general education of the whole school by bringing their own culture with them, which can be compared with the culture of others, and thus contribute to a dialogue between peoples and the integration process.

For this reason, as soon as the national education policy takes into consideration the foreign members of its school population, specific references are made to the involvement of parents. In the **Czech Republic, Estonia, Slovakia and Romania** social workers and workers attached to the residential centre for asylum seekers cooperate with schools in resolving matters concerning school-parent relations (Eurydice, 2004)

Generally parents cooperate in this dialogue if they can. In fact parents are often very keen to take part in meetings, but find themselves excluded owing to language difficulties. Language, once again, is the major obstacle. This is the why in many countries language courses are organized for immigrants. And this is also true for parents. In **France** the basic principle holds that an insufficient knowledge of the local language cannot be considered as a handicap or as a symptom of inadaptation. Parents have an interesting contribution to give and can potentially take part in this common education process, but they are *de facto* excluded because of their inability to communicate efficiently. The knowledge of the teaching language becomes an evident problem for adults who cannot use a common linguistic code.

Consequently, a second factor influences the integration process. The parent who has no language abilities, uses his own language of origin inside his family. Children are obliged to practice the family language and are not stimulated to speak the language of the local community and of his school companions. This is a brake on the integration of foreign pupils and can lead to poorer school results

The language also interferes in the integration process for adults, but in another way. It is not just a problem that emerges when the parent is involved in the education of his children, but mainly for the adult himself, with or without the family, when he has to present himself for a job. The newcomer, without any expertise in the local language, may have very interesting qualifications, but he cannot make the best of them because of his language difficulties. In such cases adults will need training only in language skills.

It has been recognized in **Norway** that a knowledge of the local language is a precondition for an active participation in the host society. In this country adult immigrants are provided with a language course of 850 lessons if they have finished primary education and up to 3000 lessons if they are illiterate or have not completed primary education. Many Municipalities are financed by the government for this work. Even though the courses are free of charge and the number of participants, as well as those who pass the final test, are on the increase, the results have not been judged positive. Progress is poor, the results ambiguous and the levels of absenteeism and withdrawal from classes are high. In view of this the government is considering (2003) making attendance compulsory for a 300-lesson course in the Norwegian language and social studies specifically for adult immigrants who have arrived recently. The compulsory language course will become a pre-requisite for the granting of a settlement permit and for obtaining Norwegian citizenship.

In **Latvia** they have paid a lot of attention to the language difficulties encountered by immigrants. More than 10 years ago a “National Programme for Latvian Language Training” was established by the government to develop the methodology, prepare teaching materials and train teachers to

promote Latvian language learning among non-Latvians. The project is directed specifically at new immigrants.

In **Italy** the knowledge of the Italian language is considered a positive indicator of the ability and will of the immigrants to integrate professionally and socially into Italian society. Until recently language learning was very often left to a spontaneous approach, but now more attention is being paid to it because it is considered as essential and a crucial passage in the integration process within the receiving community. Art.38 of the Law 189/2002 states “the teaching of the Italian language is promoted by the State, the Regions and the Local Authorities in collaboration with associations in the tertiary sector, as well as in voluntary work and also bearing in mind the needs of workers and evaluating the existing structures in the country”.

The migrant may be hoping to broaden his education to include a knowledge of the local history, culture and customs. The local community may be organizing courses for immigrants who are waiting to get Italian nationality. It may happen, and this is not infrequent, that an immigrant needs more qualifications in order to practise a trade or profession. As far as Italian legislation is concerned, before opening a commercial activity a person, native or immigrant, must have completed the period of compulsory education and got the equivalent qualifications. In all these situations the school system offers opportunities to adult migrants.

All this concerns the lower level of school education, but there are other levels of courses available at school, such as the vocational education which an immigrant might need in order upgrade his professional qualifications.

Vocational education for young people is undertaken after finishing the compulsory period of schooling. This is a training period usually before starting work, though it may take place simultaneously. This concerns both native and immigrant workers, who are hoping to improve their qualifications by attending a professional course.

Vocational education is organized to give the basic technical training to young adults or more mature adults and it is a public responsibility, whether it be at a central or a local level. In **Finland** the National Board of Education submitted a proposal to the Ministry of Education for a reform of the qualifications structure and for five new qualifications. In accordance with the proposal, a statute was passed on 175 vocational qualifications and 117 specialist qualifications.

It is very difficult to make a comparative analysis at an international level of the statistics about vocational education. It seems interesting to refer to the **Norwegian** situation as communicated through Statistics Norway. Immigrants from Asia and Africa have the lowest levels on average. Immigrants aged 30-44 years from the Philippines, Poland, Russia, India, China and Iran have a higher level of education than the average person in Norway of the same age group. 42 % of Philippine immigrants have completed tertiary education (among non-immigrants the share is 30%), whilst 23 % of Russian immigrants have completed long tertiary education (at least 4 or 5 years). This is more than three times as high as among native people. Among the immigrants from Russia, Poland, Chile, Ethiopia and Iran there very few that have not completed their education or have had only basic education (4-8 %). This is a smaller proportion than among the native population. In Norway only about 2% of immigrants originating from non-Western countries have not completed their education, but they have had some years of schooling in their background and are not illiterate.

Table 12 – Persons 30-44 years, by level of education, immigrant category and country background
(1). Norway, 2001. Percentage

Immigration category and country background (1)	Total (number)	Percentage					
		Unknown	No completed education	Lower secondary level	Upper secondary education (2)	Tertiary education short (3)	Tertiary education long (4)
All Norway	1009966	2.8	0.1	8.7	58.3	23.1	6.9
Immigrants	89302	20.9	1.6	10.9	39.7	18.8	8.1
Native population	920664	1.0	0	8.5	60.1	23.5	6.8
Of immigrant population (1)							
Western countries	27665	22.0	0.5	7.0	31.2	26.4	12.9
Non-Western countries	61637	20.4	2.1	12.7	43.5	15.4	5.9
of which							
Scandinavian countries	15336	22.2	0.6	7.9	35.4	25.7	8.2
Eastern Europe	13222	21.9	0.4	8.3	45.8	15.2	8.3
Western Europe except Turkey	9815	21.7	0.4	6.5	27.0	26.3	18.1
Asia with Turkey	34741	19.4	2.7	15.9	42.1	14.9	5.0
Africa	9893	24.1	3.0	9.3	43.2	15.1	5.3
South and Central America	3781	14.9	1.0	7.1	48.9	20.5	7.6
North America, Australasia	2514	22.2	0.4	3.1	22.5	31.2	20.6

Source: Statistics Norway

- (1) Country background concerns first generation immigrants and persons born in Norway of two foreign-born parents
(2) Including the “intermediate level” which includes education based on completed upper secondary level, but which are not accredited as tertiary education
(3) Tertiary education, short, comprises higher education of 4 years or shorter
(4) Tertiary education, long, higher education of more than 4 years

There is one segment of the immigrant population that is generally given very little attention by the government and that is immigrant prisoners in jail. Often the time spent in prison is a stand-by period for the immigrant who is just waiting for his release to start his integration process again. It is good policy to use the time available to obtain a basic education when necessary or vocational training for those who need it. In **Italy** the prison system pays special attention to education. About 26% of the enrolments in professional courses are covered by immigrants who account for 6% of all prisoners. Basic compulsory schooling and professional teaching are available in most prisons and in many it is possible to receive secondary schooling and tertiary education.

Before ending this section, one last consideration is necessary: the professional training provided by industry and generally by private organisations and firms. This is outside our topic in this paper since it involves the internal setting of the sector. While the public sector’s interests are those of a general upgrading of the level of man power in the labour market, private companies very often (or nearly always) aim at updating their own staff’s qualifications only.

In other words, in state schools and training colleges they teach mathematics, sciences and technology in a general sense, whereas in the private sector they teach how to use a new machine or technology, a new process or a new organizational scheme. In the public sector, teaching is a way of

giving trainees new responsibilities and improving their abilities and skills within the labour market. In private firms the aim is to update the skills of their own employees and workers in order to increase the profitability of the enterprise. It is an investment in the same way that an entrepreneur introduces some change into the plant. The goal is to make the company more competitive. This is why firms are not interested in improving the general skills of workers (they can find the right professionally prepared person in the market), but only to update their reliable workers on new processes or tools or machines.

The case of the initial training given to new workers is very different. Generally it is a compulsory period which may vary in length according to the sector the firm works in. The aim of the firm is to introduce the newcomers to the plant or corporation.

To make an analogy: the public sector teaches somebody how to drive a truck and issues a driving licence. The private firm employs the driver, who is already professionally skilled, and the training course organized by the firm is just to introduce the driver to a new truck or to the trucks being used in the company.

The very last question concerns immigrant entrepreneurship. Vocational education in this field concerns training and orientation courses, introducing information on how to start a business, the laws regulating a commercial activity, financial assistance, access to bank loans, administrative procedures and the general rules to follow. Obviously these courses are run by the public sector. Using the same analogy as above, it can be said that the public training sector must give the economic, social and environmental information necessary and the norms and rules to follow. It must teach the meaning of the road signs so that the new driver is able to move correctly.

3.3 – Immigrant university students

It is a very pleasant surprise to walk down the streets of many European university towns to hear so different languages spoken by the students. “It is an indicator of integration” or “Is it an indicator of integration?” Surely it is a heartening and reassuring observation to note that so many people coming from different parts of the world can live side by side without big contrasts.

When we hear a different language from the one spoken in the place, we immediately think of foreign students and therefore imagine the sentence without the question mark: this is a sensor of integration.

But if we dig below the appearances, we have to make some distinctions. The language that is spoken and the colour of the skin are not sufficient to identify a foreign student, as the following example shows.

In fact, nearly all European Union universities (and many other European universities outside the E.U.) are taking part in the student mobility projects, generally known by the name of the Erasmus programme. With the support of the European Commission and special grants, universities are encouraged to make agreements with other universities to allow students to attend courses in other cities. The length of the stay away from their university can last from a few months to one year. Here we are correctly speaking about the “mobility” of students and generally we do not talk about the “migration” of foreign students. This is in contrast with the fact that sometimes a stay permit is required, as for immigrants. But in any case the stay is temporary (maximum one year) and the

purpose is to attend some courses and not to complete a degree. This is the first kind of foreign university student.

The second type of foreign university student is represented by the people who come from a different country, European or otherwise, and stay for the whole degree course. They are real immigrants since they need a stay permit, a visa if necessary and a residence permit. They are certainly legal immigrants since the administrative bureaucracy accept their applications only after all the documents, including the results of a language test, have been presented. For immigration officers foreign students can have a stay permit for the whole period of their course of studies, which is often renewed by a few months, sometimes even years, until the student passes the final examination to get his degree.

What has been said about students in universities can also be extended to other students in the tertiary education, such as those enrolled in music conservatories, polytechnics, art schools, and so on.

These students are real immigrants and, to be more precise, are “first generation” immigrants. They come alone, without their families (they are usually young and unmarried) or their parents’ families. They belong to a specific segment of migration called ‘skilled migration’. Since they stay officially, they are officially registered and consequently are statistically visible.

The third kind of foreign university student has no stay permit, but he is still legal. This is the foreign student who was born in the country, but of immigrant parents (or arrived when he was young for a family reunification) and officially has foreign nationality. He completed his school education in the country in the same way as the native pupils and students did, attending primary and secondary level schools, and is now embarking on the tertiary level. Formally he is a foreign student, but in reality his educational background makes him a foreigner *sui generis*.

Before presenting some statistics on tertiary students, it is worth remembering the importance that the E.U. attributes to university student mobility. In the communication by the Council of Europe (GU C142/2002), “Detailed work programme on the targets of the education and formation systems”, objective 3.4 refers to the increase in mobility and exchanges. One of the key themes is “to promote the presence and the value of the European education and training in the world as well as to increase the call for students, professors and researchers originating from other parts of the world”. This is the most recent document to take into account the works of the Commission (Report of the Commission, 31 January 2001). In this latter document it is clearly stated that starting from 2002 the main aim will be to reinforce European cooperation towards the European dimension of teaching and that of professional training. This will be achieved by increasing the number of university students, post-graduates and researchers studying in other European countries or outside Europe.

As for the following table 13, there are some countries in Europe where the incoming flows are approximately equal to the outgoing ones; such as Denmark, France, the Netherlands, the Czech Republic and Hungary. Other countries have more incoming students than outgoing ones, like Belgium, Germany, Austria and the United Kingdom. On the other hand, some countries are more senders than receivers, like Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Finland, Norway, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia and Turkey. In many of the nations mentioned the figures are not big, but the ratio between the outgoing and incoming students is significant.

Table 13 - Incoming and outgoing students at university level in some European countries (1000s).
2000/01

Country	Incoming students	Outgoing students	Country	Incoming students	Outgoing students
EU 15	370.3	285.2	Norway	4.1	9.5
Belgium	22.6	9.0	Bulgaria	4.5	10.8
Denmark	5.1	5.0	Cyprus	0.4	7.5
Germany	100.2	38.7	Czech Repub.	4.8	4.0
Greece	..	58.6	Estonia	0.5	1.9
Spain	24.6	21.3	Hungary	7.0	6.0
France	38.0	39.0	Lithuania	0.1	2.8
Ireland	4.2	14.0	Latvia	0.5	1.4
Italy	12.9	34.2	Malta	0.1	0.5
Luxembourg	..	5.6	Poland	2.0	16.7
Netherlands	9.5	9.5	Romania	3.3	10.9
Austria	23.2	9.7	Slovenia	0.1	1.6
Portugal	2.6	9.5	Slovakia	0.8	8.3
Finland	2.5	8.8	Turkey	5.0	34.5
Sweden	14.7	9.4	Albania
Unit.Kingdom	110.4	12.9	Form.Yugos.
Iceland	0.3	1.9			

Source: Eurostat, Education statistics

Legenda: Form.Yugos. = Former Yugoslavia Republic of Macedonia

Table 14 shows in which European countries university students prefer to study according to their country of origin. The universities of the United Kingdom, Germany, France and Spain are the most requested. The United Kingdom attracts students from the countries that are closest to it in both cultural and linguistic terms: 87% of Irish students and 70% of Maltese students choose an English university as the destination for their studies. But the attraction is also strong for students from other countries like Cyprus (50%), Greece (49%), Sweden (43%), Norway (41%), Denmark (35%) and Germany (35%).

Table 14 - Percentage of students in tertiary (university level) education studying outside their country of origin according to country of study. 2000/01

Citizen of:	Total (1000)	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK
Belgium	9.0	-	0	11	..	14	22	1	1	..	19	1	1	0	2	27
Denmark	5.0	1	-	14	..	7	6	1	1	..	1	1	0	1	16	35
Germany	38.7	1	1	-	..	11	14	1	2	..	8	16	1	1	5	35
Greece	58.6	1	0	14	-	1	4	0	15	..	0	1	0	0	0	49
Spain	21.3	6	0	27	..	-	18	1	1	..	4	2	2	0	3	34
France	39.0	27	0	17	..	13	-	1	1	..	1	1	3	0	2	32
Ireland	14.0	0	0	4	..	2	4	-	0	..	0	0	0	0	1	87
Italy	34.2	9	0	22	..	15	11	0	-	..	1	21	0	0	2	18
Luxembourg	5.6	25	0	29	..	0	25	0	0	..	0	5	1	0	0	13
Netherlands	9.5	28	1	20	..	9	5	1	1	..	-	1	1	1	6	26
Austria	9.7	0	0	68	..	7	4	1	1	..	1	-	0	0	3	13
Portugal	9.5	7	0	19	..	15	30	1	0	..	1	0	-	0	1	24

Finland	8.8	1	1	12	..	4	3	1	1	..	1	2	0	-	41	22
Sweden	9.4	0	7	10	..	5	9	1	1	..	1	3	0	6	-	43
UnitedKingdom	12.9	2	3	19	..	18	21	15	1	..	5	2	1	1	6	-
Iceland	1.9	0	40	9	..	1	2	0	0	..	1	1	0	2	18	12
Norway	9.5	0	15	10	..	3	4	2	0	..	1	1	0	1	13	41
Bulgaria	10.8	1	0	47	..	2	17	0	2	..	1	13	0	0	1	3
Cyprus	7.5	0	0	2	..	0	1	0	1	..	0	1	0	0	0	50
Czech Republic	4.0	1	0	43	..	4	9	0	3	..	1	10	0	1	3	10
Estonia	1.9	0	2	24	..	18	4	0	0	..	0	1	0	25	11	4
Hungary	6.0	2	0	48	..	2	9	0	2	..	1	20	0	1	3	7
Lithuania	2.8	0	2	34	..	1	4	0	1	..	0	1	0	2	6	3
Latvia	1.4	1	1	44	..	1	5	0	1	..	1	2	0	2	10	8
Malta	0.5	0	0	10	..	10	4	0	3	..	1	1	0	0	0	70
Poland	16.7	2	1	61	..	3	12	0	3	..	1	6	0	0	5	4
Romania	10.9	2	1	22	..	3	26	0	6	..	1	4	0	1	2	4
Slovenia	1.6	1	0	34	..	1	2	0	11	..	0	35	0	0	2	8
Slovakia	8.3	1	0	12	..	1	3	0	1	..	0	13	0	0	0	2
Turkey	34.5	1	1	77	..	0	6	0	0	..	3	4	0	0	0	5
Albania	5.6	1	0	8	..	0	4	0	60	..	0	2	0	0	0	2
Former Yugos.	3.1	0	0	19	..	0	2	0	2	..	0	3	0	0	1	1

Source: Eurostat, Education statistics

Note: Data does not include non-national students studying in Greece and Luxembourg. For Germany, Italy, Netherlands and Austria, data does no include foreign/international schools

A common or at least similar language is the reason why numerous students coming from Austria (68%), Poland (61%), Hungary (48%), Bulgaria (47%), Latvia (44%) and the Czech Republic (43%) go to German universities. German tertiary education is also appreciated by students coming from other countries not sharing a language, like Turkey (77%), Spain (27%), Italy (29%), Portugal (19%) and the United Kingdom (19%).

The French universities are also attracting students from other European countries. In this case it is usually geographical vicinity that can stimulate foreign students to enter French universities; Belgium (22%), Germany (14%), Spain (18%), Italy (11%), Luxembourg (25%), Portugal (30%) and the United Kingdom (21%) are all close to France. Reasons other than territorial vicinity can explain the presence of students from Bulgaria, Poland and Romania.

To understand the meaning of these figures, we have to stress that they are not absolute values indicating the number of students going to the indicated destination. They are the percentage of students of the country mentioned who choose to go to the indicated destination. The percentage may well be high, but the numbers are in fact small. For example, in the case of Malta: 70% of students preferred to go to the United Kingdom, but in absolute terms there were only 350 of them. 35% of German students chose UK as their destination, but in absolute terms there were actually 13,500.

3.4 – Conclusion: integration takes place through the schools

In the conclusive document of the Lisbon Summit (March 2000) the integration of regular immigrants is one of the pivots of the E.U. policy now taking shape and the education system has been identified as an arena in which integration can occur. The conclusions of the Tampere European Council (October 1999) have had a decisive impact on European policy for the integration of citizens from third countries. This point of view was reiterated at the Seville European Council (June 2002). At the Thessaloniki European Council (June 2003) it was stated that

E.U. policy for integration should cover factors such as education and language training. The integration of legal immigrants was again referred to as a priority during the Brussels European Council of October 2003 (Eurydice, 2004).

A general consensus has been reached during these last meetings to improve active citizenship, equal opportunities and social cohesion. These issues are particularly valuable for the access of immigrants and their children to education and training systems.

According to the conclusions of the “Education Youth and Culture Council” of May 2003 some targets must be achieved by 2010. Three benchmarks are particularly relevant in promoting the integration of migrants:

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

It is evident that difficulties, essentially linguistic in nature, may have affected foreign pupils during their education and problems in reading and writing can lead to school dropouts. The European partners are engaged in improving their efforts on behalf of schoolchildren in difficulty, especially immigrant pupils.

The E.U. Commission granted many projects designed to fight every form of racism and social exclusion. Such attention is intended for all schoolchildren with the aim of teaching them the importance of living in a society with different cultures. For example, a project introduced by **Greek** researchers aims to show pupils aged between 9 and 12 that all populations are a mixture of peoples. Other schemes that have won the attention of the Commission were concerned with the promotion of the intercultural approach in compulsory education (**French community of Belgium, Spain and Italy**). Yet others were approved with the goals of a continuous training module for teachers and of improving the participation of parents in school activities (**Denmark, Germany and Sweden**)

The Council of Europe has been working in this field since 1977 when it approved a European Convention on the Legal Status of Migrant Workers and their children, which guaranteed their right to enter the local education system on the same conditions as nationals. To achieve this aim member countries have to facilitate the teaching of the national language as well as taking steps to teach migrant children their mother tongue. Parity in education rights with nationals has been recently stressed (Recommendation 2000).

During this discussion about the situation of schooling for foreigners in Europe, it has been shown how important a role the school system plays in integration. School is simultaneously a tool of integration for everybody involved in education and a target where real integration between the native and the immigrant populations can be achieved.

4. Integration issues: housing for immigrants. A problem with many solutions but hard to solve

4.1 – Housing is a human right

Housing is one of the (main) basic human rights. In the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, initially stated in 1948, housing is listed among those items which guarantee health and well being, on a par with food, clothing, medical care and social services, security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood. During the century that has just ended no less than 12 UN declarations, recommendations or covenants explicitly recognised the right to adequate housing. One of the more recent documents was drawn up at the UN Habitat Conference (1996) and endorsed the right to have “adequate shelter that is healthy, safe, secure, accessible and affordable and that includes basic services, facilities and amenities, and [to] enjoy freedom from discrimination in housing and legal security of tenure”.

Housing is also recognized as one of the key issues by the Council of Europe. In fact it clearly states its objectives in the Social Charter: “With a view to ensuring the effective exercise of the right to housing, the Parties undertake to make measures designed to promote access to housing of an adequate standard; to prevent homelessness with a view to its gradual elimination; to make the price of housing accessible to those without adequate resources”.

More concretely, the question of housing is considered so seriously in some countries (**Belgium, Finland, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the Netherlands**) it has been written into the Constitution. Nowadays almost all European countries are actively working on a policy to end social exclusion and to wage war on poverty and within this context housing is a top priority for governments.

But above all it is a question of principle. Governments have to transform these general objectives into effective policies and part of their welfare efforts are focussed on housing. The home is supposed to provide a safe shelter and everybody has the right to one. Housing policy aims to eliminate any kind of discrimination which violates this right. The house market is a typical example of economic liberalism: it has its rules and every one must operate according to the norms of supply and demand. Generally government policy aims to protect those segments of the population that have no access to this market by making some provisions for vulnerable people.

All levels of public authorities are involved in housing policy. Central governments draw up a general policy, specifying the investments to be made, organizing access to credit, imposing taxes and deciding on financing issues. It is then the responsibility of the local authorities to transform these general outlines into operative action. In **Finland**, the responsibility for housing administration lies with the Ministry of Environment which works to improve the quality of house building. The “Housing Fund for Finland” finances and administers all state housing subsidies. Local authorities decide which housing projects are entitled to state subsidies, though municipalities also provide limited housing subsidies of their own. Local authorities are the largest owners of housing for rent. They also provide land, infrastructure and other services for housing schemes.

At present there are many examples of good policy being implemented in different parts of Europe and many of them are the work of local government. One that is worth mentioning is in the District Council of Penwith (**Cornwall, United Kingdom**), where the Council is committed to ensuring that those who are entitled to Housing Benefit and/or Council Tax Benefit receive the right amount at the right time. Housing Benefit is a means tested benefit to help people on a low income to pay their rent. A person may be able to claim Housing Benefit if he lives in a flat, bedsit, rented house, hostel or is a lodger in someone else’s home. Council Tax Benefit is a means tested benefit to help people on a low income to pay their Council Tax. The Council’s objective in relation to private sector housing is to maintain the standard and improve the quality of private dwellings. The Council’s role is to offer advice and seek to prevent homelessness wherever possible and has produced a long-term

plan to deliver affordable housing. Penwith District Council is endeavouring to make full use of all housing according to an Empty Property Strategy.

A project, co-founded by the European Commission, is the COOP that aims to promote new forms of cooperation in housing provision for risk groups in urban housing markets. Five countries (**Austria, Belgium, Germany, Netherlands and the United Kingdom**) are presently taking part, but it is hoped to enlarge the group and collect more information on what is being attempted in Europe. Vulnerable groups of people, including people leaving institutions, those in precarious housing situations such as women fleeing violence and other homeless people, often do not have the financial and personal resources to secure appropriate housing and require specialised assistance to avoid homelessness. Various strategies are being tried and tested across Europe to better assist these vulnerable groups; however, information on the best solutions is difficult to find and even more difficult to interpret across national borders (Avramov et al., 2004).

This project, like other schemes, is generally addressed to “vulnerable” groups that are on the edge of society. As yet there are no measures taken specifically to help immigrants in Europe. They are usually clubbed together with the “vulnerable” groups and policy treats these people in the same way as other sectors of the poorer members of the population.

Many countries acknowledge that no special attention has been given to the question of immigrant housing in either welfare policy or immigration policy. In some cases (for example **Ukraine**) migration policy is poorly developed and there are no statutory acts concerning accommodation problems for foreigners or help in the search of a residence for them.

In **Estonia** immigrants with a residence permit, like all other inhabitants, can choose their place of residence and are responsible for finding their own accommodation. However, if an immigrant is unable to do so, the law stipulates that the local municipality must intervene, according to the general principle that local governments are responsible for providing housing to the community members who are unable to arrange it for themselves.

Other governments (**Norway**) are determined to remove discrimination from the housing sector. No-one can be discriminated against on the basis of his creed, colour or language abilities, in relation to his national or ethnic origin, of being a homosexual, of his way of life or orientation. The Housing Act, which was passed recently in Norway, clearly emphasises that discrimination will not be tolerated; in a multicultural society one must accept that we are all different. Everyone has a right to a home and differences cannot determine to whom we let or sell a house. It is worth noting that this position forms part of the country’s discrimination and racism policy, rather than its immigration policy.

In some countries (**Belgium**) they pay great attention to the coordination of services provided to people who approach the social services. They are convinced that better information between tenants and landlords would avoid many controversies and the money and time saved in solving these problems of incomprehension can compensate the costs of improving the organization. They started with a “valise logement”, a tool box that can be used by everyone (whether they rent or let a house) and gives useful information on the norms and things to do and those not to do.

What has already become policy for some countries is still just a good intention for others (**Italy**). In the last document prepared by the government (2004) one of the issues mentioned among the objectives of integration policies is “to offer housing solutions to immigrants who are regularly

resident but have trouble in finding a home even in the private sector and to promote efforts made by the various bodies in the country that are looking for new solutions to local specific problems”.

4.2 – Different kinds of immigrants (asylum seekers, temporary, permanent, illegal)

As can be seen from the picture depicted above, it seems that it is in the interest of the government, central and local, to view immigrants as a single category. In reality there are some migrants who have serious housing problems, whilst others have none at all, as for example international officials, executives and managers, scientists and researchers, priests and nuns, adopted babies or prisoners in jail. Most of them have no problem in paying for a house and for many of them the question of housing does not even exist (adopted babies, priests and nuns).

Problems arise when we start considering job seekers who make up a significant part of the immigrant population. They are representative of “mass migration” and are normally faced with economic problems in their daily life, one of which is housing. Very frequently these are poor people who arrived with very little money, are living in very bad conditions, alone, often as illegal immigrants and in a state of uncertainty. These are the irksome and hard cases to manage, as they are not sure how long they will stay. Often they just want to stay long enough to save sufficient money to satisfy the needs of their families, both now and in the future.

For them home is just a cover over their heads, a shelter from the elements. They are not looking for residential opportunities, especially when rent subtracts economic resources from the remittances they can save for relatives back home. Their aim is to earn money, not to spend on their daily lives, but to invest in the future. The less they spend for themselves, the more they can save and send to their families. It does not matter if they sleep under a bridge, in an old abandoned car, in a cemetery, in the corridors of the subway, on the steps of a church or inside a rubbish skip. Often immigrants are young, strong and in quite good health, so that they put up with extreme hardships in order to maximise their savings.

It is evident that the problems do not lie on the side of the immigrants. They are ready to battle daily with all difficulties their ‘stand-by’ position presents to them. They suffer in silence. Therefore the problems lie with the receiving community. Part of public opinion is angered by the presence of this annoying situation. Another part of public opinion takes its humanitarian responsibilities more seriously and wants to help these “citizens”. The public authorities are also concerned in assuring its population that standards of living will not fall. Living in such precarious conditions can create risks for the health of the native population. Diseases that have been defeated and forgotten by the locals are re-appearing as a result of bad housing.

The problems are complicated by the presence of illegal immigrants who do not want to appear and do not want any official public assistance because it could lead to their expulsion from the country. On the other hand, public institutions cannot tolerate indefinitely the unofficial presence of illegal immigrants. Public bodies must spend public money and cannot easily justify expenditure on persons who enter the country illegally.

Often public authorities do not have the necessary power to organize housing for immigrants in these conditions. Officially or unofficially it often delegates to voluntary and charitable associations which help these people in need. The associations act as “social substitutes” and act where public authorities cannot intervene.

There is another kind of immigrant who creates a different type of problem. They are people who entered the country with some project in mind. Their presence is more stable; sometimes their family is with them or they hope to start one. They intend to stay for a long time and have acquired a stay permit, a residence permit, a work permit and all the papers required law. Housing present the same problems to them as to the local population, only it is made worse by the fact they are immigrants and therefore landlords are not always willing to rent property to them. When a housing policy is introduced, immigrants are treated like the population at risk. Immigrants have the same rights as people with social, physical and mental disabilities.

A third group of immigrants is formed by asylum seekers. They have a privileged path since legislation everywhere normally accepts international agreements about asylum seekers and refugees. They have a statute norm that often provides financing specifically for housing expenditures. Problems sometimes arise in the time between the arrival and the examination (and approval) of the asylum seeker's request. In some countries the asylum seeker's application is not reviewed by the Ministry of the Interior. Such is the case of **Ireland** where the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform has the charge of examining the queries and acts as coordinating actor of a vast partnership with a number of state agencies, voluntary and community groups and other non-governmental organisations. The newly arrived asylum seeker is initially accommodated in a short-stay reception centre in the Dublin area for a period of assessment, before being assigned to a regional centre. The accommodation is full board which includes bed, breakfast, lunch and evening meals. Each adult receives a personal allowance and additional economic help for each child. Health care, maternity services, primary and post-primary education for children, adult literacy and language classes are all provided free of charge.

A completely different situation prevails in **Serbia and Montenegro** where the question of asylum seekers is the responsibility of the UNHCR and Commissioner for Refugees of the Republic of Serbia. Local authorities are not involved in any way in this country.

In **Malta** immigration generally involves the return of former emigrants mostly from Australia or Canada, the countries traditionally receiving Maltese migrants. These people do not create any problems regarding housing as they are economically independent.

In **Germany** housing policy allocates newly arrived asylum seekers to local institutions all over Germany.

4.3– Availability and utilization of territory and space

The search for accommodation for an immigrant must first take into consideration the needs of the immigrant and immediately after the reaction of the local people that can either accept or ignore the problem. This can influence the level of intervention by local authorities. But both the public and the private sectors have to deal with an even more complex issue.

Suppose that a Municipality has sufficient space available to accommodate the population at risk and can build a certain number of flats, rooms and bedsits. There is the danger of segregating the very people who need to be socially involved and not isolated. "Normal" people do not want to live in close contact with drug addicts, ex-prisoners, the mentally ill, the severely disabled and immigrants. By solving one problem, we open the door wide to a series of other troubles. A solution to the housing of underprivileged persons risks grouping all the problems together. The final result

is not the simple sum of the problems, but the sum plus the interaction and reciprocal influence of the single variables.

To concentrate these vulnerable people in a limited area requires constant monitoring and efficient social assistance that can check and deal at all times with problems as they arise. If this is the model to be adopted, we also have to be prepared to make an analysis of the costs and benefits of such a policy. Do we have the trained personnel available all day long for this charge? We have to guarantee the continuity of the services to be given to the population at risk. We have to give them fixed points of reference, efficient responses to the requests for help and ascertain the practicability and quality of them. But all this has a cost and the community must be ready to accept the necessary investments.

Another question soon arises. If the Municipality is able to find space for a project in favour of underprivileged people, is the utilization of such space a good investment or would it better to use the territory for other purposes? Space in big cities has a price and we have to decide how we can make the best use of it. Specific housing problems are linked to the national and/or international functions of the city, the size and structure of the population, the internal mobility connected with a high turnover of inhabitants and the need for offices and shops. A shortage of space has a direct consequence on the property market and on the prices of houses, shops and offices. Prices can be influenced by the presence of high-income users, single people, families, firms or organizations. It is not rare for apartment prices in the centre to stagnate (when the market is saturated), but this has as a counterpart a growth in the prices of small and poorer quality dwellings. It is quite common for the inner city to be taken over by economic and commercial activities, while the suburbs, where costs are lower, provide residential property. The socially assisted population cannot remain in the centre where the cost of land is prohibitive. It is hard to introduce them into the suburbs where the costs are more accessible, but the local population may be more reluctant to accept the newcomers.

In other words, apart from the humanitarian considerations about these segments of the population, there are also serious economic evaluations to be made about the cost of the territory. It is not just a matter of the market, but also of the programming of the use of the territory. It is a question of town planning for which the Municipality is responsible.

In the COOP workshop held in Bruxelles, June 2004, where a comparison between different experiences was made, one of the conclusions reached was that: "Ever since the rising demand for inexpensive apartments first appeared, the long practice of social housing that caters also to the middle class is criticized from different sides. The "efficient" housing policy demanded by critics comprises four new strategies. Firstly, it should increase the private market's dynamics through further residential rights, liberalisation and the sale of social housing stock; secondly, it should use the remaining social housing stock for low-income households; thirdly, it should concentrate more on the building of new dwellings for lower income levels; and finally, it should use the money saved this way for targeted individual support for those vulnerable households that depend on the free market's offer. The opponents of such views argue that the deterioration of housing support for the broad middle class would necessarily lead to an increase of housing costs. Also the generously developed range of promotional measures for residential building is a strong political control instrument whose design power has been proven for decades in the housing sector. The experiences of several other European states, furthermore, show clearly that the change in the function of social housing and its reduction to catering only for the (very) low-income households has extremely negative consequences on the standard of living and quality of life in cities" (Avramov et al., 2004)

4.4 – The different actors (public organisations, private institutions, volunteer and charitable associations) all together to find solutions

It is evident from what has been said above that a single solution valid all over the world is impossible. Each case is a separate one. The model with positive effects and spin-offs for one city/country could be completely negative in another. On the one hand, we have to take into account all the variables influencing any decision; on the other, we need to bear in mind the “actors” involved in any kind of operation.

Let us divide the field broadly and roughly into two sectors, the public authorities and private interests.

Public authorities can be identified more easily, because they are made up of the central or local government.

From parliament and the ministries involved down to the municipalities, public intervention is based on a policy which is a compromise between the various opinions present in society. The needs of the different parts of the local and immigrant population, economic interests, aesthetic features and town planning, the use of the space, the mobility of people and the transport network can all have diverse influences on determining a solution.

A major concern is that a “local” policy frequently is not just local, in so far as it can have a far reaching effect on the neighbouring area. Suppose that Municipality A discourages immigrants from settling in its territory; it solves a local problem since it is delegating to another municipality the responsibility of offering them housing. And suppose Municipality B can find decent accommodation for the foreigners working in Municipality A. Municipal A then needs to find suitable solutions in the transport and mobility systems for these workers. What has happened is in fact only a change in the type of problem: a geographical move of the demand for accommodation from one locality to another and a change in the matters involved (from housing to transport).

Private operators can act at different levels. They can act under some economic pressure, but at the same time a humanitarian sentiment can force people to act. Economic factors are more evident when a firm, institution or organization is involved and humanitarian pressures are more frequent at an individual level and with charitable associations.

The distinction may not always be so obvious, as in the case of an entrepreneur who is offering a job to an immigrant and makes space available in his own firm for the immigrant’s accommodation. The arrangement made by the entrepreneur is very convenient for him: he can keep low cost manpower (immigrant workers) and he can receive compensation in economic terms for the space now used to accommodate the immigrant.

In fact, an economic factor always lies behind the arrangements, especially when the issue is on a larger scale (suppose an entrepreneur has to find flats for his foreign workers). The firm, nevertheless, has an interest in maintaining immigrant workers as they are more flexible and hard working than locals. Housing problems are the most recurrent troubles for low income workers, especially when they are immigrants. Therefore, if their accommodation problems are solved, they are spurred on by a debt of gratitude and they tend to remain.

Different experimental forms in these arrangements have been tried in north-east Italy and entrepreneurs, local authorities, foreign associations and unions have all taken part. Sometimes entrepreneurs have made some of their properties available to foreign workers for overhauling;

sometimes the municipal services have given their assistance from a technical point of view helping in the design of projects and all the other organizational questions; at other times municipalities have invested money in projects directly. Attempts at cooperation between entrepreneurs and local administrations have also been made and in other cases entrepreneurs have acted in collaboration with the unions and local authorities. Some experiments even saw the involvement of immigrants, who contributed their manpower to house building in exchange for a flat when the work was finished (Todisco, 2000).

Some of these attempts have had good results, some a temporary positive outcome, whilst others have failed. The main conclusions we can draw from these experiments are:

- a) even if the results are positive, we cannot claim to have found a model. The solution is valid only for that specific territorial situation and at that time. It is very hard to export it to other places with different social, economic, historical and cultural behaviour. Similarly, a failure in one place could have positive results in a different situation.
- b) immigrants are very mobile. Investments, on the contrary, must be designed and planned for the long run. The solution studied for today, bearing in mind the local variables affecting the issue, will be realized tomorrow, but in the meantime the factors and actors may well have changed. When the immigrant was invited to give his manpower to build or renovate apartments and the work was completed, often the immigrant who had made the initial agreement was no longer around as he had left the area in search of better opportunities.

All that has been said up to now concerns accommodation in the medium-long term and for “official” immigrants. It is a very different matter for new immigrants when they are temporary and often have entered the country illegally. Public intervention to help illegal immigrants cannot always be easily justified, nor a medium-long term investment to find permanent accommodation for people who, on the contrary, intend to stay just for a while. In this case the help offered by charitable, religious and secular associations is the best solution. The humanitarian sentiments that drive single individuals to help can be better organized and more effective within associations. The assistance they can give concerns not only accommodation, but also other necessities, and is very welcome to people who are not integrated into the local community.

It will now be clear how the different figures in this picture are necessary and equally useful. But their aims and potentialities can vary both in time and in importance. In fact immigrants do not all have the same identikit. Each one brings his own needs, story, dreams and plans. The actors in this drama can support the immigrant, each within their own space of autonomy and competence.

5. Final Conclusions

There were two major demographic changes taking place in the last years of the previous century, namely the ageing of the population and migration. The ageing process is being experienced by all Western countries and it has reached levels that only a few years ago would have seemed impossible. This process is the result of the lengthening of average life spans, due to improved sanitary conditions, better diets, changed life styles and better medical care, as well as a fall in fertility. Never before in the history of mankind has the presence of these two conditions been so strong.

The same phenomena are also taking place in developing countries, only more quickly. However, as they are starting from a completely different population level, there is a time lag in comparison with Western societies. In fact, although the fertility rate is dropping (but the overall rate is still above

replacement level) and the population is ageing in less developed economies, the indices still remain positive, so that the population will continue to grow for some time yet. On the other hand, only a small part of the population manages to reach old age, so they do not weigh heavily on the country yet.

Although some demographic differences are narrowing in time, they will persist for some decades. This will push the poorer and needy populations to view emigration as a solution to their problems. Large forces of workers coming from the poorer countries will move towards Europe and the more developed countries. The contrast between the rich economies and the poorer countries' need to survive will remain for some time, and it will encourage migration as a way of narrowing the gap.

Emigration is really a very complex and multifaceted phenomenon. It includes movements for survival by the poor and uneducated who have no alternative, but also by migrants from poor countries who have already acquired some work experience or have been fortunate enough to receive schooling for a number of years. But there is also another completely different type of move by people who come from developed countries and are going to other developed countries, such as the migration between European countries.

1. Integration is a process which needs time and is about the reciprocal adapting of the local people and the immigrants. Depending on the type of migrant involved, different approaches can be followed to help the migrant, his children and relatives to integrate. What these new residents need primarily is access to the basic services and to receive the same treatment as the native population. If these rights are not granted or if obstacles are placed in front of the newcomers, as frequently happens, tension will build up and reciprocal incomprehension grow. A good integration policy involves an evaluation of the risks of incomprehension and the ways to overcome or, at least, to limit it.
2. The receiving countries would do well to gradually and progressively concede the rights that these immigrants naturally expect. Switzerland is a perfect example of a country which, with a strict immigration policy, has one of the largest populations of immigrants who enjoy a full 'citizenship' guaranteed by fair and valid federal laws.
3. The governments of countries which have historically been countries of emigration should bear in mind that immigration could soon affect them too. Southern Europe has witnessed abrupt changes which have turned Portugal, Spain, Italy and Greece, traditionally exporters of manpower, suddenly into countries of immigration. At the moment many eastern European countries show no interest in the question of integration as they themselves produce the migratory flows, rather than receive them. This situation could change rapidly when these new market economies adapt to the economic and social behaviour of Western Europe and these countries form the border between an area of strong development (Europe) and other areas which produce the demographic pressures.
4. Integration concerns different aspects of social life. Certainly employment comes at the top of the list. Immigrants usually move for work, but they must be guaranteed working conditions that are not inferior to those enjoyed by native workers. Immigrants are human beings who have the same dignity as the local people; the employment of foreign workers should not start a new wave of slavery. The labour market needs these workers who often fill niches left vacant by native workers, but this does not mean that these workers should be denied the professional and social recognition they deserve.
5. Another aspect of integration involves the education sector, which usually brings to mind the education of migrants' children. However, the school system is involved at a number of levels. Certainly the main question is the education of foreign pupils in primary and secondary schools, but then there is also higher and university education which needs to be considered separately. And lastly, the education and training of the immigrants themselves.

6. The education of immigrant pupils plays an essential role in the integration process promoted by the government. It is a service that can help the second generation migrants to take an active part in the local community. There are a number of problems the 'school system' has to face. Firstly, the newcomers may not have any knowledge of the local language and therefore schools are obliged to help the learning of the language by organising specific courses for pupils in difficulty.
7. A good knowledge of the language is considered fundamental not only for foreign children, but also for the immigrants themselves to facilitate their integration into the host community. Language courses can be organised for both, not just to enable children to grow up with the local children but also to enable the immigrants themselves to attend the educational courses and training provided by schools. Furthermore, foreign parents who do not understand the local language are left off the school committees involved in the management of the school. Language is also important for adults in everyday life and for relations with the local community and at work.
8. Another aspect concerns teachers. They need to be aware of and open to the new problems that immigration brings and to the needs of the new pupils who come from very different geographical and cultural areas. Therefore schools need teaching staff that have had the professional training necessary to deal with intercultural questions and the relationship between their own culture and the culture of the foreign pupils' countries.
9. Multiculturalism has to become part of the school syllabus, not only for the immigrant pupils but also for the native pupils. It is an ideal process of integration based on a comparison and acceptance of diversities.
10. School is not only a building in which pupils spend part of their day. It is an important cultural meeting point which involves not only the members of staff inside the school, but also institutions and people outside. Integration takes place both within the school system and in the relations between the school and the outside world. Cultural mediators, meetings with parents, contributions made by embassies and consulates and support from ethnic associations can all help this process.
11. A very important problem from the point of view of organization is the involvement of the state. The way competence for education is divided between the central government and the local authorities varies from one country to another. All the national models need to be evaluated in order to obtain useful indications on how to improve school systems.
12. School is not just a place where certain activities take place and the foreign child is called to adapt to the service on offer. It is not a question of 'foreign pupil v. school', but rather a reciprocal and dynamic relationship of the kind 'foreign pupil and school'.
13. Adult training has two basic routes: one of more formal education to enable the foreigner to read and write in the local language and to know the rudiments of the history and literature of the native population; the other, a type of qualification that is meant to provide the immigrant with the technological and scientific skills necessary to enable him to find a job more easily. Once again, the responsibility may lie with the Ministry of Education or the local authorities, depending on the country.
14. The training provided by companies is very useful, but has a very different kind of organization from that of the school system. It helps to improve the efficiency of the company through the re-training of workers. The public school system aims to qualify the individual worker in order to improve his position in the labour market. However, forms of integration between these two models can be taken into consideration, especially when a foreign worker wants to train for a better job in the labour market of his home country.
15. Foreign university students are also first generation immigrants when they come directly from abroad. They are legal immigrants in so far as they have to produce all the official documentation; they are generally alone, that is without their families, and are temporary

migrants in so far as they will stay only to complete their studies. They make an important link with the scientific world of research and are part of what is called 'skilled migration'. However, there are also second generation university students, that is those who have made their way through the host country's school system up to university level and are the children of immigrants. As a result of their long stay in the country they are integrated into the local community and do not have any language problems. Once they have been awarded their degrees, they will probably stay in the country and look for a job in the local labour market. In the countries new to immigration the most common type of student is the first generation student, though the number of second generation students is growing too.

16. Accommodation is the biggest problem for students. It must be said that there are a large number of students who do not have problems with accommodation because they either do not need it (for example, priests or nuns), or they have sufficient money to find a solution in the local property market. Many countries have completed a housing census and have statistical information about housing for foreigners. The number of immigrants who own the house where they live is growing. This is a sign of the integration process which has already taken place for many immigrants of long standing who felt the need to find a more permanent solution to their housing problems.
17. Generally governments do not implement specific housing policies for immigrants. Instead they include immigrants among the needy part of the population or the minorities to be protected, such as the disabled, drug addicts, ex-prisoners, the long-term unemployed or the mentally ill.
18. Interesting experiments are now being carried out in some countries to involve local authorities. The local government's responsibilities include helping the supply meet the demand for low cost housing by giving financial assistance or guaranteeing property owners the payment of rents and compensation in case of damages. Local authorities are also expected to find agreements with private entrepreneurs, trade unions, representatives of foreign workers and ethnic associations with the aim of finding solutions to the housing problem for foreigners.
19. The problem is made more complex by the fact that there are also many illegal immigrants and public authorities cannot intervene in these cases. Furthermore, a distinction has to be made between the immigrant who has just arrived, thus creating a 'social emergency' and the immigrant with a mid-to-long term plan to stay. The social emergency is met by the help of either religious or lay voluntary workers. When considering the housing problem the various types of immigration and immigrant have to be studied carefully in order to find suitable solutions.
20. The wealth of experience accumulated in some European countries has shown how difficult it is to find solutions that can be applied to other cases. There are numerous variables that intervene, so that the importance they have varies and a model chosen in one country at one time may not be suitable in another place or at another time.
21. In the search for housing for immigrants it is necessary to bear in mind that the house acts as a means of social integration for the foreigner. In fact, the different habits and demographic behaviour of ethnic groups are not taken into account. There is just one housing market for local people and immigrants; it is based on the type of property requested by local clients. It does not matter if the immigrant needs a house with certain characteristics connected to his culture or if the families of foreigners have roles and habits that are different from the local population.

The points listed above should not necessarily be interpreted as bottlenecks or as thorny questions. They are simply points requiring attention, otherwise they may in time become 'thorny questions', if ignored. In this long list a distinction has been made between the different roles that the public

and private sectors are expected to play, as well the reasons why the two should collaborate. Very often the solutions have to be all-round and require a coordinated intervention from the various forces in the field.

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