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AUSTRIA

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1. Data on migration

1.1 Main data sources on migration and migrant children

Two main sources of publicly accessible statistical data on migration can be identified, namely, Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs and Statistics Austria (STAT). With regard to migration, the Ministry of Internal Affairs provides two sets of statistical data that are publicly available. This data is based on the information that is collected from the aliens' police (*Fremdenpolizei und Visawesen*). Firstly, the Ministry provides data on asylum applications, i.e. the total amount of applications, distribution on regional (*Länder*) level as well as monthly distribution. Secondly, statistical data on settlement and residence permissions is provided. This involves data on upright residence and subsidiary protection permits as well as data on upright 'red-white-red cards' of third-country nationals. Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs does not provide accessible statistical data on migrant children in Austria. However, data on migrant children can be found under statistics illustrated in accordance with age groups.

Statistics Austria is an independent and non-profit-making federal institution under public law and is responsible for performing scientific services in the area of federal statistics. The majority of the statistics compiled by Statistics Austria serve the European Statistical System (ESS). Thus, the data of Statistics Austria is compatible with Eurostat datasets. Furthermore, the data collected by Statistics Austria corresponds to the statistical dataset of the OECD. In 2015 the OECD has approved the 'Recommendation of the OECD Council on Good Statistical Practice' (OECD 2015). These recommendations serve as a base for monitoring the national statistical systems of the ESS member states.

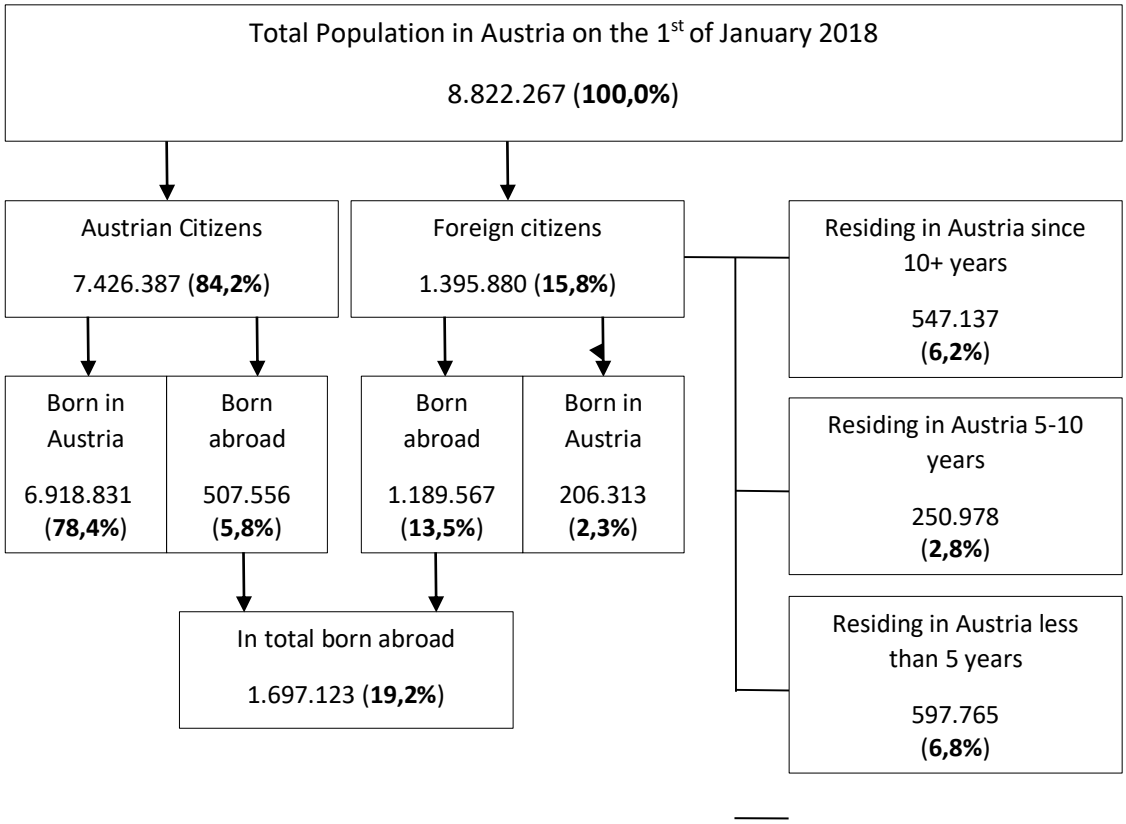
Statistics Austria uses the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe's (UNECE) definition of 'migration background' and distinguishes between the categories 'country of birth of parents', 'country of birth' and 'citizenship' (UNECE 2015: 136). Hence, people with migration background are the ones whose parents (at least one parent) were born abroad. This group can subsequently be subdivided into migrants of the first generation (persons who were themselves born abroad) and second-generation immigrants (children of immigrants who have themselves been born in the country) (ibid.). Furthermore, foreigners are all persons who do not hold the Austrian citizenship.

General Data on Migration

As of 1st of January 2019, there were in total 8.858.775 people living in Austria, 7.419.852 (83,8 percent) Austrian citizens and 1.438.923 (16,2 percent) foreign nationals. Further statistics on native and born population are not yet available at this point.

Figure 1 presents the overall distribution of Austrian population as of 1st of January 2018. In total, 8.8 million people lived in Austria, whereby 84.2 percent were Austrian citizens and 15.8 percent foreign citizens. Among foreign citizens living in Austria, 13,5 percent were born abroad and 2.3 percent were born in Austria. 6.2 percent of foreign citizens lived for at least ten years in Austria, 2.8 percent lived for at least five years in Austria and 6.8 percent were born or moved to Austria after 1 January 2013, thus living less than five years in Austria.

Figure 1: Population in Austria 2018



Source: Statistik Austria. Authors' own translation and illustration.

In contrast to *Aufenthaltserlaubnis* (residence permit), *Niederlassungserlaubniss* (settlement permit) is a permanent residence permit. It entitles the holder to legal employment and is spatially unlimited. The statistics of the Ministry for Interior are publicly available for both valid residence permits and valid settlement permits.[1] Statistics Austria does not provide any statistical summaries on this issue.

In total of 468.735 residence permits of third-country nationals were available in 2018. This is around 5.3 percent of the entire population in Austria. As for the nationality of people with valid residence permits, 107.471 (22,93 percent) are Turkish nationals and 103.812 (22,15 percent) are Serbian citizens. 91.877 (19,60 percent) of people with valid residence permit were from Bosnia and Herzegovina, 21.947 (4,68 percent) from Kosovo. Citizens of Macedonia with valid residence permits reached 20.776 (4,43 percent), while citizens of Russian Federation holding a permit are 14.013 people (2,99 percent).

A total of 8.812 permanent residence permits of third-country nationals were issued in 2018. This equals to 0.09 percent of the whole population in Austria. 1.110 (12,60 percent) of permanent residence permits were issued for citizens of Russian Federation, 965 (10,95

[1] Niederlassungs- und Aufenthaltsstatistik 2018. https://www.bmi.gv.at/302/Statistik/files/Jahresstatistiken/Niederlassungs-_und_Aufenthaltsstatistik_2018.pdf Accessed on 29.09.2019

percent) to Turkish nationals,730 (8,28 percent) were issued to Serbian citizens, 679 (7,71 percent) to the nationals of China, and 586 (6,65 percent) permits were issued to Iranian nationals.

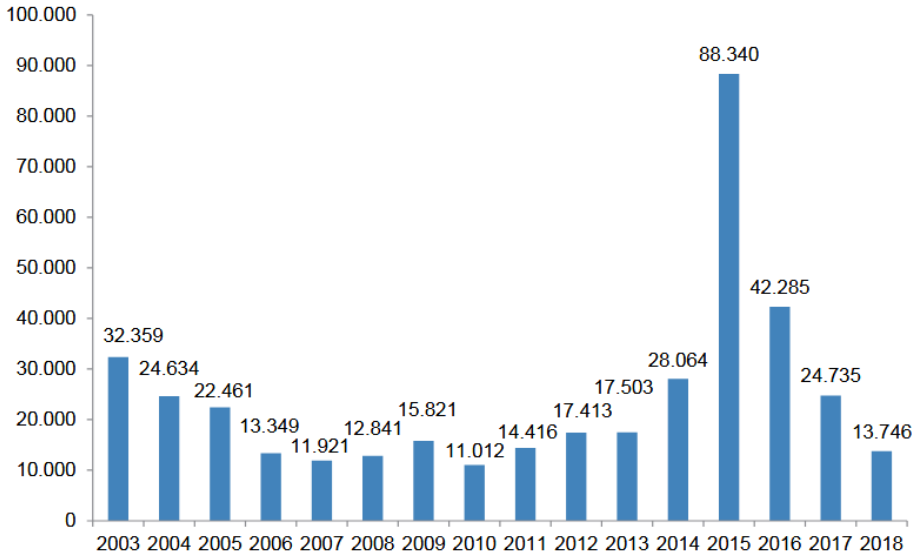
SUBSIDIARY PROTECTION

In 2018, 11.048 applications for subsidiary protection were lodged (Austrian Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs 2018). 4.191 (37,9 percent) were assessed positively and 6.857 (62,1 percent) received negative response (ibid.). The total amount of positively evaluated applications makes up 0,05 percent of the whole population in Austria. Around half of the positive applications (2.062) were issued to Afghan nationals, 665 (6 percent) to Somalia nationals, 536 (5 percent) to Iraqi nationals, 414 (4 percent) to Syrian nationals, and 109 (1 percent) to Russian nationals.

ASYLUM APPLICATIONS

Figure 2 demonstrates an annual development of asylum applications from 2003 to 2018 in Austria. The graph shows that the amount of applications tripled from 28.064 in 2014 to 88.340 in 2015. Since 2016, the amount of applications has steadily declined. In 2018, the amount of applications dropped to 13.746 which is the lowest number of applications since 2011.

Figure 2: Annual Development of Asylum Applications 2003 to 2018



Source: Austrian Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs (2018): Statistics of Asylum

Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of asylum applications according to country of origin in 2018. The figure also shows the distribution of positive and negative outcomes. It shows that

24 percent of all applications in 2018 were made by Syrian citizens. 90 percent of the applications were successful. Afghan nationals constitute 15 percent of all applications in 2018 with 50 percent of positive decisions. Iranian nationals make up 8 percent of all asylum applications with 75 percent of positive approvals. 7 percent of applications in 2018 were made by Russian citizens with less than 40 percent of positive outcome. 6 percent of applications were made by Iraqi citizens whereby half of them were declined. Even though citizens of unknown origin make up only 3 percent of all applications in Austria, 80 percent of them were received positive response

Figure 3: Distribution of Asylum Applications in % per 31.12.2018 in Austria by country of origin

Citizenship	Applications (%)	% positive	% negative	% others
Syria	3.329 (24%)	90%	9%	2%
Afghanistan	2.210 (15%)	50%	40%	9%
Iran	1.107 (8%)	75%	15%	9%
Russia	969 (7%)	37%	52%	11%
Iraq	762 (6%)	28%	50%	23%
Nigeria	679 (5%)	2%	91%	7%
Somalia	523 (4%)	51%	46%	4%
Georgia	457 (3%)	0%	86%	14%
Unknown	438 (3%)	80%	15%	5%
India	272 (2%)	0%	81%	18%
Others	3090 (23%)	No data	No data	No data

Source: Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs. Authors' own translation and illustration

On 1st January 2016, 2.266.400 children and young people (0-24 years old) lived in Austria. 381.500 children and young people held a citizenship other than Austrian which made up 16,8 percent of the total children and young people population in Austria (ÖIF 2016). 40,9 percent of all children and young people with foreign citizenship had been living for at least five years in Austria whereas 59,1 percent had lived short than for five years in Austria. 271.200 children and young people who lived in Austria were born abroad which made up 12 percent of the total children and young people population in the country. 551.600 young people with migration background (both of whose parents were born abroad, regardless of their citizenship) lived in Austria which corresponds to 24 percent of the total children and young people population.

The same year, 35.200 young people who were born in Germany lived in Austria, followed by young people born in Afghanistan (21.080), Romania (18.179), Turkey (16.120) and Syria (16.023). 22 percent (106.800) of all young people living in Vienna were born abroad, in Salzburg 10,9 percent (15.700), in Vorarlberg 10,9 percent (11.800) and 7,6 percent (32.300) of all young people living in Lower Austria were born abroad.

In the school year 2014/15, 22 percent of all students in Austria spoke a colloquial language other than German. In compulsory schools (1st-9th grade), the percentage of

children who spoke a colloquial language other than German was particularly high. 32 percent of all students at special-needs schools (Sonderschule) were from non-German-speaking families. In the new secondary schools (Neue Mittelschule, NMS), 29 percent of students spoke a different language than German. 28 percent of pupils at primary schools and 22 percent of pupils at (former) secondary schools (Hauptschule, replaced by NMS) spoke a different colloquial language than German. Higher secondary schools the percentage of pupils with a colloquial language other than German dropped to 17 percent.

General Data on Education and Schooling

On January 1st 2018, the total amount of 284,055 adolescent migrants with foreign birthplaces lived in Austria (STAT 2018a). This corresponded to 12.6 percent of the adolescent total population (0 to 24 years). 42.7 percent of these came from EU / EFTA countries, 57.3 percent of the young people were third-country nationals. German nationals (34,400) make up the biggest foreign-born adolescent group, followed by Afghanis (23,800) and Syrians (23,100). On the ranks four and five were Romanians (20,600) and Serbians (15,500).

In 2011/12, 26 percent of children in childcare facilities came from non-German-speaking families (ÖIF 2018: 42). In the following five years, this proportion rose by six percent to 32 percent in the kindergarten year 2016/17 (ibid.). At 42 percent, the proportion of children with non-German mother tongue in age-mixed institutions was significantly higher than in after school care centres (35 percent), pre-kindergarten care centres (34 percent) and kindergartens (28 percent) (ibid.).

In the school year 2017/18, there were in total 1.132.367 pupils in the whole Austria in all school levels (STAT 2019a: 168). 175.370 (15,5 percent) pupils in Austria were foreign. In total there were 339.382 pupils in primary education (*Volksschule*), 62.952 (18,5 percent) of them were foreign nationals. In the new secondary schools (NMS), there were in total 205.905 pupils, 37.427 (18,2 percent) foreign nationals. 14.815 pupils attended special education (*Sonderschule*), 3.428 (23,1 percent) of which were foreign citizens.

In the school year 2017/18, there were in total 1.015.097 pupils in public schools in the whole Austria (STAT 2019a: 169). 159.494 (15,7 percent) among them were foreign (ibid.). In the same school year, there were in total 117.270 pupils in private schools in the whole Austria (STAT 2019a: 170). 15.876 (13,5 percent) among them were foreign nationals (ibid.).

In the school year 2017/18, there were in total 175.370 foreign pupils in the whole Austria in all school levels (STAT 2019a: 168). In Vienna, the total amount of 67.282 (28,1 percent) foreign pupils represents the biggest diversity, followed by Salzburg (15,5 percent of foreign pupils) and Vorarlberg (14,6 percent). The lowest percentage of foreign pupils in all school levels is in Lower Austria (10,2 percent) and Burgenland (10,9 percent). In absolute numbers, the distribution is a bit different. While Vienna remains the most diverse in respect of foreign pupils, there are in total 24.701 foreign nationals in Upper Austrian schools and 18.089 in Styria. The lowest absolute number of foreign pupils is in Vorarlberg with 8.047 foreign nationals in schools.

In the school year 2017/18, there were 1.132.367 pupils in Austria at all school levels (STAT 2019a: 168). 929.208 were Austrian nationals. 31.023 were from Asia, 16.004 from Germany, 15.311 from Turkey, 14.203 from Serbia and Montenegro and 10.226 from Bosnia and Herzegovina. 13.853 pupils were from other European countries that are non-EU members.

The total amount of 289.652 (26 percent of all students in the whole Austria in all school levels) spoke a mother tongue other than German (STAT2019a: 164). In Vienna, there were 122.672 pupils (51,9 percent of all non-German speaking pupils), while in Upper Austria the number is 42.822 (21,9 percent).

1.2 Gaps in Data, Comments, Analysis and Conclusions

In the course of analysis, it could be observed that little statistical data is available on migrant children. Hence, migration is primarily associated with adults in Austrian statistical datasets. The following issues therefore require further statistical data collection and analysis: (1) parents' country of birth, (2) parents' citizenship, (3) length of stay in a host country and (4) first language of those children who do not speak German as a mother tongue.

2. National and Legal Provisions

2.1 Legal and Policy Framework

Austria has seen a major shift in migration and integration policies, which has generated a dynamic institutional landscape during the past years. After considering migration and integration as marginal at the federal level for a long time, this policy area was institutionalised only in 2010 with the enactment of the "National Action Plan for Integration" (*Nationaler Aktionsplan für Integration*), developed by the Federal Ministry of the Interior in cooperation with a variety of Stakeholders. The Action Plan focuses on labour market integration and the knowledge of both the German language and 'Austrian values" (European Commission 2019b). Additionally, in 2017 the Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and Foreign Affairs established a similar programme for recognized refugees and persons with subsidiary protection status, the "Integration Act" (*Integrationsgesetz*). According to this, asylum and subsidiary protection holders must participate in national integration measures and the courses offered (§ 6 Integration Act). These integration measures comprise German courses (§ 4 Integration Act) as well as so-called value and orientation courses (§ 5 Integration Act). In the obligatory value and orientation courses, to which migrants (from the age of 15) commit themselves by signing the "Integration Agreement" (*Integrationsvereinbarung)*, the participants are informed about fundamental social 'norms and values' in Austria which include the rule of law, separation of powers, federalism, democracy, social solidarity, and equal rights for women and men. Violations of these obligations are subject to sanctions such as the reduction of state benefits like social assistance or demand-oriented minimum benefits

or unemployment benefits (§ 6 (2) or (3) Integration Act) and/or the reduction of basic social benefits in accordance with the provisions in force in the individual *Länder* (BMEIA 2017).

In addition, migration and integration in Austria is also framed by the foreigners law (*Niederlassungs- und Aufenthaltsgesetz,* 2005) which defines various categories of residence permits as well as the requirements and procedures for the respective type of permit. The asylum law (*Asylgesetzes,* 2005) regulates the conditions for granting international protection, the integration law (*Integrationsgesetz*, 2017), provides a legal basis for the mandatory introduction programme for new arrivals - integration agreement - which was previously regulated by the Residence and Settlement Act, the nationality law (*Staatsbürgerschaftsgesetz*, 1985), which stipulates, among others, that Austrian citizenship is lost through the acquisition of a foreign citizenship, and the anti-discrimination law (*Gleichbehandlungsgesetz*, 2004) which provides legal protection against discrimination based on sex, ethnic origin, religion, ideology, age, and sexual orientation in the labour market/workplace, access to goods and services, including housing (European Commission 2019b).

In response to the 'summer of migration' in 2015, legal changes were made in 2017. In July 2017, an amendment to the Asylum Act created the possibility of restricting the right to asylum if a threat to national security is recognised by the Federal Government and approved by the Executive Committee of the National Council. This amendment also limited the status of the recognised refugee to a temporary stay of three years, after which the authorities would review the situation in the country of origin. The authorities may withdraw the status if the situation has changed or may grant permanent residence if grounds for asylum continue to exist. The maximum duration of the asylum procedure has also been extended from six to 15 months (ibid.). This change in asylum law and the introduction of the Integration Act in 2017 show that the integration process in Austria is becoming increasingly difficult.

The fact that the steering of integration issues in Austria has been guided by the Action Plan since 2010 is also evident in the Government Programme 2017-2022 from the now removed right-wing coalition (2017-2019) between *Österreichische Volkspartei* (Austrian People's Party, ÖVP) and *Freiheitliche Partei Österreichs* (Freedom Party of Austria, FPÖ). Therefore, successful integration shall be through the acquisition of the German language, the acceptance of 'our values' and participation in the labor market. German language skills shall be improved through compulsory kindergarten attendance and separate school classes for children with poor German skills (Regierungsprogramm 2017-2022: 37).

Consequently, Austria's integration policy redefines integration as a disciplinary measure in order to test the willingness of migrants to assimilate and to punish their absence as the following quote from the government program of the ÖVP-FPÖ government clearly demonstrates: "Austria still offers all possibilities for integration. Those who do not accept these possibilities and reject integration must reckon with sanctions. (....) In accordance with the integration principle of demanding and promoting, the state creates framework conditions that make it possible for the immigrant to take advantage of such services. (...) Integration problems must be recognised, openly addressed, solved and not concealed by

false tolerance. The increasing radicalization (especially Islamist in nature), the emergence of a parallel society and the increasing influence from abroad are countered. The successful completion of the integration process can lead to the granting of Austrian citizenship. Our citizenship is a valuable asset and cannot be accessible to those who do not respect the laws of our country" (ibid.).

Integration is also seen by the right-wing elite as the personal responsibility of the migrants themselves and therefore failed integration is seen as an individual failure. Accordingly, the right-wing elite recently sanctioned this already (financially, culturally) disadvantaged population group by cutting public spending on integration measures and programs. Most recently, the government has made major cuts to the funding of the Public Employment Service (*Arbeitsmarktservice, AMS*) for *Integrationsjahr* (integration year), a public initiative to foster labor market access for asylum-seekers, persons who have been entitled to asylum and subsidiary protection are provided with German language classes, vocational orientation, application training and vocational qualification (AMS 2017). Similarly, the budget for integration measures at schools has been cut down by half in 2019.[2]

Additionally, the government program addresses issues related to integration under the heading "order and security", together with issues related to domestic security, judiciary and national defense. This is in line with the ÖVP-FPÖ coalition's restrictive migration policies that envision a strictly need-oriented migration regime and visa requirements shall be modified accordingly. Furthermore, EU border controls shall be introduced, and deportations shall be accelerated (Regierungsprogramm 2017-2022: 32-33).Besides the overarching Action Plan, other more targeted Integration Plans focus on certain topics or groups. A central milestone in Austrian integration policy is for instance the "50 Action Points" (*50 Punkte-Plan*) of 2015 developed by Austrian Expert Council for Integration based at the Ministry for Europe, Integration, and International Affairs. Ten out of fifty points address issues pertaining to language and education of newly arrived people. Two of these ten integration guidelines tackle integration through kindergartens, four address integration in the Austrian school system and two focus on adult education. Lastly, volunteer work in the field of German language tuition is promoted.

Here it becomes clear that the integration of migrant children is strongly reduced to the need for language and education. The 50 Action Points (2015) and the policy document 'migration & integration – zahlen.daten.indikatoren' (2019), co-financed by the Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and the Exterior, strongly stress the importance of German skills for integration (BMEIA 2015; STATISTIK AUSTRIA 2019).

The command of the national language is regarded as the basis and most important prerequisite for successful integration in all areas of life. Especially the potential of educational institutions in creating the necessary framework conditions for both the swift acquisition of language skills and successful coexistence is emphasized (BMEIA 2017: 8).

[2] Budget funds for integration into schools will be halved in 2019: https://derstandard.at/2000075944183/Mittel-fuer-Integration-an-Schulen-werden-halbiert

Therefore, since 2018 all pupils (locals and migrants) entering the school system must be assessed uniformly on their German skills (European Commission 2019a: 164). Knowledge of German is tested with the help of the MIKA-D measuring (Measuring instrument for competence analysis - German) device. Based on the test results, those migrant children who show inadequate command of German are directed to *Deutschförderkurse* (remedial courses for German language) where migrant children continue to attend regular classes with additional German courses, or to *Deutschförderklassen* (remedial classes for German language) where migrant children are instructed separately from the regular classes and are therefore excluded (BMBWF 2019).

These public policies construct German skills as the main pillar of integration and migrant children's integration success is believed to depend on their German skills. It can therefore be assumed that children can advance their integration process by being ambitious, which illustrates a privatization of integration (integration as migrants' individual responsibility) as well as discipline and control (integration as barometer for self-discipline and willingness to adapt and become part of), since the progress of German language skills is monitored with standardized tests. Therefore, instead of focusing more strongly on anti-discrimination issues and on common practices in other countries, Austria concentrates on language issues concerning migrants (European Commission 2019a: 142). Austria's government documents state that the first assessment of newly arrived migrant students should be based on their competences in the language of instruction. Knowledge in other subject areas or their social-emotional well-being are not taken into account. Government documents do not deal with the provision of extracurricular activities for pupils with migration background, i.e. schools are completely autonomous in this question (ibid.: 150-152).

With regard to the intercultural training of teachers, it is also clear that language support for migrant children is the most important factor in education. In Austria, where the curriculum attributes key significance to the acquisition of the language of instruction (i.e. German), the official guidelines for teacher training (*PädagogInnenbildung NEU*) stress the obligation of all teachers to support the development of the pupils' language of instruction. All teachers currently undergoing initial teacher education (ITE) and continuing professional development (CPD) are given the opportunity to develop or strengthen a wide range of competences relevant to teaching migrant students, with a focus on multilingualism, intercultural education, and pedagogy in the context of migration (European Commission 2019: 116). In Austria, teachers are expected to develop knowledge and skills on the following language-related issues according to the new competence profile for teachers implemented since 2015/16: migration backgrounds, language teaching, German as a second language, and German as an educational language (ibid. 119).

However, other specific teacher competences that consider the needs of migrant pupils in a holistic fashion (e.g. psychosocial support) are not highlighted. With regard to supporting the holistic needs of pupils with migration background, official documents in Austria only encourage schools to cooperate with other professionals and local organizations (e.g. social and health services, NGOs) (ibid. 161), instead of anchoring the support of well-being, for instance, in the competence profile for teachers.

Furthermore, the attempt to involve parents, in particular migrant parents, in schools and classes and thus in the education of the child (Regierungsprogramm 2017-2022: 39) shows again that the integration of (migrant) children is an individualized issue that needs to be addressed by parents and teachers themselves. In an article on integrative measures in schools, former Austrian Chancellor Sebastian Kurz explained that the lack of involvement of parents in schools should be regulated and even combated through the activities of teachers: "The lack of willingness on the part of parents to make a contribution to day care and school life damages the success of integration and thus the cohesion of our society. Here educators can counteract with targeted parental work before it is too late" (ÖIF 2016: 5). Consequently, the supposed unwillingness is either counteracted by binding measures or transferred to the area of responsibility of the individual teacher. Here it is important to stress that official school cooperation documents generally recommend that schools work with the local community to improve school quality and not specifically address migrant pupils and their parents (European Commission 2019a: 159). However, migrant parents, especially mothers or other family women, are often blamed for the lack of integration of children.

Another integration measure that places the responsibility of integration on the shoulders of migrants, but also to schools themselves, is the concept of "instruction in mother tongue" (*Muttersprachlicher Unterricht*). Since the 2014/15 school year, the instruction in mother tongue is part of the regular school system, but the teaching and provision of teachers is coordinated by the education authorities of the individual provinces (European Commission 2019a: 140). Besides, it is a voluntary offer which implies that offering instruction in mother tongue depends on the motivation of the school representatives (who have to introduce mother tongue lessons at schools) and on the motivation and knowledge of the parents of the migrant children's language acquisition (as they have to enroll their children for the lessons).

However, the learning of the mother tongue is seen as the basis for the entire educational process at schools in Austria and a contribution to the performance and well-being of migrant pupils and can therefore be regarded as a good practice (see the chapter on good practice in this report), as the focus is on acquiring knowledge of and understanding for migrant pupils' language and sociocultural background. All pupils with first languages other than German as well as pupils who grow up bilingually are eligible to participate, regardless of their citizenship, length of stay in Austria and their German proficiency. The highest educational authorities in Austria have specific regulations and recommendations on this subject. They state that these lessons should be carried out by fully qualified teachers. In addition, high-level education authorities in Austria have developed a curriculum specifically for teaching mother tongues. In theory, all mother tongues can be taught (currently, 26 languages are taught in schools) (ibid.: 138-139).

However, there are also other initiatives on the federal level that aim to support migrant children in particular in their integration process. The next chapter will therefore deal with this issue.

2.2 Good Practices and initiatives

As 'good practice' is a contested term that entails normative assumptions about political discourses, institutional arrangements and financial allocations, researchers are forced to lay open their criteria for evaluation of what they consider to be 'good'. In our case, we take the policy recommendations from an OECD report from 2011 as a starting point. According to this (OECD 2011 quoted in OECD 2013, 123), successful integration at school includes:

- early child-care support for migrant families to improve children's language capabilities should be provided from an early age,
- early tracking of students (e.g., special needs schools, Sonderschulen) which is particularly important for children form migrant families should be avoided,
- early drop-out rates which are higher among migrant children should be curbed through free-of-charge qualification programs for pupils who have not completed schooling (second-chance education), training guarantees for students who failed to find company-based apprenticeships by training them in public facilities,
- migrant groups should be involved in public policy efforts.

The evaluation of 'good practices' in the following is based on a child-centred approach which takes the needs (e.g., schooling, vocational training, language acquisition, participation in decision-making processes) and experiences of children (e.g., exclusion, discrimination, inclusion) as a starting point. Given the federal organization of the policy field of education in Austria, the study of 'good practices' and innovative approaches to integration measures for migrant pupils is a multi-level task. Besides the federal and the municipal levels, we take the increasing role of civil society actors as both advocates and service providers into consideration. Therefore, our study on 'good practices' addresses three distinct yet interrelated (federal, municipal, civil society) levels of policy making and implementation. The selected cases vary from firmly established legal measures to temporary projects. In addition, we have included measures that do not directly tackle integration but may promote inclusion and affect integration positively. The selection is far from exhaustively covering existing measures but serves to give a broad overview of the integration policy landscape. We have selected a total of 10 cases, which represent different projects.

Schulpartnerschaft (school partnership), Neue Mittelschulen (new secondary schools, NMS), Muttersprachlicher Unterricht (instruction in mother tongue), Pflichtschulabschluss (compulsory degree), Intercultural mentoring (University of Vienna), Interface, *peppa Mächenzentrum (*peppa Center for Girls), Kick mit (kick together), Start Wien – Jugendcollege (Start Vienna – Youth College), and Wohin mit 14? (Where to go at the age of 14).

Our overview shows a broad landscape of rather different projects which contest the ÖVP/FPÖ government coalition's project of privatization of integration and securitization of migration. Instead of blaming migrant children for poor language skills these projects aim at empowering migrant youth and at supporting their learning processes.

Some good practices and initiatives supporting the integration of migrant children can also be found particularly in the context of aforementioned policy documents.

For instance, the 50 Action Points points out that "it is necessary to increase the number of trained social workers in schools in order to identify and defuse potential for conflict and violence. In addition, children and young people with a refugee background increasingly need support in acclimatising to everyday life [at school]" (BMEIA 2015: 10). Migrant children and, above all, newly arrived migrants are addressed in this document. Furthermore, the 50 Action Points emphasizes: "Austrian schools must also be able to recognize signs of racism and radicalisation quickly". Therefore, pedagogical intervention measures that take place in the afternoon outside normal school hours should be introduced for those pupils who display radical or racist behaviour in school (ibid. 10). On this basis, in addition to general measures promoting the development of social and emotional skills, therapeutic psychosocial support services are also offered. Austria has established such services which are open to all students in need, with special consideration being paid to the specific needs of students with a migration background. Schools must therefore, inter alia, take into account all psychosocial needs that may arise from the migration process, including potential traumatic experiences, and ensure access to medical, psychological and psychosocial services. Professionals such as school counsellors, psychologists, and social workers are charged with detecting the social and emotional needs of migrant pupils in order to encourage their general well-being and provide the necessary psychosocial support (European Commission 2019a: 112).

Additionally, under the responsibility of the Federal Ministry of Education, "Mobile Intercultural Teams" (MIT) have been set up as an response to the increasing number of migrant students and unaccompanied minors since the 'summer of migration' in 2015. The MITs are responsible for supporting schools, teachers, parents and pupils and complement school psychologists in the implementation of preventive measures, networking and counselling. In the school year 2017/18, another 85 social workers appointed as members of MIT were admitted to compulsory schooling. Together with the school management, the MITs develop school-specific psychosocial support measures (ibid.). In addition to these human resources, the high-level education authorities in Austria encourage the use of particular material for the psychosocial support of migrant students: An internet platform for psychosocial counsellors has been established. It offers a number of internet links as well as information and materials on the psychosocial support needs of asylum seekers. Two brochures were also produced by the high-level educational authorities, portraying all psychosocial support programmes offered which are particularly relevant to this group of pupils (ibid. 153).

Nevertheless, it should be noted here that the National Education Report 2018 commissioned by the Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Research emphasises that, in contrast to primary, secondary and new schools, general schools point to the need for/lack of (further) school psychologists and social workers (BIFIE 2018: 102).

2.3 Existing policies/initiatives and the EU framework

Most recently, in 2018, Austria did not agree on the UN migration pact regulating global migration, arguing that the global arrangement is insufficient for managing global migration flows. In addition, former Austrian Chancellor Sebastian Kurz stated that the UN Migration Pact would reduce Austria's sovereignty and mix the distinction between illegal and legal immigration and between economic and humanitarian immigration.3

With regard to the education of migrant children, Austria's focus is in line with the conclusions of the European Council of March 2008 and November 2009 (European Commission 2019b: 31) by highlighting education as an important integration resource in policy documents (50 Action Plan; Integration Act). Early childhood education is already being introduced in kindergarten, for instance by supporting the German language, and further education in schools is provided through language courses, but also through integration measures such as "introduction in mother tongue" – all are attempts to support children with a migration background.

Although many points in the Government Programme 2017-2022 are in line with the "Common Basic Principles for Immigrant Integration Policy in the EU"4, adopted by the Justice and Home Affairs Council in November 2004, such as the emphasis on education, employment and values (Common Basic Principles 2,3,4 and 5), to which extent Austria enables the EU's Basic Principle Seven can be questioned. Thus, for instance, the Deutschförderklassen, which are separating migrant children from the regular classes can be seen as a contrast to the seventh basic principle, which states: "Frequent interaction between immigrants and Member State citizens is a fundamental mechanism for integration. Shared forums, intercultural dialogue (...) enhance the interactions between immigrants and Member State citizens". It can be questioned to which amount migrant children have a frequent interaction with member state citizens (Austrian children) in Deutschförderklassen, in which they receive "20 hours of intensive language training per week (...). In the remaining hours, in order to integrate, apply and consolidate what they have learnt, the pupils also take part in certain subjects and regular teaching activities within the framework of the regular class and school system (e.g. physical activity), depending on individual requirements and organisational possibilities (e.g. sports, class and school excursions" (BMBWF 2019: 10). Here it becomes clear that if the migrants do not fulfill the individual requirements and/or the school cannot offer the organizational possibilities, migrant children are not even taught partial-integratively (teilintegrativ) together with children from the regular classes.

[3] https://www.diepresse.com/5521946/osterreich-steigt-aus-migrationspakt-der-uno-aus
[4] https://www.eesc.europa.eu/resources/docs/common-basic-principles_en.pdf

2.4 Main Concepts Used

Based on government documents, in particular the 50 Action Points, various concepts can emerge. First of all migration/integration is considered as a security issue. Migration/integration is seen as an "emergency condition" an "existential threat" to the established society/collective identity. In the context of migration, the term crisis is used, which serves as a kind of legitimization for the construction of walls/fences to 'protect' Austrian citizens and the Austrian 'values' (BMEIA: 2018). Thus a fear of the loss of Austria's traditional and cultural heritage arises, which in turn leads to an Austrian society vis-à-vis the immigrants, who are referred to as 'others'.

With regard to the integration process, the assimilative version of integration is predominant. According to the Integration Act integration is defined as follows: "(...) Integration requires in particular that immigrants actively participate in this process, make use of the integration measures offered and recognize and respect the fundamental values of a European democratic state (§2 Integration Act). Thus, individual "unwillingness to integrate" is assumed and seen as a threat: "Anyone who is obliged to fulfill Module 1 of the Integration Agreement and fails to provide proof [of fulfillment] two years after the granting of the residence title in accordance with the Settlement and Residence Act (...) for reasons exclusively attributable to him/her commits an administrative offence and is to be punished with a fine of up to 500 euros, in the event of their uncollectibility with a prison sentence of up to two weeks" (§ 23 Integration Act) (BMEIA 2017).

Furthermore, according to government documents which refer to the education of migrants, the term "obligation" is central: Obligatory kindergarten year, obligatory German classes after school, obligatory participation of parents, obligatory German proficiency courses for mothers. This obligation is intended to counteract the claimed "unwillingness to integrate". Besides, the obligated language classes and the 'value' courses underline that successful integration in Austria takes place through language proficiency, knowledge of history, political system and social values. Hence, a successful integration is dependent on the intellectual pursuit of migrants.

Here it becomes clear that in the government documents focus on "cultural integration", i.e. that immigrants and native communities share the same values, norms, preferences and speak the same language. Structural and/or socio-economic integration is thus completely marginalized and ignored.

In relation to school, government documents show that a whole school approach is missing. The documents focus only on improving language skills rather than on mental/physical health, well-being or social relationships. This ignores the needs of the children, especially migrant children, who are a particularly vulnerable group.

Besides, integration measurements such as "instruction in mother tongue" or "intercultural work with parents" demonstrate the shift of responsibility from the federal level to school principals, teachers and migrant parents.

2.5 Goals and Instruments

The Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and Foreign Affairs is the coordinating body of integration of migrants in Austria. It is also Austria's representative at the European Integration Network (European Commission 2019b).

As mentioned before the Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and Foreign Affairs has established the Integration Act (2017). The objective of this Act is the rapid integration into Austrian society of persons residing lawfully in Austria by systematically offering integration measures (integration promotion) and by obliging them to actively participate in the integration process (integration obligation). The Act stresses that Austria is a liberal and democratic state which is based on uncircumventable values and principles. This identity-forming imprint of the Republic of Austria and its legal system must be respected [by migrants], because it forms the basis for the peaceful coexistence of people of different origins and thus for the cohesion of society in Austria (§ 1 (1) and (2) Integration Act).

To enable the rapid integration into Austrian society the Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and the Exterior implemented an Expert Council for Integration (Expertenrat für Integration) as an advisory body in order to support integration policy issues of fundamental importance. This committee is composed of persons with demonstrably comprehensive expertise in the areas of integration (§ 17 Integration Act). Besides that, the Research Coordination Office (Forschungskoordinationsstelle) was also implemented for the purpose of a comprehensive scientific gain of knowledge about the integration of persons without Austrian citizenship (§ 22. Integration Act).

The National Action Plan for Integration, designed by the Federal Ministry of the Interior in cooperation with a variety of Stakeholders, such as a steering group comprising other relevant ministries, local authorities, social partners, scientists and civil society organizations[5]. As a follow-up of the steering group for the Action Plan for Integration, Austria has introduced in October 2010 a consultative body on integration, the Advisory Committee on Integration, serving as a platform for cross-competence networking, coordination, as well as transfer of knowledge between all actors involved in the implementation of the document. There are five non-governmental organizations among its 37 members. The Advisory Committee meets twice a year at the Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and Foreign Affairs (European Commission 2019b).

2.6 Implementation

Due to the federal structure in Austria, the responsibility for the integration of migrant (children) is divided on two different levels: The federal and the municipal level. In addition, next to the political institutions on federal and municipal levels, the civil society plays an

[5]Steering group: https://www.bmeia.gv.at/en/integration/national-action-plan/the-steering-group-of-the-national-action-plan-for-integration/

important role in developing and implementing integration measures. They act as contractors for service provision for migrants and asylum-seekers in the context of the retreating welfare state and the ongoing process of NGO-ization.

To enable a successful integration of the migrant population, national funds are accessible for service providers and other stakeholders to carry out projects. The main provider of funds on the federal level is the Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and Foreign Affairs. The Federal Ministry founds projects in five different areas: German language training, children and young people, women, community building and job market integration (European Commission 2019b). In addition, the Austrian Integration Fund (Österreichischer Integrationsfonds), which is under the control of the Federal Ministry for Europe, Integration and Foreign Affairs, funds projects aiming to implement goals which are defined in the National Action Plan for Integration. The Governmental Programme 2017-2022 emphasizes the "[f]urther development of the Austrian Integration Fund into the central hub for integration promotion involving all key actors and for the collection of data to verify compliance with the promotion conditions" (Regierungsprogramm 2017-2022: 38).

Even if there are other funds for non-profit organizations and local authorities available, such as EU's Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund (AMIF), the Ministry for Europe, Integration and Foreign Affairs leads on content: In the Austrian AMIF programme the national priorities reflect again the National Action Plan for Integration and thus, include language and value education, labour market integration and analysis of integration through indicators (European Commission 2019b).

In regard to evaluation, since its introduction in 2010, the National Action Plan for Integration is evaluated by an Expert Council for Integration appointed by the Ministry of the Interior on a yearly basis. These yearly Integration Reports (Integrationsbericht) include recommendations and a variety of good practices (ibid.).

3. Conclusions

The hegemonic discourse on migration and integration in the political sphere has been generally characterized by a representation of migration and cultural diversity as an issue of security, a major societal problem and a threat to the so-called Austrian society, its social system, and even economic stability, i.e. economic growth. This goes hand in hand with the prevalence of objectifying depictions, paternalistic attitudes, simplified views on immigrants as perpetrators or victims, and the construction of immigrants as "others".

However, in line with the rising number of migrants especially since 2015, integration has become a key policy area on numerous levels in Austria. The federal government has spared extended financial and institutional resources to develop and implement integration policies and measures. These policies acknowledge the importance of integration for migrant's social participation and the state's responsibility as the main enabler of integration. Some

integration measures are, for instance, the provision of German language support, which starts already in kindergarten, as well as the "instruction in mother tongue", the "Intercultural work with parents" or the "Mobile Intercultural Teams".

At the same time, according to Austrian policy documents, integration is achieved through the individual achievement of migrants and is assessed on the basis of people's knowledge of German language, Austrian history and the political system as well as their participation in the labour market. In particular, German language skills are one of the key issues on migration and cultural diversity in Austria. Language proficiency is generally viewed as the most important prerequisite for a successful process of integration into Austrian society. Furthermore, civic education emphasizing the sharing of values and norms are considered essential.

The central principle of Austrian integration policy is therefore "promoting through demanding" (Regierungsprogramm 2017-2022: 37) and integration is thus understood as a personal responsibility of mainly migrants.

Besides, integration policies become increasingly disciplinary in that they prescribe, control and assess the performance of migrants which is then taken as an indicator for migrants' ability and willingness to integrate. Through these policies, integration is made quantifiable and verifiable, implying a new or modified mode of governing migration and integration.

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DENMARK

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1. Data on migration

1.1 Main data sources on migration and migrant children

Data is derived from:

- Statistics Denmark (www.dst.dk). Statistics Denmark provides data for administration (state, municipal, etc.), research and education. The statistics are based on data from the Central Population Register (CPR). There is free access to the site
- Indvandrere i Danmark 2018, revideret (Immigrants in Denmark 2018, revised edition), published by Statistics Denmark, www.dst.dk .
- The Danish Refugee Council – https://drc.ngo. DRC is an NGO assisting refugees and internally displaced persons across the globe. Founded in 1956
- The Ministry of Immigration and Integration – http://uim.dk

- The Ministry of Children and Education – http://www.eng.uvm.dk/
- 'Integrating Student from Migrant Backgrounds into Schools in Europe. National Policies and Measures' Eurydice Report. 2019
- E-mail correspondence with researchers and members of staff in the above-mentioned organizations

Note on four concepts used in the report:

Statistics Denmark defines the concepts 'immigrants', 'descendants', 'Western countries' and 'non-Western countries' as quoted below. The concepts do not occur – defined in this way – in other countries.

- Immigrants: An immigrant is foreign-born. Neither parent is a Danish citizen or was born in Denmark. Hence, the term is synonymous with 'foreign-born children/persons'. (Asylum seekers are not included when the number of immigrants in Denmark is stated.)
- Descendants: A descendant is someone who is born in Denmark, and whose parents are neither Danish citizens nor born in Denmark. A person is not a descendant if one of the parents is born in Denmark and has obtained Danish citizenship. Therefore, we consider this term to be synonymous with 'children/persons with migrant background'.
- Western Countries: All 28 EU countries, Andorra, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Monaco, Norway, San Marino, Switzerland, Vatican State, Canada, USA, Australia, New Zealand.
- Non-Western Countries: All other countries.

1.2 General

Native and foreign-born population

The table below shows the size of the Danish population in 2014 and 2019. 'The population' is defined as all persons with legal residence in Denmark. Asylum seekers are not included, as they are not registered in the Central Population Register.

Statistics Denmark states that the numbers are rounded off. Therefore, if the figures in categories 2, 3 and 4 in Figure 1 are added together, the result will not necessarily be the figure stated in category 1.

January 2019	
The Danish population	5,806,100
Persons of Danish origin	5,012,500
Immigrants	607,600
Descendants	186,000

January 2014	
The Danish population	5,627,200
Persons of Danish origin	5,012,500
Immigrant	476,100
Descendants	150,000

Figure 1: The Danish population

Immigrants are foreign-born. Therefore, approximately 8.5 per cent of the population were foreign-born in 2014, increasing to approximately 10.5 per cent in 2019. Foreign-born children and under 15 years accounted for between 5 and 9.99 per cent of all people in the same age group in 2018. (Eurydice 2019).

Foreign-born population with residence status (permanent or temporary), their origin, etc. and their share of the whole population

Immigrants (see above) are foreign-born. Asylum seekers (not included above) are of course also foreign-born.

The graph below (Statistics Denmark) shows the number of immigrants from Western (blue) and non-Western (green) countries (in Danish in fig. 2: 'indvandrere fra vestlige lande, indvandrere fra ikke-vestlige lande') who arrived between 2014 and 2019. They are foreign-born and have residential status. None of them have obtained Danish citizenship. Obtaining Danish citizenship requires permanent residential status, which usually depends on having been resident in Denmark for eight years. (The number of descendants (brown) – 'efterkommere' – from Western and non-Western (orange) countries is also shown). Statistics Denmark states in an email that asylum seekers are not included in these numbers.

There has been a moderate increase in immigration from both Western and non-Western countries.

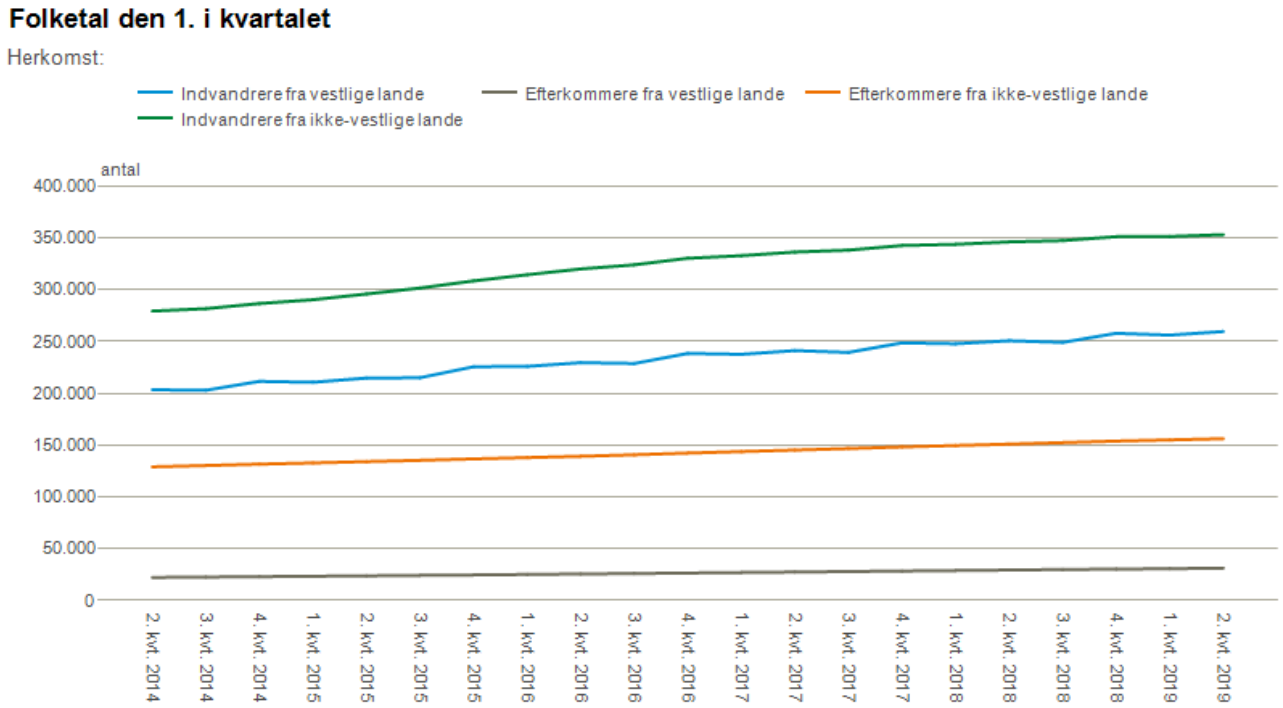


Fig. 2 Population on the first day in the first month in each quarter of the year

Immigrants from non-Western countries are primarily refugees. Labour migrants and students with a green card are also included. Immigrants from Western countries are labour migrants and students. There is free flow of workers in the EU/EEA, and many immigrants from Western countries are labour migrants from Eastern Europe.

According to Statistics Denmark, residence permits were given to 17,588 persons in the first three months of 2019. These were accounted for as follows: Asylum seekers: 368. Family reunification: 790. Education: 3,590. Work: 3,411. Adaptations: 10. From the EU/EEA: Work: 4,996. Education: 1,862. Family reunification: 1,053. Others: 1,453.

Number and percentage of foreign-born population without residence status (divided into asylum seekers and those asking for temporary protection)

In Denmark, as in other EU countries, it is possible to get temporary protection. But these people are not listed as a separate group in the analysis below. Neither people asking for temporary protection nor asylum seekers have a residence permit and thus they are not registered in the Central Population Register.

The Danish Refugee Council (DRC) states that between the crisis in Hungary in 1956 and 2018, approximately 167,734 persons have obtained asylum in Denmark. Some of them have left Denmark for their homelands or other countries, some have obtained Danish citizenship and some have died. From 1990-2018, approximately 63,001 persons were reunited with their families.

In January 2018, according to the DRC, 10 per cent of the Danish population were immigrants (cf. graph 1). They originate from more than 200 countries, and 58 per cent of them are from non-Western countries.

According to the DRC, refugees have arrived from more than 70 countries. Most have arrived from the former Yugoslavia, Afghanistan, Iraq, Iran, Somalia, Lebanon (stateless Palestinians), Vietnam, Sri Lanka, Eritrea and Syria. 94 per cent of all residence permits in 2017 were given to refugees from Syria, Iran, Afghanistan, Eritrea and stateless persons. 38 per cent of residence permits were given to Syrians.

Figure 3 shows the number of people seeking asylum in Denmark since 2014:

2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019 (up to the end of May)
14,792	21,316	6,266	3,500	3,559	995

Figure 3: The number of people seeking asylum in Denmark since 2014

Thus, we know the number of asylum seekers arriving in each of these years, but we do not know the overall number of asylum seekers in Denmark on a specific date. Statistics Denmark states that most of the asylum seekers in 2019 come from Asia and Africa, especially from Syria and Eritrea.

Number and percentage of foreign-born children up to 15 years

In an e-mail, The Ministry of Children and Education[6] states that there are 29,350 immigrant pupils (and 54,464 descendant pupils) in primary school and lower secondary school (pupils from 6 to 16 years). In total, there are 708,829 pupils in primary and lower secondary school. Therefore, 4.1 per cent are immigrants and 7.7 per cent are descendants.

The Ministry does not know the number of pupils who have a language other than Danish as their first language, since only the origin of the pupils and not their mother tongue is registered. The Ministry defines bilingual pupils in the following way: 'Bilingual children are understood as children who have a mother tongue other than Danish and who do not learn Danish until they come into contact with the surrounding environment, possibly through instruction in public school.' (Law on primary and lower secondary school teaching in Danish as a second language 2016) The Ministry emphasizes that immigrant and descendant pupils are not necessarily bilingual according to this definition. Even if they are offered language lessons in Danish and Danish as a second language because of poor language skills in Danish, Danish may still be the first language in their families and at home.

[6] E-mail correspondence, 6 August 2019.

Number and percentage of children with migrant background by residence status, nationality/country of origin, gender, age, school participation, etc.

The Ministry of Children and Education states that there are 54,464 descendant pupils in primary school and lower secondary school.[7] In total, there are 708,829 pupils in primary school and lower secondary school, of which 87.7 per cent are of Danish origin, 7.7 per cent are descendants and 4.1 per cent are immigrants.

1.3 In the field of education/schools

Foreign children and children with migrant background in education

We have not been able to retrieve data for children in pre-school education/kindergarten. Figure 4 shows the number of pupils between 6 and 18 years. The figures are from 2018 and cannot directly be compared with the figures mentioned in the paragraph above.

National origin	*Number*
Persons of Danish origin	604,576
Foreign-born – immigrants from Western countries	9,515
Migrant background – descendants from Western countries	9,821
Foreign-born – immigrants from non-Western countries	22,608
Migrant background – descendants from non-Western countries	46,287

Fig. 4: *The origin of the population in Denmark*

12.8 per cent of the pupils are foreign-born or migrant children. 78.1 per cent of these pupils are from non-Western countries. In this group, descendants make up the largest group.

Figure 5 shows the number of pupils in special education. According to Statistics Denmark[8] pupils in special education go either to a school for children with ADHD, autism, speech disorder, deafness, etc. or to an ordinary school that has classes for pupils in need of special education. These pupils attend ordinary classes part time.

National origin	*Number*
Persons of Danish origin	8,142
Foreign-born – immigrants from Western countries	120
Migrant background – descendants from Western countries	88
Foreign-born – immigrants from non-Western countries	294
Migrant background – descendants from non-Western	847

[7] E-mail correspondence, 6 August 2019.
[8] E-mail correspondence, 30 July 2019.

countries	

Fig. 5: *National Origin of pupils attending special education in compulsory school*

Figure 6 shows the number of students in upper secondary school ('gymnasium'). Most of these students are between 15 and 19 years old. Denmark offers four different upper secondary programmes:

- The Higher General Examination Programme (stx). The stx programme focuses on general education and general study preparation
- The Higher Technical Examination Programme (htx). The htx programme focuses on subjects related to the field of technical science and informatics
- The Higher Commercial Examination Programme (hhx). The hhx programme focuses on subjects related to the field of business economics, marketing and international economics
- The Higher Preparatory Examination (hf). The hf programme focuses on general education and broader areas of professional life

Stx, htx and hhx are three-year programmes. Hf is a two-year programme.

In Figure 6, no distinction is made between the four programmes.

National origin	*Number*
Persons of Danish origin	130,746
Foreign-born – immigrants from Western countries	1,813
Migrant background – descendants from Western countries	867
Foreign-born – immigrants from non-Western countries	3,188
Migrant background – descendants from non-Western countries	12,406

Fig. 6: *National Origin of students in Upper Secondary School*

12.3 per cent of the children are foreign-born or migrants. Of these, 83 per cent are from non-Western countries. The foreign-born children from Western countries are most probably the children of labour and education migrants.

Figure 7 shows the number of young people following vocational education and training. Upper secondary school (studentereksamen) education is not a prerequisite for enrolling on these courses. The students are aged 16 and over.

Persons of Danish origin	92,905
Foreign born – immigrants from Western countries	2,252
Migrant background – descendants from Western countries	400
Foreign born – immigrants from non-Western countries	6,287

Migrant background – descendants from non-Western countries	4,012

Fig. 7: *National Origin of students following vocational education and training.*

As shown, 12.2 per cent of the students are foreign-born or migrants. Of these, 79 per cent are from non-Western countries. The foreign-born children from Western countries are most probably the children of labour and education migrants.

Foreign-born children with migrant background in state and private schools

Private schools in Denmark can be established according to The Free School Law and attendance has been possible since the middle of the nineteenth century. The schools are run by a school board that is responsible for ensuring that the students reach the same level and achieve the same competencies as students in the state schools. 75 per cent of private schools fees are paid by the state and the remainder is paid by the parents.

The private schools are supervised by state inspectors, and failure to meet the requirements means that state funding stops. This has happened to a handful of private schools during the last couple of years, a considerable proportion of them being Muslim schools. There are currently fewer than 30 Muslim private schools in Denmark. According to the organization Private Schools of Denmark[9], 5,324 students went to a private upper secondary school (gymnasium) in 2018.

Statistics Denmark states that the following number of students went to a private school or a continuation school (in Danish: "Efterskole").[10] According to figures for attendance at continuation schools, 30,069 students attended continuation schools in 2019, which is the first time that the number has exceeded 30,000.

National origin	*Continuation schools*	*Private schools*	*Total*	%	%
Persons of Danish origin	27,768	108,833	136,601	91.3%	91.3%
Foreign born – immigrants from Western countries	305	1,864	2,169	1.5 %	9.2%
Migrant background – descendants	110	1,481	1,591	1.1%	

[9] E-mail correspondence, 13 August 2019.

[10] In Danish 'Efterskole' – boarding schools for 8th, 9th or 10th grade students. Students usually attend this kind of schools for one year at between 14 and 18 years old. There are more than 250 continuation schools in Denmark, many of which have a special profile, e.g.: music, physical education and globalization.

from Western countries					
Foreign born – immigrants from non-Western countries	363	1,697	2,060	1.8%	
Migrant background – descendants from non-Western countries	249	6,966	7,215	4.8%	
	28,795	120,841	149,636		

Fig. 8: *National Origin of pupils in Continuation Schools and in Private Schools*

According to The Ministry of Children and Education, approximately 700,000 children went to primary school and lower secondary school in 2018. 77 per cent went to a state school ('folkeskolen' – the people's school), 17 per cent went to a private school (including International Private Schools using English as the first language), 4 per cent went to a continuation school, and 2 per cent did something else (e.g. in Denmark, home schooling is legal, but barely 2 per cent of children are home-schooled).

As shown in figure 8, very few migrant children and foreign-born children go to private schools. However, some children with migrant background do. Some of them go to Muslim private schools, but the size of this group is unknown.

Foreign-born children and children with migrant background in regions and big cities (hyperdiversity)

Figure 9 shows the number of migrant children and foreign-born children in Danish primary and lower secondary schools (folkeskolen) in the five regions of Denmark, including the number of these children in the four biggest towns/municipalities.

	Foreign born – immigrants from Western countries	Migrant background – descendants from Western countries	Foreign born – immigrants from non-Western countries	Migrant background – descendants from non-Western countries
Capital Region (municipality of Copenhagen)	3,313 (1,053)	2,918 (1,163)	6,391 (1,822)	21,557 (8,245)
Region of Zealand	943	671	3,426	5,091
Region of Southern Denmark	2,380 (249)	1,619 (198)	5,482 (694)	8,856 (2,891)

(municipality of Odense)				
Region of Central Jutland (municipality of Aarhus)	2,153 (386)	1,377 (331)	5,284 (1,010)	9,315 (4,896)
Region of Northern Jutland (municipality of Aalborg)	891 (234)	516 (186)	2,532 (676)	2,444 (1,405)

Fig. 9: *The number of migrant children and foreign-born children in Danish primary and lower secondary schools (folkeskolen) in the five regions of Denmark, including the number of these children in the four biggest towns/municipalities.*

As shown, the number of immigrant children with non-Western background exceeds the number of immigrant children with Western background. The Capital Region has the highest number of children with migrant and immigrant background. They live predominantly in the municipality of Copenhagen and municipalities south and west of Copenhagen. Evidently, many migrant children and foreign-born children live in the biggest cities, especially those with non-Western background. In the report 'Immigrants in Denmark 2018', Statistics Denmark states that there is a trend towards migrant children and foreign-born children living in the biggest cities. The report adds that 19 per cent of the inhabitants of the Capital Region are immigrants or descendants. In the municipality of Ishøj (situated west of Copenhagen) in the Capital Region, 39 per cent of the inhabitants are immigrants or descendants. This is the highest percentage of immigrants and descendants in a Danish municipality. Conversely, in most of the municipalities north of Copenhagen, there are fewer immigrants and descendants. In the Region of Northern Jutland, only 9% of the inhabitants are immigrants or descendants. In the municipality of Rebild (a countryside municipality) in the Region of Central Jutland, only 6 per cent of the inhabitants are immigrants or descendants. This is the lowest percentage of immigrants and descendants in a Danish municipality.

Foreign-born children and children with migrant background per geographic zone of nationality and country of birth

No figures are available.

Number of children with first language/language spoken at home/different from the language of instruction

According to Anne Holmen[11], Professor at The Centre of Internationalisation and Parallel Language Use at the University of Copenhagen, the Danish state does not collect quantitative information on this question. It is often said that teachers in primary and lower secondary

[11] E-mail correspondence, 31 July 2019.

school (grundskole) and upper secondary school (gymnasium) estimate that a national average of 10 per cent of pupils are bilingual and have a mother tongue other than Danish. However, the number may be higher. In the political debate in Denmark, bilingualism is discursively connected to problems of integration, vulnerable residential areas (in Denmark often called 'ghettos'), bussing of pupils, etc. Therefore, we do not know whether pupils with 'elite mother tongues' such as French, English and German (including pupils from the German minority in Southern Jutland) and pupils with a Nordic background (Greenlandic, Faroese, Islandic, Norwegian and Swedish) are included in the estimate (cf. the paragraph Number and percentage of foreign-born children up to 15 years).

Supplement to the paragraphs on education

According to the report 'Immigrants in Denmark 2018' by Statistics Denmark, pupils of Danish origin get better marks in written exams after the 9th grade than migrant pupils and foreign-born pupils. The grade point average of pupils of Danish origin (calculated on the basis of figures from 2013 to 2018) is 6.7 (boys) and 7.5 (girls). The grade point for non-Western descendant pupils is 5.4 (boys) and 6.1 (girls). (The Danish marking scale has seven levels: -3 (fail), 00 (fail), 02, 4, 7, 10, 12.)

31 per cent of male descendants and 33 per cent of female descendants (aged 20-29) from Lebanon have no job and are not enrolled in education. This is the highest proportion among the ten largest descendant groups. Only 14 per cent of male descendants and 11 per cent of female descendants (aged 20-29) from Sri Lanka have no job and are not enrolled in education. This is the lowest proportion among the ten largest descendant groups.

In 2018, 53 per cent of men and 69 per cent of women (in 2008 the percentage for women was 56) aged 30 years old and with a descendant background had an education that would qualify them for a job. 73 per cent of men and 81 per cent of women aged 30 years old and of Danish origin had an education leading to a professional qualification.

Until 2016, the municipalities were obliged to run 'reception classes' for newly arrived non- Danish speaking children. Since 2016, this has been optional and in many municipalities the children are placed in normal classes where teachers are not necessarily trained in second-language acquisition.

Gaps in data and concluding remark

As stated above, there are unfortunately some gaps in the data. There has been a decline in asylum seekers over the past few years, but the number of immigrants and descendants is increasing. Most of these are from non-Western countries. In primary school and lower secondary school, 4.1 per cent of the children are immigrants and 7.7 per cent are descendants. It is a challenge to the school system (and to society in general) that more persons aged 30 with a descendant background than persons aged 30 with a Danish background have no education that would qualify them for a job.

2. National and Legal Provisions

2.1 Introduction[12]

Before discussing the field of education for migrant children in Denmark, a brief explanation of the education system in Denmark is necessary, since it differs from that of most European countries. In Denmark, primary and lower secondary education are integrated in a single structure from years 0 to 9. This is called 'Folkeskole'. Compulsory education lasts 10 years (grades 0 to 9), including one pre-school year (grade 0) and grades 1-9. Public education also offers an optional grade 10. One of the objectives of grade 10 is to clarify goals and possibilities for further education for young people. The language of instruction is Danish, but English is taught in grades 1-9. In grade 5, the second foreign language – French or German – can be selected. In most schools, German is the most common second foreign language. After compulsory education, there are different educational programmes that pupils can enter. There are four upper secondary programmes to choose from, as well as vocational upper secondary education or vocational education and training. This report will focus on the compulsory education, 'Folkeskole', and the optional grade 10, since years 0-10 encompass the age of the children explored in MiCREATE.

Education is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education and Science. The national legislation covers the aims and framework for education, since the Ministry is responsible for the curriculum. However, the curriculum is interpreted and delivered by the teachers, as the content of the curriculum is rather open and there is a long tradition of academic freedom and autonomy in the Danish education system. The Ministry of Education supervises the primary and lower secondary 'Folkeskole' in collaboration with the municipality (Ministry of Education. 2019a). The teaching of Danish as a second language is provided where necessary to bilingual children from grades 0-9.

In the Danish educational system, 'newly arrived migrant students' are identified as a specific target group, distinguished from other first generation migrants. The 'newly arrived' status is defined in terms of the timeframe calculated from time of immigration (as opposed to from the time of enrolment in the educational system) (Eurydice 2019: 55).

2.2 Legal and policy framework for integration

The integration of bilingual students with an immigrant background in regular classes is a political priority in Denmark[13]. Following national legislation, the Danish municipalities have implemented initiatives to improve the performance of immigrant and/or bilingual students.

[12] We claim responsibility for all translations, as there are very few officially translated documents. We are accountable for all flaws and deficiencies in translations.
[13] In Denmark, asylum seekers only have the right to participate in separate education, not in mainstream education. Compulsory school age irregular migrants are not explicitly granted the right to education. (Eurydice, 2019: 71).

In Denmark, newly arrived migrant children and young people should be enrolled in school within 21 days, which is shorter than the EU requirement of three months (Eurydice 2019: 76).

There are strings of different policy and curriculum documents referring to the integration of migrant children. These policies are valid in accordance with or as compensation for the national standard 'Folkeskole' policies. Most of the policies and curriculums highlight learning the Danish language as a main reason, and the main aim is to assimilate migrant children and youths in standard classes. Although some policies are set out by the Ministry, the municipalities can influence their implementation or launch other educational initiatives, approved by the Ministry.

In Denmark, there are two main types of special education service for refugees/migrant/ bilingual children. Either they can participate in the regular classes with language support or they can be referred to 'reception classes'. These are small classes for pupils who are not familiar with the Danish language at all. The classes are usually situated in local public schools (Folkeskole) in the district. Usually the classes are divided by age and grade, namely 6-9 years, 9-13 years and 13-16 years. If the child is referred to the 'reception class', they will gradually be affiliated with a regular class in manageable subjects. It is the school that decides when the child is ready to join the regular class, but migrant children can only enrol in the 'reception class' for a maximum of two years.

One Act with great significance for migrant children in primary education was the municipal law offering special access to primary education for certain foreign children and young people from 2016. The Act was a political measure and a reaction to 'the flow of refugees' from 2015 in Denmark as well as being stricter and more restrictive than the 'Folkeskole' Act (law on public school). The main purpose was to enhance the flexibility – and power – of the municipalities by handing over some of the Ministry's areas of responsibility to the municipalities. The Act provided the municipalities with the opportunity to establish special proposals for primary education for bilingual children and young people as an alternative to the primary and lower secondary school teaching in 'reception classes'. Reception classes are designed to meet the needs of migrants and refugee children as the classes, amongst other things, are small and the teachers are trained as teachers of Danish as a second language. The bill's special proposals for migrant and refugee children bypass the 'Folkeskole' Act in certain areas:

- An easing of the requirements of the reception classes: The total number of pupils is increased from 12 to 15, if considered pedagogically justifiable – and up to 18 if the pupils predominantly share the same linguistic background. The span of three grades in one reception class is increased to a maximum of five if the pupils predominantly have the same language and educational background.
- The municipality has the option to establish special educational services. A special education service is an alternative to the formal 'reception classes'; in these 'special education services' the requirements for the total number of pupils, hours of instruction, teacher qualifications etc. no longer apply, but must be in line with what is commonly required in primary school.

- The municipality is given the option, for a temporary period, of organizing the language acquisition and teaching for newly arrived refugee children who are not included in the day care programme. The obligation to offer between 15 and 30 hours of instruction per week no longer applies.

This Act was valid until 31 July 2019. The new government, elected in spring 2019, amended the act, aligning it more closely with the law on public school and the original wording of the Act, but still with the option to refer children to local 'special education services'. However, referral to 'reception classes' is accentuated and the council can refer bilingual children to 'reception classes' if it is considered that the pupils have 'a not insignificant need for language support in the form of teaching Danish as a second language, and it is considered educationally necessary to refer the pupils to the special offer.' (Act of the law on municipal, special services regarding primary education for certain foreign children and young people). The referral must cease to apply when the pupil is able to participate in a regular class in primary school, and no later than two years after the referral.

Bilingual pupils should, as a rule, participate in the regular instruction and classes as 'native' pupils, as the 'Folkeskole' is obliged to organize inclusive instruction. All pupils – including bilingual pupils – should profit from the instruction on the basis of the pupils' need and qualifications (Act of the law on public school § 18). However, if the child needs more basic language instruction or encounters other academic needs, Danish as a second language can be offered.

Learning the Danish language seems pivotal in policies and is the main focus in legal documents, curriculums and Acts. One of the main policies for the integration of migrant children is the 'Act of 'Folkeskole's teaching of Danish as a second language' from 1 August 2016 (Law on primary and lower secondary school teaching in Danish as a second language). The following description takes as its starting point the instruction policy for the formal Act.

Danish as a Second Language

The target group for Danish as a second language (hereafter DsL) consists of bilingual children and adolescents. The official definition of these children is expressed by the Ministry of Education in an instruction for municipalities, schools and teachers: 'Bilingual children are understood as children who have a mother tongue other than Danish and who do not learn Danish until they come into contact with the surrounding environment, possibly through instruction in public school.' (Law on primary and lower secondary school teaching in Danish as a second language. 2016).

Teachers stress that the term DsL is a term that refers to a sequence and not a ranking, meaning that Danish and Danish as a Second Language have equal formal status. The purpose of participating in DsL is to ensure that the children acquire the Danish language and the content of the subject. Furthermore, the aim is to provide bilingual children and adolescents with the same qualifications as all children to prepare for further education and the desire to

learn more. The overall goal is also to prepare for participation, joint responsibility, privileges and obligations in a democratic society.

DsL can be scheduled as supplementary or basic instruction. As basic instruction, DsL may be part of the instruction in 'reception classes', on special courses or as individual instruction or in extended reception classes for bilingual pupils who have migrated to Denmark after reaching the age of 14. As a supplementary subject, DsL is a subject that accompanies other subjects in Folkeskolen. As supplementary instruction, DsL is provided to pupils who can participate in instruction in regular classes, as these pupils have the linguistic preconditions required to be part of the school subjects, even though they need instruction in Danish as second language.

The purpose of Danish as a second language is provided in the Act of 'Common Objectives' (§ 18, Act no. 185: Bekendtgørelse om formål, kompetencemål, færdigheds- og vidensområder og opmærksomhedspunkter for folkeskolens fag og emner (Fælles Mål). The 'Common Objectives' are national goals, describing what pupils have to learn in school subjects. For the subject DsL, the objectives and competencies to strive for are outlined in terms of *reading, writing, listening* and *speaking* skills that pupils aim to achieve in the 2nd, 5th and 9th grades, and the higher the year group, the greater the level of difficulty. In the instruction for the 'Common Goals', the main goal for 'basic' DsL is that: 'Bilingual students in the subject Danish as a second language must develop linguistic competencies based on their overall previous linguistic knowledge, such that students can understand and use spoken and written Danish. The teaching must be closely linked to the school's other subjects' (Danish as a Second Language (basic). Common Goals).

In addition, DsL has to make the pupils conscious of language and language acquisition with a special focus on an active and equal participation in school and society, and it must prepare them for further education. The subject is also meant to enhance the development of a personal identity.

The subject 'Common Immigrant Language'

In 'Folkeskolen' there is a range of elective subjects that pupils can choose in 7th to 9th grade, and depending on the number of students choosing each option, the school can provide the subject chosen. One elective subject that is of interest for this report is the 'common immigrant language' [sic] option. The subject is designed for pupils with prior knowledge of the language in question. The languages offered are very limited ('common immigrant languages' often means Arabic languages) and depend on the pupil's language combination. The aim of the subject is to

> '... further develop an active bilingual competence based on already acquired skills in both Danish and the immigrant language concerned. The teaching is thus based on the students' active multilingual competence from e.g. teaching in Danish and foreign languages and possibly mother tongue education (...) The subject should strengthen both

the students' international understanding and their understanding of Danish language and culture.' (Common Immigrant Language (elective). 2019)

The subject is a one-year elective, studied in the 7th, 8th or 9th grade. The overall goal is to strengthen the students' understanding of language and cultural diversity in Denmark and to acquire knowledge about how to use the 'common immigrant language' in business contexts in Denmark and internationally.

To sum up, the targeted programmes for bilingual/migrant children are mainly 'reception classes' or integration in regular classes with different opportunities for individual language support. The subject DsL is provided when needed with variations regarding its extent and duration. The 'common immigrant language' elective subject is mainly Arabic and has a focus on both immigrant language and how to use the language in a Danish and international context as a bilingual skill.

As regards mother tongue teaching, in Denmark, the entitlement to mother tongue teaching covers only EU languages and Scandinavian languages (Eurydice 2019: 100). Nevertheless, in some municipalities, mother tongue education (other than Nordic) is supported and organized locally.

The Learning Consultant Corps

As an additional integration initiative, the government has established a task force, 'the learning consultant corps' for teaching bilingual children, among others, and provides guidance for municipalities, day care and schools with regard to language proficiency and academic results for bilingual students. 'The learning consultant corps' was established in 2014 and is made up of experienced teachers, pedagogues, headmasters and administration consultants (Ministry of Education. 2019b).

They usually work part time as consultants in the Ministry, as they are employed as teachers, pedagogues or leaders in schools or in municipalities. Their work includes supporting teachers and headmasters in implementing reforms, new policies and educational initiatives. The main task for the corps is divided into three areas: 1. To foster learning, well-being and development, 2. To deliver evidence and database evaluation, 3. To support and strengthen a school culture characterized by the sharing of knowledge, didactic reflection and cooperation on behalf of the pupils' learning and well-being. In cooperation with the schools and municipalities the guidance will be adapted to local needs and demands. Working with the application of knowledge, methods and educational tools for teachers, leaders, parents, pupils and decision-makers is an important part of the corps, as is cooperation with the Ministry of Education in order to spread knowledge to other municipalities and schools.

One unit of the corps is focused on inclusive education, where selected schools are offered intensive guidance and instruction plans. The work of a subdivision of the 'integration corps', the 'bilingual team', was evaluated by Rambøll, a leading management consulting firm in

Denmark, in 2016 (Rambøll 2016.) The results of the 'bilingual team' were far from convincing, but nevertheless there were significant findings in certain areas. We will focus on part of the evaluation below. The final evaluation conducted by the 'bilingual team' is based on 20 participating municipalities. Overall, significant progress has been made in the implementation by day-care institutions of the language and professional competency initiatives, but their implementation in schools has met with less success. Minor progress has been made in the handling of the transitions between day care and school for bilingual students, with regard to procedures involving the handing over of the children and joint pedagogical activities across different institutions (kindergarten, grade 0 and school). On the other hand, the work of the corps has had no significant effect on bilingual students' results in the nationwide tests in the subjects Danish (reading) or mathematics.

Overall, the Learning Consultant Corps' work in terms of increasing the capacity to work of bilingual children and students and fostering improvement in their linguistic development and well-being met with a wide variety of results. Therefore, no definitive conclusion can be drawn with regard to the work of the corps.

The grade 0 Language Test: The 'parallel society initiative'.

In March 2018, the former Government published a proposal called 'One Denmark without parallel societies. No ghettos in 2030'. The proposal focused on four areas: 1. Physical demolition and transformation of exposed residential areas (referred to as ghettos on an official ghetto list); 2. Firmer regulation of settling in exposed residential areas (extensive restriction on housing for citizens on benefits); 3. Strengthened police efforts and higher penalties for crime and creating more security; and 4. A better start for children and young people (including 'strengthening parental responsibility' by economic sanctions and language tests for children in grade 0) (Regeringen 2018). We will present and outline the fourth of these proposals, but the other three focus areas also play an important part for the language tests[14].

As part of the 'parallel society initiative' the government proposed that schools with more than 30 per cent of students from 'exposed residential areas' (in 2018 the government enacted 25 ghettos in Denmark, with about 60,000 residents, two-thirds of whom had a 'non-Western background') should language test their students in order to ensure that they had sufficient linguistic skills to continue in first grade. The government based this on several studies, indicating that children of non-Western origin lag behind before, during and after primary school (Regeringen 2018). Therefore, efforts were implemented to strengthen the language skills of children 'at risk' in grade 0 (and in kindergarten) in a number of selected schools. Before the 'Language Test', children's language skills in grade 0 were evaluated, but there was no requirement to follow up on their language development in tests or assessments. The Ministry of Education argued that there was a lack of common practice and

[14] Denmark is the one of three countries in the EU to use tests specifically designed for migrant students (Eurydice 2019:64)

systematic follow-up of children with weak language skills. Consequently, the 'language test' was implemented in 2018/2019, firstly as a test and development project, and from 2019, as a mandatory test as part of the 'parallel society initiative' in 'exposed residential areas'. Up to four language tests are conducted during grade 0, if the child fails the first, second and third test. The first test is to be conducted at the start of the school year, the second in February, the third by the end of the school year and the fourth after a summer school course, targeting language education. If a language test is passed, the student is excused from further testing. If the student still has insufficient language skills after the third test or the summer school, the school, in collaboration with the parents, decides whether the child can continue to grade 1 (Ministry of Education 2018).

OECD and the school resources in Denmark

In 2016, the OECD report on school resources in Denmark (OECD 2016) pointed out some challenges and risks for migrants in Denmark. We will highlight some of them very briefly.

- Students with an immigrant background are particularly at risk of underperformance, and even more so compared to OECD countries: 'Students with an immigrant background in Denmark were 2.43 times more likely to perform in the bottom quarter of the performance distribution than non-immigrant students (OECD average: 1.70 times more likely).' (OECD 2016: 18)
- Denmark still has a responsibility for working on equity in education, as the number of top performers is relatively small compared to other countries: '... Denmark has a relatively small share of top performers and there is room to improve the equity of educational outcomes, especially for immigrant students. Against this backdrop, Denmark has been successful in building consensus around the need for change and in implementing a number of reforms.' (OECD 2016: 13) On the other hand, it seems that Denmark is working on improvement by putting reforms to address these issues on the agenda.
- The report enhances the equity challenges in education in Denmark by underlining that students' socioeconomic backgrounds do have a stronger impact on their performances than in other Nordic countries, and that only a few manage to overcome socioeconomic difficulties (OECD 2016: 17).

3. Reflections and conclusion

The above-mentioned national and legal provisions highlight the pivotal role of Danish language acquisition in the Danish context. Another key issue seems to be migrant children's assimilation in the 'regular' classes, as the goal for Danish as a second language and the 'reception classes' is to prepare migrant children for participating equally in (and hence 'assimilate to') 'regular' classes. On the one hand the provisions include the children's need to learn by including their prior understanding and academic knowledge, on the other hand their first language(s) and their cultural knowledge are not seen as a resource. There seems to be a very limited understanding that experiences with languages, cultures and 'ways of

being in the world' from the children's country – or countries – of origin are key to children's identity.

With regard to Banks (2009) and his five dimensions of multicultural education, it seems reasonable to tentatively conclude that the 'reception classes' and Danish as a Second Language courses are underpinned by an equity approach among teachers. In an equity approach, teachers modify their teaching in order to facilitate the academic achievements of students with a variety of backgrounds (Banks, 2016:15). However, there is still room for improvement regarding a multicultural approach to education.

As a counterbalance to a more or less assimilation-based approach to education, we can see that multicultural and diversity embrace 'good practices' on local and municipality levels. We will highlight two examples (out of several) of this here. A few schools (folkeskole) in Aalborg, in the northern part of Denmark, have reinstated mother tongue education/first language education in an attempt at inclusion, as mother tongue education was discontinued in 2002 in Denmark (except for mother tongues or first languages of Northern and EU/EEA countries) (Aalborg Municipality 2014.) The longitudinal 'Tegn på sprog' ('Sign of Languages') research project aimed to gain knowledge about the way in which migrant pupils acquire the ability to read and write. This knowledge will make it possible to develop a method of teaching that allows migrant pupils to perform better and to be able to continue to further education. Using the findings and experiences from the research project, ideas and instructions to teachers teaching linguistically diverse classes have been developed (Laursen (ed.) 2018).

These examples illustrate that the curriculum and the national and legal provisions are frameworks for different and diverse practices in schools. There is not a one-to-one relationship between the provisions and the local practices in schools, as the teachers have the authority to 'translate' and interpret the provisions, although still accountable for implementing the main goals described in the provisions. However, discourses of migrant children 'lacking language competencies' (roughly a discourse of deficiencies) seem to be crucial in the educational landscape.

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POLAND

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1. General overview

Poland is an approx. 38 million country in central Europe. It belongs to European Union since May, 2004 and has the longest external land border of the common EU territory. Due to historical and political events, especially those following WWII, country once very ethnically diverse became a homogenous one. According to the last national census, published in 2015 94.8 % of the residents in Poland declared exclusive Polish identity and belonging[15]. Less than 600 thousands of respondents declared exclusively non-Polish identity, mostly attached to different ethnicity, although traditionally settled for centuries in Poland (Silesian, Kashebe) and approximately 900 thousand people declared binary identity accustomed both with Polish and some other nationality or ethnical background. The other minorities settled on the Polish territory usually have links to their ancestors from the neighbouring countries. People incoming from other continents are statistically almost invisible part of Polish society reaching barely 31 thousand people. According to the same

[15] Grzegorz Gudaszewski (2015), Struktura narodowo-etniczna, językowa i wyznaniowa ludności Polski. Narodowy Spis Powszechny Ludności i Mieszkań 2011, Główny Urząd Statystyczny, Warszawa [The ethnic, national, language and beliefs structure of people in Poland. National census of people and apartments 2011].

census only 60 thousand foreign people settled in Poland in 2011, which then, could have been explained by the type of migration policy implemented.

Polish migration policy was always more about how to control and administrate the presence of foreigners on the territory of Poland than thinking about how to resolve their problems and integrate them with the society. This problematic approach laid a shadow on how foreigners are perceived either by institutions or locals. This policy had been introduced at the national level regardless of the number of migrants incoming to Poland and when those levels increased over the recent years, it pushed local governments to introduce their own measures in order to facilitate integration in the cities. The migration situation in Poland was always complex and significantly changed over the years. For over two decades since the shift of the political system in 1989 Poland was more emigration country, even between 2004-2014, in the period succeeding accession to European Union. This was reflected in the demographic data, showing that between 1952 and 2002 the total number of foreigners settled in Poland was estimated for 419 000 persons, and around 1.4 million Polish citizens emigrated[16]. In next two decades these numbers reversed. The emigration volume stabilised and immigration rates raised for more than five times.

1. Data on migration

1.1 The sources of data in this report

Data on migration in Poland is collected by various institutions and for different purposes. The main institution who is responsible for data collection nationwide is Główny Urząd Statystyczny (Central Statistical Information in Poland – Statistical Office)[17]. According to national statistical data systems all Polish communities (the smallest unit of local government) have legal obligation to report all foreigners who are registered as their inhabitants. They are using special numerical coding that, among other information, indicates the country of origin, sex, marital status and age. It is a part of the PESEL system (Universal Electronic System for Registration of the Population), which is not publicly available but becomes a base for the reports frequently published by Statistical Office on the structure of the Polish population. The other, more detailed data comes from the POBYT system, administrated by Ministry of Interior Affairs as congregated data sources collected by Border Guards, Voivodships (governmental units in the regions) and Chief of Office for Foreigners. This system is processing all available information on foreigners who crossed the Polish border including visa or non-visa entries, biometrical data collected, information on type of residency decisions issued and reasons to stay, deportations, asylum claims and many others. Some excerpts from this data is published by Office for Foreigners on the special website – www.migracje.gov.pl. This source will be the basic one used in this report.

[16] Ewa Kępińska (2005), Recent Trends in International Migration. The 2005 SOPEMI Report for Poland, CMR Working Papers 2/60, p. 39.
[17] https://stat.gov.pl/en/

Apart from the administrative data, Statistical Office is using special surveys – concerning migration for temporary stay, LFS (Labour Force Survey), EU-SILC, population censuses and other ad hoc surveys. The final part of the data collection system comes from the foreign sources, mainly Eurostat database, statistics in other countries or foreign administrative data. The annual surveys on migration for temporary stay include information on place of the temporary residence, previous country of residence, planned duration of stay in Poland, sex, age, marital status, education and citizenship of the immigrants. The LFS survey, apart from the employment issues, specifically for Poland includes also information on migrant's households, regardless of the age. Specifically for the purpose of school population estimation, a data, collected by the Ministry of Education and Regional Supervisory Boards for Education (Kuratorium Oświaty) will be used, as well as fragmentary data collected by non-governmental organizations and research institutions. All such registers do not reflect however the current levels of migrant population but only those who were officially registered by the public institutions for certain purposes. All changes and fluctuations in this area are almost impossible to catch due to data system processing inertness. Supplementary to these databases we will also use selected data from the 2019 Eurydice report, especially as a comparative data source. In detailed analysis of the demographic structure of the migrant population, in division of certain factors such as nationality, gender and age, we have used the information about persons holding certain type of document – like residence card or long-term residence card. We were convinced that possession of such document reflects in the greatest possible way a will of settlement and is major step in the integration process bringing the stability to the migrant's life.

At the end, it must be also noted that there are groups and individuals who question the credibility of data published by the Polish government, stating that Ministry of Internal Affair either is hiding the real numbers of the migrants incoming to Poland and their country of origin, or does not have control over the migration flows and many of those who arrive are not covered by any statistical data. Such view can be supported by the recent results of control by Supreme Audit Office. In its press release on 7th of August 2019[18] it reported that Polish governmental administration is purely prepared for the growing numbers of foreigners arriving in Poland which is causing numerous negative results, including the most important one: prolongation of the average time of administrative procedures up to 206 days.

Language of foreigners is never considered as statistical data in any of the Polish sources. The same refers to the family bonds, which means that we do not have information on who are the parents of the migration children.

The final remark at this point refers to the date drawing the line from which the consistent data on migration is available in Poland and this is 2010. Before that date we must have operated with archive and fragmentary sources, often in the form of the study, not raw numbers.

[18] Najwyższa Izba Kontroli, Państwo nie gotowe na cudzoziemców, notka prasowa z 7 sieprnia 2019 roku, https://www.nik.gov.pl/aktualnosci/panstwo-niegotowe-na-cudzoziemcow.html, 10.08.2019 [Supreme Audit Office, Administration not ready for foreigners, press release – 7th of August 2019.

1.2 General data on migrants and migrant's children.

The 2019 Eurydice report shows that Poland has the lowest number of migrants among the population from all 42 countries covered by the research, reaching merely 1.7 percent of the population. This numbers are consistent with data reflected above and derived from the national census in 2011. It is however irrefutable that after 2015 there was significant rise in numbers of migrants present on the territory of Poland. This is not associated directly with so called "migration crises" but strictly with visa-waiver program for Ukrainians introduced by amendment to EU Regulation 539/2011. After the implementation of the program and shortly before, Poland opened its border for the Ukrainian labour force which since then dominated as the national representatives in the migration flows. Furthermore these events caused a significant problem with the estimation off the foreign population and is even considered by some as uncontrolled. This is mainly explained by dynamics of this type of migration and high mobility of Ukrainians, frequently travelling between Poland and their homeland. Nevertheless, according to the results of country-wide control of migration policy, made by Supreme Audit Office (Najwyższa Izba Kontroli) it was revealed that between 2014-2016 Polish consular offices issued 3 025 261 of long-term visas, including 1,3 million of working visas. The same control showed however that only 28 percent of the foreigners who were granted working visa actually took a job with employer who supposed to hire them (data estimated on variable of 48 292 cases)[19]. Despite the above mentioned problems it is still possible to retrieve some stable data coming from the numbers of temporary residence permit granted to foreigners. In Poland this type of permit is granted to people who prove the necessity to stay in Poland for the period longer than three months. Currently, as reflected in European statistics, Poland is the leading country among EU states in issuing such residency consents. According to Eurostat Poland issued in 2018 635 335 residence permits to third country nationals, in comparison to 543 571 issued by Germany, 450 775 by Great Britain, 264 876 by France, 259 600 by Spain and 238 863 by Italy. This gives 16.7 ratio per thousand of inhabitants, comparable to 12.7 ratio for Sweden, 6.6 for Germany and 5.5 for Spain. Poland was leading also in 2017 with even higher numbers of permits reaching 683 228 of all 3 136 141 issued in all EU member states. However, most of those permits were issued on the grounds of employment. Less than thirty nine thousand were connected to family issues or education which differ much to Spain or United Kingdom where respectively half and one third of all permits were issued on the ground of family reasons[20].

This shows that phenomenon of the Polish migration is slightly different to the other EU countries and is based predominantly on the grounds of employment opportunities. Most of the persons who are part of this movement is taking seasonal jobs and do not create the internal migration community within the country. Only small part of this influx is of more stable nature which requires family reunification and cause the migration of children. This

[19] NIK o wydawaniu wiz pracowniczych obywatelom Ukrainy, Supreme Audit Office, Press Release 15th of March 2018, https://www.nik.gov.pl/aktualnosci/nik-o-wydawaniu-wiz-pracowniczych-obywatelom-ukrainy.html, 15.08.2019 [SAO on issuing the working visas to Ukrainian citizens].

[20] Eurostat, Residence permits for non-EU citizens, news release, 166/2018 - 25 October 2018, https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/2995521/9333446/3-25102018-AP-EN.pdf/3fa5fa53-e076-4a5f-8bb5-a8075f639167, 20.08.2019.

refers only to people who reside in big cities and its close neighborhoods. We found however a certain specifics that will be discussed in following subchapter and concern unaccompanied minors send to Polish schools by its parents who resides abroad, mainly in Ukraine and Belarus.

The general data collected by the Office for Foreigners shows that between 2014 and 2018 732 thousands of foreigners made an application for short-term (649 thousands) or long-term residency (69 thousands long-term and 14 thousands long-term EU[21]) in Poland, and of 560 thousands of application processed 84,5 % of migrants were granted the residence permit. This numbers are on the significant rise. As it was reported by the Central Statistical Office in 2016 for the first time since the 1945 the net migration rate for the definite migrations (long-term) was in plus in Poland[22]. This meant that in 2016 over 1.5 thousand more people permanently settled in Poland than permanently emigrated. In 2018 this number raised to 3.6 thousand people. It is also interesting to note that in this type of immigration (permanent) the majority are Polish people returning to their homeland with families after years spent abroad. In 2017 they were 74% and in 2018 69% of this population.

This trend however did not stopped the ongoing process of depopulation of Poland. The highest negative rate was recorded in 2006-2007 (respectively -36 thousand, and -20.5 thousand, and in 2013 – about -20 thousand). Recorded in the years 2008-2011 increase in numbers of Polish population was mainly caused by an increasing number of births and reduction of the negative international migration rate. Observed in the years 2012-2015 decrease of the number of Poland's population was caused mainly by increasing emigration for permanent purposes. Again this process was slowed down after 2016 by the increase of immigration that replaced the Polish people who left to other EU countries – mainly United Kingdom, Germany, the Netherlands, Ireland and Italy or to Norway. Aforementioned report and the following data collected by the Central Statistical Office[23] showed also that international migration, since 2000 is causing a visible rise in the population of certain voivodships: mazowieckie (Mazovia), wielkopolskie (Greater Poland), małopolskie (Lesser Poland) and pomorskie (Pomerania) – regions that surrounds major Polish cities – Waszawa, Poznań, Kraków and Tri-City (Gdańsk, Sopot, Gdynia). Despite massive migration of Ukrainians to Wrocław in dolnośląskie voivodship (the Lower Silesia), where they created the largest community of this nation in Poland, the region itself did not faced the rise on population since 2000. This fact however can be shown as the economically driven example of the population exchange that secure the stability of the region in terms of social capital.

[21] The difference between the long-term resident and the long-term UE resident will be discussed in chapter 2.
[22] Agnieszka Znajewska, Joanna Stańczak et al. (2017), Population. Size and Structure and Vital Statistics in Poland by Territorial Division in 2016. As of December 31, Statistical Information and Elaborations – Central Statistical Office, pp. 30-31, 43.
[23] Agnieszka Znajewska, Joanna Stańczak et al. (2019), Population. Size and Structure and Vital Statistics in Poland by Territorial Division in 2018. As of December 31, Statistical Information and Elaborations – Central Statistical Office; Joanna Stańczak et al. (2019), Demographic situation in Poland up to 2018. Families creation and dissolution, Statistical Analyses - Central Statistical Office.

As for the 1st of January, 2019 there was totally 372 239 foreigners holding documents proving the right to legal residency[24]. There were 69 292 permanent residents, 12 988 of the long-term EU residents, 202 691 people residing temporarily (3 months – 3 years), 8 301 EU citizens settled permanently, 72 365 of registered EU citizens, 86 EU citizens family members settled permanently, 905 of EU citizens family members registered, 1357 refugees, 1993 people with subsidiary protection, 282 with tolerated stay, 1993 people with humanitarian stay and one person with granted diplomatic asylum – Silje Garmo, Norwegian mother escaping Bernevernet. Some of these numbers seems surprising, especially the very low number of EU citizens family members in comparison to the overall number of their presence. The greatest number were residing in Mazovia region: 117 855 people (109 424 in 2018, 93 357 in 2017, 71596 in 2016, 52932 in 2015), followed by Lesser Poland: 41 683 people (35 581 in 2018, 30 492 in 20017, 25 171 in 2016, 18 951 in 2015), and Lower Silesia: 32841 people (31 053 in 2018, 29500 in 2017, 25 222 in 2016, 18 642 in 2015). These data shows how rapidly in the recent five years numbers of foreigners coming to Poland raised.

If we now consider the demographic structure of the population it must be noted that in the total population of Poland, at the end of 2018 established at about 38 411 thousand people, women were nearly counted at 52 percent. Therefore there were 107 female per 100 male (111 in urban areas and 101 in rural areas) and these values have not changed for several years. Feminization ratio is differentiated by age. In 2018 among the population up to the age of 49 there is a numerical predominance of men – because more boys are born than girls – per 100 male in this age group it accounted for less than 97 women. Then, because of the over-mortality of men, this relation is changed – in the age group 50 and more, the feminisation ratio is currently almost 126, while in the oldest age (75 years and more) – for every 100 men it accounted on average of 196 women.[25] If we look into the sex of the migrants, males absolutely dominated the population of foreigners holding legal documents in Poland. By 26th of September 2019 there was 256 255 men in comparison to 161 026 women and this proportion is stable since 2015. There is no sex balance in almost all age groups except the young people. According to data published by the Office for Foreigners incoming migrants, both male and female, are predominantly in the productive age – 30-49 years old (121 671 males and 65288 females), 18 – 29 years old (81 199 males and 55 256 females), 50-65 years old (26 716 males and 16 380 females). Only the youngest group (10-17 years old) is balanced (7455 males to 6989 females). Women are dominating only in the oldest group of foreigners (66 +) where there is 5525 women in comparison to 3944 males. This trend is also stable since 2015. Again, the greatest numbers of migrants both sexes live in Mazovia, Lesser Poland and Lower Silesia regions.

If we look into the nationality of migrants, since the past five years Ukrainians has dominated the migration rates in Poland. By 26th of September 2019 there were 210 936 documented Ukrainians in Poland, followed by 24 432 Belarussians, 21 309 Germans, 12 404 Russians, 12 249 Vietnamese, 10199 Indians, 8741 Chinese, 8467 Italians, 6123 British, 5830 Spanish, 5745 French, 5441 Bulgarians, 4869 Turkish, 4755 Georgians, 4220

[24] Data retrieved from the Office for Foreigners and published under www.migracje.gov.pl: 05.08.2019.
[25] Agnieszka Znajewska, Joanna Stańczak et al. (2019), op. Cit., 51

Romanians, 3427 Armenians, 2597 Dutch, 2568 Swedish, 2441 Lithuanians, 2431 US Americans, 2344 Czechs. In comparison to 2015 only Indians and Chinese people noted considerable rise in overall structure of migrants population advancing from third ten to 6th and 7th place. Some nations previously absent presently are migrating to Poland. This include Nepalese, Bangladeshi, Kazachs, Uzbeks, and Brazilians. Nevertheless, except of Vietnamese, Indians, Nepalese, Chinese and Koreans people from Asia, Africa or South America do not constitute visible part of the migrants' population. Despite the war there is only about one thousand Syrians in Poland, mostly arrived as regular migrants. The same refers to Afghan or Iraqi who are represented by less than hundred persons.

If we look now into the population of children in Poland between 1990 and 2016 the number of children under the age of 15 years significantly decreased (about 3.5 million), alike percentage in the Polish population (about 10 percentage points). In 2016 there were 5 773 thousands children, and their share in the total population was 15 percent. While, at the beginning of this century, children accounted for nearly a fifth of the population, and in 1990 almost one fourth. In 2018, the number of children under the age of 15 was almost 5.9 milion, i.e. by 41 thousands more than a year earlier. The number of children has increased because for the third year in a row the number of births exceeds the number of 14-year-olds leaving the group of children.[26]

We do not know much about children with migration background. This category is not present in the mainstream migration discussion and lies on the margin of current migration problems. As a group that accompanies adults it is not publicly recognizable. In available statistics we were not able to retrieve information on children between 10 and 13 or 14-17 as cohort data is organized in five years intervals. There are no statistics on children below 5 years old. We decided therefore to present general data on the whole group being the object of intervention in the MiCREATE project. In this particular group the rise in the numbers was particularly slower and began in 2017, not 2015 as in the overall population of migrants. In 2019 there were totally 14 456 of foreign children holding legal documents in the 10-17 age group. Most of them were residing in Mazovia region (4480), followed again by Lesser Poland (1419), Lower Silesia (1168) and Pomerania (984). When comparing with 2015 the rise in numbers is significant, as there was 5138 minors in this age group in Poland, including 2001 in Mazovia region, 533 in Lesser Poland, 418 in Lower Silesia and 379 in Pomerania. In 2010 this numbers were twice lower, reaching 1195 children in Mazovia, 232 children in Lesser Poland, 294 in Lowers Silesia and 198 in Pomerania. What is surprising and will be discussed in the chapter referring to migration policy there is significant drop observed in documents issued by the Office for Foreigners itself (these are international protection cases). In 2010 there were 743 young people holding such documents in comparison to 488 in 2019. As we mentioned before the significant rise in presence of minors in Poland begun in 2017. That year it was noted that 8408 foreign children were present in Poland and since then this numbers steadily rose by half each year to show almost 15 thousand, still in dynamics, at the end of the third quarter of 2019.

[26] Agnieszka Znajewska, Joanna Stańczak et al. (2017), op. cit, 52.

Considering the legal status of the migrants' children in the aforementioned age group, 7484 of them possessed a temporary residence card, and as much as 3485 were holding permanent residence. This later group is specific due to the legal requirements necessary to obtain the permanent residency status in Poland. This issue will be discussed in the Chapter 2. There were also 1921 children registered as EU citizens, 373 children with international protection subsidiary to asylum, 350 children granted humanitarian stay, 185 permanently settled young EU citizens, 130 recognized refugees, 59 children that were EU citizen family members, including 4 of them who had the permanent resident status. One kid had been granted tolerated stay. There was also 468 foreign children who hold the EU long-term residency card. Only those children with certainty falls into the project's category of children staying in the hosting country for the longer period of time.

There are more younger children than the older one. In the 10-13 years old group there is 7994 children in comparison to 6457 youth from 14-17 group. More boys arrive to Poland than girls. In 2019 there was 7466 boys holding legal documents and 6990 girls. This disproportion is currently rising as between 2010 and 2016 the difference between the numbers of sexes has never reached more than 150 persons. Our research in the local environment of Krakow showed that this rising disproportion can be associated with the fact that Ukrainian boys are being sent more often to learn jobs in technical and vocational schools. In fact more than half of all young people staying in Poland are of Ukrainian origin (7967). These numbers doubled since 2017 (3522). The other groups comes from Russia (988), Belarus (925), Vietnam (444), Germany (439), Bulgaria (393), China (278), France (274), South Korea (225), Armenia (188), Romania (173), India (165), Turkey (158), Italy (128), Kazakhstan (97), USA (93), UK (92), Georgia (74), Spain (72), Syria (64), Lithuania (63), The Netherlands (62), Czechia (60), Moldova (58), Iraq (57), Slovakia (47), Hungary (43), Finland (36), Portugal (36), Sweden (36), Uzbekistan (35), Belgium (33), Austria (33), Japan (32), Mongolia (29), Tajikistan (28), Denmark (27), Pakistan (27), Kirghizstan (27), Azerbaijan (27), Ireland (26), Latvia (25), Brazil (24), Egypt (22), Norway (19), Greece (17), South Africa (16), Philippines (15), Serbia (15), Israel (14), Afghanistan (12), Croatia (11), Thailand (11), Libya (10), Mexico (9), Canada (9), Tunisia (8), Switzerland (8), Stateless (8), Yemen (8), Lebanon (8), Australia (8), Morocco (7), Taiwan (6), Estonia (6), Iran (6), Bosna (6), Nigeria (6), Turkmenistan (6), Cuba (5), Bangladesh (5), Congo (5), Saudi Arabia (4), Surinam (4), Zimbabwe (4), Slovenia (4), Algeria (4), Argentina (3), Sri Lanka (3), Senegal (3), Island (3), Venezuela (3), Indonesia (3), North Macedonia (3), Salvatore (2), Nepal (2), DR Congo (2), Columbia (2), Singapore (2), Ethiopia (2), Mali (2), Bolivia (2), Uruguay (2), Equator (2), Kenya (2), Peru (2), Malesia (1), Kosovo (1), Saint Kitts and Nevis (1), Cameroon (1), Palestine (1), Mauritius (1), Namibia (1), Honduras (1), Madagascar (1), Liberia (1), Cambodia (1), Cyprus (1), Angola (1), Gambia (1), Malta (1), Togo (1), Jamaica (1), Montenegro (1), Nicaragua (1), Belize (1), Ruanda (1), Albania (1). Aforementioned domination of Ukrainians in the Lesser Poland region differs a little form the other region perspective. For example in Mazovia and Pomerania region Chinese, Vietnamese, Turkish, Korean, Pakistani, Afghani and other Asian people are much more represented in the children population. The same refers to Germans who are overrepresented in Pomerania region, and UK citizens that dominates in Mazovia.

Taking into account the local perspective, especially the region in which a detailed research will be conducted within the MiCREATE project we may find that since 2015 when

only 533 children in the 10-17 group were present (232 in 2010), these numbers raised over the years, reaching 704 in 2016, 830 in 2017, 1036 in 2018 and 1419 by September 26th of 2019.

Reconsidering the legal documents in the possession of the kids 924 of them had temporary residence card, 269 permanent stay, 199 registered EU citizens stay, including 9 with permanent status, and 3 had been members of EU citizens' family. Only 24 of the young people had the long-term EU residence status in Lesser Poland region which shows that due to Poland's specifics we will not be able to examine children with long term residency in a consistent and reliable way.

If you look at the age of these children there are 757 of them between 10-13, however younger are represented in higher numbers. The 662 were between 14 and 17 and in this case older ones were dominant.

The balance of sexes in Lesser Poland region had been stable reaching 718 of males and 701 women. This proportion were never much different in the region.

To sum up, the 1500 sample of children holding legal documents will be supplemented in the Krakow region by around 3000 who do not and are present in Poland due to visa or visa-waiver programs.

1.3 Migrant's children in schools and education

According to data published by the Ministry of Education over 44 thousand of migrant's children attended to preschools, public school including primary schools, secondary schools and post- secondary schools.[27] Within these numbers 206 were recognized refugees, 778 students had subsidiary protection and 1747 other forms of protection, such as tolerated stay and humanitarian stay.

The change of Ministry of Education Regulation[28] allowed schools to create preparatory classes (welcoming classes) since the 1st of September 2017. In the school year 2018/2019 300 children attended to such classes. As a rule such preparatory class shall last full school year, however this period can be shortened or extended according to the needs and school achievements of the foreign student.

Generally there is no data accessible on how many of these 44 thousands attend to primary and secondary schools or joined other forms of education. The Ministry of Education has a detailed information only on the overall numbers of children attending preschools, schools or other teaching institutions in each region with division to certain types of schools

[27] Centrum Informatyczne Edukacji, https://cie.men.gov.pl/sio-strona-glowna/dane-statystyczne/uczniowie-dane-statystyczne/: 10.09.2019 [Informatics Centre of Education – Ministry of Education website service].

[28] Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 23 sierpnia 2017 roku w sprawie kształcenia osób niebędących obywatelami polskimi oraz osób będących obywatelami polskimi, które pobierały naukę w szkołach funkcjonujących w systemach oświaty innych państw (Dz. U. z 2017, poz. 1591) [Regulation of the Ministry of Education of 23rd of August 2017 regarding the education of persons who are not Polish citizens or persons who are Polish citizens but were receiving education in schools being part of the other countries educational system].

or even the size of the classroom, but does not collect information on nationality of the students. From this database we know that there are slightly less than 6 million students attending to different types of educational institutions and around 400 000 of adults learning in public or private schools. This means that foreign students constitute 0.7 percent of all students in Poland.

As the main research in MiCREATE project in Poland will be held in the Krakow's schools we decided to provide particular information about students who attend schools in Krakow. As it was already discussed there has been a rapid increase in numbers of students attending to municipal schools observed after 2016. In the school year 2013/2014 there were only 215 foreign student, including 107 learning in municipal schools and 108 in private schools who become only 0.17 percent of all students in Krakow (127 682). Four years later there were 2 343 foreign students, including 1166 learning in municipal schools and 1177 in private schools. The percentage of foreign student raised up to 1.74 (135 008 students). [29] In the year 2018/2019 these numbers increased again by half reaching 3535 students. In 2017/2018 169 foreign students attended preschools, 632 attended primary schools, 99 to middle-schools[30], 104 to general high schools, 158 to technical schools, 4 to vocational branch schools, that all had a status of public schools run by the local government. In the same year 292 foreigners attended to preschools, 109 to primary schools, 36 to middle schools, 29 to general high schools and 109 to technical schools, that all had a status of public schools run by other institutions (private). No data on nationality were collected however it is well known that Ukrainians are dominating.

1.4 What is missing and what we've learned?

Demographic situation in Poland for many decades was very stable in terms of homogeneity of the population. Those years Poland was always considered as the emigration country. This however changed in recent years with the mass influx of the labour migration to Poland, dominated by the arrival of Ukrainians. As Polish economy is growing relatively fast in comparison to other EU countries and levels of emigration had not been stopped there is a growing demand for the labour force on the Polish market. This caused the opening of Polish borders to foreign workers, at first Ukrainians, and after 2017 also for persons from the Asia and less likely other parts of the world. The model of such migration has steadily changed from seasonal to more stable one, which resulted in increase of applications for family reunification. Stabilisation of the professional life of the migrants led to the resettlement of the families and appearance of the larger numbers of minors in schools and local environments. As it was cited from the results of the control of the

[29] Data had been prepared by the Department of Education of the City Hall in Krakow for the purpose of the meeting of Interdisciplinary Team for the development and implementation of Open Krakow Program.

[30] Middle-schools in Poland (gimnazjum) were closed with the reform of education introduced in 2017, that returned to two-schools compulsory education system (8 class primary schools and 4/5 years secondary schools) against three-school system (6 class primary schools, 3 years middle schools and 3/4 years secondary schools). The graduates of the last gymnasium year has just started the secondary education in the year 2019/2020.

Supreme Audit Office Polish government and administration had not been prepared for such a great migration influx.

Next problem was connected to very diverse system of data collection. The other type of data is collected for statistical purposes and other for the purpose of migration management. Almost every public institution, including schools, that are dealing with migrants are collecting data referring to their country of origin, sex, age and sometimes nationality but this data is not shared or disseminated between institutions. There is also no central database that could help in academic research. It means that at very local level we may find a necessary and very detailed description of the migrant population but the bigger picture is almost impossible to be drawn, especially in terms of schools and education.

The available data sources do not consist the information on certain reason behind the temporary residence permit. Migrant children can be though legalized on grounds of family reunification, as children of Polish or EU citizens or as being a school students. The knowledge on the number of foreigners who received a certain type of residence permit would be helpful in assessment of the young migrant situation and integration needs. Another problem is lack of data on the grounds leading to acquire permanent residence status by children present on the territory of Poland. As a result there is no possibility to asses if they are newly arrived or the long-term migrants. Children with Polish ancestors are allowed to obtain the permanent residence immediately after arrival so such residency does not tell anything about the length of the stay. There is also big problem with assessment of the numbers of EU citizens staying in Poland. The registration is compulsory however there is no sanction for not doing so. This means that real numbers of EU citizens might differ from official statistics.

Data referring to school participation by foreign children is fragmentary and general. It rarely distinguish students according to their nationality, not mentioning further features such as gender, age or language spoken. Such data is available usually only in particular school that is examined during the academic study.

It is though clear that system of data collection in reference to migration issues shall be centralized and better organized. All stakeholders shall have obligation to report either to the Office for Foreigners or to Central Statistical Office. This data shall be then collected and processed according to common criteria. Equal criteria shall be used at all levels of reporting to create consistent system of migration information.

2. National and Legal Provisions

2.1 Definitions of migrants and specific integration challenges.

Poland as a country does not provide any official definition of the migrant or person with migration background. Officially, population is divided to Polish citizens and people who do

not hold Polish citizenship. The official definition of foreigner refers to such understanding. There are however three different legal frameworks associated with the presence of foreigners on the territory of Poland.

a) The first one refers to EU citizens and their family members whose entry and stay in Poland is regulated by separate law. Poland decided to implement the minimum standards in this regard, as generally Polish government forced to regulate migration flows according to common EU directives and Regulations had never established any higher standard than compulsory one, required by EU law. For that reason the EU citizen family members are only restricted to married couples, dependant minors and dependant ascendants. No unmarried couples, registered partnerships or gay marriages are accepted, even after EU Court of Justice ruling in Relu Adrian Coman et al. (C-673/16). All EU citizens and his family members has right to stay freely on the territory of Poland for the consecutive 90 days. If they want to remain further there is obligation to register such stay in voivodship office (regional representative of central government). There is no sanction introduced for those who did not registered, however any EU citizen or the family member who had not been able to provide for himself could have been expelled and asked to return to his country. All EU citizens have equal rights in social living to Polish citizens. There are no employment or entrepreneurship restrictions introduced. The same refers to public or higher education. All skills gained in other EU countries are automatically recognized and accepted by Polish authorities. Due to the introduction of the equal rights policy EU citizens are not covered by any of the existing integration models, which we find as important problem and obstacle in adaptation to new environment, and particularly a cohesion of the society.

b) The second category of separate regulation refers to the system of international protection. It is based again on common EU asylum system with the reference to minimal standards introduced by Polish government. The international protection include refugee status and subsidiary protection. Common standards of recognition, procedure, family reunification and reception of asylum seekers are introduced. Polish asylum system is specific due to the great number of asylum seekers returned (sometimes several times) according to Dublin II and Dublin III regulations. A basic social support is granted to all asylum seekers covering accommodation in refugee camp or allowance to cover cost of rental outside of the camp, subsidy for food and approx. 20 EUR of monthly allowance. Presently nearly half of the asylum seekers live outside the refugee camps. This type of accommodation is however problematic, mainly due to bias of Polish society and reluctance to rent the apartments to asylum seekers or recognized refugees by landlords. The research showed that nearly 25% of refugees in Poland are exposed to homelessness.[31] This happens due to ineffectiveness of integration plans for

[31] Kinga Wysieńska, Natalya Ryabinska (2010), Bezdomność uchodźców w Polsce – wyniki badania pilotażowego, Warszawa, Instytut Spraw Publicznych [Homelessness of refugees in Poland- the results of preliminary research]; Aleksandra Chrzanowska, Izabela Czerniejewska (2015), Raport z monitoringu warunków mieszkaniowych uchodźców w Polsce, Stowarzyszenie Interwencji Prawnej. Analizy, raporty, ekspertyzy 2/2015.

refugees introduced by local governments. According to the results of the control made by Supreme Audit Office in 2013[32] the existing programs do not integrate refugees with the society, nor enable them to become independent. Only small percentage of refugees are able to find stable jobs, most have problems with renting apartments and gaining the language proficiency is one of the major integration obstacle. This failure shows the reality of the Polish integration policies which either do not exist or do not work. Actually, the integration of the refugees and asylum seekers is the only policy that exist in terms of legal framework. All asylum seekers are covered by pre-integration programs that assume intensive language classes and vocational trainings. The reality shows that only children staying in reception centres are provided with language classes that are effective. If they are over 7 and bellow 18 they are also obliged to attend schools in the refugee camp district. Most of them however never finish certain stage of education. Adults usually do not attend language classes or vocational training (83 percent). The services itself are of poor quality. The other pre-integrative regulations allow an asylum seeker to seek employment without permits and restrictions after six months since submitting the application. The problem of the refugee camp localisation, lack of language proficiency and bias towards asylum seekers cause the high rate of unemployment in this group. Integration programs for recognized refugees were limited to providing financial support according to the results of aforementioned control.[33] No language classes were enforced and attendance to such were never controlled. The integration process had not been also monitored. The failure of the integration process for recognized refugees affects their children deteriorating their social position. Both minor asylum seekers and recognized refugees do not get relevant support in schools, especially through language and cultural assistants.

c) Third category of migrants refers to third county nationals whose migration status can be described as regular one. This generally means that they enter country legally with or without visa whenever allowed and make effort to legalize themselves on certain ground described by law. There are four types of resident status allowed by Polish law: temporary residence (3 months – 3 years), permanent residency (unlimited), long-term EU residency (unlimited), humanitarian stay (unlimited). Temporary residence is the basic type of residency. It can be justified by employment, seasonal employment, EU mobility, higher qualification employment (EU Blue Card), business, studies, scientific research, family issues, victimisation by human trafficking, vocational training, school attendance and other possible reasons. The main challenge of Polish legalization system is its lack of flexibility. Each time the requirements for certain type of stay is not met or foreigner overstay the permit or anyhow infringe the administrative regulations of the hosting country, such person must leave the Polish territory. There is no possibility to reinstate the legal status unless extraordinary circumstances are accounted – like marriage to Polish

[32] Najwyższa Izba Kontroli (2014), Pomoc społeczna dla uchodźców. Informacja o wynikach kontroli. [Social support for refugees. Information from the audit].
[33] Ibidem, 10.

citizen, conducting family life or security of the right of the child. Children may be legalized temporarily usually in consistency to their adult family members status. This happens if one of the parents is Polish or the second parent married Polish person. If the foreigner is staying in Poland for at least two years and was granted residence card at least twice and for the period over 12 month directly prior the submission of the family reunification application it is possible for such person to bring his family to Poland. The members of family are restricted to spouses and children only. Children who do not falls into such category can be however legalized basing on the family bonds. Polish law does not allow the return of anyone to his country of origin or departure if this could lead to infringement of the Polish obligation under article 8 of European Convention of Human Rights and Basic Freedoms or connected the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child. Furthermore each minor between age of 7-18 has right to be legalized as school student after acceptance to any Polish school. Children below 7 can be also accepted to preschool education and obtain the residence card on occasion.

The specifics of the permanent residency creates additional integration problems. Currently Polish law allows two different types of permanent residency. Both gives unlimited right to stay in Poland. The so called "Polish permanent stay" is given to minor who was born after his parent gained the permanent residency or long-term EU residency, or is a child of person who obtain any form of international protection, or was born as a child of Polish citizen. Furthermore such status can be gained by person who has Polish roots and is planning to reside in Poland. The same refers to the holders of Card of Pole[34]. Refugees, subsidiary protected or persons with humanitarian stay can gain such status after 5 years since recognition. As it was mentioned previously currently around 3.5 thousand of children in 10-17 age group is holding such document. As for the most cases such status will be given to people with Polish ancestors such persons will be more often categorised as newly arrived migrants rather than long-term residents. Third type of residency is long-term EU residency. This type of permit is given to people who stayed in Poland for at least 5 years, have stable economic situation and prove the good knowledge of Polish language (language proficiency certificate at B1 level or finished school in Poland). Finally, humanitarian stay is given to person that cannot be asked to leave as such decision would lead to the infringement of article 2-8 of the European Convention of Human Rights and Basic Freedoms or the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child.

d) There is also another category of persons existing in social sciences to describe people with the migration background but are not recognized in terms of official governmental policy. This refers to the children of Polish emigrants – either those who left Poland in pre-school age or were born in the country of emigration.

[34] Card of Pole is a document that is confirming belonging to Polish nation. Each person who had Polish parent, or Polish grandparent or at least two Polish great-grand parents can obtain such document. This document does not legalize the stay in Poland but give righto apply for permanent residency. It also allows to access health services, free education, discounts for public transport, free access to culture and many other privileges.

Most of them after return to Poland are treated as Polish citizens which result in numerous integration problems. They do not cherish the same rights as migrants have, often face bias and discrimination over the expectation to be Polish, speak Polish and culturally behave like one. This category had never been treated with proper attention and problems of this group is not resolved anyhow even it is growing.

2.2 Is there a migration policy or education plan for migrants in Poland?

For many years, even after the accession of Poland to European Union none of the ruling governments introduced a consistent migration policy. The legal framework of the migration management was based on administration and control patterns of the stay of foreigners on the territory of Poland. Governments were focused solely on setting rules and conditions of the entry and stay of foreigners on the territory of Poland. There was no measures introduced that would either help migrants in the integration process or set obligation on central or local governmental institutions to provide certain services for the migrants. In these legal frameworks the current policy was often shaped by the common European regulations that needed to be implemented into the Polish law. They were setting minimal standards which previously were lower, created new types of residency or institutions. Sometimes migration policy slightly changed according to the judgments ruled by administrative courts in Poland. Even though there was a consultation process in law amendment and non-governmental organizations took active part in it, the impact was small. As the law on aliens was very strict and did not allowed to reinstate legal status to foreigner who fell outside the system, government tried to resolve problem of undocumented migrants or those, without legal ground to stay three times through so called abolition actions (2003, 2007/2008 and 2012). This instrument was introduced each time by separate bill allowing some categories of illegal migrants to regain the residency status if they applied within the certain period of time. The larger abolition carried out between 1st of January 2012 and 2nd of July 2012 allowed 4.5 thousands of illegal migrants to obtain residency status, still only half of those who applied.

Only in July 2012 the Ministry of Internal Affairs published a policy paper "The Polish migration policy – present state and postulated actions". Document was prepared by a working group appointed for the preparation of Poland's migration strategy, as part of the Migration Team and consulted with non-governmental organizations and representatives of the academic community. It included proposals for simplifying procedures and strengthening administrative structures responsible for migration, defining categories of foreigners that were of particular importance from the point of view of state interests, reconstruction of the system of integration of foreigners and monitoring their situation, as well as increasing the role of non-governmental organizations and academic research units in the process. This document for the first time as policy paper for the larger extent discussed the issue of the integration and the introduction of necessary measures within the labour market, education, and social policies. In 2014 government prepared the executive plan for the introduction of this policy paper. Parallel to this efforts in the Ministry of Labour

and Social Policy another inter-disciplinary team was working on the integration policy paper that supposed to be incorporated to the migration policy. Unfortunately the vision of the action plan and management of the migration issues included in these documents was far from satisfactory. Still government was rather focusing on the control of the foreigners' presence than creating tools and services for their integration in the society. The actions toward the host society was described at the level of courses, workshops, and other events, sensitizing Polish society to cultural diversity. There was no plan to introduce intercultural education elements to the general education. Nevertheless, in the amendment of education law anti-discriminatory education and tolerance teaching was introduced as one of the key element to be taught in schools. This requirement, until it's abolition by the new government in 2017 had never been anyhow operationalized or transferred to the teaching program framework. Despite the lack of direct instruments such entry in the act governing education allowed some of teachers and non-governmental organizations to introduce elements of intercultural teaching on particular subjects or as independent workshops and trainings for children. Anyway, educational system in Poland due to its foundation enforced the necessity of introduction some of the integrative measures for foreigners. The learning is compulsory in Poland for all children between age 7 to 18. This meant that all migrant children present on the territory of Poland shall attend to schools, regardless of their Polish language proficiency. Polish education law does not recognize fully children with the migration background. Migrants are defined as persons who are not Polish citizens who are covered by the compulsory education, but do not know Polish language or their language skills do not allow them to attend classes. In executive regulations migrants are also described as Polish citizens who were receiving education in schools being part of the other countries educational systems. Since 2015 all children regardless of their origin had access to free public education. This change revealed lack of didactical and pedagogical readiness and competences of teachers to work with children having migration background.[35] It activated the Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji (Center of Education Development), as central institution for teachers training to provide intensive intercultural training and develop teaching tools and material in this regards. Until today this institution play a major role in the field of intercultural education and advancement of teachers' competences.

Polish government over the years has introduced the following integration measures in the education system:

- The right to receive education and care in Polish schools on the same rights and regulations as Polish citizens have. This education is provided free of charge at the level of preschool, primary school and secondary school. Certain category of migrants have also right to join freely post-secondary schools.

[35] Ewa Pogorzała (2018), Polityka oświatowa panstwa polskiego wobec uczniów i uczennic z doświadczeniem migracyjnym [Eductional policy of Polish state towars students of both sexes who had migration experience] [in:] Przemysław Gębal, Edukacja wobec migracji. Konteksty glottodydaktyczne i pedagogiczne [Education and migration. Glottodidactic and pedagogical contexts], Studia lingwistyczne i pedagogiczne nr 2, Kraków, 163 [Eductional policy of Polish state towars students of both sexes who had migration experience].

- Changes implemented in 2009 allowed schools to employ assistants of the teachers who communicate with students in their mother tongues and help them in the class. Such assistance is provided for 12 months.

- Since 2009 schools had a right to provide additional classes to compensate differences in the levels of knowledge and language proficiency in the certain subjects – this covered both migrant children and Polish children with special educational needs. This additional classes are conducted for 12 months only in dimension of one hour weekly per subject, however additional language classes together with compensatory classes cannot exceed 5 hours a week.

- Migrant children has right to free of charge additional language classes in the dimension of 2-5 hours weekly. Language classes shall be organized by municipality or other institution that is running the school. This covers also Polish children who returned from abroad however in their cases this right is limited to 12 months. This limit is criticized within the educational community as discriminative towards Polish children who returned from abroad, and also to their parents who are often labelled as those who did not took care enough of the children language proficiency.

- Since 2017 schools have right to organize preparatory (welcome) classes for the migrant children that do not understand or speak Polish enough to be able to participate in regular classes. Such classes shall not exceed 15 students, but it is allowed to organize such class even for the single student. At the primary school level, learning in preparatory class is scheduled for at least 20 hours a week in classes I-III and 23 hours a week in classes IV-VI and 25 hours a week in classes VII-VII). At the secondary school level a weekly dimension of learning in preparatory class shall exceed 26 hours. Different years of students can attend to one preparatory class provided there is no more than two years difference and with exception of the last secondary school class. Children learning in the preparatory classes are obliged to frequently join some of the subjects taught in regular classes to maintain the integration and continue learning advancement.

- Migrant children has also right to learn the language and culture of their country of origin. These kind of classes might be organized in schools by the diplomatic post or by educational or cultural society of the country of origin. This right is however restricted by the rule that such classes might be organized only if at least 7 student would attend. The limit of the 5 hours a week also is applied. According to the research such classes are rare.[36] Migrant children cannot attend to foreign language classes organized for the ethnic and national minorities unless they are Polish citizens.

- Migrant children are also covered by psychological and pedagogical assistance. It is provided on the same grounds as assistance for the general population of students.

[36] Natalia Klorek (2015), Przegląd działań i inicjatyw dotyczących identyfikacji kulturowej dzieci i młodzieży z doświadczeniem migracyjnym podejmowanych w Polsce [The review of the initiatives and actions on cultural identification of children and youths with migration experience conducted in Poland], [in:] Natalia Klorek and Katarzyna Kubin (ed.), Migracja, tożsamość, dojrzewanie. Adaptacja kulturowa dzieci i młodzieży z doświadczeniem migracyjnym [Migration, identity, coming of age. Cultural adaptation of children and youths with migration experience], Fundacja na rzecz Różnorodności Społecznej, Warszawa, pp. 151-195.

- The right to adjust the forms and conditions of external exams.

Change of the government in November 2015 has affected the integration policies. The new right-wing government started to use anti-immigration rhetoric in its official statements. The issues of international protection and asylum reception had been treated as a security threat to Polish society. Poland denied to accept the relocation quotas of the asylum seekers that already arrived on the territory of other EU countries. In parallel, Polish Border Guards started to use discriminatory practices in the reception of asylum application at the eastern border of Poland causing a two-years long crisis at the Brest/Terespol border, when hundreds of asylum seekers form Chechnya camped at the Brest Train Station in Belarus, trying multiple times to cross the Polish border and ask for asylum but each time returned.[37] In this transition zone people were living and sleeping in the train station hall. Polish Russian activist Marina Hulia organized even a complex of schools on this train station.[38] Change of policy in regard of accepting asylum application was followed by media propaganda against refugees and asylum seekers. This issue will be discussed however in separate report. At the same time, due to economic demand of Polish industry and other branches of economy, new government allowed the massive immigration to Poland opening the border for the labour force by changing the instruments on the labour market. This resulted in Poland being the leading Northern country who accept migrants for the purpose of temporary residence. This reality led new government to cancel the "Polish migration policy – present state and postulated actions" policy paper in 2017. Presently we are again in the situation when Poland does not have any policy paper in this regard. In June 2019 a new policy paper, accepted by the Interdisciplinary Team for Migration at the Department of Analysis and Migration Policy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, leaked and was published by Stowarzyszenie Interwencji Prawnej – an watch-dog NGO active in the field of human rights protection, social policy and rule of law. The leakage caused dismissal of the secretary of state at the Ministry of Internal Affairs together with Chief of the Office for Foreigners, who served this position for eleven years. He was the longest serving officer at the lead of public institution in the modern history of Poland. The new vision of Polish migration policy described in the leaked document is driven by the terrorist threats, institutionalized xenophobia and instrumental treatment of the migrants. In the view of the document the purpose of Polish migration policy is to fill in the gap in employment and to stabilize the economy and growth. In long-term process temporary migrants can be supplemented by Polish people returning from emigration or should they assimilate with the society if decide to stay permanently. Assimilation is understood as being equal to Polish people in terms of religion and cultural habits. Document rarely treats migrants as individuals with certain skills, dreams, plans and ambitions. It rather divide people on those who are conditionally welcomed (providing assimilation) and those who are unwelcome. On 48th page[39] we can

[37] Anna Dziewit-Meller (2018), Kobiety z dworca Brześć [Women from Brest Train Station], Kultura Liberalna 481 (13/2018).

[38] Szkoła na dworcu w Brześciu Białoruskim – wywiad z Mariną Hulia [School at the Belarusian Brest train station – interview with Marina Hulia, https://krytykapolityczna.pl/multimedia/sterniczki/szkola-na-dworcu-w-brzesciu-bialoruskim/; 10.09.2019.

[39] Zespół ds. Migracji, Polityka migracyjna Polski. Projekt z dnia 10 czerwca 2019 roku [Polish migration policy. Draft from 10th of June 2019].

read that: "numerous research in various countries indicates the significant difference between the Western culture and so called Islamic project values that tend to transform the social world to global Islamic community, basing on common religion and universal patterns of social and individual activity." For that reason Poland shall refrain from accepting Muslim migrants in order to avoid terrorism, ghettoization and other negative results. There are many purely racist and xenophobic remarks such as those on page 40: „in the nationally homogenous society the need to understand and accept the foreigners is present to a limited extent; as often they contribute customs that are not understandable, differing from our tradition, culture, values, history and religion". Migrants are blamed for the conflicts with local communities in the areas where reception centers are located as allegedly they are culturally unable to integrate.

Less than one page is dedicated to the problems of education and it is written in the bizarre manner. The diagnosis of the prevalent problems in this area are correct, however they are based on assumption that leveling educational opportunities and assurance of school success will solve all the problems. Unfortunately lack of success in education or dropping out the school is associated in document only with terrorist activity. We can read there, on page 43 that: "lack of proper education combined with negative migration experiences of the parents and contacts with deviant subcultures are a set of features who were observed in contemporary terrorist attackers in Europe". These of course might be true, but shall not be shaping the model of general education in any of the country as it reflects marginal issues.

Publication of this draft proposal caused an outrage in the communities working with migrants. Univocally all academic institutions, including the Committee of The Migration Research of the Polish Academy of Science, non-governmental organizations and other stakeholders condemned the document and criticized its content.

Due to visible inability of the central government to develop comprehensive and desirable integration policy many local governments, inspired by the non-governmental organization working with migrants started to work on their own, local migration and integration policies. The details will be presented in subchapter 5, however it must be noted that until 2017 legal regulations on tasks of the local governments did not give municipalities any legal instruments to introduce integration tools and models in the local social policy. Nevertheless non-governmental organization stood on position that such services shall be created on the general principle of obligation to take care over the inhabitants. It has been proved that migrants, as well as seniors, young people, people with disabilities has special needs that needed to be answered by the local governments. This belief enable the inter-sectoral cooperation between NGOs, local governmental and other stakeholders in order to create local dimensions of the migration policies, that is very characteristic for contemporary Poland. Such policies were introduced in Warsaw, Gdańsk, Wrocław, Kraków and Lublin and are in the phase of development in Łódź and Poznań. Most of the actions and tools implemented are contrary to the official governmental policy, especially in the terms of public narration and education of the host society.

2.3 Good practices and initiatives.

The migration and integration policies in Poland since the fall of the socialist, post-soviet government in 1989 had always, in practice, been dominated by the non-governmental organizations and similar think-tanks. This led to the creation, development and dissemination of the many good practices and initiatives in the field of intercultural education, teaching practices and Polish language learning as a foreign language. Luckily enough for many years both central and local governments remained open to cooperation and partnerships with NGOs and academic institutions. After the accession of Poland to European Union new perspectives of the exchange of experiences and practices appeared and these were effectively used by educational institutions in Poland. Polish schools and institutions became one of the most active in the Erasmus + programs, and former Equal initiatives.

The good practices are considered as such whenever they are useful to resolve the problems of the migrants' children, provide effective tools or class scenarios that support the integration or lead to achieve of intercultural competences by teachers.

Poland has developed a lot of teaching materials that could support the intercultural education and promotion of cultural diversity. All of them are collected and disseminated by the Ośrodek Rozwoju Edukacji (Centre of Education Development). This institution was established in 2010 by the Ministry of Education after merge of Central Institution for Teachers Training and Methodical Centre for Psychological and Pedagogical Aid. It helps teachers in competence advancement and introduction of the innovative approach in common education. It disseminates also teaching materials among teachers.

Apart from activities of public institutions Polish private entities had been always creative in terms of introduction and implementation of intercultural education. The special credits must be awarded to Polish publishers who are preparing the learning books for children. Publishers such as Dwie Siostry and Czarna Owca are specializing in issuing educational books for children. The most successful are "Maps" by Daniel and Alexandra Mizielińscy, already sold in more than three million copies to 31 countries worldwide. They were prized as one of the six best children books by "New York Times", and reached Top 100 of the best children books all time by "Telegraph". Maps are adjusted to each country beliefs, cultural perspective and historical heritage. At the same time they present universal world of different values, diversity and cultural density. Another book of the couple "Under the ground, under the water" had been awarded in 2015 as Book of the Year in China. Again, it presents the world and its achievements in cosmopolitan and cooperative manner, do not judge or exclude any culture, and at the same time wakes up child interest to explore. More and more educational tools created in Poland are being introduced also as and digital applications to smartphones, tablets or notebooks. One of the most innovative teaching tool is "Polska inspiruje" (Poland is Inspiring) application, which helps children to learn Polish language and in the same time presents the important people, events and material heritage of Polish history. This tool was proved to be very helpful in the integration process. Polish

NGOs developed also very effective manuals to learn Polish as a secondary language and developed common methodology in this field that effectively taught on independent or governmentally supported courses. There is growing number of teachers certified as teachers of Polish as a secondary language.

Presently, teachers in Poland had a great opportunity allowing them to choose between many valuable learning tools for the intercultural education provided them by the activism of social groups, organizations and experts. They are also able to rise their competences by attending trainings, workshops and studies in this filed. Several local governments, including Krakow provide financial support to such competence advancement. In Krakow all interested teachers can receive reimbursement of 85% of such costs. In Gdańsk teachers can join the Creative Pedagogics project, where they are able to gain knowledge and experience on innovative learning practices.

One of the major obstacle in integration process is also the assessment of the skills of the migrants. The present common indicators in this regards are not adjusted to the cultural diversity of the migrants arriving. Language barrier also constitute a real challenge in this regard. For that reason the city of Wrocław for example employed psychologist for the Evaluation Team in Psychological and Pedagogical Counselling Centre who speaks Russian, Ukrainian, English and German.

2.4 Existing policies in the view of EU framework.

As it has been mentioned before Poland had never had any independent, deliberate, and comprehensive migration policy. Polish governments usually were just reactive to social changes in migration processes, however migration itself was never a key point of national policy. After Poland's accession to European Union almost all amendments in legal regulations were connected to the obligation of EU directives and Regulations implementation. This means that the shape of Polish migration policy was always linked to the standards created within the common EU migration system. The major impact of EU policies were connected with international protection scheme as existing Polish system had been rebuilt in 2003, strictly according to EU requirements. This affected the qualification for the international protection, procedures of assessment, family reunification and reception. The necessity of introduction of minimal standards affected migration policies resulting in criticism by the migration stakeholders. Asylum seekers and refugees were granted a free access to labour market or entrepreneurship, while high-skilled workers were still bonded by multiple restrictions. This discrepancy shows how not self-reliant Polish migration system is, as well as not adjusted to particular national interests, despite the political declarations.

The first integration tools for migrants that were introduced in Poland were also connected with the international protection issues. The latest one, introducing the preparatory classes had been officially justified not by educational needs of the children but by the expected massive relocation processes of the asylum seekers that would enforce

such solution due to location of the reception centres – far from the nearest schools.[40] In all governmental policy papers it was clearly stated that Poland as a rule will introduce only minimal EU standards and exceptionally after observation of the other countries experience may further implement those higher standards that proved to be effective one. It never happened however.

Despite the fact that Poland presently does not have any migration policy introduced almost all achievements of the governments in this regard had been preserved by the new right-wing government. Only anti-discrimination education had been eliminated from the school curriculum contrary to the EU obligations that requires from the member states to teach tolerance and introduce anti-discriminatory measures. However in its official declarations, Ministry of Education provided support for the intercultural education in schools. Ms Anna Zalewska (Minister of Education between 2015-2019) have said in 2016 that for the first time ever migrant children had been noticed as objects of education and that extensive efforts had been made to provide them with comfortable learning solutions in order to avoid underperforming or educational failures. All of these actions are in line with EU education policy frameworks. The general education in municipal schools provided for the regular migrants is working well. The major problems refer to the education of asylum seekers. Most of them are placed in school just after arrival but due to the mobility and secondary movement issues they rarely finish any stage of the education. It is common situation that such children does not finish any class in the school year. There is also ongoing and demanding problem of children placed with their parents in detention centres. Both Polish Ombudsman and non-governmental organizations[41] underlined that children shall not be detained for any reason as it is contradictory to the requirements of the UN Convention of the Rights of a Child. Also European Court of Human Rights declared keeping children in detention as inhuman and degrading treatment.[42] Education provided in detention camps is ineffective. According to research on many occasions it is provided by Border Guard's officers who are lacking pedagogical experience. Even if provided by teachers from local schools the time frame of such education is not effective. Such situation infringe the minimal standards of the reception of the asylum seekers in the member states.

European common migration system allowed the member states to receive funding under the AMIF fund – Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund, that replaced previous refugee funds and third country nationals funds. Until 2016 these funds were redistributed by grants to non-governmental organizations who declared to spend them on integration projects, covering also educational issues. The new government suspended however the call for action and redistributed AMIF funds to voivodship offices who were supposed to spend them in regions on the local integration projects. It was revealed soon that this model

[40] Ewa Pogorzała (2018), op cit. 175-176.

[41] Dawid Cegiałka et al. (2011), Przestrzeganie praw cudzoziemców umeszczonych w ośrodkach strzeżonych. Raport z mnitoringu [Respect of the rights of foreigners placed in detention centers. Monitoring report.], Analizy, Raporty, Ekspertyzy, nr 2/2011; Marcin Sośniak et al. (2013), Realizacja prawa małoletnich cudzoziemców do edukacji. Raport RPO [Implementation of migrant children right to education. The Ombudsman Report], Zasada równego traktowania. Prawo i Praktyka, no. 12, pp. 40-46.

[42] ECHR Judgments in Muskhadzhiyeva and others vs. Belgium from 10.01.2010 r., complaint no 41442/07.

become ineffective and most of the regions did not introduced any integration projects or programs so far.

Schools and education institutions in Poland fully benefited however from other kinds of European education programs including Commenius, Gruntvig, Erasmus +, Daphne III, Youth in Action and many others.

Despite many effort the Mipex study rated Poland low among countries with effective integration efforts for the migrant children with scores related to education conditions: slightly unfavourable in 2010 and unfavourable in 2014.

When the so called migration crisis broke out Poland declared to accept seven thousand quota of the asylum seekers from Italy and Spain. This declaration had been however withdrawn by the new government in 2015 and since then Poland consequently oppose the EU relocation plans. This happens despite the fact that previous government agreed with the EU institution right to asylum seekers screening and accepting only women, children and families.

The present government is officially questioning the common EU migration policy trying to convince other countries and seek allies in this regard to give greater emphasis to border control and fighting out "illegal" immigration. The official statements tend also to provide support for the countries of origin of the arriving migrants, support the economies of the migration countries to decrease the emigration pressure, and to cut out the social support provided to arriving migrants.

2.5 Migrants' education policy concepts in Poland.

In the field of education on the governmental level there is no much discussion on how migrants are included into the Polish society, if they participate in education and training, if there is place for intercultural education in Polish schools. It is however obvious that in Polish educational reality, as refereeing to the systemic solutions, there is no child-cantered approach introduced, except of very singular cases, who might be considered as good practices. A child in Polish education system was never object of the intervention unless it was met by devoted individuals. The education experience is usually driven by fear, although the average perception of the subjectivity is at the middle levels.[43] Students are praising teachers approach but criticise the structure of education and imposed requirements. In discussion over the educational issues intercultural education is perceived as something that creates teaching environment even if the single student with migration background appear in the class. The main idea of the Polish approach to integration of migrants in the schools is based on providing sufficient support to a migrant child in order to secure his educational success. It is not an easy task but all possible efforts are made in order to allow migrant children to gain sufficient language skills and to join regular classes

[43] Agnieszka Głowala (2016), Experiencing subjectivity in the educational practice in the opinion of primary school students, Społeczeństwo, edukacja, język, nr 4, pp. 139-148.

as fast as possible. These require acquirement of adequate competences by teachers. Most of policy discussions presently are concentrating on school staff competences. Furthermore, discussion is also focused around the basic concepts of the foreigners' education, that include the methodology of Polish language learning as the secondary one, the purpose of additional compensatory classes or the concept and functioning of preparatory classes. Some experts see this solution as introduction of segregation in education, but most of the voices seem to appreciate this tool as something that provide a safe place for migrant children. Discussions are also connected to categorisation of children with migration experience. The great debate refers to children with Polish citizenship returning to Poland and their problems with adaptation. Many of these children do not speak Polish or have only basic knowledge of the language. Furthermore they were raised in different educational reality, sometimes radically other than one they are forced to adapt to. These children often come across the discrimination problem. It is expected for them, as Polish citizens, to have good knowledge of language. Furthermore they are expected to know the history and tradition of Polish nation. In the adaptation process children of Polish returnees are discriminated as their integration plans are restricted to 12 months. Only dual citizenship allows to overcome this obstacle. Some of the returnees suffer from depression as Polish reality in terms of community involvement and support, social solidarity and personal attitude are much more bellow the standards and expectations they were used to. The reality of Polish school is driven by violence, competition, envy and other forms of negative feelings. In such environment being different regardless of the reason may constitute an essential challenge. If such attitude affects migrants they are suffering peer discrimination on the basis of race, ethnical origin, descent or religion. Polish school is often unprepared to counteract peer violence.

Except ORE (Center for Education Development), public institutions are rarely engaged in discussions about the intercultural education. Most of the recent deliberation on education and created roundtables were focused on education reform, position of a teacher and its salaries and problem with school overcrowding due to double school years, starting secondary education in 2019/2020. In the view of new problems, intercultural education and position of foreign children were put in the shadow. The Supervisory Boards (Kuratorium Oświaty) – that are taking control over the education, as governmental institutions in each region, have no interests in discussion on intercultural teaching. Since August 2019 it is however possible to appoint a methodical counsellor for intercultural issues in the regions. In realization of the AMIF funds voivodships created interdisciplinary platforms for the integration tasks, where different stakeholders can meet and discuss how to develop integration processes within the regions. Education is one of the key working issues during the platform's meetings.

As usually, the main stakeholders interested in the development of the intercultural teaching and providing better environment for the migrant children are academics and non-governmental organizations. There are several think-tanks in this area, like Instytut Badań Edukacyjnych (Institute For the Research on Education) or Fundacja na rzecz Różnorodności Społecznej (Fundation for the Social Diversity). Both have great achievements and vast

experience in the area of intercultural and anti-discrimination education providing reports from research, policy papers, manuals and books.

There is little known about cooperation of schools with migrants' parents. There are no extensive or comparable research in this area. Such cooperation sometimes exist and parents are actively involved in the school life and integration between children but many of them are passive and reluctant to participate or even communicate with the schools. In most cases these refer to cultural factors or lack of language knowledge. Some foreign parents are employed by school as cultural assistants. Most of the foreign parents are motivated to provide maximum support in adaptation of their children[44]. More problematic is cooperation with the parents of the local children in terms of intercultural diversity in schools. There is a lot of prejudice in this group, transferred unfortunately to the children. Many Polish parents are distrustful towards migrants' presence in the school, fear that foreigners will lower school position and achievements.[45] Sometimes they present open racist attitudes.

2.6 Goal and instruments of migration policy in education – central vs. local.

As it was mentioned before the migration policy on the central governmental level is currently non-existent and policy paper that was prepared in June, 2019 was discredited. The current policy papers issued by the government do not offer any reliable solution for the integration of migrants, not mentioning the access, solutions and provisions of the general education. As this field of social policy was transferred to the local governments as units responsible for the schooling system it is their responsibility to provide certain systemic approach to the integration process inside and outside the education system. This conclusion is particularly important as the integration of the migrant children cannot be limited to the school environment and must be supplemented by certain extracurricular tasks and community action.

As migrants started to arrive and settle in the major Polish cities, local governments, not having any indicators from the central government and observing the chaos in the legalisation process, needed to respond to the growing problems of the new inhabitants. This led to inter-sectoral cooperation and development of local strategies or integration plans.

First such official document had been adopted in June 2016 in Gdańsk under the name of "Gdański model integracji" (Immigrant Integration Model). It is the official policy paper that is implemented according to the task plan by the local government and its' institutions. In May 2015, Mayor of Gdansk Paweł Adamowicz established Poland's first cross-sectoral and interdisciplinary task force on the immigrant integration model to address this need.

[44] Bożena Grzeszkiewicz (2011), Uwarunkowania dziecięcych sukcesów [The conditions of children achievements], (in:) Bożena Grzeszkiewicz, Bogumiła Walak, Obszary edukacji dziecka [The spheres of children education], Gorzów Wielkopolski 2011, s. 94.

[45] Urszula Jędzrzejczyk (2011), Edukacja dla integracji. O doświadczeniach, pomysłach, działaniach praktycznych w wielokulturowych klasach [Education for integration. On experiences, ideas, and pravtical actions in multicultural classes], Krakow, 19.

The team's task was to assess the available resources and capabilities to support the immigrants in Gdansk, and to identify the key needs and problems. Nearly 80 people representing 40 different institutions and organisations volunteered to work on comprehensive solutions to support the immigrants. As the work progressed, new members joined the team, and ultimately the model was developed as a joint effort of more than 150 people representing 70 different public institutions and non-governmental organisations. The project involved regular participation of a group of new residents of Gdansk made up by over 20 immigrants from different countries. Among many solution worked out in the social policy there was also assessment made in the field of education. The structure of migrant students in Gdańsk were very diverse, including regular migrants but also recognized refugees and children of immigrants at risk of poverty or exclusion. According to this policy paper one of the main differences between Polish and migrant students is the curriculum as foreign school children and university students have a different range of knowledge and a different understanding of social roles ("student", "teacher", "parent"). The creators of this policy realized that teaching a multicultural classroom or group and providing personalised teaching assistance to a child student with a different cultural background requires implementation of systematic tools and procedures by the school or university, as well as relevant competencies of teachers and lecturers.[46] Lack of language knowledge has been identified as a key barrier to child's adaptation in school environment. It was important to ensure competence development for teachers in the following areas: methods of teaching children with migration experience; basic understanding of the psychological situation of a migrant child and his or her family, including the implications of forced displacement and migration; legal aspects of a foreign child's education; intercultural competencies; child's integration in the classroom and at school; culturally appropriate tools to support and motivate students with migration experience. It was also underlined that migrants' children need to be familiarize with Polish culture, local values and history in order to adapt and integrate in new community. As an action plan the policy paper advised to implement measures to improve the cultural competencies of Polish and foreign students (as well as the staff), and enhance the educational offering through a variety of educational activities in other languages than Polish. The city hall proposed also streamline communication between entities providing support to foreign students. These measures was supposed to lead to the creation of educational and research units providing comprehensive support to foreign students and counteracting violence and discrimination. Implementation of this provision led to organizing workshops to pedagogical councils in schools, introduction of teachers' trainings, workshops for parents including integration events for the families and creation of the prevention program in schools against violence and discrimination. A Creative Pedagogics Project for the exchange of best practices was also established.

The other positive example of introduction of the integration practices comes from Krakow. Only three month later after Gdańsk Krakow has adopted city-wide "Open Krakow Program". In August 2012, an agreement was signed between the Social Affairs Department and the INTERKULTURALNI PL Association, the purpose of which was to support the

[46] Gdańsk City Hall (2016), Immigrant Integration Model, pp. 24-26.

implementation of the actions described in the "Strategy for prevention and reaction to racist and xenophobic events in the public space of the city - a proposal for the local government of the City of Krakow" 2012-2016)." The implementation of joint actions to combat racism and xenophobia included the establishment of a Task Team for the preparation of a draft resolution of the City Council of Krakow on multicultural issues, anti-discrimination, racism and xenophobia in Krakow. The team included representatives of non-governmental organizations, Departments of the City of Krakow Office and municipal organizational units. In 2014, a draft resolution on the adoption of the Program for preventing and reacting to racist and xenophobic events in the urban space was consulted with Krakow City Office Departments and municipal organizational units. In January 2015, the Social Affairs Department invited non-governmental organizations and other civic stakeholders for consultation. After presenting the project at the Social Policy Committee of the Krakow City Council, the document was supplemented with a new diagnosis and the program content correction, changing some of its elements, special attention was paid to emphasizing the benefits that come from the diversity and multiculturalism of the city. In September 2016, the Krakow City Council adopted a resolution regarding the "Open Krakow" Program. During the implementation of the program City established an Information Point for Foreigners that provided expertise information on the issues of education, school curriculum, educational services and school enrolment. It appointed also a methodical consultant for multiculturalism who was very active until August, 2019 when his competences was transferred on the level of voivodship. The city promised also to carrying out activities aimed at supporting the organisation of school activities and educational projects devoted to the multicultural heritage of the city; conducting a competition directed to the children of the representatives of national and ethnic minorities in the field of knowledge about the history of the city of Krakow; conducting a competition among pupils of Krakow schools concerning their knowledge about other nationalities living in Krakow and to provide patronage and other forms of support for projects, artistic, cultural, scientific and educational initiatives devoted to the multicultural heritage of the city. As direct support of the migrant students municipality had organized in 2018/2019 an additional language classes for 971 students (598 in 2017/2018) in 106 public schools and 25 private schools. Public school students are invited also to participate in classes in musical schools, cultural centres and dormitories. Presently the city is assessing the situation of students in this dormitories as many of the minors living there are unaccompanied by parents and the legal guardianship is fictitious. The legal provisions does not provide answer who is responsible for the presence, safety and well-being of such students. In mid-term break and holidays those students are forced to leave dormitories which expose them to homelessness problem. In one Krakow school a foreign language classes are organized for Ukrainians belonging to national minority. Seven pupils are attending. The city council co-organized also three expertise conferences exploring intercultural teaching issues and problems: "dialogue and intercultural cooperation" (May 2018), "multicultural school – challenges, needs and capacities" (November 2018), and "In polish multicultural school – the support of competences of pedagogical personnel" (December 2018). Each conference allowed to exchange experiences and good practices, present the inclusive and integration approach in teaching Polish as a foreign language, intercultural teaching scripts, as well as the results of the research on teachers' attitude to cultural diversity.

As direct support for teachers the city hall is offering the reimbursement of 85% of cost of post-graduate studies in the field of cultural diversity and 95% of cost of studies preparing a teacher to teach Polish language as the secondary language. There are three cultural diversity post-diploma studies offered by Krakow universities. Sixty one teachers benefited from funding for the advancement of their competences as the Polish language teachers.

The city, together with the Economic University and in partnerships with Jagiellonian University and Pedagogical University decided to establish Obserwatorium Wielokulturowości i Migracji (OWiM) (Observatory of Multiculturalism and Migration), a city-founded academic research team for the assessment of the situation of migrants in Krakow and creation of the recommendation for the integration solutions based on scientific grounds. In the research schemes education of children plays a substantive role. The results will be known and published in 2020.

Finally local governments are often engaged in the international cooperation. Many major cities have 4 or 5 partnerships with other European cities and may exchange good practices or share their experiences, like project "Mural", described in details in other MiCREATE's report: "Report on good practices: institutional perspective" in Section B.

Although most of the foreigners are settling in the large cities in Poland there are also some rural areas with the greater density of foreigner residents. Sometimes it is caused by the presence of reception camp for asylum seekers, but sometimes it is connected with business issues, and location of the large wholesale centres in Poland. This is the example of the school complex in Mroków, a small village 30 kilometres south of Warsaw. This school is a perfect example of introduction effective patterns of intercultural education and great integration model. In the school population foreigners constitute around 15 percent of the students and contradictory to other multicultural schools most of them are Vietnamese or Chinese origin. The school itself is one of the few schools in Poland which incorporated integration work and respect of diversity in the school statute. Students are supported by cultural assistants and receive intensive language classes. Non-governmental organizations together with the school conducted here numerous intercultural projects aimed to facilitate integration between foreigners and local children. Furthermore, the school website is publishing materials and announcements in Vietnamese and Chinese. The further research showed that migrant children feel good in that schools and adapt quickly to the new environment.

2.7 Implementation of the integration and child centred approach.

When the document "Polish migration policy – present state and postulated actions" was finally adopted there was great expectation that together with the integration policy being prepared by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy for the first time after 1989 Poland will have a comprehensive plan for integration actions on both central and local level. These actions covered third country nationals and people seeking international protection. Unfortunately EU citizens had not been included as beneficiaries of this policy

plan. The introduction of the policy tasks supposed to receive a funding, annually included as a national budget position and then transferred to regions as a direct subsidization. The adapted model assumed the partnerships between public institutions and social organizations in the implementation of the policy. Many of the planned action, like intercultural education, providing information and legal assistance, providing language classes and social support was supposed to be delegated to non-governmental organization. The additional funds for integration had been planned to supplement those actions throughout AMIF EU Program. Actions already implemented with the support of this fund and the previous European Integration Fund had been evaluated both by government and private entities and institutes. Evaluation organizations prepared and published recommendations for the funders, grant operators and beneficiaries.[47]

Child-centred approach is quite a new concept in Polish education adapted from the EU policies of the well-being of children and youth. This concept however had always been a base of Polish pedagogical approach, being called pedagogics of the person. In this paradigm child is the person of predominant importance. Learning its needs and ambitions create a space to design the educational activities. In this approach it is not enough to meet a man of a given culture. As Jolanta Dobrzańska[48] is describing a child, before becoming a child of the second decade of the twenty-first century, an American or Polish child, is a human child, endowed with the enormous potential that a human child conceals. Reading this potential goes hand in hand with the knowledge of man: the structure of the person, his values, purpose-calling, and connections with other entities. People are brought up by other people, not by ideas or goals, although these can be an important motive for bonding with people. Upbringing in personalism is understood as a meeting of the educator and pupil (master and student) and their joint journey towards truth, goodness and beauty, in cooperation and the pursuit of mutual understanding. The importance of taking into the account the child perspective comes from the transformation of family models, which became egalitarian. Child is presently an object of personal and family happiness. Parents are investing in the child development and are bonding with it, which locates such child in the centre of the family.[49] Contemporary child, as part of specific environment faster gain independence, is forced to create self-control mechanism in connection to new media and consumption.

This ideal of child-centric approach is hardly noticeable in the reality of Polish education. The structure of the system, curriculum and the everyday functioning of the schools do not allow much of the individual approach. Most of the teachers do not have time to approach children individually and assess their skills, cannot help them in talent development or satisfying ambitions. Nevertheless, non-governmental organizations and educational institutions created many tools, manuals, classes' scenarios and workshop

[47] Mirosław Bieniecki et al. (2013), Monitor inegracji. Ewaluacja i ocena skuteczności działań prowadzonych w Polsce przy finansowym wsparciu Europejskiego Funduszu na rzecz Integracji Obywateli Państw Trzecich w latach 2007-2012 [Monitor of Integration. Evaluation and rating of the effectiveness of the actions conducted in Poland with financial support of the European Integration Fund for the Third Country Nationals between 2007-2012], Instytut Studiów Migracyjnych, Gliwice.

[48] Jolanta Dobrzańska (2017), Filozofia edukacji, https://onas.org.pl/group-forum/view?id=82; 20.09.2019.

[49] Anna Błasiak (2018), Wychowanie w rodzinie [Upbringing in the Family], [in:] Bożena Sieradzka-Baziur, Pedagogika rodziny na początku XXI wieku w świetle pojęć i terminów [Pedagogics of the family on the beginning of 21st century in the view of terms and definitions], Igantianum Kraków, 163.

patterns that include child-centric approach as a base for the work in the multicultural school. The effectiveness of this framework is dependant however to the will of the teachers to include such approach in their work. As it was mentioned above Poland has also developed many tools, applications, books and manuals for children that are very innovative and child-centric. Most of them include the intercultural perspective and prise cultural diversity. It arouse children interest in the world without prejudice, divisions, exclusions or segregation of the people and cultures. The prevalent non-governmental organization projects introduced in the schools or within the extra-curricular activities presently include the elements and perspectives that are focusing on children's needs and well-being.

3. Conclusions

The reception community in Poland, in terms of immigrants' management can be described as moderately amicable for the migrants. There is a great potential in people who work in the field of integration and these groups of people are large and growing. Also teachers in schools and other educational personnel are gaining new knowledge and competences regarding the intercultural education schemes and understanding of cultural diversity. There is increasing number of teachers who was certified as teachers of Polish as a foreign language. There is however less potential in institutions that are not fully prepared for the reception of migrants. Voivodship offices in the regions are not able to provide legal and social support to migrants in the process of their legalization. This is causing delays in migrants' status recognition, often leading to inability to travel or return to the country of origin and compromise the integration efforts.

Still Poland do not have any migration policy introduced as a policy paper and comprehensive plan for the management of the migration movements. This is particularly alarming having in mind that presently Poland is a World leader in the acceptance of the migrants for their first stay. It is predicted that annually over 3.5 million migrants are staying in the territory of Poland. These numbers are still fluctuating and are predominantly seasonal, but according to the experience of the Western countries such type of migration always transforms into more permanent one. Central governmental institutions are not prepared to operationalize and redistribute this masses of people.

The other approach is clearly visible in the actions of the local governments. Most of them, especially in large cities implemented separate integration plans or tasks connected to the larger social policies. Each one were created with the support of non-governmental organizations, therefore its implementation is usually based on inter-sectoral cooperation. This allows local governments to delegate its tasks to competent and experienced bodies who are able to provide effective tools and solutions.

In the overall evaluation of the existing solutions both in the general integration processes and those regarding education in the multicultural environment we have observed the rapid progress in this field and geometric increase in the initiatives, projects and programs that are implemented all over Poland. There is also a visible rise in the academic research in the migration studies. According to the report prepared by the Committee of the Migration Research of the Polish Academy of Science as for 2018 there

was 2500 academic papers published in the field of migration studies by 87 of scientific institutions, by 639 of researchers and academics[50]. Most of them represented sociological, economical and political studies. There is a growing number of think-tanks established which collect and disseminate an extensive knowledge of the intercultural education.

This allows to draw optimistic conclusion, that Poland is capable to provide modern, child-centric and effective integration models for migrant children in the field of education but also in the other spheres of social policy. The number of the initiatives and projects will be growing, mostly thanks to involvement of local governments or public institutions such as ORE (Centre for Education Development). The important factor supporting our optimism is existence of the national networks that share good practices and models of teaching.

Unfortunately there are also threats to the development of the intercultural education that are connected to the conservatism of the current government and its view on migration policy that is based on the assimilation models. This governmental perspective supports ethnical, religious and cultural homogeneity of the society, which condemns diversity and cultural differences among people. Conservative views of the government encouraged more radical right-wing organizations to activate in the field of preserving nationalism, conservative Catholicism and radical patriotism. One of such organization is Ordo Iruris – a conservative think-tank that is opposing equal right of the women, reproduction rights, lgbtq+ rights, as well as religious pluralism, including the right to profess Islam or orthodox religion.

Another threat comes from the media discourse and especially public media propaganda that describe migration as a threat to society due to terrorist activity, crime, and religious domination of Islam. On the other hand a phenomenon that can be called Polish exceptionalism is underlined in the social discourse. This concept is however much different to American exceptionalism that is multicultural and open. Polish version is integrist, xenophobic and isolationist. This propaganda is affecting peoples' attitudes toward migrants and support discriminative approach.

Hopefully most of the teachers working in intercultural classes try to counteract such behaviours. Nevertheless it shows that successful integration process of the migrant children is more dependant to the education of the host society and tolerance teaching focused on local children. Further development of the integration models shall then more broadly include intervention towards the host society.

[50] Anna Horolets et al. (2018), Raport o stanie nadań nad migracjami w Polsce po 1989 roku [Report on the state of art in the field of migration studies in Poland after 1989], Komitet Badań nad Migracjami PAN, Warszawa, 5.

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Ustawa o udzielaniu cudzoziemcom ochrony na terytorium Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej (Dz.U. z 2019 r. poz. 1666 t.j.)

Ustawa o promocji zatrudnienia i instytucjach rynku pracy (Dz.U. z 2019 r. poz. 1482 t.j.)

Ustawa o wjeździe na terytorium Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej, pobycie oraz wyjeździe z tego terytorium obywateli państw członkowskich Unii Europejskiej i członków ich rodzin (Dz.U. z 2019 r. poz. 293 t.j.)



SLOVENIA

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1. Data on migration

1.1 Main data sources on and migrant children

Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia

Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (SURS) is the main data source on migration in Slovenia. The definition of an immigrant used in the methodological explanations on the data on socioeconomic characteristics of the population and migrants is the following: "An immigrant from abroad is a usual resident of Slovenia who has immigrated to Slovenia from abroad and has usual residence in Slovenia (intends to stay in the country for a year or more).«[51] Additionally, the category of foreign – born is defined in accordance with the Commission regulation 351/2010[52]: 'foreign-born' means a person who was born outside of the country of current usual residence, regardless of the person's citizenship.

[51] Razpotnik (2018): Methodological explanation. Socioeconomic characteristics of population and migrants. Ljubljana: Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia https://www.stat.si/StatWeb/File/DocSysFile/8351/05-245-ME.pdf

[52] COMMISSION REGULATION (EU) No 351/2010 (2010) https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2010:104:0037:0039:EN:PDF

Since the 2011 register-based census, SURS has been utilising the CPR and other administrative sources for more frequent derivations of data on various topics, including data on migration and different characteristics of migrants. Thus, they produce annual data on the socio-economic characteristics of the population and international migrants, and by combining annual migration databases and population stocks as of 1 January (both CPR-based), they also produce data on the country of birth, the year of first immigration to Slovenia and from 2016 on also data on the country of birth of parents.

The basic data on migration derived from the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, which are comparable with other European countries are also available from Eurostat.

Register of participants in education and training (CEUVIZ).

In 2011, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport established an administrative register of participants in education and training (CEUVIZ). It includes participants in education and training from kindergarten to tertiary education.

The unit described is a student, enrolled in pre-school, basic, upper secondary and music education in a given school year. They also observe every student, completing basic and upper secondary education.

They collect personal data of students: sex, age, citizenship, permanent residence, previous educational attainment, special needs status and data on their enrolment: type and field of education, educational program and institution, grade, type of enrollment, etc.

Both CEUVIZ and CPR use the same unique PIN as an identifier, so they can be linked.

Ministry of the Interior

Collects the data on asylum seekers, including unaccompanied migrant children.

1.2 General

On 1st January 2018 6,8 % (121.875) of total population (2.066.880) were foreign citizens, while 12,1 % (250.226) were foreign born.[53] In 2018 28,455 people immigrated from abroad.[54]

According to Slovenian Statistical Office in 2018, one in eight residents in Slovenia was an immigrant. 250.226 (12.1 %) residents of Slovenia are foreign-born, meaning that they

[53] SURS, (2019): SISTAT. Population. Quarterly data. https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatDb/pxweb/en/10_Dem_soc/10_Dem_soc__05_prebivalstvo__05_osnovni_podatki_preb__05_05A10_prebivalstvo_cetrt/05A1002S.px/table/tableViewLayout2/

[54] SURS, (2019): SISTAT. International migration. https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatDb/pxweb/en/10_Dem_soc/10_Dem_soc__05_prebivalstvo__40_selitve__05_05N10_meddrzavne/05N1002S.px/table/tableViewLayout2/

immigrated to Slovenia at some point in their lives. Over half of them (137.000) have Slovenian citizenship. Some of them were born as Slovenian citizens (e.g. born to Slovenian parents abroad), while others became Slovenian citizens by naturalisation. On 1 January 2018, 8,600 or 7 % of the almost 122,000 residents with foreign citizenship were born in Slovenia, and are thus not immigrants.[55]

Table 1: Foreign born population on 1st January (2009 – 2018)[56]

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Total	2.032.362	2.046.976	2.050.189	2.055.496	2.058.821	2.061.085	2.062.874	2.064.188	2.065.895	2.066.880
Foreign born (nr.)	**243.404**	**253.786**	**228.588**	**230.109**	**232.703**	**235.310**	**237.616**	**241.203**	**245.369**	**250.226**
Foreign born (share)	**12,0**	**12,4**	**11,1**	**11,2**	**11,3**	**11,4**	**11,5**	**11,7**	**11,9**	**12,1**
FB EU 28	:	:	:	:	:	**68.787**	**68.091**	**67.002**	**66.387**	**65.810**
- Croatia	:	:	:	:	:	47.703	46.995	46.112	45.612	44.994
- Italy	:	:	:	:	:	3.482	3.646	3.843	4.027	4.136
- Germany	:	:	:	:	:	7.718	7.586	7.397	7.361	7.255
- Austria	:	:	:	:	:	2.900	2.820	2.734	2.702	2.641
- Bulgaria	:	:	:	:	:	1.150	1.179	1.215	1.157	1.241
- France	:	:	:	:	:	1.204	1.167	1.134	1.131	1.119
- UK	:	:	:	:	:	550	559	571	604	642
FB NON-EU	:	:	:	:	:	**166.523**	**169.525**	**174.201**	**178.982**	**184.416**
- Bosnia & Herzegovina	97.142	102.915	96.897	97.152	98.527	100.039	100.880	102.848	104.738	107.676
- Kosovo	2.242	6.977	9.350	9.767	10.414	11.132	11.952	16.167	16.723	17.050
- North Macedonia	13.036	14.333	13.658	14.201	14.730	15.137	15.637	15.880	16.507	17.128
- Serbia	16.226	20.890	26.368	26.449	26.742	26.915	27.073	24.344	24.601	25.372
- Russia	806	928	1.120	1.224	1.413	1.696	2.082	2.550	2.780	3.009
- Montenegro	1.957	2.763	2.811	2.830	2.834	2.826	2.843	2.854	3.362	3.344
- Ukraine	1.242	1.382	1.406	1.492	1.605	1.676	1.803	2.016	2.347	2.495
Africa	427	458	538	574	614	654	709	770	760	822
America	1.877	1.996	2.118	2.165	2.138	2.159	2.181	2.226	2.289	2.358
Asia	1.311	1.720	1.720	1.828	1.973	2.124	2.209	2.395	2.705	2.966
Oceania	412	420	457	449	419	410	395	390	396	372

In 2018, international protection was granted to 102 persons, of which 99 persons were granted refugee status and 3 were granted status subsidiary protection. Among the persons who received international protection, the majority were men. In 2018 most of the statuses of international protection were recognized to citizens of Syria (41) and Eritrea (26) and Turkey (12).

[55] SURS (2018). International migrants day. One in eight residents of Slovenia is an immigrant: https://www.stat.si/StatWeb/en/News/Index/7830

[56] Eurostat (2019): Population on 1 January by age group, sex and country of birth. http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=migr_pop3ctb&lang=en%20

Table 2: Number of asylum request (2009 – 2018)[57]

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Total no of asylum requests	202	246	358	304	272	385	277	1308	1476	2875
Final decisions	228	239	392	328	374	360	265	1136	1572	2886
Positive decisions	20	23	24	34	37	44	46	170	152	102
Negative decisions	89	55	78	75	82	51	87	96	89	135
Cessation procedure	96	120	177	110	177	216	89	621	949	2372
Rejected applications	23	27	40	57	59	49	44	249	382	277
Safe third country	0	14	73	52	19	0	0	0	0	0
Resettlement										40
Relocation								124	108	21

In 2018 out of 310.677 children up to 15 years old, 11.632 were foreign-born (3,7). More than one third (34 %) of them was born in Bosnia and Herzegovina (3.963), 16 % were born in Kosovo (1.919) and 9,4 % in North Macedonia (1.091).

Table 3: Number of foreign born children up to 15 years (2009 – 2018) [58]

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Total	284.054	287.275	290.853	294.149	298.095	301.053	304.310	306.390	308.594	310.677
Foreign born (FB)	**9.942**	**10.776**	**9.446**	**9.771**	**9.999**	**10.218**	**10.524**	**11.029**	**11.301**	**11.632**
FB share (%)	**3,5**	**3,8**	**3,2**	**3,3**	**3,4**	**3,4**	**3,5**	**3,6**	**3,7**	**3,7**
FB male	5.202	5.617	4.954	5.128	5.270	5.369	5.557	5.860	5.997	6.134
FB female	4.740	5.159	4.492	4.643	4.729	4.849	4.967	5.169	5.304	5.498
FB EU 28	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**2.691**	**2.498**	**2.277**	**2.226**	**2.157**
- Croatia	:	:	:	:	:	576	547	490	491	468
- Italy	:	:	:	:	:	365	357	362	393	386
- Germany	:	:	:	:	:	674	582	475	428	367
- Austria	:	:	:	:	:	392	337	293	284	269
- UK	:	:	:	:	:	108	105	107	105	113
- Bulgaria	:	:	:	:	:	71	64	60	50	59
- France	:	:	:	:	:	71	69	59	63	69
FB NON-EU	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**:**	**7.527**	**8.026**	**8.752**	**9.075**	**9.475**
- Bosnia & Herzegovina	1.292	1.782	2.064	2.281	2.567	2.856	3.038	3.464	3.678	3.962
- Kosovo	212	591	919	1.055	1.224	1.362	1.596	1.910	1.971	1.919
- North Macedonia	970	1.043	1.016	1.081	1.089	1.101	1.080	1.054	1.063	1.091
- Serbia	756	781	930	920	903	896	898	753	739	768
- Russia	115	119	124	130	192	246	321	439	456	490
- Ukraine	116	130	132	142	147	159	192	217	248	272
Africa	35	36	38	41	45	61	77	97	101	111
America	346	369	344	351	344	340	336	342	342	329
Asia	56	73	75	89	88	97	87	99	118	161

[57] Ministry of Interior (2019). Priseljevanje v Slovenijo. https://www.gov.si/podrocja/drzava-in-druzba/priseljevanje-v-slovenijo/

[58] Eurostat (2019): Population on 1 January by age group, sex and country of birth. http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=migr_pop3ctb&lang=en%20

Oceania	67	63	59	59	56	52	57	53	52	44

1.3 In the field of education/schools

In the field of education, only data on children with foreign citizenship is available, while there is no data on foreign - born children.

Out of 87.147 children attending pre-school education in the school year 2018/2019, 4.673 (5,4%) were foreign citizens, out of which majority, 47,9 % had the citizenship of Bosnia and Herzegovina (2.243), followed by Kosovo, 13,4 % (626) and North Macedonia, 10,3 % (480).[59]

Table 4: Children, foreign citizens in pre-school education, by country of citizenship and school year[60]

	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19
Total	**3637**	**4158**	**4673**
Africa	4	4	6
North America	9	8	8
South America	7	3	2
Asia	60	90	120
Australia and Oceania	2	1	1
Europe	**3295**	**3693**	**4092**
...Bosnia and Herzegovina	1828	2043	2243
...Bulgaria	35	32	40
...Montenegro	24	24	21
...Croatia	81	88	105
...Italy	34	39	56
...Kosovo	522	573	626
...North Macedonia	361	429	480
...Russian Federation	75	89	109
...Serbia	209	251	286
...Ukraine	36	43	52
...other european countries	90	82	74
unknown country	260	359	444

[59] SURS (2019). Demography and social statistics. Education. Preschool education. Children attending kindergartens.
https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatDb/pxweb/en/10_Dem_soc/10_Dem_soc__09_izobrazevanje__03_predsol_vzgoja__01_09525_otroci_vrtci/?tablelist=true

[60] SURS (2019) Children, foreign citizens, in pre-school education by country of citizenship, Slovenia, annually
https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatDb/pxweb/en/10_Dem_soc/10_Dem_soc__09_izobrazevanje__03_predsol_vzgoja__01_09525_otroci_vrtci/?tablelist=true

Out of 186.328 pupils in primary education in the school year 2018/2019, 10.276 (5,5%) had foreign citizenship. 44,3% (4.553) children had the citizenship of Bosnia & Herzegovina, 20% (2.052) that of Kosovo and 11,5 % (1.182) that of North Macedonia.[61]

Table 5: Children, foreign citizens in primary education, by country of citizenship and school year[62]

	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19
Country of citizenship - TOTAL	**8070**	**9014**	**10276**
Africa	12	11	19
North America	50	55	52
South America	13	15	15
Asia	197	238	312
Australia and Oceania	4	3	2
Europe	7780	8667	9816
...Bosnia and Herzegovina	3341	3897	4553
...Bulgaria	83	90	100
...Montenegro	50	45	44
...Croatia	180	193	217
...Italy	107	113	125
...Kosovo	1868	1942	2052
...North Macedonia	1051	1113	1182
...Russian Federation	250	305	376
...Serbia	474	538	664
...Ukraine	160	179	191
...other european countries	216	252	312
unknown country	14	25	60

1.4 Gaps in data, comments, analysis and eventual conclusions that come from the data collection

In Slovenia there is no systematic monitoring of the inclusion of migrants in education which would be the basis for policy planning in this area. According to the existing data, the number of foreign – born children under 15 years of age has been growing in the last 10 years particularly the numbers of children from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo and North Macedonia that are the biggest groups of foreign – born children in Slovenia.

[61] SURS (2019). Demography and social statistics. Education. Basic education. Youth. https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatDb/pxweb/en/10_Dem_soc/10_Dem_soc__09_izobrazevanje__04_osnovnosol_izobraz__01_09527_zac_sol_leta/?tablelist=true

[62] SURS (2019) Children, foreign citizens, in primary education by country of citizenship, Slovenia, annually https://pxweb.stat.si/SiStatDb/pxweb/en/10_Dem_soc/10_Dem_soc__09_izobrazevanje__04_osnovnosol_izobraz__01_09527_zac_sol_leta/?tablelist=true

2. National and legal provisions

2.1 Legal and policy framework

The legal foundations of Slovenian integration policy have been set with the *Resolution on the migration policy of the Republic of Slovenia* in 1999.[63] With this document the government committed to set the legal framework and social measures that, based on a pluralistic (multicultural) model, promote the integration of immigrants into Slovenian society, prevent discrimination and social marginalization and enable immigrants to express and cultivate their own culture and values based on respect for personal integrity and dignity. Currently, the integration of migrants in the Republic of Slovenia is addressed in general migration strategy - *Strategy of Government of RS in the field of migration* (2019) (hereafter General Migration Strategy)[64] and in the strategy, which refers to the education sector exclusively (*Strategy for Integrating Migrant Children, Pupils and Students in the Education System in the Republic of Slovenia*, 2007, hereafter the Strategy).

General integration policy

In Slovenia, the first integration policies were designed for refugees with *Decree on the Rights and Duties of Refugees in the Republic of Slovenia*, which was in force from 2004 to 2009. The projects resulting from this document were mostly implemented by non-governmental organizations and focused primarily on helping to learn the Slovenian language and getting acquainted with the Slovenian society, on teaching aids, assistance with accommodation and provision of funds to cover health care costs and similar.

Until 2009, the Slovenian integration policy was mainly concerned with refugees and individuals, who were granted temporary protection. However, in 2008 the government *Decree on Aliens Integration*, and thus extended the implementation of integration programs to a broader group of migrants. In 2013, the government supplemented the above-mentioned decree with *Decree on ways and scope of providing programs of support for integration of third country nationals*, (hereafter the Decree on Integration) which is still in force today.

In line with Decree on Integration, migrants with permanent and temporary residency permits are entitled to participate in courses on the Slovene language, history, culture and constitution.[65] Third-country nationals who reside in the Republic of Slovenia on the basis of a permanent residence permit, are eligible for a 180-hour Slovenian language course (Article 4), which is initiated at their request (Article 7). Migrants who reside in the Republic

[63] The principles of Resolution were complemented by new *Resolution on the migration policy of the Republic of Slovenia* in 2002, giving emphasis on measures for its implementation in the context of contemporary migration movements and new approaches to the development of a common migration and asylum policy of the European Union.
[64] Integration of migrants represents one of six pillars of the Strategy of Government of RS in the field of migration (2019) (Strategija Vlade RS na področju migracij).
[65] Since September 2012, these programs run as a uniform Initial Integration of Immigrants programs, in which students get to know Slovenian society through learning the Slovenian language.

of Slovenia on the basis of a temporary residence permit, issued with a validity of at least one year are eligible for the Slovenian language or unified learning program in the range of 60 hours. These programs have started implementing in 2009.

Furthermore, the Decree on Integration recognizes the need for interaction between migrants and Slovenian citizens (Article 10), stipulating that the Ministry of Culture have responsibility to provide programs ("intercultural dialogue programs") to promote mutual knowledge and understanding between third-country nationals and Slovenian nationals.[66] The Government of the Republic of Slovenia has funded local NGOs and other civil society organizations and their activities or programs that would contribute to a better integration of migrants into the local environment. Furthermore, General Migration Strategy acknowledges that the communication between migrants and majority population need to be strengthened. For this reason, it highlights the need to implement intercultural centres programs and day-centres in future.

In Article 11, the Decree on Integration defines access to information relevant for successful integration of foreigners. Following this provision, the Ministry of the Interior prepared two brochures with information for foreigners *Entry and Residence in the Republic of Slovenia* and *Learning the Slovenian Language and getting acquainted with Slovenian history, culture and constitutional regulation*, which were provided to administrative units, embassies and consulates, immigrant associations, ministries, social work centres, regional employment services and non-governmental organizations.

Moreover, in 2010, a website with information for foreigners was launched, which contains information on entry and residence in the Republic of Slovenia, education, social and health insurance, language learning programs and knowledge of Slovenian history, culture and constitutional system, organizations and societies implementing integration programs, as well as other useful information in six foreign languages.[67] The government likewise funded a project designed to prepare a dictionary for easier communication between migrants and medical staff. Multilingual Aid for Better Communication in Healthcare, which has been published in eight different languages, aims to facilitate communication between migrants and primary care healthcare personnel.[68] The project included the training of health professionals throughout Slovenia.

In 2012, the Slovenian government established the Council for the Integration of Foreigners, consisting of representatives of various ministries and non-governmental organizations. The Council tasks concern submitting opinions and recommendations to national programs relevant for the integration of aliens and participation in the procedures of drafting laws and other regulations affecting the field of integration of aliens, monitoring the implementation of integration measures, analysing the situation and reporting to the Government of the Republic of Slovenia etc. Since 2015, three elected migrants (together

[66] The providers of intercultural dialogue programs are selected by the competent ministry through a public procurement procedure and shall conclude a program implementation contract with the selected contractor.
[67] www.infotujci.si
[68] http://multilingualhealth.ff.uni-lj.si/

with representatives of ministries, non-governmental organizations and associations of municipalities) were included to represent the migrant community.

In 2013, the Ministry of Culture adopted a *Resolution on the National Programme for Language Policy 2014-2018*, which sought to improve opportunities for learning the Slovenian language for both parents and children, to develop the basic school curriculum for Slovenian as a second language and new learning material. As a follow-up, the Ministry of Culture began preparing the *Resolution on the National Programme for Language Policy 2019-2023* in 2018 (hereafter Resolution for Language Policy).

The most recent governmental strategic policy document that touches upon integration is General Migration Strategy (2019). This paper underlines the importance of a holistic approach and argues that successful integration of migrants requires the cooperation and complementarity of all actors, respectively decision makers in the formulation and implementation of policies and practices. Here, integration is recognized as complex process that involves various fields, public policies and social subsystems such as housing, education, work and employment, social security (including social security), health (health insurance, health care), economy, science and culture. General Migration Strategy also calls for protection against any discrimination based on racial, religious, national ethnic or other grounds.

One of the key goals indicated in the General Migration Strategy concerns ensuring good cooperation with relevant stakeholders in the field of migrant integration. In line with this objective government established the Government Office for the Support and Integration of Migrants, which coordinates the work and tasks of relevant state bodies, non-governmental and international and other organizations in the field of integration of migrants. Finally, as indicated in the General Migration Strategy, government recognizes the need for mobilization of human resources at local authorities level to facilitate social and cultural integration in local communities and calls for examining possibilities of inclusion of migrants in the developing integration policy as well as in the implementation of the integration activities.

Integration policy for education sector

The foundations for the integration of migrant children in school environment in the Republic of Slovenia were laid in 2007 with the *Strategy for Integrating Migrant Children, Pupils and Students in the Education System in the Republic of Slovenia* by Ministry of Education, Science and Sports as the top-level authority. The Ministry is responsible for policy making in education and coordinating related policies at national level. This document concerns migrant students in pre-school, primary, general secondary education and vocational education and training.

Starting from the Strategy, National Education Institute Slovenia, the main national research, development and consultancy institution in the field of pre-school, primary and general secondary education, prepared *Guidelines for the Education of Alien Children in*

Kindergartens and Schools in 2009 (hereafter Guidelines 2009), which contained approaches, adjustments of work and ways of engaging and involving children and their parents to facilitate entering the education system and education. This document was supplemented with the *Guidelines for the Integration of Immigrant Children in Kindergartens and Schools in 2012* (hereafter Guidelines 2012) as well as with the *Code of Intercultural Dialogue for Educators* of *Adults* (Vrečer and Kucler, 2010), designed to equip educators with skills of teaching in multicultural classes.

Migrants' access to education is mentioned in the following national legislation: *Organization and Financing of Education Act*;[69] *Basic School Act*;[70] *General Upper Secondary School Act*;[71] *Vocational Education Act*;[72] *Temporary Protection of Displaced Persons Act*; [73] *Foreigners Act*; [74] *International Protection Act*;[75] *Rules on knowledge assessment and grading and students' progress to a higher class standing in elementary schools*;[76] *Rules on norms and standards for the implementation of educational programs in secondary education.*[77]

According to the legislation, migrant children residing in Slovenia have the right to attend primary school under the same conditions as children of Slovenian citizens. At the upper secondary education level, however only citizens of other EU Member States, Slovenes without Slovenian citizenship and refugees[78] can enroll under the same conditions as Slovenian citizens. Other third-country nationals' right to education rests on the principle of reciprocity (on the basis of international treaties, the Minister of Education determines the number of enrolment places for these students) (MESS, 2017: 5). The *Law on Kindergartens* does not specifically mention children of foreign citizens, but states that pre-school education is conducted on the principle of equal opportunities for children and parents, taking into account the differences between children and the right to choose and to be different (ibid).

The Strategy envisions wide spectrum of principles, which are to be taken into account when planning measures of integration: 1) equal access to education; 2) flexibility of curriculum, autonomy and professional responsibility of the educational staff; 3) respect for the children's culture, multiculturalism and interculturality; 4) ensuring conditions for achieving learning objectives and good standards of knowledge; 5) active learning and offering diverse possibilities of expression; 6) cooperation with parents.

[69] Zakon o organizaciji in financiranju vzgoje in izobraževanja
[70] Zakon o osnovni šoli
[71] Zakon o gimnazijah
[72] Zakon o poklicnem in strokovnem izobraževanju
[73] Zakon o začasni zaščiti razseljenih oseb,
[74] Zakon o tujcih
[75] Zakon o mednarodni zaščiti
[76] Pravilnik o preverjanju in ocenjevanju znanja ter napredovanju učencev v osnovni šoli
[77] Pravilnik o normativih in standardih za izvajanje izobraževalnih programov in vzgojnega programa na področju srednjega šolstva.
[78] Children with refugee status exercise same rights in education as Slovene citizens, including in eligibility for state scholarships and for accommodation in student homes. Costs related to the recognition and evaluation of education levels and costs related to knowledge evaluation (where a person cannot prove his formal education with documents) is covered by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports.

2.2 Good Practices and initiatives

Based on strategy adopted, the Ministry of Education and Sport funded proposals co-financed by the European Structural Funds through various target-oriented public tenders, which provided funds for various projects implemented by schools, research institutes and universities or other governmental and nongovernmental institutions. The public tenders were:

Integration of migrant children in education 2008-2011[79]

Professional training of staff in education in 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011 [80]

Formal forms of citizenship education in a multicultural society 2010-2011[81]

Projects in the field of social, civic and cultural competences for the period 2009-2012[82]

Preparation of conceptual frameworks for upgrading the education system 2010–2011[83]

Development of teaching materials in the field of Slovene as a second foreign language (2014)[84]

Strengthening social and civic competences of school staff[85] (for the period 2016 - 2021)

The aim of the public tenders was to develop mechanisms that contribute to a more effective integration of immigrant students into the school system as well as in inclusion in the society and labor market. The public tenders have been designed to respond to existing and identified gaps in integration policy in education sector, while at the same time suggesting solutions for raising the quality level in the integration of immigrant children into the education system, advocating for including intercultural education in the Slovenian educational community. The Ministry of Education, Science and Sports together with European Social Fund funded the following project and directly approved operations:

[79] Vključevanje otrok migrantov v vzgojo in izobraževanje 2008-2011
[80] Profesionalno usposabljanje strokovnih delavcev v vzgoji in izobraževanju v letih 2008, 2009, 2010 in 2011
[81] Formalne oblike izobraževanja za državljanstvo v multikulturni družbi 2010–2011
[82] Javni razpis za »izbor projektov s področij socialnih, državljanskih in kulturnih kompetenc za obdobje 2009–2012
[83] Priprava konceptualnih osnov za dograjevanje sistema vzgoje in izobraževanja 2010–2011 (Bela knjiga)
[84] Razvoj učnih gradiv na področju slovenščine kot drugega tujega jezika skozi izvedbo tečajev za različne ciljne skupine in seminarjev za njihove izvajalce. The tender aimed to develop teaching materials and other tools for teaching and learning Slovene as a second/foreign language, and to develop specialized teaching which would contain all levels of complexity and modules for particular target groups. target groups.
[85] Krepitev socialnih in državljanskih kompetenc strokovnih delavcev. The tender aimed to offer training to at least 16,000 professional and managerial staff in the field of pre-school education, elementary education, basic music education, vocational and technical education, secondary general education, education of children and adolescents with special needs, education and student education homes and adult education.

Communication in Foreign Languages 2008–2010[86] (directly approved operation): its aim was to prepare and pilot certain already established models of foreign language teaching and to rise linguistic and intercultural awareness.

Successful integration of children and migrant pupils from primary and secondary school in education for the period 2008-2011[87] (project): its main goal was that children and parents of migrants achieve higher communicative capacity in Slovene language and thus greater opportunities for successful education in Slovenian schools and better social inclusion. During the project, textbooks, workbooks, manuals and organised pilot courses for migrant children and their parents were prepared.

Interculturalism as a new form of coexistence[88] (project): the project took place in 65 Slovenian schools from 2013 to 2015. It aimed to strengthen the supportive environment for the development of values of interculturalism and to provide adequate information and skills of professionals to support successful integration of immigrant children from other linguistic and cultural backgrounds into the Slovenian educational system.

The Challenges of Intercultural Coexistence (ongoing):[89] the project involves direct educational activities with migrant children, their families and training of professionals. The main goal of the project is to contribute to the development of the values of interculturality and to improve the professional competences of managers and professionals in education for more successful integration of migrant children into the Slovenian educational system. The aim of the project is to ensure the proper training of professionals working with migrant children, as well as training of professional workers – multipliers - for working with them.

"Only (with) others are we" (ongoing): the project implements five different 16-hour professional trainings: 1) Living the Diversity: Immigrant Inclusion and Slovene Language; 2) Zero tolerance for violence: Challenges and Issues; 3) Respectful communication and Conflict Management; 4) The Challenges of modern Society in Education; 5) Intercultural Relations and Integration in Education Practice. Its aim is to train 10,000 professional and managerial workers, educators (in kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and dormitories) in the field of social and civic competences.

2.3 Existing policies/initiatives and the EU framework

[86] Sporazumevanje v tujih jezikih 2008–2010. See https://www.zrss.si/projektiess/opis/opis_projekta_Tuj_jezik_v_1triletju.pdf
[87] Uspešno vključevanje otrok, učencev in dijakov migrantov v vzgojo in izobraževanje za obdobje 2008-2011 https://centerslo.si/za-otroke/projekti/migranti/
[88] Razvijamo medkulturnost kot novo obliko sobivanja. See http://uvop.medkulturnost.si/en/about-the-project/.
[89] Soočanje z izzivi medkulturnega sobivanja. The project is financed by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport and the European cohesion policy for the period 2014-2020. See http://isainstitut.si/isa/portfolio/the-challenges-of-intercultural-coexistence/?lang=en

Education of migrant children in Slovenia is directly or indirectly referred to EU legislation.

Council Directive of 25 July 1977 on the education of the children of migrant workers (77/486 / EEC)

Council Directive 2001/55/EC of 20 July 2001 on minimum standards for giving temporary protection in the event of a mass influx of displaced persons and on measures promoting a balance of efforts between Member States in receiving such persons and bearing the consequences thereof

Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin

Council Directive 2003/109/EC of 25 November 2003 concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents

Council Directive 2003/86/EC of 22 September 2003 on the right to family reunification

Council Directive 2004/83/EC of 29 April 2004 on minimum standards for the qualification and status of third country nationals or stateless persons as refugees or as persons who otherwise need international protection and the content of the protection granted

These documents highlight the right of children to free education, which includes, in particular, adjusted teaching of the official language of the host country, emphasis on promoting the learning of the mother tongue and culture of the country of origin, and equal access to the educational system. Directive 2000/43 /EC, establishes guidelines for combating discrimination on grounds of race or ethnic origin in various fields, including in education, whereas directive 2003/109/ EC and Directive 2003/86/EC grant migrants the equal right of access to education.

2.4 Main concepts used

The Strategy and Guidelines 2012 refer to different groups of migrants, including, a) migrants who have obtained Slovenian citizenship (foreign born or second-generation), b) migrants with a permanent or temporary residence permit, c) asylum seekers and persons with refugee status, d) nationals of Member States of the European Union and e) children of Slovenian emigrants (with or without Slovenian citizenship). Migrant children are defined in the broadest sense to include all children whose mother tongue is not Slovene as well as descendants of Slovenian emigrants.

The Strategy recognizes three main reasons that pose challenges for migrant children integration in schools and wider social environment. Firstly, the strategy mentions insufficient knowledge of the Slovene language; secondly, it points to the lack of

comprehensive strategies and instruments for integration of migrant children into the education system and; third, it emphasizes insufficient involvement of children and their parents in the school and wider Slovenian environment. Ensuing this, the Strategy identified the following deficiencies related to integration of migrant children in school environment, which require further action:

Inadequate legislation: the strategy observed that legislation does not allow for effective planning of migrant integration processes in the Slovenian education system and does not provide a legal basis for strategic funding, which would support efficient mechanisms that enable migrant children integration.

Undeveloped strategies and instruments: the strategy stated that education system suffers from: 1) unclearly distributed support mechanisms for migrant children and lack of systemic arrangements, 2) deficiencies in education and training of professional staff in educational institutions; 3) undefined normative framework for adjustments of school programs (goals, standards of knowledge) and level of knowledge assessment (how evaluate the progress of children in Slovene and other subjects); 4) incomplete strategies for the work of educational and teaching staff with migrant children and; 5) lack of methodical and didactic skills to work with this target group.

Gaps in cooperation with migrant parents: the strategy identified lack of recommendations, guidelines for working with migrant parents. It stressed the need for teachers to learn basic elements of migrants' language and culture and to gain skills of intercultural communication in order to avoid possible misunderstandings or facilitate contact with parents and encourage them to participate in school. It also underscored lack of adequate financial support to assist in communicating with migrant parents (lack of financial resources for the translator, preparation of bilingual invitations, instructions, messages...).

Migrants' lack of Slovenian language skills: the strategy referred to low number of hours devoted to teaching Slovene as a second language, lack of teaching materials for teaching Slovenian as second and foreign language, lack of professional skills of teachers teaching Slovene as second language, lack of training of teachers to acquire methodological-didactic knowledge for teaching Slovenian as a second language, lack of training for kindergarten professionals to work with migrant pre-schoolers, in general lack of knowledge and communication skills of teachers assist migrant children in following their subject.

Inadequate support given to migrant language and culture: strategy acknowledged unequal position in comparison to the language and culture of the Slovenian environment. There is still lack of comprehensive strategy for integrating migrant children into the Slovenian cultural environment, while respecting and preserving their language and culture origin. Evident are ignorance or teachers' lack of interest in learning about the key elements of the language and culture of the environment from

which the migrants come as well as insufficient knowledge of appropriate ways of promoting intercultural communication between children in a group, class.

The Strategy and Guidelines both approach the question of migrant integration through the lens of education and language knowledge. Education and other related educational and socialization activities are conceptualized as a vehicle for facilitating migrant integration in the new environment, while the educational process is seen as way of acquiring knowledge, skills and interconnections they need to integrate in social and economic view. Furthermore, language knowledge is understood as precondition for developing communication skills as well as for developing social capacity and for developing cognitive ability (broadening the child's conceptual world). In this sense, Strategy and Guidelines as well as Resolution for Language Policy see language knowledge as paramount for enabling migrant inclusion into society and offers them equality of opportunity for personal development, employment, access to information and so on comparable to that which the majority population enjoys. The Guidelines and Strategy, however, highlight holistic and individualized approach to deal with children from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and argue for their inclusion in the preparation of the individualized teaching programs.

2.5 Goals and instruments

The Strategy and Guidelines generally aim at providing the conditions and opportunities that enable the achievement standards of knowledge defined in the kindergarten and school curriculum. Additionaly, it facilitates learning of Slovene language to the extent that it guarantees successful integration into the education system. More specifically, as a way to achieving good conditions and equal opportunities from migrant children in school system the Strategy proposed eight main measures, including:

Development of appropriate normative acts that will enable successful integration of migrant children into the Slovenian educational system, as well as drafting a policy on the integration of migrant children in the education system.

Determining the scope, forms and methods of adapting the implementation of the curriculum for faster and quality inclusion of migrant children in the education process.

Developing strategies for cooperating with migrant parents and their integration into school life

Promoting intercultural education and positive attitudes towards understanding and accepting diversity in kindergarten and schools.

Determination and regulation of Slovenian as a second language and foreign language as an essential element in the integration of migrant children.

Concern for high-quality language teaching for migrant children.

Concern for high -quality education and training of professionals.

Preparation of annual action plans of relevant institutions.

Guidelines, on the other hand, list a variety of practical and concrete measures which can be used in preschool, primary and secondary school, concerning inclusion of migrant children into educational system and school environment, ways of adjusting of educational processes for migrant children, teaching Slovene as second and foreign language, teaching migrants' mother tongue, developing multicultural education and multicultural skills, cooperation with parents, educating school staff and developing teaching materials and so on.

In addition, Resolution for Language Policy called for:

revision of norms and standards in terms of introducing introductory intensive Slovenian courses for immigrant children;

creating a syllabus for Slovene as a second language in primary school based on the defined scope and form of learning Slovene as a second/foreign language;

production of relevant e-materials (including manuals such as grammar and dictionaries) for learning for a wide variety of target audiences;

professional support in the development of new courses of Slovene as a second and foreign language in Slovenia and abroad and:

providing legal, financial and organizational conditions for maintaining and developing a network of Slovene language lectures at foreign universities.

Moreover, the Resolution for Language Policy highlighted the importance of informing principals and teachers of national language policy in the field of Slovene as a second/ foreign language, systematic training of educators and teachers for teaching students whose first language is not Slovene and who are included in the Slovenian education system (teachers of Slovene and other subjects) and non-literate foreign speakers in Slovenian. Attention has been put on training Slovene teachers and teachers to teach in bilingual and multilingual setting.

Slovenian educational system builds on recommendation that migrant students should follow all subjects of mainstream education (Eurydice, 2018: 16). All newly arrived migrants are placed in the standard classes for all lessons at both, primary and (upper) secondary level of education. Once enrolled in schools, the Guidelines suggest that individual program is designed for each migrant student including activities and objectives concerning each particular subject and modification and adjustment of knowledge assessment, additional teaching support, etc. The Guidelines in this view highlight the importance of assessing level of migrant existing students' skills and knowledge before enrolment as well as of gaining basic information about the education system in their country of origin.

The Slovenian legal framework concerning integration of migrant children in schools mainly concern the Slovene language learning. Article 8 of the Basic School Act states that form migrant children who reside in the Republic of Slovenia and whose mother tongue is not the Slovene language, Slovene language and culture lessons are organized upon their enrolment in elementary school, while the teaching of their mother tongue and culture is organized in cooperation with the countries of origin.

In September 2019, amendments were made to *the Rules on norms and standards for the implementation of the primary school programme*. These stipulate that migrant students .enrolling in primary school during the first assessment period, are entitled to Slovene language course according to the following criteria: 120 teaching hours for group with up to 4 students; 160 teaching hours for groups with 5 to 8 students and 180 teaching hours for group with 9 to 17 students (Article 43.c). The provisions also state that migrant students enrolling in primary school in the second assessment period are entitled to additional 35 hours of Slovene in the current school year. These students may also be included in the group in the next school year, based on the criteria set out in the previous paragraph.

The latest amendments to secondary school laws in 2018 (Vocational Education Act and General Upper Secondary School Act) likewise defined the possibility of Slovenian language courses for students whose mother tongue is not Slovenian or who have not completed primary education in Slovenia. Similarly, as in primary school, Rules on Slovenian language courses for secondary school students, adopted in 2018, specify that in a group of 4 to 6 students, schools provide 120 hours course, while in a group from 7 to 12 students schools provide 160 hours course. If students do not accomplish the required A2 level, they take additional 70-hour Slovene course. In the first school year of enrolment, these students (except for those who are in the final year) will be exempted from receiving a grade for the subject Slovene language.

For asylum seekers and refugee children, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport recommends a two-stage model of inclusion of migrant children educational environment General Migration Strategy (2019: 40).[90] The model, which for now exists at the level of recommendations only, outlines the various activities for immigrant children and their parents and involves preparatory course and follow-up course. It includes preparatory course before migrant children enrol in regular classes and consists of 20 language-teaching hours and, after children are enrolled in regular classes, additional professional help in learning Slovenian (a follow-up course). The Ministry of Education, Education and Sports has committed to prepare legal basis for the initial Slovene learning and an individual plan for primary school level.

More details on support measures for migrant student in school system can be found in policy framework concerning adjustments for migrant children in *Rules on knowledge*

[90] This model was developed based on the results of the projects Integration of Migrant Children in Education 2008-2011; and Developing interculturalism as a new form of coexistence 2013-2015 co-funded by the European Social Fund.

assessment and grading and students' progress to a higher class standing in elementary schools. This document states that the methods and deadlines for assessing knowledge, the number of grades, etc., for migrant student can be adjusted in agreement with the parents and teachers during the school year, while the extent of adjustments is decided by the teachers' assembly. The adjustments can be applied for a maximum of two school years after being enrolled in a primary school in the Republic of Slovenia (Article 15. Migrant student may be exempted from assessment in some subjects in the year in which he or she is first enrolled in an elementary school and still progress to the next class upon teachers' assembly decision (Article 28).

Concerning support in teaching of mother tongue and culture for Immigrant Students, the Ministry of Interior reports that Albanian, Bosnian, Finnish, Croatian, Macedonian, German, Dutch, Serbian, Russian and Ukrainian have been taught in some elementary schools for immigrant students. As described in Eurydice report (2018: 13), mother tongue teachers have different profiles in terms of qualifications and origins: for some come from abroad or are first- or second-generation migrants educated and trained in Europe. Finally, in Slovenia, intercultural education is taught through specific subjects; citizenship education (ibid: 20).

2.6 Implementation and child centred approach

The Aliens Act stipulates that the organization of Initial Integration Programs (Slovenian language and society courses) and information for non-EU nationals falls under responsibility of Ministry of the Interior, while Ministry of Education, Science and Sports is responsible for preparing these programs. The Ministry of the Interior, in cooperation with the Ministry of Culture, provides programs of intercultural dialogues. The administrative procedures relating to integration of foreigners are dealt with at local administrative units.

In the educational sector, the framework of the integration policy i.e. identification of main problems, instruments, goals, approaches and possible improvements, is set at the level of Ministry of Education Science and Sports within its specialized units or in cooperation with National Education Institute Slovenia. The latter is the main national research, development and consultancy institution in the field of pre-school, primary and general secondary education, mainly financed directly through the Ministry funds. Its main aims, tasks and mission are to prepare expert documents, set up system conditions, develop quality education, encourage and support professional development, monitor and evaluate novelties, develop good school practice together with kindergartens and schools, etc.

Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, as top-level body, coordinates related policies at national level. Their mandate is to facilitate the social integration of people from migrant backgrounds. In doing this, Ministry cooperates with other governmental bodies and public institutions. National Education Institute Slovenia was involved in developing the Strategy as well as the Guidelines for integration of migrant children in school environment. Local authorities or schools can apply for funding from top-level authorities according to their

needs. In Slovenia, applying for extra funds is the only method by which funding can be obtained for supporting the integration of migrant students (Eurydice, 2018: 62).

Slovenian integration policy for migrant mainly deal with questions concerning normative framework as a precondition for successful migrant integration, quality of education, flexibility of curricula, cooperation with parents and local community, teaching Slovene as second and foreign language, teaching migrant's mother languages school staff, skills of educational staff, multiculturalism and interculturality. Given this, we recognize that migrant children and their well-being is not directly addressed in the strategic documents. Likewise, the issue of their physical and mental health is completely missing from these documents.

Nevertheless, the strategy gives some space to development of child-centric approach that it advises teachers to form individual plan of activities for each migrant, describing the objectives defined by concrete deadlines, adjustments in relation to individual subjects, measures to compensate for differences in knowledge, etc. Moreover, teachers are directed to use tailored methods of assessing knowledge to the fullest extent, taking into account migrants level of communication skills, where lack of language knowledge should not affect the grade of knowledge of the subject. In this manner, the strategy also calls for development of appropriate normative acts that will enable successful integration of migrant children and should specify:

appropriate criteria and methods for assessing the knowledge of migrant children;

preparation of an individual program for each immigrant child; (involving active participation of migrant child, his or her parents, a kindergarten teacher or a schoolteacher, a headmaster, a counselling service)

preparation of the child's portfolio;

adapting working methods, teaching strategies and preparing a work program for migrant children

flexibility of the teaching plans (the initial phase might require more hours of learning Slovenian than other subjects)

education and training of professionals to work with migrant children,

Finally, in view of pursuing child-centred approach, it must be mentioned that the Strategy, however briefly alludes to best interest of a child as the main guide in all activities related to children; calls for children to be treated as children, while their immigration status should be of secondary importance. It stresses the right to participate, with the opinions and wishes of children should be identified and taken into account whenever decisions affecting them are taken. Itdefends durable solutions, directing that all decisions regarding migrant children must be made at an appropriate time, taking into account the child's perception of time; and underscores the dimension of sustainability, meaning that decisions regarding

migrant children should take utmost account of the long-term benefits and well-being of the child.

3. Conclusions

The analysis of institutional settings of migrant integration policy in previous sections have shown that the need for addressing challenges related to ethnic and cultural diversification of Slovenian society has been clearly recognized. Republic of Slovenia and its relevant ministries have been among the first in European Union to develop integration Strategy for integration of migrants in education environment (Eurydice, 2018). The documents noticeably build on comprehensive approach to inclusion of migrant children in schools and set goals, which stem from the gaps identified in the field and, more importantly, address (almost) all relevant elements and actors, i.e. teachers, policy-makers, migrants parents, local and national community, language support, schools curricula,

Progress has been seen in most fields, identifies as deficient in the Strategy in 2007, including at the level of legislation, strategies and instruments, improvement of language learning support, developing social and civic competences of school staff, development of teaching materials in the field of Slovene as a second foreign language and so on. Gaps are still very much present when talking about teachers' cooperation with migrant parents, where no progress on the level of policy has been identified. More attention should also be devoted to defining appropriate and effective, action-oriented ways of promoting intercultural communication between children in a peer-group. Likewise, we notice not enough attention and work has been devoted to support given to teaching migrant language and culture for a comprehensive strategy and normative framework for respecting and preserving migrants' language and culture origin is still missing.

Despite all positive developments on paper, systemic normative framework is still needed, especially in view that the exiting integration policy framework allows big differences between schools. For this reason, integration challenges are mostly left to the individual schools and teachers to self-initiatively organize the school system for welcoming, inclusion and integration of migrant children.

There are also differences among primary and secondary level. While protocols of dealing with inclusion and integration of migrant children and other actions dealing with cultural pluralism in the school environment are mostly implemented in primary schools (children aged between 5 and 14 years old), these approaches are almost completely missing at the level of secondary schools (children between 14 and 18 years old). Educational community in primary schools perceives their role not only as mission of training but also as responsibility for educating about the values and ideals of life in society. In contrast, secondary schools tend to act as provider of knowledge and skills to enter university or labor market, which also manifests in lack of interest in dealing with cultural pluralism of students, multiculturalism, xenophobia etc.

Concerning child-centred approach, we recognize the possibility to integrate it more explicitly in the existing policy framework. The strategy and some normative documents already include main underlying principles of child-centered approach, however these documents do not give enough attention and not elaborate in detail about the positive effects such approach have in terms of integration of migrant children in school environment and in wider society as well. Given that many innovations concerning teaching approaches to migrant integration, teacher's skills and capacities are being introduced through direct training of school staff (implemented within various projects), we recognize the likelihood and possibility to transfer the latest knowledge and research outputs concerning child-centred approaches and migrant children integration to school practice.

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1. Data on migration

1.1 General data on migration

In this chapter, we use data from *Instituto Nacional de Estadística* (Spanish Statistical Office) [INE], *Secretaría de Estado de Migraciones* (Migration Secretary of State) [SEM], *Ministerio de Educación* (Ministry of Education) [MECD] and the Statistical Office of the European Union [Eurostat]. All the data used in this report are published and available on institutional websites.

Concerning INE database, data are available from 2008 onwards. These correspond to a new statistical operation launched in 2013 called *Migration Statistics* (Domingo & Blanes, 2015). According to the INE methodological report, immigration is defined as an "action by which a person establishes his/her habitual residence in a territory for a period that is, or is expected to be at least twelve months, having previously been a usual resident from another different territory" (INE, 2019). For purposes of this report, only data corresponding to foreign immigration will be presented, defined by the INE as the "immigration in which case the migrant's previous habitual residence was in a foreign country" (INE, 2019).

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With reference to SEM institutional website, there is a section concerning "immigration and emigration" connected with different sociological and data analysis. In this website we can find public and autonomous agencies like *Observatorio Permanente de la Inmigración* (Permanent Observatory of Immigration), *Red Europea de Migración* (European Migration Network), *Observatorio Español del Racismo y la Xenofobia* (Spanish Observatory of Racism and Xenophobia). We have also consulted Eurostat institutional website where political information about migration, asylum, residence permits can be found.

All the information concerning education has been extracted from the MECD website. In the section "statistics on education" there is a specific subsection focused on "foreign students", where data are available from 1991-1992 period onward.

1.1.1. Size of the foreign population

What is the size of the foreign population in Spain? Data from INE shows that 6.539.656 of people living in Spain were born outside of Spanish territory, which corresponds to 14,5% of the total resident population. From 2014 to 2019 we observe a growth of 657.887 foreigners residing in the country (table A).

Table A.
Foreign population in Spain from 2014

	2014	%	2015	%	2016	%	2017	%	2018	%	2019	%
Total residents	46.512.199	86.71	46.449.565	86,81	46.440.099	86,73	46.527.039	86,49	46.658.447	86,12	46.934.632	85,42
Total foreigners	6.183.455	13,29	6.125.124	13,19	6.164.737	13,27	6.286.560	13,51	6.476.780	13,88	6.841.342	14,58

Source: INE.
Note: Percentage calculated over the number of total residents.
Data from January 1th of each year.

Which are the main areas? If we consider the variable country of birth for 2019, the most numerous groups are those who have been born in South America (31.23%), European Union (28.3 %) and Africa (15.31 %) (see Table B). From 2014, we can see that the group born in the European Union has decreased in size until 2019. Instead, South America and Central America groups have increased. Meanwhile, Africa, Asia and the Rest of Europe groups maintain their proportion (table B).

Table B.
Resident population in Spain from 2014 considering birth countries

	2014	%	2015	%	2016	%	2017	%	2018	%	2019	%
Total Residents	46.512.199		46.449.565		46.440.099		46.527.039		46.658.447		46.934.632	
Total foreigners	6.183.455	13,29	6.125.124	13,19	6.164.737	13,27	6.286.560	13,51	6.476.780	13,88	6.841.342	14,58
South America	1.830.843	29,61	1.798.192	29,36	1.806.220	29,3	1.865.106	29,67	1.968.448	30,39	2.136.644	31,23
EU (excluding Spain)	2.027.532	32,79	1.981.218	32,35	1.956.465	31,74	1.943.345	30,91	1.925.421	29,73	1.940.321	28,36
Africa	987.674	15,97	972.835	15,88	972.249	15,77	979.306	15,58	996.516	15,39	1.047.476	15,31
Central America and Caribbean	366.338	5,92	379.107	6,19	396.249	6,43	420.900	6,7	459.112	7,09	514.410	7,52
Asia	355.693	5,75	357.413	5,84	366.138	5,94	379.731	6,04	397.462	6,14	424.500	6,2
Rest of Europe	287.964	4,66	296.820	4,85	310.148	5,03	320.125	5,09	329.454	5,09	344.823	5,04
North America	94.796	1,53	97.827	1,6	102.659	1,67	107.323	1,71	113.249	1,75	121.731	1,78
Others from Asia	56.492	0,91	60.212	0,98	64.627	1,05	70.229	1,12	76.375	1,18	84.120	1,23
Others from Africa	51.610	0,83	53.061	0,87	55.319	0,9	57.615	0,92	59.035	0,91	61.750	0,9
Others from EU (excluding Spain)	49.820	0,81	50.372	0,82	51.866	0,84	53.432	0,85	54.304	0,84	56.568	0,83
Others from the rest of Europe	39.133	0,63	40.559	0,66	42.440	0,69	45.113	0,72	47.999	0,74	52.572	0,77
Others from Central America and the Caribbean	27.767	0,45	29.375	0,48	31.785	0,52	35.278	0,56	39.850	0,62	46.274	0,68
Oceanía	7.467	0,12	7.796	0,13	8.214	0,13	8.686	0,14	9.170	0,14	9.751	0,14
Others from South America	326	0,01	337	0,01	358	0,01	371	0,01	385	0,01	402	0,01

Source: INE
Note: Percentage calculated on total foreigners.
Data from January 1th of each year.

1.1.2. Foreign-born population with residence status

The statistics in SEM database register 5.424.781 foreigners who have a certificate or residence card in force for the year 2018 (last data available) . In terms of residence status, Spanish legislation contemplates two regimes. The one that affects citizens or family members of the European Union (EU), known as the European Union Free Movement Regime, and the General Regime, applied to those who come from foreign countries or have the nationality from a country outside the EU.

Table C.

Foreigners with registration certificate or residence card under the Free Movement regime EU in 2018

Residence status	Number	Percentage over UE foreigners	Percentage over total population
Residence	2.335.316	71,31	5,00
Permanent Residence	939.538	28,68	2,01
Total foreigners UE	3.274.854	100	7,01

Source: Secretaría de Estado de Migraciones

Table C and D show the data classified according to nationality and residence card. In table C, it is observed that the total number of EU foreign nationals, with nationality of a country attached to the EU Free Movement Regime, is equivalent to 7% of the Spanish population in 2018, out of 46,658,447 residents according to INE. Table D shows that the total number of non-EU foreigners, with nationality of a country attached to the General Regime, is 4,6% of the total number of residents in Spain.

Table C and D also provide us with information on the residence status of foreigners who take advantage of the EU Regime and the general Regime that affects those who do not belong to countries of the European Union. In the case of the EU Regime, 28.68% have permanent residence and 71.31% have other type of residence (Table C). In the case of foreigners in the General Regime (Table D), 83.9% had long-term residence and 16.9% temporary residence.

Table D.
Foreigners with registration certificate or residence card in force to General Regime to 2018

Residence status	Number	Percentage over non-UE foreigners	Percentage over total population
Temporary	345.997	16,09	0,74
Long term	1.803.930	83,9	3,86
Total non-EU foreigners	2.149.927	100	4,60

Source: Secretaría de Estado de Migraciones

According to Eurostat data, about asylum applications in Spain, there has been sustained growth over the last 5 years. In 2018, 54.050 asylum applications were received (Table F). Meanwhile, in July 2019 there were 65.290 applications registered.

Table F.
Asylum applicants in Spain

	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019*
Asylum seekers	14.780	15.760	33.950	54.050	65.290

Source: Eurostat
Note: *2019 data updated to July

1.2 Young population in Spain

Focusing on data related to young population ages 0 to 15 years, statistics from the INE's Continuous Register refer to a decrease from 2014 to 2017 (table G). A change of trend is observed in 2018, when the number of foreign children increases to 733.883 (last data available). In 2018, the population of foreign children living in Spain corresponds to 9.92% in relation to the total of the group aged 0 to 15 years old.

Table G.
Foreign and Spanish population from 0 to 15 years old

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Spanish	6.675.394	6.712.906	6.718.565	6.704.174	6.658.981
%	89,31	89,98	90,26	90,4	90,07
Foreigners	798.601	747.463	724.632	711.907	733.883
%	10,68	10,01	9,73	9,59	9,92

Source: Padrón Continuo database, INE.
Note: percentages may not add up to 100 percent as they have been truncated to two figures.

Concerning gender (Table H), the number of males is higher than the female's and this proportion is maintained from 2014 until 2018 (last data available). In the data for 2018, foreign children represent 51,49 % of the group and girls 48,5 %.

Table H.
Foreign population ages 0 to 15 by gender

	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Foreigners girls	387.185	362.318	351.168	344.756	355.963
%	48,48	48,47	48,46	48,42	48,5
Foreigners boys	411.416	385.145	373.464	367.151	377.920
%	51,51	51,52	51,53	51,57	51,49

Source: Padrón Continuo database, INE.
Note: percentages may not add up to 100 percent as they have been truncated to two figures.

Number of residences autorisations for young people from 0 to 15 years old was 111.080 in 2017 according to SEM data in Table I. Since 2014, there has been an increase of accepted solicitations, especially in 2016 and 2017. The most numerous groups come from Africa, European Union, Central and South America and Asia.

Table I.
Residence autorisations for children and young people from 0-15 years old

	2014	2015	2016	2017
Total population	46.512.199	46.449.565	46.440.099	46.527.039
Total foreigners	6.183.455	6.125.124	6.164.737	6.286.560
Total ages 0 to 15	58.256	61.589	109.646	111.080
Africa	19.391	20.850	36.276	36.195
EU	13.124	14.301	29.244	31.905
Central and South America	13.922	12.944	20.006	18.654
Asia	8.195	9.360	16.482	16.221
Rest of Europe	2.668	3.111	5.504	5.892
North America	702	746	1.557	1.619
EFTA	103	106	247	277
No reported	110	133	237	193
Oceania	41	38	93	124
Others Asia	36	18	43	65
Others Africa	32	27	45	50
Others Central and South America	6	10	18	18
Others rest of Europe	0	1	2	4
Others Oceania	0	0	1	1

Source: INE and Secretaría de Estado de Migraciones.

1.3 In the field of education

The presence of foreign students in spanish education system began to be significant in 2001 (Padilla, 2007). The highest population was in the 2011-2012 academic year, with 781.236 students. We observe from the data in table J that in the last two school years there has been an increase in the number of foreign students in non-university education. This trend could continue in the coming years.

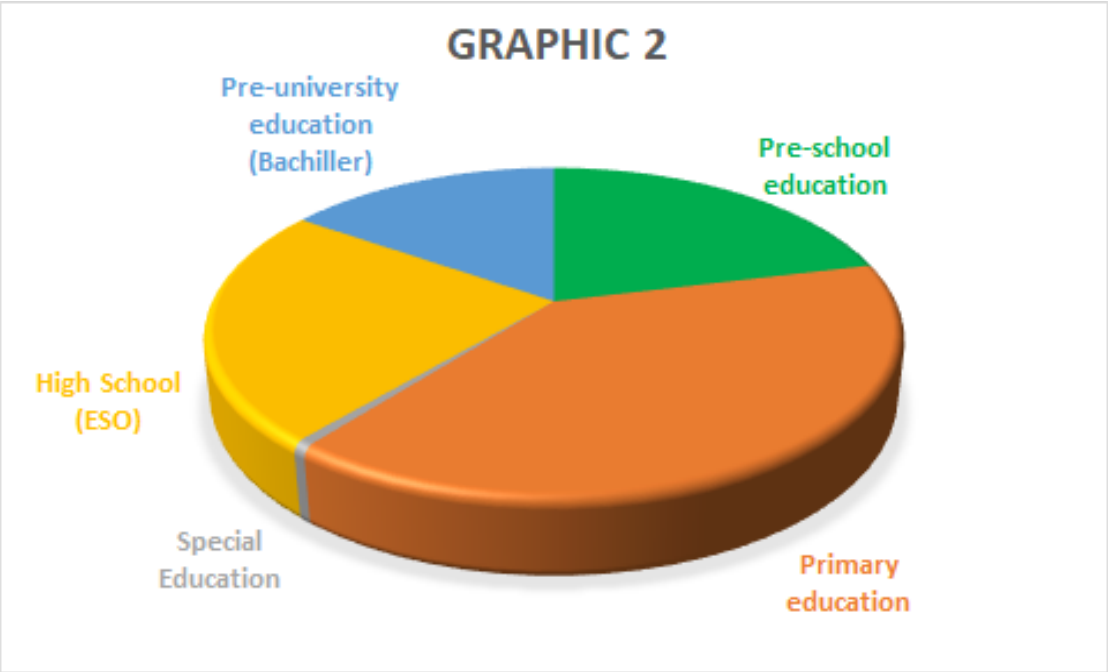
Table J.
Number of foreign students in non-university education

2014-2015	2015-2016	2016-2017	2017-2018
724.635	716.736	721.609	749.996

Source: Data from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.

During 2017-2018 school year, a total of 749.996 foreign students has been enrolled in non-university education. Among these, 20,26% attend pre-school education, 37.72% primary education, 22.35% high school, 0.55% special education and 14.69% pre-university, secondary advanced and Vocational Formation (Formación Profesional). We can appreciate this information in Figure 1.

Figure 1.
Distribution of migrant students by educational level



Source: Own elaboration with data from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.

Table K shows that foreign students are distributed at all levels of the education system. However, their participation is significantly reduced at the advanced secondary level and at the vocational training level.

Table K.
Number of foreign students in non-university education according to educational stages (2017-2018)

Pre-school education (ages 3 to 5)	Primary education (ages 5 to 12)	Special Education (ages 3 to 18)	Secondary Education (ages 12 to 16)	Secondary advance (16 to 18)	Vocational training (16 to 18)
152.014	282.926	4.187	167.676	43.675	66.538

Source: Data from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.

In Spain, the Autonomous Communities with the highest rate of foreign students are Cataluña, Comunidad de Madrid, Comunidad de Valencia, Andalucía and Murcia, making together about 73% of all foreign students in Spain (see Table L).

Table L.
Number of foreign students in non-university education divided by Autonomous Communities (2017-2018)

Cataluña	Comunidad de Madrid	Comunidad Valenciana	Andalucía	Región de Murcia	País Vasco	Canarias	Islas Baleares	Castilla La Mancha	Castilla y León
183.775	136.991	96.390	87.994	35.775	29.825	28.741	26.926	24.645	23.007

Source:Data from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
Note: Only the first ten autonomous communities.

The main percentage of foreign students come from other European countries, followed by North Africa, South America, Asia and Central America (Table M). If we focus the data by countries (Table N), Morocco stands out remarkably, followed by Romania, China, Ecuador, Colombia, Italy and the United Kingdom. Specifically, Moroccan students represent the 24 per cent.

Table M.
Number of foreign students in non-university education according to continental areas (2017-2018)

UE	Norte África	América del Sur	Asia	América Central	Resto EU	Resto África	América del Norte	No consta país	Oceanía
219.336	193.583	139.069	78.882	38.499	36.285	35.013	8.029	877	423

Source: Prepared by the author with data from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.

Table N.
Number of foreign students in non-university education by nationality (2017-2018)

Morocco	Romania	China	Ecuador	Colombia	Italy	UK
180.698	105.472	41.300	28.431	22.204	21.398	17.352

Source: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
Note: We show only seven main countries.

Finally, if we observe the analysis of foreign students according to the type of educational center (public, associated or private), the data show a greater concentration of migrant students in public centers (79.43%), compared to charter schools (14.10%) and private centers (6.45%) (Table O)..

Table O.
Foreign students in non-university education by types of center (2017-2018)

Public centres	Charters schools	Private centres
595.789	105.790	48.417
79,43%	14,10%	6,45%

Source: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.

It is also interesting to observe the distribution of the different nationalities depending on the type of centre. While in public schools the highest number of foreign students comes from North Africa, in private schools, most of them come from the European Union (Table P).

Table P.
Number of foreign students in non-university education by types of center and geographical area of nationality (2017-2018)

Public centres	Charter schools	Private centres
North of Africa (176.748)	South America (28.415)	European Union (25.676)
European Union (169.208)	European Union (24.452)	Asia (5.645)
South America (105.212)	Asia (19.238)	South America (5.442)

Source: Ministry of Vocational Training.

1.4 Conclusions

The exposed data show a diversity in countries of origin and nationalities of the migrants in Spain. South America, Europe, Africa, Central America-Caribbean and Asia are the main areas of origin. This situation also implies a great linguistic, cultural and religious diversity among the migrant population itself.

The data analysed in this chapter shows an increase of arrivals in all categories of migrants, immigrant students, asylum seekers, refugees and unaccompanied foreign minors in the last years. The most recent data indicate that this trend will continue (Mahía, 2018).

Concerning the population from 0 to 15 years old, the analysed databases show a growth in the year 2018, although this population has a smaller size compared with previous years. In the Spanish educational system, we also observed a diversity in countries of origin of the enrolled students. However, this diversity is already known and has remained constant in recent years. It is important to note that at higher levels of the education system the participation of migrants is lower, which may be an indicator of an underlying problem. Finally, in the case of Spain, data show that the highest percentages of foreign students are

enrolled in public schools and to a much lesser extent in the private system, including charter-like schools).

Observing the data from accepted asylum requests and approved residence cards compared to the numerous petitions presented, we consider necessary to investigate the conditions, situations and difficulties that directly affect migrant children and young people in the asylum claim procedures.

Statistical and quantitative displays can't give an account of the whole complexity of the social changes involved by incoming migrant communities. Data from foreign unaccompanied minors such as administrative situations, schooling, interment in shelters, minor centres or detention centres, or deportations are not registered by centralized institutional sources. Some problems require specific and contextualized actions. We need not only to highlight the quantitative dimension, but also, and above all, the qualitative, educational and human dimensions.

The revised databases present some gaps in public data regarding migrant children, especially concerning microdata about first-generation, second-generation and unaccompanied migrant children. These data are likely to be found at the level of educational institutions or in other institutions. In this sense, weighing a centralized statistical model that allows to gather and know more details of the group of 0 to 15 years old, schooled or not, would be fundamental to support public policies on migrant children and facilitate further research.

2. National and Legal Provisions

In this chapter, we examine the Spanish legislative framework that affects the integration of immigrant populations and, more specifically, of immigrant children in the education field. The analysis is based on a review of legal literature and policy documents and recent scholarly publications which address this issue.

In the first section, we describe the particularities of the Spanish legal framework and the main documents in this area, especially the Integral Plans for Immigration (Planes Integrales para la Inmigración) that are being implemented in the different Autonomous Communities. We also review the legal system related to unaccompanied minors and the policies and regulations addressing education of migrant children.

In the second part, a series of good practices and initiatives related to the integration of immigrant children in the school system is presented. We also describe the relationship between Spanish regulations for integration and European policies and guidelines, and the main concepts used in the legislative framework, both in integration and education policies.

To continue, we analyze one of the most recent policy documents at national level, known

as "II Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration 2011-2014", describing its main goals, instruments and measures.

Lastly, we present how the child-centered approach is being realised within the Spanish and the European context, determining the extent of its implementation, and in which manner.

The chapter ends with some conclusions of the analysis and reflections from a critical point of view.

2.1 Legal and policy framework

We start by describing the main legal framework of immigration in Spain, focusing on integration and education policies related to immigrant children and young people.

The main law regulating immigration policy in Spain is the Organic Law 4/2000 of 11 January which contemplates the rights and freedoms of foreigners and their social integration. This legislation has been modified by a group of subsequent laws[92], driven by the "evolution of migratory flows in recent years, as well as the economic and social reality of the country" (Comunidad de Madrid 2018: 14).

The Spanish legal and political framework is defined by a distribution of responsibilities and authority in the area of integration in various public institutions. It is marked by collaboration and articulation between the General State Administration, Autonomous Communities and City Councils (Fernández-Suárez 2015). As reported by Fernández-Suárez (2015), the current law on foreigners states that public authorities must promote the full integration of foreigners in Spanish society. Moreover, Public Administrations must incorporate integration as an objective to be achieved between immigrants and the receiving society. This goal should be universally applied to all public policies and services, promoting economic, social, cultural and political participation. This regulation states that "the General State Administration, the Autonomous Communities and the City Councils will collaborate and coordinate their actions in this area taking as reference their respective integration plans" (Fernández-Suárez 2015: 46).

2.1.1. Integration policies and legal framework of immigrant children

It is important to emphasise that the Spanish case uses a decentralized model, meaning that the State regulates exclusively the "nationality, immigration, emigration, resident status, right of asylum" (Constitución Española -Spanish Constitution- 1978: Art. 149.1.2ª).

[92] This law has been modified by LO 8/2000, of 22 December, modified by LO 11/2003, of 29 September, modified by LO 14/2003, of 20 November, modified by LO 2/2009, of 11 December and by Royal Decree 557/2011 of April 20 approving the regulation of Organic Law 4/2000.

The rest of the issues related to integration, such as Health Service, Social Services, Culture and Education are the Autonomous Communities and City Councils responsibility (Fernández-Suárez 2015).

Regarding the policies of children and young immigrants in Spain, there are three main legal frameworks that converge: the international, the state and the autonomous legal framework. The main idea in this legal framework is that their status as minors takes precedence over their status as foreigners. This means that according to the Spanish legislation, all minors have their rights recognised as minors, regardless of their migratory status (APDHA 2019).

At the State level, the Secretariat of State for Migration, through the General Directorate for Integration and Humanitarian Care, promotes the integration of immigrant population through different top-level policies such as the "Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration". The most recent plan covers 2011-2014, but it is being updated.

Within the Autonomous Communities, it is the Social Policy Department that develops the instruments and policies addressing the immigrant population, but there are other areas such as Education or Health Services that also have their own specific strategies. In order to carry out their integration policies, almost all Autonomous Communities have "Integration Plans" or "Management Migrations Plans" updated with variable frequency, biennial or quadrennial (Comunidad de Madrid 2018).

Table 1. List of the most recent integrations plans divided into Autonomous Communities

Autonomous Community	Immigrations and integration plan	Is there any specific section addressed to immigrant children?
Cataluña	Pla de ciutadania i de les migracions 2017-2020	Yes (p.20)
Andalucía	III Plan Integral para la Inmigración en Andalucía Horizonte 2016	Yes (p.88)
Comunidad de Madrid	Plan de Inmigración de la Comunidad de Madrid 2019-2021	Yes (p.39)
Comunitat Valenciana	Plan Director de Integración y Convivencia 2008-2011	Yes (p.31)
Galicia	Estrategia de Inclusión Social de Galicia 2014-2020	Yes (p.92)

Castilla y León	IV Plan Estratégico de Cohesión Social con las personas inmigrantes y la convivencia intercultural en Castilla y León 2018-2021	Yes (p.54)
País Vasco	Plan de actuación en el ámbito de la ciudadanía, interculturalidad e inmigración	Yes (p.43)
Canarias	Plan Canario Inmigración 2002-2004	Yes (p.59 and p.74)
Castilla la Mancha	Plan para la integración social de las personas inmigrantes de la región de Murcia 2006-2009	Yes (p.83)
Aragón	III Plan inclusión y convivencia intercultural en Aragón 2014-2016	Yes (p.63)
Islas Baleares	II Plan integral de atención a las personas inmigradas de las Illes Balears	Yes (p.43)
Extremadura	II Plan para la integración social de inmigrantes en Extremadura 2008-2011	(Document not available on the web)
Principado de Asturias	Plan Autonómico de Inclusión Social	Yes (p.81)
Navarra	Estrategia Navarra para la convivencia	No
Cantabria	No public document was found.	(Document not available on the web)
La Rioja	II Plan Integral de Inmigración de La Rioja 2009-2012	Yes (p.92)

Source: Own elaboration.

In these plans, general strategies and policies for integration are developed. Some contain specific measures in relation to immigrant children, although they are always linked to their role as students and they have an educational focus. Finally, we would like to point out that we have not found any specific integration plan addressing this target group.

2.1.2. Policies regarding unaccompanied foreign minors

In relation to unaccompanied foreign minors, their status as minors prevails over their status as foreigners, so that all minors have their rights recognised as minors, regardless of their migratory status. The Organic Law 1/1996, of 15 January, on the Legal Protection of Minors, the partial modification of the Civil Code, and the Law on Civil Procedure establish that there is a general consensus to prioritize the child's best interests, based on their

wishes, the opinions of those who look after their interests, and various other factors.

In Spain, unaccompanied foreign minors have legal residence and the right to receive Education, Health Care, and basic services and benefits, under the same conditions as Spanish minors. They may have three possible immigration status: (1) beneficiaries of international protection, (2) beneficiaries of residence authorization or (3) beneficiaries of residence and work authorization (in the case of minors over 16 years of age). In the case of unaccompanied foreign minors who have the legal status of special protection, their guardianship, custody or provisional care is attributed to a child protection service (Red Europea de Migración, 2018).

Regarding immigration status, unaccompanied foreign minors are beneficiaries of international protection when they meet the general requirements set forth in Law 12/2009, of October 30, which regulates asylum and protection. In this case, the application is processed as a matter of urgency. Minors acquire residence authorisation when they prove that it is impossible to return to their family or country of origin. However, it is necessary that the child has been under the Child Protection Services for 9 months in order to receive this authorisation (Red Europea de Migración, 2018).

Some researchers consider unaccompanied minors in Spain as "new migratory social actors" (Suárez-Navaz 2006). Furthermore, the sociological categorisation of "minor" is considered by some authors as a field defined by power relations of the transnational social field between Morocco and Spain (Suárez-Navaz & Jiménez-Álvarez 2011). We have not found specifically educational resources or policies for unaccompanied foreign minors in Spain. Foreign minors have the right to attend school - if less than 16 years old is a duty- in the same conditions of the Spanish minors (Ley Orgánica 4/2000, 2000). This point will be developed further below.

2.1.3. Integration policies referring to immigrant children's education

As we specified before, integration policies referring to immigrant children education are considered responsibilities of each region, except for the autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla, which depend directly on the Ministry of Education. Therefore, legislation can vary significantly from an Autonomous Community to another because of the decentralized education system (Rodríguez-Izquierdo 2018, Rodríguez-Izquierdo & Darmody 2017).

In Spain, foreign-born children and young people under the age of 18, regardless of their status or place of origin, have the right to compulsory and post-compulsory education (Ley Orgánica 4/2000 2000: article 9). This right has been guaranteed by different education laws that have been modified over the years[93] (Grau & Fernández, 2016). Educational regulation considers immigrant students as pupils with special education needs (Arroyo y Berzosa 2018). As Grau & Fernández (2016: 145) maintain, "migrant students are seen as one of the

[93] Organic Law, about the General Organization of the Spanish Educational System 1/1990 of 3 October (LOGSE), and continues with the Organic Law about Education 2/2006 of 3 May (LOE) and Organic Law for the Improvement of Educational Quality 8/2013 of 9 December (LOMCE).

groups susceptible to compensatory education".

According to CIDE (2005), in order to respond to the specific educational needs of these students, different measures have been implemented: curriculum adaptation, elaboration of teaching material, flexible grouping, organization of extracurricular activities or specific language classrooms for immigrants. Specifically, these measures can be classified into four main blocks: "reception measures, attention to linguistic and cultural diversity, attention to families, and teacher training" (CES 2019: 176). Within these measures, we underline the following ones:

a) Language support: Newly arrived immigrant children with low skills in the host country language are placed in "specific linguistic classrooms", whose main aim is to promote the acquisition of the language of instruction as quickly as possible in order to join mainstream classes (Arroyo 2010, Rodríguez-Izquierdo and Darmody 2017). This means that students are placed in separate groups for some lessons (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice 2019). In the implementation and due to the decentralization of that policy, we can find huge differences between Autonomous Communities. For instance, in some cases only high school students can be placed in these classrooms. Also the duration of these classes can vary widely, from three months to two years, depending on the zone (Rodríguez-Izquierdo 2018).

The perception of the newly arrived students, the tutors of the linguistic classrooms and the teaching staff, is usually positive (Sánchez and Mayans 2015). However, sometimes the comprehensiveness and inclusivity of this measure has been questioned, and has been labelled as a form of "segregation," with teaching materials that are out of date and an apparent lack of teacher formation, illustrating a disconnect between public discourse and real world practice (Baseiria 2015, Ballestín 2017).

b) Involving families and local communities: Parental involvement in Spanish schools is promoted through different vias such as personal interviews with the teaching staff, parents association (AMPA) and School Board (Consejo Escolar) (González and Dusi 2017). In the case of immigrant families we do not find specific legislative framework to ensure their participation. As a result, it is the responsibility of schools to decide which measures to take. For instance, González and Dusi (2017) show the most common examples like reception plans, translation of different documents, cultural mediators, Spanish lessons for immigrant families, etc. On the other hand, different authors (Alcalde 2009, Grau and Fernández 2016, González and Dusi 2017) show that the involvement of immigrant families depend on how teachers value their cultures of origin. If they appreciate it, their participation is higher.

c) School curricula and teacher professional development: All Autonomous Communities of Spain have promoted teacher's professional development courses related to intercultural education (CIDE 2005). However, the participation is still in the minority (CES 2019). Furthermore, according to CES (2019) literature review, intercultural education has minimal relevance in initial teachers' formation curricula, without a holistic approach and subjects being optional.

Aspects such as "cultural diversity" or "intercultural education" can be found in primary and secondary curricula, but always linked to languages and plurilingualism (Real Decreto 126/2014 2014, Real Decreto 1105/2014 2014). On the one hand, there is no particular mention to "immigrant children". On the other hand, they are considered" students with special educational needs". Thus, there is a section about them, specifying that "to be able to achieve the maximum development of their personal capacities and the objectives and competences of the stage, the appropriate curricular and organisational measures will be established to ensure their adequate progress" (Real Decreto 126/2014 2014: 12).

d) Segregation Issues: according to different studies carried out in Spain (Murillo, Martínez-Garrido and Belavi 2017, Marcos and Ubrich 2016, Síndic de Greuges 2016, Bonal, Zancajo and Scandurra, 2019) during the last years there has been an increase of school segregation. In fact, since 2009 the State Schools Council has been warning about it (Arroyo and Berzosa 2018). According to Grau and Fernández (2016), the Autonomous Communities governments have carried out actions that are intended to contribute to a better distribution of immigrant and local students. Some examples of this kind of actions can be the reservation of school seats for students with special educational needs (this includes immigrant children) and measures to redistribute students through different zones.

For instance, in the specific case of Catalonia, since 2008 the ombudsman alerted of the existence of areas with high level of segregation of foreign pupils. In the city of Barcelona, two out of every three public schools double in foreign-born students to the nearest private school[94] (Rodríguez, Puente, and Oliveres 2019). In order to fight this, during the school year 2018-2019 politicians, educational leaders and unions have signed "The Pact Against Student Segregation" with 189 different actions (Síndic de Greuges 2019; Torres and Mouzo 2019). One of the last measures applied against segregation has been to modify the school admission system in Catalonia and the Balearic Islands. In these Autonomous Communities, if children tried to enrol in the same school that their parents studied, they had a better chance of getting in.This meant that newly arrived students could not have the same opportunities as the local ones.

2.2 Good practices and initiatives

In this section we describe ten initiatives in Spain that have been considered good practices. In order to select these initiatives, we searched for reports, books and articles that identified "good practices" of educational inclusion of immigrant children, from 2000 to 2019. After an identification of more than 50 sources, ten cases were selected, responding to two criteria: (1) to be promoted by different stakeholders (formal education, civic society and administration) and (2) to be implemented in different regions of Spain (Andalucia, Catalonia, Basque Country, Asturias, Castilla y Leon and Valencia).

[94] Private schools include also charter schools.

2.2.1. Initiatives from formal education

The Plan for reception of foreign students was promoted in a primary school of Andalucia in 2003. It was selected as a 'good practice' and awarded with a prize by The Observatory of Childhood in Andalucia (General Direction of Childhood and Families, Junta of Andalucia), who launched a call for good practices in the attention of immigrant minors. The main goal was to promote intercultural education by involving different members of the educational community to achieve social and educational integration of foreign students, to guarantee equal opportunities for all. Their actions were: sensitizing the members of the educational community about multiculturalism, promoting the value of respect and coexistence, making a linguistic adaptation for students who did not speak Spanish, helping them build their identity, establishing the principle of difference as enriching, favouring the participation of students and families in the school, attending the socioeconomic situation of immigrant students, favour the competence to understand cultural differences with a positive attitude and collaborating with local entities.

The INTO project. Intercultural mentoring tool to support migrant integration was financed by the European Comenius Multilateral call in 2014-2015 and awarded by the Directorate-General for Education and Culture of the European Union as a 'good practice'. It was promoted by universities and secondary schools from Italy, Spain, the United Kingdom, Cyprus and Poland and its main aim was to introduce tools for social integration and academic performance improvement of immigrant students at risk in secondary schools. They introduced peer tutoring in schools to decrease absenteeism and early school leaving, improve social integration and academic and job opportunities. Students (13-19 years old) with an immigrant background accompanied younger immigrant students, while teachers supervised and supported the mentors. It consisted of providing teachers and students with tools and formation to support mentees during their learning process, advise them academic and professionally, offer linguistic support, organise activities for newly arrived students and for students at risk of exclusion.

The Nightingale project. Social mentoring to promote social inclusion and interculturality in a mentoring program that has been implemented in 20 different European universities, including the University of Girona. The project was inspired by the mentoring project Perach, founded in 1972 in Israel. It was carried out in Malmo University (Sweden) as a pilot in 1995 and in 2002, the city of Malmo awarded them with the integration prize. Its aim is to promote the inclusion of immigrant children and youth from a social, cultural and linguistic perspective. It consisted of connecting college students with students of primary and secondary school with immigrant background, so they could create a social bound and the mentor could become a model for the children and do leisure activities with them. The activities involved practicing the language of the region and visiting cultural spaces, and usually secondary school students ended up establishing a relationship with the mentors' families and friends.

2.2.2. Initiatives from the civil society

The project Cambalache was selected by the General Direction of Integration of Immigrants (Ministry of Work and Immigration of Spain) to receive funding from the European Integration Fund (EIF) of the EU Annual Call for proposals. Launched by the Federation Andalucia Hosts in 2012, it aimed to improve the socio-educative process of inclusion of children from diverse sociocultural origins, by engaging the whole educational community, starting from schools of Andalucia and connecting with other ambits of socialization such as the street, family and group of peers. It involved accompanying minors and their families in the process of insertion in the school system, promoting extracurricular activities for intercultural cohabitation, providing school reinforcement in curricular subjects, and organising workshops for educators to learn to manage diversity in school, with a gender perspective.

The project Own Voice: Interculturality and Gender in Primary Schools was also selected by the General Direction of Integration of Immigrants (Ministry of Work and Immigration of Spain). It was promoted by the NGO Women in Conflict Zones and implemented in 11 primary schools in Andalucia and 7 schools in Extremadura. The objectives were to improve the intercultural and co-educational approach of teachers, improve the coexistence among immigrant and local students and increase the level of awareness about interculturality and gender equity. By using action research, they identified needs in the educational community with students, teachers and families and prepared interventions with students in classrooms and playgrounds, by using songs and games from all continents based on cooperation, respect and mutual enrichment.

The project Culture and inclusion. Building from the youth and the european institutions was financed by the European Comenius Multilateral call (2018-2019) and considered an example of a 'good practice'. It is an initiative from the Youth of Cultural Action (Joves d'Acció Cultural), based on the need to propose tangible and youth-lead solutions to change the design of immigration policies and refugee reception. The project aims to generate a process of active debate, through a participatory methodology based on non-formal education, backed by important policy makers, activities and learning materials. In order to fulfil this goal, they used the network of "Ciudades Refugio" (Refugee cities). This network is composed by the municipalities that have offered to host refugees, since the central government was not answering to this need.

2.2.3. Initiatives from the Administration

The program ATAL. Temporary classrooms for language adoption was launched by the Department of Education of the Government of Andalucía (Order of January 15, 2007) to promote the educational and cultural integration of immigrant children. Since its origin, it has been defined as a mechanism that seeks to regulate actions of intercultural education and the teaching of Spanish as a vehicular language in the teaching-learning process in public primary and secondary schools in Andalucia. The program is implemented in eight

Andalusian provinces and it is aimed at foreign students enrolled between third grade of primary and fourth grade of Compulsory Secondary Education. It is considered a good practice of social integration for two central reasons: (1) it has allowed to provide Spanish language skills, has reached more than 50 thousand young immigrant students throughout its history, and (2) it has had a progressive growth territorially and at the coverage level. ATAL emerged as a pilot program in the province of Almeria in 1997. Once the pilot was finished, it was implemented in the rest of the Andalusian provinces. It is not until 2017 that the project start being promoted and financed by the Department of Education of the Government of Andalusia.

Escolinos de Babel is a program offered by the City Council of Oviedo since 2006. From 2014, it is carried out by the NGO ACCEM, a non-profit statewide organization whose mission is to defend the fundamental rights, care and support for people who are at risk of social exclusion. The objective of the program is to reinforce the instrumental learning of students who present difficulties and, as a priority, to attend those who join late to the educational system, and those who do not know the language. The program is considered a good practice of social integration mainly because it is an initiative that has been able to remain in force from 2006 until now, gradually increasing its coverage. In addition, it is an initiative that favours immigrant children inclusion in the education system. The City Council of Oviedo considers that the outsourcing of the service to the NGO ACCEM has been fundamental for the sustainability and success of the initiative.

The II Plan of Attention to the Immigrant Student in the framework of an inclusive and intercultural school (2016-2020) was elaborated for the Basc Country Government with the objective of favouring the educational inclusion of students belonging to families of foreign origin in the educational system of the Basque country. This objective was sought to be achieved through the promotion of normative, organizational and methodological initiatives that support actions carried out in schools. This public policy is considered a good practice because it represents a significant effort of years bringing together different local initiatives with the same objective. The creation of this plan, therefore, represents the culmination of a process of generating initiatives for more than 30 years and which has broad support from all the political sectors of the Basque parliament.

2.3 Existing policies in the EU framework

In this part we review the policies of the European Union and its relationship with the legislative framework of integration and immigration in Spain.

2.3.1. Spanish legislation in the EU framework

Immigration legislation in Spain must be understood within the process of the construction of the Schengen Agreement and the construction of the European Economic Community (Suárez-Navaz 2004 in Creus 2012). In other words, this process of unification of Europe is reflected in the evolution of Spanish immigration regulations. Its new position on the

international stage has legal, administrative and security consequences (Creus 2012). Thus, European policy is characterised by being "restrictive and dissuasive in relation to the entry and stay of non-Community persons in its territory" (Creus 2012: 5).

The need to adapt to European measures and instruments has led Spain to continuous legal modifications. This has meant transposing the directives and ignoring other international instruments, such as the United Nations Convention (1990), for the protection of workers and their families' rights of (De Lucas, Ramón and Solanes 2008 in Solanes 2010).

We describe some of the regulations that are influencing Spain in the lines below.

2.3.2. Asylum and the agreements of the European Commission

In this section, we explain how International Protection works in Spain. This takes place within the European framework, which includes the Common European Asylum System (CEAS), composed of the Dublin Regulation, the Reception Directive, the Procedures Directive, and the Requirements Directive (Comisión Europea 2014). However, since 2016, the CEAS seems "more focused on restricting than extending the rights of refugees" (CEAR 2017: 42).

In May 2015, the European Commission created the New European Migration Agenda (May 2015), and between July and September of that year the first Resettlement and Resettlement Agreements were carried out, committing them to relocate a total of 160,000 asylum seekers and to receive 22,504 refugees (Comisión Europea 2016). The deadline was September 2017. However, the agreements were not fulfilled, since in the middle of that same year, 2017, the Commission announced that it would only receive 25 per cent of those 160,000 people, while Spain would only receive 11 per cent of the 17,387 refugees to whom it had committed itself.

In addition to failing to respect agreements, the European Union is increasingly moving towards border externalisation and return policies. For this reason, member states have been reproached by the European Commission for their lack of political will to provide a viable migration management system (Boza and Claro 2017).

2.3.3. Global Pact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration

The United Nations General Assembly adopted the Global Compact for Secure, Orderly and Regular Migration on 10 and 11 December 2018. It was signed by 160 States, while Austria, Poland, Hungary, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Bulgaria, Chile, Israel, USA and Australia did not sign the document. This pact aims, among other things, to guarantee regular migration routes, fight human trafficking and smuggling, and guarantee basic social services. For Spain, the pact means taking on the challenge of guaranteeing the protection of arriving immigrants and introducing coexistence policies, such as putting an end to illegal returns at the border and to the systematic detentions at Foreigners Internment Centres (CIE) (CEAR 2019).

2.3.4. Global Compact on Refugees

The Global Compact on Refugees was signed on 17 December 2018, approved by 181 member states (USA and Hungary opposed it). This Pact aims to reduce pressure from host states, increase the resilience of refugees and their resettlement and ensure a safe return. In addition, more funding is requested from governments and the private sector to carry out these objectives, through shared responsibility and a long-term, humanistic approach. The World Refugee Forum will take place in 2019, where the development of this Pact can be evaluated (CEAR 2019).

2.3.5. New Strategic Agenda for Migration Policies

In this last period, it should be noted that there is a publication of the 20th of June of 2019, called "Migration policy in the strategic agenda 2019-2024". It says that the EU leaders asked for a bigger developing migration policy in the EU's strategic agenda for 2019-2024:

"We will continue and deepen our cooperation with countries of origin and transit to fight illegal migration and human trafficking and to ensure effective returns. Concerning the internal dimension, we need an agreement on an effective migration and asylum policy. A consensus needs to be found on the Dublin Regulation to reform it based on a balance of responsibility and solidarity, taking into account the persons disembarked following Search and Rescue operations."[95]

2.4 Main concepts used

We present here which are the main concepts and terms that are used within the migration reality in Spain, both in the legal and in the educational field.

2.4.1. Concept of immigrant

There is a difficulty to find a term for people who are protagonists of immigrant flows. In a demographic way it is used the concept migrations, while immigrant it would be the sociological concept. On the other hand, there is the term "foreigner" ("extranjero" in Spanish), that is a legal category. "Foreigner" takes into account only the nationality, and it refers to laws of non-EU citizens (CES 2019).

We look upon that to know the reality of immigrant flows. We would "consider immigrants all the people in whose biography appears a migratory background, that decisively influences their life path" (CES 2019: 12). Thus, this includes people who have emigrated in first person and also children of immigrants, who have vital trajectories marked by the immigration of

[95] Webpage of the European Council and the Council of the European Union (https://www.consilium.europa.eu/en/policies/migratory-pressures/history-migratory-pressures/). Retrieved 11/09/2019.

their parents or even grandparents. In addition, it also includes people who have obtained Spanish nationality, but they were born abroad.

2.4.2. Concept of Integration in Spain

Although the State sets the integration as a bidirectional process of mutual adaptation (Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales 2007), what would involve both the citizens of the host country, as well as immigrants, and the institutions. However, this has not been so in practice. Integration has come to mean that the immigrant has to assimilate, to adapt, without assuming a process for the host society.

This happened within the UE policies framework. The spirit of Tampere Motto was that "integration starts simultaneously with migration" (Gregoriou 2011: 13). However, the interrelation between integration and migration is finished in "The common principles on integration" by the JHA Council (November 2004), that consider the integration policy in the UE. This occurs under a securitization alert and an urgency of immigration and security control by the member states of the European Union. So, the "Common Principles on Integration" began to have different meaning since 2010 (Gregoriou 2011: 13). The Principle One establishes that "Integration is a dynamic, two-way process of mutual accommodation by all immigrants and residents of Member States". Thus, in its 19 November 2004 Decision, the EU Council elaborates that integration "is a dynamic, long-term, and continuous two-way process of mutual accommodation, not a static outcome" (Justice Home Affairs Council 2004: 19 in Gregoriou 2011: 13). However, at the end of the decade the meaning of "mutual" changes it no longer refers to the fact that there are two parties involved. The immigrant becomes the only actor in integration policies. Integration is not a process any more, but the result, in which the mutual acquires the meaning of giving and receiving. That is, immigrants must show that they want to belong, they must strive to integrate. Rights and citizenship are something to be earned, a reward for successful integration (Gregoriou 2011).

In summary, the Basic Principles of Integration are transferred to national laws and there is no an assemblage of migration and integration policy any more. As a result, integration is no longer a process that corresponds to both parties, but an individual responsibility of the immigrant. Thus, integration is a prerequisite that the immigrant must make to earn their rights.

2.4.3. Concepts within the educational field

In general, educational policy documents address issues about immigration and immigrant students under general approaches of inclusion or school coexistence. This is observed, for example, in the Strategic Plan for School Coexistence (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte 2017) or the II Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration. Concepts such as educational equality, diversity, intercultural education or coexistence can be found.

Moreover, according to several authors (García-Castaño, F. J., Fernández-Echeverría, J., Rubio-Gómez, M. y Soto-Páez, L. 2011; Carrasco Pons 2011) there is an applied field of

Intercultural education focused on the immigrant student body (Rubio-Gómez, Martínez-Chicón and Olmos-Alcaraz 2019).

Educational policy documents usually do not use the term migrant students rather newly arrived students (alumnat nouvingut), immigrant students (alumnado inmigrante), foreign-born students (alumnado de origen extranjero) or late entrant students (alumnado de incorporación tardía). In the curriculum they are considered as "students with specific needs for educational support" Likewise, immigrant children, immigrant young people and ethnic minorities are considered a "vulnerable group" in the Strategic School Coexistence Plan (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte 2017). This concept also includes disabled children and minors, and LGBTIQ students.

Ministry documents about teacher professional development policies use concepts such as multicultural contexts, intercultural education, inclusion or cultural diversity (ORDEN ECI/3857/2007 2007). In conclusion, we could say that educational policies in Spain do not usually use the concept of "integration", nor that of immigrant students. It is more common to find terms such as inclusion discussed within the framework of school coexistence.

2.5 Goals and instruments

From what has been developed above, here we refer to the main objectives of the existing immigration policies, and which are the head instruments that support these measures.

As mentioned before, Spain has a decentralized educational model. As a consequence, Autonomous Communities and City Councils have their own integration plans. For this reason we decided to take into account a national level policy, known as "II Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration 2011-2014" (Secretaría de Estado de Inmigración y Emigración 2011), carried out by the Secretary of State for Immigration and Emigration, specifically by the Directorate General for Integration of Immigrants.

The main guiding principles of the plan are equality, citizenship, interculturality and inclusion (Secretaría de Estado de Inmigración y Emigración 2011). Its central purpose is to promote social cohesion and "the full integration of foreigners into Spanish society, within a framework of coexistence of diverse identities and cultures with no other limit than respect for the Constitution and the law" (Ministerio de Trabajo, Migraciones y Seguridad Social 2019). To achieve these purposes, six main areas are involved: reception, employment and economic promotion, education, health, social services and inclusion, mobility and development. Each of them has its own objectives, lines of action and measures. Finally, also transversal areas are taken into account: coexistence, equal treatment and combating discrimination, childhood, youth and families, gender and participation and civic education (Secretaría de Estado de Inmigración y Emigración 2011).

One of the instruments involved in the execution of this plan is the promotion of "Interregional Programs" which turns the main objectives of the plan into priorities of

intervention (table 2).

Table 2. Interregional programs in the II Strategic Plan of citizenship and integration.

Program name

Diversity Management Program in the Company. (Programa de Gestión de la diversidad en la empresa).

Programme for the Promotion of Intercultural Citizen Coexistence in Neighbourhoods, Neighbourhood Plan. (Programa de Promoción de la Convivencia Ciudadana Intercultural en barrios (Plan de Barrios)).

Action programme on language teaching. (Programa de actuación sobre la enseñanza de las lenguas).

Comprehensive Action Programme against Racism and Xenophobia: Extension of Anti-Discrimination Offices. (Programa de Actuación Integral contra el Racismo y la Xenofobia: Extensión de Oficinas Antidiscriminación).

Training Programme for Public Employees in Diversity Management. (Programa de Formación del Empleado Público en Gestión de la Diversidad).

Third Sector Training Programme on Intercultural Community Intervention (Programa de Capacitación del Tercer Sector en intervención comunitaria intercultural).

Programme for the Promotion of Citizen Participation and Associationism (Programa de Fomento de la Participación Ciudadana y el Asociacionismo).

Programme for the Development of a System of Indicators of Integration, Coexistence and Citizenship (Programa de Desarrollo de un Sistema de Indicadores de Integración, Convivencia y Ciudadanía).

Source: Own elaboration from II Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration 2011-2014.

In the implementation of these programs different public and private agencies are involved: "European administration, state administration, Autonomous Communities, Local Entities, NGOs in the field of immigration and immigrant associations, as well as the business agencies and trade unions" (Secretaría de Estado de Inmigración y Emigración 2011: 50).

2.6 Implementation and child-centred approach

Children's rights are an integral part of fundamental rights policies. The public policy agendas on children and youth are designed in recent years from this rights approach. The basis of these rights is the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990), which establishes the need to provide special protection to children, as subjects of rights (Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales 2011: 179).

The II Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration (2011-2014), prepared by the Government of Spain, sets out what the EU's vision of children is. We share some of the lines and actions that have been established from the EU in relation to children:

- The European Commission made a communication called "Towards a Strategy of the European Union on the Rights of the Child", on July 4, 2006. This wanted to place children's rights on the international agenda as a priority, paying attention to the needs of minors and their social protection.

- On May 6, 2010, the European Commission made a communication concerning the Action Plan on unaccompanied minors (2010-2014). Through this plan, the European Commission exposes the need to adopt a common approach that respects the rights of the child, and calls for greater cooperation between EU member countries, countries of origin and transit countries, to ensure the needs of the minors.

- On February 15, 2011 in Brussels, the European Union Agenda for Children's Rights was approved, "calling for the EU institutions and the Member States to renew their commitment to continue efforts to protect and promote the rights of children" (Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales 2011: 180).

From this, we consider that within the integration policies, there are some plans and laws that focus on children and minors but not specifically on immigrant children.

This happens in the Spanish context too. For example, in the II National Strategic Plan (Ministerio de Sanidad, Servicios Sociales e Igualdad 2013), immigrant children are mentioned only twice: The first one is in objective 3 about Media and Communication Technologies, which seeks to foster a critical vision of television in the family, school and social environments, "that would be constructive, participatory and respectful of the different children with disabilities, ethnic minorities, immigrants, etc." (Ministerio de Sanidad, Servicios Sociales e Igualdad 2013: 67). And the second one is in objective 8, Child participation and appropriate environments, which raises the application of indicators of inclusive participation, which include variables such as disability, immigration and ethnic minorities. In addition, when the document highlights the increase in the percentage of foreign students, assumes that they lack their educational systems of origin. These plans are made from the Children's Observatory, managed by the Ministry of Health, Consumption and Social Welfare.

Another document that should be highlighted is the report "We make a plan: opinions and proposals of children and adolescents to the Childhood Plan", which includes the proposals and opinions of 1,541 children and adolescents, to elaborate the "III National Strategic Plan for Children and Adolescents" (PENIA). This proposal comes from Fampi (Federation of Associations for the Prevention of Child Abuse). The report clearly has a child-centered approach. However, immigrant children and youth are not mentioned at any time.

In conclusion, in Spain there are strategic action plans for youth and children, both at the state level and at the local level and in the Autonomous Communities. These include in some sections minor refugees and immigrant childhood and adolescence. However, there are no specific plans for immigrant children and minors. At this point, we highlight the absence of the child-centered approach. Although the law uses the term "best interests of the child" or "best interests of the minor", this is only limited to the legal field.

3. Reflection and conclusions

Finally, we present a series of reflections and conclusion based on everything developed in the report. In the following lines we share the main gaps, deficiencies and problems that we consider exist in migration policies related to immigrant children and young people in the Spanish system.

2.7.1. Legal framework and immigrant children

We observe a lack of coherence between discourse and practice. The reception communities of the EU, including Spain, hold defending children advocacy discourse, based on the Convention on the Rights of the Child. However, this discourse is not respected in some cases. For example, about accompanied children, in terms of guaranteeing family reunification or not separating children from their parents (Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989, articles 10 and 9). The article 12 of the convention, that establishes the child's right to be heard, it is not respected either. This does not happen during control and detention procedures. With all this, the best interests of the child are difficult to maintain.

This incoherence between discourse defending children's rights and practice, happens with unaccompanied children too. An example of this are the two sentences that the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child has made to Spain for violating the rights of two unaccompanied children, decision taken in year 2019.

The European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) has been entrusted with the interpretation and guarantee of the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR). The ECHR has repeatedly ruled on the conditions of detention, based on several articles of the ECHR. For example, article 3, concerning the detention of minors. The ECHR is not limited to contemplating the material aspects of detention, but also the psychological and subjective aspects (Claro 2019).

Gaps in the international protection system

Another point to reflect on is that foreign minors are unaware of the system and international protection laws. Institutions expect them to identify themselves as asylum seekers to start activating a series of mechanisms (Lázaro 2019).

On the other hand, in 2011, the Ombudsman established what has later become police instruction: carrying out DNA tests on children and youth who arrive accompanied by an adult, to protect immigrant children and young people under the age of 18 (Defensor del Pueblo 2015). The test would check if these adults are their parents. However, these tests do not confirm other family relationships, such as siblings, cousins, uncles, has led to the separation of children from their families (Caravana Abriendo Fronteras 2019).

Criminalization of Solidarity

Within this section, we highlight how in Europe there has been a criminalization of solidarity. As stated in the 2019 by CEAR report, throughout 2018 European governments have placed great obstacles on organizations that help and give solidarity to refugees, putting them strong restrictions and hindering their work. In this context, we place the Spanish case, in which the construction of borders is generating a criminalization against people who defend human rights in these contexts (Caravan Abriendo Fronteras 2019). This is the case of some social and rescue organizations, such as Proemaid and Open Arm, or some people like Carola Rackete, Helena Maleno and Miguel Roldán, facing criminal charges and fines (Caravana Abriendo Fronteras 2019).

2.7.2. Educational policies referring to immigrant children

After reviewing the literature focused on the analysis of existing policies about immigrant children education, we can highlight the following conclusions:

a) School segregation is a severe problem. There is a higher concentration of immigrant children in certain less favored schools (Arroyo and Berzosa 2018). The measures carried out are insufficient, it is necessary to work together Administrations and the Educational Community (CES 2019).

b) According to PISA, educational performance of immigrant students is less favourable than that of native (Grau and Fernández 2016). Furthermore, "foreign students are under-represented at all post-compulsory levels, which is mainly related to their higher level of school failure, which impedes them from obtaining the ESO degree and continuing their studies" (CES 2019: 238). This leads us to a complex idea: in spite of the efforts and measures implemented, it seems that educational actions focused on immigrant children are not achieving their purposes (Arroyo and Berzosa 2018, Grau and Fernández 2016).

c) Compensatory Education and reinforcement measures (such as delegating immigrant children to different classrooms or with specialists) although that have been useful, could actually "segregate more than equalise" (Arroyo and Berzosa 2018: 2000, Grau and Fernández 2016). Further research and investigations must be done.

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UNITED KINGDOM

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1. Data on Migration

Brief presentation of data on migration

The Office for National Statistics (ONS) follows the UN definition of long-term migrant, as someone changing their usual place of residence for more than a year. Most obviously, this definition has always been difficult to operationalise, as it is based on intention for the future, and an idea of 'usual'. An intention on arrival may not be the eventual outcome, and the day one becomes a migrant might be the day of return. Hence, the data generated at the earliest point in migration, the International Passenger Survey (IPS) has some limitations[96]. The IPS is a border survey of passengers entering and leaving the UK, and is used to create the migration

[96] IPS data on this has been downgraded in August 2019 to experimental status, as it did not seem to tally with the administrative data at HM Revenue and Customs. Adjustments are currently being made, and a rethink is coming.

estimates the government uses in its migration targets. It is a sample survey, so has a sampling error, and can only report on the intentions and reasons at the moment of arrival. In the past it has underestimated the number of children due to the way the interviews are conducted.

Once arrived, a number of surveys and administrative processes will collect data on migrants, as part of the data generated on all residents. Engagement with the NHS, employment and benefits generates data via the Patient Registration Data System (PRDS), National Insurance (NI) numbers, and the Worker Registration Scheme. These systems tend not to produce particularly useful data for migration figures: the PRDS flags up recent arrivals, but once someone moves within the UK the flag is removed, and NI numbers are given when an arrival arranges one for work, but are never de-registered. Similarly, visa data includes those who applied for visas but never arrived, and there is no exit data.

Once resident, all people should be counted (theoretically, at least) as part of both the census and multiple social surveys conducted by the ONS. The UK census is conducted every ten years and includes questions on ethnicity, religion, country of birth, national identity, passports held, proficiency in English, date of arrival in UK if from elsewhere. Those who are in the UK for more than 3 months are counted as resident for this. It is also here that many of the complications are revealed: many of those born overseas were born to British parents, so might be seen as generational returnees (see Poland too), ethnicity categorisations differ from migration after longer histories of movement, and national identity is a self-ascription. This census is supplemented by the Labour Force Survey (a rolling survey) to produce the Annual Population Survey (APS). In short, the use of this data allows for census-type data to be kept up-to-date in the periods between the censuses. Mid-year population estimates using a variety of ONS sources are also produced. The APS also includes details of 'main reason for migration'.

Finally, there are some datasets that directly address child migrants. The asylum system produces figures on asylum applications, with unaccompanied asylum-seeking child (UASC) as a separate category. Of wider relevance, but with many caveats, the Department for Education also organises a school census. This is annual and is compiled from school returns, themselves drawing on parents' returns, and is used as part of the calculations for school funding. As additional funding is provided for children with English as an Additional Language (EAL) this is asked, and for a time the form also asked about nationality and country of birth. This data does not include those 'not in school', so missing a small fraction of total children. The nationality data is unreliable, and the EAL data counts some who speak English at home with those who arrive as teenagers with no English. It should also be noted that the Northern Ireland system talks of 'newcomers' (equivalent to EAL) due to the dual language status of the nation.

General data on migration

The most recent census data on migration in the UK have been collected in 2011. According to these figures, in 2011, of the 53 million usual residents of England, 14% (7.3 million) were born outside of the UK. This represents an increase of 61.2% in England's non-UK born

population since 2001 (Migration Observatory 2014). More recent data, courtesy of United Nations, place the total number of international migrants in the UK at 8.8 million, representing 13.4% of the total population. In the last five years, the net migration in the country accounted for 900,000 individuals. There were 894,852 international migrants 19 years and younger living in the country in 2017, accounting for 19.1% of this age group (United Nations Population Division 2017).

In 2017 alone 644,200 immigrants have entered the UK, which represents the second highest number of immigrants in Europe, after Germany (917,100 immigrants) (Eurostat 2019). The share of nationals amongst these immigrants is 12.6%, with 37.7% coming from EU countries and 49.8% from non-EU states. Last year, there have been 632,669 National Insurance Numbers issued to adult overseas nationals entering the UK in 2018, a decrease from 767,764 registered in 2014 (Department for Work and Pensions 2019). Finally, the latest edition of the Migration Statistics Quarterly Report indicates there were 553,000 non-British migrants entering the UK in 2015, an increase from 474,000 registered in the previous year (Office for National Statistics 2015b).

Of the 7.3 million residents born outside of the UK as of 2011, 46% held a UK passport while 51% held only a non-UK passport. All the while, 3.5% held no passport at all (Migration Observatory 2014). There are groups from 25 foreign countries that are estimated to consist of at least 100,000 individuals residing in the UK: Poland (922,000), India (829,000), Pakistan (522,000), Romania (390,000), Republic of Ireland (390,000), Germany (318,000), Bangladesh (263,000), Italy (232,000), South Africa (228,000), China (216,000), Nigeria (194,000), Lithuania (178,000), France (175,000), Spain (156,000), United States of America (153,000), Philippines (150,000), Sri Lanka (144,000), Portugal (139,000), Australia (138,000), Kenya (129,000), Zimbabwe (122,000), Jamaica (118,000), Ghana (109,000), Latvia (105,000), Somalia (101,000) (Office for National Statistics 2019b).

A different category, represented by refugees and asylum seekers, has far lower figures. The number of people who were granted asylum and alternative forms of protection and resettlement in the UK last year amounted to 6,933, of which 1,137 were children (Refugee Council 2019). Overall, there are 44,258 asylum seekers who were receiving government support in 2018 (Sturge 2019).

One in five of the migrants living in the UK is under the age of 25. According to the 2011 census, there were 594,000 foreign-born children aged 0-15 years living in England and Wales, with a further 897,000 foreign-born young adults aged 16-24. Of the total foreign-born population in England and Wales, children made up 8% and represent 5.6% of all children living in England and Wales in 2011 (Migration Observatory 2015). More recent international statistics from 2017 estimate that there were 894,851 international migrants 19 years and younger living in the country, accounting for 8% of this age group. Of these, 49.5% are female. A further breakdown of this age category is as follows: 0-4 years old = 115,271; 5-9 years old = 178,915; 10-14 years old = 249,441; 15-19 years old = 351,224 (United Nations Population Division 2017). The number of migrant children entering the country has increased in recent years, according to the International Passenger Survey: in

2017, there were 100,100 non-British migrants 19 years and younger entering the UK, up from 86,700 registered in 2014 (Office for National Statistics 2018).

In 2011, four out of ten foreign-born children living in England and Wales were coming from EU countries, followed by Southern Asia (16%), South and East Africa (9%), North America and the Caribbean (8%) and the Middle East (5%) (Migration Observatory 2015). According to the 2011 census, 54% of foreign-born children aged 3-15 years old did not have English as their first language. Despite this, 78% of 3-15 year olds with another first language were reported as speaking English well or very well. The three most commonly spoken languages among non-UK born children 3-15 years old were Polish (19%), Arabic (6%) and Urdu (4%) (Migration Observatory 2015).

General data on education and schooling

Of the 5.2 million pupils registered at schools in England in 2018, 537,264 were born outside the UK. Of these, 289,296 pupils were born in Europe and 144,648 in Middle East and Asia (Department for Education 2018). The proportion of pupils who were born outside the UK varies greatly across England, highest in London (15%) and lowest in the North East (4%) (Office for National Statistics 2019a). In 2018, 7% of children in state-funded primary schools and 10% in state-funded secondary schools in England were registered as born outside the UK (Office for National Statistics 2019a). Similarly, of all pupils in state-funded schools, 19% had English as an additional language, up from 14% in 2010. This figure is higher for primary schools than secondary schools, (21% versus 17%) (Office for National Statistics 2019a).

According to a report drafted for the Department of Education, 15-years old pupils from immigrant backgrounds achieve lower scores in science, mathematics and reading than young people who were born and raised in the UK. Whilst the gap all but vanishes between native-born pupils and second-generation immigrants once pupil background is considered, it remains between native pupils and first-generation immigrants, particularly in science. The situation in England is nevertheless comparable to most other countries (Department for Education 2016). Results in England also vary by ethnicity; White pupils score, on average, between 25-40 points higher in the science, mathematics and reading tests than their Black and Asian peers. This is somewhat different to GCSEs, where Asian pupils obtain similar (if not higher) grades than their White peers (Department for Education 2016).

1.1 Gaps in data, comments, analysis and conclusions

There are two main shortcomings related to the data on migration and migrant children in the UK.

First, the most comprehensive statistics, provided by the UK census and collected every ten years, are eight years old. Thus, the existing data on ethnicity, religion, country of birth, national identity, passports held, proficiency in English, date of arrival in UK if from elsewhere are not entirely complete and up to date.

Second, the existing data do not include people who find themselves under the radar. According to a report drafted by the Home Office, the total unauthorised migrant population living in the UK in 2001 was 430,000, while another report written by the London School of Economics estimated that in 2007 the number of 'irregular' migrants was 533,000, making up under 1% of the UK population (Office for National Statistics 2015a). A University of Oxford report in May 2012 put the number of undocumented migrant children in the UK at 120,000, with over half born in the UK (Sigona and Hughes 2012). While there is little data available to indicate the countries of origin of undocumented migrant children, it seems that the most prevalent are Jamaica, Nigeria, Pakistan, China and Turkey (Vollmer 2008).

The Education Act 1996 clearly states that local authorities have a duty to provide suitable full-time education for all children of compulsory school age resident in that local authority, irrespective of their immigration status, race and nationality and appropriate to their age, ability and any special educational needs they may have (The National Archives 1996). Despite these regulations, there is evidence to suggest that discriminatory practice still exists in the treatment of migrant children, so that access to education varies significantly from local authority to local authority (Dorling 2013).

2. National and Legal Provisions

While widespread European 'interest in the concept of integration began to emerge in [the mid-2000s] in response to the pace and volume of immigration', it has been part of the UK political discourse since the 1960s (Craig 2015). The 1966 Roy Jenkins articulation of integration as 'not a flattening process of assimilation but as equal opportunity accompanied by cultural diversity in an atmosphere of mutual tolerance' (quoted in Favell 1998, 104) was a response to explicitly racist politics post-Windrush. A year previous, the Wilson government's approach explicitly linked integration and anti-discrimination legislation with tougher immigration controls, replacing a laissez faire period 'when there was neither control of Commonwealth immigrants entering Britain nor any policy for meeting their needs or dealing with the tensions their arrival triggered' (Cooper 2013, 24).

As part of this policy framework, the National Committee for Commonwealth Immigrants and later the Community Relations Commission were charged with the 'integration of the immigrant' into the wider community (Cantle 2008, 39). Alongside the anti-discrimination laws, the NCCI's function was 'essentially the co-ordination of local effort and the positive promotion of goodwill', while a junior Home Office minister (Maurice Foley MP) had the responsibility of 'Ministerial Coordinator of Policy on Integration' (Bleich 2003, 17). This co-ordination included 'section 11' funding for English language teaching and other assistance to local authorities to help alleviate any issues arising from migrant arrivals. That is, what was 'required to make special provision in the exercise of any of their functions in consequence of the presence within their areas of substantial numbers of immigrants from the Commonwealth whose language or customs differ from those of the community' (The

National Archives 1966). At a local level this work was to be done by the third sector Community Relations Councils alongside Local Authorities.

In a school context, this included 'section 11 teachers' in schools and centralised support teams in the Local Education Authority (LEA), but also more tailored and specific 'special provision'. For example, in the 1980s Leicestershire's education provision included teachers employed for a Classical Indian Music scheme (Adams 2013). This, however, is where we find the roots of the critiques of multicultural policy. Only those schools with the right kind of children (and up until recently this meant Commonwealth migrants) received section 11 help, and the funding was to be devoted 'to the 'special needs' of ethnic minority pupils' (Troyna 1985, 218). Indeed, because one key priority was helping those with little English, less funding was used to address the needs of Caribbean background pupils. Multicultural education, then, in its work to increase self-esteem of minority students and to celebrate surface cultural differences, was seen by others promoting antiracist education to both reify difference and fail to challenge racism (Modood and May 2001). On the other hand, antiracist education was similarly criticised for only addressing racism, and so missing the 'culturalism' that made the response to Asian pupils different to the response to Caribbean pupils, and the related bipolar black/white dichotomy that could place all white pupils as part of the problem (Modood and May 2001).

While this multicultural/ antiracist education debate was present for educators and academics, however, there was little engagement from central government (Modood and May 2001). The funding described above was distributed, and decisions made on how to use it were made at a more local level, hence the prevalence of stories of the 'loony left' schools during the Thatcher government. Changes in the 1990s included the extension of funding to include non-Commonwealth migrants, and then the change from Section 11 funding to 'Ethnic Minority Achievement Grants' in 1998. Further schools also received Excellence in Cities funding, aiming to raise attainment and inclusion in inner-city schools.

This more recent period, from the Blair government onwards, has seen a number of adjustments to this settlement, while leaving the local nature of what gets done and how firmly in place. The assumption of educational choice, and the demands that different religions were treated equally, led to the state-funding of non-Christian faith schools. On the one hand, this could be presented as a blow for equality and contributing to integration – 'faith schools are an important element of the institutional architecture that enables cultural identities to flourish and be protected' (Flint 2007; see also Jackson 2006), but much criticism has focused on the divisive nature of faith schools. This, though, is all the more problematic where all schools are being encouraged to become independent, to some degree, of national and local government control.

More important, however, was the response to the 2001 riots and then jihadi terrorist attacks that pushed ideas of cohesion and shared values to the fore. Where such problems were conceptualised as responses to a lack of opportunity, this reinforces those approaches that follow in the trail of the Section 11 funding and the EMAG. However, this is now supplemented by new duties to promote integration that are focused on values and

dispositions. Thus, the Integrated Communities Strategy green paper (Ministry of Housing, Communities & Local Government 2018), and previous guidance has placed a duty on schools to promote 'fundamental British values' ensuring 'children become valuable and fully rounded members of society who treat others with respect and tolerance, regardless of background.... [and] young people understand the importance of respect and leave school fully prepared for life in modern Britain' (Department for Education 2014). Further policies directly address social mixing, with plans for work with LEAs to reduce segregated admissions and create twinning and mixing arrangements. As with the earlier periods, there are also new geographically targeted funding, including the 2016 announced Controlling Migration Fund, 'designed to support local areas facing pressures linked to recent immigration'.

The story, therefore, of British policy for integration of child migrants is multifaceted, yet to some extent hidden both due to localism and to a degree of 'mainstreaming' such that the barriers for child migrants are to be addressed in universal frameworks. It could be seen as a three-pronged approach: first, the equalising of opportunities; second, the disciplining or attempts to change migrants to fit; and finally a cohesion or social mixing.

The first part, aiming at equality, includes older and newer anti-discrimination and anti-hate legislation, but also a slew of funding, guidance and monitoring for equality purposes. This includes EAL provision, ethnic minority achievement grants, ethnicity gap measurement, Sure Start, free school meals and the pupil premium. Much of this begins with funding distributed to schools that can themselves decide what is appropriate, but which is monitored by the school inspectorate which looks at differences in outcomes. Much of this work is not directly associated with migrant status, but is aimed at the disadvantaged in general, in the knowledge that this will reach migrant children. Hence, this is migrant integration policy by stealth, not being announced as what it actually is.

The second part, aiming at engineering change of migrants' (and others') values is instead highly visible. As part of a discourse of counter-extremism, and counter-civil disorder, talk of 'Fundamental British Values' and preparing pupils for 'life in modern Britain', does appear to be more coercive than the presentation of opportunities. It is this that allows talk of integration to sound more like the assimilation that Roy Jenkins was keen to avoid.

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