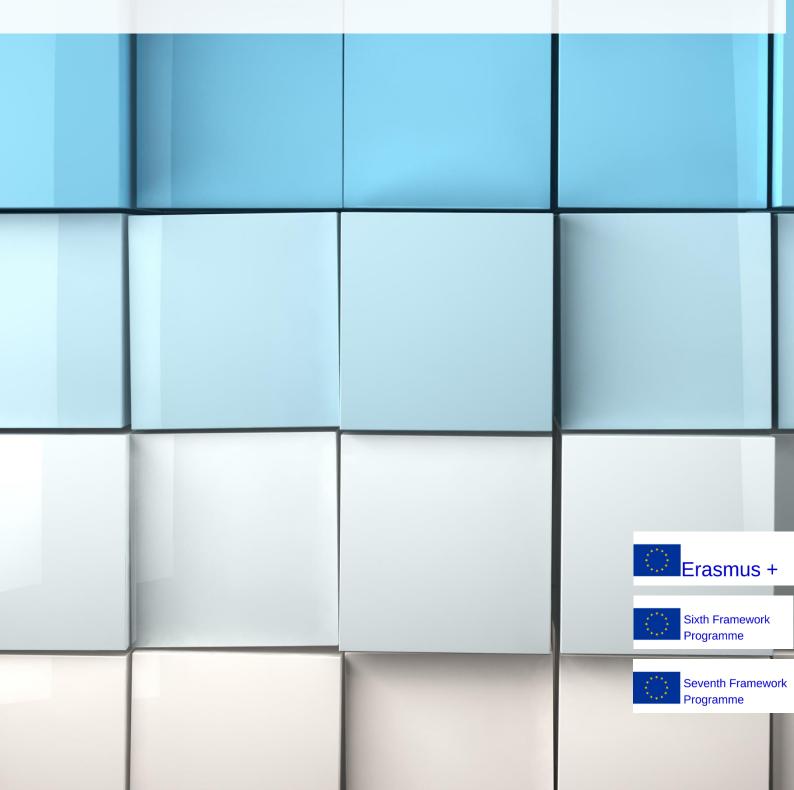# POLICIES AND PRACTICES FOR EQUALITY AND INCLUSION IN AND THROUGH EDUCATION

Evidence and policy guidance from European research projects funded under FP6 and FP7

NESET II

Erasmus +

Sixth Framework Programme

Seventh Framework Programme

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NESET II is an advisory network of experts working on the social dimension of education and training. The European Commission's Directorate-General for Education and Culture initiated the establishment of the network as the successor to NESSE (2007-2010) and NESET (2011-2014). The Public Policy and Management Institute (PPMI) is responsible for the administration of the NESET II network.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Education policy needs to cater for diversity and enable all citizens to succeed in education and to develop their full potential according to their specific needs and irrespective of their backgrounds. However, in reality, educational inequalities are a key challenge to education systems across the EU, often linked to socioeconomic disadvantage, low participation rates in early childhood education, low parental educational level and family support, ethnic or migrant background amongst others.

This report highlights concrete policies and practices that work to disrupt or prevent educational disadvantage[1]. The Key Findings are based on a review of 20 research projects funded under the Sixth and Seventh EU Framework Programmes for Research and Development (FP6 and FP7)[2]. The review was commissioned by the Directorate General for Education and Culture (DG EAC) and carried out by the Network of Experts on Social Aspects of Education and Training (NESET II).

The **Key Findings and Lessons for Policy and Practice** described below will help to support Member States in their efforts to deliver on the objectives set out in the Paris Declaration 'Promoting citizenship and the common values of freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination through education' as well as the 2015 Joint Report on the implementation of the Education and Training 2020 Strategic Framework.

This summary presents **Key Messages** stemming from the review of 20 research projects, followed by an overview of more specific **Challenges and Lessons for Policy and Practice** according to the following four themes:

1. Lifelong learning, skills and employability;
2. Inclusive education for disadvantaged children;
3. Equity and efficiency of education and training systems;
4. Empowering educators and the teaching staff.

Key Messages

› Educational disadvantage is both a cause and a consequence of poverty and social exclusion;
› A learner's socioeconomic background remains the strongest determinant of educational success in all Member States and all levels of education;
› Equity in education is compatible with strong learning outcomes and high performance;
› Investing in the quality of early childhood education and care is crucial, as it establishes the foundation for further learning and helps break the cycle of disadvantage;
› Education and training systems that uphold high standards of quality for all, foster personalised, inclusive approaches, support early intervention, and target disadvantaged learners, can be powerful drivers of social inclusion;
› Education and training systems which allocate pupils to different types of education/institution at an early age exacerbate the effect that socioeconomic background may have on educational attainment and do not raise efficiency in the long run;

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[1] This review does not cover higher education level taking into account the scope of 20 projects reviewed.
[2] CARE, CITiSPYCE, COPE, EDUMIGROM, EQUALSOC, EUMARGINS, GINI, GOETE, IMPROVE, INCLUD-ED, INEQ, KATARSIS, LLIGHTinEurope, LLL2010, NEUJOBS, PROFIT, RESL.eu, SI-DRIVE, WORKABLE, YIPPEE (see Annexes 1, 3-5).

- Efficiency and equity can be increased by improving recruitment procedures and quality of teacher force in disadvantaged areas, and by designing autonomy and accountability systems which avoid inequity;

- Schools alone cannot disrupt intergenerational cycles of deprivation. Cross-policy synergies are needed for more effective intervention against educational disadvantage;

- Monitoring frameworks, complemented by specific targets for under-represented groups, are essential for improving equity. Yet, few Member States have systems that collect data on all phases of education and training that can track progress over time in terms of participation and attainment of disadvantaged groups;

- Rigorous evaluation of the impact of reforms and interventions aiming to improve equity in education and training is critical, yet is not widespread in EU Member States.

I. Lifelong learning, skills and employability

Key Findings

- Lifelong learning does not sufficiently attract or reach out to adults with lower skills or coming from disadvantaged backgrounds;

- Income can be a significant barrier to participating in vocational and tertiary education, especially for lower-paid people;

- Vocational qualifications and prior learning are often unrecognised by employers and educational institutions;

- Employers invest too little in lower skills training and when they do provide it, tend to rely heavily on government assistance;

- Language learning courses often fail to meet the needs of adult migrants.

Lessons for Policy and Practice

Promoting and supporting lifelong learning

- Continuing to encourage higher levels of educational attainment among those who are disadvantaged, including through subsidising learning for adults with low incomes;

- Providing incentives to employed adults to take up training which will lead to higher skill levels;

- Offering meaningful and attractive second chance learning opportunities to improve employment outlooks for those who left education and training prematurely;

- Using community-based lifelong learning initiatives in local and decentralised centres to reach disadvantaged and marginalised learners, especially amongst the low skilled, migrants and women;

- Delivering learning at flexible times, providing preparation for admission and offering modular courses;

- Funding and incentivising SMEs to provide and support training;

- Providing organisational support and assistance including financial incentives to train lower skilled workers and to improve their skills and attitudes towards learning;

- Customising learning to correspond to the needs of the employer as well as the employee;

- Providing flexible work-based training to reduce any disruption to work time and work needs;

- Eliminating 'dead-ends' in upper-secondary level and providing more flexible, permeable and diversified learning pathways and access routes into post-compulsory and further learning.

Supporting access to lifelong learning to adult migrants

- Supporting introductory programmes, including language courses, cultural skills and assistance in entering the labour market;
- Providing language learning courses that are designed for adults in terms of content, are offered at a time that is compatible with work and family commitments, and are offered at easily accessible locations;
- Prioritising the delivery of language courses to those who are least fluent in the host country's language, which will expedite their ability to communicate with schools, health services, and employers;
- Promoting the participation of the whole family in the learning process;
- Working in partnership with community groups to design and develop services so that they reflect the real needs of communities.

II. Inclusive education for disadvantaged children

Key Findings

While the socioeconomic situation of ethnic minorities and migrants has a considerable effect on their children's educational attainment, it is clear that:

- The children of recent migrants and migrants from outside Europe have lower attainment levels than children in the same socioeconomic groups in some Member States at all stages of education; some of this can be attributed to transitory work and unsettled education;
- Some ethnic minority groups' children have persistently lower educational attainment at all stages of education;
- Parents from disadvantaged background are less able to support their children in school;
- Most often, teaching and learning does not challenge negative perceptions of migrants, minorities nor are teachers prepared to challenge parents about the support they give to their children's education;
- Migrant and refugee children are disproportionately in lower attainment streams and lower educational/institutional routes because of admissions policies; compounding the problem, their parents are not able to challenge the system and express their preferred choices;
- A curriculum that is too rigid, centralised, and fails to reflect the diversity of the implicated learners, can have a negative impact on the learning process, particularly for socially disadvantaged children.

Lessons for Policy and Practice

Ensuring inclusive education and providing support for migrant and ethnic minority children

- Quickly integrating new migrant children into mainstream classes that reflect their cognitive skills/age, by means of bilingual classes, multi-cultural curricula, and by training and employing teachers from the same backgrounds;
- Providing to migrant and refugee children who lack language skills the necessary resources to hasten their proficiency and to integrate them into an appropriate stage of schooling quicker;
- Ensuring migrant, refugee and Roma children are not excluded from mainstream education;

- Giving migrants the same choices for their children's education as any other parents have, and ensuring that children have access to and take up additional support before and after school;
- Eliminating both 'allocation to different types of educational institution' and 'streaming', particularly before the age of 13;
- Implementing diversity-conscious policies with culturally sensitive curricula to help enhance equal opportunities for all students, foster good relationships, and boost positive self-image of children from disadvantaged social backgrounds;
- Promoting a holistic approach to learner development that encompasses personal, social, cultural and academic aspects, accompanied by targeted support;
- Implementing effective innovative pedagogies and practices such as web-based, cooperative or learner-centred approaches, which help unite learners and facilitate cooperation;
- Providing effective targeted support to students, including all-day and open schools, linguistic support, individualised support, tutoring programmes, socioemotional and behavioural support.

Promoting and supporting the involvement of families and local communities

- Reaching out to migrant parents to ensure they take up child care, play and learning opportunities for their children;
- Explaining to migrant parents what support they may need to give to their children's learning and how they can be involved in schooling;
- Involving mentors and mediators from the local community in the school workforce to inform and engage migrant parents and to supplement the school's careers advice and guidance;
- Improving parents' literacy and numeracy so they may better assist their children in primary schooling, by involving them in school learning, and by providing them with opportunities to teach their children (for instance, through games and learning activities);
- Encouraging parents' aspirations for their children, and improving parents' knowledge and understanding of tertiary education.

III. Equity and efficiency of education and training system

Key Findings

Governance

- Fragmentation of education systems has led to unclear divisions of responsibilities and ineffective implementation of national strategies. This is especially true in areas that are cross-sectoral, such as the education of children in care, formal and non-formal adult education, and VET;
- Ineffective governance can create additional barriers for stakeholders at various levels, such as coordination problems, under-recognition of qualifications, unclear division of responsibilities and ineffective public-funding strategies;
- At present, very few EU Member States have mature monitoring systems that collect data on disadvantaged groups' educational participation and attainment at all phases of education and training, and that can link the data in order to track progress over time.

Funding

- The amount of resources devoted to schooling is not a primary factor in determining student performance and the quality of educational provision;
- The way funding is allocated can either enable or hinder equality and inclusion;
- Most of the funding in education and training goes towards financing teachers' salaries, and there are very few resources allocated for substantive improvements of the learning environment and for developing more successful pedagogical strategies;
- Financial barriers often cause a bottleneck to accessing non-compulsory education, whether it is early childhood education and care, or higher and adult education. This is especially true for learners from disadvantaged backgrounds.

Admission and transitions

- School segregation leads more ethnic minority and socially disadvantaged children to be distributed in poorer quality and lower performing schools, which can further exaggerate social exclusion and inequality;
- Admission policies based on free school choice or catchment area requirement, if uncontrolled, can increase school segregation and inequality;
- Streaming is often used alongside a performance-driven, competitive approach to teaching and learning, which is particularly detrimental for disadvantaged learners;
- Differentiation of post-secondary education generally increases access to education via a range of pathways and courses, however, it also tends to increase inequality in access to higher quality or higher status academic pathways;
- Fewer flexible and good quality lifelong learning opportunities leads to lower participation in formal and non-formal adult education.

Lessons for Policy and Practice

Promoting good governance and monitoring

- Ensuring adequate levels of school autonomy to enable municipalities and schools to be innovative and flexible in addressing the specific needs of learners;
- Linking the introduction of greater autonomy to comprehensive systems of accountability and quality assurance;
- Promoting participatory governance by enabling multi-stakeholder collaboration between key educational stakeholders;
- Putting in place monitoring systems that can track disadvantages and inform effective responses;
- Introducing early warning systems of children's problems or potential drop-outs, alongside comprehensive monitoring.

Ensuring sustainable investment and funding

- Ensuring that a relatively high proportion of GDP is allocated to education and training, with teacher salaries roughly equivalent to the average of other graduate occupations;
- Providing targeted financing to disadvantaged schools and individuals to increase participation in higher or further education;

- Providing additional funding for schools to enable them to respond to needs of learners from disadvantaged background, including language learning and guidance, additional activities and targeted support to learners;

Ensuring equitable access to and continuity of education and training

- Extending compulsory education and ensuring that educational experiences are uninterrupted and of good quality;
- Practicing sensitive admission policies to reduce school segregation, which take into account the ethnic and social composition of school districts, via the system of 'controlled choice' or varying catchment area requirements;
- Promoting ethnically, socially or mixed-ability schools and classes to promote interaction and acceptance of difference;
- Postponing the age of allocation to particular educational routes, increasing opportunities to change tracks and providing high curricular standards for students in all schools;
- Engaging relevant stakeholders - parents, the community, civil society, public and private sector organisations – in the learning process to improve pupils' learning experience and overall well-being.

IV. Empowering the educators and the teaching staff

Key Findings

- Teachers and school principals are often not equipped to work with growing diversity in the classroom;
- Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting is one of the priority areas where teachers report the highest need for professional development in many European countries;
- Although most initial teacher education programmes include some form of diversity training, it is often in the form of a single module or elective, which is unlikely to have a major lasting impact throughout a teacher's career;
- Even though most competence frameworks for teachers include awareness of diversity issues, the concepts are seldom operationalised and implementation guidelines are rarely provided.

Lessons for Policy and Practice

Improving the competences of the teaching workforce

- Explicitly defining compulsory teacher competences in teaching disadvantaged groups;
- Reinforcing the sociological, socio-psychological and socio-educational units of teacher training programmes to raise teacher awareness of the specific difficulties facing disadvantaged learners and their needs;
- Identifying the teaching methods that most effectively increase the motivation and improve educational attainment of disadvantaged learners;
- Ensuring that initial teacher education and continuous professional development include the subjects of diversity, intercultural education, multilingual teaching and innovative pedagogies.

Ensuring diversity in the teaching workforce

- Educating and employing cultural mediators, such as teaching assistants or family liaison officers with migrant or ethnic minority background, to help build links between parents and schools and engage parents in their children's learning;
- Ensuring that schools' workforce, including teachers and teaching assistants, is representative of the diversity of schools' communities, recruitment to initial teacher education should be appropriately targeted, and the qualifications of immigrant teachers should be recognized.

RÉSUMÉ

La politique éducative doit tenir compte de la diversité et permettre à tous les citoyens de réussir dans l'éducation et développer leur plein potentiel en fonction de leurs besoins spécifiques et indépendamment de leur origine. Toutefois, en réalité, les inégalités en matière d'éducation constituent un défi majeur pour les systèmes éducatifs dans toute l'UE, souvent liées à un handicap socio-économique, à de faibles taux de participation à l'éducation de la petite enfance, au faible niveau de scolarité et de soutien familial des parents, à leur origine ethnique ou migratoire, entre autres.

Ce rapport met en lumière des politiques et des pratiques concrètes qui visent à interrompre ou prévenir les handicaps éducatifs[3]. Ses résultats clés sont basés sur l'examen de 20 projets de recherche financés dans le cadre des sixième et septième programmes-cadres européens de recherche et de développement (FP6 et FP7)[4]. Le rapport a été commandé par la Direction générale de l'éducation et de la culture (DG EAC) et réalisé par le Réseau d'experts sur les aspects sociaux de l'éducation et de la formation (NESET II).

Les **résultats clés et leçons pour des politiques et des pratiques** décrites ci-dessous permettront d'aider les États membres dans leurs efforts pour atteindre les objectifs énoncés dans la Déclaration de Paris intitulée « Promouvoir la citoyenneté et les valeurs communes de liberté, de tolérance et de non-discrimination par l'éducation », ainsi que dans le Rapport conjoint 2015 sur la mise en œuvre du cadre stratégique « Éducation et formation 2020 ».

Ce résumé présente les **messages clés** résultant de l'examen des 20 projets de recherche, suivis d'un aperçu des **défis et leçons pour les politiques et les pratiques** les plus spécifiques selon les quatre thèmes suivants :

1. Apprentissage, compétences et employabilité tout au long de la vie ;
2. Éducation inclusive pour les enfants défavorisés ;
3. Équité et efficacité des systèmes d'éducation et de formation ;
4. Responsabilisation des éducateurs et du personnel enseignant.

Messages clés

> Le handicap éducatif est à la fois une cause et une conséquence de la pauvreté et de l'exclusion sociale ;

> L'origine socio-économique des apprenants demeure le facteur déterminant le plus important de la réussite scolaire dans tous les États membres et à tous les niveaux de l'éducation ;

> L'équité dans l'éducation est compatible avec des résultats d'apprentissage solides et une performance élevée ;

> Investir dans la qualité de l'éducation et l'accueil de la petite enfance est essentiel car cela établit les bases pour un futur apprentissage et permet d'interrompre le cycle du handicap social ;

> Les systèmes d'éducation et de formation qui respectent des normes élevées en matière de qualité pour tous favorisent des approches personnalisées et inclusives, soutiennent une

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[3] Cet examen n'inclut pas l'enseignement supérieur compte tenu du champ des 20 projets examinés.

[4] CARE, CITiSPYCE, COPE, EDUMIGROM, EQUALSOC, EUMARGINS, GINI, GOETE, IMPROVE, INCLUD-ED, INEQ, KATARSIS, LLIGHTinEurope, LLL2010, NEUJOBS, PROFIT, RESL.eu, SI-DRIVE, WORKABLE, YIPPEE (voir Annexes 1, 3-5).

intervention précoce et ciblent les apprenants défavorisés, peuvent constituer de puissants moteurs de l'inclusion sociale ;

> Les systèmes d'éducation et de formation qui répartissent les élèves dans les différentes filières d'enseignement ou d'institutions à un âge précoce accentuent l'effet que le milieu socio-économique peut avoir sur le niveau de scolarité, et n'améliorent pas l'efficacité à long terme ;

> L'efficacité et l'équité peuvent être accrues en améliorant les procédures de recrutement et la qualité du corps enseignant dans les zones défavorisées, en élaborant des systèmes d'autonomie et de responsabilité qui évitent l'iniquité ;

> Les écoles seules ne peuvent pas interrompre les cycles intergénérationnels de précarité. Les synergies entre les politiques sont nécessaires pour une intervention plus efficace contre le handicap éducatif ;

> Des cadres de suivi, complétés par des objectifs spécifiques pour les groupes sous-représentés, sont essentiels pour améliorer l'équité. Pourtant, peu d'États membres disposent de systèmes permettant de recueillir des données sur toutes les phases de l'éducation et de la formation, capables de suivre les progrès dans le temps en termes de participation et de résultats des groupes défavorisés ;

> Une évaluation rigoureuse de l'impact des réformes et des interventions visant à améliorer l'équité dans l'éducation et la formation est essentielle, mais elle n'est pas répandue dans les États membres de l'UE.

I. Apprentissage, compétences et employabilité tout au long de la vie

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Résultats clés

> L'apprentissage tout au long de la vie n'attire pas ou ne touche pas suffisamment les adultes peu qualifiés ou issus de milieux défavorisés ;

> Le revenu peut être un obstacle important à la participation à l'enseignement professionnel et supérieur, en particulier pour les personnes à faible salaire ;

> Les qualifications professionnelles et l'apprentissage antérieur sont souvent peu reconnus par les employeurs et les institutions éducatives ;

> Les employeurs investissent trop peu dans les formations des travailleurs peu qualifiés et, lorsqu'ils le font, ils ont tendance à avoir fortement recours à l'aide de l'État ;

> Les cours d'apprentissage des langues ne répondent souvent pas aux besoins des migrants adultes.

Leçons pour les politiques et les pratiques

Promouvoir et soutenir l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie

- Continuer à encourager un niveau scolaire plus élevé chez les personnes défavorisées, notamment en subventionnant l'apprentissage des adultes à faible revenu ;
- Inciter les adultes salariés à suivre une formation qui conduira à des niveaux de qualification plus élevés ;
- Offrir des opportunités d'enseignement de la « deuxième chance » pertinentes et attrayantes pour améliorer les perspectives d'emploi de ceux qui ont quitté prématurément l'éducation et la formation ;

- Utiliser des initiatives locales d'apprentissage tout au long de la vie dans des centres locaux et décentralisés pour toucher les apprenants défavorisés et marginalisés, notamment parmi les travailleurs peu qualifiés, les migrants et les femmes ;
- Dispenser l'apprentissage à des horaires flexibles, proposer une préparation à l'admission et des cours modulaires ;
- Financer et encourager les PME à fournir et soutenir la formation ;
- Proposer un soutien organisationnel et une assistance, y compris des incitations financières pour former les travailleurs moins qualifiés et améliorer leurs compétences et leurs attitudes vis-à-vis de l'apprentissage ;
- Personnaliser l'apprentissage pour répondre aux besoins tant des employeurs que des employés ;
- Proposer une formation souple en milieu professionnel pour réduire toute perturbation des heures de travail et des besoins du travail ;
- Éliminer les « voies sans issue » au niveau secondaire supérieur et proposer des parcours d'apprentissage plus souples, perméables et diversifiés ainsi que des voies d'accès à un apprentissage post-obligatoire et ultérieur.

Soutenir l'accès à l'apprentissage tout au long de la vie pour les migrants adultes

- Soutenir les programmes d'initiation, y compris les cours de langue, les compétences culturelles et l'assistance à l'entrée sur le marché du travail ;
- Proposer des cours d'apprentissage des langues qui sont conçus pour des adultes en termes de contenu, proposés à un horaire compatible avec le travail et les obligations familiales, et qui sont proposés dans des endroits facilement accessibles ;
- Prioriser l'offre de cours de langue à ceux qui connaissent le moins bien la langue du pays d'accueil, ce qui accélérera leur capacité à communiquer avec les écoles, les services de santé et les employeurs ;
- Promouvoir la participation de toute la famille au processus d'apprentissage ;
- Travailler en partenariat avec les associations et communautés locales pour élaborer et développer des services qui reflètent les besoins réels des communautés.

II. Éducation inclusive pour les enfants défavorisés

Résultats clés

Alors que la situation socio-économique des minorités ethniques et des migrants a un impact considérable sur le niveau de scolarité de leurs enfants, il est clair que :

- Les enfants de migrants récents et de migrants non-européens ont des niveaux d'éducation plus faibles que les enfants des mêmes groupes socio-économiques dans certains États membres à toutes les étapes de l'éducation. Cela peut être en partie attribué à un travail précaire et une éducation perturbée ;
- Les enfants de certains groupes ethniques minoritaires ont un niveau d'éducation plus faible à toutes les étapes de l'éducation ;
- Les parents de milieux défavorisés sont moins capables de soutenir leurs enfants à l'école ;
- Le plus souvent, l'enseignement et l'apprentissage ne remettent pas en question les perceptions négatives des migrants et des minorités, et les enseignants ne sont pas

> formés à remettre en question le soutien qu'apportent les parents à l'éducation de leurs enfants ;
> - Les enfants migrants et réfugiés se retrouvent de manière disproportionnée dans les catégories de niveau scolaire plus faible et les parcours éducatifs/institutionnels plus faibles à cause des politiques d'admission ; aggravant le problème, leurs parents ne sont souvent pas capables de contester le système ni d'exprimer leurs choix préférés ;
> - Un programme trop rigide, centralisé et ne reflétant pas la diversité des apprenants impliqués peut avoir un impact négatif sur le processus d'apprentissage, en particulier sur les enfants socialement défavorisés.

Leçons pour les politiques et les pratiques

Assurer une éducation inclusive et fournir un soutien aux enfants migrants et issus de minorités ethniques

- Intégrer rapidement les nouveaux enfants migrants dans les classes générales qui correspondent à leurs aptitudes cognitives et à leur âge, au moyen de classes bilingues et de programmes multiculturels, en formant et en employant des enseignants issus des mêmes milieux ;
- Fournir aux enfants migrants et réfugiés dotés de compétences linguistiques insuffisantes les ressources nécessaires pour développer leurs compétences et les intégrer plus rapidement dans un niveau d'enseignement approprié ;
- Garantir que les enfants migrants, réfugiés et roms ne soient pas exclus de l'enseignement général ;
- Donner aux migrants les mêmes choix pour l'éducation de leurs enfants que les autres parents ont, et garantir que les enfants aient accès et recours à un soutien supplémentaire avant et après l'école ;
- Éliminer à la fois la « répartition entre différents types d'établissement scolaire » et la « catégorisation », notamment avant l'âge de 13 ans ;
- Mettre en œuvre des politiques prenant en compte la diversité avec un programme culturellement sensible afin de favoriser l'égalité des chances pour tous les élèves, encourager de bonnes relations et stimuler une image de soi positive des enfants issus de milieux sociaux défavorisés ;
- Promouvoir une approche holistique du développement de l'apprenant qui englobe les aspects personnels, sociaux, culturels et scolaires, accompagnée par d'un soutien ciblé ;
- Mettre en œuvre des pédagogies et pratiques efficaces et innovantes telles que les approches basées sur le web, coopératives ou centrées sur l'apprenant, qui permettent d'unir les apprenants et faciliter la coopération ;
- Fournir un soutien ciblé et efficace aux élèves, y compris à travers des écoles ouvertes et fonctionnant toute la journée, un soutien linguistique, un soutien personnalisé, des programmes de tutorat, un soutien socio-émotionnel et comportemental.

Promouvoir et soutenir l'implication des familles et des communautés locales

- S'adresser aux parents migrants pour s'assurer qu'ils profitent des opportunités d'accueil, de jeu et d'apprentissage pour leurs enfants ;
- Expliquer aux parents migrants le soutien qu'ils peuvent avoir besoin d'apporter à l'apprentissage de leurs enfants et la façon dont ils peuvent être impliqués dans la scolarité ;

- Impliquer des mentors et médiateurs de la communauté locale parmi le personnel scolaire pour informer et impliquer les parents migrants et pour compléter les conseils de carrière et l'orientation de l'école ;
- Améliorer l'alphabétisation et les compétences en calcul des parents afin qu'ils puissent mieux aider leurs enfants dans l'enseignement primaire, en les impliquant dans l'apprentissage scolaire et en leur offrant des opportunités d'enseigner à leurs enfants (par exemple, à travers des jeux et des activités d'apprentissage) ;
- Encourager les aspirations des parents pour leurs enfants, et améliorer la connaissance et la compréhension des parents de l'enseignement supérieur.

III. Équité et efficacité des systèmes d'éducation et de formation

Résultats clés

Gouvernance

- La fragmentation des systèmes éducatifs a conduit à des divisions de responsabilités imprécises et à une mise en œuvre inefficace des stratégies nationales. Cela est particulièrement vrai dans les domaines intersectoriels tels que l'éducation des enfants placés en institutions, l'éducation formelle et non formelle des adultes, et l'enseignement et la formation professionnelle (EFP) ;
- Une gouvernance inefficace peut créer des obstacles supplémentaires pour les parties prenantes à divers niveaux, tels que des problèmes de coordination, une reconnaissance insuffisante des qualifications, un partage imprécis des responsabilités et des stratégies de financement public inefficaces ;
- Actuellement, très peu d'États membres de l'UE disposent de systèmes de suivi matures qui recueillent des données sur la participation à l'éducation des groupes défavorisés et sur leur niveau scolaire à toutes les étapes de l'éducation et de la formation, et qui peuvent relier les données pour suivre le progrès dans le temps.

Financement

- Le montant des ressources consacrées à la scolarité n'est pas un facteur primordial pour déterminer la performance des élèves et la qualité de l'offre éducative ;
- La façon dont le financement est alloué peut favoriser ou freiner l'égalité et l'inclusion ;
- La majeure partie du financement de l'éducation et de la formation sert à financer les salaires des enseignants, et il y a très peu de ressources affectées à des améliorations substantielles de l'environnement d'apprentissage et au développement de stratégies pédagogiques plus efficaces ;
- Les obstacles financiers limitent souvent l'accès à l'éducation non obligatoire, qu'il s'agisse de l'éducation et l'accueil de la petite enfance, de l'éducation supérieure ou de l'éducation des adultes. Cela est particulièrement vrai pour les apprenants issus de milieux défavorisés.

Admission et transitions

- La ségrégation scolaire aboutit à la répartition de davantage d'enfants issus des minorités ethniques ou de milieux socialement défavorisés dans des écoles de qualité plus faible et moins performantes, ce qui peut encore exacerber l'exclusion sociale et les inégalités ;

- Les politiques d'admission, basées sur un libre choix de l'école ou sur l'obligation d'une carte scolaire, si elles ne sont pas contrôlées, peuvent augmenter la ségrégation scolaire et l'inégalité ;

- La catégorisation est souvent utilisée conjointement avec une approche compétitive axée sur la performance de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage, ce qui est particulièrement préjudiciable aux apprenants défavorisés ;

- La différenciation de l'éducation post-secondaire augmente généralement l'accès à l'éducation via un certain nombre de parcours et de formations, toutefois, elle tend aussi à accroître les inégalités dans l'accès à des parcours universitaires de meilleure qualité ou de statut supérieur ;

- Moins d'opportunités d'un apprentissage souple et de bonne qualité tout au long de la vie entraîne une plus faible participation à l'éducation formelle et non formelle des adultes.

Leçons pour les politiques et les pratiques

Promouvoir la bonne gouvernance et le suivi

- Assurer des niveaux adéquats d'autonomie des écoles pour permettre aux municipalités et aux écoles d'être innovantes et souples pour répondre aux besoins spécifiques des apprenants ;
- Lier l'introduction d'une plus grande autonomie à des systèmes globaux de responsabilité et d'assurance de la qualité ;
- Promouvoir la gouvernance participative en permettant une collaboration multipartite entre les principales parties prenantes de l'éducation ;
- Mettre en place des systèmes de suivi qui permettent de suivre les handicaps et d'informer des réponses efficaces ;
- Introduire des systèmes d'alerte précoce des problèmes des enfants ou des décrochages scolaires potentiels, conjointement à un suivi complet.

Assurer un investissement et un financement durables

- S'assurer qu'une part relativement élevée du PIB soit affectée à l'éducation et la formation, et que les salaires des enseignants soient à peu près équivalents à la moyenne des autres professions requérant un diplôme ;
- Fournir un financement ciblé aux écoles et individus défavorisés pour accroître la participation dans l'éducation supérieure ou complémentaire ;
- Fournir un financement supplémentaire aux écoles pour leur permettre de répondre aux besoins des apprenants issus de milieux défavorisés, y compris l'apprentissage de la langue, l'orientation, les activités supplémentaires et un soutien ciblé aux apprenants ;

Assurer un accès équitable et une continuité de l'éducation et de la formation

- Étendre l'éducation obligatoire et s'assurer que les expériences éducatives soient ininterrompues et de bonne qualité ;
- Pratiquer des politiques d'admission sensibles pour réduire la ségrégation scolaire, qui tiennent compte de la composition ethnique et sociale des districts scolaires, via un système de « choix contrôlé », ou des obligations variables d'une carte scolaire ;
- Promouvoir des écoles et des classes mixtes d'un point vue ethnique, social ou des capacités pour promouvoir l'interaction et l'acceptation de la différence ;

- Reporter l'âge de l'orientation vers des parcours éducatifs particuliers, augmenter les possibilités de changer de parcours et proposer des normes scolaires élevées aux élèves dans toutes les écoles ;
- Engager les parties prenantes concernées (parents, communauté, société civile, organisations du secteur public et privé) dans le processus d'apprentissage pour améliorer l'expérience d'apprentissage des élèves et leur bien-être général.

IV. Responsabilisation des éducateurs et du personnel enseignant

Résultats clés

- Les enseignants et les directeurs d'école ne sont souvent pas équipés pour travailler avec une diversité croissante en classe ;
- L'enseignement dans un cadre multiculturel ou multilingue est l'un des domaines prioritaires où les enseignants signalent le besoin le plus élevé en matière de développement professionnel dans de nombreux pays européens ;
- Bien que la plupart des programmes de formation initiale des enseignants incluent un type de formation à la diversité, ils se présentent souvent sous la forme d'un simple module ou d'une option, ce qui est peu susceptible d'avoir un impact durable majeur au cours de la carrière d'un enseignant ;
- Même si la plupart des cadres de compétence des enseignants incluent la question de la sensibilisation aux questions de diversité, ces concepts sont rarement définis de manière opérationnelle et sont rarement accompagnés d'instructions spécifiques de mise en œuvre.

Leçons pour les politiques et les pratiques

Améliorer les compétences du corps enseignant

- Définir explicitement les compétences obligatoires des enseignants pour l'enseignement auprès de groupes défavorisés ;
- Renforcer les unités sociologiques, socio-psychologiques et socio-éducatives des programmes de formation des enseignants afin de sensibiliser les enseignants aux difficultés spécifiques auxquelles sont confrontés les apprenants défavorisés, et à leurs besoins ;
- Identifier les méthodes d'enseignement qui renforcent le plus efficacement la motivation et améliorent le niveau de scolarité des apprenants défavorisés ;
- S'assurer que la formation initiale des enseignants et leur formation continue incluent les sujets de la diversité, l'éducation interculturelle, l'enseignement multilingue et les pédagogies innovantes.

Assurer la diversité du corps enseignant

- Former et employer des médiateurs culturels, tels que des assistants pédagogiques ou des agents de liaison auprès des familles issus de l'immigration ou d'une minorité ethnique, pour aider à construire des liens entre les parents et l'école, et impliquer les parents dans l'apprentissage de leurs enfants ;
- Afin de s'assurer que le personnel des écoles, y compris les enseignants et les assistants pédagogiques, soient représentatifs de la diversité des communautés de l'école, le recrutement à la formation initiale des enseignants devrait être ciblé de manière appropriée, et les qualifications des enseignants immigrants devraient être reconnues.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Bildungspolitik muss auf Diversität zugeschnitten sein und allen Bürgern die Chance bieten, einen Bildungsabschluss zu erlangen und ihr Potenzial gemäß ihren jeweiligen Voraussetzungen und ungeachtet ihres Hintergrunds voll auszuschöpfen. In der Realität ist Chancenungleichheit jedoch ein großes Problem in allen europäischen Bildungssystemen, wobei sozio-ökonomische Benachteiligung, geringe Inanspruchnahme von frühkindlicher Bildung, geringe Bildung der und Unterstützung durch die Eltern, Zugehörigkeit zu einer ethnischen Minderheit oder Immigrationshintergrund zu den wichtigen Risikofaktoren zählen.

Der Schwerpunkt dieses Berichts liegt daher auf politischen Ansätzen und Verfahren, die nachweislich geeignet sind, Benachteiligung in der Bildung zu durchbrechen bzw. zu verhindern[5]. Die wichtigsten Ergebnisse wurden durch eine Metaanalyse von 20 Forschungsprojekten ermittelt, die im Rahmen des 6. und 7. Forschungsrahmenprogramms (FRP6 und FRP7) gefördert wurden[6]. Die Analyse wurde von der Generaldirektion Bildung und Kultur (GD EAC) in Auftrag gegeben und im Netzwerk von Expertinnen und Experten, die sich mit den sozialen Aspekten allgemeiner und beruflicher Bildung beschäftigen (NESET II), durchgeführt.

Die nachfolgend dargestellten **wichtigsten Ergebnisse und Lehren für Politik und Praxis** können die Mitgliedstaaten dabei unterstützen, die Ziele zu erreichen, die in der Pariser Erklärung zur Förderung von Politischer Bildung und der gemeinsamen Werte von Freiheit, Toleranz und Nichtdiskriminierung und dem gemeinsamen Bericht 2015 über die Umsetzung des strategischen Rahmens für die europäische Zusammenarbeit auf dem Gebiet der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung festgelegt wurden.

Diese Zusammenfassung präsentiert die **Kernbotschaften**, die sich aus der Analyse von 20 Forschungsprojekten ergeben und gibt dann einen Überblick über konkrete **Herausforderungen und Lehren für Politik und Praxis**, die nach den folgenden vier Themen gegliedert sind:

1. Lebenslanges Lernen, Fähigkeiten und Beschäftigungsfähigkeit;
2. Inklusive Bildung für benachteiligte Kinder;
3. Chancengleichheit und Effizienz von Systemen der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung;
4. Stärkere Mitsprache von Pädagogen und Lehrkräften.

Kernbotschaften

> Bildungsbenachteiligung ist sowohl Ursache als auch Folge von Armut und sozialer Ausgrenzung.

> Der sozio-ökonomische Hintergrund des Lernenden ist in allen Mitgliedstaaten und auf allen Bildungsebenen nach wie vor der stärkste Bestimmungsfaktor für den Bildungserfolg;

> Chancengleichheit in der Bildung schließt gute Lernerfolge und optimale Leistung nicht aus;

> Investitionen in die Qualität der frühkindlichen Bildung und Betreuung sind entscheidend, weil diese die Grundlagen für weitere Lernerfolge legt und dazu beiträgt, den Kreislauf der Benachteiligung zu durchbrechen;

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[5] Für diesen Bericht wurden 20 Projekte untersucht, wobei die Hochschulbildung nicht berücksichtigt wurde.

[6] CARE, CITiSPYCE, COPE, EDUMIGROM, EQUALSOC, EUMARGINS, GINI, GOETE, IMPROVE, INCLUD-ED, INEQ, KATARSIS, LLLIGHTinEurope, LLL2010, NEUJOBS, PROFIT, RESL.eu, SI-DRIVE, WORKABLE, YIPPEE (siehe Anhänge 1, 3-5).

> Systeme der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung, die für alle Schüler hohe Qualitätsstandards gewährleisten, personalisierte und inklusive pädagogische Ansätze fördern, frühzeitig auf Probleme reagieren und benachteiligte Schüler unterstützen, sind starke Motoren der sozialen Eingliederung;

> Systeme der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung, die Schüler schon jung auf unterschiedliche Bildungsarten bzw. -einrichtungen aufteilen, verstärken den Effekt des sozio-ökonomischen Hintergrunds auf die Bildungskarriere und sind langfristig nicht effizienter als andere Systeme;

> Durch bessere Rekrutierungs- und Qualifizierungssysteme für Lehrkräfte in benachteiligten Gebieten, stärkere Autonomie und Rechenschaftssysteme, die Chancenungleichheit vermeiden, lassen sich Effizienz und Chancengleichheit verbessern;

> Die Schulen allein können generationsübergreifende Kreisläufe des Mangels nicht durchbrechen. Um Bildungsbenachteiligung wirksam zu bekämpfen, braucht es Synergien zwischen verschiedenen Politikbereichen.

> Kontrollsysteme in Kombination mit konkreten Zielvorgaben für unterrepräsentierte Gruppen sind unentbehrlich, um die Chancengleichheit zu erhöhen. Dennoch verfügen nur wenige Mitgliedstaaten über Systeme, die Daten über alle Stufen der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung und langfristige Trends zu Integration und Bildungserfolgen benachteiligter Gruppen erfassen;

> Obwohl es wichtig ist, die Auswirkungen von Reformen und Initiativen, mit denen die Gleichstellung in der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung verbessert werden kann, konsequent zu überprüfen, ist dies in den EU-Mitgliedstaaten nicht allgemein üblich.

I. Lebenslanges Lernen, Fähigkeiten und Beschäftigungsfähigkeit

Wichtige Ergebnisse

> Lebenslanges Lernen ist für gering qualifizierte Erwachsene oder für Menschen aus benachteiligten Gruppen nicht ausreichend attraktiv bzw. verfügbar;

> Geld ist ein wesentliches Hindernis beim Zugang zu beruflicher und tertiärer Bildung, insbesondere bei Menschen mit niedrigem Einkommen;

> Arbeitgeber und Bildungseinrichtungen erkennen berufliche Qualifikationen und frühere Lernerfolge häufig nicht an;

> Arbeitgeber investieren generell zu wenig in die berufliche Bildung von gering Qualifizierten und wenn sie es doch tun, verlassen sie sich zu sehr auf staatliche Beihilfen;

> Sprachkurse entsprechen häufig nicht den Bedürfnissen von erwachsenen Einwanderern.

Lehren für Politik und Praxis

Förderung und Unterstützung von lebenslangem Lernen

- Den Zugang von benachteiligten Gruppen zur höheren Bildung dauerhaft fördern, unter anderem durch finanzielle Bildungsbeihilfen für Erwachsene mit geringem Einkommen;
- Erwachsenen Beschäftigten Anreize dazu bieten, sich beruflich weiterzubilden und eine höhere Berufsqualifikation zu erreichen;
- Sinnvolle und attraktive zweite Bildungswege anbieten, die die beruflichen Chancen von Menschen verbessern, die die allgemeine und berufliche Bildung ohne Abschluss abgebrochen haben;

- Bürgernahe Initiativen für lebenslanges Lernen an lokalen und dezentralen Standorten nutzen, mit denen benachteiligte und marginalisierte Lernende erreicht werden können, insbesondere gering Qualifizierte, Migranten und Frauen;
- Lernangebote zeitlich flexibel gestalten und Vorbereitungskurse und modulare Kurse anbieten;
- KMU mit finanziellen und sonstigen Anreizen dazu bringen, berufliche Bildung anzubieten und zu unterstützen;
- Strukturelle Hilfen einschließlich finanzieller Anreize bereitstellen, um gering qualifizierte Arbeitnehmer beruflich weiterzubilden sowie ihre Fähigkeiten und ihre Einstellung zum Lernen zu verbessern;
- Lernangebote so individualisieren, dass sie den Bedürfnissen von Arbeitnehmern und Arbeitgebern gleichermaßen entsprechen;
- Flexible und beschäftigungsfreundliche berufliche Bildungsangebote entwickeln, die an Arbeitszeiten und Bedürfnisse von Arbeitnehmern angepasst sind;
- „Sackgassen" am Ende der Sekundarstufe vermeiden und flexible, durchlässige und vielfältige Bildungspfade und Übergänge zur höheren Bildung und Weiterbildung anbieten.

Leichterer Zugang von erwachsenen Migranten zu lebenslangem Lernen

- Einführungsprogramme anbieten, einschließlich Sprachkurse und Vermittlung kultureller Fähigkeiten sowie Hilfen beim Eintritt in den Arbeitsmarkt;
- Sprachlernkurse anbieten, die inhaltlich an Erwachsene angepasst sind, zu Zeiten die mit beruflichen und familiären Verpflichtungen vereinbar sind, und an leicht zugänglichen Orten stattfinden;
- Plätze in Sprachkursen vorrangig an Personen vergeben, die die Sprache des Gastlandes am wenigsten beherrschen, damit sie möglichst schnell in die Lage versetzt werden, in der Schule, im Gesundheitswesen und mit Arbeitgebern zu kommunizieren;
- Die Teilnahme der gesamten Familie am Lernprozess fördern;
- Bei der Gestaltung und Entwicklung von Dienstleistungen mit den betroffenen Gemeinschaften zusammenarbeiten, damit die Angebote den realen Bedürfnissen entsprechen.

II. Inklusive Bildung für benachteiligte Kinder

Wichtige Ergebnisse

Obwohl die sozio-ökonomische Situation von ethnischen Minderheiten und Einwanderern auch den Bildungserfolg derer Kinder stark beeinflusst, darf man folgendes nicht übersehen:

- In einigen Mitgliedstaaten haben Kinder von vor kurzem zugewanderten Migranten und von Migranten aus nicht-europäischen Ländern auf allen Bildungsebenen weniger Erfolg als Kinder aus derselben sozio-ökonomischen Gruppe; dies lässt sich zum Teil durch befristete Arbeitsplätze und häufigen Schulwechsel erklären;
- Kinder aus bestimmten ethnischen Minderheiten schneiden durchgängig auf allen Bildungsstufen schlechter ab;
- Eltern aus benachteiligten Gruppen können ihre Kinder in der Schule weniger unterstützen;
- In den meisten Fällen, werden negative Vorurteile über Migranten oder Minderheiten im Unterricht nicht korrigiert und Lehrer sind selten bereit, von Eltern mehr Unterstützung bei der Bildung ihrer Kinder einzufordern;

- Die gängigen Zulassungsverfahren führen dazu, dass junge Migranten und Flüchtlinge überproportional häufig in Bildungswege und Bildungseinrichtungen verwiesen werden, die zu niedrigeren Abschlüssen führen; ein Problem, das noch dadurch verschärft wird, dass die Eltern wenig Möglichkeiten haben, sich gegen das System zu wehren und ihre bevorzugten Optionen durchzusetzen;
- Zu unflexible, zentralisierte Lehrpläne, die der Diversität der Lernenden nicht gerecht werden, können den Lernprozess erschweren, insbesondere bei sozial benachteiligten Kindern.

Lehren für Politik und Praxis

Inklusive Bildung sicherstellen und Kinder mit Migrationshintergrund und Kinder aus ethnischen Minderheiten fördern

- Vor kurzem zugewanderte Kinder schnell in Regelklassen integrieren, die ihren kognitiven Fähigkeiten und ihrem Alter entsprechen; geeignete Mittel sind mehrsprachige Klassen, multikulturelle Lehrpläne und die Ausbildung und Beschäftigung von Lehrern mit Migrationshintergrund;
- Jungen Migranten und Flüchtlingen ohne Sprachkenntnisse die notwendigen Ressourcen bereitstellen, mit denen sie die Sprache rascher erwerben und schneller in den angemessenen Regelunterricht integriert werden können;
- Sicherstellen, dass junge Migranten, Flüchtlinge und Roma nicht aus dem regulären Bildungssystem ausgeschlossen werden;
- Migranten die gleichen Mitbestimmungsrechte bei der Bildung ihrer Kinder geben wie anderen Eltern und sicherstellen, dass Kinder vor und nach der Schule zusätzliche Unterstützung erhalten und in Anspruch nehmen;
- Kinder nicht oder frühestens ab 13 Jahren auf unterschiedliche Schulformen und Bildungswege aufteilen;
- Mit Hilfe von Lehrplänen, die auf kulturelle Unterschiede eingehen, Diversität im Bildungswesen berücksichtigen; dies verbessert die Chancengleichheit, fördert gute Beziehungen zwischen verschiedenen Gruppen und verbessert das Selbstbild von Kindern aus benachteiligten sozialen Gruppen;
- Die Entwicklung der Lernenden aus einer ganzheitlichen Perspektive betrachten, die persönliche, soziale, kulturelle und akademische Aspekte berücksichtigt und zielgerichtet fördert;
- Wirksame innovative pädagogische Ansätze und Praktiken umsetzen, zum Beispiel internet-gestützten, kooperativen und lernenzentrierten Unterricht, der die Zusammenarbeit der Schüler fördert und erleichtert;
- Schülern wirksame und zielgerichtete Unterstützung anbieten, zum Beispiel offene Schulen und Ganztagsschulen, zusätzliche Sprachkurse, individuelle Unterstützung, Tutorenprogramme und sozio-emotionale und Verhaltenstherapie.

Die Partizipation von Familien und lokalen Gemeinschaften fördern und unterstützen

- Migranten aktiv ansprechen, damit sie Betreuungs-, Spiel- und Lernangebote für ihre Kinder wahrnehmen;
- Migranten darüber aufklären, wie sie ihr Kind beim Lernen unterstützen und aktiv am Schulalltag teilnehmen können;

- Mentoren und Mediatoren aus lokalen Gemeinschaften an der Schule beschäftigen, die Eltern mit Migrationshintergrund informieren und ansprechen und als zusätzliche schulische Berufsberatung fungieren können;
- Lese- und Rechenfähigkeit der Eltern stärken, damit sie ihre Kinder in der Primarstufe besser unterstützen können, dazu können die Eltern am Schulunterricht beteiligt und in die Lage versetzt werden, ihre Kinder zu unterrichten (zum Beispiel durch Spiele und Lernaktivitäten);
- Eltern dazu ermutigen, ehrgeizige Ziele für ihre Kinder zu setzen und sie über Möglichkeiten der tertiären Bildung informieren.

III. Chancengleichheit und Effizienz von Systemen der allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung

Wichtige Ergebnisse

Politische Steuerung

- Durch die Fragmentierung von Bildungssystemen sind Zuständigkeiten nicht klar verteilt, und nationale Strategien können nicht wirksam umgesetzt werden. Dies gilt insbesondere für bereichsübergreifende Probleme, wie die Bildung von Heimkindern, die formelle und informelle Erwachsenenbildung und die berufliche Bildung;
- Eine unzureichende politische Steuerung kann zusätzliche Hindernisse aufbauen, zum Beispiel durch mangelnde Abstimmung, Nichtanerkennung von Qualifikationen, unklare Kompetenzverteilung und ineffiziente Systeme der öffentlichen Finanzierung;
- Aktuell verfügen nur sehr wenige EU-Mitgliedstaaten über ausgereifte Kontrollsysteme, die Daten über die Bildungsbeteiligung und den Bildungserfolg benachteiligter Gruppen auf allen Bildungsebenen erfassen und diese Daten langfristig zu Trends verbinden können.

Finanzierung

- Die Höhe der Ressourcen, die in Bildung investiert werden, ist kein entscheidender Faktor für die Leistung der Schüler und die Qualität des Unterrichts;
- Die Art, in der Mittel verteilt werden, kann Chancengleichheit und Inklusion entweder behindern oder fördern;
- Der Großteil der Mittel für allgemeine und berufliche Bildung fließt in die Bezahlung der Lehrkräfte; nur ein sehr geringer Anteil wird in wesentliche Verbesserungen der Lernumgebung und zur Entwicklung wirksamer pädagogischer Strategien investiert;
- Finanzielle Hindernisse schränken häufig den Zugang zu Bildungsangeboten vor und nach dem schulpflichtigen Alter ein, das heißt: zur frühkindlichen Bildung und Betreuung und zur höheren und Erwachsenenbildung. Dies gilt besonders für Lernende aus benachteiligten Gruppen.

Zulassung und Übergang

- Schulsegregation führt dazu, dass Kinder aus ethnischen Minderheiten und sozial benachteiligten Familien in Schulen von geringer Qualität und mit schlechteren Angeboten kommen, was soziale Ausgrenzung und Chancenungleichheit noch verstärkt;

- Zulassungsverfahren, die ausschließlich auf freier Schulwahl bzw. Einzugsgebieten basieren, können Schulsegregation und Ungleichheit verstärken, wenn sie nicht durch andere Regelungen ergänzt werden;

- Die Aufteilung in verschiedene Schulformen geht oft mit einer leistungs- und wettbewerbsorientierten Auffassung von Lehre und Lernen einher und schadet insbesondere benachteiligten Lernenden;

- Eine Differenzierung von Bildung nach der Sekundarstufe verbessert einerseits den Zugang zu Bildung, weil er unterschiedlichste Wege und Kurse bietet; andererseits verstärkt sie tendenziell die Ungleichheit beim Zugang zu akademischen Bildungswegen von hoher Qualität und mit hohem Status;

- Ein Mangel an flexiblen und hochwertigen Möglichkeiten zu lebenslangem Lernen führt dazu, dass weniger Menschen formelle oder informelle Angebote der Erwachsenenbildung wahrnehmen.

Lehren für Politik und Praxis

Politische Steuerung und Kontrollsysteme verbessern

- Schulen genügend Autonomie einräumen, so dass Schulträger und Schulen auf innovative und flexible Weise auf die speziellen Bedürfnisse der Lernenden eingehen können;
- Die größere Autonomie durch ein umfassendes System der Rechenschaftspflicht und Qualitätssicherung ausgleichen;
- Eine partizipatorische Politikgestaltung fördern, bei der wichtige Interessengruppen des Bildungssektors zusammenarbeiten;
- Einrichtung von Kontrollsystemen, die Benachteiligungen erfassen und als Datengrundlage für wirksame Gegenmaßnahmen dienen;
- Einführung von Frühwarnsystemen für Kinder mit Problemen oder potenzielle Schulabbrecher in Verbindung mit einer umfassenden Kontrolle.

Nachhaltige Investitionen und Finanzierung sicherstellen

- Sicherstellen, dass ein relativ hoher Anteil des BIP in die allgemeine und berufliche Bildung fließt und die Gehälter von Lehrern ungefähr dem mittleren Einkommen von Akademikern entsprechen;
- Gezielt Mittel für benachteiligte Schulen und Schüler bereitstellen, um deren Teilnahme an der höheren Bildung und Weiterbildung zu verbessern;
- Schulen mit vielen Lernenden aus benachteiligten Gruppen zusätzliche Mittel bereitstellen, mit denen sie Sprachunterricht und Beratung, zusätzliche Aktivitäten und spezielle Förderprogramme finanzieren können;

Chancengleichheit beim Zugang zur allgemeinen und beruflichen Bildung sicherstellen

- Bildungspflicht ausdehnen und sicherstellen, dass alle Schüler eine ununterbrochene und hochwertige Bildungserfahrung machen;
- Angepasste Zulassungsrichtlinien einführen, die die ethnische und soziale Zusammensetzung des Schuldistrikts berücksichtigen und die Schulsegregation durch ein System der „gesteuerten Wahlfreiheit" oder die flexible Auslegung von Einzugsgebieten mindern.

- Förderung von ethnisch und sozial gemischten oder integrativen Schulen und Klassen, die Interaktion und die Toleranz von anderen anregen;
- Schüler erst spät auf unterschiedliche Schultypen aufteilen; dies erleichtert den Wechsel auf andere Schulformen und stellt sicher, dass alle Schulen ihren Schülern einen hochwertigen Lehrplan anbieten;
- Relevante Akteure - Eltern, Gemeinde, Zivilgesellschaft, staatliche und nichtstaatliche Organisationen - am Lernprozess beteiligen; dies verbessert die Lernerfahrung und das Wohl der Schüler.

IV. Stärkere Mitsprache von Pädagogen und Lehrkräften

Wichtige Ergebnisse

- Lehrer und Schulleitung sind für die zunehmende Diversität der Schülerschaft häufig nur unzureichend ausgebildet;

- Das Unterrichten von multikulturellen oder mehrsprachigen Klassen ist in vielen europäischen Ländern einer der Bereiche, in denen sich Lehrer eine Weiterbildung wünschen;

- Obwohl das Thema Diversität im Lehramtsstudium in der Regel vorkommt, wird dies meist im Rahmen eines Moduls oder als Wahlseminar angeboten, das den beruflichen Werdegang der künftigen Lehrer kaum wesentlich beeinflusst;

- Der Umgang mit Diversität wird zwar in den meisten Kompetenzrahmen für Lehrer berücksichtigt, allerdings wird das Konzept nur selten operationalisiert und es fehlen Richtlinien zur Umsetzung.

Lehren für Politik und Praxis

Kompetenz der Lehrkräfte verbessern

- Das Unterrichten benachteiligter Gruppen bei der Lehrerausbildung ausdrücklich als Pflichtqualifikation berücksichtigen;
- Soziologische, soziopsychologische und soziopädagogische Elemente der Lehrerausbildung verstärken, damit künftige Lehrer die speziellen Probleme und Bedürfnisse benachteiligter Lernender besser verstehen;
- Unterrichtsmethoden entwickeln, die Motivation und Bildungserfolg benachteiligter Lernender besonders wirksam steigern können;
- Sicherstellen, dass bei der Ausbildung und laufenden beruflichen Weiterbildung von Lehrern die Themen Diversität, interkulturelle Bildung, mehrsprachiger Unterricht und innovative Pädagogik stärker berücksichtigt werden.

Diversität im Lehrkörper fördern

- Kulturelle Mediatoren ausbilden und einstellen, zum Beispiel pädagogische Assistenten oder Berater mit Migrationshintergrund oder aus einer ethnischen Minderheit, die die Zusammenarbeit von Eltern und Schule verbessern und Eltern am Lernprozess ihrer Kinder beteiligen;
- Gewährleisten, dass der Lehrkörper an Schulen, einschließlich der Lehrer und Assistenten, die Diversität des schulischen Umfelds widerspiegelt. Dazu sollten gezielt Personen aus diesen Gruppen bei der Lehrerausbildung gefördert und die Qualifikationen von zugewanderten Lehrern anerkannt werden.

Chapter 1. Introduction

This study reviews the findings of 20 research projects funded under the Sixth and Seventh EU Framework Programmes for Research and Development (FP6 and FP7)[7]. The review was commissioned by the Directorate General for Education and Culture (DG EAC) and carried out by the Network of Experts on Social Aspects of Education and Training (NESET II). It is written primarily for policy and decision makers in the field of education and training. It is guided by three main **questions**:

> What are the effects of educational inequality on the economic and social outcomes of individuals, social groups and regions, and on social mobility, economic growth and social cohesion in the EU?

> What are the effects of poverty, inequality and wider socioeconomic disadvantage on the educational opportunities, learning experiences and educational outcomes at each stage of an individual's life course and at different types and levels of education and training?

> Which specific policies and practices are shown to promote equity, inclusion and better outcomes in educational and social equality, inclusion, social mobility and social cohesion through education? What are the key success factors for transferability and sustainability?

This report highlights **concrete policies and practices** that work to disrupt or prevent educational disadvantage and sets out the supporting evidence[8]. For more information on the methodology of this review, see Annex 4.

1.1. Relevance of this review for policy makers

Promoting equality, tolerance, respect for diversity and inclusion in and through education is currently an important EU policy objective. Member States are working to deliver on the objectives they set in the **Paris Declaration** 'Promoting citizenship and the common values of freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination through education' signed by EU Education Ministers and the EU Commissioner for Education, Training, Youth and Sport in March 2015. The objectives of the Paris Declaration inform the **2015 Joint Report** on the implementation of the Education and Training 2020 Strategic Framework – which guides the European Commission's policy cooperation with the Member States to 2020.

This report provides guidance that can support Member States in their efforts to deliver on the objectives of the Paris Declaration and the 2015 Joint Report. It will also be of interest to important EU-level policy-steering activities and formal commitments that EU Member States have recently subscribed to, including:

> The May 2010 Council Conclusions on the social dimension of education and training[9];

> The Council conclusions on early childhood education and care (2011a);

> The Council Recommendation on policies to reduce early school leaving (2011b);

> The Council Recommendation on effective Roma integration measures in Member States (2013b);

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[7] CARE, CITiSPYCE, COPE, EDUMIGROM, EQUALSOC, EUMARGINS, GINI, GOETE, IMPROVE, INCLUD-ED, INEQ, KATARSIS, LLLIGHTinEurope, LLL2010, NEUJOBS, PROFIT, RESL.eu, SI-DRIVE, WORKABLE, YIPPEE (see Annexes 1, 3-5).

[8] This review does not cover higher education level taking into account the scope of 20 projects reviewed.

[9] Council of the European Union, 2010a.

> The Council Recommendation Investing in Children – Breaking the Cycle of Disadvantage (2013);
> The Council Conclusions on the social dimension of higher education (2013a).

Chapter 2. Causes and consequences of inequalities in education

2.1. The problem

Education policy needs to cater for diversity and enable all citizens to succeed in education and to develop their full potential, according to their specific learning needs and irrespective of their background.

However, the reality is different. The evidence reviewed here suggests that access to learning opportunities, success at school and chances of higher education and further learning all remain socially and spatially differentiated across the EU. All European education systems are, to a greater or lesser extent, marked by inequalities[10] which reflect inequalities in the wider society. Whole social groups or sub-sets of the population persistently achieve less in education – often despite the presence of policy initiatives that are designed to redress these inequities. The findings of the 20 projects reviewed here are consistent with wider international research confirming that currently:

> A learner's **socioeconomic background** remains the strongest determinant of educational success or failure in all Member States and at all levels of education.
> A large number of children from high-need families do not participate in **early childhood education and care** (ECEC).
> In all Member States, **migrant learners** (especially those from poor families) achieve significantly below the level of native-born learners and are at a higher risk of leaving school early.
> There are still more than five million **early school leavers** across the EU. Early school leaving (ESL) for young people from a migrant background is double that of non-migrant families, exceeding 40 % in some Member States.
> Initial **vocational education and training** (VET) has much higher dropout rates than academic routes.
> **Roma children** are a lot less likely to benefit from ECEC, attend school, obtain necessary level of qualification, or continue to post-compulsory education.
> **Boys** (especially those from disadvantaged backgrounds) drop out of school more often than girls, perform significantly worse in reading, and outnumber girls in VET. Women are more likely to have a tertiary education degree but are still under-represented in Science, Technology, Engineering and Maths (STEM) studies, in careers in research and in senior posts at all levels of education.
> Disadvantaged social groups continue to be seriously under-represented in **higher education** (especially in the more prestigious institutions and study fields) and many more students from

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[10] This review is limited by the extent of the discussion on educational inequalities, which varied significantly among the research projects. It should not be considered comprehensive in tackling all existent aspects of inequalities.

these groups drop-out from university. There are marked disparities in higher education *within* as well as *between* Member States.

> In several Member States, learners with **special educational needs** are still often placed in segregated institutions or in mainstream settings with inadequate support. They have high rates of early school leaving and frequently leave school with few or no skills. They participate a lot less in tertiary education, are more likely to be unemployed, and are at greater risk of social exclusion.

> Roma and migrant-background students are over-represented in **segregated and special needs settings**. In certain countries more than 40 % of Roma pupils attend segregated classes.

> The children of **newly-arriving migrants**, those from **lower socioeconomic** groups, some **ethnic minorities**, **refugee** and **Roma children** and **children in public care** tend to be disproportionately placed in educational routes or institutions that lead to lower level or lower status qualifications (lower tracks) and poorer performing schools with lower expectations of what they will achieve.

> **Streaming** (the allocation of children to different classes according to their ability) is often used with a performance-driven, competitive approach to teaching and learning which does not improve the attainment of disadvantaged children.

> Teaching does not necessarily target or respond to the need for additional support of children who have **language difficulties** or have had a **disrupted education**.

These inequalities in education and the inequality of human capital and skills they imply have **severe consequences** for individuals, for the economy and for social cohesion. They affect all aspects of people's lives, not only their opportunities to earn. They often lead individuals to precarious life trajectories or disengagement not only from education and work but from broader civil society. Millions of citizens are left behind. Policies to remedy these disparities are needed.

2.2. Some critical factors - evidence from the 20 research projects

Socioeconomic family background can strongly affect an individual's educational outcomes and future life chances. This has been confirmed in earlier academic literature, which shows in general that pupils with a low socioeconomic background tend to be slower in developing academic and linguistic skills. They display learning-related behaviour problems more often, show lower motivation towards learning, leave education and training earlier, and leave with lower qualifications and insufficient competencies for full participation in society (Aikens and Barbarin, 2008; Ballas et al., 2012; Blanden et al., 2005; Kaylor and Flores, 2008; Morgan et al., 2009). EQUALSOC showed that this effect of general socioeconomic characteristics on children's cognitive skills, language skills and overall learning capacity can be detected as early as preschool age (EQUALSOC Network, 2011)[11].

Parental education has consistently proved to be one of the most important components influencing educational outcomes. EDUMIGROM confirmed the findings of PISA surveys conducted over the past decade: within the project sample, students from highly educated families had close to a five times greater chance of attaining 'excellent' grades than fellow students from a poorly educated parental background (Szalai, 2011b). Similarly, students coming from a poorly educated parental home were three to four times more likely to repeat periods of study (sometimes known as grade repetition or grade retention) to achieve the required grades

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[11] EQUALSOC showed how children (aged 3-4 years) from higher-SES families score better on standardised developmental tests than children from lower-SES backgrounds (see, for instance, results for children in Germany in Becker, 2010).

than their peers from highly educated families (Szalai, 2011a). For its part, GINI revealed that a family background in which at least one parent holds a university degree is associated with almost three additional years of schooling for the next generation, while IMPROVE found the proportion of young people with low-educated parents to be significantly higher among early school leavers than among stayers (Braga et al., 2011; Tumino, 2013). Similar trends continue down the line towards adult education: LLL2010 revealed that most adult learners in low-level courses have low-educated parents, while most adult learners with highly-skilled parents are enrolled in tertiary level courses (Boeren et al., 2011).

Some of the projects indicated that the educational disadvantages experienced by ethnic or migrant children can be best explained by **parental socioeconomic status** (SES). For example, EQUALSOC revealed that when the effect of socioeconomic status is removed, second-generation immigrant children from European countries often academically outperform the majority group, while achievement gaps are substantially reduced for second-generation children of non-European backgrounds (EQUALSOC Network, 2011). This finding confirms similar conclusions stemming from PISA 2012, especially regarding the performance of migrant children in mathematics (European Commission, 2013b, p. 12).

Research suggested that, even where relatively favourable socioeconomic conditions are present, an **ethnic minority** or **immigrant background** can independently imply educational vulnerability (EDUMIGROM, EQUALSOC, EUMARGINS). This conclusion is in line with a growing body of research specifying that first and second generation immigrant students tend to be more affected by low socioeconomic status than children with a non-immigrant background (OECD and European Commission, 2015). For example, EDUMIGROM indicated that 'ethnicity is a strong factor that is played out in its own right in (...) informing how performance is assessed': students from better educated families were three to eight times more likely to be 'marginally performing' than their majority peers if they came from ethnic backgrounds (Szalai, 2011a). Notably, being from an immigrant background does not have the same effect in the case of predominantly 'white immigrant' minorities: according to the EDUMIGROM survey, 17 % of students from such backgrounds in the project sample ended up among the best performing groups (Szalai, 2011a).

Ethnic background was also found to affect pupils' relations with their peers in schools. EUMARGINS concluded that ethnic minorities, migrants and their descendants experience various forms of social exclusion in the form of bullying, teasing or more generally a feeling of being marked as different by other pupils. Overall, such students often tend to be placed in segregated educational settings, which results in their enclosure and isolation (see Section 3.1 for more); moreover, migrant children and ethnic minorities are more likely to enrol in poorer quality or lower performing schools (Fangen, 2011; Kallas et al., 2011). They are also more likely to be on a vocational route or other route that does not provide direct access to university education (European Commission, 2015a; NESSE, 2010b).

The **language factor** can partly explain the educational disadvantage of learners with migrant or ethnic minority background relative to majority students with the same socioeconomic background. Research projects such as EDUMIGROM, EQUALSOC, EUMARGINS, GOETE and INCLUDE-ED discussed how difficulties in education attainment and performance can be affected by poor **language skills**. Native language speakers surveyed by EDUMIGROM, for example, were nearly twice as likely to receive 'excellent' results as students with a different mother tongue (Szalai, 2011a). Such educational inequalities are relevant across all levels of education: interviews and observations in pre-primary centres by INCLUDE-ED indicated that a lack of language skills leads to children being unprepared to cope with the academic challenges of pre-primary education (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b). At the same time, not knowing the language of the majority population can

constitute a major barrier in terms of access to higher education (Estonia, Norway and Sweden were referred to by EUMARGINS; see Kallas et al., 2011).

Family support can be a significant protective factor against disengagement (Savage et al., 2005). Within the survey sample of RESL.eu, study participants living with both biological parents appeared to be less associated with low levels of engagement at school, while perceived support from parents was shown to correlate with overall school engagement scores (Kaye et al., 2015). Along these lines, high levels of participation by family members in learning activities were shown by INCLUDE-ED to lead to higher school attendance, higher academic achievements and greater value given to school by children (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a;). Overall, the family serves as an important source of information, emotional support, and financial and social resources.

In terms of individual characteristics, **gender** is also a significant factor when considering the performance attained in education. Although there are notable exceptions (such as the overall performance in mathematics, science and technology studies), previous research has indicated that female learners tend to outperform male learners, especially in terms of reading literacy (Archer et al., 2007; NESSE, 2010a). As revealed by PISA 2012 and highlighted by the Education and Training Monitor 2015, the number of 15 year-old boys in the EU who show underachievement in reading, mathematics and science is 61 % higher than that of girls (OECD, 2013b; European Commission, 2015a). Interestingly, though, results from the Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) for 16-24 year-olds in reading performance show that the gender gap in literacy becomes narrower or completely diminishes later in life (OECD, 2013a, p. 109).

Data from EDUMIGROM revealed that 'girls adjust better to the official requirements of schooling than boys do'. Within the project sample, girls had an 8 % higher chance of receiving an 'excellent' grading than boys, and also enjoyed a 6 % advantage in average scores over boys (Szalai, 2011a). In turn, performance affects educational attainment: in some countries within the sample of RESL.eu, boys were much less likely to achieve an upper secondary qualification than their female peers (Kaye et al., 2014). RESL.eu also concluded that young women were more likely to express aspirations towards higher levels of education than their male classmates (Kaye et al., 2015). Evidently, aspirations later become a reality, as these gender gaps persist into further levels of education. Notably, if only female education is considered, both Europe 2020 headline targets have been reached (early school leaving rate below 10 % and tertiary education attainment rate above 40 %). Women in the EU have an average 8.7 % higher tertiary education attainment rate than men (European Commission, 2015a; Eurostat, 2014).

Nevertheless, female learners also experience educational inequalities. GINI revealed that being a female corresponds in general to an average disadvantage of one third of a year of schooling (Braga et al., 2011). LLLIGHTinEUROPE indicated that males on average perform better than females in the Complex Problem Solving (CPS) assessment (even when adjusting for differences in education and employment) and this was shown to contribute to the later earnings gap between males and females (Ederer et al., 2015). Moreover, educational inequalities experienced by people with **family/care responsibilities** can also be related to disadvantages experienced by women (Boeren et al., 2011; Hefler et al., 2010; Saar and Roosalu, 2011; Szalai, 2011b). LLL2010 concluded that the presence of a small child in the family reduced the probability of an individual's participation in formal adult learning activities by half, with the effect being twice as important for a mother than for a father (Hefler et al., 2010).

Inequalities based on various individual characteristics and/or socioeconomic background can be translated into educational inequalities through the reinforcement of social divisions within the educational institutions (Ballas et al., 2012; see Chapter 4). In turn, **initial educational attainment**

and achievements can have a significant effect on later educational outcomes. For example, a large body of literature, including various longitudinal studies, has revealed that participation in high-quality early childhood education and care (ECEC), particularly for children over the age of three, leads to better cognitive and non-cognitive developmental outcomes, better readiness for school and greater educational success (Chetty, 2010; Burchinal and Cryer, 2003; Duncan, 2013).

In the case of young people in secondary schools, the research projects emphasised how earlier educational attainment and prior academic performance influence early school leaving and overall attitudes towards achieving secondary education. The EDUMIGROM survey results for young people between 14 and 17 years old showed that the proportion of those imagining themselves graduating from a secondary school steeply declines in line with numeric grades (Szalai, 2011b). Similarly, academically successful young people from public-care backgrounds in YIPPEE were found to be more motivated to progress to upper secondary level and complete their educational courses (Jackson and Cameron, 2011). Consequently, in EDUMIGROM, the actual proportion of potential dropouts increased from 5 % among the 'excellent' students to 33 % among those belonging to the 'marginally performing' group (Szalai, 2011a). Similarly, RESL.eu showed that students had a higher chance of dropping out of their course if they had negative attitudes to homework and especially to their teachers (Kaye et al., 2014).

Early educational attainment is also important with regard to adult education and lifelong learning since it effectively shapes adult attitudes towards further study. LLLIGHTinEUROPE, for example, concluded that perseverance and openness to learn new things among adults increase significantly with their level of education (Ederer et al., 2015). Similarly, LLL2010 found that adult learners enrolled at the lowest course levels show scepticism towards adult education; and the project suggested that such adults had usually dropped out of the educational system at an earlier stage and therefore developed negative attitudes towards learning early on (Boeren et al., 2011, p. 101). By the same token, EQUALSOC and LLL2010 found that adult learners with low levels of skills or lower educational attainment give more extrinsic (instrumental, economic pressure-related) reasons for continuing their studies or training compared to better educated adults who were more likely to give intrinsic reasons (EQUALSOC Network, 2011; Boeren et al., 2011)[12]. In addition, data suggested that the actual chance for participation in formal adult education increases significantly with higher levels attained in prior education, as revealed by LLL2010 and the overall body of research (Hefler et al., 2010; NESSE, 2010b; Boeren et al., 2012). Similarly, LLLIGHTinEUROPE found that individuals with higher secondary general education are more likely to take career-related training and receive more hours of it than those with vocational education (Woessmann et al., 2012).

Overall, a plethora of individual and family-level circumstances can influence educational inequalities. However, the effects of these characteristics are often closely inter-related with the way the education system accommodates ethnicity, gender, family background and socioeconomic status. System-level and institutional barriers experienced by vulnerable groups, positive system characteristics as well as specific measures helping to develop an inclusive educational environment for disadvantaged individuals are discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 respectively.

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[12] Notably, intrinsic motivation (associated with social capital and personal development) is seen as preferable because it results in high-quality learning, while extrinsic motivation (relating to instrumental goals, economic pressure, prospects of higher earnings, or risk of unemployment) can result in surface learning, or fear of failure (Boeren et al., 2011, p. 14).

2.3. The cycle of disadvantage

The factors discussed above generate educational inequalities. Subsequently, these inequalities lead to other types of disadvantages for vulnerable groups, mostly associated with social standing and later positions in the labour market. Following this argument, a lack of educational attainment can be understood as both a consequence and a cause of (household) poverty and social exclusion: education converts initial individual or socioeconomic disadvantage into academic underachievement, which then becomes the basis for subsequent labour market failure (NESSE, 2010a). Thus children who live in low-income households and whose parents are unemployed, at risk of in-work-poverty, or have low qualifications, are much more likely to become the next generation of parents with low socioeconomic standing (Frazer and Marlier, 2007; Eurydice, 2009, NESSE, 2010a). In fact, evidence suggests that intergenerational upward mobility has been slowing down worldwide (European Commission, 2015a).

As shown by PROFIT, RESL.eu, LLLIGHTinEUROPE, GINI, INCLUDE-ED and EQUALSOC, lower levels of education result in greater unemployment, limited opportunities for the self-development of workers, and high job insecurity (Kutsar et al., 2006; Araújo et al., 2013; Ryan et al., 2014; Wiederhold, 2015; Salverda et al., 2014; INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2009a; EQUALSOC Network, 2011). This is in line with overall research findings produced in recent years (Giannetti et al., 2009; Salverda et al., 2014; Wiederhold, 2015). For example, as explained in IMPROVE, early school leavers tend to face higher rates of both youth and adult unemployment than stayers experience (Tumino, 2013). These conclusions confirm the general trend found in the literature, namely that early school leavers are more likely to be unemployed or employed in blue-collar or part-time jobs (which provide less employment security) than those who complete their education (NESSE, 2010a; European Commission, 2013c; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice/Cedefop, 2014; European Commission, 2015a).

According to LLLIGHTinEUROPE, individuals who obtained general secondary education degree have a higher probability of employment as they become older, relative to individuals with vocational education (Woessmann et al., 2012). In addition, employability – an individual's ability to find, keep or change a job position at will, was also found to be positively affected by higher educational level in EUMARGINS (Studená et al., 2015; Fangen, 2011). Data analysis in EQUALSOC also indicated that education is an important determinant of occupational attainment, especially in relation to the influence of education on finding a first job. Less educated individuals were shown to experience slower career progression, and their disadvantages tend to increase during their life course (Barone and Schizzerotto, 2011).

Educational inequalities and subsequent disadvantages related to employment outcomes may in turn affect **individual income levels**, as well as the risk of facing **poverty**. People with low educational attainment have a four times greater risk of falling into the poverty trap than people with high educational attainment (Council of the European Union, 2010b). GINI data showed a significant and positive relationship between education and income inequality[13] (Salverda et al., 2014). In general, higher cognitive skills were systematically related to higher wages in the 23 countries studied by LLLIGHTinEUROPE (Wiederhold and Woessmann, 2015).

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[13] On the macro-level, reduction of one point in the Gini index of education is associated with a reduction of 0.5 to 0.6 points in the Gini index of income. On the micro-level, the research project revealed that personal income is positively associated with the number of years of schooling (Salverda et al., 2014).

In spite of these findings, raising educational attainment and competence levels does not necessarily ensure less deprivation and more social equality (Council of the European Union, 2010a). First, the effect of education on attainment in the labour market may only moderately mediate the overall influence of social origins and socioeconomic family background. IMPROVE concluded that non-EU migrants with a higher education degree experience relatively low returns on education. For migrant men in particular, a higher education degree does not result in greater probability of employment compared to someone with only a secondary education degree (Corluy and Verbist, 2014). Similarly, EDUMIGROM survey data showed that, compared to students from the upper ranks of society, well-performing students from poorer social backgrounds are much more likely to opt for vocational education and early employment, which leads to poorer prospects in the labour market over their life course (Szalai, 2011a).

Moreover, the recent financial downturn has further blurred the direct link between educational attainment and employment opportunities, as the increase in youth unemployment has also affected qualified young people (OECD, 2010b). With the expansion of tertiary education, a high proportion of graduates in Europe have also been ending up in atypical, precarious forms of employment (Knijn, 2012; Banerji et al., 2015). Accordingly, concerns about not getting a job despite working hard at school were a common theme for many students interviewed by GOETE (Parreira do Amaral et al., 2013). The crisis has also increased the proportion of those not in employment, education, or training (NEETs) and aged 15 to 24 in the EU-28 from 10.9 % in 2008 to 12.5 % in 2014, which signals a build-up of those facing multiple disadvantages in the labour market (Eurostat, 2015b).

Individual-level inequalities caused by a lack of educational attainment also have societal implications. As indicated by IMPROVE and LLLIGHTinEUROPE, higher educational levels are associated with better employment levels, including migrant employment (Corluy and Verbist, 2014; Wiederhold, 2015). Empirical evidence has suggested that an increase in educational achievement by 50 PISA points translates into a one-percentage point higher rate of economic growth (EENEE, 2014). Previous research also showed that the number of years in schooling, provided that education is of good quality, are of extreme importance for differences in regional development (Gennaioli et al., 2013). A growing body of literature has emphasised that education is also a pathway to social equality, active citizenship and personal fulfilment: in fact, an inclusive approach towards education may help vulnerable individuals to achieve economic independence and social mobility in adulthood, thus serving the needs of the labour market and the wider societal need for social inclusion (Camilleri-Cassar, 2014; NESSE, 2010b).

Lessons for policy and practice

- Educational disadvantage is both a consequence and a cause of poverty and social exclusion;
- A learner's socioeconomic background remains the strongest determinant of educational success at all levels of education. It has a significant effect on educational outcomes including the development of academic and linguistic skills, early school leaving, and learning motivation;
- Educational outcomes shape an individual's occupational attainment and socioeconomic standing, and thus educational inequalities can impose disadvantage upon subsequent generations;
- In general, ethnic minorities and those of immigrant background are more vulnerable to unfavourable educational outcomes, so much so that even among children from well-

educated families, minority students are more likely to perform less well than their majority peers;

▪ Educational inequalities experienced by minorities can be partly attributed to a lack of proficiency in the language of their host-country;

▪ Female learners tend to outperform male learners at all levels of education. However, they are less likely to participate in adult education due to family responsibilities, and are under-represented in STEM subjects;

▪ Early educational attainment and academic achievement influence early school leaving, attitudes towards achieving secondary education, and participation in formal adult education;

▪ Educational inequalities have significant social implications: low educational attainment can result in greater levels of unemployment, income inequality, low economic growth and disengagement of vulnerable groups.

Chapter 3.   System and institutional factors promoting inclusion in and through education and training

Many of the FP6 and FP7 research projects reviewed in this report analysed how the characteristics of different education systems and institutional factors contribute to reducing, maintaining, or deepening inequalities in learning outcomes, not only during compulsory schooling but also in access to further education and training, the labour market and different domains of social and cultural participation. The main findings are presented below.

3.1. The importance of access policies in education

3.1.1. Admission policies and institutional segregation

EDUMIGROM and IMPROVE found that the admission process in compulsory education can increase educational segregation among children from different socioeconomic and ethnic groups by channelling children with certain characteristics to schools with poorer records in educational attainment (Szalai, 2011a; Dronkers and Korthals, 2015). Although a child's geographically **peripheral location**, especially when combined with a lack of social connectivity or the ethnic composition of particular neighbourhoods, can reduce access to quality education and specific support (Güntner et al., 2014; Hussain and Higson, 2014), residential conditions only partially explain school segregation. Full parental choice resulting in the so-called 'white flight', local educational policies aimed at raising efficiency through inter- and intra-school streaming into differentiated ability groups and allocating children to different kinds of educational routes or institutions, and attempts by ethnic minority parents to protect their children from discrimination through separation, all intensify the process and generate greater inequities across education systems (OECD, 2012; Szalai, 2011b; Ryan et al., 2014). In addition, refugees, irregular immigrants or newly arrived migrant children may be deprived of full participation in compulsory education through a failure to meet **eligibility requirements** based on the residency rules or through unfamiliarity with local admission policies. Immigrant parents often lack the 'inside' knowledge necessary to navigate through the education system for their children's benefit due to language barriers, resource constraints, lower levels of education and lack of knowledge of the host country's school system (Nusche, 2008; Szalai, 2011a; INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2010). EDUMIGROM indicated that in **choice-oriented systems**, the most desirable schools compete for the brightest students and as good results further increase their prestige this deprives lower

achieving pupils of access to these schools. As a result, ethnic minority and socially disadvantaged children are likely to be over-represented in poorer quality or lower performing schools. In these schools, students are not only segregated but also stigmatised, and with a restricted curriculum and lower expectations, their educational careers essentially come to a dead end as they graduate with practically no chance of gaining a qualification that would be valued by the labour market (Szalai, 2011a).

In addition, EDUMIGROM found that the **school setting** and the **socio-ethnic composition** of a particular class have a major influence on young people at school in their future aspirations, peer group relations and student-teacher relations. Institutional segregation and the division of students into parallel classes according to ethnic background creates an unfavourable environment for interethnic contacts and their understanding of diversity which in turn in the longer run, becomes an additional barrier for the development of more inclusive societies (Szalai, 2011a).

3.1.2. Limited lifelong learning opportunities

As indicated by YIPPEE, educational performance, expected job security, the duration of studies, preferences for study content and monetary costs contribute considerably to the creation of socially selective choice patterns in post-secondary careers (Jackson and Cameron, 2011). In this context, the so-called semi-tertiary institutions[14] become particularly attractive educational alternatives for working class young people. While this appears to reduce inequities in access to post-compulsory education in the broad sense, students that opt to continue their education in these institutions could be diverted from engaging in higher education which tends to lead to greater social and labour market equality' (EQUALSOC Network, 2011). According to the EQUALSOC project findings, students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are still markedly under-represented in the most prestigious higher education institutions. The project findings also underlined persistent socially selective tendencies among higher educational institutions (Jacob and Reimer, 2015).

There is a general shortage of **quality public facilities** for young people, particularly so for those living in deprived or rural areas, where families have fewer opportunities to access good quality education, as demonstrated by CITiSPYCE[15] and PROFIT (Güntner et al., 2014; Hussain and Higson, 2014; Warzywoda-Kruszyńska et al., 2006). According to LLL2010, the probability that an individual will participate in formal adult learning increases in relation to the degree of urbanisation of a given residence. Moreover, lack of access to adequate information, advice and guidance about educational opportunities is also a barrier to participation in both formal and informal learning[16] (Hefler et al., 2010).

In addition to variation in the availability of programmes for all in different geographic areas, and differentiated access to quality education pathways as discussed above, **financial issues** are often reported as a bottleneck in accessing education at different levels. For example, families face financial barriers when accessing early childhood education, especially early care services for children under the age of three, for which demand exceeds public supply in most EU countries. As

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[14] E.g., universities of cooperative education that combine firm-based training with tertiary education (Schindler & Reimer, 2010).

[15] CITiSPYCE also underlined that barriers do not always relate just to physical location, they can be constructed via 'symbolic' distances (Güntner et al., 2014).

[16] Definitions of non-formal and informal learning are available here: http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/events-and-projects/projects/validation-non-formal-and-informal-learning/european-inventory/european-inventory-glossary.

indicated by CARE, full-time and year-round services may be inaccessible for disadvantaged children due to additional costs (Magnuson and Shager, 2010, in Akgündüz et al., 2015). The same holds true for post-compulsory education, as in many countries post-secondary and tertiary education require at least a partial financial contribution from the families themselves. This results in an increase in working students and therefore possibly also a decrease in hours spent studying (Hall, 2010)[17]. Financial problems do not solely result from educational fees; adult learners at any educational level may also be struggling to support themselves and/or their families, as demonstrated by LLL2010 (Boeren et al., 2011). EUMARGINS highlighted that for learners of low socioeconomic status, it is even harder to access quality education in the context of the financial crisis due to cuts in access to social benefits (Szalai, 2011b).

3.1.3. How can access policies facilitate inclusion and equality?

Improving access to early childhood education and care

It has been argued that increasing preschool enrolment has a positive influence on children's learning outcomes (Engle et al., 2007). Access to good quality early childhood education and care (ECEC) is particularly important for children from a socially disadvantaged background as it facilitates their entry into the formal education system. The CARE project indicated that for disadvantaged children preschool participation is associated with strong benefits for later education, job and social outcomes and moreover leads to improvements in social competence and a more rapid decline in behaviour problems from the first year of preschool to primary education (Melhuish et al., 2015).

CARE referred to various policies that Member States apply to ensure universal access to quality preschools. Universal legal entitlement to ECEC is a good example of equal opportunity strategies because it guarantees a place for every child (Melhuish et al., 2015). Other good practices identified include: governments encouraging providers to take up publicly subsidised preschool provision in socially disadvantaged residential areas (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice/Cedefop, 2014); making preschool compulsory (Akgündüz et al., 2015); and increasing subsidies in a private child-care market leading to higher utilisation of formal care, for example in the Netherlands (Bettendorf et al., 2015). Some countries have additional policies specifically for children from disadvantaged backgrounds to increase their access to preschool provision. Means-tested Working Tax Credits for low-income families as practised in the UK, the entitlement to enrol in day-care programmes for children in families in need of support in Germany, and the introduction of priority rules for children from socioeconomically disadvantaged families in Belgium, have all been effective in increasing preschool participation (Akgündüz et al., 2015).

Expanding compulsory education

The GINI project confirmed that reforms aiming to expand access to pre-primary education are associated with an increase in average educational attainment. The later children start compulsory schooling, the lower their successive attainment, which suggests that lowering the starting age of compulsory education is an effective tool for increasing educational attainment (Braga et al., 2011).

At the same time, GINI and RESL.eu indicated that the extension of compulsory education to older years is seen as one of the mechanisms to prevent early drop out (GINI, 2013; Ryan et al., 2014). Participation in full-time education goes along with alternative options, such as work-based

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[17] Especially in Europe, NEUJOBS findings indicate that there was an increase in part-time over full-time students.

learning (including apprenticeships) and part-time education for those employed, self-employed or volunteering (Ryan et al., 2014).

The GINI project findings indicated that 'expansion of access' by extending the length of compulsory education narrows the range of difference in years of schooling between different groups in the population and increases intergenerational upward mobility in educational attainment by partially compensating for disadvantages in the family (Salverda et al., 2014). By retaining the least motivated students in schools, it also reduces the differences in competences among the adult population. However, this is only true if overall educational provision is of good quality and inclusive (Ryan et al., 2014). Researchers find that people who benefited from longer compulsory schooling were more likely to be employed and receive higher wages (Machin et al., 2008).

Promoting mixed schools and classrooms

As stated earlier in the report, the segregation of students with socially disadvantaged or immigrant background is detrimental to their subsequent success in education and further exacerbates inequalities in society. Inclusive education models where children from different backgrounds and abilities learn side by side are more effective at increasing attainment levels among disadvantaged children. Moreover, EDUMIGROM found that ethnically and socially mixed school environments are not only beneficial for low social economic status groups and ethnic minority children, but also significantly increase the acceptance of differences among other students, which leads to greater tolerance and respect for diversity more generally in society (Szalai, 2011b).

As shown above, free-choice systems contribute to institutional segregation to a greater extent; however, school enrolment according to catchment areas may reinforce the separation of children with diverse backgrounds if there is high residential segregation. EDUMIGROM suggested that catchment areas can work well if school-district boundaries are defined taking socio-ethnic composition and diversity into account (Szalai, 2011b). Other research has suggested that a policy of 'controlled choice' proves to be an effective strategy in avoiding school segregation by balancing parents' wishes to choose a school for their children and the political goal of countering segregation (Kahlenberg, 2011).

INCLUD-ED confirmed that the inclusion of children with disabilities in mainstream education instead of segregating them into special schools also benefits both the children with disabilities and their peers without disabilities (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007b). Disabled students develop better social skills and relationships and are better prepared to be more independent in the future, while other children learn to accept differences and become more tolerant and pro-social (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b). Starting from pre-primary education, including students with disabilities in mainstream education and providing good quality tailored teaching when needed (see Section 3.4) serve as a way to avoid inequalities later on, facilitate their integration into society, and help them to live a normal life (Stauber and Parreira do Amaral, 2013).

Increasing availability and affordability of lifelong learning opportunities

PROFIT and LLL2010 pointed out that the availability and accessibility of relevant education programmes, such as part-time and flexible (modular) study, help to increase participation in adult education (Saar and Roosalu, 2011) particularly for adults with lower skills. The introduction of specifically designed programmes can be an important tool for increasing the flexibility of access to higher education. In order to increase learning flexibility for participants, adult education

institutions are gradually introducing modular systems and intense lessons over a shorter time period (Boeren et al., 2011).

Lowering fees for formal adult education (relative to non-formal training activities and to average wages) improves participation in formal adult education and, as underlined in LLL2010, also makes formal adult education programmes more attractive to employer organisations (Hefler, 2010; Boeren et al., 2011). As demonstrated by LLIGHTinEUROPE, public policy support for workers' participation in lifelong learning in Denmark, Germany, Italy, Slovakia and Spain shows a diverse array of government funding schemes and institutionalised mechanisms specifically aimed at promoting training and skills development for employees in the private sector. In these countries (except Slovakia) employees can benefit directly from state support via tax relief provisions that incentivise individual education and investment in training. Collective agreements among governments and social partners, and social partners themselves, play a critical role in Denmark, Italy and Spain in facilitating employee access to free training opportunities independently of the initiative and capacity of their employers to invest in lifelong learning (Ederer et al., 2015).

Lessons for policy and practice

- Increasing preschool enrolment has a positive influence on children's learning outcomes: increases are not only associated with strong benefits in later education, but also in improved social competence, which is particularly advantageous for children with socially disadvantaged backgrounds;
- Extending the length of compulsory education is associated with higher educational attainment and employability, but only if educational transitions are smooth and provision is of good quality;
- Ethnically, socially or ability mixed schools and classes have a positive influence on interaction between the various groups and facilitate the acceptance of difference resulting in greater tolerance and respect for diversity among the whole school population;
- Sensitive admission policies, which take into account the ethnic and social composition of school districts via the system of 'controlled choice' or catchment area requirements, tend to reduce school segregation;
- Financial barriers often cause a bottleneck to accessing non-compulsory education, whether it is early childhood education and care, or higher and adult education. This is especially true for learners from disadvantaged backgrounds.

3.2. Transitions

Transitions in an educational context are viewed as a process rather than an event and are affected by a number of conditions that influence their outcomes, mitigating or reproducing disadvantage and inequality. The GOETE project produced an analysis of the different patterns of educational transitions, which reveals that the relationship between education and the life course is informed by interaction and negotiation, where educational trajectories appear to be significantly influenced by the institutional structures of education systems such as early selection and allocation to different educational routes, and by the availability of support at the institutional level (Parreira do Amaral et al., 2013).

3.2.1. What are the links between transition arrangements and inequalities and social exclusion?

Early selection, streaming and 'tracking'

Most of the FP6 and FP7 projects reviewed highlighted the fact that schools and training systems have structural conditions in place that interrupt the transition process and often segregate the most disadvantaged children, thus negatively affecting their educational attainment. This segregation refers to the allocation of children into separate schools with different kinds of educational provision through a process sometimes known as tracking (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2009a), and the streaming of children into different groupings within schools on the basis of their educational attainment and cognitive abilities.

Findings from the EDUMIGROM and INCLUD-ED projects demonstrated that **streaming** reduces pupils' learning opportunities and achievement by diluting the positive peer effect that higher-ability pupils have on their lower-ability classmates. Streaming blocks the development of positive relationships across ethnic groups, and affects the opportunities to develop interethnic friendships. Streaming also reduces the expectations of those in lower ability groups and tends to erode their academic self-esteem and feelings of competence. In addition, it limits students' level of satisfaction with their stream placement and the opportunities for upward mobility between streams. Since streaming also influences teachers' expectations, their attitudes and behaviour towards particular students can be affected, resulting in a focus on students' deficits rather than abilities and increased stigmatisation, to the detriment of their learning and achievement (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2009a, Szalai, 2011a).

Moreover, when streamed and non-streamed schools are compared, it can be seen that low achievers in streamed schools are usually exposed to less and lower-quality content compared to their low-achieving peers in mixed-ability classes. In addition, the level and pace of instruction in heterogeneous middle school classes are similar to that provided in the top stream at streamed schools. Therefore, the presence of low achievers in heterogeneous classes did not cause teachers to slow down their curriculum, but rather appeared to allow low achievers to benefit from the same richer and more fast-paced curriculum offered to the top stream (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007b).

Nevertheless, research evidence also suggested that simply mixing students with different levels of ability does not guarantee optimal conditions for all students to be included in the teaching process. Other system conditions have to be in place for mixed classes to be effective, including, but not only, adequate financial support and teacher preparation to deal with diversity in mixed classes (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b).

As demonstrated by the EDUMIGROM and INCLUD-ED, the segregation of children in different schools most often occurs as a consequence of admission policies at the secondary level, such as the selection of students based on their academic achievement. The age at which children are allocated to these different forms of education is a crucial characteristic of the school system, not only in terms of opportunities for advancement, but also in terms of equity and performance. Existing evidence suggests that if this 'tracking' is carried out at an early age it can be detrimental to children's further development, especially in the case of children coming from a low socioeconomic background (RESL.eu; INCLUD-ED; OECD, 2012; Ballarino et al., 2012). EQUALSOC findings demonstrated that when initial ability is controlled for, children put into a route for lower achievers tend to have lower attainment than children who continue to be educated in a more integrated system. The more and the earlier pupils are divided into separate groups according to their academic performance, the more the pupils' socioeconomic background matters for their academic performance and future

advancement (OECD, 2012; EQUALSOC Network, 2011; Boeren et al., 2011). Systems that do this at an early age also tend to show larger skill inequalities between students of different origins than systems with comprehensive education arrangements (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2009a), and are strongly linked to the reproduction of educational inequalities (Clycq et al., 2013 in Ryan et al., 2014).

As indicated by EDUMIGROM, the negative impact of early allocation to different tracks is further exacerbated by the rigidity of systems offering limited mobility between school types and tracks, which leads to highly unequal chances for those placed in lower quality (often vocational) tracks (Szalai, 2011a). In a strongly segregated and hierarchical system such as in Flanders and the Netherlands, the vocational track in particular is often perceived as the 'waste basket', comprised of pupils who are not capable of entering other tracks or not sufficiently motivated (Stevens and Vermeersch, 2010 in Clycq et al., 2014). In addition, RESL.eu demonstrated that the processes of differentiating the school system into various vocational pathways can explain school disaffection, the increasing risk of early school leaving, low academic performance, social exclusion and marginalisation (Araújo et al., 2013). GOETE project findings also confirmed that cross-national differences in early school leaving or competence achievement are clearly correlated with structures of differentiation, selectivity and permeability in national education systems (Parreira do Amaral et al., 2011).

Repeating periods of study (grade repetition)

The idea behind making an underachieving child repeat a year is seen to have preventive and corrective functions. In reality, however, the academic and social benefits of such 'grade repetition' or 'grade retention' are minimal and short-lived. Although some studies report that there may be some gains for the affected students during the repeated year (see for example, Alein et al., 2009; Krzypniak, 2011), this is partly because they repeat the same curriculum; and these gains tend to fade away in later years.

Grade repetition has a clearly negative long-term social and academic impact; instead of having positive effects regarding catching-up and self-assurance, grade repetition usually turns into a powerful and lasting stigma, and increases the likelihood of achieving only a lower secondary qualification or none at all (Jacob and Lefgren, 2009; Szalai, 2011a). Although 90 % of the students who repeated a grade at some point in their educational career did so in the very early years, their later grades still reflected the depreciating implications (Szalai, 2011a; INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007a). As a consequence, school systems that use grade repetition are extensively associated with poorer performance (OECD, 2013).

3.2.2. How can transition barriers be reduced?

Facilitating successful transitions requires due attention to students' preparedness for the transition and the support that they need before, during, and after the transition. Below we discuss to the ways to ensure smooth transitions between pre-school and primary education, as well as between primary and secondary school.

Support systems for transitions during early years

The transition from early childhood education and care (ECEC) to school is an important quality aspect of both preschool services and primary education where different approaches and systems intersect (Hayes, 2011). The wider research literature has shown that positive or negative experiences during transition to school from ECEC both from an emotional and academic perspective can be critical factors for a child's future success and development (Moss, 2013). Positive transitions can stimulate further development but negative experiences can cause lasting difficulties, leading to

problematic behaviour and possibly poorer performance (Woodhead and Moss, 2007). Therefore, especially for children from a disadvantaged background, insufficient attention to transition processes can reinforce barriers to successful integration into primary school (Bennett, 2012).

The CARE project findings highlighted various strategies Member States apply to facilitate transitions between ECEC and primary school. Effective practices include: ensuring that written records of children's learning and development at the end of their pre-primary years are shared with the primary school teachers (England, Estonia, Greece, Italy, Poland); collaboration with parents, children's visits to their primary school before starting, or collaboration between staff on both pre-primary and primary school levels (England, Greece, Italy, Norway, Portugal); pre-primary and primary education provided on the same premises (England). In addition, national guidelines for the co-operation and coherence between kindergarten and school educators aimed towards children's development of understanding, competences, and skills help their transition and learning. Another practice involves co-operation between ECEC staff and school teachers through local plans for transition. These local plans are established on the basis of the ECEC curriculum and primary school curriculum plans, and are intended to provide connections so that they support the continuity of children's learning processes (Sylva et al., 2015).

Support systems for transitions at later stages of education

As early student selection has been proved to have negative effects on educational attainment and further success in life, it should be deferred until upper secondary education with reinforcement of comprehensive schooling (OECD, 2012). GINI project findings demonstrated that the negative effects of early allocation to different tracks, streaming and grouping by ability can be reduced by limiting the duration of ability grouping, increasing the opportunities to change streams or tracks, and by providing high curricular standards for students in different tracks. GINI argues that a one-year postponement of the allocation into different tracks has a stronger effect on reducing inequality than a one-year increase of compulsory schooling (Meschi and Scervini, 2012).

As demonstrated by INCLUD-ED and wider research literature, educational reforms delaying allocation of student to different tracks until age 16 and unifying the curriculum in Sweden (1950s) and Finland (1980s) resulted in improved educational achievement (Brunello and Checchi, 2007). Different students' abilities and needs are met by various modes of teaching, collaboration between teachers, support from teaching assistants and small class sizes (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007a).The governance of the transition phases appears to be moving towards a customised system that supports individuals according to their personal needs or groups of people with a specific need such as immigrants who encounter language difficulties, for example, in the VaSkooli project in Finland (Dale et al., 2012).

Lessons for policy and practice

- Gradual, smooth transitions between education levels, particularly in the case of children from socially disadvantaged backgrounds, have a positive effect on children's learning experiences and ensure continuity within education systems;
- Possible strategies to ensure smooth transitions between ECEC and primary schools include: facilitating collaboration between ECEC educators and primary school teachers through local transition plans; ensuring curricula continuity between ECEC and primary school; and gradual transition aided by school visits for children still attending kindergarten;

- Repeating a year, i.e. grade retention, is detrimental to students' long-term social and academic development, but neither is it advisable to automatically promote pupils without support;
- Postponing the age at which children are tracked into different forms of provision helps ensuring continuity of the education process, which is crucial specifically for socially disadvantaged students. Countries where tracking is carried out early may facilitate the transition experience for children by increasing their opportunity to change tracks or streams, and by providing students across all tracks with high curricular standards.

3.3. Education governance

Education governance is essential for providing quality education and tackling educational inequalities. While at the system level education governance does not directly link to student performance and attainment, it shapes the conditions that determine student learning experiences and outcomes.

3.3.1. What are the links between ineffective governance and inequalities in education?

GOETE findings revealed that in Europe there has been a widespread 'fragmentation' and 'de-synchronisation' of policies, including the growing role of 'non-educational' public and third-sector organisations, and increasing discontinuities between different levels of governance (Dale et al., 2012). More specifically, the next section focuses on public funding strategies, the distribution of powers and functions across different levels of education, as well as on challenges arising in coordination and their influence on quality education provision.

Inadequate public spending schemes

Investing in education is an important element of governance. Education was among the first policy areas that faced budget cuts in the wake of the financial crisis in Europe, particularly in countries with large public deficits (Eurydice, 2013). In 2013, the EU spent on average 10.3 % of its public expenditure on education, which is 3.2% lower than in 2010 (European Commission, 2015a).

The research findings have shown, however, that variations in the resources devoted to schooling were not a primary factor in determining student performance and the quality of educational provision. The availability of resources is important, but it does not automatically improve educational attainment. It is not how much is spent, but how the funding is spent, that makes a bigger difference. INCLUD-ED and PROFIT confirmed this by showing that countries with similar levels of investment per student have different educational results. Overall, INCLUD-ED suggested that resources (measured as investment in education) can explain only about 19 % of the variation in student performance. Therefore, if there is no systematic relationship between the amount of resources spent (for example class size or per-student spending) and the skills that students acquire, schools are unlikely to improve their students' performance significantly by simply increasing their expenditure without at the same time changing how the expenditure is organised and distributed (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2009a). In some countries local authorities responsible for school maintenance and the quality of education receive resources from the central budget, based on the number of students in the municipality. PROFIT showed that such financing schemes provide municipalities with the wrong incentive, namely to preserve or even increase the number

of students in their schools rather than to improve the learning environment in the schools and invest in quality (Warzywoda-Kruszyńska et al., 2006).

Moreover, as indicated by CITISPYCE, funding based on headcounts may not always be sufficient for improvement and providing additional support for disadvantaged children in schools with small numbers of such children (Hussain and Higson, 2014). Schools having a relatively large number of pupils with a migrant background receive much greater funding in total compared to those with a small number of these pupils. This enables the former to apply a wider range of support measures but leaves the options for the latter rather limited (Magi and Siarova, 2014).

In practice, the funding resources that are currently directed towards the education system are used mainly for paying teacher salaries. In 2013, wages accounted for about 60 % of total public expenditure on education in the EU. Intermediate consumption[18] was the second largest budget item in most of the countries, and accounted for about 17 % of the total in the EU (European Commission, 2015a). This means that there are very few resources left for actual improvement of the learning environment and pedagogical strategies (PROFIT, 2007).

Decentralisation versus centralisation

While national governments continue to play a central role in education policies across Europe, the distribution of responsibilities and of authority have been evolving towards more decentralised systems in response to calls for greater efficiency, effectiveness, accountability and transparency. This shift reflects the need to make education systems sufficiently flexible and innovative to adapt to diversity and change and allow for the active participation of learners at all levels of the education process.

Research has confirmed that the level of autonomy set at the national level impacts on the extent to which schools can be innovative and efficient in addressing the specific needs of learners (Looney, 2009). Highly centralised systems tend to be more rigid and inefficient in tackling inequalities. All regional and local administrative bodies in such systems are supposed to be organised and function in the same way, regardless of their size, socioeconomic context and local labour-market situation. Such systems give local authorities peripheral roles, even if they try to develop actions to overcome some of the system limitations (Dale et al., 2012).

However, the GINI project highlighted that, if greater autonomy does not go hand in hand with proper accountability and a comprehensive system of monitoring for quality, simply increasing the autonomy of educational institutions can also have negative effects on equality. More precisely, it can foster differentiation among schools and universities, boost the attainment of better-endowed students, and leave behind students from weaker backgrounds (Soto Calvo, 2015; GINI, 2013).

Unclear division of responsibilities

Deficiencies in school functioning, as indicated by PROFIT, can also be caused by lack of coordination and synergy between different stakeholders when providing education for specific groups (PROFIT, 2007).

For example, poor coordination and a fragmented response is reported to be one of the main obstacles when it comes to the education of children in public care. Findings underline the importance of both integrating care and education services and coordinating them in order to

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[18] Intermediate consumption includes the purchase of goods and services needed to provide education services, such as electricity, stationary, paper, books, cleaning services, etc.

provide continued support to young people in need. However, as indicated by the YIPPEE research project, the education of children in care is often a shared responsibility of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Welfare, possibly leading to inconsistent services provided to these children due to dual accountability (Casas and Montserrat Boada, 2010).

In the case of lifelong learning, LLL2010 confirmed that the unclear division of responsibility between different agencies and institutions, and the ensuing confusion in the formulation and implementation of policy, is one of the main barriers faced by many countries in ensuring consistent quality of education. In all countries, lifelong learning policy is a cross-sectoral issue with links to education, the labour market and social policies. In some countries, the labour-market element prevails, which has led to a number of initiatives focused on employability and the development of human capital, rather than on broader personal development. Although effective coordination does not necessarily imply a single body, the lack of such a body leads to implementation challenges in many countries. Poor coordination can also be explained by the lack of a lifelong learning vision, ineffective arrangements at the local level and a lack of effective coordination structures in general (Holford et al., 2007).

Barriers to recognition of previous learning and qualifications

For those traditionally alienated from the formal school system, the more flexible non-formal educational sector can serve as a key bridge towards social inclusion, as shown by the results of LLL2010 (Saar and Roosalu, 2011). However, LLL2010 project findings demonstrated that the arrangements for recognising non-formal and informal learning are weak in the majority of the countries studied (Holford et al., 2007). While some countries have systems in place, the assessment required by this process may discourage certain people from engaging with learning, thus, potentially increasing social exclusion (LLL2010 Project Consortium, 2011).

The main obstacles to recognition of prior non-formal or informal learning include the lack of a national legal framework and guidelines, the absence of quality monitoring of non-formal educational sectors and poor regulation of competition between formal institutions and the non-formal sector. At the meso-level, LLL2010 demonstrated that there is not enough communication with students regarding opportunities for the recognition of prior learning, a lack of institutional pathways and a high administrative burden involved (Saar and Roosalu, 2011).

LLL2010 underlined a relative 'policy vacuum' and a lack of national priorities as regards non-formal education, which leads to the uneven development of this sector as well as to its potential absorption by the formal education sector. The project's conclusions called for increased focus on the transition and connection between the non-formal and formal education sectors (Saar and Roosalu, 2011). The recognition of learning and the development of a qualifications framework have been seen as important ways to ensure equality in adult learning and in lifelong learning in general (Holford et al., 2007).

In addition, the EUMARGINS, IMPROVE and KATARSIS projects emphasised that in some European countries a lack of systematic recognition of previous educational attainment can be another barrier to successful transitions to further education and/or the labour market, and this can complicate the inclusion of immigrants into the host society.

New migrants often face difficulties upon arrival: they undergo occupational downgrading and earn lower wages than natives with similar measured characteristics (Borjas 1990, 1994 in Kogan, 2015). One of the explanations for this is that the skills immigrants bring from abroad are not fully transferable to the new setting, or are even lost, which is often the case with human capital, social or cultural resources (Kogan et al., 2011 in Kogan, 2015). In addition, EUMARGINS found that the

prior education of adult immigrants may not be properly acknowledged in the host country (Kallas et al., 2011), which limits immigrants' opportunities to access the education level corresponding to their age and skill levels (Tierolf and Nederland, 2007).

3.3.2. How can education governance foster equality and inclusion?

Education systems are undergoing transformation as many countries continue to carry out education reforms. These reforms aim to alter educational governance structures, financial schemes, and curricula with the ultimate aim of improving the learning outcomes of young people. A number of solutions offered by the FP6 and FP7 projects reviewed are discussed below.

Promoting autonomy linked to accountability

As shown previously, the level of autonomy assigned to schools impacts on the extent to which they can be innovative and flexible in addressing specific learner needs; moreover, decentralised policies and municipal empowerment can foster new practices and their institutionalisation at higher (transnational) levels (Moulaert et al., 2010). At the institutional level, the findings of the survey conducted in the GOETE project pointed to the need to empower school principals relative to political authorities by increasing their autonomy and resources, as they lacked the room to manoeuvre and the decision-making power to address high expectations (Rinne et al., 2012). Centralisation, in turn, tends to lead to the opposite outcomes: for example, the GINI project found that increasing the degree of standardisation of curriculum was ineffective in reducing educational inequality (GINI, 2013).

However, greater autonomy may not necessarily help combat educational inequalities as it may foster differentiation among schools and universities, and can leave behind students from weaker socioeconomic backgrounds (GINI, 2013). To work effectively, it should be linked to comprehensive systems of accountability and quality assurance (Jensen and Iannone, 2015). A clear systematic framework and mechanisms for monitoring the quality of education provision can give a clear picture of the adjustments that need to be made due to the changing environment. Data is usually collected through external and internal school evaluation (quality assurance) complemented with that collected at the national level. Monitoring should function not only for the purpose of system maintenance but also as a 'watchful eye' over pupils and teachers. External and internal evaluation of schools and national sample testing of pupils are all good data sources (Eurydice, 2009). GOETE further argued that shifting the locus of accountability for educational governance from input to output (results driven) may appear to be a central tenet in making education systems more accountable both to those who benefit from them as well as to those who fund them (Rinne et al., 2012).

Providing sufficient funding

As discussed above, some projects emphasised that increasing funding does not by itself necessarily improve educational attainment; however, public spending that is well targeted may be beneficial in terms of improving educational systems. For example, in relation to the earliest stages of formal learning, the CARE study showed how resources for research and development work were increased in Norway to provide lecturers with a better knowledge of the ECEC field, and to ensure research-based professional education[19] (Jensen and Iannone, 2015). Regarding secondary education, RESL.eu project findings often indicated that the availability of sufficient and stable government funding was particularly crucial, especially in the context of the continuing

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[19] Overall, allocation to ECEC research tripled in the country between 2006 and 2014.

professionalisation of school staff and the employment of support staff to engage with students at risk of early school leaving (Nouwen et al., 2015).

EDUMIGROM and INCLUD-ED also reported that greater funding for particular areas and for educational institutions with more migrant children and children in care can help provide the additional teaching resources required to support the extra educational needs of disadvantaged young people. In this case, targeted funding instead of schemes based on head counts could be more effective in equipping schools with necessary resources to provide the conditions for inclusion (as in educational priority zones in France, which receive 10 % more funding to reduce class sizes in disadvantaged schools) (Szalai, 2011a).

LLL2010 also showed that public programmes to support adult education financially may also prove to be relevant in terms of achieving equality in educational opportunities, particularly for those holding low formal qualifications (Saar and Roosalu, 2011). Examples that have also proved effective include state support via tax relief schemes that incentivise individual education and investment in training, the collaboration of governments and social partners in facilitating employee access to training and lifelong learning, and specific regional programmes focused on employment and industrial development (Ederer et al., 2015).

Overall, efforts to better coordinate policies, increase autonomy, funding and monitoring are all relevant in terms of achieving an inclusive education environment in Europe. However, in relation to governance, the review of the European research projects revealed that a knowledge base on the exact measures proven to be effective is still relatively lacking.

Lessons for policy and practice

- An adequate level of autonomy, complimented by systems of accountability, quality assurance and clear divisions of responsibilities, enables municipalities and schools to be both innovative and flexible in addressing the specific needs of learners;
- Fragmentation of education systems has led to unclear divisions of responsibilities and ineffective implementation of national strategies. This is especially true in areas that are cross-sectoral, such as the education of children in care, formal and non-formal adult education, and VET;
- Targeted financing to disadvantaged schools improves educational provision for vulnerable groups;
- Non-formal and informal education still lack formal recognition and clear strategic direction in many Member States.

3.4. Flexibility of curricula and teacher preparedness

Accommodation of the ever-increasing diversity of cultures and abilities in existing schools poses a major challenge to teachers and curriculum. Several FP6 and FP7 projects (INCLUD-ED, EDUMIGROM, GOETE and LLL2010 in particular) looked at how diversity is reflected in the teaching content and teacher education across Europe and what impact it has on the promotion of equality and social inclusion.

3.4.1. What are the links between the quality of curricula and teacher preparedness for inequalities and social exclusion?

Uneven quality of teaching content

PROFIT findings pointed to a growing criticism of formal education curricula in some European education systems, identifying a lack of focus on social and decision-making skills and a lack of relevance in the content of teaching. Also, curriculum delivery can become challenging if it is seen as too rigid with insufficient teacher autonomy and the inflexibility of school curricula has especially negative effects on those whose abilities are lower or higher than the average (Warzywoda-Kruszyńska et al., 2006).

The EDUMIGROM study emphasised the importance of a curriculum reflecting the growing diversity of school populations. However, migration is often presented as a problem rather than as a potential resource in many education systems. Eurocentrism, blindness towards diversity or the opposite, explicit separation of different cultures, are all identified as elements contributing to the alienation of migrant children (Dale et al., 2012; Szalai, 2011a). Moreover, EUMARGINS findings suggested that even though proficiency in the language of instruction is a major tool and precondition for learning, many schools are not always guided by an explicit coherent language policy that is informed by research and adapted to the different levels of the education system (Paasche and Fangen, 2011).

In addition, RESL.eu and GOETE projects emphasised that the quality of content and teaching may also vary across private and public schools. The dichotomy between state schools and private schools - the latter largely attended by children from the upper middle class – is not reflected in policy discourse, as private schools do not fall under the same regulatory demands as state schools (Ryan et al., 2014). While GOETE findings illustrated that private provision of education (for example, confessional schools in the Netherlands) may be beneficial in terms of alternative curricula and pedagogical arrangements, it also emphasised that a high proportion of private schools also contributes to unequal access to education (Parreira do Amaral et al., 2011). In addition, NESSE (2011) highlighted that the private supplementary tutoring practiced throughout the EU can have a negative influence on the quality of mainstream schooling by giving perverse incentives to teachers to encourage more tutoring by not giving highest quality classes.

At the level of higher education, privatisation has also led to quality differences in education across institutions and the devaluation of higher education as a whole. As indicated by PROFIT, there is no longer a direct link between graduation from higher education and the opportunity to get a better job and be upwardly mobile in social and economic terms, which can also be explained by the labour market factors (PROFIT, 2007).

Another quality-related issue is faced by VET systems, which are not seen as attractive (see Section 4.2). As illustrated by PROFIT study findings, the perception of VET as lower in status and prestige than general education is further exacerbated by the fact that in some countries vocational education is not considered to be sufficiently practical and work-based (Warzywoda-Kruszyńska et al., 2006); and some vocational training schools lack sufficient teaching staff (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b).

Lack of teacher preparedness

INCLUD-ED, EDUMIGROM and YIPPEE found that many teachers do not have the necessary skills and knowledge to tackle educational inequalities through their pedagogical practices. For instance, teachers can lack sensitivity when it comes to the insecurities and difficulties

experienced by pupils with different ethnic/migrant backgrounds. Observations showed that teachers often attribute the causes of educational failure to external factors: students' disadvantaged situation, a lack of motivation and belief in the importance of education on the part of the family, and a lack of socialisation in the values important for the school (Szalai, 2011a; INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b). Moreover, numerous interviews with teachers demonstrated that many of them thought that ethnic separation was an unavoidable outcome and rarely considered that school can be an active agent in the process of integration (Szalai, 2011b).

The literature on the inclusion of disabled students and young people from a public care background (INCLUD-ED and YIPPEE projects in particular) identified the lack of adequate teacher preparedness as one of the barriers to inclusion (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b; Jackson and Cameron, 2011). Despite the fact that classrooms in many countries are heterogeneous in terms of ability and special needs students are included in the classroom, teachers find it difficult to use group work or collaborative methods to teach mixed classrooms and continue using traditional lecture-style didactic methods.

Despite the evident need, teacher training and professional development in many European countries do not include courses or modules to prepare teachers to understand and accommodate diversity in the classroom. According to Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) conducted by OECD, teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting is one of the priority areas where teachers in many European countries reported the greatest need for professional development to tackle current deficits (OECD, 2014).

3.4.2. How can improving the quality of content and teacher preparedness facilitate inclusion and equality?

Establishing an inclusive curriculum

As demonstrated earlier, a proportion of students in EU Member States are not being fully engaged in education due to a culturally impervious, rigid and inflexible curriculum. The idea behind an inclusive curriculum is that mainstream education should adapt to the various needs of the learners and strive to implement the universal human right to education for all (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007a).

INCLUD-ED outlined a number of strategies for developing curricula that include a multicultural perspective reflecting the diversity of the student body. According to INCLUD-ED, incorporating multiculturalism as a topic in the instruction of languages and social sciences can help students to develop critical thinking and understand societal processes better. In some schools, separate subjects on tolerance and multiculturalism prove to be effective in promoting understanding between cultures. Even when distinct cultural perspectives are not directly addressed in the curriculum provided by ministries or local governments, teachers themselves can acknowledge the presence of different cultures in their classrooms. Moreover, the evidence showed that, when multicultural topics are delivered by individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds, students experience a positive impact on their learning (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b). Introducing multi-cultural curricula coupled with targeted support, such as the provision of bilingual classes, has proved to be an effective integration strategy for newly arrived migrant children in Denmark and Sweden, as demonstrated by EDUMIGROM (Szalai, 2011a).

According to the research evidence from the INCLUD-ED study, the most successful educational actions for inclusion, overcoming early school leaving and the risk of exclusion, use the same curricula standards and learning objectives for all learners. To support the pupils in need, institutions employ specific strategies for extra support, which may involve additional human or

time resources, or special types of curricula planning. One such method is the development of an inclusive individualised curriculum, which adapts teaching methods to each student's learning needs in order to maximise his/her learning potential. The Individualised Education Plan in Finland, for example, also helps to monitor the progress of the students with special educational needs (SEN) and provide extra support measures if and when they are needed (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a). Tailoring the curriculum can be a useful tool to facilitate access to mainstream education for students with disabilities; however, the common framework should be maintained to the extent possible. Flexible learning objectives and activities are potential strategies to improve the curriculum and make it accessible to diverse students. ICT has facilitated learning for this group of students, by improving their communication skills and overcoming some of the barriers they face in education, work and other areas of social life (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b). Provision of personal assistants to accompany teachers in the classroom is also among the strategies that increase the accessibility of learning for SEN children.

Providing opportunities for teacher training for diversity

Educating teachers to overcome the challenges and capitalise on the opportunities afforded by diversity is a complex and multifaceted endeavour. There is ample evidence that one-off courses on a specific topic are not sufficient to bring about lasting behavioural change. Although most initial teacher education programmes include some form of diversity training, it is often in the form of a single module or elective course, which is unlikely to have a major lasting impact throughout a teacher's career.

To manage learner diversity, teachers should first of all have an understanding of the diverse backgrounds of their students matched by the relevant skills to deal with these differences (Rinne et al., 2012). This implies not only basic knowledge about different ethnic cultural backgrounds developed during teacher education (Gay, 2010), but also the skills necessary to integrate pupils, particularly in terms of developing academic language. The Finnish example overviewed by INCLUD-ED suggested that initial and in-service teacher training based on relevant scientific research, combining significant theory and practice is an effective measure to promote diversity (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a).

In order to support all learners, teachers should be competent in providing different types of instruction, as well as using different pedagogical resources to ensure equal learning opportunities for all pupils. To develop this competence, teachers should themselves have experience with learning in various groups and heterogeneous classrooms, using different learning methods, materials and approaches (Bishop, 2010). As illustrated by EUMARGINS, having a workforce that represents the ethnic diversity of the local community helps to overcome language and cultural barriers when communicating with parents and involving them in the school. EDUMIGROM also confirmed that when teachers from ethnic minority backgrounds were part of the staff, they not only helped to untangle interethnic tensions, but also provided valuable role models of success for ethnic minority students. This is even more significant if ethnic minority teachers teach subjects that do not relate to their ethnic background (Szalai, 2011b).

In policy agenda, most teacher competence frameworks (developed to a different extent across European countries) include awareness of diversity issues as one of the competence areas that future teachers have to acquire (Caena, 2014). In practice, however, teacher-training programmes are largely failing to prepare teachers to implement intercultural education. Although some focus on intercultural education is included in the teacher-training curriculum, it is usually given a low priority and is often not mandatory.

Professional development of teachers is also very important in the adult education sector. LLL2010 highlighted that the adult education sector needs well-trained professionals who can work in secure and continuous employment contracts. On the one hand, they must be specialists in the subjects they are teaching; on the other hand, they need to master teaching skills such as the use of appropriate didactical methods and psychological insight. The pedagogical skills of teachers in adult education thus play a major role in supporting learners and fostering their active involvement in the learning process. LLL2010 highlighted the importance of examining the competence profiles of teachers, planning professional development according to the teachers' needs, and encouraging the exchange of experiences in teacher training for adult education (Holford et al., 2007).

Lessons for policy and practice

- Flexible and culturally relevant curricula facilitate the inclusion of more children;
- Teacher education and continuing professional development do not currently provide teachers with the skills and competences necessary to face the challenges of diversity, nor do they provide intercultural education, multi-lingual teaching, etc.;
- Students respond well and perform better if their teachers reflect the diversity of the school population and serve as their role models of success.

Chapter 4.   Measures and practices promoting inclusion in and through education and training

This chapter focuses on measures and practices promoting inclusion in and through education and training. More specifically it discusses inclusive school practices, vocational, adult education and training, informal and non-formal learning and cross-sectoral synergies.

4.1. Inclusive school practices

School practices are inclusive when they cover a broad range of schooling experiences and succeed in helping children with diverse backgrounds and abilities to be happy and effective learners. Inclusive school practices aim to create caring, disciplined and fair schools (Leicester, 2008).

In the projects analysed, measures for inclusive school practices looked mainly at: the impact of school-level factors on the performance, educational and life trajectories of students from different backgrounds; the accessibility of education and measures for addressing inequality and promoting inclusion in schools; and ways in which schools and educational strategies provide young people with capabilities to function as active citizens.

4.1.1. A holistic approach in school education

The holistic approach views schools as multidimensional and interactive systems that can learn, change and grow and involves strong support to schools when tackling complex issues such as growing diversity, inequalities and social exclusion (European Commission, 2015b). A holistic approach is an overall school style aimed at every child's comprehensive development, encompassing academic, emotional and non-cognitive aspects (Leicester, 2008).

Projects reviewed have demonstrated that schools which implement **diversity-conscious policies** with **multicultural curricula** help to enhance equal opportunities, foster good student relations, and promote positive self-identification for children from disadvantaged backgrounds. EDUMIGROM findings suggested that one of the key characteristics of such schools is that they mix students in all activities, and have a strong focus on multiculturalism and diversity, which is reflected in their curricula and employment practices. Minority ethnic students are more successful in school when there is a coherent ethos and leadership and where school staff are aware of the issues and employ flexible pedagogical methods suitable for addressing the needs of diverse students (Szalai, 2011a).

Supplementary schools that provide ethnically oriented education help to keep students with a minority background closer to their culture and language. RESL.eu shed light on additional part-time education schemes established to meet the needs of ethnic minority children, their families and broader communities (Wei, 2006). 'Mother-tongue schools' or 'community language schools' have been labelled 'complementary schools' as they complement mainstream education (Creese et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2003). Activities usually take place outside regular school hours and encompass classes on mother-tongue language, religion, culture, sports, music, theatre, and sometimes maths. Supplementary schools are mostly created and organised by community volunteers and are often located at community centres, youth clubs, religious institutions or sometimes mainstream schools. Their voluntary origins mean that these schools are of a grassroots nature and very often have rather limited funds available (Evans and Gillan-Thomas, 2015; Maylor et al., 2013). Research has suggested that the supplementary schools have a positive effect on the development of pupils' identity, on their well-being, self-worth, behaviour, learning processes and attainment levels in mainstream education (Maylor et al., 2013).

A holistic approach is also beneficial to migrant students, providing them with easier integration and improved learning outcomes, particularly interactive language learning and highlighting their capabilities. According to INCLUD-ED, a '**reading buddies**' programme has been especially successful in Spain - it seeks to mix disadvantaged students (including those with a migrant background or disabilities) with 'regular' students of different ages. The key goal of reading buddies is to increase children's vocabulary, develop their self-esteem and social skills as well as to enhance their attachment to reading (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008a). Other innovative methods directed at minority students such as culturally relevant pedagogy, anti-racist education, supervised curricula, introduction of cooperative educational models and the examination of teachers' roles have also been successfully employed (Szalai, 2011a).

The integration of students with special needs into the classrooms is another key characteristic of schools employing a holistic approach. RESL.eu showed that grouping students according to abilities stigmatises students and is detrimental to their overall well-being and sense of belonging in the school environment (Clycq et al., 2014). Children with special needs can be evenly placed among heterogeneous classrooms in terms of ability, gender and ethnicity, and can therefore benefit from mainstream education while receiving personalised assistance taking their needs into account. Overall, heterogeneous student groupings improve the achievement level of the whole group and create a more productive environment for teachers.

RESL.eu claims that a holistic multi-professional approach is crucial for tackling early school leaving efficiently and that it is important to focus on the emotional detachment from school (Clycq et al., 2014). The project suggested that limitations can be explained by meso- and macro-level factors, both of which can stimulate and discourage students from taking an early school leaving decision, rather than by individual-level factors. It also suggested that high-quality career guidance complements the success of a given student's educational and professional path. This support

should be individualised, directly relevant and applicable in a specific situation. Other measures include inviting appropriate role models to speak to students, giving students more freedom, creating a sense of ownership, and proposing relevant traineeships to get hands-on skills (Nouwen et al., 2015).

4.1.2. Positive learning and teaching environments

A positive learning and teaching environment is important for ensuring student performance and overall well-being. Research has shown that students have more motivation to perform well in a stimulating and secure learning environment (Safe Schools Action Team, 2008) and cohesion and openness to collaboration contributes to creating a positive learning atmosphere in a school community including school staff, students and parents or guardians.

Wider literature shows that achieving a positive learning environment requires continuous comprehensive effort combining prevention and intervention strategies at individual, classroom and school levels (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2013). Teachers play a key role in creating a positive classroom environment and applying a student-centred approach, including seeking to understand their students' experiences, treating them with respect and openness, building genuine personal relationships with pupils, promoting self-confidence, giving them feedback, and avoiding formal didactic teaching styles (Leicester, 2008).

EDUMIGROM illustrated that local school policies aimed at **promoting the diversity** of both the student population and teaching staff lead to positive changes. Academic achievements of ethnic minority students increase when there is dedicated local leadership at schools and in municipal administrations (Szalai, 2011b). In addition, EDUMIGROM showed that **ethnically mixed school environments** simplify the acceptance of differences in terms of social class or ethnic origin. Students' experiences at school are strongly influenced by the ethnic composition of the school staff, particularly by the presence or absence of ethnic minority teachers. Such teachers can constitute role models for students who may lack sufficient self-confidence to continue studies. In addition, the presence of an ethnic minority teacher is linked to students being less hostile and more tolerant towards children from other ethnic groups (Szalai, 2011a).

Fostering **good relations between peers** is a positive element of school environments as it stimulates students' knowledge and better understanding of race and ethnicity. Moreover, relationships of trust between students and educators/carers are a key element for creating a sense of belonging to a community and boosting motivation to continue education, as demonstrated by YiPPEE (Jackson and Cameron, 2011). EUMARGINS showed that the integration of students with a migrant background into the school environment is influenced by the national education system's specific approach to integration. In France, the overarching principle of equality through assimilation is sometimes considered to be an obstacle to the expression and promotion of students' diverse ethnic and cultural identities. On the other hand, classroom diversity has been purposefully addressed in countries with a long history of diversity and multiculturalism, such as the United Kingdom, Sweden and Norway, all of which promote integrationist or multiculturalist approaches. In countries with a relatively short history of immigration such as Italy and Spain, or with major demographic challenges such as Estonia, the growth of cultural diversity and its impact on education pose major challenges highlighting the lack of policies aimed at dealing with issues related to ethnic diversity in schools (Sarin and Fangen, 2011; Fangen, 2011).

Teachers' attitudes, beliefs and expectations towards their students play an important role in how well students perform and in their attitudes towards school and social integration. EDUMIGROM demonstrated that teachers who appreciated minority students and transformed

issues into pedagogical challenges had better results in integrating ethnic minority and socially disadvantaged students into their classrooms (Szalai, 2011b). Research showed that successful intercultural education is achieved by teachers who manage to teach in a different way using the existing curricula (INCLUDE-ED Consortium, 2007c). EDUMIGROM suggested that a teacher's attitude, personality, creativity and preparedness were more important than knowledge of the discipline of instruction for fostering dialogue with the students, encouraging student involvement, and general performance at school (Szalai, 2011a). The learning environment is also considered positive when it integrates students with disabilities and creates a welcoming environment by organising various school events to celebrate children's special abilities, for example through sports or arts. The project also showed that when students are taught by innovative teachers in a favourable school environment without social exclusion and other forms of marginalisation, they develop self-reliance and self-esteem (Szalai, 2011b).

4.1.3. Innovative pedagogies

Teaching practices applied in the classroom are important for student holistic development, building trust-based relationships between students and teachers and for stimulating student interest in contributing to the learning process. Working with diverse classrooms requires applying innovative teaching techniques for which teacher preparedness and attitudes are particularly relevant. Research has suggested that teachers' responses to diverse student populations are very different depending on whether they use innovative creative pedagogies or are informed by traditional teaching methods based on the teacher's authority. Teachers who introduce new approaches can therefore become 'genuine laboratories of pedagogical innovation' (EDUMIGROM; see Szalai, 2011a).

Dialogic learning is an example of innovative pedagogy organised through interactive groups that promote cooperation between students and teachers and sometimes involve other adults (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007b). Interactive group classrooms are quite small, with a mix of students with different capabilities supervised by an adult: a classroom teacher with assistance from community volunteers, family members, former students, interns. This example shows how the same human resources can be reorganised and used more effectively for social inclusion in the classroom. Dialogic learning promotes learning-related interactions, brings new experiences and exposures and helps to overcome the negative effects of streaming and educational failure (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007b).

Stable **peer networks** stimulate a pupil's resilience, sense of belonging and academic self-concept. When peers cooperate in the learning process, they develop a common sense of their capacity to make a difference; the process stimulates a sense of appreciation for one another and shows teachers and parents an alternative perspective on the competencies of these children (RESL.eu, see Clycq et al., 2014). In **cooperative learning** the reliance on sharing different capacities makes people more competent (Del Rio in INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007a, p. 15).

INCLUD-ED also illustrated that **employing ICT** helps students with motor disabilities by offering them easier access to the learning process and for communication, demonstrating their knowledge, controlling their environment or accessing the curricula (INCLUDE-ED Consortium, 2012b).

4.1.4. The need for cross-policy synergies and multi-professional partnerships

Multi-stakeholder partnerships refer to a school's efforts to include diverse actors in the learning process. Different stakeholders can bring a range of complementary perspectives to solving complex problems (European Commission, 2015b) and propose solutions that are tailored to

pupils' specific needs. Partnerships may take different forms and operate at different levels, taking into account national circumstances and other factors.

INCLUD-ED revealed that jointly coordinated work and effective networking between **community actors** (private sector, NGOs and public sector administrations) can be crucial, notably for resource optimisation. In Slovenia, stakeholders cooperate in the area of health, promoting Schools Network and the MURA programme which aims to provide training for a healthier lifestyle (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a). NEUJOBS showed that **school-community partnerships** are an important driving force for innovation in schools. Schools practising such partnerships engage a wide spectrum of actors, including primary care services, voluntary and community organisations as well as local authorities. Such partnerships are beneficial in providing better individual support corresponding to a variety of individual needs.

RESL.eu has also shown that close **school-parent ties** improve student attendance and grades, foster sustainable relationships between schools, parents and children, and are likely to reduce early school leaving (Pyle and Wexler, 2011 in Nouwen et al., 2015). INCLUD-ED demonstrated that the involvement of parents in learning activities, curriculum development and evaluation, or school decision-making processes improves school quality and has a direct positive impact on children's academic success (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a).

4.1.5. Early warning systems (EWS)

Being treated as equal partners in their children's education is especially important for parents with a disadvantaged, migrant and/or minority background. INCLUD-ED suggested that one of the transformative aspects in communication between school and family members is the use of technology (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b). Some schools use internet-based systems (E-class) or SMS to keep family members informed about their children's academic performance and school attendance. The extent and nature of relationships between teachers and parents can have a particular influence on educators' attitudes towards Roma students. According to EDUMIGROM, when teachers had very little contact with parents, they depicted Roma children in a negative way, while teachers who were in constant contact with parents tended to understand better the problems of the families (Szalai, 2011a).

Individualised student monitoring is one way to identify student needs at an early stage and consolidate their learning processes. Simple systems for detecting school dropout have been found to be neither sufficient nor sustainable, as they may allow problems to accumulate or worsen. Hence, early detection and constant monitoring are two crucial interconnected aspects for identifying potential school drop-out. Early warning systems (EWS) serve as a basis for more tangible strategies and concrete measures and contribute to tackling early school leaving by focusing on early indicators reflecting educational progress or failure. Some systems focus on a family's socioeconomic status, grades and non-attendance rates; other focus on the development of one-to-one relations of trust to detect early signals. For example, some Belgian schools complement the detection and monitoring of students (based upon truancy rates and academic progress records) with periodic discussions between teachers and pupils to review progress. Overall, a clear advantage of this approach is that teachers assess the socio-emotional well-being of pupils in a more fine-grained way, as demonstrated by RESL.eu (Nouwen et al., 2015).

Early warning systems (EWS) also vary in the degree to which they are comprehensive. Fully comprehensive systems take into account students' family conditions, and their behavioural, cognitive and emotional dimensions; while less comprehensive ones focus on one specific dimension, usually on the behavioural or the cognitive elements (Nouwen et al., 2015). RESL.eu suggested that schools tackle these educational challenges and early school leaving (ESL) by

collecting data on the early signs of problematic schooling trajectories. For example, in Hungary, individual educational programmes prepared and approved by teachers, parents and other involved actors include individual plans specifying students' needs and development objectives. In the Netherlands, ESL policy includes monitoring as a means for early signalling of dropping out from school. INCLUD-ED underlined that collaboration between different actors is important for dealing with EWS effectively (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008a). As schools often receive public funding for EWS, they tend to adapt a broader policy framework designed by local, regional and/or national governments. In addition, this early detection is at least partially performed by governmental agencies when extra funding for schools depends on the number of students at risk. RESL.eu suggested that schools must be capable of interpreting risk factors and applying adequate measures when designing and implementing early warning systems. Crucially this capacity requires the professionalisation of teachers and proper support for them and addressing emotional well-being as well as educational achievement, truancy and transgressive behaviour. EWS sometimes consider only students with academic or behavioural problems to be at risk and overlook others with emotional difficulties. It is recommended that the efficiency of EWS should be evaluated according to the intervention measures that are developed to address low levels of pupils' cognitive, emotional and behavioural engagement (Nouwen et al., 2015).

4.1.6. Targeted support

Targeted support refers to any kind of school-level measures aimed at improving the performance of children who need additional support (for example, with behavioural problems). It can consist of tutoring and assistance with homework for underperforming children, teaching assistants and individualised support for children with special needs, social skills training, peer mentoring, language and culture clubs, and so on (Coelho, 2012; Crone et al., 2003; Todd et al., 2008). Previous research has demonstrated the effectiveness of targeted interventions in the context of less frequent problematic child behaviour (Crone et al., 2003; Lewis and Sugai, 1999; Todd et al., 2008). However, it should be emphasised that targeted support has to be well integrated so that pupils do not feel singled out or discriminated against (Matsumoto, 2013). Below are several examples of effective targeted support.

INCLUD-ED provided an example of **all-day schools** and **open school systems** targeting students with learning difficulties. These schools provide educational programmes that serve as additional support for students from disadvantaged backgrounds. All-day schools practice extended school hours allowing children to receive additional support through their family members and teachers; they especially attract pupils with a migrant background, allowing them to receive language courses and integrate more easily into regular classrooms (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007b). Secondary schools offer learning mentors who provide individualised assistance to disadvantaged students in order to meet their learning needs. Most often, parents and volunteering adults act as learning mentors for foreign-speaking students and those with disabilities (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b).

Wider literature has demonstrated that learning the language of instruction has a crucial impact on succeeding in and integrating into school (Verhoeven, 1998, in INCLUD-ED, 2007c). There is strong evidence that children without the proficiency in the language of instruction are more likely to be allocated to special education and to lower ability streams (European Commission, 2015c). **Language support programmes** benefit migrant students as they tend to reduce the relative underachievement of these students compared to their peers. The most commonly used methods include reception classrooms, intensive language classes and transitional classes. Moreover, teachers with an ethnic minority background are especially valuable as 'cultural brokers' and/or bilingual teachers, as demonstrated by EDUMIGROM (Szalai, 2011a).

Tutoring programmes are one of the main types of academic support measures directed at students who need additional help to learn educational content. These include: catch-up classes for general educational content; help with learning the language of instruction; assistance in preparing homework; and support in preparing for state exams. According to RESL.eu, tutoring programmes are an effective method to keep students' academic competence at a satisfactory level, nurture students' attachment to school, reduce family stress, and advance skills and attitudes that improve performance at school (Nouwen et al., 2015).

Socio-emotional and behavioural support improves students' emotional well-being. RESL.eu reviewed examples of such individual support that consisted of counselling, coaching and mentoring. Findings suggested that in most schools using these methods, attention is primarily focused on the most obvious symptoms, such as non-attendance, disruptive behaviour and deteriorating study performance, while emotional and behavioural support remains marginal and is often provided too late. Such responses could be described as punitive and stigmatising rather than supportive. An active and supportive approach is considered to be most effective, as it seeks to prevent motivational and behavioural problems. An important precondition for schools to offer professional support is access to and availability of sufficient funding as well as a willingness on the part of professional carers to build relationships of trust with students (Nouwen et al., 2015).

Lessons for policy and practice

- Schools that implement diversity-conscious policies and culturally sensitive curricula help to enhance equal opportunities for more students, foster good relationships, and boost positive self-identification of children from disadvantaged social backgrounds;
- Supplementary schools (extra-curricular education) have a positive effect on pupils' well-being, their development of identity and self-worth, and on their behaviour and educational success in mainstream education;
- Heterogeneous groupings of students improve academic achievement and create a more inclusive environment. The practice also supports students in obtaining better social skills and nurtures a capacity to be more autonomous;
- Positive, stimulating and secure learning and teaching environments are important to ensure students' successful academic performance and overall well-being;
- Teachers' beliefs, devotion, expectations and attitudes towards their students play a crucial role in students' achievements, perceptions of their school and overall social integration;
- The school experience of students from migrant and/or minority backgrounds is strongly influenced by the ethnic composition of the school staff. Ethnic minority teachers facilitate integration and serve as role models for ethnic minority students;
- Innovative pedagogies and practices such as web-based, cooperative or learner-centred approaches help to transform schools into learning communities and positively affect children's learning experiences and outcomes;
- The engagement of relevant stakeholders – including parents, civil society, public and private sector organisations – in the learning process contributes to improving pupils' learning experience and overall well-being;
- Early warning systems together with comprehensive systems of monitoring are effective measures for tackling early school leaving because they concentrate on key indicators that reflect student progress;

- School-level policies and interventions aimed at improving the performance of children who need additional support are made more effective by targeted support tools, including: all-day and open schools, linguistic support, individualised support, tutoring programmes, socioemotional and behavioural support.

4.2. Vocational, adult education and training, informal and non-formal learning

This chapter focuses on the role and relevance of vocational education and training (VET), adult education, and informal and non-formal forms of learning[20] for tackling the multiple aspects of educational inequalities examined in this report.

4.2.1. Importance of quality VET

Vocational training systems have proven to have positive outcomes for the economy (Euler, 2013), youth employment (Quintini, et al., 2007; Eurofound, 2012) and for students' educational outcomes (Alet and Bonnal, 2013), particularly for those facing or at risk of educational underachievement (Ryan, 1998). EQUALSOC findings pointed out that VET enhances smoother and faster labour-market integration in comparison to other academic forms of education. While the merit of VET in facilitating school-to-work transitions has been proven (EQUALSOC Network, 2011), INCLUD-ED findings also suggested that by participating in vocational training, individuals become more likely to return to education for further or higher qualifications (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012c).

Nevertheless, vocational education and training faces a number of issues such as a lack of attractiveness (Szalai, 2011a; Cedefop, 2014), high dropout rates, low attainment levels, social exclusion and marginalisation (Ryan et al., 2014). In the last two decades, several EU Member States have implemented reforms aimed at improving vocational training and making it more attractive, for example by bringing vocational routes under the responsibility of schools; enriching the VET curricula with academic subjects and hence moving towards convergence between different educational tracks (Szalai, 2011a); or improving the teacher-student ratio (Ryan et al., 2014).

Projects reviewed here have identified successful measures to support the quality of VET systems. WORKABLE findings highlighted effective practices to support the reinsertion of job seekers into the labour market in the context of the French continuous vocational training (CVT) system. In this framework, learners participating in training courses have access to a return-to-work training allowance, while individual employment contracts include a training component. Apart from CVT, social insertion contracts aimed at long-term unemployed young people alternate periods of work and training, which helps them to acquire a professional qualification and supports their professional and social (re)integration (Lambert et al., 2010). These measures have enhanced the efficacy of the French VET system, to support labour market and social inclusion, as well as to improve its attractiveness for disadvantaged young people.

INCLUD-ED findings on vocational training schools demonstrated that inclusive educational practices have a positive impact on learners' academic results and social inclusion (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008b; INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2008c; INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2011). VET

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[20] Definitions of non-formal and informal learning are available here: http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/events-and-projects/projects/validation-non-formal-and-informal-learning/european-inventory/european-inventory-glossary.

classrooms, characterised by heterogeneity of ability, ethnicity, gender, religion and social background, help to foster inclusion and good results. Moreover, particularly effective practices include promoting high expectations and supporting the belief that all students are capable of achieving good results, encouraging an ethos of inclusion in schools, and empowering students in school and classroom decision-making processes. Including multicultural perspectives in regular and vocational training programmes also helped to enhance cross-cultural dialogue and build cohesion in schools. Finally, effective inclusive practices include stimulating and supporting the participation of girls and young women in technical vocational fields, promoting the participation of female experts from all parts of the community, and raising awareness in favour of empowering girls in vocational careers as well as among companies in technical and crafts-related fields.

4.2.2. Adult education and work-based learning

Adults with educational attainment below upper secondary level represent about a quarter of the European adult population (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). EQUALSOC findings suggested that increasingly rapid technological and organisational changes, as well as the instability of the European labour market, have highlighted the importance of updating skills and maintaining employees' learning capacity in order to avoid unemployment and socioeconomic marginalisation (EQUALSOC Network, 2011). LLL2010 findings underlined the fact that in order to facilitate access and participation, it is necessary to consider diverse forms of adult formal education and take into account the particular situations and needs of adult learners (Saar and Roosalu, 2011).

Evidence has shown that formal adult education can provide an avenue for low-qualified employees to enter the labour market (Hefler, 2010) and demonstrated a link between continuing training and more skilled work (Dieckhoff et al. 2007, in EQUALSOC Network, 2011). Lifelong training has positive outcomes on employability and employees' skills and creativity (Studená et al., 2015). In addition to providing individuals with relevant skills, lifelong learning at the workplace and adult learning in general contribute to social and labour inclusion (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012c; Saar and Roosalu, 2011), promote access to promising educational pathways such as higher education for employees (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012c) and facilitate upward social mobility, particularly when combined with other sources of 'competitive advantage', such as a combination of work-based competencies and educational attainment (LLL2010; see Hefler, 2010).

There are various compensation measures aimed at creating opportunities for those who left education and training prematurely but want to gain qualifications at a later stage in their life. They are intended to create second-chance learning opportunities, develop tailored activities focusing on the reintegration of young adults into mainstream education, or offer a combination of work-education programmes (Clycq et al., 2014). Decentralised learning institutions such as community-based lifelong learning centres are effective types of outreach measures aimed at reaching disadvantaged or marginalised communities and individuals (LLL2010 Project Consortium, 2011; Saar and Roosalu, 2011). The development of integrated and strategic outreach policies by schools and formal education institutions has been identified as a good practice for reaching and recruiting socioeconomically marginalised adult learners. Moreover, organisational support for formal adult education is directly influenced by the established learning culture: the cultural dimensions of a workplace can determine the opportunities for learning, contributing to the performance of the enterprise and to well-being of the employees (LLL2010, see Hefler, 2010; Saar and Roosalu, 2011).

Another category of measures is aimed at promoting adult learning and targets migrants. Introductory programmes, including language courses, cultural skills and assistance in entering

the labour market, have proved to be useful tools to allow migrants to develop their skills, improve their learning careers, increase their employability and integrate into society (Hefler et al., 2010; Kallas et al., 2011; Sarin and Fangen, 2011). In some cases, such measures are aimed at both migrants and employers, for example through tax incentives. INCLUD-ED findings showed that training activities promoted by public employment agencies or provided in the workplace can also support migrants in participating in vocational training, finding work opportunities, reducing prejudice and improving cultural understanding (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012b; 2012c). Strategies providing free learning at flexible times, delivering preparation for admission, and modular courses have helped parents from disadvantaged and/or migrant groups to be more involved in their children's education (LLL2010, see Saar and Roosalu, 2011). Moreover, INCLUDED-ED findings illustrated that programmes promoting the participation of the whole family in the learning process, literacy and health literacy, have a positive impact on parents' professional opportunities, interest and aspirations in education, and social cohesion in general (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012b; 2012c).

4.2.3. Informal and non-formal learning

While some projects have shown that informal and non-formal learning activities can enhance skills and promote creativity, others underlined the capacity of informal and non-formal learning to promote active citizenship, social inclusion and reduce early school leaving. Research has shown that informal and non-formal learning is quantitatively more important than formal learning in many EU countries (Korpi and Tahlin, 2009, in EQUALSOC Network, 2011; Ederer et al., 2015) and leads to the development of new forms of work organisation based on high-performance work practices that emphasise employee involvement and development. Informal learning has a strong impact on the skills level of jobs (EQUALSOC Network, 2011), employability, job security and wage levels (Ederer et al., 2015). LLLIGHTinEUROPE results demonstrated that socially mediated, informal work-related learning activities such as learning-by-doing, vicarious (or indirect) learning, experimental learning and action learning lead to a high level of engagement in innovative behaviour. Findings highlighted the importance of investing in programmes focused on the specific workplace in order to trigger employee-driven innovation and entrepreneurship. Research findings have also shown that since most non-formal learning takes place in the workplace with the financial and non-financial support of employers, effective policy measures in this area need input from, and coordination with, employers (Studená et al., 2015). The learning and entrepreneurial orientations of an organisation, as well as flat hierarchies and a high degree of autonomy for employees, are key drivers for innovation (Ederer et al., 2015).

Engagement in non-formal and informal learning is linked with active citizenship in society and democratic life, and serves as a key bridge towards social inclusion (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012c; LLL2010 Project Consortium, 2011; SI-DRIVE, 2015; YiPPEE, see Jackson and Cameron, 2011). Individuals can participate in informal learning through diverse activities such as sports, social activities and voluntary work, as well as through various kinds of expressive arts. Involvement in such activities leads to positive results for the participants' learning identity, sense of self-worth, participation in society and choice of formal learning programmes. Most particularly, in the context of activities aimed at disadvantaged youth, informal learning can compensate for their lack of opportunities and enable them to gain skills, knowledge and useful networks, as demonstrated by LLL2010 (Downes, 2011; Jackson and Cameron, 2011). In Belgium, non-formal learning activities have aimed to bring various learning opportunities as close as possible to low-skilled and unskilled adults through decentralised courses, and by involving community leaders and networks in order to reach marginalised communities more effectively (Downes, 2011).

The non-formal educational sector can indeed be a key bridge towards social inclusion for those traditionally alienated from the formal educational system, thanks to a more inclusive and flexible learning environment (LLL2010 Project Consortium, 2011). By emphasising personal and community development, as well as by training community leaders to be organisers and tutors themselves, non-formal learning can offer an opportunity for adult learners to gain academic, professional and social confidence and can represent a key space for nurturing motivation and moving forward into the formal education system. Community-based non-formal learning in local and decentralised lifelong learning centres can play a key role in supporting underprivileged learners in gaining access to education. Non-formal learning can help individuals access opportunities to obtain recognition for previously-acquired skills, gain experience and knowledge, access outreach initiatives and education relevant to their emotional development. Finally, non-formal learning can build bridges towards access to formal education: evidence shows that participating in non-formal learning can enhance motivation and eagerness to join a formal education programme (LLL2010, see Downes, 2011; Saar and Roosalu, 2011).

Lessons for policy and practice

- Lifelong learning often does not sufficiently attract or reach out to adults with lower skills or from disadvantaged backgrounds;
- Greater access to lifelong learning positively influences employability and the development of relevant competences among adults with low skills, no formal qualifications, or from disadvantaged backgrounds;
- Adult learning is beneficial for social cohesion and provides a basis for upward social mobility by promoting access to further educational pathways;
- Income can be a significant barrier to participation in vocational and tertiary education, especially amongst the lower-paid;
- To better facilitate access and participation, it is necessary to consider diverse forms of adult formal education and take into account the particular circumstances and needs of adult learners;
- Informal and non-formal learning activities that are provided in an inclusive and flexible environment enhance skills and serve as a key bridge towards social inclusion;
- Lifelong learning programmes provided at specific workplace can trigger employee-driven innovation and entrepreneurship. This underlines the importance that the engagement of, and coordination with, employers for the development of effective policy measures may have in this area.

Chapter 5.   Cross-sectoral synergies

Inequalities and disadvantages in educational opportunities can be explained by the interplay of personal, social, cultural and economic factors that reveal the need for cross-sectoral approaches linking education and training with employment, social inclusion, youth, health, and migration policies (European Commission, 2006a). More than purely educational interventions, cross-sectoral strategies are likely to successfully tackle poverty, inequality and related aspects of disadvantage (European Commission, 2006b).

5.1. Links between education and training and the labour market

Numerous projects have underlined the links and mutual influence existing between education and training and labour market policies (EQUALSOC Network, 2011; Parreira do Amaral et al., 2013; INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a; Holford et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2014). Research has demonstrated that education and training policies tend to focus on employability and labour market integration as a way to develop a highly skilled workforce as well as to support social inclusion (Horemans and Marx, 2013; Holford et al., 2007; Saar and Roosalu, 2011; Ryan et al., 2014).

National education and training policies, as well as local practices across the EU, have also aimed to develop better and closer relations between key stakeholders in education and training and employment with a view to providing learners with relevant training and employment opportunities. The participation of key stakeholders and their mutual collaboration is a major criterion for the success of VET, work-based learning (European Commission, 2015a) and lifelong learning. LLLIGHTinEUROPE findings highlighted the role of employers by pointing out that the financing of continuing education at work is almost exclusively provided by the private sector, which tends to see public policy measures to encourage lifelong learning at the workplace as neither efficient nor well targeted (Cort et al., 2015). The project also suggested that cooperation between employers and education and training institutions has a particularly positive impact on helping to generate beneficial knowledge exchange and dynamic skills development (Ederer et al., 2015). Likewise, LLL2010 and LLLIGHTinEUROPE findings demonstrated that, by ensuring multi-stakeholder forms of collaboration in the design, governance and implementation of VET and adult learning, the quality of the training is strengthened, education and training needs are better identified, and programmes are customised to make learning valuable to both employers and employees and better enforce workers' rights to continual participation in lifelong learning (Saar and Roosalu, 2011; Ederer et al., 2015; Cort et al., 2015; Council of the European Union, 2015).

5.2. Links between education and training and social policy

Research findings and policy documents have demonstrated the need for cross-sectoral approaches and cooperation between stakeholders at all levels to link education and training with broader social policies in order to address social exclusion effectively (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a; Edwards and Downes, 2013).

INCLUD-ED findings demonstrated the importance of a comprehensive approach to education and social policy by establishing successful cross-sectoral actions to tackle social exclusion, such as training for health literacy in schools and communities and projects for social housing combining actions that facilitate access to housing and the empowerment of vulnerable groups and students (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012c). INCLUD-ED underlined two key criteria for the implementation of successful educational actions: 1) to accompany them with actions in other social areas that have improved conditions for vulnerable groups in terms of access to employment, housing, social and political participation, and 2) to engage all involved agents in the decision-making process, including end-users from vulnerable groups. Such 'integrative actions' have succeeded in promoting the social cohesion and educational inclusion of vulnerable groups by allowing them to

contribute to solving problems faced by the entire community (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2012a). Further evidence demonstrated that, by intervening in educational institutions, inter-professional teams of key stakeholders including teachers, social workers, school health workers and police officers have been crucial in providing vulnerable students with support that schools alone cannot offer (Edwards and Downes, 2013). Strategies to counter early school leaving have also integrated social dimensions of education and training through the engagement of stakeholders to make early signalling and prevention of drop out more effective through remediation responses addressing young people's problematic relationships with schooling (Ryan et al., 2014) or tackling the discrimination of children and young people (Araújo et al., 2014).

Research projects highlighted the contribution of education and lifelong learning to other areas of social policy such as poverty reduction. SI-DRIVE findings listed successful examples of cross-sectoral cooperation where education and lifelong learning act as cross-cutting enabling factors in VET programmes integrating economic and social responsibility (SI-DRIVE, 2015). In another example, YIPPEE findings highlighted the importance of cooperation between schools and social services in the area of education and public care to improve support for students with special needs and social disadvantages (Casas and Montserrat Boada, 2010).

Other findings demonstrated that there is a lack of multi-stakeholder, multi-level and inter-institutional cooperation, and of horizontal strategies spanning various fields in the development of effective policy responses to tackle social and educational inequalities (Szalai, 2011a; KATARSIS, 2009; Warzywoda-Kruszyńska et al., 2006; Casas and Montserrat Boada, 2010). In an example from Sweden, YIPPEE findings revealed a shared perception among stakeholders that there is a need for increased cooperation between schools and social services (Casas and Montserrat Boada, 2010), while PROFIT drew attention to the perceived lack of cooperation by stakeholders in the design and implementation of local and national educational and social policies (Warzywoda-Kruszyńska et al., 2006).

While specific educational measures have direct links to social policies in general, they can be particularly important in relation to health, housing and nutrition issues. Ensuring the satisfaction of basic human needs like nourishment, healthcare and access to shelter can represent a precondition for schools to keep students on track and successfully support their educational attainment. RESL.eu findings illustrated examples of national and local education authorities implementing school-based interventions and cross-sectoral partnerships to provide schools and students with resources to support basic needs such as free meals in schools, allowances for study materials and clothing, and access to after-school study facilities (Nouwen et al., 2015).

Several projects have also shown evidence of the importance of cross-sectoral strategies linking education and training with civic participation and integration (EUMARGINS; LLL2010; INCLUD-ED). LLL2010 findings demonstrated that, in a number of EU countries, education policies are often connected with migration and integration policies, in order to improve social cohesion and enhance the employability of migrants and ethnic minorities. Lifelong learning activities targeted at migrants and minorities can take the form of language courses, which have proved to be effective in facilitating communication and the integration of ethnic minorities and migrants, thus increasing social cohesion overall (Holford et al., 2007).

Lessons for policy and practice

- National policies and local practices that develop better and closer relations among key stakeholders in the areas of education and employment can provide learners with increasingly relevant training and employment opportunities;
- The inclusion of stakeholders in the design, governance and implementation of VET and adult learning improves the quality of training;
- Cross-sectoral approaches and cooperation between stakeholders at all levels to link education and training with broader social policies have enabled social exclusion to be addressed more effectively;
- Cross-sectoral strategies that link education and training with civic participation, migration and integration policies have been successful in increasing social cohesion and enhancing the employability of migrants and ethnic minorities.

Chapter 6. Conclusions: What can countries do to tackle educational disadvantage and social exclusion? Gaps and potential for future research

Inequalities persist in European education systems, with severe consequences for individuals, for the economy and for social cohesion. A learner's socioeconomic background remains the strongest determinant of educational success or failure in all Member States and levels of education. Disability, ethnicity, migrant or minority status, gender, age, sexual orientation, geographic location and other factors also impact strongly on people's educational opportunities, learning experiences and outcomes. Whole social groups or sub-sets of the population persistently achieve less well in education – often despite the presence of policy initiatives that are designed to redress inequities.

Overall, the research projects reviewed here suggested that tackling educational disadvantage implies a *shift of resources and opportunities* towards the more disadvantaged regions, communities and schools. However, many of the solutions do not imply extra costs. The European and international evidence shows that **countries with higher equity in their education systems** tend to:

- allocate resources more equitably across schools, often through targeted funding to particular areas;
- make relatively weak links between an individual's background and his/her trajectory in education;
- provide support to those who need it in order to succeed in education;
- have systems where quality and equality are not in tension;
- report high rates of tertiary qualifications among adults;
- spend a relatively high proportion of GDP on education and training, with teacher salaries roughly equivalent to that of the average of all graduate occupations.

In addition, the research has revealed that:

- high equity countries do not operate a policy of sorting young people into separate educational tracks, or uses the practice of repeating periods of study (grade repetition) to address individual low attainment;
- they have well-established monitoring systems which can link participation and outcomes for disadvantaged groups and effectively monitor inequalities in education;

> they have policy evaluation tools to pin down 'what works' best in education policy and practice;

> they apply different interventions at different points in the educational career to help tackle educational disadvantage.

In the light of the above, the findings of the research projects reviewed reveal that **education policies can contribute to the reduction of poverty, inequality and social exclusion** through:

1. **Measures to widen access and prevent drop-out of disadvantaged learners**

Research projects reveal that earlier educational attainment as well as initial academic achievements influence early school leaving, attitudes towards achieving secondary education, and participation in formal adult education. Moreover, educational inequalities have significant societal implications. Low educational attainment can result in greater levels of unemployment, income inequality, low economic growth and the disengagement of vulnerable groups within the society. These findings highlight the need to widen access to high quality education for all learners and ensure that all learners receive equal opportunities to realise their potential and attain a higher level of education. An important first step to tackling educational disadvantage is routine and accurate monitoring of educational participation and outcomes. At present very few EU Member States have mature monitoring systems that collect data on all phases of education and training and can link the data to track progress over time in terms of participation and attainment of disadvantaged groups[21].

Some of the strategies to ensure equal access to high quality education and prevent early school leaving include:

> increasing the participation of disadvantaged children in quality early childhood education and care (ECEC);

> eliminating 'dead-ends' in upper-secondary level and providing more flexible, permeable and diversified learning pathways and access routes into post-compulsory and further learning;

> providing specific outreach strategies and/or positive discrimination measures in favour of under-represented groups;

> practicing early warning systems such as individual learning plans or quantitative monitoring that incorporates early detection and constant monitoring ;

> eliminating school segregation and promoting mixed school intakes by introducing sensitive admission policies which take into account the ethnic and social composition of school districts;

> offering meaningful and attractive second chance opportunities to benefit from education and training;

> tackling cultural prejudices in curricula and making the curriculum content more relevant to particular cultural groups, so that it is not mono-ethnic or discriminatory;

> strengthening the links between school and home and helping disadvantaged parents/families help their children to learn and to succeed;

> developing monitoring frameworks, complemented by specific targets for under-represented groups, are an essential part of such policy measures.

2. **Measures to prepare and ensure high quality professional workforce**

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[21] The 2010 Council Conclusions on the social dimension of education and training highlighted the need to enhance the monitoring of educational outcomes of disadvantaged learners.

The projects reviewed emphasised the need to better prepare the education workforce for equity, diversity and inclusion. Teaching in multicultural and challenging socioeconomic settings is one of the priority areas where teachers themselves across Europe report the highest need for professional development. Yet, most often training for diversity is either not available or not mandatory.

There is strong evidence that good teachers, trainers, school leaders and support staff make a significant difference to educational attainment. Teachers are the single most important in-school factor in improving student engagement and achievement so their initial education, continuing professional development but also their deployment must be an important element in improving the outcomes for disadvantaged learners. The research also confirmed that the presence of teachers from diverse backgrounds and under-represented groups positively influences the educational experiences and self-esteem of students from such groups.

Some of the strategies used to improve the quality of the teaching workforce against education poverty include:

> recruitment of teachers/trainers who themselves are members of disadvantaged groups, to better reflect the diversity of the student population;
> explicitly defining competences in teaching disadvantaged groups as a necessary skill for all teachers;
> reinforcement of the sociological, socio-psychological and socio-educational inputs into teacher education and training to make teachers more aware of the specific difficulties facing disadvantaged learners and of their needs;
> identifying the teaching methods that are most effective at increasing motivation and augmenting attainment of disadvantaged learners and ensuring that these are disseminated through professional development programmes.

3. Measures to delay academic selection and abolish grade repetition and promoting continuity of learning process

The streaming pupils into different ability groups has declined over the years, but is now more highly concentrated in schools serving disadvantaged populations. Students allocated to lower-stream classes experience a climate of low expectations and negative student-teacher interaction, and are much more likely to leave school early. Early separation of pupils into different educational tracks increases inequality in achievement. When children are separated into different types of schools at an early age, some may end up in schools that do not enable access to further education. At present, several EU Member States still have selection into tracks or schools with differentiated curricula at a relatively early age. This leads to substantial and needless social/ethnic segregation between schools. In addition, several Member States still practice grade repetition for weaker students, who also tend to come from more disadvantaged backgrounds. The evidence shows that this is ineffective and can have a long-term damaging impact.

Some of the strategies used to smoothen the transitions between different education levels and grades include:

> the transitions between early childhood education and care (ECEC) and primary schools can be smoothed by facilitating collaboration between ECEC educators and primary school teachers, ensuring curricula continuity, and by organising school visits for kindergarten-age children;
> postponing the age of tracking is a measure recommended to ensure the continuity of the education process, especially for socially disadvantaged students. In early tracking systems,

increasing opportunities to change tracks and ensuring high-quality curricular standards across tracks can facilitate transitions.

4. **Other strategies that are shown to help tackle educational disadvantage and to foster inclusion**

> Schools with a high number of students from under-represented/disadvantaged groups should receive more **resources** such as higher salaries for teachers, more material resources, or extra teachers from under-represented groups. Schools should be **incentivised** and rewarded according to the number of students from disadvantaged backgrounds that they admit and lead to successful completion.

> Schools should be able to provide **additional support** to the children who need it, to help them succeed. Such support should be provided in a way that does not stigmatise disadvantaged students. This can take the form of linguistic support for learners with a migrant and/or minority background, individualised learning support, tutoring programmes, and/or socio-emotional and behavioural support.

> Good **quality initial VET** enhances labour market integration and facilitates access to tertiary education and further learning. This is particularly important for learners from disadvantaged groups. Countries should develop clear and **diverse pathways through VET** to further and learning and employment. The attractiveness and quality of VET can be increased by improving the permeability between general education and VET, updating curricula to focus on learning outcomes and in the planning and delivery of professional development for teachers. The quality and relevance of such programmes can also be enhanced by encouraging stakeholder partnerships (for example with businesses and regional authorities) at a regional and local level. The inclusion of stakeholders in the design, governance and implementation of VET and adult learning improves the quality of the training by better identifying education and training needs in relation to business development needs in order to make learning valuable for both employers and employees. Inclusive practices in VET, such as enriching the curricula with broader academic knowledge, promoting heterogeneous and mixed-ability classrooms, improving the student-teacher ratio and the participation of girls and young women, all help tackle the lack of attractiveness of VET, high dropout rates, low attainment levels, social exclusion and marginalisation.

> **Adult education** enhances learners' employability, skills, creativity and attitudes to learning. Greater access to lifelong learning is crucial for the low skilled and disadvantaged. Accessible, affordable and flexible study programmes should be supported to help increase participation in adult education. Financial barriers are often a bottleneck to accessing non-compulsory education, particularly for learners from a disadvantaged background. Lifelong learning programmes provided at the workplace can trigger employee-driven innovation and entrepreneurship. The development of effective policy measures in this area requires that coordination with employers and their engagement should be ensured. Decentralised community-based learning institutions such as community lifelong learning centres help reach disadvantaged or marginalised communities and individuals. Individual employment contracts that include a continuous training component can support the (re)integration of disadvantaged and/or long-term unemployed young people.

> For individuals who are traditionally alienated from the formal education system, such as newly-arrived migrants, refugees, long-term unemployed or prisoners, **informal and non-formal learning** can be a bridge to social inclusion and civic participation. Measures to provide recognition of non-formal and informal learning, and the implementation of frameworks for qualifications and monitoring, are necessary to ensure equality and quality in adult learning.

> Education policy alone cannot change society. Cross-sectoral strategies are more likely to be successful in tackling poverty and inequalities than isolated single-policy interventions. Difficult thought they may be to implement, coordinated **cross-sectoral synergies** linking education and training with employment, youth, health, migration, housing, welfare and other policies may offer the best approach to preventing or mitigating the impact of multiple and cumulative disadvantage on people's educational experiences and life chances. The increased fragmentation of education systems has led to an unclear division of responsibilities and ineffective implementation of national strategies, particularly in areas that are cross-sectoral by nature, such as the education of children in care, formal and non-formal adult education, or VET.

> Education policy needs to **cater for diversity** and enable all learners to succeed in education and to develop their full potential, irrespectively of their background and according to their specific learning needs. Schools should promote **inclusive education** and avoid segregation, providing adequate support to those who need it. **Curricula** and **pedagogies** should be inclusive and flexible (and where necessary individualised) to respond to the diverse needs of learners and to use learner diversity as a resource. Curriculum content should be relevant to the various cultural groups, so that it is not mono-ethnic or discriminatory.

> Introductory programmes aimed at **migrants**, including language courses and assistance in entering the labour market, help improve their learning outcomes, increase their employability and promote their integration into society. Continuous support for the language of instruction and mother tongue, as well as teaching approaches that use different languages in the classroom, are effective tools for engaging children speaking different languages at home and promote the self-esteem necessary for academic success.

> **Parents** are key to enhancing their children's educational attainment. However, evidence reveals that disadvantaged parents do not engage consistently in the education of their children or lack the tools to do so. Dedicated programmes of family education that promote the participation of the whole family in the learning process help improve parents' literacy, professional opportunities and aspirations in education. Schools should engage parents in school projects and activities. This could take the form of one-to-one teacher-parent meetings, if necessary with the help of intermediary workers having special knowledge of specific ethnic communities. Local community centres can serve as effective platforms for communication with parents.

> An adequate level of **autonomy** enables municipalities and schools to be innovative and flexible in addressing specific learner needs. Introduction of greater school autonomy should be linked to systems of accountability and quality assurance. Participatory governance methods involving collaboration between key stakeholders should be promoted in order to ensure better flexibility for schools and improve their preparedness to monitor disadvantages and provide effective responses. Such collaboration is facilitated by regional agreements that foresee educational interventions and include specific policy goals.

Gaps and potential for future research

The European research projects reviewed in this report highlight a number of potential areas of inquiry for future research and provide specific suggestions on data collection and study design.

Several of the projects suggested that a more comprehensive, routine collection of **comparable data** and the existence of **monitoring frameworks** across EU Member States could help advance the knowledge base and contribute to better policy. Recognising the patterns of inequality is a key step to tackling them. An important first step to improving equity is routine and accurate monitoring of educational participation and outcomes of disadvantaged groups, including at the local and regional level[22]. EQUALSOC emphasised that research on inequalities in educational attainment by class, gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic background and cultural resources in the parental family would be greatly improved by collecting more data on the social origins of respondents (EQUALSOC Network, 2011). RESL.eu highlighted the scarcity of cross-national survey data on the background characteristics, aspirations and attitudes of schoolchildren, and in particular early school leavers (Kaye et al., 2014). Researchers involved in the YIPPEE project suggested that a system of common indicators should be established to gather information on the educational attainment and academic performance of young people from public care backgrounds (Casas and Montserrat Boada, 2010). LLL2010 called for the development of surveys that operationalise and apply a common definition of formal adult education (and of an adult learner), and thus imply the creation of both a common indicator for participation and new classifications for lifelong learning (Saar and Roosalu, 2011).

INCLUDE-ED, LLLIGHTinEUROPE, RESL.eu, and YIPPEE emphasised the need for **more rigorous policy evaluation** to help improve equity in education (INCLUD-ED Consortium, 2007a; Wiederhold, 2015; Ryan et al., 2014; Casas and Montserrat Boada, 2010). The projects underlined that rigorous evaluation of the impact of reforms and interventions aiming to improve equity in education and training systems is necessary to assess their effectiveness in achieving their objectives[23]. They argued that cooperation at EU-level could help to promote evidence-based policy and practice. Other projects (CARE, EQUALSOC and INCLUDE-ED) underlined the lack of **comparative longitudinal surveys** (LLL2010) and called for more longitudinal studies.

When discussing future research needs in terms of **specific thematic areas**, the project teams considered that more and better research is required on the competences of the educators with regard to a number of themes: improvement of the outcomes of early childhood education and care (CARE); the effect of work-family policies on the use of public child care among vulnerable groups (COPE); the effect of ethnic school segregation on educational inequalities (EUMARGINS); closer links between schools and communities that promote integration and social cohesion (INCLUDE-ED); how training structures compare to ad-hoc training arrangements in enterprises (LLLIGHTinEUROPE); the characteristics of carers and the impact of their attitudes on the educational pathways of young people in public care (YIPPEE) among others.

Finally, several projects expressed the need to investigate further the importance of **individual characteristics** with regard to educational outcomes and social cohesion. For instance, LLLIGHTinEUROPE and EQUALSOC highlighted the potential of studying the relationship between cognitive and non-cognitive abilities and educational success, occupational attainment and lifelong learning (Ederer et al., 2015; EQUALSOC Network, 2011). More should be done when measuring the effects of age and prior educational attainment on adult skills formation and participation in formal adult education (Ederer et al., 2015; Saar and Roosalu, 2011; Brännlund et al., 2012).

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[22] The 2010 Council Conclusions on the social dimension of education and training highlighted the need to enhance the monitoring of educational outcomes of disadvantaged learners.

[23] It should be noted that none of the projects systematically review impact evaluations or other studies of an evaluative character.

- Further research and policy would benefit from routine collection across EU Member States of standardised data on participation and outcomes of disadvantaged groups in education. This would advance the knowledge base and enable cross-country comparison and peer-learning. Monitoring frameworks, complemented by specific targets for under-represented groups, are essential for improving equity.
- It is important to rigorously evaluate the impact of reforms and interventions aimed at improving equity in education and training systems, in order to assess their effectiveness.
- The methodologies used in research projects often lack a longitudinal element in their research designs; support and funding of European research projects that include longitudinal data analysis should be encouraged.

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ANNEXES

ANNEX 1: List of FP6 and FP7 research projects reviewed

No.	Project title	Short title	Duration	Coordinating institution[24]	Website	Final Report
1	Policy Responses Overcoming Factors in the Intergenerational Transmission of Inequalities (FP6*)	PROFIT	2004-2007	Institute of Sociology, University of Łódź, PL	http://www.profit.uni.lodz.pl/	*Not available on the project website*
2	Economic change, quality of life and social cohesion (Network of excellence) (FP6)	EQUALSOC	2005-2010	Stockholm University, SE	*Not available*	*Not available on the project website*
3	Towards a Lifelong Learning Society in Europe: the contribution of the education system (FP6)	LLL2010	2005-2011	Institute for International and Social Studies, Tallinn University, EE	http://lll2010.tlu.ee	http://lll2010.tlu.ee/publications/project-reports/lll2010-working-papers_77_integrated-report.pdf/view
4	Inequality: mechanism, effects and policies (FP6)	INEQ	2006-2008	Interuniversity Research Centre on the Welfare State (CRISS), University of Siena, IT	http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/csgr/research/projects/ineq/	*Not available on the project website*
5	Growing Inequality and Social Innovation: Alternative Knowledge and Practice in Overcoming Social Exclusion in Europe (FP6)	KATARSIS	2006-2009	Global Urban Research Unit (GURU), Newcastle University, UK	http://katarsis.ncl.ac.uk	*Not available on the project website*
6	Strategies for inclusion and social cohesion in Europe from education (FP6)	INCLUD-ED	2006-2011	Center of Research in Theories and Practices that Overcome Inequalities (CREA), University of Barcelona, ES	http://creaub.info/included/about/	http://creaub.info/included/wp-content/uploads/2010/12/D25.2_Final-Report_final.pdf
7	Post-compulsory education for young people with a public care institutions background (FP7)	YIPPEE	2008-2010	Institute of Education, University of London, UK	http://tcru.ioe.ac.uk/yippee	http://tcru.ioe.ac.uk/yippee/Portals/1/Final%20Report%20of%20the%20YiPPEE%20Project%20-%20WP12%20Mar11.pdf
8	Ethnic Differences in Education and Diverging Prospects for Urban Youth in an Enlarged Europe (FP7)	EDUMIGROM	2008-2011	Center for Policy Studies, Central European University, HU	http://www.edumigrom.eu/	*Not available on the project website*
9	On the Margins of the European Community Young adult immigrants in seven European countries (FP7)	EUMARGINS	2008-2011	University of Oslo, NO	http://www.sv.uio.no/iss/english/research/projects/eumargins/	*Not available on the project website*

[24] Information drawn from the websites of projects listed.

10	Making Capabilities Work (FP7)	WORKABLE	2009-2012	Bielefeld Center for Education and Capability Research, Bielefeld University, DE	http://www.workable-eu.org/	http://www.workable-eu.org/publications
11	Growing Inequalities' Impacts (FP7)	GINI	2010-2013	Amsterdam Institute for Advanced labour Studies (AIAS), University of Amsterdam, NL	http://www.gini-research.org	*Not available on the project website*
12	Governance of educational trajectories in Europe: Access, coping and relevance of education for young people in European knowledge societies in comparative perspective (FP7)	GOETE	2010-2013	Goethe University of Frankfurt, DE	http://www.goete.eu	http://www.goete.eu/download/working-papers?download=5:goete-project-final-report-homepage-310713
13	Employment 2025: How will multiple transitions affect the European labour market (FP7)	NEUJOBS	2011-2015	Centre for European Policy Studies (CEPS), BE	http://www.neujobs.eu/	*Not available on the project website*
14	Combating Poverty in Europe (FP7)	COPE	2012-2015	Jean Monnet Centre for Europeanisation and Transnational Regulations Oldenburg (CETRO), University of Oldenburg, DE	http://cope-research.eu	*Not available on the project website*
15	Lifelong learning, innovation, growth and human capital tracks in Europe (FP7)	LLLight'in'Europe	2012-2015	Zeppelin University, DE	http://www.lllightineurope.com/research/	http://www.lllightineurope.com/fileadmin/llllightineurope/download/LLLight_SynthesisReport_20151029.pdf
16	Poverty Reduction in Europe: social policy and innovation (FP7)	ImPRovE	2012-2016	Herman Deleeck Centre for Social Policy, University of Antwerp, BE	http://improve-research.eu/	*Not finalised yet*
17	Combating inequalities through innovative social practices of, and for, young people in cities across Europe (FP7)	CITISPYCE	2013-2015	Aston University, UK	http://www.aston.ac.uk/lss/research/research-centres/interland/citispyce/	*Not available on the project website*
18	Reducing early school leaving in the EU (FP7)	RESL.eu	2013-2018	Centre of Migration and Intercultural Studies, University of Antwerp, BE	www.resl-eu.org	https://www.uantwerpen.be/en/projects/resl-eu/publications/
19	Curriculum Quality Analysis and Impact Review of European ECEC (FP7)	CARE	2014-2016	Utrecht University, NL	http://ecec-care.org/	*Not finalised yet*
20	Social Innovation: Driving Force of Social Change (FP7)	SI-DRIVE	2014-2017	Technical University of Dortmund (TUDO), DE	http://www.si-drive.eu/	*Not finalised yet*

Note: The review was implemented at December 2015. The project descriptions are presented in Annex 5.

ANNEX 2: Scope, review method and limitations

Annex 2 discusses the process that authors followed in conducting collection and analysis of the project materials, reviews the research methods employed by the selected projects and lists limitations, mainly relating to the challenges faced in extracting relevant evidence-based findings.

Collection and analysis of key project documents

The selected research projects generated a considerable number of deliverables and publications, including, among others, annual and final reports, background papers, case studies and synthesis reports, comparative studies, literature reviews, theoretical and methodological reports, policy briefs, newsletters, publications in journals, as well as books. Given this, the first step was to collect the most important and relevant material. Several strategies were used for this purpose:

> In May 2015 the research team reviewed project websites and downloaded all the available publications. Nonetheless, for some projects the available material remained limited;

> A request for support was made to acquire project deliverables uploaded on the internal online platform administered by DG RTD; documents from several projects were provided in late May 2015;

> A number of documents were acquired by contacting the project coordinators (CARE; EQUALSOC).

Overall, a database of over 450 documents was created.

The next step involved the initial review of the final project reports and policy briefs to extract basic information about each project, and to prepare short summaries of policy-relevant research findings.

In the subsequent stage, the research team coded the gathered material using the Nvivo10 (QSR, 2016) software package. An initial coding framework with pre-defined codes was developed on the basis of a preliminary reading. It was later complemented with additional categories as they emerged from the project materials. Thematic analysis was applied to extract, group and analyse the information.

All relevant project documents were reviewed and coded following the above-mentioned approach. In addition, the authors complemented specific sections of the report with findings from wider research literature, including previous reviews: available online (Allmendinger et al., 2015; Perrons and Plomien, 2010; Kutsar and Helve, 2012; Federighi, 2013; Schmid, 2012; Brandsma, 2002) or made accessible by the EC (DG RTD, 2014).

Research designs employed by the projects included in the review

European research projects reviewed in this report followed various research strategies to arrive at their conclusions. Generally, the methodologies employed entailed the following characteristics:

> Projects frequently combined both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Although most of the research projects followed this approach, a strategy of merging different methods of inquiry was explicitly emphasised in EDUMIGROM, EUMARGINS, GOETE, INCLUD-ED, LLL2010, NEUJOBS, PROFIT, RESL.eu, and WORKABLE;

> Research designs encompassing case studies and subsequent cross-national comparison were often applied for the purpose of examining a range of institutional settings. The cases observed diverged both in terms of level and object of inquiry: for example, research projects entailed case studies of European countries (CARE, GINI, YIPPEE, NEUJOBS), cities or municipalities (COPE, PROFIT), neighbourhoods (CITiSPYCE), or schools (EDUMIGROM, GOETE, INCLUD-ED);

> Several projects employed multidisciplinary perspectives, incorporating researchers and research methods from various fields, including economics, sociology, political science, and psychology (GINI, LLL2010, PROFIT).

The particular research methods used varied from project to project (see Annex 3 for more details). With regard to **data collection techniques**, desk-based research was carried out by researchers in all the projects. In addition, focus groups (LLL2010, INCLUD-ED, PROFIT, EDUMIGROM, IMPROVE, CITiSPYCE, RESL.eu) and personal interviews (14 of the 20 projects reviewed; see Annex 3) were conducted, involving education experts, policy-makers, young people or students, their parents or family members, educational staff, or adult workers and their managers. With reference to personal interviews, there were, for example, 445 in CITiSPYCE, 500 in EDUMIGROM, 200 in EUMARGINS, 781 in GOETE, 525 in INCLUD-ED, 789 in YIPPEE. Participant observation and fieldwork was another qualitative research strategy employed (INCLUD-ED, EDUMIGROM, EUMARGINS, CITiSPYCE). Observations were mostly carried out in educational settings, including schools and classrooms.

Furthermore, surveys were carried out in 9 out of the 20 research projects reviewed. Among those in the survey samples were young students in secondary education (5 086 in EDUMIGROM, 6 390 in GOETE), young adults (1 680 in PROFIT), parents (about 2 500 in CARE, 3 290 in GOETE), educational staff (2 172 in CARE, 984 in GOETE, approximately 900 in RESL.eu), policy-makers (277 in CARE), or other relevant actors. Various survey strategies were employed: for instance, the EDUMIGROM team distributed questionnaires in 287 classes at 105 schools (Szalai, 2011a); in order to introduce a longitudinal element, RESL.eu was designed to run two student surveys with the same sample two years apart (Kaye et al., 2015). Cross-nationally representative survey results were achieved by researchers from EQUALSOC, who co-designed a special European Social Survey module on work, family and well-being in 2004 (EQUALSOC Network, 2011). Across the research projects, collection techniques included, for example, postal, online and telephone surveys, and face-to-face interviews.

In addition to data collection methods, research projects also utilised various **data analysis methods** (see Annex 3). A significant proportion of the research projects reviewed existing literature and previous findings. This often constituted an initial step in the research undertaken. In addition, several research projects carried out content analysis of regional, national or EU-level policy and legal documents (CITiSPYCE, COPE, EDUMIGROM, EUMARGINS, INCLUD-ED, YIPPEE, LLLIGHTinEUROPE, LLL2010, PROFIT, WORKABLE), as well as education and training curricula (GOETE, CARE). Research teams also employed various methods to analyse the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics applied in most of the projects (e.g. LLL2010, PROFIT, KATARSIS, EDUMIGROM, YIPPEE, EUMARGINS, among others) referred to mapping, systematically reviewing and presenting basic empirical information. At the same time, inferential statistics methods were used to draw wider conclusions and generalisations about the populations observed.

Limitations

In distilling relevant and cogent findings from the projects reviewed, the authors of this report encountered a number of challenges.

Some of the FP6 and FP7 projects reviewed were launched as early as 2004 (PROFIT) and 2005 (LLL2010; EQUALSOC), while others were still being implemented at the time of the analysis (CARE, CITiSPYCE, IMPROVE, NEUJOBS, RESL.eu, SI-DRIVE). Therefore, part of the evidence may not reflect the more recent changes to the policy context.

This review is limited by the extent of the discussion on educational inequalities, which varied significantly among the research projects. Notably, project materials covered a wider set of issues falling outside the scope of the current review. Therefore it should not be considered comprehensive in tackling all existent aspects of inequalities.

Research projects did not cover all of the questions set for this review. Most of the deliverables did not consider the transferability and sustainability of the policy measures overviewed; these issues are discussed only to a limited extent in the current analysis.

It was often hard to judge which empirical data informed the statements provided in the project deliverables. This made systematic assessment of the methodological rigour and the robustness of the conclusions extremely difficult. In most cases, the authors of this review had to assume that research findings were based on reliable empirical data.

None of the projects aimed to assess the impact of specific policies and practices on individual outcomes. Neither did they systematically review impact evaluations or other studies of an evaluative character. Other limitations related to research design and the scope of the selected projects included:

> As a general rule, original survey findings stemming from the reviewed projects could not be generalised as representative of the whole population.

> Research projects included a limited number of countries in their sample. This enabled research teams to provide richer data on specific cases, but limited the generalisability of findings in terms of all the countries covered in this report.

> Some of the projects reviewed encountered difficulties in acquiring primary data for their studies, which may have lowered the general comparability of their outcomes (INCLUDE-ED, PROFIT).

> The projects often reported difficulties in collecting comparable cross-country data due to the (uneven) availability of national data, the differentiation of educational systems, and the low degree of comparability of national qualifications (COPE, INCLUDE-ED, RESL.eu, EQUALSOC, LLL2010, WORKABLE, YIPPEE).

ANNEX 3: Data collection and analysis method

METHODS / 1. DATA COLLECTION METHODS	LLL2010 (FP6)	INCLUD-ED (FP6)	PROFIT (FP6)	KATARSIS (FP6)	INEQ (FP6)	EQUALSOC (FP6)	EDUMIGROM (FP7)	YIPPEE (FP7)	EUMARGINS (FP7)	GINI (FP7)
1.1. DESK RESEARCH	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
1.2. FOCUS GROUPS	✓	✓	✓				✓			
1.3. INTERVIEWS	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	
1.4. PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION & FIELDWORK		✓					✓		✓	
1.5. SURVEYS	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓			
2. ANALYSIS METHODS										
2.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	
2.2. METHODS OF INFERENTIAL STATISTICS	✓	✓			✓	✓				✓
2.3. LITERATURE REVIEW	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
2.4. CONTENT ANALYSIS	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	

METHODS / 1. DATA COLLECTION METHODS	GOETE (FP7)	WORKABLE (FP7)	COPE (FP7)	IMPROVE (FP7)	CITiSPYCE (FP7)	RESL.eu (FP7)	LLLIGHTinEUROPE (FP7)	CARE (FP7)	SI-DRIVE (FP7)	NEUJOBS (FP7)
1.1. DESK RESEARCH	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
1.2. FOCUS GROUPS					✓	✓				
1.3. INTERVIEWS	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		
1.4. PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION & FIELDWORK					✓					
1.5. SURVEYS	✓					✓	✓	✓		
2. ANALYSIS METHODS										
2.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				
2.2. METHODS OF INFERENTIAL STATISTICS		✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓
2.3. LITERATURE REVIEW	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	
2.4. CONTENT ANALYSIS	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓		

ANNEX 4: Countries covered by individual projects

Pro-ject	Country involved	European Union (EU)																											EFTA		Non-EU countries										
		BE	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	UK	NO	CH	AU	CA	CL	CN	EG	IN	JP	RU	TR	US	ZA
LLL2010		+	+	+			+	+							+		+			+				+				+	+											+	
INCLUDE-ED		+					+		+		+	+	+	+	+	+			+		+	+		+				+													
PROFIT			+			+	+				+				+						+			+				+													
KATARSIS		+		+	+	+			+	+	+	+					+		+	+		+					+										+				
INEQ						+			+	+	+								+								+														
EQUALSOC		+				+	+	+	+	+	+								+							+	+														
EDUMIGROM			+	+	+					+						+							+		+		+	+													
YIPPEE					+					+						+											+	+													
EUMARGINS							+			+	+	+															+	+	+												
GINI		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+			+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+			+	+					+				+
GOETE						+			+	+									+		+					+		+													
WORKABLE		+			+	+			+	+										+	+					+	+	+			+										
COPE						+				+											+					+	+														
IMPROVE		+						+	+		+								+								+	+													
CITiSPYCE			+	+		+			+	+		+							+		+						+	+													
RESL.eu		+								+						+		+	+	+	+	+					+	+													
LLIGHTinEurope				+	+										+				+						+		+											+			
CARE		+		+	+				+		+							+		+	+				+		+	+	+											
SI-DRIVE		+	+		+				+	+					+			+	+		+				+	+	+			+	+	+	+	+	+			+	+	+
NEUJOBS		+		+	+	+		+		+	+	+				+		+	+	+		+					+													

Note: Country experts were taken into account while preparing the project list above.

ANNEX 5: Descriptions of reviewed FP6 and FP7 research projects

1. PROFIT

PROFIT was an interdisciplinary research project devoted to studying the social inheritance of inequalities. The main goal of this project was to inform policy by developing an integrated understanding of how a knowledge-based society can promote the EU's objectives of sustainable development, social and territorial cohesion, and improved quality of life. The project focused on the interrelation between policies and practices aimed at increasing social mobility, exercised at the national (society) and the local (community) level. PROFIT employed a mixture of research methods to collect data about intergenerational transfer of inequalities. These included the critical review of national scientific literature; secondary analysis of quantitative data; analysis of policy documents, survey findings and media debates; in-depth interviews; focus groups/vignettes; and surveys among young adults (24-29 years old) in eight European countries (Bulgaria, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, and the United Kingdom). The selected countries represented different patterns of poverty and social problems contributing to intergenerational inheritance of inequalities (IIofI).

Website: http://www.profit.uni.lodz.pl

2. EQUALSOC

EQUALSOC was a network created to mobilise and develop research expertise across Europe on economic change, quality of life and social cohesion. Its aims were: a) to stimulate high-quality comparative European research on social cohesion and its determinants; b) to encourage the development of additional research centres; c) to provide infrastructure for training the rising generation of young researchers in the skills of comparative research; and d) to facilitate access by policy makers and the wider research community to the most recent studies. The partner organisations of the network came from 10 EU countries: Belgium, Estonia, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. The main methods used in research projects under EQUALSOC were literature review; secondary analysis of data on educational attainment, inequalities and employment outcomes; and cross-disciplinary comparative analysis. The Network also organised research visits for young researchers from partner institutions, PhD summer school, and methodology workshops.

3. LLL2010

The research project 'Towards a Lifelong Learning Society in Europe: The Contribution of the Education System' (LLL2010) investigated the reasons behind variations in the proportion of adults in learning between European countries. The project focused on the contribution of education systems to the process of making lifelong learning a reality and its role as a potential agency of social integration. The objectives of the LLL2010 were: a) to develop and carry out a joint research agenda for the better understanding of the tensions between the knowledge-based society, lifelong learning and social inclusion in the context of EU enlargement and globalisation; b) to provide an empirically-based analysis of the adequacy of lifelong learning policies in Europe and their implications for different social groups, especially for socially excluded groups; c) to develop relevant policy proposals for lifelong learning strategies to reduce social exclusion at the European and national level; and d) to identify the implications of those policy proposals on relevant areas of social and economic policies. Researchers from 13 countries were involved in the project's activities. Project deliverables included a number of empirical studies using both qualitative and quantitative methodology. The analysis was based on three levels: taking into account the macro-structural

factors and national policies, the meso-level institutional factors and actors' motivations, and the micro-level actions.

Website: http://lll2010.tlu.ee/

4. INEQ

The research project 'Inequality: mechanism, effects and policies' (INEQ) studied the causes, the mechanisms, and possible solutions to economic and social inequality, both within and around Europe. It brought together a consortium of seven European universities and research centres from Italy, France, Spain, Germany, Poland and the UK. The project objectives were: a) to investigate the economic and social mechanisms that produce polarisation and inequality within Member States and countries neighbouring the EU; b) to investigate the effects that inequality has in societies, and its relations with economic performance and social integration; c) to identify actual and possible policies - at the national, EU and global levels. The analysis consisted of three stages: 1) the collection of relevant data; 2) elaboration of these data; and 3) theoretical interpretation, paying special attention to policy implications.

Website: http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/pais/research/researchcentres/csgr/research/projects/ineq

5. KATARSIS

The purpose of KATARSIS was to bring together theorists, researchers and practitioners interested in the causes and consequences of inequality, and to work towards better integration of their research programmes and methodologies. The project concentrated on the creative and innovative strategies by which people react to conditions of exclusion, both at the individual and collective level. The project involved partners from Canada and 13 EU Member States: Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, and the United Kingdom. The coordination activities of KATARSIS comprised: a) a survey of the literature on social exclusion in five fields (the labour market and social economy; education and training; housing and neighbourhoods; health and environment; governance and democracy); b) exercises to integrate policy and collective approaches to three aspects of socially creative strategies: bottom-up creativity, governance and social innovation); c) the development of methodologies for researching the organisation and impact of socially innovative initiatives; d) multidimensional dissemination and user group strategy, involving practitioners and policy makers in the field of social inclusion, empowerment and participation. Through an iterative series of research packages, meetings and conferences, KATARSIS members built a set of case studies on socially creative initiatives across participating countries.

Website: http://katarsis.ncl.ac.uk/

6. INCLUD-ED

INCLUDE-ED was an integrated project of the priority 7 under FP6. The project focused on compulsory education, special education and vocational training. INCLUD-ED analysed educational strategies that help to overcome inequalities and promote social cohesion, as well as educational strategies that generate social exclusion. The project focused in particular on vulnerable and marginalised groups (migrants, cultural minorities, youth, people with disabilities and women). The interdisciplinary research team implemented a longitudinal study over a period of five years. Five primary schools (one from each country: Finland, Lithuania, Malta, Spain, and the United Kingdom) that registered higher academic achievements and a strong involvement of the community were included in the research. The project team employed a mixed

methodology involving qualitative and quantitative methods, which aimed to explore the impact of community involvement in these schools.

Website: http://creaub.info/included/about/

7. YIPEE

The YIPPEE project investigated educational pathways among young people (mostly 19-21 years) who have spent at least one year of their childhood in the care of public authorities or child protection agencies. The research examined how young people who are socially excluded in this way can become better integrated into society through participation in further and higher education. To represent different welfare regimes in Europe, the research was carried out in Denmark, Hungary, Spain (Catalonia), Sweden, and the UK (England). YIPPEE applied mixed methods within three phases. Phase 1 consisted of literature review and comprehensive glossary of terms; study visits and a survey of national and local agencies and authorities; secondary analysis of national data sets. The second phase involved compiling case studies: examining local and national policies, and collating the views and experiences (through face-to-face and telephone interviews) of care/education service managers, young people who had educational potential or motivation, and adults nominated by the young people as having made a difference to their educational lives. Finally, the third - dissemination phase involved seminars with EU policy actors, national conferences, a regular briefing with stakeholders and the project website.

8. EDUMIGROM

EDUMIGROM was a three-year research project focused on 'ethnic differences in education and diverging prospects for urban youth in an enlarged Europe'. The project conducted a comparative investigation of ethnically diverse communities with second-generation migrants and Roma in nine EU countries (Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Sweden, and the United Kingdom). The project critically examined the way schools contribute to reducing, maintaining, or deepening inequalities in young people's access to the labour market, further education and training. Different domains of social, cultural, and political participation were covered in the research. The project had three phases. The first of these was based on secondary analysis of macro-level data and legal and policy documents. The second phase consisted of a survey of 14-17-year-old youth in the final year of compulsory. The third phase focused on minority groups. The project used the following methods: personal interviews and focus groups with students, parents, and teachers; classroom observations; ethnographic work inside and outside schools; case studies on civil organisations. The project involved 10 partner institutions from across Europe, and was led by the Center for Policy Studies at Central European University in Budapest, Hungary.

Website: http://www.edumigrom.eu/

9. EUMARGINS

EUMARGINS was a collaborative project that focused on inclusion and exclusion of young adults. EUMARGINS investigated the experiences of young adult immigrants in seven urban-metropolitan areas in seven different European countries: Barcelona (Spain), Genoa (Italy), Gothenburg (Sweden), London (the United Kingdom), Metz/Nancy (France), Oslo (Norway), and Tallinn (Estonia).The project's overall aim was to find out what factors hinder or aid the inclusion of young adult immigrants. Although EUMARGINS was primarily a qualitative project, quantitative data also played an important role. Combined methods helped to unravel the complexity of the processes of inclusion and exclusion, as well as the transition between these two. The research team first analysed existing statistics, past research, migration history and legal sources. These secondary information sources were then combined with life-story interviews and participant observations.

Immigrants and descendants were interviewed about inclusion and exclusion in different contexts, such as school, work, friends, family networks, neighbourhood and citizenship. The largest portion of research material consisted of 30 extended case studies from each country, which established a connection between micro and macro levels.

Website: http://www.sv.uio.no/iss/english/research/projects/eumargins/

10. WORKABLE

The project 'Making capabilities work' (WORKABLE) investigated strategies to enhance the social sustainability of Europe by strengthening the capabilities of young people to shape their personal and work lives to cope with today's economic, cultural, demographic, and technological challenges. WORKABLE assessed political and institutional strategies at local, national and European level that aim to reduce high rates of youth unemployment, early school leaving and dropouts from upper secondary education. The project aimed to answer the following questions: a) How do young people's skills and capabilities meet the changing needs of the labour market? b) How are children and young people prepared for employment, and enabled to enjoy work and make choices? c) How are those who are most disadvantaged assisted to achieve their potential? d) How can educational strategies enable young people to convert knowledge, skills and competencies into the capacity to function as fully participating, active citizens? The research combined quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The Capability Approach was applied as a heuristic framework. The research consisted of three parts: 1) a comparative institutional mapping and analysis of vocational and labour-market policies in all educational regimes; 2) case studies in nine countries (Austria, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland and the UK (Scotland); 3) quantitative analysis of national and European longitudinal data, revealing how effectively these strategies enhance economic performance and reduce the capability gap for young people.

Website: http://www.workable-eu.org/

11. GINI

The GINI project studied the economic and educational drivers and the social, cultural and political impacts of increasing inequality. The project team made novel contributions on the measurement of income, wealth and education inequality. The research explored differences in inequality levels and inequality trends, between and within countries, to understand their impacts and tease out the implications for policy and institutions. It highlighted the potential effects of individual distributional positions and increasing inequality for a host of 'bad outcomes' (both societal and individual). The project combined an integrated interdisciplinary approach, improved methodologies, an enhanced understanding of inequality. Wide range of countries were covered in this project, including all EU countries (except Cyprus and Malta), Australia, Canada, Japan, and the USA.

Website: http://www.gini-research.org/articles/home

12. GOETE

The project Governance of Educational Trajectories in Europe (GOETE) analysed how educational trajectories of young people in Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia, and the United Kingdom are being regulated and how decisions are taken at individual, school and policy level. The study covered the period from transition into lower secondary education to transition into upper secondary education/vocational education and training, i.e. the age group between 10 and 16 years. Comparative analysis focused on the regulation of access to education, of support measures for coping with education and

of securing the relevance of education for social integration and the labour market. The study combined a life course with a governance perspective which was applied to the dimensions of access to education, young people's coping with education and the relevance different actors ascribe to education. The complex interactions between social structure and individual agency were analysed by a mix-methods design integrating qualitative and quantitative research methods, such as desk research, institutional survey, individual survey, expert interviews and case studies.

Website: http://www.goete.eu/

13. NEUJOBS

The overall aim of the research project NEUJOBS was to analyse the possible developments of EU labour market. Particularly this project took into account four transitions that are challenging EU modern society: 1) the socioecological transition, which concerns the overall evolution of the society both on the organization side both on the cultural side; 2) a societal transition, which include changes in terms of ages, fertility, family structure, urbanization and female employment; 3) the skill transition towards a more literate society; 4) and, finally, the territorial transition, such as the modification of the spatial architecture of the economy. NEUJOBS involved 29 partners, coordinated by the Centre for European Policy Studies (CEPS) in Brussels. The project covered 14 EU Member States: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovakia, and the United Kingdom. The project team applied a mixed methodology strategy, including qualitative and quantitative approaches. The analysis was built on the data from the literature review, as well as data gathered during the project. The special focus was given to the work package dedicated to welfare states development and labour relations, as well as the constitution of a crosswise task force at EU policy level.

Website: http://www.neujobs.eu/

14. COPE

The main objective of COPE's analysis were to picture poverty and social exclusion in Europe, to examine the complex governance structure of European, national and local policies of minimum income schemes, and to assess their impact on the beneficiaries. The COPE project united experienced researchers and stakeholders from six European countries, including Germany, Italy, Norway, Poland, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. Specifically, the project investigated how the six countries under study organise the link between different political dimensions (i.e. social and employment policies, but also family policies, training etc.), different stakeholders (i.e. public, private and civil society) and different politico-administrative levels (i.e. European, national regional and local) in order to combat poverty and social exclusion. Problem-centred interviews with long-term unemployed, working poor and single parents, who have received income benefits in the past five years, were one of the key methods in this project.

Website: http://cope-research.eu/

15. LLLight'in'Europe

The aim of the LLLIGHT'in'EUROPE project was to provide evidence on how human capital is created through Lifelong Learning activities by individuals, companies and public bodies across Europe, as well as develop recommendations for individuals, companies and economies on how to best invest their Lifelong Learning resources to maximize individual and collective economic and social well-being. During the project the research team investigated the following questions: a) How do successful enterprises actively employ Lifelong Learning for their competitive advantage?; b) Which public policy environments facilitate Lifelong Learning for such enterprises and entrepreneurs?; c) How does Lifelong Learning interact with and promote

innovativeness on the enterprise level?; d) How much of which skills do European adults actually have?; what are the actual learning mechanisms in adult life that lead to these skills?; e) What are the causal effects of these skills on growth, competitiveness and social cohesion? As part of the project, a new and innovative approach – Complex Problem Solving skills (CPS) was used to measure human capital.

Website: http://www.lllightineurope.com/home/

16. ImPRovE

'Poverty Reduction in Europe: Social Policy and Innovation' (ImPRovE) was an international research project that brought together ten research institutes and a broad network of researchers to study poverty, social policy and social innovation in Europe. The ImPRovE project focused on improvement of the basis for evidence-based policy making in Europe, both in the short and in the long term. The two central questions driving the IMPROVE project were: 'How can social cohesion be achieved in Europe?' and 'How can social innovation complement, reinforce and modify macro-level policies and vice versa?'. More specifically, IMPROVE had a strong policy focus on a) evaluating tax-benefit systems in reducing poverty and inequality in the past; b) scrutinizing the effect of the crisis and austerity measures on poverty and income inequality; c) assessing the effectiveness and efficiency of targeted vs universal (child) benefits; d) identifying policy designs of childcare provisions with the most beneficial effects in terms of income inequality, female employment decisions and poverty; e) mapping the adequacy of minimum income protection schemes in Europe; developing and evaluating several budget-neutral policy scenarios that contribute to meeting the EU 2020 social inclusion target under different scenarios of employment growth; f) and carrying out topical analyses of vulnerable groups: migrants, Roma, young people, nonstandard workers, the poor and deprived. The project was built on state-of-the-art methodologies.

Website: http://improve-research.eu/

17. CITISPYCE

The research project CITISPYCE examined the state of social innovation against inequalities faced by young people, explored socially innovative practices being developed by and for young people in urban areas, and tested the transferability of local models of innovative practice in order to develop new policy approaches. CITISPYCE brought together stakeholders from civil society experienced in practical policy-making and implementation with well-established academic researchers. The project programme included a base line study into the current state of play in 10 countries (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom) between the EU, fieldwork focusing at the micro-level of individual practices and local communities, the identification of socially innovative practices and the active piloting of those which may be transferable.

Website: http://www.aston.ac.uk/lss/research/research-centres/ccisc/power-inequality-and-justice/citispyce/

18. RESL.eu

The Resl.eu-project (2013 – 2018) studies the processes of early school leaving from an all-factors perspective searching for new insights on various levels (macro, meso and micro) and applied various methodologies (document review, survey, ethnographic research) to generate broad and in-depth comprehension of this complex issue. This project also seeks to study and evaluate good practices that reduce ESL and help pupils and youngsters. The project involves nine countries across Europe: Austria, Belgium, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The Resl.eu-

project applies mixed-method design, using both qualitative and quantitative strategies. The research design includes surveys, qualitative interviews and focus group discussions.

Website: https://www.uantwerpen.be/en/projects/resl-eu/

19. CARE

CARE is a collaborative project funded by the European Union to address issues related to the quality, inclusiveness, and individual, social, and economic benefits of Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) in Europe. The project started in January 2014 and will continue until December 2016. The key objective of the CARE is to develop an evidence-based and culture-sensitive European framework of developmental goals, quality assessment, curriculum approaches, and policy measures for improving the quality and effectiveness of early childhood education and care. The interdisciplinary project team will construct this framework, based on the competencies and skills that young children need to develop in current societies. The project also seeks to identify the conditions that have to be fulfilled to promote child development and wellbeing, and strategies, policy measures that support access to high-quality provisions. During this project the researchers expect to identify strategies and policy measures that are likely to receive broad support from families, professionals, and policymakers, thereby enhancing the impact of early childhood education and care. Cost-benefit analysis of early childhood education and care will be conducted.

Website: http://ecec-care.org/

20. SI-DRIVE

SI-DRIVE is a research project that aims to explore the relationship between social innovation and social change. The key objectives of this project are: a) to determine the nature, characteristics and impacts of social innovation as key elements of a new paradigm of innovation (strengthen the theoretical and empirical base of social innovation as part of a wider concept of innovation that thoroughly integrates social dimensions); b) to map, analyse and promote social innovations in Europe and world regions to better understand and enable social innovations and their capacity for changing societies; c) to identify and assess success as well as failure factors of social innovation in seven particular policy areas, supporting reciprocal empowerment in various countries and social groups to engage in SI for development, working towards Europe 2020 targets and sustainable development (e.g. Millennium Development Goals (MDG)); and d) to undertake future-oriented policy-driven research, analyse barriers and drivers for social innovation; develop tools and instruments for policy interventions. SI-DRIVE involves 15 partners from 12 EU Member States and 10 from other parts of the world. The project team carries out in-depth analyses and case studies in seven policy fields, including cross European and world region comparisons, foresight and policy round tables. The timeframe of the project is January 2014 – December 2017.

Website: https://www.si-drive.eu/

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